

REPUBLIC OF TÜRKİYE
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

**TRANSLANGUAGING-INTEGRATED WRITING PROCEDURES AND
ACTIVITIES WITHIN A TERTIARY CONTEXT IN TÜRKİYE**

Zeynep CEYHAN BİNGÖL

Ph.D. DISSERTATION

ADANA / 2024

**REPUBLIC OF TÜRKİYE
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**TRANSLANGUAGING-INTEGRATED WRITING PROCEDURES AND
ACTIVITIES WITHIN A TERTIARY CONTEXT IN TÜRKİYE**

Zeynep CEYHAN BİNGÖL

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Yonca ÖZKAN

Member of Examining Committee: Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Meryem AKÇAYOĞLU

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Elif KEMALOĞLU ER

Ph.D. DISSERTATION

ADANA / 2024

To ukurova University Institute of Social Sciences;

We certify that this thesis is satisfactory for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of English Language Teaching.

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Yonca ZKAN

Member of the Examining Committee: Prof. Dr. Erdoęan BADA

Member of the Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Elif KEMALOęLU ER

I certify that this thesis conforms to the formal standards of the Institute of Social Sciences.
.../.../2024

Prof. Dr. Hseyin GLER
Director of Institute

P.S. The uncited usage of the reports, charts, figures, and photographs in this thesis, whether original or quoted for mother sources, is subject to the Law of Works of Arts and thoughts no: 5846.

NOT: Bu tezde kullanılan ve baŗka kaynaktan yapılan bildiriŗlerin, izelge, ŗekil ve fotoęrafların kaynak gsterilmeden kullanımı, 5846 sayılı Fikir ve Sanat Eserleri Kanunu'ndaki hkmlere tabidir.

ETİK BEYANI

Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Tez Yazım Kurallarına uygun olarak hazırladığım bu tez çalışmada;

- Tez içinde sunduğum verileri, bilgileri ve dokümanları akademik ve etik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi,
- Tüm bilgi, belge, değerlendirme ve sonuçları bilimsel etik ve ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu,
- Tez çalışmada yararlandığım eserlerin tümüne uygun atıfta bulunarak kaynak gösterdiğimi,
- Kullanılan verilerde ve ortaya çıkan sonuçlarda herhangi bir değişiklik yapmadığımı,
- Bu tezde sunduğum çalışmanın özgün olduğunu,

bildirir, aksi bir durumda aleyhime doğabilecek tüm hak kayıplarını kabullendiğimi beyan ederim. / / 2024

Zeynep CEYHAN BİNGÖL

ABSTRACT**TRANSLANGUAGING-INTEGRATED WRITING PROCEDURES AND
ACTIVITIES WITHIN A TERTIARY CONTEXT IN TÜRKİYE****Zeynep CEYHAN BİNGÖL****Ph.D. Thesis, Department of English Language Teaching****Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Yonca ÖZKAN****November 2024, 233 pages**

Translanguaging has captured attention for its capacity to augment language learning, specifically when English is learned as a foreign language, since it enables learners to fully utilize their linguistic repertoires, creating a more inclusive and efficient learning environment. However, there is a lack of study on translanguaging techniques in the Turkish context with English medium instruction (EMI) writing classrooms despite the increasing studies on translanguaging and its applications worldwide. Therefore, this study examines whether there is a significant difference between the paragraph writing performance of the participants exposed to translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities and the participants exposed to English-only pre-writing brainstorming activities at the tertiary level in Türkiye. Moreover, it also aims to present the EFL learners' views and experiences and the researcher/instructor's observation about implementing translanguaging during pre-writing sessions. The study employs a quasi-experimental pre-test-post-test nonequivalent groups design to assess the influence of translanguaging on the paragraph writing performance of pre-intermediate EFL learners. The participants were 41 EFL learners studying at a compulsory school of foreign languages in a tertiary-level EFL context with EMI in Türkiye, 22 of whom were in the control group while 19 were in the treatment group. The control group had pre-writing sessions with EMI and was encouraged to speak English during writing classes, whereas the treatment group had translanguaging-integrated pre-writing sessions, enabling the instructor and students to use their first language, Turkish, in the context. Both groups followed the same pacing, used the same coursebook, and completed the same paragraph writing assignments based on the writing assessment criteria prepared by the school. The quantitative and qualitative data include pre-test and post-test paragraph writing scores,

open-ended questionnaires, activity reflection logs, and the researcher's journals.

The findings revealed that the students in the treatment group scored higher in all the tasks, including pre-test and post-test scores, with some statistically significant differences, showing that integrating translanguaging improves the paragraph writing performance of EFL students. Providing opportunities for EFL learners to utilize their mother tongue and the target language resulted in improved academic performance for the learners to enhance their English paragraph writing, as translanguaging facilitates cooperative learning, eliminates linguistic obstacles, and enhances comprehension, fostering a nurturing learning environment. This study, consistent with Sociocultural Theory, emphasized the significance of social interaction and scaffolding in cognitive development. The findings also indicated that integrating translanguaging resulted in a change in perceptions of the writing classes, translanguaging integration, language preference in writing classes, use of the first language, benefits, and challenges of English paragraph writing, and cooperation in writing classes. Furthermore, translanguaging enabled the learners to participate actively, switch between Turkish and English, and cooperate for specific reasons. Therefore, the current research suggests that utilizing translanguaging in pre-writing activities in EFL classrooms can be an effective technique to improve language learning and enhance paragraph writing skills. Educators should consider incorporating translanguaging techniques to assist diverse learners and enhance academic achievements in multilingual contexts.

Keywords: Sociocultural theory, English language teaching, tertiary level, EFL writing, translanguaging.

ÖZET

TÜRKİYE’DE YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM BAĞLAMINDA DİLLERARASI-GEÇİŞLİLİK İLE BÜTÜNLEMİŞ YAZMA SÜRECİ VE ETKİNLİKLERİ

Zeynep CEYHAN BİNGÖL

Doktora Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü

Danışman: Prof. Dr. Yonca ÖZKAN

Kasım 2024, 233 sayfa

Dillerarası-geçişlilik, özellikle İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğrenildiği durumlarda, dil öğrenimini arttırma kapasitesi nedeniyle dikkat çekmektedir, çünkü bu yaklaşım, öğrencilerin dil repertuarlarını tam olarak kullanmalarına olanak tanır ve daha kapsayıcı ve verimli bir öğrenme ortamı yaratır. Ancak, çeşitli bağlamlarda dillerarası-geçişlilik ve uygulamalarını konu alan çalışmalara rağmen, Türkiye bağlamında öğretim dili İngilizce olan İngilizce yazma dersi sınıflarında dillerarası-geçişlilik uygulamaları ile alakalı yeterli çalışma bulunmamaktadır. Bu bağlamda, bu doktora tezi, Türkiye’de yüksek öğrenim düzeyinde, dillerarası-geçişlilik ile bütünleşmiş yazım öncesi beyin fırtınası etkinliklerini ve sadece İngilizce kullanarak yazım öncesi beyin fırtınası etkinliklerini deneyimleyen öğrencilerin İngilizce paragraf yazma performansları arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını incelemektedir. Ayrıca, bu çalışma İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin görüş ve deneyimleri ile araştırmacı/öğretim görevlisinin yazım öncesi süreçlerdeki dillerarası-geçişlilik uygulamaları deneyimlerini sunmayı da hedeflemektedir. Bu tez çalışmasında, dillerarası-geçişliliğin İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen ön orta düzeydeki öğrencilerin paragraf yazma performansı üzerindeki etkisini değerlendirmek için ön-test son-test eşdeğer olmayan gruplar deseni kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar, 22 kişi kontrol ve 19 kişi uygulama grubunda olmak üzere, Türkiye’deki bir yüksek öğrenim düzeyinde, zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık programında İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrenciler olmuştur. Kontrol grubu, yazım öncesi süreci sadece İngilizce kullanarak ve İngilizce konuşmaya teşvik edilerek tamamlarken, uygulama grubu, öğretim görevlisinin ve öğrencilerin bağlam içinde anadil, yani Türkçe, kullanmalarına olanak tanıyan dillerarası-geçişlilik ile bütünleşmiş yazım öncesi süreci deneyimlemiştir. Her iki grup da aynı ders işleme hızını takip etmiş, aynı kitabı kullanmış

ve okul tarafından hazırlanan yazma değerlendirme kriterlerine dayalı olarak aynı paragraf yazma görevlerini tamamlamıştır. Çalışmadaki nitel ve nicel veriler, ön-test ve son-test İngilizce paragraf yazma puanlarını, açık uçlu anketleri, etkinlik yansıtma günlüklerini ve araştırmacı günlüklerini içermektedir.

Bulgular, uygulama grubundaki öğrencilerin, tüm paragraf yazma görevlerinde daha yüksek puanlar aldığını ve uygulama öncesi ve sonrasını da içeren bazı puanların istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılıklar gösterdiğini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu da, dillerarası-geçişlilik entegrasyonunun, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin paragraf yazma performansını geliştirdiğini göstermektedir. Öğrencilere dillerarası-geçişlilik fırsatları sunmak, öğrencilerin hedef dildeki paragraf yazımlarını geliştirmekte ve akademik performanslarını arttırmaktadır. Bu artışın sebepleri, dillerarası-geçişliliğin işbirlikçi öğrenmeyi kolaylaştırması, dile bağlı engelleri ortadan kaldırması ve anlama yetisini arttırarak destekleyici bir öğrenme ortamı oluşturmaktır. Sosyokültürel teoriyi baz alan bu çalışma, bilişsel gelişimde sosyal etkileşim ve desteklemenin önemini vurgulamaktadır. Bulgular, dillerarası-geçişliliğin, öğrencilerin yazma derslerine dair algılarında bir değişim yarattığını ve yazma derslerindeki dil tercihi, anadil kullanımı, İngilizce paragraf yazmanın faydaları ve zorlukları ile öğrenciler arası iş birliğini etkilediğini de göstermektedir. İltave, dillerarası-geçişlilik, öğrencilerin aktif bir şekilde katılım göstermelerini, anadil ile hedef dil arasında geçiş yapmalarını ve belirli nedenlerle iş birliği yapmalarını sağlamaktadır. Bu araştırma, İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği sınıflarda, yazım öncesi süreçte dillerarası-geçişlilik kullanmanın dil öğrenimini geliştirmek ve paragraf yazma becerilerini arttırmak için etkili bir teknik olabileceğini önermektedir. Bu nedenle, öğretmenlerin, öğrencilere yardımcı olmak ve çok-dilli bağlamlarda öğrencilerin akademik başarılarını arttırmak için dillerarası-geçişlilik uygulamalarına başvurmaları hedeflenmektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Sosyokültürel teori, İngiliz dili eğitimi, yüksek öğrenim, İngilizce yazma becerisinin öğretimi, dillerarası-geçişlilik.



For my dear daughter,
Sezgi Aden,
whose joyful spirit, cute smile,
and enchanting dimples
have been my most trustworthy inspiration

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my gratitude to all those who have consistently supported me during my PhD journey, which has been filled with ups and downs, and who have guided me to realize my academic potential.

First and foremost, I am deeply grateful to my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Yonca ÖZKAN, whose supervision and guidance have been essential throughout my academic journey, starting from my MA and continuing through the PhD. Her remarkable expertise and commitment to academic excellence have always inspired me, and her steadfast support has been a constant source of motivation. I especially appreciate her availability and willingness to help whenever needed, which has made a remarkable difference in my study and growth as a scholar. Among all Ph.D. students, I count myself among the fortunate few to have her as my supervisor. She is my four-leaf clover in this city and the key to my academic success.

I owe infinitely many thanks to my thesis committee members, Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ. Throughout this journey, they have offered continuous support, insightful feedback, and encouragement each step of the way. Their dedication and willingness to assist whenever needed have significantly impacted my study, and I am deeply grateful for their contributions to my academic growth. I also owe special thanks to my committee member, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Meryem AKÇAYOĞLU for her remarkable recommendations and contributions to the study. She inspires when you need a boost to continue. Additionally, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my committee member, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Elif KEMALOĞLU-ER for her invaluable support, excellent ideas, knowledge in the field, and sincerity. Her commitment to exploration, production, sharing, and teaching profoundly inspires me.

Finally, I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my family, my husband, Mehmet Can, and my precious little one, Sezgi Aden. I am deeply grateful to my husband and daughter for their unwavering support through those years. His patience, everlasting love, understanding, and encouragement have been my constant source of strength. At the same time, my little one's feel-good dimples have been a true inspiration, bringing light and joy into even the most challenging moments. This work is a small reflection of the dreams I hold for you and the hope that you will always follow your passions with courage and joy. I cannot explain how lucky I am to have you as my family. I love you

both.

Moreover, I am eternally grateful to my mother, Leyla; my father, Mustafa; my brother, Zafer; my nephew, Emir Asaf; and my sister-in-law, Ayşegül, as they are always there to support me. I am endlessly grateful to my mom, dad, and brother for shaping everything that defines me today. I find it challenging to articulate my deep feelings for them. They are consistently present when I genuinely need them, and I am confident they will always stand by me, regardless of my location or the time. My affection for them is beyond words! Additionally, I am thankful to my mother-in-law and father-in-law for their support, especially for caring for my daughter during my working and studying hours.

I am proud to express my gratitude to my best friends, friends, colleagues, students, and everyone who encouraged, supported, and put up with me throughout my PhD journey. I still cannot believe I managed to finish it!

This dissertation study has been supported by the Çukurova University Research Fund under the project number SDK-2021-13698.

Zeynep CEYHAN BİNGÖL

Adana / 2024

TABLE OF CONTENTS

abstract	iv
Özet	vi
Acknowledgement	ix
Table Of Contents	xi
Abbreviations	xvi
List Of Tables	xvii
List Of Figures	xxi
List Of Appendices.....	xxii

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

1.1. Statement of the Problem.....	1
1.2. Aims of the Study	6
1.3. Significance of the Study	7
1.4. Definition of key Terms.....	8
1.5. Overview of the Study	10

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Sociocultural Theory.....	12
2.1.1. Zone of Proximal Development.....	13
2.1.2. Scaffolding.....	13
2.1.3. Exploratory Talk	15
2.2. Language Education: Monolingual, Bilingual, and Multilingual	16
2.2.1. English As A Second Language (ESL) Or English As A Foreign Language (EFL)	19
2.2.2. English As A Foreign Language: A Brief History	22
2.2.2.1. First Language in EFL.....	24
2.2.2.2. English Medium Instruction (EMI).....	27
2.3. Translanguaging.....	30
2.3.1. Different Approaches To Translanguaging	35
2.3.2. Related Concepts	38

2.3.3. Translanguaging Pedagogy.....	40
2.4. Writing in EFL.....	46
2.4.1. Brainstorming As A Pre-Writing Activity.....	48
2.4.2. Writing And Translanguaging	50
2.5. SCT and Translanguaging	54
2.6. Related Studies	57

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Questions.....	66
3.2. Research Paradigm	67
3.3. Research Design	68
3.4. Setting	69
3.5. Participants.....	70
3.6. The Translanguaging Integration Into the Pre-Writing Activities.....	73
3.7. Data Collection Tools	76
3.7.1. Quantitative data of the study	77
3.7.1.1. Paragraph writing scores of the achievement exams	78
3.7.1.2. Paragraph writing assignment scores	78
3.7.2. Qualitative data of the study	78
3.7.2.1. Open-ended questionnaires	79
3.7.2.1.1. Open-ended questionnaire I	79
3.7.2.1.2. Open-ended questionnaire II.....	80
3.7.2.2. Researcher's field notes	80
3.7.2.3. Activity reflection logs.....	81
3.8. Data Collection Procedure	81
3.8.1. Pilot study	81
3.8.1.1. Pilot study participants	83
3.8.1.2. Pilot study findings.....	83
3.8.1.3. Changes after the piloting	86
3.8.2. Main data collection procedure	88
3.9. Data Analysis.....	89
3.9.1. The Analysis of Quantitative Data	89

3.9.2. The analysis of qualitative data	90
3.10. Trustworthiness of the Study	92
3.11. Ethical Considerations	95
3.12. Researcher Reflectivity	97

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Findings Related to the First Research Question	100
4.1.1. The pre-test scores	100
4.1.2. The paragraph writing scores during the study	103
4.1.2.1. The scores of the first paragraph writing assignment	103
4.1.2.2. The scores of the second paragraph writing assignment	106
4.1.2.3. The scores of the third paragraph writing assignment	108
4.1.2.4. The scores of the fourth paragraph writing assignment	110
4.1.2.5. The scores of the fifth paragraph writing assignment	112
4.1.2.6. The scores of the sixth paragraph writing assignment	114
4.1.2.7. The scores of the seventh paragraph writing assignment	116
4.1.3. The post-test scores	119
4.2. Findings Related to the Second Research Question	121
4.2.1. The treatment group's views on paragraph writing before the study	121
4.2.2. The treatment group's views on the first assignment	125
4.2.3. The treatment group's views on the second assignment	128
4.2.4. The treatment group's views on the third assignment	132
4.2.5. The treatment group's views on the fourth assignment	132
4.2.6. The treatment group's views on the fifth assignment	132
4.2.7. The treatment group's views on the sixth assignment	135
4.2.8. The treatment group's views on the seventh assignment	138
4.2.9. The treatment group's views after the implementation	140
4.3. Findings Related to the Third Research Questions	145
4.3.1. Participation in the pre-writing sessions	145
4.3.2. Language preferences in the pre-writing sessions	146
4.3.3. The reasons to collaborate	147

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. The Effects of Translanguaging Integration on The Paragraph Writing Performance	149
5.2. Turkish EFL Learners' Views on Translanguaging-Integrated Pre-Writing Activities.....	155
5.2.1. The views on writing classes before and after translanguaging integration	155
5.2.2. The views on language preference before and after translanguaging integration.....	156
5.2.3. The views on cooperation before and after translanguaging integration.....	157
5.2.4. The views on L1 before, during, and after translanguaging integration.....	159
5.2.5. The views on writing tasks with pre-writing translanguaging integration ..	161
5.2.6. The views on the benefits of writing tasks with translanguaging integration.....	162
5.2.7. The views on the challenges of writing tasks with translanguaging integration.....	164
5.2.8. The recommendations for the writing tasks with translanguaging integration.....	165
5.3. The Observation of the Researcher About Translanguaging Pedagogy	166
5.3.1. Participation in the pre-writing sessions	166
5.3.2. Language preferences in the pre-writing sessions	167
5.3.3. The reasons to collaborate	169

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

6.1. The Effects of Translanguaging on the Paragraph Writing Performance.....	171
6.2. Turkish Efl Learners' Views on Translanguaging-Integrated Pre-Writing Activities.....	174
6.3. The Observation of the Researcher About Translanguaging Pedagogy	180
6.4. Implications of the Study	181
6.5. Limitations of the Study	182
6.6. Suggestions for Future Studies	183

REFERENCES.....	185
APPENDICES.....	214
CURRICULUM VITAE.....	231



ABBREVIATIONS

- EFL:** English as a foreign language
EMI: English medium instruction
ESL: English as a second language
L1: First language, mother tongue
L2: Second language
SCT: Sociocultural theory
TL: Target language
ZPD: Zone of proximal development



LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Changing Viewpoints.....	23
Table 2. The profile of the control group in the study	71
Table 3. The profile of the treatment group in the study	72
Table 4. Data collection methods of the study	77
Table 5. The profile of the participants in the pilot study	83
Table 6. The pre-test and post-test writing assignment scores in the pilot study.....	84
Table 7. The comparison of the paragraph writing scores in the pilot study	84
Table 8. Wilcoxon test results of the pre-test and post-test scores of the piloting roup.....	85
Table 9. The normality test of the pre-test writing scores.....	101
Table 10. The control group's pre-test writing scores	101
Table 11. The treatment group's pre-test writing scores.....	102
Table 12. Levene's test for the pre-test writing scores	103
Table 13. The normality test of the first assignment scores.....	104
Table 14. The control group's first assignment scores	104
Table 15. The treatment group's first assignment scores.....	105
Table 16. Levene's test for the first assignment scores	106
Table 17. The normality test of the second assignment scores	106
Table 18. The control group's second assignment scores.....	107
Table 19. The treatment group's second assignment scores	107
Table 20. Levene's test for the second assignment scores.....	108
Table 21. The normality test of the third assignment scores.....	108
Table 22. The control group's third assignment scores	109
Table 23. The treatment group's third assignment scores.....	109
Table 24. Levene's test for the third assignment scores	110
Table 25. The normality test of the fourth assignment scores	110
Table 26. The control group's fourth assignment scores	111
Table 27. The treatment group's fourth assignment scores	111
Table 28. Levene's test for the fourth assignment scores	112
Table 29. The normality test of the fifth assignment scores	112
Table 30. The control group's fifth assignment scores	113
Table 31. The treatment group's fifth assignment scores	113

Table 32. Mann Whitney-U test for the fifth assignment scores	114
Table 33. The normality test of the sixth assignment scores	114
Table 34. The control group's sixth assignment scores	115
Table 35. The treatment group's sixth assignment scores	115
Table 36. Levene's test for the sixth assignment scores	116
Table 37. The normality test of the seventh assignment scores	117
Table 38. The control group's seventh assignment scores.....	117
Table 39. The treatment group's seventh assignment scores.....	118
Table 40. Mann Whitney-U test for the seventh assignment scores	118
Table 41. The normality test of the post-test writing scores	119
Table 42. The control group's post-test writing scores.....	119
Table 43. The treatment group's post-test writing scores	120
Table 44. Levene's test for the post-test writing score	121
Table 45. The general views of the treatment group about the writing classes before the implementation.....	121
Table 46. The treatment group's views on the benefits of English paragraph writing before the implementation.....	122
Table 47. The treatment group's views on the challenges of English paragraph writing before the implementation.....	123
Table 48. The treatment group's language preferences in writing classes before the implementation.....	123
Table 49. The treatment group's views on Turkish effects in writing classes before the implementation.....	124
Table 50. The treatment group's views on cooperation with classmates before the implementation.....	125
Table 51. The treatment group's general views on the first writing assignment	125
Table 52. The treatment group's views on the benefits of the first writing assignment.....	126
Table 53. The treatment group's views on the challenges of the first writing assignment.....	127
Table 54. The treatment group's views on Turkish effects on the first assignment	127
Table 55. The treatment group's suggestions to make the first assignment more effective	128
Table 56. The treatment group's general views on the second writing assignment	129

Table 57. The treatment group's views on the benefits of the second writing assignment.....	129
Table 58. The treatment group's views on the challenges of the second writing assignment.....	130
Table 59. The treatment group's views on Turkish effects on the second assignment	131
Table 60. The treatment group's suggestions to make the second assignment more effective	131
Table 61. The treatment group's general views on the fifth writing assignment.....	132
Table 62. The treatment group's views on the benefits of the fifth writing assignment.....	133
Table 63. The treatment group's views on the challenges of the fifth writing assignment.....	134
Table 64. The treatment group's views on Turkish effects on the fifth assignment....	134
Table 65. The treatment group's suggestions to make the fifth assignment more effective	135
Table 66. The treatment group's general views on the sixth writing assignment.....	136
Table 67. The treatment group's views on the benefits of the sixth writing assignment.....	136
Table 68. The treatment group's views on the challenges of the sixth writing assignment.....	137
Table 69. The treatment group's views on Turkish effects on the sixth assignment...	137
Table 70. The treatment group's suggestions to make the sixth assignment more effective	138
Table 71. The treatment group's general views on the seventh writing assignment ...	138
Table 72. The treatment group's views on the benefits of the seventh writing assignment.....	139
Table 73. The treatment group's views on the challenges of the seventh writing assignment.....	139
Table 74. The treatment group's views on Turkish effects on the seventh assignment	139
Table 75. The treatment group's suggestions to make the seventh assignment more effective	140
Table 76. The general views of the treatment group about the writing classes after the implementation.....	141

Table 77. The treatment group's views on the benefits of English paragraph writing after the implementation.....	142
Table 78. The treatment group's views on the challenges of English paragraph writing after the implementation.....	143
Table 79. The treatment group's language preferences in writing classes after the implementation.....	143
Table 80. The treatment group's views on Turkish effects in writing classes after the implementation.....	144
Table 81. The treatment group's views on cooperation through brainstorming with classmates after the implementation	145



LIST OF FIGURES

- Figure 1.** A shot obtained from the treatment group's board during pre-writing activity 75
- Figure 2.** A shot obtained from the control group's board during pre-writing activity . 76



LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Writing Grading Criteria Protocol	214
Appendix B: Questionnaire I Protocol	216
Appendix C: Questionnaire II Protocol	219
Appendix D: Activity Reflection Log Protocol	223
Appendix E: The Ethics Committee Approval of Adana Alparslan Türkeş Science and Technology University	225
Appendix F: The Ethics Committee Approval of Çukurova University	226
Appendix G: Informed Consent Protocol	228



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Technological advancements have contributed to the globalization of bilingualism and multilingualism, significantly impacting global communication, which results in the emergence of bilingual or multilingual societies with people who are either born bilingual or multilingual. Many individuals are multilingual, and bilingualism has given way to multilingualism, necessitating the adoption of new views in language education (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García, 2009).

Some crucial studies have shaped discussions on multilingualism in the last 50 years. In the early 1980s, Cummins (1981) proposed the 'Common Underlying Proficiency' model, claiming that language learners' repertoires are fed from a single brain area functioning as a central engine. The model states that abilities developed in one's mother tongue (L1) can transfer to other language repertoires (Cummins, 1981). In a follow-up study, Cummins (1984) expanded the model by proposing the 'Interdependence Hypothesis,' which contends that proficiency in a second language (L2) and other languages is related to proficiency in one's L1. Similarly, Cook (1991) established 'Multicompetence' by proposing that multilingual individuals must be considered complete rather than inadequate monolinguals. Later, Stern (1992) implies through 'The Three-dimensional Framework' that the connection between L1 and L2 is indisputable and that integrating L1 to L2 classes is required. Grosjean (1992) also alleged that bilinguals switch between monolingual and bilingual modes rather than maintaining distinct language use. According to Grosjean (1997), people utilize their language repertoires to communicate with people from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds in various circumstances and for different reasons, called Grosjean's 'Complementarity Principle' prominence. Following this, Larsen-Freeman (1997) asserts that language teaching and learning are multifaceted procedures affected by various elements, including the learners, the environment, and the native tongue. Learners acquiring other languages employ their linguistic repertoire by combining and drawing on the linguistic aspects of the target language (TL) and the languages they know to learn languages successfully (Hornberger & Link, 2012).

Based on Grosjean's ideas (1989, 1992), Williams (1994) first used *translanguaging* in the PhD dissertation. The original term was 'Trawsieithu' initially in the Welsh language, focusing on the results of utilizing output in a different language while using the input in a different one (Williams, 1994). Later, Baker translated the term into English as 'translinguifying' and then as translanguaging, meaning that the first pedagogical translanguaging studies were those of William and Baker (Baker, 2001, 2011). Those studies were conducted in different bilingual contexts, referring to the organized, methodological, and valuable applications of the two languages in school settings.

In the later years, translanguaging has become more remarkable with more studies (García, 2009; García & Wei, 2014a; 2014b). García (2009) added a sociolinguistic perspective to translanguaging discussions and suggested 'dynamic bilingualism.' Dynamic bilingualism challenges the monoglossic perspective of bilingualism, viewing acquiring a new language as an additive (García, 2009). In the following years, García and Wei (2014a, 2014b) explained that there is only one language system, so bilinguals' linguistic activities are intricate and linked; they do not develop linearly or serve distinct purposes. Beyond linguistic hierarchies, translanguaging is a natural act among recognized languages as a shared repertoire (Otheguy, García & Reid, 2015). Translanguaging, in its broadest sense, refers to fluid, dynamic, and spontaneous communicative actions of bilingual and multilingual people to make meaning and convey information in real life, as well as the strategically and deliberately used pedagogy by teachers to give learners opportunities to use their entire linguistic repertoire in the learning process (Palfreyman & Van der Walt, 2017). Translanguaging denotes that language learners' linguistic and cultural expertise is essential to their success in language learning (Flores, 2020). Acquiring a new language might benefit from the knowledge of one's first or previous language, making it crucial for learning a foreign language (Wei, 2022).

In the 21st century, communication is only possible if one considers all the various signs and modes during an interaction. In reality, translanguaging helps us understand the multilingual world. (García, 2009). Meaning-making is not based on different languages; signs are significant in communicating beyond borders (Rymes, 2010). Creese and Blackledge (2015) highlight that many individuals cross boundaries every day; in addition to the development of technology, various linguistic resources have become available, enabling communication to be fluid. Based on translanguaging, switching and

combining languages is a frequent and expected behavior of multilingual people, widely apparent in the 2020s (İlhan, 2022).

Language classrooms have moved from monolingualism to translanguaging in the 21st century (García, 2009). Over time, extensive literature has developed on using the L1 in foreign language education (Cummins, 2007; Hamid & Honan, 2012; Moore, 2013). Recently, more scholars have started to favor the use of language learners' L1 in the classroom and oppose monolingual English instruction through 'linguistically appropriate teaching practices', 'linguistically responsive teaching practices', a 'multilingual lens' or a 'translanguaging turn' (Chumak-Horbatsch, 2012; Cummins & Persad, 2014; García & Wei, 2014b; Lucas & Villegas, 2013).

The primary hindrance to implementing translanguaging pedagogy in English as a foreign language (EFL) settings has been the concurrent monolingualism perspective, which led many educators to perceive language instruction as non-bilingual. However, teaching English instruction cannot be carried out in complete isolation from other languages since learners' translanguaging is constant (García, Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017). Research has also shown that even though many instructors and learners are not proponents of L1 use in an EFL context, it is frequently their regular practice in action (Burton & Rajendram, 2019; Caldas, 2019; Küçük, 2018; Rajendram, 2021). Since translanguaging rejects conventional dichotomies, like native and non-native speakers, it not only enables language learners to use language in a creative way but also strives for bilingualism through a combining approach instead of omitting existing languages, it is pertinent to teaching foreign languages (Wei, 2011b; Wei & Ho, 2018).

Translanguaging is also consistent with the principles of ELF-aware pedagogy. This perspective in English teaching, particularly within EFL contexts, recognizes that the use of students' L1/s and additional languages reflects the reality of plurilingualism and can be a resource for both teachers and learners when needed (Biricik Deniz, Kemaloğlu-Er, & Özkan, 2020; Kemaloğlu-Er, 2021; Kemaloğlu-Er & Bayyurt, 2018, 2019a, 2019b; Kemaloğlu-Er & Deniz, 2020; Kemaloğlu-Er, Deniz & Özkan, 2024). Therefore, moving away from the traditional approach of prohibiting L1 use in the classroom is essential. L1 is thought to be an asset for bilingual speakers according to ELF-aware pedagogy, and it can be used as an efficient tool to learn and improve English along with students' additional languages. This is because ELF, as a pedagogical perspective, acknowledges the non-native varieties of English in their own right and the non-native users of language with their own unique characteristics (i.e., with their own use of English, L1s and

sociolinguual and sociocultural backgrounds) (Biricik Deniz, Kemaloğlu-Er, & Özkan, 2020; Jenkins, Cogo & Dewey, 2011; Kemaloğlu-Er, 2021; Kemaloğlu-Er & Bayyurt, 2018, 2019a, 2019b; Kemaloğlu-Er & Deniz, 2020; Kemaloğlu-Er, Deniz & Özkan, 2024). Cook (2002) argues that the English classroom is inherently a space for code-switching, as all participants are at least bilingual. Alptekin (2002) emphasizes the role of learners' native language and cultural experiences in developing intercultural communicative competence in English. Similarly, Akbari (2008) suggests that L1 can be a valuable asset in enhancing teaching effectiveness and facilitating communication in the L2 setting. While L1 should not serve as the primary language of instruction, it can perform essential functions such as managing classroom discipline, clarifying instructions for specific activities, and explaining complex grammar points or abstract vocabulary.

Numerous scholars have examined the use of translanguaging teaching in multilingual settings (Anderson, 2017; García & Kleifgen, 2019; Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020; Kleyne & García, 2019; Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2020; Preece, 2022). Yevudey (2015) states that communication in globalization requires competencies in a global language or languages to communicate, work, and cross borders. Wiley and García (2016) also highlight that separating first and second/additional languages in a multilingual world is challenging, so its implication in bilingual education is problematic. A translanguaging approach might be particularly advantageous in providing a more nuanced perspective on language learners who speak English as a second, foreign, or additional language (Lee, 2016).

Translanguaging has been shown to foster deeper thinking, produce different subjectivities, give learners more rigorous content, and develop language and literacy habits for certain academic activities (Kalan, 2022; Kirsch, 2020; Kwihangana, 2021; Nicolarakis & Mitchell, 2023; Tian & Shepard-Carey, 2020). Due to growing research on translanguaging and its benefits, the focus has also shifted to how translanguaging may be incorporated into classrooms to support writing (Adamson & Coulson, 2015; Burke & Holbrook, 2018; Espinosa, Ascenzi-Moreno & Vogel, 2016; Kalan, 2022; Kaufhold, 2018).

It is a reality that English is used as the medium of instruction in many higher education contexts (Raman & Yiğitoğlu, 2015). However, current studies contend that rather than being seen as a barrier to effective implementation, the cultural and language resources of the English medium instruction (EMI) stakeholders should be welcomed

(Dafouz, Hüttner & Smit, 2016). Therefore, scholars have investigated the possible benefits and challenges of utilizing all linguistic repertoires in EMI settings (Tsou & Baker, 2021).

Translanguaging studies have also started to focus on the Turkish context. Previous research in this context revealed that students and teachers use their L1 in EMI school contexts with specific educational aims and functions (Karakaş, 2016; Karakaş, 2023; Kırkgöz, İnci-Kavak, Karakaş & Moran, 2023; Raman & Yiğitoğlu, 2015). Though the studies focus on translanguaging practices in the Turkish context, their findings are preliminary based on the spoken performance of teachers and students.

The studies related to translanguaging have started to become widespread worldwide (e.g., Wang, 2019; Wei, 2022; Zorluel Özer, 2021). However, research examining students' attitudes about employing translanguaging techniques in the classroom needs to be addressed more as they are limited in number (e.g., İlhan, 2022; Karabulut, 2019; Kwihangana, 2021; Wang, 2019). Rivera and Mazak (2017) emphasize the significance of focusing on learners' attitudes toward translanguaging as it establishes the efficacy of a translanguaging pedagogy. Their research indicates that teachers' attempts to implement a translanguaging pedagogy may be ineffective when students or teachers are not open to the idea (Rivera & Mazak, 2017). Moreover, studies dealing with the difficulties experienced by professionals when implementing translanguaging pedagogies are rare (Kirsh, 2020).

Translanguaging studies on EFL contexts in Türkiye at the tertiary level are emergent but limited in number (e.g., Ataş, 2023; İlhan, 2022; Karabulut, 2019; Karakaş, 2023). Moreover, existing research has mainly centered on the spoken mode of language use in class (Akın, 2016; İnci-Kavak, 2016; Özkaynak, 2020). Accordingly, with a different method, context, and aim, only one research study, to the best knowledge of the researcher, centers on translanguaging practices in students' written practices (Karabulut, 2019). However, based on recent research, language learners who write in the target language using translanguaging can comprehend the content more deeply and comprehensively; they can also engage in critical thinking, which is not currently achievable nor stated in the target language-only classes (Espinosa et al., 2016; García & Kleyn, 2016). Therefore, there exists a need for studies integrating translanguaging in class practices in EMI contexts in EFL teaching.

1.2. Aims of the study

There has been a communicative complexity in the 21st century caused by globalization and technology. Therefore, multilingualism and the role of languages in education have become the new research focus (Wiley & García, 2016). In a global and technology-dominant world, language separation does not refer to the communication of multilingual people; therefore, language programs aiming at separation may not be successful (Wiley & García, 2016). Kwihangana (2021) also underlines that using students' various language resources may help increase their motivation and confidence to participate in English learning in class.

Considering the realities of English language learning worldwide as well as the Turkish context, the present study aims to investigate whether there is a significant difference between the paragraph writing performance of the participants exposed to translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities and the participants exposed to English-only pre-writing brainstorming activities at the tertiary level in Türkiye. Additionally, it reflects those EFL learners' views and experiences of utilizing translanguaging pedagogy and the researcher's experiences of translanguaging integration into pre-writing brainstorming activities. The qualitative and quantitative data were collected to seek answers to the following research questions:

1. Is there a (significant) difference between the paragraph writing performance of the participants exposed to translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities and English-only pre-writing brainstorming activities at the tertiary level in Türkiye considering
 - a. Content
 - b. Organization
 - c. Vocabulary
 - d. Grammar
 - e. Mechanics
 - f. Overall score
2. What are the views of Turkish EFL learners exposed to translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities on paragraph writing before, during, and after the implementation?
3. What is the instructor's/researcher's observation about translanguaging-

integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities?

1.3. Significance of the Study

Translanguaging embodies a language pedagogy that recognizes language learners' various and ever-changing practices in their language learning (Vogel & García, 2017). Ke and Lin (2017) indicate the gap in the literature related to translanguaging and English language education. There is a large body of research on translanguaging in the EFL context concentrating on learners' attitudes and views (Burton & Rajendram, 2019; Küçük, 2018; Rajendram, 2021; Wang, 2019). However, despite the growing number of studies in the field, there is a gap in research based on the classroom application of translanguaging outlined by some researchers (Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Galante, 2020a; İlhan, 2022). Therefore, there seems to be an increasing call for more study on classroom Translanguaging (Prilutskaya, 2021). Additionally, there is currently a lack of research on translanguaging methods in Turkish EMI classrooms despite the growing body of literature on the topic and its applications in EMI research (İnci-Kavak & Kırkgöz, 2022; Kırkgöz, Morán, Karakaş & İnci-Kavak, 2021; Küçük, 2018). Therefore, the current study could be one of the significant studies utilizing translanguaging pedagogy in pre-writing brainstorming activities for English paragraph writing in the Turkish tertiary-level EFL context with EMI by contributing new knowledge about the Turkish EMI context and classroom application of translanguaging.

García and Kleifgen (2019) stipulate that language learners are supposed to create meaning only through the medium of instruction in the class, which disregards some parts of their linguistic repertoire. Studies on using L1 in ESL and EFL environments have shown the benefits of those strategies to teach complex grammar topics, teach or reinforce vocabulary, contribute to the learning and understanding of students, and save time during classes (Şevik, 2007; Wu, 2018). Moreover, writing activities, especially the challenging ones, can be alleviated by utilizing language learners' repertoire (Canagarajah, 2011). Translanguaging can be beneficial for language learners in developing their academic writing skills (Kaufhold, 2018) as students can switch between languages, allowing them to concentrate on organizing and deconstructing the material rather than switching to a monolingual communication mode (Duarte, 2019). Despite the translanguaging and writing-based studies in various contexts (Adamson & Coulson, 2015; García & Kano, 2014; Kalan, 2022; Sari, 2021; Yang, 2014), research implementing translanguaging pedagogy in writing classes is rare in Türkiye (e.g., Karabulut, 2019). The current study,

therefore, aims to find the influence of new practice on an outcome, investigating the potential impacts of translanguaging-embedded pre-writing brainstorming activities on the paragraph writing performance of EFL learners in a Turkish context. Therefore, it may be regarded as an initiative to integrate translanguaging pedagogy in an EFL writing class, given the research context, method, and aspect of utilizing translanguaging in pre-writing brainstorming activities and combining translanguaging with sociocultural theory (SCT).

This current study compares two groups regarding the potential effects of translanguaging on paragraph writing performance by integrating brainstorming into the pre-writing sessions. It allows the participants to collaborate and cooperate through pre-writing brainstorming and interaction-free writing tasks before the paragraph writing tasks. However, the treatment group could choose any language to communicate, enabling utilizing learners' L1 (Turkish in this context) to enhance their English paragraph writing tasks, showcasing the promising application of translanguaging in the classroom. Within this scope, this research sheds light on translanguaging from the perspective of sociocultural learning theory, addressing that translanguaging may encourage scaffolded learning and collaborative talk among language learners (Burton & Rajendram, 2019).

Overall, this study may advance the English Language Teaching (ELT) field by offering a translanguaging approach for TL (English in this context) paragraph writing. As the first research utilizing the strategies by Celic and Seltzer (2013) and Espinosa et al. (2016) in the EFL and EMI Turkish higher education context, the study is crucial to indicate the potential influence of translanguaging pedagogy on paragraph writing performance of pre-intermediate level Turkish EFL learners, examine their views and experiences of translanguaging integrated writing classes, reflect the observation of the researcher and present a practical translanguaging strategy (pre-writing brainstorming) for paragraph writing tasks.

1.4. Definition of Key Terms

This section provides an overview of the significant terminology used in the dissertation. The key terms are listed in alphabetical order. However, the entire thesis needs to be examined if a more in-depth comprehension and analysis of those terms are requested.

- a. **Emergent bilingual:** “any person actively acquiring knowledge of a second language and developing bilingual languaging skills for use in a given situation relevant to their individual needs to learn the TL” (Turnbull, 2016, p.3). In this study, the term refers to EFL learners studying English in the preparatory year. Additionally, the words ‘participant’ and ‘student’ were interchangeably used to refer to the study's EFL learners.
- b. **English as a foreign language (EFL):** the language taught and learned in communities where it is not often used for communication (Nunan, 1999). In the study context, English has been studied as a foreign language in the school to prepare students for their English-medium departments and further studies.
- c. **English as a second language (ESL):** the language that has “an institutional and social role in the community” (Ellis, 1994, p.12)
- d. **English-medium instruction (EMI):** teaching academic courses in English in countries or jurisdictions where most people do not use English as their L1 (Dearden, 2014). EMI refers to the language of instruction in the targeted institution that teaches English as a foreign language to prepare students for their EMI majors.
- e. **Mother tongue (L1):** a speaker’s native language and the language they acquire from their mother (Gambier & Doorslaer, 2009). In the study context, the L1 of the EFL learners is Turkish, so both groups are *shared L1* classes (Anderson, 2017).
- f. **Overt translanguaging:** refers to situations where the distinct resources that are socially defined as belonging to named languages are noticeable (Cogo, 2021). This research centers on explicit instances of translanguaging that utilize resources commonly identified as 'English' and 'Turkish' in EMI classroom settings where Turkish is the L1 of all the students, and English is considered a foreign and target language.
- g. **Sociocultural theory:** means that through active engagement in diverse collaborative endeavors, learners assimilate the consequences of collective efforts, gaining novel tactics and a deeper understanding of the global landscape and cultural dynamics (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014; Vygotsky, 1978).
- h. **Translanguaging:** “the process of making meaning, shaping experiences,

gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages” (Baker, 2011, p.288). In this research, translanguaging refers to EFL learners’ utilization of L1 and TL in the pre-writing brainstorming activities but writing their paragraphs in the TL.

- i. **Translanguaging pedagogy:** “refers to building on bilingual students’ language practices flexible in developing new understandings and new language practices, including those deemed academic standard practices” (Garcia & Wei, 2014a, p.92). It means enabling students to use both L1 and TL during the pre-writing activities to write their English paragraphs in writing classes.
- j. **Writing:** a process involving learning and thinking, and it produces a communicative output that complies with genre, mechanical syntactic, and grammatical rules (Petelin, 2021). Writing refers to the English paragraph writing in the study, which was based on the coursebook and institutional decisions.
- k. **Writing assignment:** refers to a piece of writing conducted by a language learner. Within the scope of the study, it means paragraph writing, which is assigned to the EFL students throughout the term. Writing assignments and writing tasks were interchangeably used in this research.

1.5. Overview of the Study

The following chapter, the literature review, includes the theoretical foundations and related studies on translanguaging. The review first focuses on the SCT and its relevant concepts. Then, there is a short history of language education, followed by the definition of ESL and EFL, a brief story of EFL, the first language in EFL, and EMI, as the study context is based on EFL and EMI. As the main focus of the study, translanguaging is defined in detail in a separate title, and various approaches to translanguaging, related concepts, and translanguaging pedagogy are presented in different titles to shed light on the issue. The following part -writing in EFL- explains the details, including brainstorming as pre-writing, writing, and translanguaging, since the current research addresses translanguaging by integrating it into pre-writing brainstorming activities. As the theory and main focus of the study, the next title combines translanguaging with SCT. Last but not least, translanguaging-related studies are highlighted categorically and

chronologically based on four critical areas related to the research.

The methodology chapter outlines the research methodology, starting with the research questions, research paradigm, and design. Following the detailed information about the participants and the context, translanguaging integration into pre-writing is clarified. Then, the data collection tools are explained under the qualitative and quantitative tools, followed by the data collection procedure, and the pilot study is also included. The data analysis is presented with two titles: qualitative and quantitative. The trustworthiness of the study is also provided in various ways, and ethical considerations are also underlined. The researcher's role is specified in the last title of the current chapter.

The findings chapter provides the data gathered using both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. Considering the research questions, the findings are presented with excerpts from the questionnaires and reflection logs.

In the discussion chapter, the findings are discussed in the same order as they are presented in the findings by referencing various researchers and their studies.

The conclusion chapter includes a comparative analysis of the main findings and discussions with the relevant research. Additionally, this part presents the implications and limitations of the research and some suggestions for further studies in the field.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This part mainly includes the theoretical foundation and relevant research on translanguaging pedagogy. Firstly, the literature review section focuses on Sociocultural Theory (SCT), and it approaches English language education through monolingualism, bilingualism, and multilingualism, from past to present, followed by the basic information related to EFL. Next, it explains translanguaging in detail, including related concepts, translanguaging pedagogy, and translanguaging and writing. Afterward, the chapter focuses on SCT and translanguaging. Last but not least, it presents translanguaging-related studies.

2.1. Sociocultural Theory

Vygotsky's SCT postulates that social interaction mediated by semiotical and physical instruments affects individual development (Vygotsky, 1978; 1986). Based on the theory, language is seen as a mediator and learning object (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). As the main focus of the theory, mediation proposes that individuals' relationship with each other and the world is mediated through physical tools and symbolic artifacts (Vygotsky, 1978). As the most crucial cultural artifact, L1 and L2 could mediate individual development during social interactions and have an essential role in cognitive development (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Since the primary focus of the SCT is on how language affects human activity on intrapsychological and interpsychological levels, it offers a valuable framework to analyze the role of L1 in TL learning (Wu, 2018).

According to the SCT, mind and language are dynamic, interrelated processes. The theory emphasizes the crucial role of meaningful social interactions for language development, underscoring the significance and impact of the work of educators, researchers, and scholars in the fields of education, linguistics, and cognitive development (Close, 2002). Learning from the viewpoint of SCT is focused on the "heteronomous individual" whose growth largely depends on the various social structures that one is currently exposed to (Lourenco, 2012, p. 284). The interactions among students and the process of collective knowledge building during collaborative learning mirror the social and cultural practices of the communities where educational institutions are located (Rojas-Drummond, Torreblanca, Pedraza, Vélez & Guzmán, 2013).

The sociocultural perspective enables us to reconsider the use of L1 not just as a simple option but as a way of mediating language and cognition, providing scaffolding and releasing feelings between teachers and learners when dealing with emotionally and academically challenging tasks, academic language, and abstract ideas (Wu, 2018).

This research is grounded in SCT (Vygotsky, 1978), which emphasizes the profound impact of social interactions on cognitive development. The translanguaging integrated brainstorming activities during pre-writing sessions are a testament to this, as they are essentially social interactions. Similarly, the study's exploration of the effects of translanguaging on paragraph writing performance is an investigation into cognitive development in the current study.

2.1.1. Zone of Proximal Development

Vygotsky (1986) defines the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) as “the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (p. 86). Since ZPD focuses on the developmental process occurring through interactions rather than acquiring abilities, Vygotsky uses the term development instead of learning (Chaiklin, 2003).

Wells (1999) highlights that ZPD is a learning potential generated in the interaction between participants when they engage in a specific activity together rather than a fixed quality of a learner. ZPD is co-constructed through interaction when learners and teachers work together on a particular goal (Hammond & Gibbons, 2001). Co-construction can occur in language classes when teachers ascertain students' ZPD to determine whether assistance is necessary. Then, students decide how to approach their assignments, set objectives, choose strategies, assess results, and revise lesson plans and activities to enhance students' higher cognitive process (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). Through translanguaging integration into pre-writing brainstorming activities, students' ZPD is facilitated through whole-class interactions, enabling language learners to share their ideas and help each other.

2.1.2. Scaffolding

Scaffolding is a procedure that allows beginners to carry out a task, find a solution, or accomplish a goal that would otherwise be beyond their scope of expertise (Woods,

Bruner & Ross, 1976). Woods et al. (1976) clarify that scaffolding has six primary purposes: recruitment, enticing learners to participate in activities; reduction of degrees of freedom, breaking up tasks into smaller, more manageable tasks; direction maintenance, encouraging learners to work towards goals; highlighting essential features, directing learners' attention to pertinent parts of the tasks; frustration control, reducing learners' stress levels while working towards goals; demonstration, modeling the intended result (p. 98). According to Donato (2000), scaffolding is a situation created by a teacher, peer, or parent where students can participate and enhance their current talents and knowledge to achieve higher performance.

Pedagogical scaffolding occurs through interactions between learning partners (Vygotsky, 1978). Pedagogical scaffolding extends beyond a fixed and prescriptive sustaining structure to include a comparatively dynamic and fluid scaffolding process (Walqui, 2006). In recent years, pedagogical scaffolding has been utilized as an incarnation of scaffolding (Sun, 2024). Therefore, in this research, the term scaffolding also includes the concept of pedagogical scaffolding.

In the context of classroom interactions, scaffolding has been used to describe the short-term support that teachers give their learners to finish a task or gain new insights so that they can eventually perform comparable tasks themselves (Hammond & Gibbons, 2001). According to the sociocultural perspective, scaffolding can take the form of prepared prompts and materials that the teacher has created for the lesson, contingent scaffolding from the teacher in response to student contributions, and peer-led interactions that the teacher has facilitated (Daniel, Jimenéz & Pray, 2019). However, in contrast to the teacher-learner relationship, Rojas-Drummond et al. (2013) emphasize the importance of peer contact in promoting learning through scaffolding techniques such as questioning, explaining, and giving feedback.

Donato (1994) proposes the notion of *collective scaffolding* to discuss the dialogically formed guided support that peers provide each other during collaborative tasks to examine collaboration by combining Vygotsky's ZPD and Wood et al.'s concept of scaffolding. According to Donato's theory, cooperative work among learners could offer the same chance for scaffolded assistance as interactions between adult-children or teacher-learners (Donato, 1994). Donato's research supports a different interpretation of scaffolding within the ZPD by indicating that L2 learners could collaboratively create a scaffold through the discursive process of negotiating shared understanding contexts.

Donato (1994) also exposes that language learners utilize L1 to enhance scaffolding in arousing interest, concentrating on the aims, achieving the task, and discussing the linguistic forms. L1 could be a crucial mediating strategy with multiple functions, including understanding a text, discovering content, and maintaining communication (Villamil & Guerrero, 1996). Guerrero and Villamil (2000) explain that L1 might be a scaffolding tool enabling peer interaction. Yang (2014) also mentions that L1 could mediate the collaborative writing process, allowing learners to produce ideas and develop their writing. Therefore, integrating translanguaging into pre-writing brainstorming enables language learners to utilize scaffolding as a whole-class activity in this current research.

2.1.3. Exploratory talk

Barnes and his colleagues were the first to investigate the potential of exploratory talk, a specific kind of classroom discussion, to enhance comprehension and foster learning (Barnes, 1992, 2010; Barnes, Britton, & Torbe, 1990). Educators play a crucial role in creating an environment where language learners feel comfortable enough to actively participate in explanatory talk, free from the fear of harsh correction or ridicule. (Barnes, 2008). When a teacher's function is primarily reacting rather than passing judgments, learners' roles shift to sharing rather than presenting, contributing to the development of an explanatory communication style in the classroom, including explanatory talk (Barnes, 2010).

Expanding upon Barner's (1992) research, scholars examine group talks in classes (Mercer & Wegerif, 1999; Rojas-Drummond, Perez, Velez, Gomez, & Mendoza, 2003). Mercer and Wegerif (1999) determine that learners speak in three different ways: disputational, cumulative, and exploratory. The exploratory talk focuses on providing justifications for ideas and opinions as well as engaging with those of others (Mercer & Wegerif, 1999). Exploratory talk is a form of communication where individuals engage in critical and constructive discussions, exchanging ideas and often discovering new knowledge (Mercer, Wegerif & Daves, 1999). With a more current definition, it is a type of conversation that helps learners' thinking grow since it guides the construction of knowledge, entails exchanging ideas, and provides justifications for them, promoting cognitive growth and challenge (Coultais, 2012).

By putting forward guidelines for its application, Fernandez, Wegerif, Mercer, and Rojas-Drummond (2001, p.43) expand on the definition of exploratory talk:

- a. Learners exchange all pertinent information.
- b. They work together to create a consensus.
- c. They share decision-making responsibility.
- d. They justify their opinions.
- e. Challenges are accepted.
- f. Options are considered before decision-making.
- g. Group members encourage one another to speak up.

In the current study, the control and treatment group students were allowed to brainstorm their ideas during pre-writing. This enables utilizing exploratory talk and scaffolding as a whole class activity through an English-only approach in the control group and through translanguaging in the treatment group.

2.2. Language Education: Monolingual, Bilingual, and Multilingual

It is known that monolingual approaches have been dominant in language classrooms for teaching English. Monolingualism is the notion that learners mentally store different languages as distinct entities (Grosjean, 1989). Translation between two languages is seen as accidental and contrary in monolingualism, which promotes assimilationist perspectives in language instruction, causing individuals to ignore their home languages to acquire the TL (Baker, 2001; Grosjean, 1989). Based on monolingualism, the instruction and acquisition of each language should align with the TL-only approach by conducting classes exclusively in the TL and refraining from utilizing learners' L1 to prevent any interference or cross-contamination between languages (Cummins, 2009).

Cummins (2005) explains the assumptions based on not using L1 in monolingual norms: 1. TL should be used for instructions without interfering with language learners; 2. There should be no translation between L1 and TL; and 3. Since the two languages are different, they should be kept separate. The acceptance of the monolingual principle implies the anticipation of a high level of proficiency in a single language, resembling that of a native speaker, from learners in each language they study (Cummins, 2009).

Moreover, the monolingual approach idealizes and prioritizes language in a pure form as if spoken by an educated native speaker of one language (Lee, 2016).

Since the 1950s, discussions have been held on the most effective methods for teaching a second language to bilinguals who are out of need and require a second language for survival (Baker, 2001). Grosjean (1985) expands on the topic by presenting two conflicting perspectives on bilingual individuals. 'The fractional view' regards a bilingual as two separate monolinguals within one individual and strives for a high level of proficiency in L1 and the TL languages, comparable to that of a native speaker. 'The holistic view' posits that a bilingual does not have two complete or incomplete languages but has a unique linguistic profile. Grosjean (1989) also remarks that half of the people worldwide are bilingual, so monolingualism is a topic of debate. Later, Grosjean (1992) proposes the bilingual and monolingual modes for bilingual language use. Those two modes could be two different sides; while bilinguals only utilize one of their languages while conversing with monolinguals, they can mix and match languages in multilingual mode. Developing those ideas, Grosjean (1997) advocates the 'Complementarity Principle,' meaning that proficient individuals in two or more languages usually acquire and use their language abilities for specific purposes in different aspects of life and with various people they communicate with.

Considering the complex nature of bilingualism, various classifications have been suggested that emphasize different aspects of bilingualism. Those classifications include 'balanced and dominant' bilinguals, referring to the relationship between language proficiencies in the two languages; 'receptive and productive' bilinguals, focusing on functions; 'simultaneous, sequential and late' bilinguals based on the acquisition age; 'compound, coordinate, and subordinate' bilinguals, reflecting the arrangement of linguistic codes and units of meaning; 'elite/elective and folk/circumstantial' bilinguals, mentioning learning contexts; 'additive and subtractive' bilinguals, addressing the impact of L2 acquisition on the retention of L1; 'L1 monocultural, L2 accultural, and deculturated' bilinguals, about the cultural identity (Butler, 2012).

Individuals can operate proficiently in multiple languages, enabling multilingualism (Baker, 2001). Grosjean's approaches to bilingualism have developed through the concept of 'multicompetence' (Grosjean, 1985, 1989, 1992). Hence, acquiring multiple languages cannot be equated to proficiency in each language when acquired individually (Cook, 1991, 1995, 2007). The concept involves a shift from the traditional practice of using only one language to a more dynamic and inclusive approach of utilizing several

languages, multilingualism. Today, many individuals possess knowledge of multiple languages, resulting in a shift from discourses centered around bilingualism to those focusing on multilingualism (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; García, 2009).

Herdina and Jesser (2002) introduced a ‘dynamic model of multilingualism,’ which underlines that proficiency in multiple languages enhances the acquisition and development of additional languages, including mastery of all known languages within an educational framework. It is possible to develop a multilingual system that encompasses the native language as well as other languages, which can be achieved using various languages (Herdina & Jesser, 2002).

García (2009) believes the classic bilingualism theories are flawed due to their base on multilingualism as the norm and proposes ‘recursive’ and ‘dynamic bilingualism’ to address the multimodal landscapes and ever-changing language realities of the 21st century. Recursive bilingualism regards the ethnolinguistic complexity of communities experiencing considerable language shifts in reviving long-suppressed language traditions. Dynamic bilingualism, however, considers the multilingual and multimodal interactions and language interrelationships occurring among multilingual speakers in various contexts. Dynamic bilingualism is related to bilinguals’ other language practices, which could arise and widen only with interaction and socialization (García, 2013). The dynamic bilingualism paradigm is predicated on the idea that each individual possesses a single linguistic system that contains integrated language practices and characteristics (García & Wei, 2014b).

The multilingual paradigm advocates for a comprehensive and dynamic understanding of English, hence calling for the reform of ELT to challenge the dominance of native speakers (Holliday, 2006). English has emerged as a widely used language for worldwide communication, and it has recently been situated within the context of multilingualism as a *multilingua franca* (Jenkins, 2015). Due to the complexity and unexpected nature of language use from a multilingual perspective, it is necessary that ELT transcends the ideology of native speakers to adequately acknowledge the current state of English (Kirkpatrick, 2014; Piller, 2017). Such complex nature of language is dealt in ‘critical multilingualism’, offering a perspective from which to observe linguistic diversity in academic contexts and at the societal level (Jenkins & Maurant, 2019). Translanguaging strategies involving the use of minority languages should be implemented to facilitate effective communication and advocate for the linguistic rights

of individuals in constructing their identity in both academic and social contexts (Fang & Liu, 2020; Sah & Li, 2020).

The wholistic framework of multilingualism has been manifested in learning and education through pedagogical practices known as ‘plurilingual approaches’ (Cenoz, 2013). In language instruction, these approaches aim to overcome the separation between languages by emphasizing the interconnectedness of languages. This recognition acknowledges that languages mutually reinforce and enhance each other, developing versatile and dynamic language proficiency. Furthermore, plurilingual approaches prioritize the development of learners' abilities in several languages and their understanding of different cultures. These approaches aim to incorporate and celebrate linguistic variety in the classroom, enhance learners' language awareness, and treat all languages and cultures equally (Beacco, Byram, Cavalli, Coste, Cuenat, Goullier & Panthier, 2016).

Instead of solely relying on the TL, students who learn several languages utilize their linguistic repertoire by incorporating and blending linguistic elements from their language skills to enhance their language acquisition process (Hornberger & Link, 2012). Influencing the ELT programs recently, translanguaging seeks to accurately represent and validate the linguistic practices of individuals fluent in two or more languages in real-life situations. Additionally, translanguaging offers teachers a framework to effectively incorporate and utilize these practices in their classrooms (Baker, 2001; Garcia, 2009).

2.2.1. English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL)

According to Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985), EFL refers to the use of English in nations where it is taught in schools but has no official standing or function. However, ESL can be defined in three distinct ways:

- a. it refers to the use of English by minorities and immigrants in English-speaking countries,
- b. it pertains to the purposeful everyday use of English in countries where it is not the first language, such as India, Singapore, and the Philippines,
- c. it encompasses the use of English in countries like Germany and Japan, where it is not L1 (Richards et al., 1985).

Foreign language learning involves learning a non-native language in an environment where one's L1 is spoken. On the other hand, second language learning refers to learning a non-native language while being in an environment where that language is commonly spoken (Gass & Selinker, 2001).

The approach to teaching English depends on various elements, but the main paramount factor is why English is utilized in a country. When English is used for specific purposes such as international travel, international trade, commerce, or higher education within a country, it is considered a foreign language in that particular country, referred to as EFL. When English is for additional functions beyond those mentioned, such as international finance, media, government administration, and personal contact among individuals inside a nation, it is considered a second language in that country, referring to ESL (Jayasri, 2018).

Although there may be environmental variations, EFL and ESL have a common goal: language teaching. Wei (2017) underlines that the primary objectives of second/ foreign/ additional language instruction are to attain bilingualism/multilingualism and not replace the L1. Wei (2017) also disapproves of establishing a norm or standard as a monolingual native speaker and suggests utilizing bilingual and multilingual language users as models in language teaching to accomplish the aforementioned goal.

English has become a common language in which to communicate worldwide. Kachru (1985) represents the global use of English in the 'three concentric circles' model. In this model, the 'inner circle' comprises countries whose primary language is English, such as America and the United Kingdom. The 'outer circle' includes nations such as India, Nigeria, and the Philippines, where English is used as a second language. On the other hand, nations like Türkiye and Germany, where English is used as a foreign language, belong to the 'expanding circle'. Debates over how individuals utilize the English language in the outer and expanding circles have resulted in the development of various notions, including Global Englishes (GEs), World Englishes (WEs), and English as a lingua franca (ELF) (Jenkins, 2015).

As an umbrella term, GEs encompasses the study of WEs, which is concerned with identifying and standardizing different national forms of English, and ELF, which investigates the use of English within and between various countries while also considering the global impact of English as a global language (Galloway, 2013). GEs term broadens the scope of these two paradigms to encompass several peripheral topics

related to English, including globalization, linguistic dominance, education, and language policy and planning (Galloway & Rose, 2015).

According to Seidlhofer (2009), ELF is a component of the broader WEs study community. Although ELF and WEs have differences, they also share similarities due to a common underlying ideology, including regarding English as a pluricentric notion, emphasizing the use of English by non-natives, highlighting the impact of linguistic contact, stressing the worldwide ownership of English regardless of native norms, and having implications for ELT (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Regarding their similarities and collective effort, ELF and WEs are considered integral components of the more comprehensive GEs paradigm (Galloway & Rose, 2015).

Jenkins (2009) defines ELF as the use of English by those who are not native speakers of English from the outer and expanding circle. More current perspectives regard ELF as a type of communication that lacks fixed patterns but instead has flexible changes in specific contexts and is primarily employed by non-native English speakers (Bayyurt & Sifakis, 2015). However, teachers' insufficient knowledge about ELF hampers the effectiveness of ELT pedagogy in equipping students for practical English communication in real-life situations (Aydın & Karakaş, 2021). The reason for this is that the educational methods used in most countries are based on traditional approaches, where native English speakers are seen as the ideal examples (Jenkins, 2007), and learners in schools are expected to adhere strictly to standard English rules, with a strong focus on accuracy (Aydın & Karakaş, 2021).

As an expanding circle country, Türkiye, ELF-aware teachers face obstacles when aligning their teaching approaches with ELF principles. The studies have identified numerous obstacles, including the absence of teaching resources suitable for ELF, the presence of traditional curricula focused on EFL, and the inadequacy of teacher preparation programs that do not offer courses on sociolinguistic concerns related to the global use of English and certain language ideologies (Aydın & Karakaş, 2021). Therefore, the context in which the current study is conducted also approaches English as a foreign language, and the classes are required to be undertaken as an English-only approach.

2.2.2. English as a foreign language: A brief history

EFL can be described as the language that is commonly included in school curricula yet does not hold significant importance in the overall nation or society (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas, 1980). With a more current definition, Galloway and Rose (2015) define EFL as the utilization of the English language in a setting where it lacks official recognition and is not commonly spoken among the local community. Consequently, its usage is restricted to specific environments, such as classrooms. Galloway and Rose (2015) also underline that English is the predominant foreign language taught in almost all European countries.

The teaching of EFL dates back to the expansion of the British Empire in the 16th century, which required the provision of English language education throughout its colonies and trade regions. Initially, the predominant approach was the Grammar-Translation Method, which prioritized reading and writing skills while emphasizing the study of grammatical principles (Howatt & Smith, 2014). This method prevailed in EFL teaching in the 19th century, with a strong focus on translating literary texts, memorizing vocabulary through repetition, and mastering grammatical rules (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Through the late 19th century and in the early 20th century, the Direct Method arose as a response to the limitations of the Grammar-Translation Method, with a specific emphasis on developing oral proficiency and immersing learners in the language, which focuses on establishing a direct connection between the intended meaning and the target language, by passing the need for translation by utilizing visual aids and examples (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In the middle of the 20th century, the Audio-Lingual Method gained popularity, especially in the United States, due to its influence from behaviorist theories and structural linguistics. The approach emphasized using repetitious exercises, pattern repetition, and imitation to establish habitual language usage in the target language (Brooks, 1964; Howatt & Smith, 2014). In the 1970s, Communicative Language Teaching was developed as a reaction to the perceived deficiencies of the Audio-Lingual Method. The approach highlights the importance of using language for practical purposes, developing effective communication skills, and encouraging learners to actively participate in meaningful conversations, which emphasizes the importance of active engagement and practical application rather than relying solely on memorization (Canale & Swain, 1980; Howatt & Smith, 2014). Since the 1990s, the Post-Method period has acknowledged the drawbacks of using a single technique for all situations. Instead, it

promotes using various methods that can be adapted to different contexts, learners' requirements, and instructional objectives (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). In the 21st century, the emergence of technology has significantly affected EFL teaching. Digital tools, internet resources, and virtual learning environments have become essential, offering novel prospects for interactive and customized learning encounters (Chapelle, 2010). Furthermore, there is an increasing focus on the importance of multilingualism and translanguaging, using different languages interchangeably in the classroom to improve the learning experience (García & Wei, 2014).

For many years, various approaches and methods have been used in EFL. Traditionally, language learners' L1 has been regarded as an impediment to language acquisition and excluded from language learning environments (Lin, 2015). The communicative approach has recently been the most acclaimed, leading EFL to become increasingly monolingual (Chabert & Agost, 2020; Hall & Cook, 2012). Therefore, monolingualism is generally the norm (García, 2009), and monolingual practices are still dominant (Anderson, 2017). However, the present linguistic landscape of English is more complex. From a sociolinguistic standpoint, language is perceived as a social practice in which individuals utilize language to establish, articulate, and negotiate their social and cultural identities (Liu & Fang, 2017).

Coulmas (2018) contrasts traditional approaches with a modern dynamic viewpoint on evolving language studies (See Table 1). According to Coulmas (2018), this contemporary approach, which incorporates our understanding of language development and functionality, emphasizes the significant necessity created by globalization for individuals to communicate and engage concurrently in multiple languages.

Table 1.

Changing Viewpoints

Traditional approaches	Modern dynamic viewpoint
Standard language	Multiple varieties
National language	Pidgin
Mother tongue	Home language
Heritage language	Community language
Diglossia	Heteroglossia
Monolingual speech	Code-switching /Translanguaging
Native speaker	Bi-/multilingual speaker, semi-speaker
Uniformity	Diversity

Source: Coulmas, 2018, p. 59

In the EFL context, the 'parallel monolingualism' perspective, proposed by Heller (1999), maintains a clear distinction between the L1 and the TL. Due to the perspective of parallel monolingualism, many individuals have often regarded language instruction in the EFL setting as lacking bilingualism (May, 2017). However, in the EFL context, English has evolved beyond being only a foreign language. While individuals may not frequently visit a nation where English is the primary language, it is becoming more probable that they will have to engage in written and spoken negotiations in English, mainly if they are employed in a globalized business (Galloway & Rose, 2015). It is also paradoxical to ignore and avoid using L1 since the objective of language learning is building multilingual capabilities (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). Excluding L1 from foreign language classes may result in a linguistic ideology vilifying multilingualism (Kwihangana, 2021).

Scholars have questioned the requirement to use just the TL in multilingual education situations due to the dynamic nature of language interaction (García & Lin, 2017). García (2013) specifies that monolingual approaches cause a group to be disadvantaged, and language separation creates a hierarchy among languages. Seeing language diversity as a problem has been a principal in traditional language planning (Wiley & García, 2016). However, people's communication and the nation-state's power loss have changed perceptions about language diversity and education (Wiley & García, 2016). Cenoz (2017) also underlines that language boundaries have become softer, and linguistic sources of multilingual speakers are seen as necessary, so multilingual speakers are not supposed to be native-like speakers of their second or additional languages. Cenoz and Gorter (2020) mention that there are valid arguments against the monolingual focus; extended exposure to the TL is required, but failing to build on learners' prior knowledge is a severe issue. Another issue is that this focus neglects how multilingual people utilize languages outside the classroom by disregarding and avoiding L1 or other languages mastered.

2.2.2.1. First language in EFL

Over time, extensive literature has developed on using the L1 in foreign language education. Previous research based on second language acquisition (SLA) theories has emphasized L1 use as a hindrance in language learning, and behaviorists mentioned the negative transfer from L1 (Auerbach, 1993; Brooks, 1960; Lado, 1957). However, the

developmentalists, considering the wholeness of the learner's system, believe that L1 interference is necessary for interlanguage development (Gass & Selinker, 1983). Cognitivist theories approach language learners as bi/multilingual users utilizing all their repertoires, yet the negativity or positivity of language transfer is related to learners' ability to use learning strategies (Cummins, 1981, 2007). With the 'Comprehensive Input Hypothesis,' learners' L1 is excluded from the classes by centering the communicative function of the TL as in the Natural Approach and Communicative Language Teaching approach (Krashen, 1985). In short, the literature on SLA theories and CLT suggests that using L1 and teachers' transition to L1 is a problem in language learning and teaching. Additionally, language instructors have frequently believed that learners exhibit off-task behavior and engage in disruptive or deviant actions when they utilize their L1s (García & Wei, 2014b).

Challenges to the English-only perspective have changed the views in ELT, and the research has exploited Vygotskian SLA studies (Cook, 2001; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Turnbull, 2001). Those studies are based on the tenet that language is the primary cognitive tool controlling or arranging our thoughts (Vygotsky, 1986). Regarding the proponents of SCT, L1 is an essential and fundamental semiotic tool mediating learning even in a TL learning process (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Storch (2008) underlines that the learning process also includes reinforcement of prior knowledge. Wei (2017) underlines that learning a new language aims to become bilingual and multilingual, not to replace one's L1 and become another monolingual. Nevertheless, that aim is generally overlooked, and bilingual speakers are infrequently used as role models for teaching and learning.

Villamil and Guerra (1996) consider L1 an effective means of understanding a written document, remembering language forms, grasping and expanding the context, guiding and focusing on the task, and continuing communication. Using learners' L1 in a foreign language classroom is highly advantageous, as their prior experiences as language learners can be effectively employed in the TL classrooms (Singh, 2013). Learners' linguistic backgrounds significantly shape their identities, and their L1 is helpful while learning an L2 or TL (Daniel & Pacheco, 2015). Wu (2018) also exemplifies that since language learners are not taught to use TL colloquialisms, it is generally inevitable for them to utilize their L1 to express their feelings.

Cook (2001) describes several problems related to the absence of involvement with L1. These issues encompass the lack of explicit mention of L1 usage in textbooks or

training materials, and when it is acknowledged, it is typically accompanied by implicit criticism without any justification. Therefore, Cook (2001) suggests a three-dimensional framework to investigate the role of the L1: teachers' use of L1 to transfer information, teachers' use of L1 in classroom organization, and students' use of L1. Though teachers control and are responsible for how to approach using L1 in a class to some extent, L1 use in learners' communication is emergent and shaped by cultural, local, and individual features (Cook, 2001; Moore, 2013). Lo (2015) also mentions that there is no one-size-fits-all situation for the amount and time of L1 use in a class. According to Wei (2017), the primary objectives of second/ foreign/ additional language instruction are to attain bilingualism/ multilingualism and not to supplant the L1.

Şevik (2007) indicates that judicious and restricted use of L1 in foreign language classrooms does not diminish students' exposure to English; rather, it may facilitate and enhance the learning and teaching process. Prior research has indicated that L1 is observed in EFL contexts during student interaction (Hamid & Honan, 2012; Ngwaru, 2011). Previous studies have also emphasized that using L1 occurs naturally in L2 classes during external, private, and inner speech, explicitly or implicitly, with various purposes (Moore, 2013). Even language learners at the same level can perform at a group level above each learner's competency level if they use a sufficient amount of L1 (Wu, 2018). Language learners still use their L1 in unsupervised contexts with bilingual students, choosing different aspects of their unified language system according to the person they speak, and this situation occurs even in schools where the objective is for students to speak the TL being taught (Kleyn & García, 2019).

Costa (2012) mentions that teachers use their L1 when they need to provide an explanation or translate a word or phrase. Sali (2014) explains that teachers utilize L1 in language classes to explain, elicit, encourage learners, monitor, praise, establish relations, and provide cultural information. Hariri (2015) also notes that EFL teachers/ instructors might utilize their students' L1 to emphasize particular vocabulary and grammar concepts. Tavares (2015) highlights that bilingual teachers in an L2 environment, whether teaching a subject or language, must firmly believe that using the L1 will benefit student learning as long as the teaching methods are effective. Kohi and Suvarna-Lakshmi (2020) reveal that teachers worldwide use the L1 for specific functional goals, including managerial purposes, effective functions, and ultimately fulfilling societal obligations.

2.2.2.2. English medium instruction (EMI)

EMI may be defined as using the English language to teach academic courses apart from English in nations or regions where most people do not speak English as their L1 (Macaro, 2018). EMI could enhance students' proficiency in English as an academic lingua franca by raising their awareness of the language used for instruction and boosting their confidence as multilingual English users (Rose & Galloway, 2019). The fundamental idea behind an EMI ideology is that teachers focus on increasing student input in the TL, English, to make up for the limited time that the students have to practice or debate the material in the TL in classes (Ataş, 2023).

EMI and EFL differ in their primary objectives, with EMI focusing on conveying information. The objective of EMI is to prioritize information learning while simultaneously enhancing language ability. Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) explain that English-only classrooms can only sometimes lead to comprehensible input, resulting in low success since the input enables learners to complete tasks or activities successfully in the language learning process. Therefore, EMI students have linguistic obstacles that negatively impact their ability to learn the language (Marie, 2013; Moragh, 2009; Yeh, 2013).

EMI programs are usually monolingual, with English being the only language used in practice (Dafouz, 2014). In EMI classrooms, the language policy stems from one-language ideology, meaning that only a limited number of lexical and structural linguistic traits are allowed for teaching and evaluating, leaving out a large number of features that people employ, particularly those perceived as weaker members of society (García & Kleyn, 2016). EMI approach can result in a lack of understanding of the subject matter, limited proficiency in national and global languages -English- and the erosion of students' L1 (Fang & Hu, 2022). Although the driving forces behind EMI programs may seem increasingly appealing to stakeholders, existing research raises significant concerns regarding university students' inadequate English language proficiency for EMI studies and, importantly, the potentially detrimental effects on their academic performance (Aizawa, Rose, McKinley & Thompson, 2023).

In light of the increasing skepticism over the global proliferation of EMI, Macaro (2018) advocates for additional research on the cost-effectiveness of EMI to examine the potential benefits and drawbacks for students. University education should fundamentally provide students with substantial disciplinary knowledge; however, further research is

required to comprehensively assess the quality of EMI, specifically regarding whether acquiring academic content in L2 English is as effective as learning in the students' L1 (Macaro, 2018). Recently, scholars in local and international contexts have questioned “E” in EMI, realizing that monolingual policies of language instruction could not address the nature of instruction in bi/multilingual contexts due to drawbacks like ignoring the rich linguistic repertoires of teachers and students in EMI contexts, failing to provide equity for language marginalized students, difficulties faced by subject lecturers, failing to address diverse cultural, social, and ethnic backgrounds, and evolving ideologies of the focus on language as an abstract system (Deignan & Morton, 2022; Preece, 2022; Sahan & Rose, 2021; Wei, 2022; Yilmaz, 2021).

Due to the competitive nature of higher education brought about by globalization and internationalization, many universities offer degree programs that are either entirely or partially taught in English (Dearden, 2014). The power and domination of English have led to the widespread assumption that it should be the default language of teaching to access knowledge, especially in higher education (Dafouz et al., 2016). According to the research conducted with over 170 European Higher Education Institutions regarding their internationalization efforts, two-thirds of the universities have reported an increase in the number of EMI courses they offer (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017) and it is the current reality that English is the medium of instruction in many higher education contexts (Raman & Yiğitoğlu, 2015). The widespread and prevalent use of the English language in higher education has resulted in the common adoption of EMI for language learners in English-speaking and non-English-speaking contexts (Fang & Hu, 2022). For example, the Vietnamese government promotes adopting EMI programs in higher education EFL settings to enhance students' language proficiency as a component of the country's internationalization strategy (Tran, Burke & O'Toole, 2021). Tran et al. (2021) also underline the positive perspectives of students and lecturers towards the influence of EMI on students' language competency, particularly in their ability to understand and comprehend spoken and written language, indicating a correspondence between the government's objectives and the perceptions of students and lecturers. In their research Aizawa et al. (2023) demonstrate that the implementation of EMI in the research context does not seem to adversely impact the participants' academic achievement. However, the researchers identify certain academic problems unique to individuals studying through L2 English, particularly those with low-level English proficiency, indicating that EMI might adversely impact the content learning experience of certain participants concerning

L2 competence, whereby individuals with lower proficiency levels may need to exert greater effort to surmount specific academic challenges.

Numerous studies have emphasized that EMI classrooms include a diverse linguistic environment (Costa, 2012). ESL and EFL learners have a minimum of two languages in their linguistic repertoires involved in language learning vis-à-vis native users (Yu & Lee, 2014). Hence, a university should embrace an ELF viewpoint of the English language and strive to be multilingual. Currently, however, universities with multilingual contexts are closely linked to using standard English (Jenkins, 2015).

Research has focused on translanguaging use in EMI classrooms worldwide (e.g., Ishikawa, 2021; Sahan & Rose, 2021; Tai & Wei, 2023). In their study, Inbar-Lourie and Donitsa-Schmidt (2019) unravel that even in educational settings where language is not the main focus, there is a widespread belief that native speakers are fundamentally superior as instructors in EMI contexts. Ishikawa (2021) suggests that higher education institutions should offer English as a multilingual franca-aware sociolinguistics course to students in various faculties and departments, ideally at an earlier stage of their academic curriculum to facilitate future EMI in various disciplines or enhance effective English communication in the global academic community. Fang and Hu (2022) stress that EMI programs should validate translanguaging approaches that incorporate students' L1s, including minority languages, and various linguistic and multimodal resources.

Turkish universities have adopted EMI across various academic disciplines, including the hard sciences, humanities, and social sciences, in keeping with global trends (O'Dwyer & Atlı, 2018). EMI has also received more attention in Turkish education than in many other non-English-speaking nations since universities offering only EMI were established (Ataş, 2023). The studies conducted in EMI contexts in Türkiye reveal that the prevailing notion is that instructors should primarily prioritize imparting subject matter to their students; hence language itself is not of vital concern (Karakaş, 2016); students employ translanguaging when interacting with their peers and teachers to enhance comprehension and elucidate complex aspects of the subject matter (Küçük, 2018); and translanguaging is an essential aspect of classroom activities in the EMI Turkish context, and it provides varied degrees of benefits to both students and academics (Karakaş, 2023).

When using EMI in non-Anglophone environments, it is important to include a multilingual perspective and avoid relying solely on a native English model (Fang & Baker 2018; Hu, 2009; Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). The institutions with EMI may not

be value-neutral due to their promotion of English for better employment, high salaries, and global and social mobility (Wei, 2022). Choosing a language as a medium of instruction is a political act (Wei, 2022). EMI ideology also contrasts with the essence of bi-/multilingual identities in classrooms where language learners' repertoires from various interactional contexts come into contact and are leveraged through translanguaging (Ataş, 2023).

Though it is crucial to appreciate the benefits of multilingualism in EMI contexts, this recognition might not be sufficient (Wei & García, 2022). In EMI situations, a translanguaging lens is immensely empowering since the EMI classroom is fundamentally a bilingual or multilingual environment (Sahan & Rose, 2021). However, Wei (2022) explains that implementing a translanguaging pedagogy in the EMI context could be challenging. As EMI is not only centered on language itself but also on knowledge construction, translanguaging prompts us to consider the construction of knowledge in the context. Classroom learning is also limited and has a simple definition since learning outside the class occurs in a social environment. Therefore, translanguaging deals with respecting and valuing various dynamic language practices of learners as a fundamental learning resource (Wei, 2022). Fang and Hu (2022) also emphasize the importance of supporting translanguaging within critical multilingualism by offering EMI staff reflective exercises and training rather than adding more named languages in classes. By enabling them to employ their language repertoires, translanguaging empowers educators and learners in EMI classrooms by leveraging their negotiation of meaning (Ataş, 2023).

2.3. Translanguaging

Grosjean (1989) first introduces the idea of translanguaging, mentioning that bilingual people are not separate monolinguals, and explains that a significant number of bilingual programs distinguish between two languages. Nevertheless, Williams (1994) first uses the term translanguaging for pedagogical strategies in bilingual classes that do not cross strict borders between two languages. The translanguaging concept used by William is related to utilizing switching between two languages for input and output (Lewis et al., 2012). The theory is that a stronger language, English in the Wales context, influences the development of a weaker language, resulting in growth in both languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). However, the term translanguaging, which is used in

sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and education, has undergone constant revision over the past 20 years and has come to refer to a place, a theory, a set of techniques, and pedagogies (Kirsch, 2020).

According to García (2009), translanguaging is performed by bilinguals with various linguistic repertoires to increase their communication. García (2009) underlines that languages are not different concepts or functions and may appear in the same context. Moreover, no language has more power than others (García, 2009). Baker (2011) defines translanguaging as “the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages” (p. 288). Regarding García and Leiva (2014), translanguaging is a methodological technique for teaching multilinguals by encouraging them to use their entire language repertoire to participate in educational activities, and it is also an act of bilingual performance. Wiley and García (2016) summarise that translanguaging is flexibility in instructional strategies while teaching a foreign language. With a more current definition, translanguaging is a philosophy of language use and communication, considering the fluidity of various languages as an integrated communication system (Curle, Jablonkai, Mittelmeier, Sahan & Veitch, 2020).

Wei (2011a) explains that language users utilize all their potential for meaning-making during interaction. Wei (2011a) also mentions that translanguaging is based on psycholinguistics, focusing on the whole language learning process. According to Wei (2011a), translanguaging relates different linguistic structures and systems in learners’ minds. Translanguaging addresses all linguistic repertoires of language learners to represent, interact, and transmit information. He adds that translanguaging is naturally transformative since it forms a social environment for multilingual learners by combining various dimensions, including their backgrounds, perceptions, attitudes, and experiences (Wei, 2011a).

Wei (2011a) proposes the idea of a ‘translanguaging space’ serving as a social space. In this environment, multilingual people can use all their tools for creating meaning, including their physical and mental abilities, experiences, personal histories, attitudes, views, and ideologies, to communicate meaningfully. In studies of bilingualism and multilingualism, translanguaging space dissolves the artificial divisions between the macro and the micro, the societal and the individual, the social and psychological (Wei, 2011a). Multilingual individuals can create unique translanguaging environments beyond

any language limitation through their ability to navigate multiple language systems, structures, and modes (García & Lin, 2017).

Translanguaging enables language learners to interact with, maintain, and develop their existing language(s) and provides means to learn through learners' experiences and communication. Lewis et al. (2012) indicate that language learners may use their linguistic repertoire to convey meaning, understand, and interact, highlighting that translanguaging enables learners to maximize learning in a productive environment. Therefore, learners use their languages dynamically and functionally to organize and mediate learning (Lewis et al., 2012). Translanguaging, which builds new language practices on the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the learners, can also help alleviate the fear of language production among plurilingual learners (Ortega, 2019).

Teachers could promote using other languages in classes by creating spaces where learners can utilize translanguaging (Wei, 2011a). García, Zakharia and Otcu (2012) suggest that teachers should create opportunities for students to utilize their diverse skills and abilities to effectively understand and engage with challenging academic material and actively participate in learning activities. Teaching methods valuing bilingualism are the foundation of effective translanguaging (García et al., 2017), yet translanguaging also necessitates knowing about the unique experiences of each language learner and the nuances of language (Tian & Shepard-Carey, 2020).

Teachers and learners can start the process of translanguaging to facilitate communication. Students can benefit from translanguaging by participating more in class, expanding their ideas, and asking questions to understand lectures better. At the same time, lecturers can use it for educational and communicative purposes, such as expressing thoughts, concepts, and emotions, managing the classroom, and inquiring (García & Wei, 2014a; Lewis et al., 2012; Wang, 2019). Employing their available linguistic resources can substantially impact how learners engage with peers and teachers and respond to learning situations (Myers, 2017).

García (2013) outlines some specific characteristics of translanguaging. Translanguaging deals with monolingual approaches in language policies and supports bilingual norms. Translanguaging also addresses bilingualism as a source of language learning and transcends traditional views of bilingualism in second language learning. Moreover, translanguaging appreciates the bilingualism of students and educators, approaching language as an action and practice rather than a system and a group of skills (García, 2013).

Velasco and García (2014) stress that translanguaging facilitates flexible and meaningful bilingual learners. According to García and Wei (2014b), language learners' utilization of L1, L2, and other languages is an integration of language practices. Translanguaging is different from conventional language practices since it is transformative and aims to remove the hierarchy among the languages (Creese & Blackledge, 2015). Lopez, Turkan, and Guzman-Orth (2017) argue that translanguaging enables bilinguals to show what they know and can do even if their English language skills are limited.

García and Wei (2014a) clarify three novel approaches to language and education resulting from a *trans* focus on translanguaging. They are:

- a. a *trans-system* and *trans-space*, meaning the understanding of flexible discursive techniques that engage learners' diverse meaning-making resources by bridging language systems and spaces,
- b. its *trans-formative* nature focusing on the alteration of conventional cognitive and social frameworks, the reordering of language, and the emphasis on other people's voices,
- c. *trans-disciplinary* effects dealing with the development of instruments for comprehending human cognition and learning, human sociality, social interactions, and social structures, in addition to language and education.

Drawing on García and Wei's (2014a) *trans* focus on translanguaging, Mazak (2017) suggests that translanguaging is an umbrella term comprising five principles:

1. It is a *language ideology* viewing bilingualism as the standard.
2. It is a *theory of bilingualism* grounded in bilinguals' actual experiences.
3. It is a *pedagogical stance* in which teachers and language learners can utilize all their linguistic and semiotic resources to teach and acquire a language.
4. It is a *set of practices* that encompasses any action relying on a learner's language and semiotic repertoire, not just what was referred to as code-switching.
5. It is *transformational* because it constantly creates new language practices through meaning-making.

Translanguaging is generally associated with bilingualism and multilingualism. However, it can be applied to monolinguals since it deploys a speaker's linguistic resources (Otheguy et al., 2015). Translanguaging is neither a concrete thing nor a structural phenomenon, but an approach and procedure (Wei, 2017). Translanguaging mentions that language learners' first or already learned languages could positively affect learning a new language, and the knowledge of the first or prior learned languages may play a significant role in an education system with a foreign language medium (Wei, 2022).

The translanguaging stance points out that EFL learners' linguistic and cultural knowledge is justified, becoming crucial for language learners' success (Flores, 2020). However, applying a translanguaging approach in language classes is not always possible. The limitations faced by educators in adopting the approach comprise an institutional language policy, insufficient guidance on implementation, personal linguistic purism ideology, and assumptions and perceived risks, including excessive reliance on L1 by students or the erosion of community language and identity (Creese & Blackledge, 2011; Wang, 2019; Wang & Kirkpatrick, 2012). Wei (2022) advocates that translanguaging is not just based on allowing the use of other languages in class; it also reconstructs the power relations between named languages, approaches to knowledge, and pedagogic practices.

Considering the English language, researchers studying translanguaging theory have proposed three principles educators must thoroughly comprehend. First, English is not merely a self-contained and independent system of vocabulary, word structure, sentence structure, and sound patterns that align with what is referred to as English. Second, every speaker participates in languaging, which involves a set of social behaviors they carry out as beings capable of using signs when communicating with listeners who validate their actions. Lastly, the linguistic, cognitive, social, and emotional aspects of speakers' use of language are inherently interconnected. Every speaker utilizes a unified set of linguistic qualities acquired via their language experiences and interactions. These three language viewpoints strongly endorse the notion that all speakers participate in choosing characteristics from a unified collection that they have formed via social interaction (Seltzer & García, 2020).

Translanguaging is sometimes misunderstood as only permitting learners to use their L1 in the classroom. However, if there is no educational benefit, translanguaging may be viewed as nothing more than a spontaneous behavior (Galante, 2020a). In educational

contexts, translanguaging enables language learners to utilize their pre-existing languages flexibly to fulfill their communication requirements and improve their learning, particularly by using their prior knowledge for more accessible linguistic and conceptual development (Van Viegen, 2020).

2.3.1. Different Approaches to Translanguaging

Lewis et al. (2012), and García and Wei (2014a) propose two translanguaging strategies: *teacher-directed translanguaging* is about clarifying the meaning, reinforcing the students, classroom management and asking questions, and *student-directed translanguaging* is related to participation, sharing ideas and asking questions.

Cenoz and Gorter (2017) approach translanguaging as *pedagogical* and *spontaneous translanguaging*. Pedagogical translanguaging, a concept that the teacher/instructor strategically employs in the classroom, involves utilizing multiple languages for input, output and other planned tactics based on utilizing learners' resources from their entire linguistic repertoire. This innovative approach challenges linguistic boundaries and allows for the dynamic use of multilingual resources (Cenoz, 2017). With a more current definition, pedagogical translanguaging is the term used to describe instructional strategies in language and content areas where the multilingual resources of the learners are intentionally considered and utilized during the planning and teaching phases (Juvonen & Källkvist, 2021). Language learners' entire linguistic repertoire is harnessed in pedagogical translanguaging, as prior knowledge can significantly aid in comprehension and the growth of language and content (Flores & García, 2013; Lin, 2016). While pedagogical translanguaging incorporates language switching in both the input and output, it also encompasses a wide range of additional practices drawing on elements from the whole linguistics repertoire. It is closely linked to the ideas and methods of the original translanguaging approach used in Welsh (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). Spontaneous translanguaging uses two languages in naturally occurring settings with fluid and ever-changing linguistic borders. It refers to the flexible use of other language practices inside and outside the class. Additionally, there may be instances of spontaneous translanguaging that a teacher or language learners employ to get attention to specific curriculum points. It is a continuum with two types at each end, not a dichotomy with two options (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017).

There are two types of translanguage theory: *weak* and *strong*. The weak type refers to flexibility in instruction by softening language boundaries. The strong type deals with named languages, asserting that learners use all their linguistic repertoire rather than speak named languages. The strong type also suggests that all learners have translanguage competence, a mental grammar shaping in communication, and linguistic features changing based on the context (Garcia, 2009; Garcia & Lin, 2017).

In their examination of translanguage, Leung and Valdes (2019, p. 359) distinguish between two analytical points. Languages are described as “distant and separate semiotic entities” in the first point and as “configurations of temporal lexical and syntactic features expressing human meaning.” The first view, the dominant one, suggests that languages are different even though they may share some similarities. According to the second view, specific times and places employ particular lexical, syntactic, phonological, and orthographic traits, and in a named language, these characteristics are not required to be unchanging. The first point of view is linked to the translanguage concept that originated in Wales, as Welsh and English are seen as distinct languages despite their occasional use in teaching. The second view can be based on the translanguage concept proposed by Otheguy et al. (2015) as the utilization of a speaker’s entire language repertoire while paying close attention to the politically and socially determined borders of named languages (Leung & Valdes, 2019).

Cummins (2021) proposes the *Unitary Translanguage Theory* (UTT) instead of the strong form of translanguage and *Crosslinguistic Translanguage Theory* (CTT) for the weak form of translanguage. Given UTT, languages are neither cognitive nor linguistically actual, and bilinguals have a single, undifferentiated linguistic system. On the other hand, the CTT asserts that bilinguals speak many registers of languages and that good instruction encourages translanguage or the transfer of concepts and linguistic patterns between languages (Cummins, 2021).

Bonacina-Pugh, Da Costa Cabral, and Huang (2021) suggest two methods for studying bilingualism and translanguage: the *fixed language approach* and the *fluid language approach*. In the fixed languages approach, language transfer between languages can be achieved by code-switching and translation and the fixed languages approach sees languages as distinct and restricted things. In contrast, in the fluid languages approach, no language transfer occurs because the languages are viewed as equally distinct and the fluid language approach sees language as a fluid and dynamic use of semiotic signs.

Cogo (2021) claims that one's language resources change, evolve, and adjust due to interactions within a particular context and contact with other language resources. Cogo further explains *overt* and *covert* translanguaging in that when using overt translanguaging, linguistic resources generally associated with distinct languages like L1 are explicitly present, whereas covert translanguaging describes the application of less obvious language sources, such as when language learners do not have the same linguistic backgrounds.

Translanguaging has developed through the years in three ways:

- a. as a pedagogic philosophy and practice enabling language learners to use all their linguistic knowledge,
- b. as a human cognition and communication theory focusing on the idea that named languages are political barriers and ideological approaches of the nation-states and not related to the neuropsychology,
- c. as an analytical perspective meaning that translanguaging relates language fixation to language users, with their capacity to communicate in specific times and contexts (Wei, 2022).

Translanguaging as a political stance deals with language as a political form. The idea regarding human language as abstractable codes comes from linguistic conservatism (García & Wei, 2014b). Wei (2022) remarks that human languages are not neutral and abstract but are used as a sociopolitical force serving global interests, including nation-state ideologies and geopolitical constructions. Moreover, labeling languages is also a political ideology that is more based on the users of the language than on itself (Wei, 2022). Due to language labeling, national languages have privilege and prestige in various uses, while minority languages can become disadvantaged or even discriminated against (Wei, 2022). Therefore, translanguaging is mainly rearranging concerning three aspects:

- a. It reforms the language structures utilizing dynamic mixing of various named languages and varieties,
- b. It regenerates the status of languages impacted by nation-states and raciolinguistic ideas,
- c. It reforms the power relations of language users labeled by the native and non-native claims of colonized languages (Wei, 2022).

The translanguaging stance approaches academic English as a political form through raciolinguistic ideologies, bringing specific speakers into prominence. The stance engages language learners' existing linguistic knowledge and system in language learning, leading to an equal power relation between native speakers and users of other native languages (Wei, 2022).

2.3.2. Related concepts

The emergence of translanguaging raises questions about the relationship, differences, and similarities between language learning and teaching concepts.

Language is a cognitive tool mediating the human mind by helping individuals organize, focus, and arrange their thoughts (Lantolf, 2000). Language serves three primary purposes: as a cognitive tool for knowledge processing, as a social or cultural tool for knowledge sharing, and as a pedagogical instrument for intellectual guiding (Mercer, Wegerif & Dawes, 1999).

Languaging is the root of all translanguaging-related concepts. In order to highlight the continuous process of language learning, Becker (1988) initially used the noun language with the suffix '-ing' to make it a verb. Languaging refers to communicating despite prevailing linguistic norms and conventions, and it is essential to comprehend communication as an ongoing process spanning traditional language norms rather than as a means of adhering to linguistic conventions (Canagarajah, 2002). Languaging is how language learners understand, interact, construct their knowledge, and gain experience (Swain, Lapkin, Knouzi, Suzuki, & Brooks, 2009). It describes the process of utilizing language to communicate about language use, create sense, acquire knowledge, and express thoughts (Wei, 2011b). Additionally, "languaging is an emergent process of social interaction" not limited to borrowing from other languages; it also shapes language through individual practices (Lee, 2016, p. 200).

Another term related to translanguaging is *code-switching*. Cook (2001) implies that code-switching is a bilingual activity that enables the simultaneous use of L1 and L2. Wei (2011b) points out that code-switching includes creative strategies rather than a simple combination of two languages. In code-switching, teachers and students use two languages in one sentence (Lewis et al., 2012). Translanguaging includes yet surpasses code-switching. Whereas code-switching analyses bilingual speech, translanguaging is mainly related to sociolinguistics. While code-switching is connected with language

separation, translanguaging offers flexibility and transmittance between two or more languages (García, 2009). García (2013) also specifies that according to translanguaging, bilinguals have one linguistic repertoire to choose strategies for effective communication, while code-switching deals with languages as separate systems. Velasco and García (2014) clarify that “translanguaging is more than code-switching” since translanguaging deals with two languages as different codes that are switched for communication (p. 7). Code-switching falls short of explaining how languages are used to negotiate meaning in language classrooms when compared to translanguaging as a theoretical and pedagogical lens (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021).

Muysken (2000) defines the term *code-mixing* as encompassing all instances where lexical items and grammatical elements from two languages coexist within a single phrase. In code-mixing, elements from one language are used while the speaker predominantly utilizes another language (Muysken, 2000). Code-mixing involves the integration of diverse linguistic elements, including affixes (bound morphemes), words (unbound morphemes), phrases, and clauses, within a collaborative context where language users must align their auditory perceptions with their comprehension to deduce the intended meaning (Siregar, Bahri, & Sanjaya, 2014). Code-mixing is evidently a combination of two or more languages, wherein one language predominates while elements of another language are used to enhance appeal and provide suitable context for the audience or listener (Siregar et al., 2014). However, translanguaging is a broader term as translanguaging is the utilization of two languages as distinct codes that are alternated for communication purposes (Velasco & García, 2014).

Language-switching is a notion that can sometimes be mistaken for code-switching and translanguaging. According to Woodall (2002), it is the unplanned and unregulated use of one's L1 in writing in an L2. It is also characterized as occurring privately and frequently subvocally during the composition of an L2 text. Similarly, it resembles Vygotsky's notion of private speech, which aids an individual in regulating their cognitive processes when faced with a difficult task. Language switching, unlike code-switching, is a cognitive process that occurs within an individual to compensate for difficulties encountered while writing in an L2. In contrast, code-switching is a noticeable phenomenon during communication or writing between individuals (Karabulut, 2019).

Translation, as a component of translanguaging, is the conversion of words, phrases, and expressions from one language to another that aligns with their meaning. Creese and Blackledge (2011) underline that translation is an educational strategy that helps teach

vocabulary and the lesson's continuum. Lewis et al. (2012) explain that translation is based on language separation, scaffolding, and focusing on stronger language. Kano (2012) highlights that whereas translation and code-switching are linguistic ideas, translanguaging surpasses mere linguistic boundaries and encompasses a broader conceptual framework.

Plurilingualism can be defined as the ability to use languages for communication and engage in cross-cultural interactions. In this context, an individual is seen as a social agent possessing varied multilingualism and cross-cultural experience. Plurilingualism is a complex or composite competence the social actor may draw upon rather than the superposition or juxtaposition of discrete abilities (Coste, Moore & Zarate, 2009). It is the way that the linguistic repertoires of bilingual and multilingual people are dynamically integrated and intersect with disparately developed competencies in a range of languages, dialects, and registers (Cummins, 2017).

Despite numerous concepts, the current study approaches translanguaging as a pedagogy to utilize students' all language knowledge in a pedagogically informed manner and to enhance the paragraph writing performance of Turkish EFL learners since translanguaging pedagogy offers enhanced opportunities for teaching complex content and fosters the academic application of the TL. It emphasizes leveraging bilingual/multilingual students' strengths, facilitating their academic language use, comprehending intricate materials, recognizing linguistic variations, and advancing bilingual concepts (García, 2013).

2.3.3. Translanguaging pedagogy

Williams (1996) remarks that translanguaging in the classes refers to the deliberate and methodological employment of two languages, one as the input and the other as the output. Translanguaging propounds that multilingualism needs to be the core of language education. Garcia and Flores (2014) emphasize that when translanguaging is adequately understood and effectively integrated into educational institutions, it has the capacity to enhance cognitive, linguistic, and literacy abilities. All language users have translanguaging competence, enabling them to select appropriate language features at the proper time and place (Wiley & García, 2016).

Translanguaging pedagogy in education means the definition of a language as a culturally and nationally shared system should be abandoned; language should be seen as

an emerging and changing process; and using only the TL in education should be given up (Wiley & García, 2016). Translanguaging enables multilingual learners to improve their educational and linguistic skills by revealing multiple identities (García & Wei, 2014b).

Lewis et al. (2012) explain that translanguaging as a classroom practice deals with all linguistic repertoire of language learners to increase understanding. They mention that students with various linguistic backgrounds participate in pair/group work and ignore language norms. García (2013) states that translanguaging enables language practices to be flexible, resulting in various language practices of students to increase the possibility of bilingualism. Translanguaging pedagogy presents more chances to teach challenging content and develops educational use of the TL and it focuses on constructing bilingual students' strengths, helping them use the language academically, comprehending complex materials, being aware of language differences, and improving bilingual ideas (García, 2013).

According to Baker (2001, p. 281), the translanguaging pedagogy has the following four potential benefits:

- a. It might help learners comprehend the material more thoroughly and in-depth. Learners are considered to have understood the material if they can comprehend it in two languages.
- b. Through translanguaging, learners may achieve academic proficiency in their L1s and become fully bilingual. If not, they could select their weaker language(s) for more accessible topics and utilize their stronger language(s) for more difficult ones. It might lead to advancements in one of their languages.
- c. The ability of families to assist their children in their L1s can guarantee parent-school cooperation.
- d. Fluent English speakers and English language learners could effectively integrate to support one another.

Horner, Lu, Royster, and Trimbur (2011) mention that translingual pedagogy aims to create awareness about fluid and dynamic language. Velasco and García (2014) underline that learning ensures language learners with various ways to learn and acquire the content. Anderson (2017, p.7) mentions that in "mixed-L1" and "shared-L1" classrooms, language instructions need to be reorganized to prepare language learners for

possible future translanguing environments, and adds that EFL classes should be regarded as translanguing contexts where translanguaging is authentic. Though there are no definitive guidelines or requirements for implementing the theory of translanguaging into pedagogy, it is essential to carefully evaluate critical factors: the context in which it will be applied, the student population it will be used with, and the existing curriculum (Galante, 2020a).

CUNY—New York State Initiative on Emergent Bilinguals (NYSIEB) is a joint effort that began in 2011 to develop techniques for integrating translanguaging in multilingual ESL situations. Researchers specializing in multilingual education and translanguaging are part of the project team (www.cuny-nysieb.org). The project team has produced three guides that explain how to implement a translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom. The first was titled ‘Translanguaging: A CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators’ (Celic & Seltzer, 2013). Being the primary source to integrate translanguaging pedagogy in this study, it could be the most comprehensive guide as it offers clarifications and definitions regarding translanguaging. The translanguaging teaching settings and practices provided in the primary guide would benefit all learners (Celic & Seltzer, 2013).

The translanguaging techniques in the guide would expose learners speaking only one language at home to linguistic diversity, help them develop the linguistic flexibility and tolerance that the world requires, and allow them to continue learning new languages throughout their lives. The translanguaging techniques would validate home language practices for learners speaking languages other than English at home, even without instruction in those languages. For those learning a second language, such as English, referred to as emergent bilinguals, these translanguaging techniques might be the sole means of imparting rigorous academic material and fostering language development (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p.5).

The second guide, ‘Translanguaging in Curriculum and Instruction; A CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators’ was published the following year (Hesson, Seltzer & Woodley, 2014). The second one offers practical translanguaging techniques by separating instructional units into school levels. The last guide, ‘Translanguaging in Dual Language Bilingual Education: A Blueprint for Planning Units of Study’ offers methods to incorporate translanguaging into lessons spanning various curriculum areas (Solarza, Aponte, Leverenz, Becker & Frias, 2019).

In the foreword section of the first guide, the benefits of translanguaging are clarified. Celic and Seltzer (2013, p.17) explain the advantages of designing a unit around a product that promotes translanguaging. These are:

- a. It provides scaffolding for acquiring academic subjects, language, and English literacy.
- b. Learners using their L1 as a medium of instruction can better comprehend the material.
- c. In addition, learners improve their literacy and academic skills in their L1s.
- d. Learners can effectively demonstrate their knowledge and abilities by utilizing translanguaging techniques.
- e. Teachers can evaluate their students' knowledge and linguistic proficiency with greater precision.
- f. Translanguaging techniques for a diverse, multilingual audience and many objectives can help learners enhance their critical thinking abilities and employ advanced cognitive skills when producing a product.
- g. Learners can enhance their engagement by leveraging the knowledge from their experiences and backgrounds.
- h. Learners can strengthen and establish their multilingual identities by translanguaging and utilizing their L1s.

Translanguaging pedagogy clarifies that many learners can benefit from translanguaging when acquiring academic content and an L2. It is said that educators can apply translanguaging techniques in various settings: ESL classrooms, bilingual classes, monolingual general education classrooms, and even foreign language classrooms (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p.5). Those clarifications could support utilizing translanguaging in EFL instruction, which was used in this study.

García et al. (2017) and Vogel and García (2017) describe the main principles of translanguaging pedagogy as:

1. *Stance* is the idea that teachers should utilize and draw from their learners' many language practices as valuable tools in the classroom.
2. *Design* involves creating opportunities for learners to practice the language features required for different academic activities and designing strategic plans based on the learners' unique language practices and ways of knowing.
3. *Shifts* involve having the flexibility to adapt lesson ideas as needed, on-the-spot, based on learner input.

Studies show that using translanguaging pedagogies strategically can lead to more profound and more complex subject and language learning, increase metacognitive and metalinguistic awareness, and promote language learners' identity development (Allard, 2017; Creese & Blackledge, 2015). Mahmoud and Galante (2020) indicate that translanguaging practices can lead language learners to consider that they are accepted and motivated to learn the language.

Utilizing translanguaging in a class has basic features based on theory and practice, which aim to use both input and output language dually. Additionally, it is based on language integration and focuses on the advantages of being bilingual. A translingual approach in class is not code-switching but refers to the arrangements that do not separate languages (Creese & Blackledge, 2015). Both teachers and learners could engage in translanguaging in a classroom (Wei, 2017). By focusing on their varied language skills, the language practices should be centered on communication with all learners in the class, allowing them to negotiate and discuss the academic subject with their teachers and peers (Ortega, 2019). Translanguaging pedagogy views bilingualism as a strength and uses the language and cultural resources available to language learners (Tian & Shepard-Carey, 2020).

García and Wei (2014a) explain that teachers have some goals in translanguaging pedagogy. They are:

- a. To be aware of differences among language learners and create instructions accordingly,
- b. To construct background information for language learners so that they can grasp the topic and find out languaging ways,
- c. To amplify the understanding and participation of language learners, improve knowledge, and enable them to think critically,
- d. To facilitate the ability of language learners to communicate in various situations,
- e. To enable language learners to utilize language in a successful way in communication,
- f. To engage language learners in their identity issues, and
- g. To make language learners question challenges hierarchies in both linguistics and social life.

Anderson (2017) points out that a translingual teacher can recognize, interpret, assist, and question language learners' linguistic choices. Additionally, teachers can model monolingual and translingual practices in their classes. While incorporating translanguaging in a class, a teacher must consider language learning a process rather than just acquiring a new language (Conteh, 2018). According to Tian and Shepard-Carey (2020), language teachers must acquire agency and take on the role of classroom language policymakers to actively negotiate with and even challenge the dominant structure, monolingualism. In a classroom like this, several languages can support one another, and multilingual communities in real life can serve as a model for teaching languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021).

García and Sylvan (2011) identify seven principles that underpin translanguaging practices and these are heterogeneity, collaboration, learner-centeredness, integration of language and content, student-driven language use, experiential learning, and local autonomy and accountability. The use of translanguaging in the classrooms can be influenced by various factors, including student attitudes toward their native tongues, teacher language proficiency, and participation norms (Daniel et al., 2019). Therefore, teachers should communicate that translanguaging is encouraged in their classes (Daniel et al., 2019). Teachers may engage in translanguaging in their classes by mediating peer learning by utilizing existing resources and languages (Mahmoud & Galante, 2020). Zorluel Özer (2021) also suggests that teachers should encourage language learners to utilize multiple sources, including other languages and cultures.

Teachers need to scaffold translanguaging activities and assist language learners in realizing the benefits of translanguaging for their academic learning to maximize translanguaging pedagogies, especially in English-only settings (Daniel et al., 2019). However, it is unusual to find curriculum resources that advise teachers on encouraging translanguaging among their learners (Daniel et al., 2019). Therefore, the collaboration between teachers and researchers has significant potential for realizing translanguaging theory and pedagogy, maintaining the classroom as the center of translanguaging research, and easing the application of translanguaging pedagogies in a variety of TESOL contexts (Tian & Shepard-Carey, 2020).

2.4. Writing in EFL

Writing plays a crucial role in language by enabling the transmission of information to a broader audience (Pinker, 1994). Gardner and Johnson (1997) explain that writing is a dynamic process in which writers craft as they engage in their work. Contrary to popular belief, the writing process is not a strictly structured and sequential activity. Instead, it involves a constant transition between various stages of the writing model (Gardner & Johnson, 1997). Writing offers a dual advantage: firstly, it enhances students' ability to focus and structure their thoughts, prompting them to engage in critical thinking, summarization, and evaluation of their ideas. Furthermore, through these procedures, the students can acquire knowledge and skills in a second or foreign language (Darayseh, 2003). Writing is typically a more formal mode of communication than speaking, and the primary objective is often to produce a document with a specific intention (Harmer, 2007).

Writing is a challenging but essential aspect of literacy that enables students to share their thoughts and actively engage in their schools and communities. According to Cohen and Cowen (2010), one factor which makes writing challenging is students' perception of it as a burdensome task, an unpleasant duty, and a mere obligation to do. Consequently, they do not identify themselves as writers. They perceive writing as a difficult task that must be finished to receive a grade, as certain schools prioritize reading instruction over writing (Cohen & Cowen, 2010). Also, during the writing process, students are anticipated to transform a concept, which may or may not be original, into a comprehensive and well-expressed outcome while being mindful of linguistic aspects of the desired language they may not yet possess (Byrd, 2011).

The teaching of writing in EFL and ESL classrooms has been primarily influenced by product and process approaches for the past two decades. However, over the past decade, there has been a noticeable increase in the significance of genre techniques in EFL and ESL courses (Hasan & Akhand, 2010). The 'product approach' is a conventional method where students are prompted to imitate a model text, typically introduced and examined before, such as students are provided with a traditional sample of text and are required to adhere to the established norms to create a new text. However, a 'process approach' emphasizes diverse classroom activities that foster the growth of language use, such as brainstorming, group discussion, and rewriting. Process writing as a classroom activity encompasses the four fundamental stages of writing: planning, drafting, revising,

and editing (Seow, 2002). The planning stage provokes learners to initiate writing; the drafting stage helps learners prioritize writing flow over grammatical precision and write their work, the revising stage enables students to rewrite by evaluating their texts according to the provided feedback; and the editing stage helps students refine their texts for the final draft (Seow, 2002). The 'genre-based approach' views writing as a communal and cultural activity. The goal of this writing is determined by the specific environment in which it is being written and the established conventions of the intended audience or discourse community. Therefore, teaching students in the language classroom about appropriate genre knowledge is necessary. Both the product and process approaches have advantages and disadvantages. Consequently, it is believed that adopting both techniques together can assist student writers in developing their language abilities by engaging in a whole writing process (Hasan & Akhand, 2010).

García (2009) discusses the importance of four language skills and emphasizes that each skill is related to the others. Writing and reading skills are crucial in students' academic lives because they are frequently assessed. Therefore, a primary goal of education is to actively include students in writing and reading activities, especially in an additional language. Literacy is particularly crucial for higher education, as university students need to be extensively exposed to diverse texts and genres to learn it and can produce such texts themselves (Palfreyman & Van der Walt, 2017).

Teaching writing in any foreign language has numerous obstacles related to materials, sociopolitical factors, and cultural aspects. However, these challenges become even more urgent when the FL is English due to the unique position of English as a global language today. To fully understand EFL writing, it is necessary to consider the study of globalization. Hence, it is essential to consider the significant impact of globalization on material, cultural, and sociopolitical factors to thoroughly conceive the study of EFL writing (Ortega, 2009).

Writing is one of the most challenging skills for EFL students, who must acquire this essential communication ability that cannot be overlooked (Saleh, 2018). The predominant challenges arise from deficiencies in syntax, coherence, vocabulary, idea elaboration, content selection, sentence structure, technicality, organization, and inappropriate vocabulary usage (Ahmed, 2019). The process of writing is the most challenging talent to enhance; it demands more time and greater focus; also for EFL and ESL students, writing proficiency is crucial, as it serves not only as a means of communication but also as a primary determinant of effective and enhanced academic

performance in educational settings (Ahmed, 2019).

English has become the most frequently used language for international academic publishing, independent of the authors' L1, which is evident from the significance placed on publishing in English-language media. The current role of English as a widely used language in academia is similar to that of the Latin language during Europe's Middle Ages. The status of English has been further reinforced by its growing use as a medium of instruction at the tertiary level (Hasan & Akhand, 2010). Emphasizing literacy development in language classes cultivates global competency, enabling students to think critically, engage in substantive discourse, and articulate their views in several languages with different people (Burke & Holbrook, 2018).

Students must understand that writing constitutes a form of thinking, and proficient writing in the TL necessitates cognitive engagement in that language (Burke & Holbrook, 2018). Sari (2021) underlines that writing is a mental and physical workout, particularly for the brain. The individual writing a text reads various literary works to improve word choice and provide content for written discussions. Sari (2021) also highlights that written work reflects learners' creativity and knowledge through their writing preferences.

Writing, as a cognitive process, necessitates meticulous utilization of the TL and thorough adherence to the norms, particularly in terms of grammar and writing structure (Ahmed, 2019). Typically, non-native students often experience hesitation when writing essays in the TL due to their efforts to locate appropriate vocabulary. Additionally, they may encounter punctuation, capitalization, and grammar challenges in the TL. Learners' primary difficulties appear to be grammar, concept organization, and punctuation. Among the many writing techniques, mapping proved to be the most challenging for language learners (Ahmed, 2019), which might be overcome through well-designed pre-writing activities.

2.4.1. Brainstorming as a pre-writing activity

Language learners can generate ideas for content and structure during the pre-writing phase of the writing process, which makes the pre-writing activities crucial (Hyland, 2003). Cohen and Cowen (2010) assert that the writing process consists of multiple stages, each of which is equally important. These stages are dedicated to the general structure and objective of the final written piece. The first phase of the writing process is the pre-writing stage. At this stage, students investigate and concentrate on the aim,

audience, topic, and form the writing task could adopt. The first phase of the writing process is crucial to the final product as it prompts the student to contemplate how they strategize their work. This stage appears to be beneficial for organization and design (Cohen & Cowen, 2010). Researchers have also discovered that pre-writing activities enhance the quality of material produced by writers (Byrd, 2011).

As TL writers typically have a restricted vocabulary and struggle to communicate their thoughts effectively, collaboration during the pre-writing stage of the writing process is crucial (Fitze & Glasgow, 2009; Storch, 2005). With proper pre-writing guidance, students can effectively articulate their thoughts in spite of constraints imposed by linguistic structures. Pre-writing activities guide students to create a more successful work. These activities allow learners to explore several interpretations of the writing prompt and review the terminology required to complete the assignment effectively. Pre-writing activities also enable students to engage their prior knowledge or develop new vocabulary, syntax, and cultural content knowledge in preparation for the writing task (Byrd, 2011).

There are some options to utilize as pre-writing activities, including brainstorming. Brainstorming as pre-writing could be a starting point for writers, as it does not necessitate any specific handout or extensive practice. Bobb-Wolff (1996) explains that brainstorming is a valuable and stimulating technique in EFL classrooms since it serves as a way to enable students to collectively generate many ideas to enhance their learning process. English writers can benefit from being given the chance to brainstorm and discuss ideas in advance of writing (Fitze & Glasgow, 2009; Storch, 2005). Brainstorming is a pre-writing exercise in which writers record all their thoughts on a particular topic without evaluating them. Subsequently, writers examine the outcome to identify patterns or valuable insights related to the subject (Manouchehry, Farangi, Fatemi & Qaviketf, 2014). Manouchehry et al. (2014) also explain that brainstorming is a casual method of resolving problems and thinking creatively. Individuals are requested to identify concepts and notions that may initially appear somewhat inappropriate. It is an influential activity that generates novel ideas and inspires learners to complete writing assignments. Brainstorming is a method employed to stimulate folks to produce ideas and create a roster of potential solutions to a specific situation. It is regarded as the initial stage in the writing process, increasing students' enthusiasm for producing essays (Manouchehry et al., 2014). Brainstorming aims to guide individuals towards new modes of thought and deviate from conventional modes of reasoning. Brainstorming is a process

that aids in creating innovative solutions to a problem. It instructs students to diverge from established patterns of reasoning and seek potential ways of thinking (Manouchehry et al., 2014).

During a brainstorming session, students collaboratively develop a list of words or phrases related to a particular topic. Students can be easily guided by directing their attention toward ideas and terminology they may not have previously considered. This guiding can be done by asking specific questions such as ‘who’ or ‘what’ or by introducing words or phrases they may not be familiar with (Williams, 2005). In a writing study, students demonstrated enhanced proficiency in incorporating the concepts developed during the in-person talks in pre-writing into their following written work (Fitze, 2008). Examining the impact of collaborative and non-collaborative pre-writing activities on the first versions of written work, Fitze and Glasgow (2009) suggested that the selection of the pre-writing environment has some effects on students' pre-writing activities and subsequently influences the outcomes of their drafts. By facilitating a straightforward brainstorming session, low-level students can progress from constructing basic, uncomplicated words to formulating more subjective statements that effectively convey their ideas regarding the assigned topic. It is important to consider allowing students to use words from their L1 throughout the pre-writing stage of the writing process (Byrd, 2011).

Pre-writing activities may not serve as a solution for all writing problems, ensuring their perfection from the outset, yet, the activities could initiate students on a trip through the writing process with a stronger foundation to yield a superior final output (Byrd, 2011). Showing the significance of brainstorming as a pre-writing activity, Manouchehry et al. (2014) conclude that implementing brainstorming is effective in enhancing students' essay writing, specifically in terms of content and organization, mechanics of writing, language proficiency, and creative thinking skills such as fluency, flexibility, originality, and elaboration, in addition to increasing collaboration among learners.

2.4.2. Writing and translanguaging

For years, English writing in general English and ESL programs has had a small place for other languages in class, resulting in limited creativity and flexibility. Traditional writing approaches have attempted to eradicate variations to achieve correctness, which is defined as writers' compliance with a standard form named

Standard American English (Horner et al., 2011). Though standardized English is not only an either-or choice, evaluating language learners' writing forces teachers/instructors to make such choices (Lee, 2016). Another point is that standardized English disregards variations in syntactic and notational standards historically demonstrated. Moreover, it needs to consider how readers decide whether language use is appropriate or incorrect. Last, it disregards the significance of questioning and changing language conventions for language users and learners to consider knowledge, knowing methods, and the relations between the readers and writers (Horner et al., 2011). Additionally, monolingual writing practices have resulted in the ideology of dealing with English as the only beneficial medium of instruction (Kalan, 2022).

Baker (2004) emphasizes the necessity of improving bilingual students' literary abilities to enhance their competency and academic achievement. According to Canagarajah (2011), research conducted in higher education shows that students often use several languages, indicating that they can rely on and employ a language other than the primary language of study to accomplish their academic work. Hanson (2013) accentuates that learners benefit from evaluating things in various languages and having different views on a topic in writing. Velasco and García (2014) also underline that research on writing has clarified that there is a connection between languages and language practices, even if they do not have the same systems in writing.

A translanguaging perspective in academic writing for multilingual learners provides the shift from knowledge of the genre to negotiation between the writer and reader (Canagarajah, 2006). Cummins (2007) supports the idea that translanguaging allows learners to interact with academic work and literacy in both languages with greater assurance. Also, translanguaging can correspond to high academic writing standards and promote language learners' whole linguistic repertoire (Velasco & García, 2014). Translanguaging is a bilingual and multilingual literacy technique promoting the fluidity and blending of people's collective languages in writing while positively embracing and sustaining each learner's unique language experiences (Nicolarakis & Mitchell, 2023).

According to Horner et al. (2011), a translingual approach discusses

- a. legitimizing various language uses,
- b. being aware of all linguistic diversity around the world,

- c. facing English monolingual expectations by studying how writers can work beyond these expectations.

Although the terminology is still developing, scholars supporting it have the following assumptions:

- a. English monolingualism is a dominant problem,
- b. Language differences exist, and they are usual,
- c. Languages are ever-changing,
- d. Translingual writing practice enables learners to negotiate language differences (Matsuda, 2014).

The translingual approach emphasizes how language barriers are ideological inventions, focusing on research in sociolinguistics that questions a monolingual orientation towards a language (Lee, 2016). Translanguaging creates places for language practices typically pathologized in institutional contexts, including multilingual writers (Lee, 2016).

Translingual pedagogy in writing is a comprehensive approach based on the tendency to delve into a language. This approach views linguistic variations as a tool for meaning-making in writing (Horner et al., 2011). Zorluel Özer (2021) also explains that translingual pedagogy is about asking language learners what they mean and why they do it in that way rather than saying it is wrong, as Canagarajah (2009) mentions, errors might be purposeful choices of learners. Additionally, it does not force learners to utilize all their linguistic sources but presents options for students to choose from (Zorluel Özer, 2021). Translingual writing signifies more integrative language learning contexts that recognize learners' translanguaging as valid and significant (Kalan, 2022).

Translanguaging between L1 and L2 or other languages is an ability for fluent writing necessary in academic writing (Hanson, 2013). García and Kano (2014) also indicate that translanguaging facilitates learners' perceptions of writing assignments by easing writing challenges and helping improve the text. Adamson and Coulson (2015) highlight that utilizing translanguaging in writing helps language learners develop autonomy and self-determination, leading to a pragmatic reaction to the challenges of academic writing. Kaufhold (2018) suggests that translanguaging can be beneficial for language learners in developing their academic writing skills across language borders. Prilutskaya and Knoph

(2020) underline that the translanguaging approach can facilitate idea generation and information structuring.

Research has demonstrated that translanguaging is an essential multimodal language tool in educational settings (e.g., Karabulut, 2019). Translanguaging offers much-needed scaffolding to support content learning opportunities and foster the development of metacognitive skills, learners' agency, and self-regulation (Blackledge & Creese, 2017; Hoffman, Wolsey, Andrews & Clark, 2017; Velasco & García, 2014; Vogel & García, 2017). Due to the expanding body of research on translanguaging and its well-established benefits, the emphasis has switched to how translanguaging methods and tools may be integrated into classroom education to help complex language tasks, such as writing (Nicolarakis & Mitchell, 2023).

Translanguaging must be used as an instructional tool rather than an instinctive activity in educational settings, including writing instruction (Canagarajah, 2011). However, it is challenging to use translanguaging as a deliberate instructional tool, even though it is a natural activity in writing and classroom settings, due to language ideology, the emphasis on monolingualism, and the production of English-only texts (Velasco & García, 2014). Monolingual writing instructions, focusing on using only the TL, require a recursive language learning approach in which each language is taught sequentially and independently. This method of handling the variety of languages that learners bring to the classroom discourages bilingual and multilingual learners from using their current language resources in other languages to succeed in their writing (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). However, embedding translanguaging within the writing process allows educators to take advantage of the dynamic linguistic repertoire of varied writers. Translanguaging teaches language learners to anticipate and assume that each situation in which they use language presents a chance to create new language uses and use various language resources (Horner et al., 2011).

No matter how many writing models or techniques are used in the classroom, translanguaging pedagogy is an easily accessible resource offering focused assistance at different stages of the writing process. Language learners should be encouraged to use their entire bi- and multilingual linguistic repertoire when planning writing, including brainstorming ideas or taking notes in any language they can access, as well as using multimodalities like visual essays, writing from photos, multimedia production writing, drama, drawings, and videos to engage their flexible and dynamic linguistic repertoire (Espinosa et al., 2017; Makalela, 2015; Velasco & García, 2014). Throughout the drafting

process, bilingual and multilingual learners use their entire linguistic repertoire to solve problems "at the word, sentence, and whole-text levels" (Velasco & García, 2014, p.10).

Utilizing translanguageing necessitates fulfilling long-standing needs based on providing professional development for all writing instructors/teachers to comprehend better and handle language differences in their classes (Horner et al., 2011). Matsuda (2014) states that writing teachers need more than multiple languages to integrate translingual practice in classes. Writing teachers and researchers must improve their understanding through various conversations in and outside the field to grasp language differences better and embed them in the research and classes (Matsuda, 2014). Zorluel Özer (2021) expresses that teachers should increase awareness about language learners' language choices and help them understand the possibility of challenging standard forms. Kalan (2022) also mentions that teachers need to adopt translanguageing in their courses more complexly to deal with students' translanguageing in connection with their artistic, cultural, and intellectual lives.

To guide language teachers on the issue of translanguageing and its applications in the classes, Celic and Seltzer (2013) present concrete strategies to experience translanguageing in classroom contexts and state that translanguageing considers language as action and practice. Espinosa et al. (2016) also deal with a theoretical framework for a translanguageing pedagogy, explaining key points and sharing tools, including various types of writing, to enforce translanguageing in writing. The activities and suggestions in both guides mainly address multilingual immigration programs in the USA. Those two guides are the primary sources of the integration of translanguageing into the pre-writing brainstorming activities in the current research, which is presented in detail in the methodology chapter.

2.5. SCT and Translanguageing

The method of translanguageing is based on the principle that learning is a dynamic process rather than a static outcome, aligning with the concept of SCT, which posits that learning is a complex interplay between social and individual processes that occurs within social interactions and the collaborative building of knowledge (García & Wei, 2014b; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). Vygotsky (1978) posits that learning encompasses three fundamental elements: language, culture, and the ZPD. Through active involvement in their sociocultural surroundings, individuals acquire language and other symbolic tools

that facilitate their engagement in social interactions and activities. Within the classroom's sociocultural context, learners acquire knowledge through interpersonal means, specifically through their connections and interactions (Vygotsky, 1978). When learners utilize all the languages they know through translanguaging, their linguistic and cognitive capacities are enhanced, expanding their ZPD (Baker, 2011; García & Wei, 2014b). Translanguaging allows learners to utilize their linguistic and cultural expertise, fostering improved interaction quality and the ability to collaboratively develop knowledge by supporting one another (Duarte, 2019).

The trans- aspect of translanguaging is related to the sociocultural concept of the 'third space' (Gutiérrez, 2008; Martin-Beltrán, 2014). It serves as a navigational area where learners actively transcend discursive borders or as a bridge connecting formal and informal discourses (Martin-Beltrán, 2014). The trans-system, trans-scape, and transformational features of translanguaging, where learners participate in flexible discursive practices transcending language systems and spaces and alter pre-existing cognitive and social structures, correspond with the representation of the third space (García & Wei, 2014b). When learners translanguage in the third space, they cross borders, navigate discourses, and appropriate new information in an environment fostering growth and extended learning for all (Martin-Beltrán, 2014).

Translanguaging researchers have employed the sociocultural notion of the third space in various studies, including the 'translanguaging space', 'linguistic third space', and the 'trans-space' (Flores & García, 2013; García & Wei, 2014b; Wei, 2011a). As learners bring their cognitive capacities and their personal histories, experiences, attitudes, values, and ideologies acquired through interactions with others under particular socio-historical conditions, a translanguaging space has a cognitive and social dimension similar to the third space (Wei, 2011a).

The idea of translanguaging as co-learning proposed by García and Wei (2014b) also incorporates the main idea of SCT. Translanguaging as co-learning occurs in classroom settings where learners create a collaborative community of practice and engage in individual and group learning and meaning-making (García & Wei, 2014b). García and Wei (2014b) underline three connections between SCT and translanguaging. Both address language as a socially produced symbolic artifact that people use to engage with and modify their cognitive process and communicate with the outside world. Both view language as an activity. Translanguaging needs dynamic bilingualism, which focuses on language learners selecting characteristics from a single, constantly changing array of

decomposed aspects. Both are viewed as multidisciplinary, dealing with various language learning issues.

Studies have indicated that translanguaging can promote co-learning and group discussions among learners (Duarte, 2019; Martin-Beltrán, 2014). From a sociocultural point of view, since no two learners are the same regarding talents and knowledge, the more people there are, the more linguistic resources are to be shared (Fernández Dobao, 2014). It is necessary to apply a sociocultural perspective to analyze translanguaging as a learning tool to emphasize its potential for collaborative knowledge building (Duarte, 2019).

Translanguaging has positive effects, such as helping linguistically more proficient learners grasp the material fully and enhancing the academic achievement of less capable peers through scaffolding (Adamson & Fujimoto-Adamson, 2021). By enabling language learners to use their whole linguistic repertoire, including both L1 and TL, translanguaging can also help close the gap between a learner's current and prospective abilities (Karakaş, 2023).

Some studies have addressed translanguaging through SCT in language learning (Duarte, 2019). Utilizing translanguaging as a pedagogy and combining it with a sociocultural framework, Duarte (2019) concluded that learners employed translanguaging to engage in high-quality exploratory discourse. The learners' collaborative efforts were not different from those of monolingual groups. The learners elucidated the utilization of translanguaging to foster collaborative knowledge and comprehension, emphasizing how students assist one another in learning across several languages. Rajendram (2019) also demonstrated the significant capacity of translanguaging to support collaborative language learning, validate culture and identity, foster positive peer-to-peer relationships, enhance metalinguistic awareness and interdisciplinary learning, and empower learners to have control and influence over their learning in an environment where students have a shared linguistic and sociocultural background. Smith and Robertson (2019) examined the combination of SCT of development through learning with translanguaging as a linguistic theory and learning tool to enhance both theories, update Vygotsky's sociocultural understandings, and provide conceptual tools for a more precise analysis of how translanguaging can be used for language learning. They claimed that teachers must comprehend how students would utilize their repertoire of inner speech for thinking, and it is crucial to consider activities

that promote and see inner speech as a regular and beneficial habit and facilitate its implementation (Smith & Robertson, 2019).

2.6. Related Studies

Recent research on translanguaging has explored a wide range of areas, from social justice to identity, from the attitudes and beliefs of students, teachers, or stakeholders to translanguaging pedagogy, and many more. However, the current research approaches translanguaging pedagogy by integrating it into pre-writing brainstorming activities, by obtaining language learners' views on and by presenting the researcher's observation about translanguaging integration, leading the related studies to focus on four key areas: *the attitudes and beliefs of teachers and learners towards translanguaging, translanguaging practices in classes, the impacts of translanguaging pedagogy on language and its skills, and the effect of translanguaging on writing skills*, the main focus of the current study. The related studies in those areas will be presented categorically and chronologically in this part.

Studies focusing on learners' and teachers' attitudes and views on translanguaging have become a focus in the research field (e.g., Anderson, 2017; Kwihangana, 2021). In their study of language instructors' and students' perceptions of translanguaging in an EFL context in Costa Rica, Escobar and Dillard-Paltrineri (2015) revealed that language learners considered translanguaging an ineffective approach because they felt that L2 learning was most successful in an L2-only setting. The instructors and students indicated deficit views toward L1 use, believing that translanguaging would undermine cognitive processes essential for L2 acquisition, foster a lazy habit, and undermine communicative language teaching approaches. Anderson (2017), conducting a study with 116 adult English language learners in a private language school in the United Kingdom, inferred that some participants believed they would exclusively use English, while some anticipated using it extensively with other languages. Moreover, many participants believed that they would need translingual practices for further studies, suggesting that EFL learners predicted their future translingual use of English. Addressing language learners' views, Wang (2019) revealed that students in the Chinese context preferred monolingual and multilingual approaches in their classes. Similarly, Kwihangana (2021) explored the attitudes of multilingual learners toward translanguaging used in group activities, and found that despite their discomfort with translanguaging pedagogy,

language learners benefitted from it during their TL learning. In a more current study, Dobinson, Dryden, Dovchin, Gong and Mercieca (2024) investigated international Chinese students in an EMI context at the tertiary level, and they revealed that plurilingual students believed that university classrooms should focus on monolingual English. The lecturer's efforts to motivate students to broaden their discussions through the utilization of L1 resources and translanguaging appeared to be stifled by the students' discomfort in debating concepts with their complete translingual spatial resources. During the interviews, students articulated their rationale for not engaging in translanguaging in class as they had become accustomed to refraining from utilizing their own language in their prior English courses and the English-only mantra was challenging to abandon.

Dealing with the perceptions, Burton and Rajendram (2019) examined the perspectives of ESL teachers regarding translanguaging in the Canadian higher education setting. The results of this qualitative study indicated that while the teachers occasionally allowed for the use of translanguaging, their teaching approach was primarily rooted in a monolingual perspective. The researchers requested the implementation of realistic approaches or strategies to incorporate translanguaging pedagogy in the context of ESL. Focusing on teachers' views, Wang (2019) found out that while two of the teachers in the study had positive attitudes toward translanguaging, the other one was against translanguaging and preferred monolingualism. Underlining the views of teachers, the study by Zorluel Özer (2021) examined the views of 12 graduate teacher-scholars about translingual pedagogy in the Northeast United States. The participants with no experience in teaching writing had negative views about translingual pedagogy and most participants had concerns about the integration of translanguaging in their writing classes. The study concluded that it is required for teachers to comprehend the theory and philosophy of the translingual approach so that they can enhance learners' perceptions of translanguaging.

The studies addressing learners' and teachers' attitudes and perceptions have also been conducted in the Turkish context. Dealing with Turkish lecturers' perceptions related to using L1 in classes, Karakaş (2016) expressed that a majority of the teachers presented a favorable attitude towards using the Turkish language in lectures and allowing students to utilize it to a certain degree. The common notion was that instructors should primarily prioritize imparting subject matter knowledge to their students. Hence, language itself is not of vital concern. Furthermore, the established policy needs to be flexibly adjusted in specific cases to enhance students' acquisition of content understanding. In another study, Küçük (2018) deduced that most lecturers in the study

held favorable positions and embraced translanguaging, indicating a bilingual perspective. They had no pedagogical reservations about using translanguaging in EMI classrooms. Their primary objective was for students to fully comprehend the content rather than focus solely on language acquisition. Consequently, they employed flexible instructional approaches in their lectures. Yuvayapan (2019) also focused on English language teachers' views and revealed that the vast majority of participants expressed the belief that students' utilization of L1 was crucial to facilitating engagement with students at lower proficiency levels. The teachers in this study actively supported the incorporation of L1 in their lessons. There was a tendency to avoid using L1 to facilitate support among peers during activities and to clarify issues unrelated to the subject matter, despite the fact that more than half of the teachers acknowledged the importance of these occurrences. Therefore, it could be inferred that translanguaging is commonly perceived as an obstacle to achieving effective foreign language instruction among Turkish EFL teachers and policymakers in Türkiye.

The common finding of the studies addressing teachers' and students' beliefs and attitudes is that teachers and students seemed reluctant to utilize their L1 when the goal was for students to improve the TL. However, studies mentioning the benefits of translanguaging also existed, specifically in the Turkish context. Those findings indicate the significance of awareness-raising studies in translanguaging. In this study, language learners' views were investigated before and after Translanguaging integration into pre-writing to shed light on the potential transformation in students' perceptions related to translanguaging.

As translanguaging has become a widely studied topic, translanguaging practices have also existed in classes worldwide (e.g., Duarte, 2019; Galante, 2020a). Moore (2013) showed that learners utilized more L1 in their oral presentation interactions while discussing how to do the task and during off-task topics, suggesting that L1 use emerged naturally and productively in the L2 contexts. Similarly, Velasco and García (2014) underlined that learners used translanguaging for scaffolding, rhetorical engagement, and effectiveness. Yu and Lee (2014) examined L1 and L2 use in peer feedback in writing and demonstrated that the EFL students utilized their L1 to give feedback at a rate of 34,91 percent, and the students used L1 more to give feedback on content and organization. Yevudey (2015) highlighted that translanguaging was used in classes to revise, explain new concepts, and support students' participation in activities. The teachers advocated for bilingual use of language, and they tended to use translanguaging

in class. The students also preferred to use all their linguistic repertoires in the classrooms. In parallel with those studies, Neokleous (2017) focused on language learners' translanguaging in monolingual EFL classrooms in Cyprus. The study concluded that learners naturally utilized translanguaging for various tasks, including asking and responding to questions, interpreting, offering, clarifying, confirming, encouraging, instructing, requesting favors, apologizing, joking, and greeting. Additionally, learners stated that speaking in their L1 increased their comprehension, guaranteed they understood the material, and gave them a sense of self-assurance.

Carstens (2016) discovered that many university students in South Africa perceived translanguaging as beneficial for scaffolding their conceptual understanding, enhancing emotive experiences, boosting confidence and vocabulary, and fostering cohesion. Nonetheless, several students indicated that translanguaging did not facilitate comprehension of terms in their field of study due to the intricacies of their L1, and some opted to utilize English, believing it to be the universal language. In Cogo (2016), the focus was on highlighting the shared theoretical foundations of ELF and translanguaging by claiming that effective communication in ELF contexts necessitates translanguaging. The research examined the covert and overt resources in a transnational workplace, and the results demonstrated the diverse translingual strategies that ELF speakers developed. The results also indicated that translanguaging was a natural consequence of communicative interactions between individuals of different nationalities.

Duarte (2019) noted that learners used translanguaging in personal and academic discourse, mostly in conversations requiring a high cognitive load. Moreover, learners utilized translanguaging to solve problems collaboratively, exhibit higher-order thinking, and construct meaning through interactions. Similarly, the research by Moody, Chowdhury, and Eslami (2019) indicated that graduate students typically perceive translanguaging as an inherent behavior advantageous to language acquisition. Galante (2020a) revealed that Canadian tertiary-level students relied on their L1 rather than their full linguistic repertoires due to some dominant languages in the class and a need for speakers of additional languages. Moreover, teachers successfully implemented pedagogical translanguaging despite lacking formal training, yet they needed additional time to become familiar with translanguaging. In the Malaysian elementary ESL environment,

Rajendram (2021) conducted a study on the affordances and limits of translanguaging pedagogy. The results indicated that learners employed translanguaging

as a means to assist each other in language learning, establish a positive relationship, resolve disagreements, assert their cultural heritage, and utilize knowledge from several languages. Nevertheless, the application of translanguaging was limited as a result of the language policies and practices enforced by teachers and peers, the discussions held by parents regarding linguistic capital, and the societal discussions surrounding ethnicity, nationality, and marginalization in the context. In a recent study, Nkhi and Shange (2024) unearthed that translanguaging enhanced students' self-assurance, comprehension, and engagement, and many students, particularly those with limited proficiency in English, actively engaged in classroom activities when specific ideas were conveyed in both English and L1.

Translanguaging practices in classes have also become a research interest in the Turkish context (e.g., Karakaş, 2023). Küçük (2018) investigated the translanguaging practices in a state university in Turkish higher education. The study showed that translanguaging was extensively employed as an educational approach in the study context, where all courses were taught in EMI. Moreover, the translanguaging strategies employed by EMI students included scaffolding through cooperation with peers and lecturers, translation, bilingual resources, and note-taking in the students' L1. By framing L1 use in an EMI setting into pedagogical translanguaging, Ataş (2023) investigated translanguaging as an alternative pedagogy at a state university in northeast Türkiye. The study showed that the students in EMI English literature classes used pedagogical and spontaneous translanguaging. As the students engaged in the meaning-making process, translanguaging served as scaffolding. By merging Turkish and English, the students maximized their material conversations. In a nutshell, in EMI classrooms, the common language and the TL were used interchangeably to present and discuss material. Karakaş (2023) also revealed that lecturers frequently utilized only English in the classroom in an EMI context and forbade learners from using resources in their L1. In contrast, most learners used L1 resources in the classroom and realized the importance of L1 resources in accessing socio-emotional and content information. Comparing two EMI programs in a higher education context in Türkiye, Kırkgöz et al. (2023) proved that translanguaging was an essential component of classroom activities in the EMI Turkish environment, showing that both students and academics derived varied degrees of benefit from these practices. Though both programs exhibited explicit translanguaging for subject understanding, classroom management, and rapport building, distinctions also arose

regarding opportunities for overt translanguaging and the variety of tasks served by Turkish resources.

The studies conducted translanguaging practices in the classes around the world and Türkiye showed that language learners and teachers utilized translanguaging with various reasons. Those studies also reflected that translanguaging could be a significant pedagogy to utilize language learners' L1 to increase learning opportunities.

Another research focus worldwide has been language, language skills, and translanguaging (e.g., Galante, 2020b). Investigating how learners encountered and interacted with many languages in their English classes, Illman and Pietila (2018) showed that learners benefitted from utilizing their L1s primarily for acquiring new vocabulary. The participant teachers indicated they were not trained to incorporate multilingualism into their instructional practices, yet, they devised tactics to utilize the local languages of their learners. The teachers' responses were congruent with the learners' responses in that both groups predominantly utilized translanguaging to compare terminology. Ramirez (2019) examined the impact of incorporating translanguaging as a pedagogical technique in the EFL setting. The researcher developed instructional sessions using a communicative language teaching method and utilized translanguaging methodology. The findings demonstrated that integrating translanguaging resulted in significant enhancements in the acquisition of grammar and vocabulary. Galante (2020b), dealing with vocabulary and translanguaging, indicated that students participating in translanguaging activities experienced a notable improvement in their vocabulary, unlike students learning vocabulary using monolingual methods. Furthermore, the outcomes of students in the translanguaging group indicated a significant level of involvement in creating meaning, which likely contributed to their successful vocabulary learning. Utilizing translanguaging pedagogy for multilingual learners, Ali (2021) inferred that translanguaging helped the learning of verb tenses and resulted in improved vocabulary acquisition. During the speaking activities, the researcher asserted that the learners were more actively engaged when given a designated time for conversation in their L1. However, examining the effects of translanguaging on language learners' proficiency, Nkhi and Shange (2024) did not indicate any influence on improving students' communication skills.

Despite being limited, research on translanguaging, language, and language skills in Türkiye has been discussed (e.g., İlhan, 2022). İlhan (2022), conducting a study with tertiary-level EFL learners, found that translanguaging did not significantly impact

reading comprehension yet enhanced learners' listening comprehension. Yüzlü and Dikilitaş (2022) examined the potential influence of translanguaging pedagogy on improving EFL learners' proficiency in the four language skills. The findings underlined that translanguaging enhanced students' communicative proficiency in understanding and producing language. Additionally, it fostered improved communication between students and lecturers. The study also demonstrated that translanguaging developed students' confidence, comprehension, and engagement.

The common finding among these studies is that translanguaging pedagogy might be highly recommended to teach any language skill. It can also be deduced from the findings above that translanguaging pedagogy is validated to be useful specifically for vocabulary teaching and learning.

Various studies have addressed translanguaging and writing skills worldwide (e.g., Velasco & García, 2014). Fu (2003) employed a method allowing Chinese learners to write in English using their L1 and concluded that learners wrote more effectively in their TL if they could express themselves in their L1. Kibler (2010) examined the impact of translanguaging pedagogy on writing instruction, and the findings demonstrated that writing became more robust and comprehensive when learners debated the concepts in their home languages. In their study, Velasco and García (2014) showed that bilingual students utilized translanguaging in all phases of writing and used it for scaffolding, rhetorical engagement, and effectiveness.

In the longitudinal study, Adamson and Coulson (2015) focused on translanguaging as a pragmatic means for young university students in academic writing. The study showed that low-proficiency and proficient students utilized L1 references in their writing in the first academic year. During the second year, the students mentioned L1 use less, and there was no clear relationship between the English level and L1 use. For the last academic year, the students supported using L1 to clarify the task, and the L1 use was not related to English proficiency level. In a nutshell, L1 inference diminished despite teacher prompting, while favorable perceptions about L1 use increased. Kaufhold (2018) reflected that the students experienced difficulties as they needed to follow their institution's policy of maintaining monolingual perspectives. However, they were aware of the benefits of translanguaging in academic writing, meaning that linguistic ideologies might be limiting and widening, and students' linguistic ideologies affected their experience of the language.

Turnbull (2019) conducted a study in the Japanese EFL context to examine the impact of both strong and weak forms of translanguaging on the academic and creative composition writing abilities of learners. The findings indicated that while employing the strong form of translanguaging, the learners demonstrated enhanced performance throughout the planning phase, and they outperformed the group in which only English or only Japanese was promoted. Utilizing a strong form of translanguaging, the learners created more concise and well-structured essays with fewer incorrectly used words resulting from a lack of relevant knowledge or experience. However, dealing with language use, multilingualism, and writing behaviors, James (2022) interviewed five EMI Master's level students in an English-speaking program. The study indicated that the whole process of planning, generating, and reviewing written work was conducted exclusively in English, without any instances of code-switching and translanguaging, unlike prior research conducted in university settings where code-switching or translanguaging was observed.

In a recent study, Nicolarakis and Mitchell (2023) examined themes from an “asset-based/antideficit, deaf bilingualism/Deaf Gain” framework and translanguaging characteristics of writing achievement. The study showed that translanguaging techniques were a crucial component of the writing process for deaf bilingual individuals. Additionally, fluent deaf adult bilingual writers employed various translanguaging techniques to complete different writing assignments while navigating linguistic and semiotic resources between American Sign Language and English. In a more current study, Tastanbek (2024) applied translanguaging, highlighting its capacity to enhance learners' writing through the languages they were familiar with, Qazak and Russian. The presented outlines in the study indicated that students extracted keywords and phrases from their English sources and subsequently offered elaboration via translanguaging. The study inferred that although the authorities of EMI institution did not overtly oppose it, teachers might feel uneasy regarding the formal application of the translanguaging methodology. Moreover, language teachers must be prepared to improve their translanguaging methodology in accordance with their students' actions, and the essential point is to demonstrate rather than only articulate, which entails presenting instances of original material in several languages.

Research focusing on translanguaging and writing has also existed in the Turkish context (e.g., Karabulut, 2019). Karabulut (2019) studied the effects of translanguaging on EFL learners' writing skills at the tertiary level. The researcher conducted a quasi-

experimental, mixed-method study where one group participated in a monolingual class while two other experimental groups were instructed using a translanguaging methodology. The findings suggested that the learners viewed translanguaging pedagogy for writing as moderately, largely, and extremely beneficial. It was also revealed that translanguaging developed learners' organization, planning, group work, grammar, vocabulary, and linkers skills. The researcher also discovered a statistically significant difference in the writing scores of the control and experimental groups.

The studies dealing with translanguaging and writing skills indicated that translanguaging has a high potential to enhance language learners' writing in their TL writing process.

All the above-mentioned research has shown that translanguaging pedagogy should be incorporated into EFL classes. However, there remains a gap in the pragmatic suggestions about how to integrate translanguaging in language classrooms. Many of the presented studies do not provide a specific task or practical suggestion. As far as I know, there have been limited studies on the integration of translanguaging pedagogy into pre-writing tasks in the EFL environment. Therefore, this study aims to integrate translanguaging pedagogy into pre-writing brainstorming activities, in a systematic and planned way to address the existing gap in the literature. Though Karabulut's (2019) study is similar to this study in that it is quasi-experimental and focused on writing skills, the current study adopts translanguaging into pre-writing in a different method and addresses paragraph writing performance.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents a general overview of the research methodology and its essential aspects. Firstly, the research questions and the rationale for adopting the research paradigm and design will be clarified. Then, detailed information about the context and participants will be presented. The following parts will explain translanguaging integration into the pre-writing sessions, the data collection tools and analysis, reliability and validity details, ethical considerations, and a detailed description of the researcher's role.

3.1. Research Questions

This study investigates whether there is a significant difference between the paragraph writing performance of the participants exposed to translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities and the participants exposed to English-only pre-writing brainstorming activities at the tertiary level in Türkiye. Moreover, it also aims to reveal the EFL learners' views and experiences and the researcher/instructor's observation about implementing translanguaging during pre-writing sessions. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there a (significant) difference between the paragraph writing performance of the participants exposed to translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities and English-only pre-writing brainstorming activities at the tertiary level in Türkiye considering
 - a. Content
 - b. Organization
 - c. Vocabulary
 - d. Grammar
 - e. Mechanics
 - f. Overall score

2. What are the views of Turkish EFL learners exposed to translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities on paragraph writing before, during, and after the implementation of translanguaging-integration?
3. What is the instructor's/researcher's observation about translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities?

3.2. Research Paradigm

Each research study has a paradigm that shapes the researcher's ideas during all research processes. Kuhn (1962) first used the term paradigm to philosophize thinking (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Guba and Lincoln (1994) define a paradigm as the beliefs or worldviews guiding research. Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) also explain that a research paradigm includes ideas and principles shaping a researcher's perceptions and interpretation of the world.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) categorize paradigms into *positivist*, *interpretivist*, *critical*, and *pragmatic*. The *positivist paradigm* highlights a research approach that scientifically investigates the truth (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). According to Guba and Lincoln (1989), the *interpretive paradigm* considers human experiences subjective. Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) describe the *critical paradigm* as one that deals with social, political, and economic issues and addresses possible problems related to those issues. The *pragmatic paradigm* argues that it is not likely to access the truth only through scientific methods. Therefore, this paradigm utilizes a combination of techniques to explain the behaviors of individuals, the views related to those behaviors, and the possible results of those behaviors (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Guba and Lincoln (1989) underline the four crucial paradigm elements: *epistemology*, *ontology*, *axiology*, and *methodology*. *Epistemology* focuses on knowledge and deals with acquiring it (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). According to Scotland (2012), *ontology* is concerned with assumptions and asks questions about the nature of reality. *Axiology* considers the ethical issues of research and underlines the significance of the right decisions (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). *Methodology*, the last element, deals with broader issues, including design, methods, approaches, and procedures (Keeves, 1997).

The current study adopts a pragmatic paradigm to understand individuals' behaviors and the potential impacts of translanguaging-integrated pre-writing activities on paragraph writing performance through quantitative and qualitative data collection tools.

The study has a relational epistemology addressing how people acquire information by communicating with others and other things in the context (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). The study investigates how translanguaging integrated pre-writing activities with whole-class brainstorming activities may affect EFL learners' paragraph writing performance. It also addresses a non-singular reality ontology since each individual in the study is unique, and their perceptions of the issue are significant. As for the methodology, the study is a quasi-experimental research design with mixed-methods data collection tools, including qualitative and quantitative. Lastly, its axiology is value-laden since the researcher conducts the research to facilitate language learners' written production.

3.3. Research Design

A research design involves creating a whole study, from asking questions to analyzing and reporting the data (Vaus, 2001). According to Creswell (2012), researchers decide their design by considering the research problem and questions. Qualitative research explores an individual's or group's interpretation of a problem, while quantitative research tests theories by analyzing variables. A mixed-methods research design utilizes qualitative and quantitative data to approach a research problem (Creswell, 2014).

Cohen and Manion (1980) define quantitative research as employing empirical methods and statements. Creswell (2014) states that quantitative analysis explains a phenomenon through numerical data and describes it as an approach to testing theories by studying relationships between or among variables.

Quasi-experimental research involves utilizing an intervention but not randomly putting participants into a group (Creswell, 2012). Bryman (2012) highlights that quasi-experiments have some particular features of experimental studies, yet they cannot correspond to all necessities of internal validity. Quasi-experimental studies can be commonly used in educational research as a researcher cannot create artificial groups for a study in educational contexts (Creswell, 2012).

This study utilizes a quasi-experimental design in which the pretest-posttest nonequivalent groups design is used since the treatment group received a pre-test, treatment, and a post-test. However, the control group received the pre-test and post-test without any treatment. Therefore, the real focus is not on whether individuals improve

but on whether they improve more than those who do not receive the treatment (Price, Jhangiani, Chiang, Leighton, & Cuttler, 2017).

The rationale for employing the targeted method is that the groups were the official classes of the researcher, so they were not artificially formed for the study. Additionally, having more than one writing class enabled the researcher to compare groups regarding the potential effects of translanguaging-embedded brainstorming activities in the pre-writing stages. Moreover, the study aims to find the influence of new practice on an outcome, investigating the potential impacts of integrating translanguaging on paragraph writing performance in this study. Hence, a quasi-experimental design is the most appropriate for studying cause-and-effect relationships in educational contexts (Creswell, 2012).

3.4. Setting

The study was conducted in a school of foreign languages at a state university in Adana, Türkiye, in the spring of 2021-2022 academic year. The academic year consisted of two semesters: the first from October to January and the second from February to June, each lasting 16 weeks. The school teaches English as a foreign language, and the program aims to prepare the students for their English-medium departments.

At the beginning of the academic year, the school conducted a placement test for grouping students. Based on the test, the students started the academic year with M (MIND: Move-In New Directions, referring to elementary level), F (FIND: Fly-In New Directions, referring to pre-intermediate level), and T (Translation, referring to intermediate level and only for translation department students).

The study was conducted with two M-level classes. The students had 20 hours of English classes weekly. In addition to 10 hours of the *Main Course* (MC) classes covering four language skills, the students also had five hours of *Listening and Speaking* (L&S) and five hours of *Reading and Writing* (R&W) classes. Although two instructors conducted MC classes, one instructor was responsible for each skill course. The fourth edition of the ‘English File’ series by Oxford University Publishing was used for MC when conducting the study. In M-level L&S and R&W courses, the classes utilized the second edition of the ‘Skillful’ series by Macmillan Education.

The students in the school were responsible for two quizzes, two achievement exams, four speaking presentations, two portfolio submissions, and online assignments for the

related academic year. They had to take a final exam at the end of the year at the B1 level. Forty percent of their yearly average and sixty percent of their final exam were calculated. They were expected to start their departments with an average score of 70 or over. If the score was below 70, they had to take the June or September proficiency exam to study at their departments.

R&W courses were five hours a week in M levels, including seven writing assignments during the semester. *Skillful I* was the course material, A2 level based on the Common European Framework. All the writing topics were the tasks at the end of the units. The students had pre-writing sessions with brainstorming activities related to the writing topics. The instructors were responsible for giving feedback on the three targeted writing tasks.

3.5. Participants

According to Marshall (1996), participant selection in research is significant as it is not likely to study with all related populations. Dörnyei (2007) explains that a population is the people the study focuses on, while a sample is a group a researcher carries out the study. Creswell (2012) defines a sample as a small target group population, enabling a researcher to collect data. The current study population was pre-intermediate-level EFL students in schools of foreign languages at the tertiary level, and the sample was 41 pre-intermediate level EFL students studying English in a school of foreign languages at the tertiary level in Adana, Türkiye.

Kemper, Stringfield, and Teddlie (2003) underline that choosing participants is crucial in research. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) note that a researcher must focus on the study's objectives before deciding on the samples/participants. When a study aims not to generalize but to obtain insights into a phenomenon, the researcher can purposefully choose individuals or groups to understand the issue thoroughly (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). The study utilized multiple sampling methods while selecting the participants, including purposive and convenience sampling.

Purposive sampling involves selecting certain individuals or groups for a specific purpose (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). The study aims to avoid generalizing its results to a broader population. However, it focuses on investigating the potential effects of translanguaging integration on the paragraph writing scores of EFL students. Therefore, before starting the study, the researcher/instructor requested two R&W classes whose

average scores for the first semester were similar. The rationale was to eliminate English success levels based on the school's criteria. The average score criteria caused the study to utilize purposive sampling.

The study also exploited the convenience sampling method, based on choosing the most proper and available participants (Kemper et al., 2003). Creswell (2012) also mentions that participants are voluntary and accessible using convenience sampling. Convenience sampling was used to collect qualitative and quantitative data in the current study since the instructor's classes were the most available data sources. She had a good rapport with her students, enabling them to participate in the study voluntarily.

The study participants were 41 EFL students at the pre-intermediate level at a tertiary-level school of foreign languages in Adana, Türkiye. The control group included 22 participants, while 19 were in the treatment group. Their age ranged between 18 and 23, and their English level was similar based on the placement test scores. They all had Turkish as their first language. The participants had various years of experience in English, and their departments differed. Before carrying out the study, all grades for the fall term were calculated for both groups. At the end of the fall term, the control group had an average of 69,17, whereas the treatment group had 69,88. Table 2 and Table 3 present detailed information about the participants.

Table 2.

The profile of the control group in the study

	Number (f)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
• Male	11	50
• Female	11	50
Age		
• 18	8	36,4
• 19	7	31,8
• 20	4	18,2
• 21	3	13,6
Mother tongue		
• Turkish	22	100
Department		
• International relations	4	18,2
• Aerospace engineering	3	13,6
• Computer engineering	3	13,6
• Civil engineering	2	9,1
• Electrical and electronic engineering	2	9,1

• Industrial engineering	2	9,1
• Management information systems	2	9,1
• Business administration	1	4,5
• International trade and finance	1	4,5
• Political science and public administration	1	4,5
• Software engineering	1	4,5
Years of learning English		
• 4-6 years	6	27,3
• 7-9 years	7	31,8
• 10-12 years	7	31,8
• 13 or more years	2	9,1

One class was the control group in the study, while the other was the treatment. The control group had pre-writing sessions with English-medium instruction (EMI) and was encouraged to speak English during R&W classes, including pre and while-writing sessions. Nevertheless, the treatment group had translanguaging-integrated pre-writing and writing sessions, enabling the instructor and students to use L1 Turkish in the context. Both groups followed the same pacing, used the same coursebook, and did writing assignments based on the writing assessment rubric (See Writing Grading Criteria Protocol, in Appendix A) for all writing tasks.

Table 3.

The profile of the treatment group in the study

	Number (f)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
• Male	14	73,7
• Female	5	26,3
Age		
• 18	1	5,3
• 19	5	26,3
• 20	6	31,6
• 21	4	21,1
• 22	1	5,3
• 23	2	10,5
Mother tongue		
• Turkish	19	100
Department		
• Computer engineering	4	21,1
• Electrical and electronic engineering	3	15,8
• Mechanical engineering	3	15,8
• Industrial engineering	2	10,5

• Management information systems	2	10,5
• Aerospace engineering	1	5,3
• Business administration	1	5,3
• International relations	1	5,3
• International trade and finance	1	5,3
• Political science and public administration	1	5,3
Years of learning English		
• 1-3 years	2	10,5
• 4-6 years	1	5,3
• 7-9 years	12	63,2
• 10-12 years	3	15,8
• 13 or more years	1	5,3

3.6. The Translanguaging Integration Into the Pre-Writing Activities

At the beginning of the study, the researcher centered on some questions about adapting translanguaging into the writing classes. The questions were:

- “In what ways does a teacher support the development of the emergent bilingual writers’ ideas?”
- “In what ways does a teacher invite emergent bilingual students to bring their entire linguistic repertoire to construct meaning as writers and thinkers?”
- “In what ways can translanguaging in writing offer emergent bilingual students at all levels opportunities to express themselves and what they know?” (Espinosa et al. (2016, p.10).

The self-reflection process to answer those questions encouraged the instructor to delve into the research issue. The university was an English-medium one, and the school of foreign languages was supposed to prepare the students for their English-medium departments. Hence, the instructor supported her students using only English. However, following the current trends and hot topics in the ELT field and researching the studies focusing on L1 use in foreign language learning provoked the instructor to change her teaching techniques. Therefore, integrating translanguaging pedagogy into a writing class through pre-writing activities was utilized.

The strategies in Celic and Seltzer's (2013) and Espinosa et al.'s (2016) guides were investigated to adapt a translanguaging pedagogy to the pre-writing activities. The activities and suggestions in both guides mainly focused on multilingual immigration

programs in the USA. However, as far as is known, it was the first time they were practiced in an EFL writing context in Turkish higher education.

The researcher focused on *integrated instruction* based on designing instruction promoting translanguaging (Celic & Seltzer, 2013) since integrated education provides language learners with the necessary language and content knowledge for writing (Samway, 2006). The researcher asked the following question to decide the applicability of translanguaging integration in the context:

- “Could emergent bilinguals discuss the topic in their home language and English?” (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p. 51).

The answer to the question was positive. The students in the context tended to utilize Turkish as their first language in classes despite the English medium of instruction. Therefore, the researcher focused on the following questions:

- How can collaborative work be designed to encourage students to use English and Turkish for meaning-making?
- How can students’ writing skills be facilitated through all their languages? (Celic & Seltzer, 2013).

The researcher evaluated the collaborative work part of the guide. After the evaluation, the “*brainstorm in any language and write in English*” strategy became the focal point (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p.62). According to the strategy, language learners are encouraged to brainstorm in English or any other language before creating a written product. Then, the learners focus on those ideas, discuss them in pairs or groups, and form their writing. The written production is in English.

Before starting the academic term, the researcher considered the implementation of pre-writing sessions that were specifically aimed to incorporate translanguaging pedagogy. Since the writing classes were based on the R&W skill coursebook, the instructor reorganized the pacing to integrate brainstorming activities -translanguaging-integrated for the treatment group- for the pre-writing parts of the seven compulsory writing assignments. For each writing task, the classes for two hours with 15 minutes for pre-writing, 45 minutes for while-writing and 30 minutes for post-writing activities. The pre-writing parts of the treatment group where translanguaging pedagogy was utilized

were observed by the researcher to get details and support the data obtained from the reflection logs.

In the current research, each group had a pre-writing brainstorming activity, lasting approximately 15 minutes, related to every paragraph writing task. During those minutes, the participants could brainstorm in any language they wanted in the treatment class. The content of the brainstorming was varied depending on the topic of the writing assignment. The teacher also wrote down the ideas on the board based on which language a participant shared (See Figure 1). Later, the teacher and participants translated those ideas into English to help the participants write. During the brainstorming, all the participants could share their opinions, ask and answer questions, and communicate with each other. However, the control group was encouraged to use only English while brainstorming, resulting in English-only notes and instruction in the class (See Figure 2). Both groups were supposed to write their paragraphs in English due to the requirements of the school.

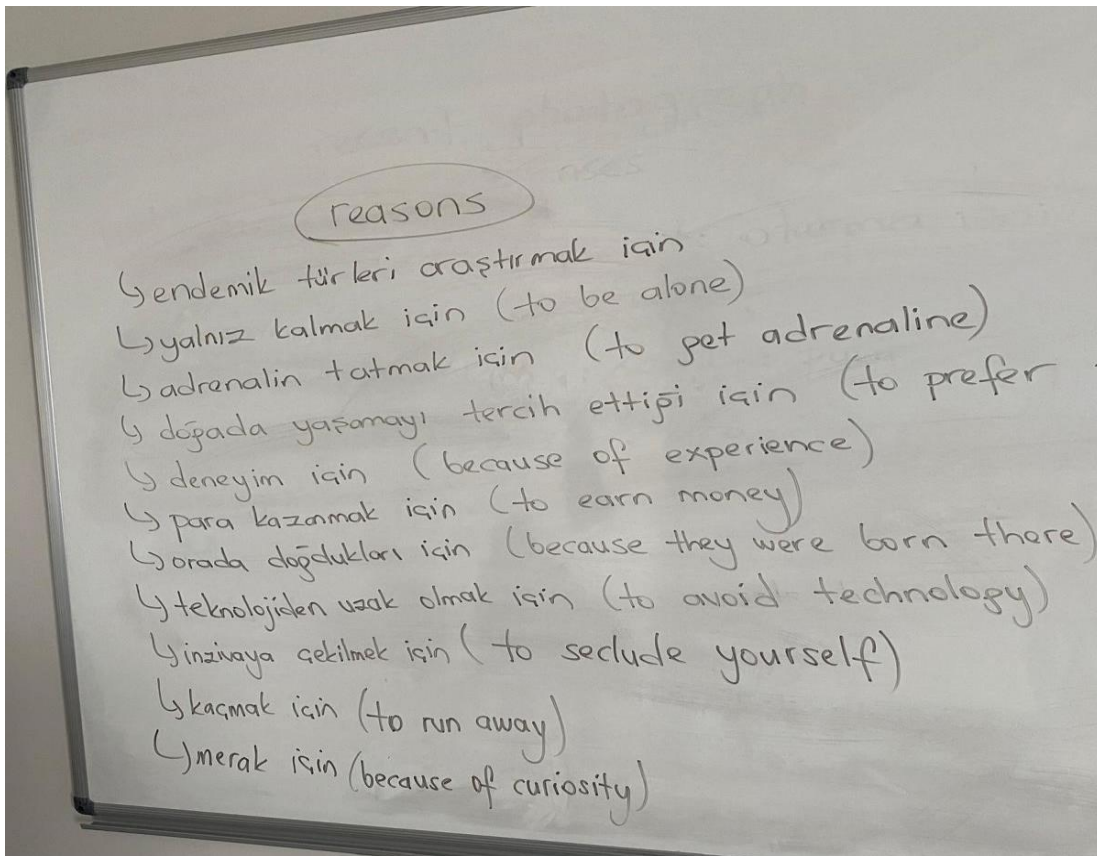


Figure 1. A shot obtained from the treatment group's board during pre-writing activity

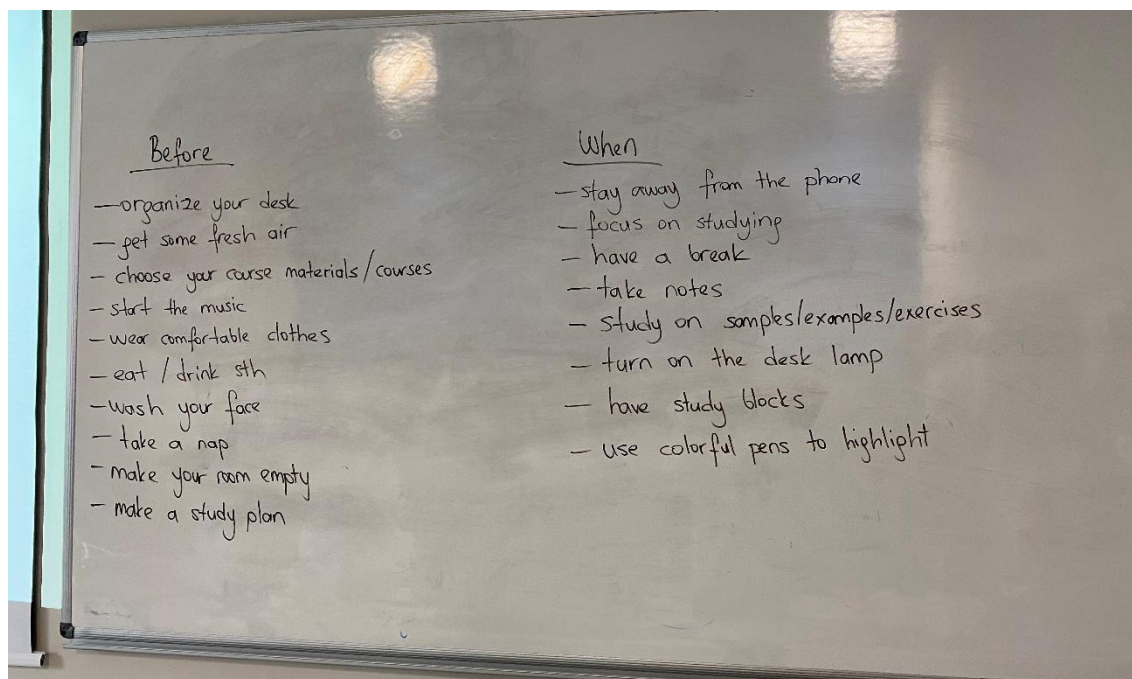


Figure 2. A shot obtained from the control group's board during pre-writing activity

Before each writing assignment, both groups received a PowerPoint presentation prepared by the R&W unit coordinator, including information about the structure and language of each task. Therefore, it was clear to the participants which structure and vocabulary they would need for their assignment. Moreover, since the participants were informed about the writing assessment criteria, they already knew the grading criteria, including content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics.

3.7. Data Collection Tools

This study utilizes both qualitative and quantitative data to shed light on the research questions and provide triangulation. The fundamental rationale for using both types is to obtain a more detailed perspective on the research problem.

As seen in Table 4, the quantitative data include the participants' paragraph writing scores. At the same time, the qualitative data were collected through open-ended questionnaires, the researcher's field notes, and activity reflection logs. Qualitative and quantitative data present detailed findings for this study, and neither is prior to the other.

Table 4.

Data collection methods of the study

Research Questions	Data Sources	Data Collection Tools
1. Is there a (significant) difference between the paragraph writing performance of the participants exposed to translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities and English-only pre-writing brainstorming activities at the tertiary level in Türkiye considering a. Content b. Organization c. Vocabulary d. Grammar e. Mechanics f. Overall score	Control group Treatment group	- The paragraph writing scores of the control and treatment group
2. What are the views of Turkish EFL learners exposed to translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities on paragraph writing before, during, and after the implementation?	Treatment group	- Open-ended questionnaire I & II - Activity reflection logs
3. What is the instructor's/researcher's observation about translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities?	Researcher/ instructor	- Researcher's field notes

3.7.1. Quantitative data of the study

Quantitative data are about numbers and can be measured, counted, and recorded. It can also be utilized in various contexts and is significant in educational research (Gaciu, 2021). According to Dörnyei (2007), the strengths of quantitative data are that the findings can be objective, a researcher can reach many participants, analysis is easy with software, and the results are generalizable. However, quantitative data fails to consider human differences, and its instruments do not shed light on the relationship between people and research (Bryman, 2012).

The study has two sets of quantitative data: the scores of the paragraph writing section in the achievement exams and the paragraph writing scores obtained through seven writing assignments during the spring semester. Since the scores enabled the researcher to investigate the potential effects of translanguaging integration, they became the primary data collection of the study.

3.7.1.1. Paragraph Writing Scores of the Achievement Exams

The participants' scores in the paragraph writing sections in the achievement exams constituted one part of the quantitative data. The school carried out an achievement exam once a semester. The paragraph writing scores of the fall semester were the pre-test for both the treatment and control groups. The spring semester's paragraph writing scores were the post-test for both groups to see the possible effects of the treatment.

The testing unit of the school was responsible for preparing all the parts of achievement exams. The paragraph writing section in each exam was worth 20 points. The instructors evaluated the writing according to the school rubric, including content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. To increase reliability and validity, each group had two different instructors grade their writings, not including the R&W instructor of any group.

3.7.1.2. Paragraph writing assignment scores

Another quantitative data was the participants' paragraph writing assignment scores. During the spring semester, the participants had seven paragraph writing tasks carried out every two weeks. The instructor used the paragraph writing scores to compare the control and treatment groups and investigate the potential effects of translanguaging integration.

The R&W course coordinator was responsible for preparing the course pacing. Therefore, the instructor conducted the paragraph writing assignments based on the pacing. The grading criteria were the same as the achievement exam rubric, so the participants were graded out of 20. However, each group had one instructor evaluate their writing due to the instructors' heavy workload. All instructors responsible for grading have a minimum MA degree in ELT to avoid possible bias.

3.7.2. Qualitative data of the study

Qualitative data is associated with open-ended responses that are not predetermined (Creswell, 2014). It can be described as selecting verbal or visual materials to investigate, analyze, and understand a phenomenon (Flick, 2017). Using qualitative data enables a researcher to collect data in a natural context, examine participants, gather various data types, and be reflective (Creswell, 2014).

The qualitative data collection tools in the study were open-ended questionnaires, the researcher's field notes, and activity reflection logs. As they provided data for more

than one question, they also became the primary data source of the research and triangulated the data collection tools.

3.7.2.1. Open-ended questionnaires

A questionnaire is a way of getting information from people through direct or indirect questions. There are two types of questions in the questionnaires. While closed-ended questions refer to questions with pre-determined possible answers, open-ended questions are not predictable (Gillham, 2008). Questionnaires are cheap and not time-consuming, easy to collect data, lack researcher bias, are standardized with the questions, and have rich data (Gillham, 2008).

Bryman (2012) notes that open-ended questionnaires are similar to interviews. Their advantages are that they are cheaper, quick to carry out, and more suitable for the participants because they are conducted at an appropriate time and place. However, open-ended questions need extensive coding since they detail the participants' ideas (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

In this study, there were two open-ended questionnaires to collect data. The first questionnaire was used to collect data from the treatment group at the beginning of the term. In contrast, the second questionnaire was carried out at the end. The questionnaires had English and Turkish questions so the participants could answer the questions in either language. Additionally, the technical term translanguaging was not directly used in the questionnaires to avoid confusing the participants. All the questionnaires in the study were peer-reviewed by other expert colleagues conducting their PhD studies in ELT departments.

3.7.2.1.1. Open-ended Questionnaire I

At the beginning of the 2021-2022 spring term, 41 participants in both groups filled out the first questionnaire. The questionnaire mainly aimed to reveal their perceptions of paragraph writing and writing classes (See Open-ended Questionnaire I Protocol, in Appendix B). It was formed by focusing on the studies and data collection tools conducted by Espinosa et al. (2016) and Karabulut (2019). The rationale for using the questionnaire was to gather crucial data quickly and straightforwardly.

The questionnaire began by presenting information about the instructor, institution, and study. It also included an appreciation, contact information, research summary, and

ethical issues. Finally, it ended with a signature to prove the participants were informed about the study and the questionnaire.

The first part of the questionnaire was related to personal information, the second to the participants' educational backgrounds, and the last to nine open-ended questions based on the participants' opinions about paragraph writing and writing classes.

3.7.2.1.2. Open-ended Questionnaire II

The second questionnaire was carried out at the end of the spring semester (See Open-ended Questionnaire II Protocol, in Appendix C). The beginning and first parts were the same as the first questionnaire. The last part included ten open-ended questions about the participants' writing perceptions. Moreover, some questions also focused on language preference during the courses and the effects of using L1 in writing classes.

3.7.2.2. Researcher's field notes

Creese (2011) describes field notes as “productions and recordings of a researcher’s noticing with the intent of describing the research participants’ actions” (p.44). Field notes are a researcher’s written items (Creswell, 2012). While descriptive field notes deal with the records of the descriptions of the actions, people, and events, reflective field notes focus on the individual thoughts about the people, events, and activities (Creswell, 2012).

According to Copland (2018), field notes are comprised over time as they are likely only to note some details during an observation. Therefore, researchers can take “jotted notes” (Bryman, 2012, p.450), and those phrases or notes can be used to remember later details about what to write (Copland, 2018). Richards (2003) suggests recording the information on the context, participants, systems, and behaviors to analyze and comprehend the data in a reliable and organized way. A researcher needs to note experiences, methodological information about the collected data, theoretical items, and personal thoughts (Richards, 2003).

During the pre-writing brainstorming activities, the researcher observed the participants in the treatment group. As the course instructor, the researcher became a *participant observer* (Creswell, 2012) and kept jotting notes during class hours, and those notes were enlarged after the writing classes (Richards, 2003). The researcher also had general preliminary questions to keep organized and detailed notes for each observation.

The questions adapted from the study by İlhan (2022) were:

1. Do the participants participate in the pre-writing part?
2. Which language do they prefer to use during the pre-writing part?
3. Why do the participants collaborate?

3.7.2.3. Activity reflection logs

Reflection is a systematic thought mode related to scientific questioning, and it necessitates specific attitudes since it is a challenging responsibility, including intellectual and emotional sides (Dewey, 1933). Reflection helps language learners stimulate particular questions about their learning.

The researcher collected activity reflection logs after each writing task in the treatment group (See Activity Reflection Log Protocol, in Appendix D). The aim was to encourage the participants to think critically, especially about the translanguaging-integrated pre-writing activities. The logs also presented the participants' views regarding the related writing activity. The logs were given in Turkish and English so the participants could express themselves in either language.

The activity reflection logs in the study focused on the general ideas about the writing assignment, the difficulties experienced, the benefits of the writing assignment, the effects of using Turkish in pre-writing, and their ideas of utilizing L1 during pre-writing.

3.8. Data Collection Procedure

3.8.1. Pilot study

Mackey and Gass (2005) define a pilot study as a miniature version of the data collection procedure and highlight that piloting could help solve the potential problems in the data collection and enable a researcher to control and revise materials when needed.

Before conducting the pilot study, the researcher received official permission from the universities' Research and Publication Ethics Boards (See Ethics Board Protocol I&II, in Appendix E & F). After obtaining permission, the researcher conducted the pilot study with a class during the last four weeks of the fall semester of the 2021-2022 academic year. Eight students participated in the pilot study and had one extra hour of writing course to participate in the piloting process; however, the piloting group could not

participate in the main study since they were not in the researcher's classes in the spring term.

The participants were chosen according to convenience sampling since they were voluntary participants in the instructor's writing class. The pilot study included two writing assignments with pre-writing brainstorming activities based on EMI pedagogy and two writing tasks with translanguaging integrated pre-writing stages. The researcher was also the instructor in the class, teaching the group and collecting the data. The pilot study aimed to investigate the applicability of the research in the actual classroom and analyze the possible problems in the main study.

As the instructor had only one writing class during the first semester, it was not likely to compare the treatment and control groups. Therefore, the pilot study was based on a group pretest-posttest design. The instructor conducted two assignments as the control group and two as the treatment group in the same class. The English-only writing assignments consisted of the pre-test, while translanguaging-embedded ones were the post-test. As a result, there were four writing tasks for one group to compare instead of two separate tasks for two groups.

The participants first provided informed consent in Turkish as part of the pilot study procedure. They were informed that the participation was voluntary and would not affect their grades. Then, the participants had two writing assignments over two weeks, and English was the instruction and communication language in the class. The participants were paired up and encouraged to communicate in English during the tasks. They completed activity reflection logs to share their views on EMI pre-writing activities and writing classes. Following, the participants were asked to fill in the first questionnaire with their comments to get their personal and educational backgrounds and perceptions about paragraph writing and writing classes. The questionnaire included questions in English and Turkish so that the participants had a chance to choose either language. Next, the class had two translanguaging-integrated pre-writing stages and writing assignments for the other two weeks. They became pairs again, yet they were free to use English and Turkish. After two translanguaging-integrated writing tasks, the participants completed activity reflection logs to share their views. Lastly, the instructor conducted the second questionnaire to investigate the participants' views on translanguaging-embedded paragraph writing.

All the assignments in the study were related to the units in the writing coursebook. The participants had to write their tasks in English according to the school's writing

grading criteria. Due to the heavy workload of colleagues, the instructor had to grade the writing tasks in the piloting.

3.8.1.1. Pilot study participants

The first and second parts of the first questionnaire provided demographic and educational information about the participants. The data were analyzed with descriptive statistics via SPSS 21. Table 5 below presents that the piloting group included eight participants, five males and three females. They were aged between 18 and 23, enrolled in four different departments, and had the same L1. All the participants had at least one year of English learning.

Table 5.
The profile of the participants in the pilot study

	Number (f)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
• Male	5	62,50
• Female	3	37,50
Age		
• 18	1	12,5
• 19	3	37,50
• 20	3	37,5
• 23	1	12,50
Mother tongue		
• Turkish	8	100
Department		
• Aerospace engineering	3	37,50
• International trade and finance	3	37,50
• Business administration	1	12,50
• International relations	1	12,50
Years of learning English		
• 1-3 years	2	25,00
• 4-6 years	1	12,50
• 7-9 years	2	25,00
• 10-12 years	3	37,50

3.8.1.2. Pilot study findings

The instructor graded four writing tasks to investigate the potential effects of translanguaging integration on paragraph writing performance. The writing assessment criteria prepared by the writing unit were used. The pre-test and post-test writing scores

were evaluated based on the total points for each assignment.

Both scores for the two English-only writing assignments were counted separately. The scores for either assignment were entered in SPSS and calculated for eight participants. As Table 6 depicts, the mean scores were 11,00 and 10,75 with a minimum of 9,00 and 5,00. The maximum scores were 15,00 and 18,00 points, respectively. As also seen in Table 6, the mean scores in the post-test writing assignments were 12,25 and 12,50. The minimum scores were 4,00 and 6,00, while the maximum scores were 14,00 and 16,00.

Table 6.

The pre-test and post-test writing assignment scores in the pilot study

	N	Min	Max	M		N	Min	Max	M
Pre-test 1	8	9,00	15,00	11,00	Post-test 1	8	10,00	14,00	12,25
Pre-test 2	8	5,00	18,00	10,75	Post-test 2	8	10,00	16,00	12,50

The arithmetic mean scores for pre- and post-test paragraph writing assignments were calculated. Consequently, one pre-test (English-only) and one post-test (translanguaging-integrated) writing score were obtained. Then, the results were correlated and compared through the Wilcoxon test on SPSS as the sample size was small. As shown in Table 7, the group had higher scores in the post-test paragraph writing. While the mean score of the pre-test was 10,87, it was 12,37 for the post-test. Additionally, the minimum and maximum scores of the post-test were higher than the pre-test writing scores. Therefore, it could be concluded that utilizing translanguaging for writing assignments helps language learners improve their paragraph writing.

Table 7.

The comparison of the paragraph writing scores in the pilot study

	N	M	SD	Min	Max
Pre-test	8	10,87	2,50	7,50	14,00
Post-test	8	12,37	1,45	10,50	15,00

The Wilcoxon test was conducted to compare the paragraph writing scores. The results indicated that the scores increased from an average mean rank of 1,00 to 4,00 in the post-test writing activities (See Table 8). Although one participant scored lower in

the translanguaging-embedded writing assignment, five participants scored higher. Based on the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, the difference between the two measurements was significant ($Z=1,99$, $p<,05$). Based on the findings, it can be inferred that translanguaging integration positively affected the students' paragraph writing performance.

Table 8.

Wilcoxon test results of the pre-test and post-test scores of the piloting group

Pre-test & Post-test	N	Mean Rank	Z	p
Negative ranks	1	1	1,99	0,046
Positive ranks	5	4,00		
Ties	2			
Total	8			

The questionnaires were also analyzed in the pilot study. Based on the findings obtained from the first open-ended questionnaire before the piloting,

- The participants believed content and organization were the most challenging aspects of paragraph writing in their L1. However, they considered grammar the least difficult.
- The students found the content to be the most challenging aspect of TL writing, while grammar was perceived to be the least problematic aspect.
- Although the students generally believed that the writing lessons were efficient, they also mentioned some ideas about improving the quality of the classes.
- The participants preferred to use English and Turkish in writing classes.
- Half of the participants believed that using Turkish negatively affected their performance, but some underlined that using Turkish was beneficial.
- The participants also believed writing benefitted their speaking skills, grammar, and vocabulary knowledge.
- The challenges of writing an English paragraph revealed that the participants needed help with vocabulary, grammar, topic knowledge, and other issues.

Based on the findings obtained from the second open-ended questionnaire after the piloting,

- The participants believed grammar was the most challenging part of writing, while content was the least difficult. Their ideas about paragraph writing in Turkish changed, although they had no implementation or practice in L1 paragraph writing.
- The content was statistically the most challenging aspect of English paragraph writing. Additionally, grammar was the least problematic aspect of the five. These findings showed no statistical differences in the ranking for English paragraph writing before and after the piloting.
- The participant's perceptions of the writing classes mainly focused on the efficacy, practicality, and enhancement of writing skills.
- The participants' language preferences revealed that they used English and Turkish in the writing classes. The participants also mentioned using Turkish in pre-writing, especially during the thinking process.
- Most participants believed that Turkish benefited their writing assignments.
- The participants underlined that writing helps them in several ways, including enhancing writing skills, increasing vocabulary knowledge, and gaining new perspectives.
- Focusing on the challenges of English paragraph writing, it was ascertained that the participants had some difficulties in content development, grammar, vocabulary, and topic knowledge.

The researcher's field notes were also essential to illuminate the issue. All the participants actively joined in brainstorming activities. Since the latter two tasks were translanguaging-integrated, the participants could use Turkish or English. The participants used their L1 to clarify, ask about vocabulary, understand the topic, and criticize each other's ideas. Enabling them to speak Turkish made them also use English when they could answer their classmate's questions. Though the participants were supposed to study as pairs, they studied as a whole class while brainstorming.

3.8.1.3. Changes after the piloting

The pilot study was conducted with various aims before adjudicating the final version of the research design and data collection tools. The primary objective of the piloting is

to examine the methods and procedures to apply in the main study and detect and solve any possible problems (Yin, 2003). Therefore, the pilot study benefited the researcher by showing how applicable the study was and how practical and feasible the data collection tools were.

After the piloting, the researcher held a short session to get feedback from the students about the data collection tools and procedure. Some parts of the questionnaires used in the piloting were revised based on the participants' feedback. The parts related to the ranking items were excluded since they created problems for the participants and did not address the research questions. Additionally, three open-ended questions on the first questionnaire were revised to clarify them so the participants could better comprehend them. Lastly, the related questions to those three open-ended questions on the second questionnaire were also reviewed and adapted. Therefore, the final versions of the questionnaires were formed.

The pilot study also contributed to pre-writing brainstorming activities. The participants were supposed to study with their chosen pairs during the piloting. However, it became clear that they preferred to study with classmates. The researcher's field notes also ascertained that the participants communicated with other classmates and their pairs. They asked questions aloud, expressed their ideas to the class, and commented. As a result, the implementation of the brainstorming during the pre-writing sessions part was altered as a whole class activity.

Besides these, the piloting helped the researcher gain experience in data collection and analysis. As for the translanguaging integration, the researcher became more aware of the participants' expectations and problems regarding the writing assignments. Therefore, the researcher conducted basic research about the writing assignments to present more ideas to the participants. Moreover, considering the participants' perceptions, the researcher planned to spend extra time on vocabulary and complex grammar structures in the related parts of the skill coursebook.

To sum up, conducting the piloting enabled the researcher to identify the challenges of the study and eliminate them for the main study. Additionally, the data collection and analysis provided significant experience in data collection, analysis, and implementation of translanguaging in the pre-writing sessions.

3.8.2. Main data collection procedure

The primary study started at the end of the fall semester by obtaining the pre-test scores. The data collection continued for an entire semester with seven writing assignments and post-test scores. The study followed the steps below.

1. The instructor investigated how to integrate translanguaging into writing classes and then decided on some of the strategies mentioned above to implement in the writing classes.
2. The institutional authorities were informed about the study, and the researcher obtained official permission.
3. The pilot study was conducted with eight participants at the end of the first semester. Based on the piloting findings, the data collection tools and application strategies were revised to make a final decision.
4. At the end of the fall semester, the pre-test scores were obtained through the paragraph writing section of the achievement exam.
5. Before starting the second semester, the R&W course pacing was analyzed, and the researcher planned the assignment weeks, searched about writing topics, and prepared the necessary documents for data collection.
6. In the first R&W class session, the participants in both the control and treatment groups were informed about the study and signed consent forms. The participants in the treatment group completed the first questionnaire following the consent form.
7. The writing assignments were conducted in the control and treatment groups. The control group had seven writing assignments with EMI pedagogy, including pre-writing brainstorming activities. However, the treatment group utilized translanguaging integrated pre-writing activities, allowing them to use their L1. During the assignments, the instructor took field notes and organized them after each session.
8. After each writing assignment, the participants in the treatment group completed activity reflection logs to share their views on the task and pre-writing activity.
9. An ELT instructor with at least an MA degree graded each writing assignment.
10. The treatment group completed the second questionnaire at the end of the semester.

11. Exploratory (content-driven) thematic analysis was used while analyzing the qualitative data. Additionally, the researcher followed Braun and Clarke's six steps of thematic analysis (2006). SPSS 21 was utilized to reach concrete results in analyzing the quantitative data.
12. The findings of all data collection tools were compared to reach a complete understanding, and the researcher started to write the report.

3.9. Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process of ordering and organizing the raw data. It is not just about numbers but focuses on asking questions, explaining, and testing hypotheses. Therefore, it is multidisciplinary (Cuesta, 2013). In the current research, the researcher utilized SPSS 21 to analyze quantitative data while using exploratory thematic analysis for qualitative data.

3.9.1. The analysis of quantitative data

There are steps to follow for quantitative data analysis. The first is to prepare the data by assigning numeric scores, selecting a proper program, and cleaning up the database for analysis. The second is conducting a descriptive analysis to report. If needed, more detailed analysis methods could be applied. The next step is reporting using tables and figures. The final step is interpreting the findings (Creswell, 2012).

Raw data analysis is the first step before statistical analysis. After that, two main sample statistics to be conducted are measuring the central tendency and spread of the data, i.e., variability. Descriptive statistics enable a summary of the findings by describing general tendencies and the overall spread of the data (Dörnyei, 2007).

Dörnyei (2007) states that “measures of central tendency describe the data set with a single numerical value” (p. 213). Central tendency presents the average distribution (Bryman, 2012). Three commonly utilized measures are median, mean, and mode. The median is the central datum considering the numerical order of the data; the mean is the summary of the interval data, while the mode is the measurement of the most frequent value in the data (McCluskey & Lalkhen, 2007).

The spread of the data is dispersion (McCluskey & Lalkhen, 2007). When data are typically distributed, the preferred measurement is the standard deviation. The standard deviation tells how scattered the data set is (Dörnyei, 2007). Another variability

measurement is the range, the interval between the highest and lowest value ((McCluskey & Lalkhen, 2007).

Dörnyei (2007) states that comparing people or groups is typical statistical data analysis in applied linguistics. A normality test is conducted as the starting point of comparison since a parametric analysis requires a normally distributed population (Pallant, 2016). An *independent samples t-test* compares when the data are normally distributed. If there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups, the difference between the groups can be analyzed through *Cohen's d*. However, when the data are not normally distributed, the *Mann-Whitney U* test is used to compare. Pallant (2016) explains that the "Mann-Whitney-U test converts the scores on the continuous variable to rank across the two groups; it then evaluates whether the ranks for the two groups differ significantly" (p. 250). If there is a significant statistical difference, Cohen's *d* test is run to calculate the effect size of the significance.

In the study, each participant's paragraph writing assignment was graded by a different instructor with at least an MA in ELT. The testing unit was in charge of assigning those two instructors for the achievement exam grading, forming the pre-and post-test scores of the study. For the seven writing assignments of the semester, the researcher asked each instructor to grade the paragraphs. Those instructors had minimum MA degrees in ELT, and some were continuing their PhD journey. Following the grading, those scores were input into SPSS.

This study used one measure of tendency, namely mean, and one measure of variability, standard deviation, to compare the participants' scores. Additionally, the normality test was conducted to analyze the distribution. The Shapiro-Wilk test was utilized to check normality as the number of participants was lower than 50. Based on the normality test results, the groups' writing scores were analyzed and compared through independent samples *t-test*. When there was a statistically significant difference between the group's data, Cohen's *d* test was conducted to see the effect size. Since the SPSS version used in the study does not calculate Cohen's *d*, it was calculated through a website available through the link given below

(<https://www.socscistatistics.com/effectsize/default3.aspx>).

3.9.2. The analysis of qualitative data

Analyzing qualitative data is challenging since it is not just choosing and applying a

proper analysis method. Dörnyei (2007) highlights that the crucial point in qualitative data analysis is not to get strained by the procedures and not to sacrifice the researcher's creativity in interpretation. In the analysis, Grbich (2013) explains the three key issues (three Ps): person, process, and presentation. Person refers to the researcher, so the perceptions and choices of the researcher in the data collection process are significant. The second is about the process and involves collecting and managing the data. The last is the presentation, which focuses on displaying and interpreting the findings (Grbich, 2013).

Qualitative data analysis may be grueling, but following some steps might help researchers. Creswell (2012) explains common characteristics of the qualitative data analysis process. First, it is inductive, meaning the researcher starts from the particular data to present the phenomenon of the study. It is also a simultaneous process that combines data collection and analysis. Third, the process is iterative, allowing the researcher to go back and forth between data collection and analysis. Lastly, it is interpretative, which provides the researcher's descriptions.

Thematic analysis is a qualitative data analysis method that uses classification and presents themes with details and interpretations (Boyatzis, 1998). Thematic analysis is "a method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.79). It is flexible and does not rely on specific theories, allowing room for a researcher to organize research procedures (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Two qualitative data analysis approaches for thematic analysis are exploratory and confirmatory. The confirmatory approach has pre-determined categories or codes generated from hypotheses and generally uses existing data through random sampling. Therefore, it is less preferred in social research. However, the exploratory approach does not have pre-determined codes or categories and creates codes using the data. It utilizes purposive sampling and is commonly used in social sciences (Greg, MacQueen & Namey, 2012).

The exploratory thematic analysis in the current study used six steps of analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The current study's qualitative data included questionnaires, activity reflection logs, and the researcher's field notes. By following the steps by Braun and Clarke (2006), the researcher first became familiar with the data. The data were collected with some prior knowledge during the analysis process and were read throughout the collection process. The second step was forming the preliminary codes, producing the most basic units. In this step, all the data were reviewed using colorful

materials and note papers to highlight the significant patterns and essential points. Next, the themes were analyzed, sorting the initial codes into possible themes. In the fourth step, themes were scrutinized, involving rectifying possible themes. Some possible themes were omitted in that step while combining or breaking down others to create a clear picture of themes, subthemes, and relevant data extracts. The fifth step was explaining and naming the themes, involving the identification of each theme by checking the data and finding why they were crucial. In the final step of writing the report, the researcher displayed the data logically and comprehensively.

3.10. Trustworthiness of the Study

Trustworthiness is related to specific standards demonstrating that the research has been conducted competently and ethically (Rallis & Rossman, 2009). Competent practice and careful ethical standards can assign trustworthiness. When a study is trustworthy, it is efficient, and its results are credible, leading to future research (Rallis & Rossman, 2009).

Dörnyei (2007) asserts that validity and reliability comprise the quality of quantitative research, though it may not be possible to achieve exact validity and reliability in social sciences (Bryman, 2012). However, it does not mean that social studies may be free of reliability and validity criteria. Guba (1981) underlines that quantitative and qualitative research have different data collection tools, so each has different criteria for trustworthiness. Quantitative studies with positivist/post-positivist paradigms need objectivity, reliability, and validity, whereas qualitative research requires credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Objectivity is neutrality, being open to all contrasting views, eliminating bias, and minimizing personal prejudice (Clark, 1994; Krefting, 1991). Reliability is about score consistency, meaning whether an instrument produces nearly the same scores if repeatedly tested (Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle, 2010). In quantitative studies, the instruments to collect data determine reliability, and there are two types of reliability: internal and external (Nunan, 1999). While internal reliability refers to consistency during data collection, analysis, and interpretation, external reliability means whether different researchers can reproduce a study with similar findings (Nunan, 1999). Bryman (2012) clarifies that validity focuses on the “integrity of the conclusions” generated from a study (p. 421). Bryman (2012) separates validity into four: construct validity is whether the

instrument measures what it aims to measure; internal validity is about whether the study is reproducible in different contexts with similar results; external validity is related to the generalizability of the results, and ecological validity refers to the applicability of the results.

The scores of the achievement exam writing sections and paragraph writing assignment comprised the quantitative data. A language instructor with a minimum MA in ELT graded the scores to sustain objectivity, and the grades were analyzed through SPSS. The instructor did not grade participant scores to increase the objectivity in the main study. For reliability, the paragraph writing assignments were based on the coursebook. Therefore, conducting the study with the same writing tasks in a different context with participants is possible. Providing construct validity, the researcher utilized the same writing tasks of the coursebook with the same pre-writing activities. As the internal validity, there were control and treatment groups whose first semester grades were very similar and who were chosen based on purposive and convenience sampling. The details about the context and participants were presented for external validity, so the results might be generalizable, though the study did not aim to do so. The ecological validity, referring to the applicability of the results, was provided by using practical activities based on the coursebook, which language teachers/instructors could use in their contexts.

Credibility refers to accurately representing the data obtained from the participants (Lodico et al., 2010). Mackey and Gass (2005) remark that credibility is significant for researchers as there are various assumptions in qualitative studies. Lincoln and Guba (1985) also suggest that researchers can ensure credibility through prolonged engagement, triangulation, persistent observation, peer debriefing, and member-checking.

Transferability is related to the applicability of findings in different contexts. It enables a study to be pioneering for future studies. Transferability directly from one context to another is rare in qualitative studies, yet the extent of transferability depends on the similarity between/among contexts (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The thick description method can be utilized to determine the similarity of contexts. Mackey and Gass (2005) note that thick descriptions use various views from the study. Three significant components of thick description are detailed descriptions, presenting the examples of data; general description, information about the data; interpretive commentary, phenomena explanation, and interpreting findings related to the previous studies (Davis,

1995).

According to Guba (1981), dependability is the consistency of the findings, which can be obtained through triangulation. Mackey and Gass (2005) highlight that researchers aim to present the research site, context, and participants in depth. To enable dependability, researchers may request participants to check the patterns in data analysis and record the data electronically to analyze the data with interpretive cues (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

The last one is confirmability, referring to how a researcher endeavors to corroborate research findings (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Researchers need to exhibit the necessary data details, similar to replicability in quantitative research. Based on the study's confirmability, another researcher might investigate the data and approve, alter, or abnegate the interpretations (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

The researcher maintained prolonged engagement in the field due to her Bachelor's Degree in the ELT department in 2009 at METU, following her MA and PhD in the same department at Çukurova University. Moreover, she became a language instructor in higher education in 2016 and has been working at a public university since 2019. In addition to the MA thesis, she conducted some research, enabling her to observe various aspects of the field and experience the research procedure. As for this particular Ph.D. dissertation, the researcher became familiar with the participants and knew sufficiently about the program of the School of Foreign Languages. Preparing for the study and spending four weeks for the piloting in the fall semester and a whole semester for the data collection enabled the researcher to blend in with the study.

The researcher kept researcher field notes to establish another characteristic of credibility: persistent observation. Those note-takings were beneficial in grasping the participants' processes and reactions in real classrooms in the control and treatment groups. Since only one method can never be enough to illuminate a study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), the current study utilized multiple data sources and tools, such as methodological triangulation. Various instruments, including open-ended questionnaires, researcher's field notes, and activity reflection logs, were used to collect qualitative data.

Another strategy for applying credibility is peer debriefing, providing an external check for the study process. Two researcher colleagues participated in the study as peer reviewers by monitoring the entire journey to present their views on methodology, data collection, and findings. The supervisor also played an active role from the beginning to the end through constructive feedback and reviews. The committee members monitoring

each research step provided external checks through their promoting feedback and reviews. The final strategy, member-checking, refers to participant validation. The researcher applied member-checking during data collection and analysis. The participants could correct misinterpretations and give additional information due to member checks.

Ensuring transferability might only be possible via thick description (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Mackey & Gass, 2005), meaning the detailed presentation of the participants, places, and processes in a study (Lodico et al., 2010). The particular description was ensured through the excerpts and the participants' verbatim information, and the general description was provided via the themes. The interpretive commentary was supported by detailed information about translanguaging, integrating it, and correlating previous research in the literature and discussion. The researcher described the whole process with sufficient details about the study. The methodology section also included essential and detailed information about the research paradigm, design, context and participants, data collection tools, process, and analysis. Integrating translanguaging into writing classes was also presented in detail. The thick description of the research context, including all the components, was reported in a detailed way so that the readers could perceive all the features and characteristics of the research site.

To judge the quality of dependability, the researcher needs to discuss the nurture between the researcher and participants and the structure of the interviews and observations (Lodico et al., 2010). The researcher wrote crucial details in jotting notes without considering objectivity and subjectivity. However, while constructing themes, the researcher was objective, and a colleague and the supervisor checked the notes during the analysis. To enhance dependability, the researcher also used various tools to collect data, providing methodological triangulation.

For confirmability, the researcher drew a complete picture of the research site, consisting of the setting, participants, data collection tools and procedures, and analysis methods and procedures. The researcher also explained the theoretical background of translanguaging and the details of the sociocultural theory applied to the study. Triangulation was also utilized to establish confirmability because it averts and dispels the researcher's bias.

3.11. Ethical Considerations

Ethics relates to morals and involves ethical issues while working with individuals

(Gregory, 2003). By evolving to cover issues beyond people, ethics nowadays focuses on incorporating respect for and protecting the environment (Ramrathan, Grange & Shawa, 2017). In the modern era, researchers must consider ethics and be aware of potential ethical risks while conducting studies (Ramrathan et al., 2017).

Burgess (1989) submits four ethical issues related to educational studies: research sponsorship, research relations, informed consent, and data dissemination. Ramrathan et al., 2017) mention that these are still the key dilemmas that researchers need to address. Creswell (2012) also notes that addressing ethical issues in research is crucial as it includes the participants' voices.

The first ethical issue is research sponsorship. The sponsor of a study is any individual or institution funding or permitting data collection (Ramrathan et al., 2017). This study was funded by Çukurova University Bilimsel Araştırma Projeleri (BAP). Therefore, all the projects related to the PhD thesis, including oral presentations, full-text proceedings, and research articles, include the funding information with the project number. Moreover, official permission was obtained from both universities; one is where the researcher was a PhD student, and the other is where the study was conducted. Thus, the researcher provided all the ethical considerations for the research sponsorship.

The following ethical consideration is research relations. Burgess (1989) explains that research relations refer to the issues of power, harm, confidentiality, security, and deception, which must be considered in all steps. The researcher was the instructor in both writing classes in the study, so she had a good rapport with the participants. There was also no harm to the participants since they had the same writing tasks and steps. The control group continued their writing lessons with EMI pedagogy as the school requires. The treatment group held some translanguaging integration in pre-writing sessions, enabling their L1 use for a specific time. The written production, the paragraph writing, was always in English, providing the TL practice for both groups.

The participants' identities were anonymous, and each participant was given a number to provide confidentiality and security. The researcher did not express the school name to increase anonymity. Any information that would reveal the identity of the participants was concealed when presenting the excerpts. Moreover, the data was only used for scientific purposes. The participants also were informed about the research to avoid deception. The researcher explained the research aims at the beginning of the study and mentioned that their participation was voluntary and would not affect their grades. The researcher continued writing courses following the pacing and did not remind the

study again not to influence the participants. Triangulation in data collection tools and member-check also eliminated the deception. Moreover, while analyzing the data and reporting the findings, the researcher cooperated with colleagues and the supervisor, maximizing objectivity. In each step of the study, honesty and openness were highlighted.

The third ethical issue is informed consent, which focuses on the voluntarism of the participants and knowing the necessary details about the study (Ramrathan et al., 2017). Therefore, at the beginning of the study, the researcher explained the process of the study, the significance of students' participation, confidentiality, and how to report research findings in control and treatment groups. The instructor also answered the questions related to the study and mentioned that their participation was based on voluntarism. Their participation would not affect their writing grades, and each participant had a right to leave the study any time they wanted. The participants filled in the informed consent form prepared by the university's Research and Publication Ethics Board, where the study was conducted. The informed consent included the main details of the study so the participants were aware of the process they were engaged in (See Informed Consent Protocol in Appendix G).

Data dissemination is another significant point as it involves confidentiality and data reporting. (Ramrathan et al., 2017). To ensure confidentiality, the researcher did not use the names of the participants and the institution where the study was conducted. While analyzing and reporting the qualitative data, the researcher utilized member-checking to mitigate the possibility of misinterpretations. Data security was also ensured by omitting the participants' names on the writing assignments graded by the instructors. All in all, the ethical considerations were meticulously considered from the beginning to the end of the study.

3.12. Researcher Reflectivity

Researchers must present their role to increase the credibility of a study (Unluer, 2012). The researchers conducting qualitative studies may have various roles in the research setting. Adler and Adler (1994) explain that a researcher can be a member of a group, an insider, or a stranger, making them an outsider.

Bonner and Tolhurst (2002) specify three main advantages of an insider researcher. First, they are familiar with the culture in which the study is conducted. Secondly, social

interactions naturally occur in the setting. Lastly, rapport promotes reporting the findings honestly. However, there are also some drawbacks to being an insider researcher, as they also know the institutional policies and what works (Unluer, 2012). Familiarity with the culture may result in wrong assumptions, leading to bias (DeLyser, 2001). It is also challenging for a researcher to multitask, including insider and researcher roles (DeLyser, 2001). Another risk is that an insider researcher may access sensitive information. With its benefits and constraints, coping with the disadvantages of being an insider researcher is crucial to provide credibility (Unluer, 2012).

The researcher was the instructor of both treatment and control groups, making her an insider researcher, so she actively participated in all study steps. Undeniably, the study was implemented following a comprehensive literature review on translanguaging, which made the researcher curious whether translanguaging pedagogy works in an EFL context with EMI. However, while doing extensive reading, the researcher also investigated the contradictory studies utilizing translanguaging in language learning. Therefore, the researcher tried to promote a neutral stance on the research issue.

The researcher has been working in the same institution for four years, enabling her to be familiar with the current culture and context of the institution. She had some ideas about conducting the course, the potential problems, and how to sort them out. Since the participants were students in the researcher's classes, the interaction between the participants and researcher and among the participants flew naturally in a real classroom. Being the course instructor also enabled the students to behave naturally, asking questions, doing the writing tasks, and joining the class activities. During the study, the writing courses continued their usual way; the only difference was the translanguaging integration for the pre-writing activities in the treatment group.

The researcher utilized a quasi-experimental design with quantitative and qualitative data in case her familiarity with the institutional policies and the context might affect the study. Both data types enabled the researcher to avoid wrong assumptions and biases in the study. Since the researcher was also the instructor in both groups, she had to multitask during the courses where the participants had pre-writing sessions and continued writing their paragraphs. She used mind mapping and wrote the ideas on the board so the participants could have clear ideas while writing. The targeted jotted notes and preliminary questions also helped her to obtain some crucial details instead of writing down everything. Though the researcher might have some sensitive information about the participants, they were never used in any part of the study. She did not share the

students' identities; instead, she used the numbering strategy in data analysis.

As an insider researcher, she actively participated in the study. She did not grade paragraph writing tasks or paragraph writing sections of the achievement exams in the main study. The colleagues of the researcher graded the paragraph writing tasks and the related parts in the achievement exams. The researcher also used member checks to increase the reliability and validity of the study. She got support from her supervisor and colleagues in the data analysis step. Investigating both the benefits and the drawbacks of translanguaging and collecting quantitative and qualitative data through various tools, the researcher intended to have a neutral stance on the research and avoid bias in all research procedures.



CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This chapter aims to present the research findings in a detailed and comprehensive way. The quantitative findings analyze and compare the control and treatment groups' pre-test and post-test writing and writing assessment scores based on the writing assessment criteria. The qualitative data also exhibits the participants' views before, during, and after the paragraph writing sessions and the researcher's observation. The findings of each writing assignment involve the data analysis of the questionnaires, activity reflection logs, and the researcher's field notes. Throughout the chapter, the findings are exemplified and supported by excerpts from the questionnaires, logs, and field notes.

4.1. Findings Related to the First Research Question

4.1.1. The pre-test scores

Forty-one participants took the achievement exam at the end of the first semester. They were responsible for a paragraph writing part on the exam, which was graded out of 20. Two language instructors graded each group based on the writing assessment criteria, including content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics, leading to an overall score.

The writing rubric had a maximum of five points for content and organization criteria, four for vocabulary and grammar, and two for mechanics. The rubric was used to evaluate the paragraph writing section of the achievement exams, and two language instructors graded the paragraphs, negotiating the final grade.

First, the researcher conducted a normality test for the paragraph writing scores data. While analyzing the normality, the Shapiro-Wilk test was used as the number of participants was smaller than 50. The data analysis revealed that the scores were normally distributed ($p > .05$) (See Table 9).

Table 9.

The normality test of the pre-test writing scores

Shapiro-Wilk			
	Statistic	df	p
The difference between the scores	,97	41	,49

Twenty-two participants took the paragraph writing section of the fall achievement exam in the control group. Table 10 depicts the mean score of 3,45 for content, the highest mean score in all criteria. The findings also showed that the minimum score was 9,00, and the maximum was 18,00, with a 12,59 mean.

Table 10.

The control group's pre-test writing scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	22	22	22	22	22	22
Min	2,00	2,00	2,00	2,00	1,00	9,00
Max	5,00	5,00	4,00	4,00	2,00	18,00
M	3,45	2,72	2,86	2,31	1,22	12,59
SD	,85	,88	,83	,56	,42	2,57

Nineteen participants took part in the paragraph writing part of the fall achievement exam in the treatment group. Table 11 presents the mean score of 3,73 for content as the highest. Moreover, the lowest score was 8,00, and the highest was 19,00, with a 13,73 mean score.

Table 11.

The treatment group's pre-test writing scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	19	19	19	19	19	19
Min	2,00	1,00	2,00	1,00	1,00	8,00
Max	5,00	5,00	4,00	3,00	2,00	19,00
M	3,73	3,05	2,94	2,47	1,52	13,73
SD	,80	1,07	,62	,69	,51	2,52

In the pre-test scores, the treatment group had higher means for all the criteria. The content was the highest mean in both groups, 3,45 for the control and 3,73 for the treatment group. The control group had the maximum score for all the criteria, but the treatment did not have the highest score for the grammar criterion. While the control group had the minimum score for mechanics, the treatment group had the lowest minimum for organization, grammar, and mechanics. The lowest score was 9,00 in the control group and 8,00 in the treatment. However, the highest overall score was 18,00 in the control group and 19,00 in the treatment group. The treatment group had a higher mean overall (TM=13,72).

An independent-sample t-test was conducted to compare the pre-test writing scores for the control and treatment groups (See Table 12). Levene's test showed that the variances for the two groups were the same except for the vocabulary criterion. However, there was no statistically significant difference in the means of any criterion and overall scores of the pre-test paragraph writing, meaning that both groups were similar in terms of their scores at the start of the study.

Table 12.

Levene's test for the pre-test writing scores

	Levene's test for equality of variances		t-test for equality of means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Pre-test content	,256	,616	-1,08	39	,287
Pre-test organization	,200	,657	-1,06	39	,295
Pre-test vocabulary	5,00	,031	-,36	38,24	,715
Pre-test grammar	2,28	,139	-,78	39	,436
Pre-test mechanics	7,42	0,10	-2,00	35,27	,053
Pre-test overall	,462	,501	1,39	39	,170

4.1.2. The paragraph writing scores during the study

The participants had seven writing assignments during the spring academic term. They were responsible for writing a paragraph based on the R&W course book's units in those assignments. The participants wrote their paragraphs in class. The duration of the paragraph writing was one class hour, 45 minutes in total.

The paragraph writing assignments were graded by a language instructor based on the writing assessment criteria, grading out of 20. The criteria included content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics, using the same rubric in the achievement exams.

4.1.2.1. The scores of the first paragraph writing assignment

There were 37 participants taking part in the first writing assignment, conducted after five weeks from the pre-test, with four missing ones in the control group. Before analyzing and comparing the two groups, the Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted for the first assignment. The data analysis showed that the scores were normally distributed ($p>,05$) (See Table 13).

Table 13.

The normality test of the first assignment scores

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df.	p
The difference between the scores	,976	37	,591

In the control group, 17 participants participated in the first writing assignment session. As seen in Table 14, the mean for mechanics was 1,50, the highest. The findings indicated that the minimum score of the assignment was 7,00, while the maximum was 19,00, with a mean of 12,05.

Table 14.

The control group's first assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	18	18	18	18	18	18
Min	1,00	1,00	2,00	1,00	1,00	7,00
Max	5,00	5,00	4,00	4,00	2,00	19,0
M	2,72	2,33	2,83	2,66	1,50	12,05
SD	,89	,97	,61	,76	,51	2,89

All the participants in the treatment group participated in the first writing session. Table 15 depicts that the highest mean score for mechanics was 1,94. In the assignment, the lowest score was 10,00, and the highest was 17,00, with a mean of 13,57.

Table 15.

The treatment group's first assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	19	19	19	19	19	19
Min	2,00	1,00	2,00	2,00	1,00	10,00
Max	4,00	5,00	4,00	3,00	2,00	17,00
M	2,89	2,89	3,10	2,63	1,94	13,57
SD	,80	0,99	,45	,49	,00	2,26

While the treatment group had higher means for four criteria, the control group had a higher mean for grammar. Mechanics was the highest mean for both groups, 1,50 in the control group and 1,94 in the treatment group. The control group had the maximum score for all the criteria, yet the treatment group had the maximum for organization, vocabulary, and mechanics. The control group had the lowest score for the four criteria except for the vocabulary, yet the treatment group had the lowest score for the organization. The minimum grade in the control group was 7,00, and 10,00 in the treatment group. The highest grade was 19,00 in the control group and 17,00 in the treatment group. The overall mean of the treatment group (TM=13,57) was higher than the control group (CM=12,05).

The findings showed that the variances were the same in the groups except for the mechanics criterion (See Table 16). The analysis also revealed no statistically significant differences in the groups' first assignment scores ($p > ,05$) except for the mechanics criterion (Mechanics; $\text{sig} < ,05$). The calculation based on the effect size ascertained that the significant difference in mechanics had a large effect (Mechanics; Cohen's $d = 4,51$).

Table 16.

Levene's test for the first assignment scores

	Levene's test for equality of variances		t-test for equality of means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Content A1	,007	,936	-,61	35	,542
Organisation A1	,087	,770	-1,37	35	,091
Vocabulary A1	2,14	,152	-1,52	35	,136
Grammar A1	2,75	,106	,166	35	,869
Mechanics A1	68,34	0,00	-3,38	23,22	,003
Overall A1	,013	,910	-1,78	35	,083

4.1.2.2. The scores of the second paragraph writing assignment

There were 41 participants in the second paragraph writing assignment, with full participation. The Shapiro-Wilk test revealed that the scores were normally distributed ($p>,05$) (See Table 17).

Table 17.

The normality test of the second assignment scores

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df.	p
The difference between the scores	,976	41	,537

Twenty-two participants joined the second writing assignment in the control group. Table 18 depicts that the highest mean was for vocabulary, which was 2,72. The assignment's lowest score was 7,00, and the high est was 14,00, with an overall mean of 11,54.

Table 18.

The control group's second assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	22	22	22	22	22	22
Min	1,00	1,00	2,00	2,00	1,00	7,00
Max	4,00	3,00	4,00	4,00	2,00	14,00
M	2,72	2,54	2,72	2,40	1,13	11,54
SD	,63	,59	,55	,59	,35	1,87

All the participants in the treatment group attended the second writing assignment. The descriptive statistics revealed that the highest mean score was 4,52 for content (See Table 19). Although the lowest score was 11,00 overall, it was a maximum of 20,00 with a mean of 13,31.

Table 19.

The treatment group's second assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	19	19	19	19	19	19
Min	3,00	3,00	2,00	2,00	1,00	11,00
Max	5,00	5,00	4,00	4,00	2,00	20,00
M	4,52	4,42	3,21	2,68	1,36	16,31
SD	,61	0,69	,53	,67	,49	2,21

The treatment group had higher means for all criteria in the second assignment. While the highest mean in the control group was 2,72 for the vocabulary, it was 4,52 for the content in the treatment. The control group had the maximum score for the three criteria: vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. However, the control group had the maximum score for all the criteria. Though the control group had the minimum score for the three criteria, the treatment group had the lowest score for grammar only. The lowest score was 7,00 in the control group and 11,00 in the treatment. Additionally, the highest score was 14,00 in the control group, in contrast to 20,00 in the treatment. The overall score in the

treatment group was higher (TM=16,31).

Comparing the second writing assignment scores showed the same variance in both groups, except for the mechanics criterion (See Table 20). The analysis also ascertained a significant difference between groups based on the scores of content (Content; sig<,05), organization (Organization; sig<,05) and vocabulary criteria (Vocabulary; sig<,05) and overall scores (Overall; sig<,05). Since the findings showed a statistically significant difference between the groups on the criteria and overall scores, Cohen's d test was carried out. The analysis revealed the significant difference had a large effect on vocabulary (Vocabulary; Cohen's d= 0,9), nearly medium effect on content (Content; Cohen's d=0,4), a small impact on organization (Organization; Cohen's d=0,2) and overall scores (Overall; Cohen's d=0,2).

Table 20.

Levene's test for the second assignment scores

	Levene's test for equality of variances		t-test for equality of means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Content A2	,355	,555	-9,23	39	,000
Organisation A2	,774	,384	-9,32	39	,000
Vocabulary A2	,252	,618	-2,83	39	,007
Grammar A2	,389	,537	-1,39	39	,170
Mechanics A2	12,52	0,01	-1,70	31,86	,098
Overall A2	,609	,440	-7,48	39	,000

4.1.2.3. The scores of the third paragraph writing assignment

Forty students participated in the third writing assignment, with one missing participant in the control group. The Shapiro-Wilk test showed that the scores were normally distributed (sig=0,395) (See Table 21).

Table 21.

The normality test of the third assignment scores

	Statistic	Shapiro-Wilk	
		df.	p
The difference between the scores	,971	40	,395

In the control group, 21 participants participated in the third writing assignment. The group had the highest mean for vocabulary, which was 2,52 (See Table 22). The lowest score was 8,00, whereas the highest was 15,00 in the assignment (CM=11,52).

Table 22.

The control group's third assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	21	21	21	21	21	21
Min	1,00	2,00	2,00	1,00	1,00	8,00
Max	4,00	3,00	3,00	4,00	2,00	15,00
M	2,85	2,42	2,52	2,33	1,28	11,52
SD	,85	,50	,51	,73	,46	2,22

On the third writing assignment day, the treatment group had 19 students, meaning all participants joined in the writing session. The highest mean score for the mechanics was 3,15. In the group, the lowest score was 7,00, and the highest was 17,00, with an overall mean of 12,52 (See Table 23).

Table 23.

The treatment group's third assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	19	19	19	19	19	19
Min	1,00	1,00	1,00	2,00	1,00	7,00
Max	4,00	4,00	4,00	4,00	2,00	17,00
M	3,15	2,68	2,73	2,47	1,47	12,52
SD	1,01	,74	,87	,61	,51	2,98

In the assignment, the treatment group had higher mean scores for all criteria. The control group's highest mean was vocabulary, at 2,52, whereas it was mechanics, with 1,47 for the control group. Although the control group had the maximum score for grammar and mechanics, the treatment group had the maximum score for vocabulary,

grammar, and mechanics. Though the control group scored the minimum for content, grammar, and mechanics, the treatment group had the minimum score for the four criteria except for grammar. The minimum score was 8,00 in the control group and 7,00 in the treatment group, with 15,00 and 17,00 as the highest, respectively. Overall, the treatment group had a higher mean score (TM=12,52).

The findings showed that the variances were the same in the groups except for the mechanics criterion (See Table 24). The analysis also revealed no statistically significant difference in any criterion and overall scores of the third assignment of the groups (sig=0,234).

Table 24.

Levene's test for the third assignment scores

	Levene's test for equality of variances		t-test for equality of means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Content A3	,558	,460	-1,01	38	,315
Organisation A3	1,72	,198	-1,27	38	,210
Vocabulary A3	2,36	,132	-,953	38	,346
Grammar A3	,280	,600	-,655	38	,516
Mechanics A3	3,87	0,05	-1,21	38	,231
Overall A3	1,48	,231	-1,21	38	,234

4.1.2.4. The scores of the fourth paragraph writing assignment

Thirty-seven participants attended the fourth writing task, while four in the control group were absent. The Shapiro-Wilk test was utilized to test normality, and the scores had a normal distribution ($p > ,05$) (See Table 25).

Table 25.

The normality test of the fourth assignment scores

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df.	p
The difference between the scores	,957	37	,165

Eighteen students attended the class on the fourth writing assignment day, with four missing. The mean of the writing assignment was 13,05, with the highest mean for content

(ContentM=3,66) (See Table 26). The minimum score was 10,00, and the maximum was 18,00.

Table 26.

The control group's fourth assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	18	18	18	18	18	18
Min	3,00	2,00	2,00	2,00	1,00	10,00
Max	5,00	4,00	4,00	4,00	2,00	18,00
M	3,66	3,11	2,88	2,44	1,11	13,05
SD	,59	,47	,47	,61	,32	2,12

On the assignment day, 19 students were in the treatment group, meaning all the participants attended. The group's highest mean score was for content (M=3,94), with an overall mean of 13,78 (See Table 27). While the lowest score was 9,00, the highest was 18,00.

Table 27.

The treatment group's fourth assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	19	19	19	19	19	19
Min	3,00	2,00	2,00	1,00	1,00	9,00
Max	5,00	4,00	3,00	4,00	2,00	18,00
M	3,94	3,21	2,73	2,52	1,36	13,78
SD	,84	,63	,45	,69	,49	2,78

The treatment group had higher means for the content, organization, grammar, and mechanics. In contrast, the control group had a higher mean for the vocabulary. The highest mean was for the content, which was 3,66 for the control and 3,94 for the treatment group. Though the control group had the highest scores for four criteria, except for organization, the treatment group had the maximum scores for content, grammar, and

mechanics. The control group had the minimum score only for the grammar criterion, whereas it was for grammar and mechanics in the treatment. The minimum scores were 10,00 in the control group and 9,00 in the treatment group, whereas 18,00 was the highest in both. In the writing task, the treatment group had a higher mean score overall (TM=13,78).

The data analysis revealed the variances were the same, not including the mechanics criterion (See Table 28). The test to compare the groups' writing scores found no statistical difference in any criterion and overall scores.

Table 28.

Levene's test for the fourth assignment scores

	Levene's test for equality of variances		t-test for equality of means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Content A4	2,15	,151	-1,16	35	,254
Organisation A4	2,85	,100	-,541	35	,592
Vocabulary A4	,896	,350	1,00	35	,324
Grammar A4	,405	,529	-,378	35	,708
Mechanics A4	16,79	0,00	-1,88	31,15	,070
Overall A4	2,43	,128	-,898	35	,375

4.1.2.5. The scores of the fifth paragraph writing assignment

Forty participants attended the fifth assignment, with one absent in the treatment group. The Shapiro-Wilk test showed that the scores were not normally distributed ($p < ,05$) (See Table 29).

Table 29.

The normality test of the fifth assignment scores

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df.	p
The difference between the scores	,936	40	,026.

All participants took part in the fifth writing task in the control group. The highest mean was for the mechanics criterion, which was 1,90 (See Table 30). The lowest grade was 5,00, and the highest was 19,00, with a mean of 13,50 in the control group.

Table 30.

The control group's fifth assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	22	22	22	22	22	22
Min	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	5,00
Max	5,00	5,00	4,00	4,00	2,00	19,00
M	3,04	3,09	2,95	2,50	1,90	13,50
SD	,99	1,34	,89	,74	,29	3,88

The treatment group had 18 participants on the writing assignment day, with one missing. The highest mean was 3,05 for vocabulary (See Table 31). In the task, the lowest score was 11,00, and the highest was 18,00, with an overall mean of 14,27.

Table 31.

The treatment group's fifth assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	18	18	18	18	18	18
Min	2,00	2,00	2,00	2,00	1,00	11,00
Max	5,00	5,00	4,00	3,00	2,00	18,00
M	3,72	3,33	3,05	2,72	1,44	14,27
SD	,75	,84	,41	,46	,51	1,99

The treatment group had higher means for four criteria, except for grammar. While the control group had the highest mean for the mechanics, with 1,90, the treatment had it for the vocabulary, with 3,05. In the fifth assignment, the control group scored highest for all criteria. Yet, the treatment group had it for the four criteria, not including grammar. Though the control group had the lowest score for all criteria, the treatment group had the

lowest score for only mechanics. The lowest grade was 5,00 in the control group and 11,00 in the treatment group, while the highest was 19,00 and 18,00, respectively. In the fifth writing task, the treatment group had a higher mean score (TM=14,27).

The Mann-Whitney U was applied to examine the group differences, as the assignment scores were not normally distributed (See Table 32). Based on the test, there was a statistically significant difference in the content and mechanics criteria ($\text{sig} < 0,05$). Nevertheless, other criteria and overall scores had no statistically significant differences. Calculating the effect size revealed that the significant difference in content (Content; Cohen's $d=0,7$) and mechanics (Mechanics; Cohen's $d=1,14$) had a large effect.

Table 32.

Mann Whitney-U test for the fifth assignment scores

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Standard Error	Exact sig. (2-sided)
Content A5	276,50	447,50	34,55	,032
Organisation A5	218,00	389,00	35,42	,600
Vocabulary A5	199,00	370,00	31,14	1,00
Grammar A5	231,50	402,50	31,85	0,366
Mechanics A5	106,00	277,00	29,20	,012
Overall A5	214,00	385,00	36,54	,677

4.1.2.6. The scores of the sixth paragraph writing assignment

Thirty-eight participants participated in the sixth writing assignment, with three missing. The Shapiro-Wilk test revealed that the scores were normally distributed ($p > ,05$) (See Table 33).

Table 33.

The normality test of the sixth assignment scores

Shapiro-Wilk			
	Statistic	df.	p
The difference between the scores	,944	38	,057

Twenty individuals participated in the writing assignment in the control group. The highest mean was for the mechanics, which was 2,90 (See Table 34). The lowest score was 8,00, while the highest was 19,00, with a mean of 12,60.

Table 34.

The control group's sixth assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	20	20	20	20	20	20
Min	1,00	2,00	1,00	1,00	2,00	8,00
Max	4,00	5,00	4,00	4,00	2,00	19,00
M	2,55	2,90	2,50	2,65	2,00	12,60
SD	,82	,78	,76	,81	,00	2,72

The treatment group had 18 participants on the writing assignment day, meaning one was absent that day. The highest mean score for the mechanics criterion was 1,83 (See Table 35). In the group, the lowest score was 9,00, and the highest was 19,00 (M=13,77).

Table 35.

The treatment group's sixth assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	18	18	18	18	18	18
Min	2,00	2,00	2,00	2,00	1,00	9,00
Max	5,00	5,00	4,00	3,00	2,00	19,00
M	2,94	3,33	3,05	2,61	1,83	13,77
SD	,93	,76	,53	,50	,38	2,46

The treatment group had higher means for three criteria. In comparison, the control group had higher means for grammar and mechanics. Both groups had the highest means

for the mechanics, with 2,00 for the control and 1,83 for the treatment. The control group had the maximum score for all four criteria except for the content criterion. However, the treatment group had the highest score for the four criteria except for grammar. While the control group had the minimum score for content, vocabulary, and grammar, the treatment group had the lowest score for only mechanics. In the task, the treatment group had a higher overall mean score (TM=13,77).

Levene's test was used to report the variance between the groups, and the findings showed that the variances were the same except for the vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics criteria. As demonstrated in Table 36, there was a statistically significant difference in vocabulary criterion ($\text{sig} < 0,05$). The effect of the statistically significant difference in vocabulary is large (Vocabulary; Cohen's $d = 0,8$). However, other criteria and overall scores had no statistically significant difference.

Table 36.

Levene's test for the sixth assignment scores

	Levene's test for equality of variances		t-test for equality of means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Content A6	,036	,850	-1,37	36	,176
Organisation A6	,310	,581	-1,71	36	,095
Vocabulary A6	6,71	,014	-2,61	34,21	,013
Grammar A6	4,44	,042	,179	32,06	,859
Mechanics A6	23,68	0,000	1,84	17	,083
Overall A6	,015	,903	-1,39	36	,172

4.1.2.7. The scores of the seventh paragraph writing assignment

Thirty-seven participants joined in the last writing assignment, with four missing. The Shapiro-Wilk test showed that the scores were not normally distributed ($p < 0,05$) (See Table 37).

Table 37.

The normality test of the seventh assignment scores

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df.	p
The difference between the scores	,873	37	,001

The last writing task in the control group involved 19 participants. The highest mean was for the vocabulary criterion, which was 3,05 (See Table 38). The lowest score was 6,00, while the highest was 18,00, with a mean of 13,31.

Table 38.

The control group's seventh assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	19	19	19	19	19	19
Min	2,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	6,00
Max	5,00	4,00	4,00	3,00	2,00	18,00
M	3,36	3,05	3,05	2,42	1,36	13,31
SD	,76	,84	,77	,69	,49	2,90

The treatment group had 18 participants on the writing assignment day, with one missing. The highest mean score was 1,83 for the mechanics criterion (See Table 39). In the group, the lowest score was 9,00, and the highest was 19,00 (M=13,38).

Table 39. T

He treatment group's seventh assignment scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	18	18	18	18	18	18
Min	2,00	2,00	2,00	2,00	1,00	9,00
Max	5,00	5,00	4,00	3,00	2,00	19,00
M	3,16	3,11	2,72	2,55	1,83	13,38
SD	,98	,96	,66	,51	,38	2,72

The control group had higher means for content and vocabulary. The treatment group had higher means for the three criteria. The vocabulary criterion was 3,05 in the control group, and the mechanics criterion was 1,83 in the treatment as the highest mean. While the control group had the highest scores for the content, vocabulary, and mechanics criteria, the treatment group had the highest scores in all four categories except grammar. The control group had the minimum scores for four criteria, except for the content, and the treatment group's minimum score was for grammar. The minimum grade for the control group was 6,00 with a maximum of 18,00, whereas it was 9,00 and 19,00 for the treatment group. In the writing task, the treatment group had a higher mean (TM=13,38).

Since the assignment scores were not normally distributed, the Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to investigate the difference between the groups. As presented in Table 40, there was a statistically significant difference in mechanics criterion (sig<0,05). That difference had a large effect on the criterion (Mechanics; Cohen's d=0,9). However, other criteria and overall scores had no statistically significant difference.

Table 40.

Mann Whitney-U test for the seventh assignment scores

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Standard Error	Exact sig. (2-sided)
Content A7	145,50	316,50	30,98	,443
Organisation A7	172,50	343,50	31,18	,394
Vocabulary A7	123,50	294,50	29,82	,150
Grammar A7	184,00	355,00	28,98	,707
Mechanics A7	250,50	421,50	27,96	,014
Overall A7	164,50	335,50	32,64	,845

4.1.3. The post-test scores

Thirty-seven participants took the second achievement exam at the end of the spring semester. In the exam, they were responsible for a paragraph writing part in which they were graded out of 20. Two language instructors graded each group based on the writing assessment criteria, including content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. In the writing rubric used in the exam, content and organization criteria were graded out of five, while vocabulary and grammar were four and mechanics was two. The process was the same as the first achievement exam.

The Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted to check the normality of the data (See Table 41). The data analysis showed that the scores were normally distributed ($p>,05$).

Table 41.

The normality test of the post-test writing scores

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df.	p
The difference between the scores	,947	37	,079

Nineteen participants took the writing part of the spring semester achievement exam in the control group, with three missing. Table 42 depicts that the mean score for mechanics was 1,42, the highest. The findings also revealed that the minimum score was 5,00, and the maximum was 17,00, with a mean of 9,57.

Table 42.

The control group's post-test writing scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	19	19	19	19	19	19
Min	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	5,00
Max	5,00	4,00	4,00	3,00	2,00	17,00
M	2,36	2,05	2,00	1,73	1,42	9,57
SD	,95	,77	,74	,65	,50	3,09

The treatment group had 18 participants attending the writing part of the fall achievement exam. Table 43 presents the highest mean score of 1,66 for the mechanics criterion. Moreover, the lowest score was 5,00, and the highest was 18,00, with a mean score of 12,11.

Table 43.

The treatment group's post-test writing scores

	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics	Overall
N	18	18	18	18	18	18
Min	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	5,00
Max	5,00	5,00	4,00	3,00	2,00	18,00
M	2,94	2,88	2,50	2,11	1,66	12,11
SD	1,25	1,18	,92	,75	,48	4,22

In the post-test scores, the treatment group had higher means for all the criteria. Both groups had the highest mean for the mechanics criterion, which was 1,42 for the control group and 1,66 for the treatment group. The control group had the maximum score for content, vocabulary, and mechanics, while the treatment group had the maximum score for four criteria, except grammar. Both groups had the minimum score for all criteria. In the exam, the lowest score was 5,00 for both groups. However, the highest score was 17,00 in the control group and 18,00 in the treatment group. Overall, the treatment group had a higher mean (TM=12,11).

Levene's test showed that the variances for the two groups were the same except for the organization criterion. As Table 44 demonstrates, there was a statistically significant difference in the organization and overall scores of the post-test. While the difference greatly affected the organization criterion (Organization; Cohen's $d=0,8$), it moderately affected overall scores (Overall; Cohen's $d=0,6$).

Table 44.

Levene's test for the post-test writing score

	Levene's test for equality of variances		t-test for equality of means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Post-test Content	,971	,331	-1,57	35	,125
Organisation A6	7,29	,011	-2,52	29,20	,017
Vocabulary A6	4,01	,053	-1,81	35	,078
Grammar A6	,144	,707	-1,61	35	,116
Mechanics A6	1,07	,307	-1,50	35	,142
Overall A6	2,35	,134	-2,08	35	,044

The findings related to first research questions present that there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test considering the organization criterion and overall scores.

4.2. Findings Related to the Second Research Question

4.2.1. The treatment group's views on paragraph writing before the study

The data on the treatment group's opinions about writing classes before the implementation revealed various views (See Table 45). Their views gathered around language and writing skills, educational value and relevance, motivation and engagement, and efficiency and effort. Some students also specified the writing classes were informative and efficient.

Table 45.

The general views of the treatment group about the writing classes before the implementation

		ToM
The treatment group's perceptions about the writing classes	- being informative	9
	- promoting language development	7
	- being efficient	5
	- enhancing writing skills	5
	- being significant in language learning	4
	- motivating language learning	2
	- promoting vocabulary development	2
	- requiring hard work	2
	- being entertaining	1
	- being superfluous	1

The following excerpts below exemplify some of the views.

“I think writing classes are informative for us.” (P-35)

“I believe writing classes improve us because we learn new vocabulary and grammar structures.” (P-38)

Another finding was based on the benefits of paragraph writing in English. As Table 46 depicts, the participants expressed several ideas related to the benefits. The participants mentioned that English paragraph writing helped develop their English language knowledge, paragraph writing competence, sentence structure, and other skills.

Table 46.

The treatment group’s views on the benefits of English paragraph writing before the implementation

		ToM
The treatment group’s views on the benefits of English paragraph writing	- increasing knowledge of the English language	8
	- enhancing writing skills	7
	- developing sentence structure	3
	- promoting academic/formal writing	2
	- increasing vocabulary knowledge	2
	- enabling self-expression	2
	- developing organization in writing	1
	- enhancing spelling	1

Below are some excerpts obtained from the questionnaires about the benefits of English paragraph writing.

“It is beneficial for our future jobs because we will need to write formal things, so it is a preparation for the future and very good.” (P-27)

“It is good for sentence forming, self-confidence, and learning English.” (P-40)

A further finding concerned the challenges of English paragraph writing. The data showed that the participants mainly had problems with vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure, as seen in Table 47.

Table 47.

The treatment group's views on the challenges of English paragraph writing before the implementation

		ToM
The treatment group's views on the challenges of English paragraph writing	- lack of vocabulary	10
	- lack of grammar	7
	- difficulty in sentence forming	4
	- difficulty in content development	2
	- spelling problems	2
	- translation from Turkish to TL	1
	- difficulty in writing a topic sentence	1

The following excerpts present the students' ideas about the challenges.

“I have problems in vocabulary and developing content.” (P-27)

“I do not know vocabulary very well. Also, I think in Turkish but write in English, so I cannot translate correctly.” (P-33)

Based on the findings, the participants preferred to use Turkish, English, or both in their writing classes (See Table 48). Some participants (N=6) used L1 to prepare a paragraph in TL, though many (N=10) preferred TL. The participants using both languages explained they utilized L1 to organize their paragraphs and TL to communicate with their teacher.

Table 48.

The treatment group's language preferences in writing classes before the implementation

	F
English	10
Turkish	6
Both languages	3

Below are the excerpts explaining students' ideas on utilizing L1 or TL.

“I prefer to use English in writing classes so our English can develop.” (P-24)

“I use Turkish because I don't want to make mistakes and feel comfortable in the lessons.” (P-35)

The data on the effects of using L1 in English paragraph writing revealed that the participants believed it had a positive, negative, or no effect (See Table 49).

Table 49.

The treatment group's views on Turkish effects in writing classes before the implementation

The effects of using Turkish in writing classes	
Positive effects	- benefits for content development - benefits for vocabulary development - generating various ideas - promoting organization in paragraph writing - vocabulary use correctly
Negative effects	- translation problems

The excerpts below detail what the students considered about the impacts on L1.

“I think it is better to think in Turkish and then write because I can have more ideas with Turkish thinking, and I can write them in English.” [sic] (P-28)

“It can affect me badly because I am thinking in English and translating, but English sentences have different meanings. The translation is difficult.” [sic] (P-38)

The findings related to the participants' views about cooperation with their classmates demonstrated that most students preferred to study with their classmates (See Table 50). However, one participant opted to study individually. The participants' positive views were shaped around four themes, while only one negative view existed.

Table 50.

The treatment group's views on cooperation with classmates before the implementation

	Positive perceptions	ToM	Negative perceptions	ToM
The treatment group's views on cooperation with classmates	- enabling the exchange of ideas and knowledge	12	- lack of individuality	1
	- peer learning	7		
	- increasing product quality	5		
	- effective time use	1		

The first excerpt below supports cooperation, while the second promotes individual studying.

“We can brainstorm with our classmates, so we can have more creative ideas. It is a kind of using time effectively, and it also helps us to write better.” (P-24)

“I believe writing individually is more beneficial for me.” (P-27)

4.2.2. The treatment group's views on the first assignment

Nine participants in the treatment group completed the first activity reflection log after implementing the first translanguaging integrating pre-writing task. Their views on the first paragraph writing task were shaped around five themes (See Table 51).

Table 51.

The treatment group's general views on the first writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's general ideas on the first assignment	- enhancing writing skills	5
	- using new structures	2
	- reinforcing unit vocabulary	2
	- promoting language development	1
	- reinforcing the unit themes	1

The following excerpts are obtained from the students based on their general views about the task.

“It was beneficial for my English. The more I write, the easier I can form sentences.” (P-31)

“The writing task helped me to use vocabulary and structures I have learned in the unit.” (P-38)

Another finding was based on the benefits of the first writing assignment. As Table 52 shows, the participants had various ideas about the benefits of the task, mostly mentioning its effect on increasing grammar and vocabulary knowledge.

Table 52.

The treatment group's views on the benefits of the first writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's views on the benefits of the first assignment	- increasing grammar knowledge	6
	- increasing vocabulary knowledge	3
	- enhancing writing skills	3
	- practicing unit goals	2
	- developing content knowledge	1
	- enhancing spelling	1
	- decreasing level of stress	1

The excerpts below present two ideas related to the benefits.

“I believe the task improved my grammar and vocabulary knowledge.” (P-26)

“It helped me develop spelling. I could write words correctly.” (P-37)

The findings on the challenges of the first writing assignment showed that the participants were mainly beset by grammar and vocabulary problems, followed by organization, coherence, and spelling issues (See Table 53).

Table 53.

The treatment group's views on the challenges of the first writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's views on the challenges of the first assignment	- lack of grammar	4
	- lack of vocabulary	4
	- organization problems	3
	- coherence problems	2
	- spelling problems	1

The following excerpts exemplify students' challenges.

"I had problems in vocabulary and organization while writing the task." (P-28)

"I don't have grammar knowledge, so I have problems in writing; I cannot write new sentences." (P-31)

Asking the participants about the effects of using L1 on pre-writing brainstorming activities on the first task revealed more positive perceptions than negative ones (See Table 54).

Table 54.

The treatment group's views on Turkish effects on the first assignment

	The effects of using Turkish in writing classes	ToM
Positive effects	- developing writing skills	5
	- enabling the sharing of ideas	4
	- benefits for sentence forming	2
	- generating various ideas	2
Negative effects	- translation problems	1

The excerpts below are two opinions exemplifying the impact of L1.

"Using Turkish in pre-writing was very beneficial for me. We shared our ideas with the classmates, and it helped me a lot." (P-36)

"I started to write better with the help of Turkish." (P-37)

The findings on the participants' suggestions related to a more effective writing assignment demonstrated that the participants generally emphasized the feasibility of the task (See Table 55). Two participants also suggested integrating group writing into paragraph writing tasks.

Table 55.

The treatment group's suggestions to make the first assignment more effective

		ToM
The treatment group's recommendations for the first writing assignment	- satisfactory level of efficiency	5
	- integrating group writing	2
	- extra writing assignment on the topic	1
	- having more vocabulary activities	1
	- learning more sentence structures	1
	- having the more challenging task	1

Below are excerpts obtained from the participants related to their recommendations.

"We can have group writing sessions. Also, some extra writing tasks can be given as homework." (P-24)

"I think we can write better texts if we learn more vocabulary and grammar structures. Also, we need to learn more synonyms because our texts seem monotonous." (P-38)

4.2.3. The treatment group's views on the second assignment

Fourteen participants completed the second activity reflection log. They had different views on the second paragraph writing task (See Table 56). The most mentioned view was promoting language development, followed by practicing language use, promoting vocabulary development, and reinforcing unit themes.

Table 56.

The treatment group's general views on the second writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's general ideas on the second assignment	- promoting language development	6
	- practicing language use	3
	- promoting vocabulary development	3
	- reinforcing unit themes	3
	- being ineffective	1
	- promoting spelling	1
	- promoting topic knowledge	1

Below are two excerpts reflecting different opinions about the task.

“The task helped me write a better text. I also got information about the unit topic. I learned new words used in the unit.” (P-23)

“I don't think the writing task helped me to improve my English. Studying and writing at home was better for my English.” (P-34)

The findings regarding the benefits of the second writing assignment indicated that the participants' opinions differed around nine themes (See Table 57). The participants mainly explained that it increased their grammar knowledge and enabled them to practice English use.

Table 57.

The treatment group's views on the benefits of the second writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's views on the benefits of the second assignment	- increasing grammar knowledge	5
	- practicing English use	4
	- increasing vocabulary knowledge	3
	- promoting academic/formal writing	3
	- enhancing writing skills	2
	- enhancing time management	2
	- brain boosting	1
	- increasing self-confidence	1

The excerpts below exemplify their views based on the benefits.

“It not only improves my grammar knowledge, but also I learn new words, and I can use them.” (P-25)

“It is brain-boosting. It also increases my writing skills and self-confidence in English.” (P-40)

The participants were also asked their views on the challenges of the second writing assignment. As Table 58 demonstrates, the participants mainly had grammar problems, similar to the first task. Moreover, the participants expressed their challenges related to sentence forming and vocabulary.

Table 58.

The treatment group's views on the challenges of the second writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's views on the challenges of the second assignment	- lack of grammar	6
	- difficulty in sentence forming	4
	- lack of vocabulary	4
	- difficulty in conveying ideas	3
	- coherence problems	2
	- spelling problems	1

The following excerpts present students' views on the challenges of the task.

“I had problems forming sentences while writing because I don't know grammar and vocabulary well.” (P-31)

“The most serious problem was lack of grammar and vocabulary.” (P-40)

Asking the participants about the effects of using their L1 in the pre-writing stage on the second writing task showed that they had positive thoughts, as seen in Table 59. For the second paragraph, no participants believed that using Turkish in the pre-writing negatively affected their paragraph writing.

Table 59.

The treatment group's views on Turkish effects on the second assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's opinions on Turkish effects on the second assignment	- enabling the sharing of ideas	4
	- benefits for conveying ideas	3
	- benefits for sentence forming	2
	- benefits for vocabulary knowledge	1
	- generating various ideas	1

The excerpt below is related to one of those positive ideas.

“Turkish helped me a lot, I could create sentences, and I did not have vocabulary problems.” (P-31)

However, two participants explained that they did not use Turkish in the pre-writing session, as shown in the excerpt below.

“I did not use any Turkish for the writing task.” (P-24).

Obtaining the suggestions for a more effective writing assignment showed that they mentioned focusing more on the vocabulary and sample text related to the topic, followed by having more challenging paragraph writing tasks (See Table 60).

Table 60.

The treatment group's suggestions to make the second assignment more effective

		ToM
The treatment group's recommendations for the second writing assignment	- having more vocabulary activities	3
	- focusing on more sample texts	3
	- having more challenging tasks	2
	- extra writing assignments on the topic	2
	- utilizing the dictionary more	1
	- integrating cooperation	1

The excerpts below exemplify the participants' ideas.

“I think the teacher should give more vocabulary related to the topic, so we can study on them and use them on the writing task. It also helps us to develop our vocabulary knowledge.” (P-24)

“The writing tasks should be weekly, so I can get into the habit of writing.” (P-31)

4.2.4. The treatment group’s views on the third assignment

There were 19 participants in the writing session on the third assignment. However, they preferred not to fill out the activity reflection logs despite reminders from the instructor. Hence, there were no data about the third activity reflection log for the treatment group.

4.2.5. The treatment group’s views on the fourth assignment

There were 19 participants in the fourth writing assignment session, yet no participant fulfilled the activity reflection log. Due to the voluntarism base of the research, the researcher just requested them to complete the logs a few times. Hence, no findings related to the fourth activity reflection log from the treatment group existed.

4.2.6. The treatment group’s views on the fifth assignment

Thirteen participants completed the fifth activity reflection log. They had several views about the writing task (See Table 61). The participants reflected that the task enhanced their writing skills the most. Additionally, it helped them use new structures and develop vocabulary knowledge.

Table 61.

The treatment group’s general views on the fifth writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group’s general ideas on the fifth assignment	- enhancing writing skills	6
	- using new structures	5
	- promoting vocabulary development	3
	- being informative	2
	- being complex	2
	- being entertaining	1
	- practicing language use	1

The following excerpts present some details related to the participants' ideas.

“I think the topic was difficult, but we can improve ourselves in this way.” (P-24)

“The activity helped me learn new words and gain new sentence structures.” (P-38)

The findings concerning the benefits of the fifth writing assignment showed that the participants had various ideas, mainly focusing on learning new vocabulary items (See Table 62). They also mentioned the task helped them enhance their paragraph writing.

Table 62.

The treatment group's views on the benefits of the fifth writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's views on the benefits of the fifth assignment	- increasing vocabulary knowledge	9
	- enhancing writing skills	4
	- enabling self-correction	3
	- decreasing level of stress	1
	- developing sentence structure	1
	- gaining new perspectives	1
	- promoting academic/formal writing	1

Below are two excerpts exemplifying some benefits.

“It helped me develop my vocabulary and grammar knowledge. I could also see my mistakes thanks to my teacher's feedback.” (P-25)

“I could write better sentences, and I got some new words.” (P-31)

Asking the participants about the challenges of the fifth writing assignment revealed that they mainly faced vocabulary and grammar problems (See Table 63). The other challenges included content development and writing a topic sentence.

Table 63.

The treatment group's views on the challenges of the fifth writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's views on the challenges of the fifth assignment	- lack of vocabulary	6
	- lack of grammar	5
	- difficulty in content development	3
	- difficulty in writing a topic sentence	2
	- using vocabulary correctly	2
	- time limit	2
	- difficulty in writing a concluding sentence	1
	- punctuation problems	1
	- spelling problems	1
	- translation problems from L1 to TL	1

The challenges are detailed in the following excerpts.

“I have limited knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, so I had problems in the paragraph writing.” (P-36)

“I did not know how to start my paragraph, I mean writing the first sentence.” (P-38)

As demonstrated in Table 64, the participants' views on the effect of using Turkish in the pre-writing elicited that participants had positive ideas. They believed that utilizing L1 benefited their vocabulary knowledge, followed by its benefits for sentence forming.

Table 64.

The treatment group's views on Turkish effects on the fifth assignment

	Positive perceptions	ToM
The treatment group's opinions on Turkish effects on the fifth assignment	- benefits for vocabulary knowledge	10
	- benefits for sentence forming	4
	- enabling the sharing of ideas	3

Below is an excerpt obtained from one of those reflection logs.

“Using Turkish helped me get many new ideas to write.” (P-37)

Asking the participants their ideas for a more effective writing assignment revealed that they wanted an extra assignment on the topic (See Table 65). Additionally, they expressed a desire for more vocabulary activities and grammar practices.

Table 65.

The treatment group's suggestions to make the fifth assignment more effective

		ToM
The treatment group's recommendations for the fifth writing assignment	- extra writing assignment on the topic	4
	- having more vocabulary activities	2
	- having more grammar practicing	2
	- satisfactory level of efficiency	2
	- having different topics	1
	- researching the topic	1
	- using translation applications	1

The excerpts below exemplify their suggestions.

“I think we can use translation applications through our phones because we have some sentences to write but we do not know how to write them in English. If we translate that sentence, we can learn, and we will not need to translate it anymore.” [sic] (P-36)

“If we focus on the creativity and everybody can choose their own topic, we can write better.” (P-40)

4.2.7. The treatment group's views on the sixth assignment

Five participants completed the sixth activity reflection log in the treatment group. Their views comprised various themes (See Table 66). They mainly reflected that the task helped them enhance their paragraph writing. They also uttered that it promoted language development and topic knowledge, though it was complex.

Table 66.

The treatment group's general views on the sixth writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's general ideas on the sixth assignment	- enhancing writing skills	3
	- being complex	1
	- promoting language development	1
	- promoting topic knowledge	1

The following excerpts show their ideas.

“I think it was very important to improve my English.” (P-29)

“It was the first time that I wrote that kind of text, but it helped me learn new things.” (P-38)

When the participants were asked about the benefits of the writing task, they mainly mentioned its effect on the development of paragraph writing skills (See Table 67). They also explained that it motivated them to learn English and practice unit goals.

Table 67.

The treatment group's views on the benefits of the sixth writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's views on the benefits of the sixth assignment	- enhancing writing skills	3
	- motivation to learn English	1
	- practicing unit goals	1

The excerpts show two views obtained from the participants.

“The more paragraph writing tasks we did, the better my paragraph writing skills were. I think the task also helped me a lot.” (P-29)

“The task helped me reinforce what we learned in writing classes.” (P-31)

The participants were also asked for their ideas on the challenges of the sixth writing assignment. As Table 68 presents, the main challenges, based on the vocabulary, were similar to the previous tasks. They also underlined that they had problems in content

development, punctuation, spelling, and writing a concluding sentence.

Table 68.

The treatment group's views on the challenges of the sixth writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's views on the challenges of the sixth assignment	- lack of vocabulary	4
	- difficulty in content development	1
	- punctuation problems	1
	- spelling problems	1
	- difficulty in writing a topic sentence	1

The excerpts below present some of their challenges with vocabulary.

“I had difficulty in vocabulary.” (P-28)

“Sometimes, I could not find the correct words to use.” (P-29)

Asking the participants their opinions on the effects of utilizing Turkish during the pre-writing brainstorming on the sixth writing task revealed that all participants were favored (See Table 69). No participant mentioned any negative impact of using Turkish in the writing session.

Table 69.

The treatment group's views on Turkish effects on the sixth assignment

	Positive perceptions	ToM
The treatment group's opinions on Turkish effects on the sixth assignment	- benefits for sentence forming	3
	- generating various ideas	2
	- benefits for vocabulary knowledge	1
	- benefits for conveying ideas	1

The excerpt below exemplifies some positive views from the participants.

“Turkish helped me because I communicated and shared ideas with my classmates, so I could write a better paragraph.” (P-38)

When asked for suggestions for a more effective writing assignment, the participants were satisfied with the existing task and only recommended more vocabulary activities (See Table 70).

Table 70.

The treatment group's suggestions to make the sixth assignment more effective

		ToM
The treatment group's recommendations for the sixth writing assignment	- satisfactory level of efficiency	3
	- having more vocabulary activities	2

The excerpts below reflect some of their suggestions.

“I am satisfied with what we have done.” (P-29)

“We can focus on more vocabulary activities.” (P-38)

4.2.8. The treatment group's views on the seventh assignment

Only one participant completed the last activity reflection log in the treatment group. The participant mentioned that the task was helpful for vocabulary improvement (See Table 71).

Table 71.

The treatment group's general views on the seventh writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's general ideas on the seventh assignment	- increasing vocabulary knowledge	1

The following excerpt mentions the general view of the participant.

“The task helped us improve our vocabulary knowledge.” (P-28)

The findings regarding the benefits of the last writing assignment indicated that it helped improve paragraph writing (See Table 72).

Table 72.

The treatment group's views on the benefits of the seventh writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's views on the benefits of the seventh assignment	- enhancing writing skills	1

The following excerpt shows the participant's view.

“It helped us improve our paragraph writing skills.” (P-28)

As shown in Table 73, asking the participant's views on the challenges of the seventh writing task showed that sentence forming was difficult.

Table 73.

The treatment group's views on the challenges of the seventh writing assignment

		ToM
The treatment group's views on the challenges of the seventh assignment	- difficulty in sentence forming	1

The excerpt below explains the challenge.

“I had some problems in sentence formation.” (P-28)

The participant also shared opinions on utilizing L1 in the pre-writing stage, which reflected the positive sides of using L1 (See Table 74). Based on the findings, there was no negative effect of utilizing Turkish in the pre-writing stage.

Table 74.

The treatment group's views on Turkish effects on the seventh assignment

	Positive perceptions	ToM
The treatment group's opinions on Turkish effects on the seventh assignment	- benefits for conveying ideas	1
	- generating various ideas	1

Below is an excerpt obtained from the participant.

“I believe that thinking in Turkish and then writing in English was beneficial because I could produce more ideas.” (P-28)

The data focusing on a more practical task reflected that the participant was content with it (See Table 75).

Table 75.

The treatment group's suggestions to make the seventh assignment more effective

		ToM
The treatment group's recommendations for the seventh writing assignment	- satisfactory level of efficiency	1

The content of the participant was reflected in the excerpt below.

“In my opinion, the things we did during the task was enough.” (P-28)

4.2.9. The treatment group's views after the implementation

The second questionnaire was completed by 14 participants in the treatment group. Table 76 shows they had various views about writing classes after using translanguaging in the pre-writing stages. The most mentioned idea was the efficiency of the writing classes. However, some participants also mentioned that the classes were boring and needed more content-rich.

Table 76.

The general views of the treatment group about the writing classes after the implementation

The treatment group's perceptions about the writing classes		ToM
	- being efficient	8
	- being boring	2
	- being informative	2
	- enhancing writing skills	2
	- practicing language use	2
	- promoting vocabulary development	2
	- promoting self-development	2
	- enabling self-evaluation	1
	- requiring to be content-rich	1
	- requiring to be more challenging	1

The excerpts below exemplify some of the participants' views.

“I believe the writing classes were beneficial for us because we learned new structures and words and where and how to use them.” (P-38)

“If the students study hard and make an effort, the course is efficient and informative.” (P-41)

Another finding was based on the benefits of paragraph writing in English. The participants mentioned different benefits of paragraph writing, including enhancing grammar and vocabulary and practicing English use (See Table 77).

Table 77.

The treatment group's views on the benefits of English paragraph writing after the implementation

The treatment group's views on the benefits of English paragraph writing	ToM
	- practicing English use
	7
	- enhancing grammar
	7
	- increasing vocabulary knowledge
	4
	- enhancing writing skills
	2
	- promoting creativity
	2
	- brain boosting
	1
	- developing content knowledge
	1
	- developing organization in writing
	1
	- developing sentence structure
	1
	- enhancing spelling
	1
	- enhancing punctuation
	1
	- promoting academic/formal writing
	1

The following excerpts present some views obtained from two participants.

“I think it helps develop creativity and English thinking.” (P-23)

“We used the vocabulary and grammar we learned in the classes, so we reinforced them; it resulted in permanent learning.” (P-24)

Another finding was about the challenges of English paragraph writing. The data revealed that the participants mainly had problems with vocabulary (See Table 78). They also had difficulty translating from L1 to the TL and grammar.

Table 78.

The treatment group's views on the challenges of English paragraph writing after the implementation

The treatment group's views on the challenges of English paragraph writing	ToM	
	- lack of vocabulary	7
	- translation from Turkish to TL	4
	- lack of grammar	3
	- difficulty in conveying ideas	2
	- difficulty in content development	1
	- organization problems	1
	- pen and pencil problems	1
	- time limit	1
	- using vocabulary correctly	1

The following excerpts reflect some challenges in detail.

“I had difficulty writing due to lack of vocabulary knowledge.” (P-25)

“The most challenging thing was developing content. I also had problems about vocabulary related to the content.” [sic] (P-27)

Based on the findings, the participants preferred to use Turkish, English, or both in the pre-writing sessions (See Table 79). Some participants mentioned using Turkish to share their ideas with classmates, whereas others noted they preferred English. The participants who used Turkish also explained they utilized it to share ideas, ask questions, develop content and organization, and ask for vocabulary and grammar.

Table 79.

The treatment group's language preferences in writing classes after the implementation

	F
English	6
Turkish	6
Both languages	2

The excerpts below present some ideas based on their preferences.

“I preferred to use Turkish because our English level was not so good and we couldn’t understand very well.” (P-25)

“I used Turkish in writing classes to share our ideas before writing.” (P-38)

The data about the effects of using Turkish in the pre-writing brainstorming for English paragraph writing revealed that the participants expressed its positive impact more (See Table 80). They uttered that L1 helped them develop their paragraph writing, share ideas, generate different ideas, and feel motivated.

Table 80.

The treatment group’s views on Turkish effects in writing classes after the implementation

The effects of using Turkish in writing classes	
Positive effects	- developing writing skills - enabling the sharing of ideas - generating various ideas - motivating
Negative effects	- making the task more challenging

The following excerpts reflect some ideas of the two participants.

“Using Turkish affected me positively. In some writing tasks, I asked my friends’ ideas and could write a better paragraph.” (P-34)

“I used Turkish to organize my paragraph and it positively affected me.” (P-41)

The findings related to the participants’ views about cooperation via brainstorming with their classmates demonstrated that most participants were positive about it (See Table 81). However, one of the participants uttered that it did not address the exam system, though it was beneficial.

Table 81.

The treatment group's views on cooperation through brainstorming with classmates after the implementation

	Positive perceptions	ToM
The treatment group's views on cooperation through brainstorming with classmates	- producing more ideas	8
	- enhancing writing skills	4
	- decreasing level of stress	2
	- developing organization in writing	2
	- increasing vocabulary knowledge	1
	- being entertaining	1
	- being familiar with the topic	1

The excerpts below show some ideas obtained from the participants.

“I thought in Turkish, exchanged ideas with my classmates, and could write in a better and effective way.” [sic] (P-29)

“It helped me have more creative ideas and write better.” (P-41)

4.3. Findings Related to the Third Research Questions

4.3.1. Participation in the pre-writing sessions

During the pre-writing stage of the first writing task, the participants actively participated. Every group member tried to say something during the brainstorming with a word, sentence, or explanation. They shared their ideas related to the assignment aloud. Though they were not supposed to, six participants chose to study with a pair, resulting in three pairs participating in the whole class activity.

For the second paragraph writing task, the participants were active in the brainstorming session. They had problems comprehending the topic, so the instructor needed to explain the assignment in English and Turkish to clarify it. Then, they mentioned the topic was not challenging for them.

During the third brainstorming activity, the participants were active during the brainstorming activity. They could use their coursebooks, dictionaries, and class notes during paragraph writing. Since the topic was based on technology, many participants had various opinions to share, which helped them employ different ideas in their paragraphs.

For the brainstorming activity of the fourth assignment, the participants were active in the pre-writing stage. They shared their ideas with their classmates as a whole-class activity. They were more aware of the brainstorming activity and used their coursebooks and dictionaries to generate ideas.

In the fifth task, the participants were active in the pre-writing stage. They shared their ideas with their classmates as a whole class activity. Some had already prepared for some ideas at home and were more enthusiastic.

For the sixth paragraph writing assignment, the participants actively participated in the brainstorming activity. They had problems comprehending the topic, so the instructor explained the assignment in the TL first and then in L1 to clarify it. They also asked how to start writing because they felt stressed about writing their topic sentences. Additionally, they had problems understanding how to write an argumentative paragraph.

In the last pre-writing activity, the participants actively participated in the brainstorming. However, they had problems comprehending the topic, so the instructor explained it to them again and suggested they check their books for what had been done in the unit.

4.3.2. Language preferences in the pre-writing sessions

In the brainstorming of the first task, the participants preferred using Turkish during pre-writing since they could use L1 or the TL. Only one participant expressed her ideas in English. They shared their ideas related to the task in both languages. Before starting to write, they also needed some clarification about the task.

For the second writing task, the students transitioned from English to Turkish or vice versa in the brainstorming activity. They started a sentence in L1 and continued in the TL or started in the TL and ended in L1. While sharing their ideas, some participants used English. However, they used L1 when talking to their classmates about the task.

As the third translanguaging-integrated activity, the students utilized both languages to brainstorm. When they used some ideas from their coursebooks, they tended to speak English. However, they spoke Turkish when they could not express themselves or had a new idea. Interestingly, they helped each other express their ideas in English by translating vocabulary, phrases, or sentences.

During the fourth brainstorming, they brainstormed their ideas in Turkish. However, one participant communicated in English in the pre-writing stage, asking and answering

questions in English. Although they could use their L1, they give their ideas in short phrases instead of complete sentences. Before starting to write, the participants tried translating Turkish ideas on the board into English to write more quickly.

In the fifth pre-writing stage, they were free to use both languages, so they brainstormed their ideas in Turkish. The instructor wrote down the ideas on the board in L1 as they shared them. Before starting to write, the participants tried to translate L1 ideas on the board into the TL.

In the sixth brainstorming activity, they transitioned from English to Turkish or vice versa. They started a sentence in L1 and continued in the TL or started in the TL and ended in L1. Some participants used the TL while giving their ideas, but they used L1 when talking to their classmates about the task.

During the last brainstorming, they utilized both languages. However, they wanted the instructor to write the ideas on the board in the TL. When the researcher asked why, they said it would be easier for them to write their paragraph in the TL.

4.3.3. The reasons to collaborate

The findings based on the first task also revealed that the participants collaborated to ask about word meanings, check sentence correctness, explain the main ideas, and check the word limitation. Though they were allowed to use their dictionaries and coursebooks, they preferred to check word meanings with their classmates. They also asked each other how many words they wrote, even though the researcher explained that it was not the focus of the writing assignment.

The second pre-writing brainstorming showed that the participants collaborated to ask for word meanings, check grammar, define word limits, and check sentence corrections. Despite being free to use dictionaries and coursebooks, they tended to check word meanings with the instructor and their classmates. They also read their sentences aloud in class to ask whether they sounded correct or suitable.

The findings of the third pre-writing activity demonstrated that the participants collaborated with classmates to ask for vocabulary, develop or express their ideas, and check sentence correctness and spelling. They asked about the vocabulary to their classmates even if the words were available in their coursebooks.

The findings of the fourth task also indicated that the participants collaborated to obtain peer feedback, find correct vocabulary, use conjunctions, and translate sentences.

Despite their freedom to use books and dictionaries, they tended to find meaning in vocabulary through their classmates and the instructor. Moreover, they shared their sentences with their classmates to get their ideas about the flow and correctness of their paragraphs.

The fifth brainstorming revealed that the participants collaborated to obtain peer feedback, find correct words to use, translate sentences, and check spelling. Rather than looking up to the dictionaries, they preferred to ask about vocabulary items to the instructor and their classmates.

The findings related to the sixth pre-writing also showed that the participants collaborated to ask for word meanings, check grammar, define word limits, and check sentence corrections. Again, they tended to check word meanings with the instructor and their classmates. They also read their sentences aloud in class to check sentence correctness.

In the last activity, the participants were always in communication in the brainstorming, resulting in collaboration in class. They talked to each other to ask for vocabulary, generate more ideas, and check sentence correctness.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This part thoroughly discusses the findings from each data collection tool, organized under distinct headings based on the research questions. The findings are addressed and examined in conjunction with pertinent literature, and the contextual elements of the research are considered, ensuring a comprehensive understanding of the data and leaving the reader feeling reassured about the thoroughness of the study.

5.1. The Effects of Translanguaging Integration on the Paragraph Writing Performance

In this part, the findings related to the difference between the paragraph writing performance of the participants exposed to translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities and English-only pre-writing brainstorming activities at the tertiary level in Türkiye are discussed regarding content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, mechanics and overall. The findings revealed that despite there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups in the pre-test scores, there was a statistically significant difference in the organization criterion and overall scores in the post test. Therefore, integrating translanguaging pedagogy and offering opportunities for language learners to utilize translanguaging leads to improved academic performance, particularly in target language writing skills in an EFL environment with EMI.

Based on the findings related to the content criterion, the pre-test scores were higher in the treatment group, but there was no statistically significant difference. Additionally, the content scores of the participants in the treatment group were higher than those of the control group except for the seventh writing task. Two tasks showed a statistically significant difference between the scores, with a medium effect on the second task and a large impact on the fifth task. Though the treatment group outperformed in the post-test, there was no significant difference between the two groups. As the treatment group achieved higher scores in the pre and post-test and during most paragraph writing assignments (N=6), integrating translanguaging into pre-writing sessions in writing classes possibly resulted in more comprehensive and detailed written work, underscoring the relevance and importance of the research.

Comparing the means of the content criterion with all the criteria showed that the control group had the content as the highest mean (CCM=3,66) for the fourth writing task. In contrast, the treatment group obtained it for the second (TCM=4,52) and the fourth (TCM=3,94) task, with a statistically significant difference on the second one. Therefore, it might be concluded that integrating translanguaging into pre-writing could positively affect language learners' content knowledge and improve performance about the content.

The findings suggest that the treatment group wrote their paragraphs thoroughly, covering them with proper, understandable, and adequate ideas. Utilizing L1 and TL in pre-writing brainstorming activities might result in language learners' grasping the topic properly and writing with a completed content cover. Similarly, mentioning the importance of the pre-writing brainstorming activities, Fitze (2008) discovered that language learners were better at applying the concepts they generated during the in-person talks to their subsequent writing. Another study also reflected that implementing a translanguaging pedagogy, which involves using multiple languages in instruction, along with providing a separate space for emerging bilinguals to discuss and understand the topic using all their available resources, led to significant improvements in their writing skills in the TL (Karabulut, 2019). Yüzlü and Dikilitaş (2022) pointed out that translanguaging enabled learners to switch between languages in both written and spoken forms and in receptive and productive modes, hence improving their comprehension of topics, yet in this study the written version is in English.

Upon analyzing the writing tasks of the two groups and comparing their scores, this study found that the treatment group consistently outperformed in the organization criterion in all the paragraph writing, including the pre-test and post-test. Despite no statistically significant difference in the pre-test and post-test scores, there was a statistically significant difference in the second paragraph writing task, with a small impact. Comparing the mean of the organization criterion with all the criteria revealed that the organization criterion mean scores were never the highest in the study, possibly showing that integrating translanguaging into pre-writing brainstorming activities increases language learners' organization skills but not as much as content, vocabulary, and mechanics.

Regarding the organization criterion, this study might conclude that the paragraphs of the treatment group were predominantly coherent and fluent, with ideas flowing meaningfully and logically. Furthermore, the statistically significant difference on the second assignment show that using translanguaging pedagogy in pre-writing facilitates

learners in comprehending the significance of writing-related themes and effectively organizing them in their writing. Fitze and Glasgow (2009) found that after pre-writing in the group context, students' presentations of their ideas were improved. These findings align with the research conducted by Kano (2012), which revealed that participants exposed to translanguaging pedagogy strengthen their ability to organize essays and build paragraphs. Specifically, they exhibited proficiency in crafting well-developed examples that were appropriate for thesis statements. In parallel with the study findings, Karabulut (2019) found out that the participants in the translanguaging group composed essays adhering to particular organizational elements, including proper thesis statements, topic sentences, supporting information and instances, and restatement of thesis statements accompanied by recommendations or opinions. Turnbull (2019) also inferred that learners could create more concise and well-structured essays with the help of translanguaging. İlhan (2022) highlighted that the studies on translanguaging pedagogy showed that incorporating translanguaging could assist learners in planning and organizing their writing.

The study also focused on the vocabulary criterion, for which the treatment group had higher pre-test and post-test scores with no statistically significant difference. Additionally, the treatment group scored higher in five writing assignments, with a statistically significant difference in the scores of the sixth task. However, despite no statistically significant differences, the control group had higher vocabulary scores in the fourth and seventh assignments. Moreover, when all the mean scores were compared, the control group obtained vocabulary criterion as the highest mean in the pre-test (CVM=2,86), second (CVM=2,72), third (CVM=2,52) and seventh (CVM=3,05). However, the treatment group achieved the vocabulary criterion as the highest mean only for the fifth task (TVM=3,05). Based on the findings, it could be argued that despite the positive effects of integrating translanguaging on the vocabulary performance of language learners, utilizing EMI pedagogy enables learners to utilize TL vocabulary more appropriately.

The findings could be crucial in understanding the importance of translanguaging in developing language learners' vocabulary knowledge in paragraph writing. Integrating translanguaging into pre-writing could benefit English writing classrooms, especially for acquiring vocabulary, specifically keywords in a text and abstract words. Learners can appropriately use the words associated with the scientific concepts for intramental conscious and deliberate languaging to enable abstractions and connections between

everyday and scientific concepts by drawing on their entire linguistic repertoire during collaborative learning activities (Smith & Robertson, 2019), including brainstorming activities in the pre-writing sessions. The findings of the study tie well with previous studies wherein translanguaging was considered significant for vocabulary learning (Illman & Pietila, 2018; Ramirez, 2019). In their research, Illman and Pietila (2018) suggested that the learners gained advantages from utilizing their L1 primarily for acquiring new words. The findings were also parallel with the results of Ramirez (2019), reflecting that translanguaging implementation in education resulted in developing vocabulary knowledge. Turnbull (2019) also revealed that language learners could write better essays with a reduced occurrence of incorrectly used vocabulary through integrating translanguaging. Another similar conclusion was reached by Galante (2020b), who demonstrated that participants exposed to translanguaging achieved higher scores on the academic vocabulary exam than the control group. The translanguaging group also had a high level of involvement in constructing meaning, which may benefit vocabulary. A similar pattern of findings was obtained by Ali (2021), who claimed that the use of translanguaging as a teaching method helped support learning and improve vocabulary.

The findings also showed that the control group had the vocabulary criterion as the highest mean in the pre-test and four assignments out of five criteria, which might reflect that pre-writing activities help develop language and are a part of the language learning process. In line with the findings, Tran et al. (2021) revealed that EMI enhanced students' understanding of technical terms the most, as instructors and learners in the study agreed. In EMI contexts, integrating translanguaging into writing classes might decrease vocabulary-based problems of language learners through cooperation such as asking the meaning of the words to peers, as García and Lin (2017) emphasize the significance of translanguaging in acquiring new words and developing language.

The findings about grammar performance revealed that the treatment group outscored in the pre-test, post-test, and five assignments. However, the control group scored higher in the first and sixth writing tasks, with no statistically significant difference. Comparing the mean of the grammar criterion with all the criteria revealed that the mean criterion means were never the highest in the study, which might show that integrating translanguaging into pre-writing brainstorming activities impacts language learners' grammar but not as much as content, vocabulary, and mechanics criteria. The findings on grammar hint that a translanguaging pedagogy might facilitate language

learners' engaging in discussions about grammar, resulting in enhancements within the TL.

In this study, the treatment group generally outperformed in the grammar criterion. The findings about grammar align with Karabulut's study (2019), which showed that translanguaging pedagogy enabled students to improve grammar while writing an essay. Despite, Ramirez (2019) found that implementing translanguaging pedagogy significantly improved grammar acquisition, the current research could not reach any significant differences regarding grammar. Some participants in the study of İlhan (2022) also remarked that translanguaging was especially beneficial for grammar knowledge, citing the need for independent research of grammar subjects outside of class.

The findings related to the mechanics criterion revealed that the treatment group had higher scores in the pre-and post-test and five writing tasks. The two tasks, including the first and seventh writing, differed statistically. However, the control group overscored in the fifth and sixth assignments, of which there was one statistically significant difference for the fifth one. The findings are likely to mention the cognitive flexibility of translanguaging, where learners can utilize their L1 to clarify and reinforce mechanical rules in the TL. Moreover, comparing the mean of the mechanics criterion with all the criteria unearthed that the control group received the mechanics criterion as the highest mean in the first (CMM=1,50), fifth (CMM=1,90), sixth (CMM=2,00) and post-test (CMM=1,42). In comparison, the treatment group outperformed the mechanics criterion with the highest mean most of the time (N=6) in the pre-test (TMM=1,52), first (TMM=1,94), third (TMM=1,47), sixth (TMM=1,83), seventh (TMM=1,83) and the post-test (TMM=1,66). It might be clear that having pre-writing brainstorming impacts the paragraph writing performance of language learners in terms of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.

In line with the findings of the current research, Ahmed (2019) revealed that one of the writing challenges was punctuation, which the students' essays prominently displayed, probably due to the students' carelessness, lack of proficiency, and insufficient practice in this area. Therefore, more applications and exercises might be essential to focus on mechanics in writing classes. The high means related to mechanics criterion might mean that language learners develop their understanding and consistent application of mechanical rules, resulting in fewer errors and improved accuracy in their paragraph writing performance. Moreover, it could be concluded that allowing language learners to

brainstorm before writing their paragraphs can enhance their understanding and apply mechanical rules, leading to higher accuracy in spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.

For the overall scores of paragraph writing, the treatment group's participants outperformed the control group throughout the pre-test, the semester, and the post-test. Comparing the pre-test and post-test scores showed a statistically significant difference in the post-test scores of the two groups, with a moderate effect despite not being present in the pre-test scores. The ability to write effectively might be regarded as the most appropriate skill for applying translanguaging. Fitze and Glasgow (2009) mentioned that the cooperative learning environment that resulted from the group pre-writing setting appeared to benefit the students' readiness for writing, which is also concluded beneficial in the current research. Kaufhold (2018) suggested that learners' language skills enhance or limit their abilities in academic writing. In this line, the current study demonstrates that integrating translanguaging into pre-writing could enhance paragraph writing in the TL. The findings also coincide with other studies that have improved students' proficiency in the TL through translanguaging (İlhan, 2022; Kano, 2012; Velasco & Garcia, 2014). Numerous investigations have also been carried out on the use of translanguaging in the EFL setting, explicitly focusing on applying a translingual approach in teaching writing skills, concluding with better organization and performance in writing (Ali, 2021; Karabulut, 2019; Kaufhold, 2018; Turnbull, 2019).

To sum up, the study highlights the influence that integrating translanguaging pedagogy into pre-writing through brainstorming activities has on enhancing the paragraph writing performance of EFL learners at the tertiary level in Türkiye. These findings tie in with previous studies wherein Karabulut (2019) concluded that translanguaging activities facilitated more comprehensive thinking and the generation of a broader range of ideas on time, leading to a capability of organizing ideas and the structure of the essay. Moreover, the students in the treatment group scored higher in all the tasks, with some statistically significant differences, which is directly in line with Karabulut's (2019) study. Additionally, during the pre-writing brainstorming activities, the learners in the treatment group could utilize their prior knowledge to assist each other's learning through scaffolding, and provide justifications for ideas while engaging the opinions of other students via exploratory talk, which could be the example of the Vygotskian ZPD as a practice, where learners were able to extend their prior knowledge to deepen their learning through the utilization of translanguaging in the pre-writing stage (Lewis et al., 2012; Mercer & Wegerif, 1999; Vygotsky, 1978). Due to shared knowledge,

quickly switching between languages enables students to concentrate on analyzing and structuring the information without activating their monolingual mode to participate in communication (Duarte, 2019). Therefore, translanguaging could help promote cohesiveness in a class, solve ambiguities, and make classrooms friendlier and more interactive.

5.2. Turkish EFL Learners' Views on Translanguaging-Integrated Pre-Writing Activities

5.2.1. The views on writing classes before and after translanguaging integration

Before the translanguaging implementation, participants tended to believe that the writing classes primarily provided information. Some students (N=9) considered the writing classes informative, suggesting that writing-related information and skills were effectively taught in the classes. The courses encouraged language growth, indicating that conventional techniques could improve students' general language proficiency. The students mentioned that the writing classes were practical and improved their writing skills, possibly indicating an understanding of the goal-oriented and planned nature of writing classes, which probably assisted students in improving particular areas of their writing. Furthermore, the writing courses were perceived as stimulating language learning, fostering vocabulary growth, and entertaining. The findings also aligned with previous research (Kwihangana, 2021), which concluded that individuals engaged in learning may find the TL more pertinent in a professional and global context. However, some students (N=2) felt that the writing classes required hard work, which may reflect the difficulties and effort needed to succeed in a monolingual English context. Overall, the views before the implementation underscore a favorable perspective regarding the writing courses, emphasizing their capacity to increase knowledge and facilitate various aspects of language learning.

After the implementation, some students (N=8) thought the writing classes were practical, suggesting that translanguaging helped their learning process. Similarly, Karabulut (2019) reported that translanguaging pedagogy improved learners in various areas, including writing organization and critical thinking. However, there was a decline in responses related to being informative, enhancing writing skills, and promoting vocabulary development. The additional views encompassed encouraging self-development and facilitating self-evaluation, yet the classes were considered boring and

needed more challenging writing classes and activities. This shift in perceptions might underline an enhanced inclination towards criticism, wherein efficiency remains a significant focal point despite reduced perceived informativeness and overall engagement. The reference to a need for more substantial and complex material and entertaining sessions could imply that implementation should meet the participants' expectations.

When translanguaging was incorporated into pre-writing brainstorming, a perception change was observed. Initially, EMI writing classes were respected for their ability to teach language and provide information despite requiring hard work and being superfluous. Parallel with the findings in this study, James (2022) concluded that many participants noted that writing in English was practical and goal-oriented. Following the implementation of translanguaging, the emphasis switched to effectiveness and practical language use, with added advantages in vocabulary acquisition and self-improvement. Still, a few students thought the lessons could have been more exciting and wanted more challenging materials. The perception changes show that integrating translanguaging might need improvements to maintain interest and suggest a need for more dynamic and interactive content or delivery. These findings were consistent with research implying that bilingual students could facilitate their education through translanguaging, and language instructors might incorporate translanguaging strategies to aid students' writing (Velasco & García, 2014). Increasing awareness of language learners to use translanguaging effectively might be a starting point for successful implementation; as mentioned by İlhan (2022), students might not know how to benefit from translanguaging for optimal learning.

5.2.2. The views on language preference before and after translanguaging integration

Before the implementation, ten students expressed that they would only use English in writing classes. This choice might indicate a commitment to the monolingual method usually used in conventional EFL contexts. Similarly, James (2022) mentioned that mainly when writing, only English was appropriate to use in academic settings. In contrast, six students preferred to use L1 in their writing classes, which might show that they felt more competent in their L1 while expressing their thoughts and comprehending complex concepts related to writing. Similar to Karabulut's (2019) study revealing that students favored communicating, writing, and thinking in Turkish, then translating into

English, three learners in the current study indicated a preference for using both English and Turkish. It could be commended that this small sample recognizes the potential advantages of using their whole linguistic repertoire to help their language learning process, demonstrating an early openness to a more flexible and inclusive approach - translanguaging- to language use.

After integrating translanguaging through the academic term, the number of learners who preferred to use only English decreased to six. This decrease implies that the translanguaging strategy offered a more welcoming and encouraging setting, allowing students to feel less compelled to speak only in English. It might also mean they have become aware of the benefits of using their L1 to promote comprehension and creative thinking. Moreover, the preference for using Turkish remained constant, indicating that the preference for utilizing L1 did not change. This stability might state that there have still been some students for whom the ease and cognitive advantages of speaking in their L1 are significant. Additionally, only two students preferred to use both languages. This decrease may be due to learners being more used to the translanguaging approach and manifesting a stronger preference for one language. Alternatively, it could indicate a consolidation of their language use techniques, with them selecting L1 or English depending on the particular requirements of the writing assignments.

When EFL learners' preferred languages are compared before and after translanguaging integration into pre-writing stages, there are changes toward more accepting and helpful language use habits. Whereas the preference for English-only decreased, the stable preference for L1 and shifts in bilingual preferences could emphasize the necessity for adaptive and flexible teaching methods. Previous studies also showed that translanguaging should be implemented as an alternative pedagogical approach since it enables the utilization of both languages within the classroom, thereby benefiting the learners (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Garcia, 2009).

5.2.3. The views on cooperation before and after translanguaging integration

Before integrating translanguaging, 12 students viewed cooperation positively, highlighting the advantages of sharing information and ideas. Aligning with the concept of scaffolding, this might show that students understood writing assignments in EMI classes and could share views through collaborative interactions. Seven students also noted peer learning as an essential component of teamwork, showing that they understood

the advantages of drawing on the skills and experiences of their peers. Those mentions of peer learning resonate with Vygotsky's focus on social learning, where cognitive development is enhanced through peer interaction, indicating that students appreciate the opportunity to learn from one another, which is essential for their development within the ZPD. Furthermore, the increased output quality and the efficient allocation of time might indicate that learners are conscious of the benefits of cooperation in terms of productivity and task completion. Through collaborative efforts in the pre-writing sessions, students could create higher-quality paragraphs, showcasing the advantages of sociocultural interactions. Only one student expressed a disapproving opinion, citing a lack of individuality, which implies that even if studying together was usually positive for cooperation, some students might have thought their contributions and distinctive viewpoints were overlooked.

Following implementation, eight students indicated that brainstorming helped them produce more ideas than before. Their ideas could indicate that translanguaging-integrated brainstorming sessions improve the development of ideas, exemplifying exploratory talk in which students participate in a conversation that expands their thoughts and comprehension. The ideas might also demonstrate the increased capacity for creativity and generative ideas associated with translanguaging since learners can freely generate and express ideas in both languages. In the same manner, Karabulut (2019) inferred that translanguaging facilitated cooperation among students, so this led to increased sharing of ideas, mutual correction of errors, exposure to diverse perspectives, identification of personal flaws, and mutual learning. Four students believed that working together enhanced their paragraph writing, suggesting that the environment in a translanguaging atmosphere aided in developing skills. It could exemplify the scaffolding process, in which students collaborate to structure their ideas and enhance their writing, by Vygotsky's perspective that cognitive growth is enhanced through social interaction. The positive effects of translanguaging-integrated brainstorming on paragraph writing performance and decreasing stress could indicate that besides promoting creativity, translanguaging also aids in developing skills and mental health. In addition to improved writing organization and vocabulary learning, the participants reported increased interest and familiarity with the subject matter, demonstrating the advantages of cooperative brainstorming sessions. After implementation, the initial negative perception—that cooperation lacks individuality—was not mentioned. This change might suggest that translanguaging contributed to balancing group dynamics by

fostering individual and collective contributions. By the findings, Wang (2019) stated that translanguaging could facilitate more effective meaning negotiation among learners.

When EFL learners' perspectives on cooperation are compared before and after translanguaging integration, some changes point to more creativity, improved skill development, and less stress. Before the implementation, cooperation was considered mainly for exchanging ideas and experiences. Following the implementation of translanguaging, the focus shifted to idea generation, emphasizing how using different languages fosters increased creative output and various ideas. The post-implementation perspectives show that stress management and skill improvement are given more attention. In addition to helping students become better paragraph writers, translanguaging can promote a more relaxed and encouraging atmosphere that enhances learning opportunities. These findings suggest that translanguaging-integrated brainstorming could serve the dual purpose of generating ideas and organizing and improving written output, supporting the ZPD notion. Post-implementation benefits also focused on vocabulary expansion and improving organizational skills, which shows that translanguaging could facilitate better concept organization and expression, enhancing writing structure and vocabulary. Duarte (2019) also explored translanguaging to foster shared knowledge and understanding during social interactions, emphasizing how students collaborate in their learning process by utilizing many languages. As evidenced by the decrease in negative perceptions, translanguaging can provide a collaborative learning experience that is both balanced and successful. In summary, the findings indicate that incorporating translanguaging into pre-writing brainstorming activities might positively impact students' ability to write paragraphs, which is achieved by promoting a cooperative and encouraging learning atmosphere, consistent with the focus of SCT on the significance of social interaction, scaffolding, and ZPD in cognitive development and learning.

5.2.4. The views on L1 before, during, and after translanguaging integration

Before the study, the treatment group recognized several positive effects of using L1 in writing classes. These advantages encompassed content and vocabulary enhancement, idea generation, paragraph organization promotion, and proper vocabulary use. These findings could show that learners considered L1 helpful for language structure and conceptual understanding. Likewise, Karabulut (2019) stated that language learners could

utilize their L1 to comprehend complex ideas and develop associated mental schemata, facilitating their comprehension of the principles and topics covered in the classroom. However, translation issues were identified as a significant negative consequence. Similarly, Galante (2020a) found that students struggled to identify analogous words, expressions, and meaningful units across two or more languages when they were tasked with using their complete linguistic repertoire to create meaning. It could be concluded that while using L1 helps with idea development and organization, it is more challenging to translate those concepts accurately into the TL.

While implementing translanguaging, the first writing task exhibited a combination of advantages and disadvantages. Positive outcomes included improved writing abilities and facilitation of sharing ideas. Though translation issues persisted, they were less than the positive feedback. The second writing assignment emphasized the positive effects of facilitating ideas sharing and the advantages of communicating ideas, emphasizing generating ideas and skillful communication. By the fifth assignment, the advantages were addressed more. The positive impacts on vocabulary acquisition, sentence forming, and idea exchange facilitation were all mentioned despite translation problems. Positive perceptions persisted regarding the sixth assignment, which demonstrated gains in the following areas: sentence formation, idea generation, vocabulary knowledge, and sharing ideas, underlining the emphasis on structural and linguistic enhancements. The positive effects of the seventh assignment were more specific, consisting of benefits for conveying and generating ideas. Seltzer and García (2020) also argued that the effective teaching of TL may not occur in complete isolation from learners' other language activities, as translanguaging always exists. Furthermore, Nkhi and Shange (2024) deduced that students utilized translanguaging as it permits translation from TL to L1 and vice versa.

The learners' perceptions following implementation emphasized the continuous benefits of incorporating L1 into writing classes. The advantages included enhancing writing proficiency, enabling sharing and generating diverse ideas, and providing motivation. Similarly, according to the research by Nkhi and Shange (2024), translanguaging increased learners' enthusiasm for classroom activities. However, an additional adverse consequence appeared: the writing task became challenging. It may be concluded that although incorporating L1 has several advantages, it also increases the complexity of paragraph writing for some learners.

The EFL learners' perspectives on using their L1 have changed due to incorporating translanguaging into pre-writing brainstorming activities. Despite encountering

difficulties with translation before the study, learners valued L1 for its general advantages in generating ideas and content development. Although occasional translation problems persisted, learners perceived improvements in sentence formation and vocabulary understanding during the translanguaging implementation. After implementing translanguaging, students found the assignments more complicated, but the overall beneficial results continued with additional recognition of motivational benefits. The findings suggest that using L1 strengthens and broadens the perceived advantages, specifically improving writing proficiency and motivational elements. Similarly, in the context of their research, Nkhi and Shange (2024) ascertained that students could achieve elevated levels of achievement when they were allowed to utilize their L1 when confronted with difficulties in the TL. These findings also imply that when using L1 to improve the writing process, it is also necessary to manage it carefully to handle any potential difficulties. Translanguaging could be integrated into the EFL context to benefit learners' learning. However, the quantity of use in the L1 must be less than that in the TL (İlhan, 2022).

5.2.5. The views on writing tasks with pre-writing translanguaging integration

The treatment group's overall perception of the first writing assignment was generally positive. Five students uttered that the first writing task improved their writing abilities. Additional benefits included using new structures, boosting language development, reinforcing the unit topics, and strengthening unit vocabulary, which suggests a generally favorable response, emphasizing vocabulary reinforcement and skill development. The first assignment appeared suitable for developing primary writing abilities and incorporating novel linguistic components. Overlapping with the findings, Larsen-Freeman (2012) proposed that learners could enhance their language learning by incorporating their backgrounds, lifestyles, interests, and knowledge from their peers. For the second writing assignment, the learners noted the benefits in multiple ways, including strengthening unit themes, encouraging vocabulary growth, practicing language use, and fostering language development. One of the students thought the assignment was ineffective, though. The conflicting opinions imply that although the assignment was helpful, some students found it limited. The views on the fifth writing assignment emphasized enhancing writing skills, utilizing new structures, promoting vocabulary development, and being informative. The ongoing focus on writing skills development

could indicate a consistent dedication to developing writing competency throughout the course. Learners viewed the sixth assignment as enhancing writing skills but being complex, which might show that the emphasis remained on improving skills, but the difficulty of the work was highlighted. As only one participant's view existed, vocabulary knowledge was mentioned for the seventh task.

For EFL learners, pre-writing translanguaging in paragraph writing tasks had generally positive results. The learners consistently reported improved language use, vocabulary growth, and writing abilities, which suggests that the pre-writing translanguaging integration could successfully assist their ability to enhance and polish their paragraph writing. In parallel with the findings, Kibler (2010) discovered that bilingual students' writing improved and contained more specifics when they could express their thoughts using their entire repertoires. Additionally, recurring themes such as implementing new structures and expanding vocabulary might suggest a commitment to assimilating new linguistic components and enhancing lexical resources. Similarly, Karabulut (2019) revealed that the participants could comprehend and effectively apply writing-related concepts using translanguaging pedagogy. Though the courses were considered positive overall, specific lessons were thought to be difficult, and different students perceived the assignments differently regarding their benefits. This finding suggests that while translanguaging has a positive effect on writing assignments, to optimize the advantages, task complexity should be balanced with the needs of each student.

5.2.6. The views on the benefits of writing tasks with translanguaging integration

Before the implementation of translanguaging, the treatment group reported various advantages of writing English paragraphs: a greater understanding of the language, improved writing abilities, improved sentence structure, encouragement of formal/academic writing, increased vocabulary knowledge, ability to express oneself, writing organization, and improved spelling. These opinions might strongly emphasize the benefits of writing structure, skill development, and language acquisition. In the same manner, Karabulut (2019) mentioned that using L1 assists learners in surmounting the challenges presented by TL and guides them toward comprehending concepts or accomplishing a writing-related task.

The first assignment was considered to increase grammar and vocabulary knowledge, enhance writing skills, practice unit goals, and have other benefits. The assignment was viewed positively, focusing on improving vocabulary and grammar. For the second task, though enhancing one's grammar knowledge continued to be crucial, there was also a focus on honing learners' TL proficiency and promoting academic writing, suggesting that perceived advantages have become more varied, placing more emphasis on practical language proficiency. The primary advantage of the fifth assignment was the expansion of vocabulary, underscoring the increasing importance of linguistic growth. The benefits of improving writing abilities persisted, alongside the benefits of facilitating self-correction and reducing stress, possibly showing a process towards more cognitive and linguistic skills. The sixth assignment was perceived as enhancing writing skills and motivating students to learn TL. Despite fewer benefits reported, motivation focus might indicate a positive engagement with the task. The primary benefit of the seventh assignment was to improve one's writing abilities, potentially due to limited responses.

The perceived benefits following the implementation could denote a shift towards more specialized and sophisticated skill sets. The main advantages noted were the improvement of English usage, vocabulary expansion, and grammatical enhancement. Moreover, an emphasis was placed on improving writing abilities and promoting creativity. These findings might highlight creative problem-solving and practical application, representing methodical and targeted language acquisition.

The findings revealed that improving one's writing abilities was a constant advantage. This constancy shows that applying translanguaging could consistently enhance learners' writing skills. Improvements in vocabulary and grammar were mentioned as benefits at every task. Initially, assignments were considered general instruments for underpinning language proficiency. As time progressed, the perceived benefits became more varied, emphasizing practical language application, individual growth, and enhanced cognitive abilities. The learners reported various cognitive and motivational benefits during implementation, including stress reduction, improved self-confidence, and brain-boosting. Before implementation, these advantages were less pronounced, which may indicate that translanguaging adds new levels of motivation and cognitive engagement. This procedure demonstrates the transformative potential of translanguaging, which can enhance the language learning process by increasing mental and motivational engagement and steadily enhancing foundational skills. In line with the

findings, İlhan (2022) expressed that the translingual approach's advantages included acquiring vocabulary, sharing background information about the subject, and addressing situations where learners encountered comprehension challenges. Thus, teachers need to utilize the learners' current skills and promote the adoption of new elements into the learner's overall set of skills. (Seltzer & García, 2020).

5.2.7. The views on the challenges of writing tasks with translanguaging integration

Before integrating translanguaging, the challenges most commonly mentioned were a lack of vocabulary and grammar, followed by sentence-forming and content-development problems. The emphasis on the lack of vocabulary and grammar could indicate that the learners experienced a sense of inadequacy in these essential domains. These findings align with the conclusion drawn by Ahmed (2019) that the majority of students considered grammar to be the most challenging aspect of essay writing. Additionally, challenges associated with writing and vocabulary were explicitly due to the laborious task of locating precise words for each composition (Ahmed, 2019). As this study illustrates, examining teaching and learning methods from the perspective of translanguaging pedagogy could be one strategy to overcome these challenges.

The vocabulary and grammar challenges in the first task suggest that these were persistent issues. In addition, problems with organization and coherence could indicate that learners need help structuring their writing. The second assignment revealed that grammar remained the main problem, followed by sentence forming and vocabulary issues, but new challenges with conveying ideas and coherence emerged. The fifth assignment illustrated more challenges, including the previous ones. Even though students might progress, new difficulties emerged, such as time management and punctuation. For the sixth task, despite existing vocabulary difficulties, the decreasing number of challenges may suggest that the students made some progress or adapted. Lastly, the seventh assignment focused on sentence-forming problems.

Following the implementation, the findings presented that though vocabulary continued to be the primary concern, grammar and other technical elements of writing were noted less. Time management and practical issues, such as those about pens and pencils, indicate that the logistical facets of writing could affect academic performance.

The findings indicate that vocabulary and grammar remained problematic throughout the assignments. Ahmed (2019) also concluded that EFL learners frequently repeated

words, misused vocabulary items, and produced writing that needed more clarity of meaning since they had a restricted lexicon and received less instruction and knowledge regarding word selection. However, there was development in other areas, especially in later assignments. It might be reported that the implementation of translanguaging reduced the number and variety of difficulties reported by the students, which could have a positive effect. In conjunction with focused approaches to address particular challenges, including coherence and organization, sustained attention to vocabulary and grammar would probably result in additional progress. In addition, practical concerns such as time management and writing logistics could be addressed to improve overall paragraph writing.

5.2.8. The recommendations for the writing tasks with translanguaging integration

For the first assignment, the treatment group provided several suggestions, the most prominent of which was to improve the assignment's efficacy and integrate group writing. Prioritizing group writing and efficacy could refer to adopting more collaborative and impactful techniques in paragraph writing. Similarly, focusing on reading tasks, İlhan (2022) found that pair-group work was considered efficient for reading activities as it allowed learners to concentrate more and be more aware. For the second writing assignment, they suggested more vocabulary activities and focusing on more sample texts. The recommendations for vocabulary exercises and illustrative texts might mention the significant nature of resources that facilitate language acquisition and pragmatic implementation. The participants suggested that the fifth writing assignment should be improved in several ways. An additional written task on the topic was the most frequently uttered suggestion. Furthermore, students needed to engage in more vocabulary activities and exercise grammar. The students' diverse suggestions could denote their requirements and preferences, with the prioritization of additional assignments and grammar review, possibly stating an intention to strengthen language proficiency. The treatment group recommended incorporating additional vocabulary activities and maintaining a satisfactory level of efficacy for the sixth writing assignment. It is likely to underline that the consistent mention of extra vocabulary activities indicates ongoing concerns about language support. Due to the participation of only one student, the only suggestion about the seventh task was its efficiency. Therefore, it could be logical to direct any enhancements toward optimizing the assignment procedure.

The findings present various recommendations for improving writing assignments through increased productivity, vocabulary exercises, and supplementary writing assignments. These findings generally highlight the aspects that could benefit from adjustments to support language learning and writing skills. Enhancing vocabulary and grammar instruction, integrating more illustrative texts, and investigating bilingual approaches may result in more successful and captivating assignments. The consistent contentment with specific elements, including the effectiveness of subsequent assignments, may show that continuous improvements benefit the educational journey in writing. Hence, teachers should create environments where students can utilize all of their repertoires to access and comprehend complex educational material and participate entirely in learning activities (Garcia, 2012). The systematic use of the L1 might activate students' participation and interaction and allow them to elucidate their doubts about their learning in response to these challenges (Tavares, 2015).

In summary, translanguaging in writing classes could enhance cooperative learning, proficiency, and motivation, supporting the natural use of linguistic repertoires. These findings indicate that a successful bilingual teaching method could improve the paragraph writing performance of emergent bilinguals in an EFL context with EMI. However, careful implementation is required to manage complexities and maintain engagement. A balanced, flexible approach with diverse assignments is essential to maximize educational benefits and address vocabulary and grammar challenges. As Garcia and Flores (2014) underline, translanguaging, when correctly comprehended and appropriately implemented in educational institutions, has the potential to improve cognitive, linguistic, and literacy skills. Kaufhold's (2018) conclusion is that translanguaging spaces can serve as a teaching tool to enhance the development of academic writing skills.

5.3. The Observation of the Researcher About Translanguaging Pedagogy

5.3.1. Participation in the pre-writing sessions

The findings of the seven tasks demonstrate consistent and active participation of participants during the pre-writing stages in brainstorming activities. This consistent participation could underscore the effectiveness of brainstorming as a critical component of the writing process, helping participants generate and organize their ideas before drafting their texts. The findings also provide insights into the dynamics of participant

involvement and the strategies that can enhance their engagement during the pre-writing phase. Similarly, İlhan (2022) emphasized that the experimental group actively engaged in warm-up discussion activities.

Participants often preferred working together in pairs or groups, even when it was not explicitly necessary, suggesting that collaborative learning environments encourage active participation. Similarly, Duarte (2019) explored that learners employ translanguaging to engage in high-quality exploratory discussions. Translanguaging pedagogy in EMI classrooms may be linked to the ZPD in the sociocultural learning theory (Karakaş, 2023). Organized group activities using this natural tendency can further improve engagement and the development of ideas. The accessibility and utilization of diverse resources, such as textbooks, lexicons, and lecture materials, played a pivotal role in facilitating participants' engagement in brainstorming sessions, as these materials enabled participants to investigate and express their views more efficiently. Thus, allowing the learners to access these resources can enhance their involvement and efficiency in pre-writing tasks. The correlation between the relevance of the topic to participants' interests and experiences and their level of involvement was substantial. Engaging topics resulted in participants making more enthusiastic and varied contributions. Choosing pertinent and engaging subjects might thus amplify the motivation and active engagement of participants throughout the pre-writing phase.

Translanguaging has become crucial in dealing with difficulties in understanding and promoting active involvement. Explanations in both English and L1 were essential in resolving comprehension challenges participants faced while trying to understand the topic or instructions. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) argued that the L1 plays a crucial role as a fundamental and necessary tool for communication and understanding while acquiring a TL. It might be concluded that translanguaging can enhance task comprehension, alleviate anxiety, and boost participants' self-assurance, enabling them to engage more comprehensively and efficiently.

5.3.2. Language preferences in the pre-writing sessions

The participants were inclined to employ Turkish and English during the pre-writing sessions, frequently transitioning between the two languages. Participants often initiated conversations in one language and finished them in another, demonstrating their bilingual experience and comfort in switching between both languages. Translanguaging served

various purposes, including enhancing understanding, promoting the development of ideas, and overcoming language obstacles. Parallel with the findings, Rajendram (2019) showed through the investigation of learners' interactions using discourse analysis that learners, irrespective of their proficiency level or classroom language policy, extensively utilized translanguageing during all their collaborative learning activities. In another study, Kwihangana (2021) observed that students predominantly employed translanguageing to elucidate or negotiate knowledge, as it was more straightforward to convey in their L1.

Participants frequently addressed clarification regarding tasks, which were delivered using translanguageing. The explanations in both languages facilitated bridging comprehension gaps, ensuring all participants understood the assignment requirements. By implementing translanguageing integration, the level of confusion and anxiety was potentially minimized, creating a more inclusive and supportive atmosphere. Utilizing L1 enables individuals to articulate their thoughts more freely and authentically (Cummins, 2007). Therefore, L1 could be a valuable tool for enhancing cognitive, emotional, and linguistic skills in acquiring the TL. Turkish was mainly employed for intra-group discourse, indicating their high language proficiency in the TL. However, the students tended to switch to English when sharing ideas with the instructor or when the task involved academic content from their coursebooks. This flexibility enabled learners to leverage their linguistic repertoire to generate and articulate ideas. Before transitioning to the actual writing phase, the participants often translated their L1 ideas into the TL, highlighting their awareness of the need to produce written work in English while valuing the cognitive and expressive advantages of brainstorming in their L1. Translating ideas from L1 to English also served as an additional layer of idea development and consolidation, preparing them for more coherent and fluent writing. Previous research emphasized that using L1 occurs organically in foreign language classes during external, private, and inner speech, with various purposes, either explicitly or implicitly (Moore, 2013). Duarte (2019) indicated that including translanguageing during collaborative discussions could be a characteristic of a radical pedagogical shift, which is required in the dominant monolingual teaching contexts. Karakaş (2023) also concluded that translanguageing was natural in EMI classrooms, where students and instructors use several languages to achieve various goals. It is likely to say that by allowing the use of an entire linguistic repertoire, language learners exploit their bilingual abilities, facilitating better comprehension, idea generation, and expression.

5.3.3. The reasons to collaborate

Participants actively collaborated with their peers and the instructor to address issues pertaining to vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar, word limitations, and idea development. Despite the availability of dictionaries and coursebooks, participants displayed dependence on peer support and instructor guidance, as seen by their preference for seeking assistance from peers and the teacher. The students' questions included a wide range of themes, including word meaning, phrase accuracy, grammar, translation, and the general coherence of their paragraphs. The participants' preference for collaborative contact highlights their requirement for prompt feedback and validation from their peers. In line with the findings, Rajendram (2019) explored that translanguaging facilitated the establishment of rapport among learners, enabling them to offer socio-emotional support and affirmation to their peers, demonstrate an interest in each other's lives, and assist one another.

The main motivation for collaboration among participants was the necessity for timely and dependable feedback, which peers and instructors were able to offer more efficiently than individual study utilizing dictionaries or coursebooks. It could be concluded that participants discovered that engaging in conversations about vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure with both peers and instructors not only expedited the resolution of their uncertainties but also enhanced their comprehension through interactive learning. Furthermore, this collaborative method produced a nurturing learning atmosphere in which participants felt comfortable exchanging and improving ideas. Collaborating has the potential to develop various ideas and enhance their work by leveraging group knowledge and receiving criticism. The peer interaction helped improve understanding and made the writing phases more effective and exciting, resulting in a more productive learning experience. Rajendram (2019) also found that translanguaging enabled a greater degree of investigative discourse, thereby enhancing the productivity of collaboration and fostering both individual and communal learning. Hence, it is crucial to promote cooperative learning settings where students may actively participate with their peers and the teacher, thereby improving their writing abilities and general academic growth.

Overall, using cooperative methods in EFL writing classes, including scaffolding and explanatory talk based on ZPD, aided by translanguaging, could be crucial for addressing language difficulties, improving understanding, and fostering a helpful learning

environment. Translanguaging is in line with SCT, which emphasizes the importance of social interaction and scaffolding in cognitive development. Integrating translanguaging could promote the use of collaborative strategies to maximize language learning outcomes in multilingual settings. It has also been seen that not only translanguaging but also the perspectives that integrate translanguaging into their scope, primarily ELF-aware pedagogy can be an effective means to be used in EFL classrooms. This study verifying that translanguaging enhances efficiency in EFL classrooms also displays that Translanguaging across L1s and additional languages proves to be a useful asset of non-native speakers in the English classrooms, substantiating ELF-aware pedagogy defending the integration of translanguaging into English classes worldwide as defined numerous studies (Biricik Deniz, Kemaloğlu-Er, & Özkan, 2020; Kemaloğlu-Er, 2021; Kemaloğlu-Er & Bayyurt, 2018, 2019a, 2019b; Kemaloğlu-Er & Deniz, 2020; Kemaloğlu-Er, Deniz & Özkan, 2024).

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

The conclusion chapter comprehensively examines the collected data and their corresponding discussion. It incorporates pertinent literature to analyze the findings while providing recommendations for future research.

6.1. The effects of translanguaging on the paragraph writing performance

The study delved into the effects of integrating translanguaging into pre-writing brainstorming exercises on the paragraph writing performance of Turkish tertiary-level EFL learners. The findings, which examined content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics, shed light on the potential of translanguaging integration.

The findings underscore the potential of translanguaging integration. The treatment group, which engaged in translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming exercises, generally outperformed the control group regarding content. Although the treatment group's pre-test scores were higher than the control group, there was no statistically significant difference. However, the treatment group often achieved higher content scores during the study, and statistically significant differences were observed in the two specific tasks. This finding highlights the potential of incorporating translanguaging into pre-writing sessions to promote more comprehensive paragraph writing. Utilizing both the L1 and the TL during brainstorming sessions seems to encourage the creation of a wider variety of ideas and a more profound understanding of the topic, hence improving content in paragraph writing performance, as also revealed by previous studies (Fitze, 2008; Karabulut, 2019; Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2022). Translanguaging allows students to utilize their complete range of language skills, enriching cognitive flexibility and more profound content development, aligning with the focus of ZPD on expanding learners' abilities through social engagement and support.

The treatment group exhibited higher organizational quality in their paragraphs, marked by coherence, fluency, and logical succession of ideas, in the organization scores of the pre-test, post-test, and all seven writing assignments, with a statistically significant difference in one task. This improvement can be credited to the translanguaging pedagogy, which promotes a more profound comprehension of writing topics and improves the efficient organization of ideas. These findings support the previous research,

which suggests that translanguaging helps not only in generating ideas but also in structuring them systematically, leading to more structured and coherent paragraph writing (Fitze & Glasgow, 2009; İlhan, 2022; Kano, 2012; Karabulut, 2019; Turnbull, 2019). The simultaneous involvement with both the L1 and the TL during pre-writing exercises seems to provide the foundation for organizational improvements, allowing learners to conceptualize and structure their ideas in writing more effectively. These findings also provide evidence for the sociocultural perspective that language development is fundamentally influenced by social circumstances in which learners can study together to create a shared understanding platform.

Upon analyzing the vocabulary criterion, it was found that although the treatment group obtained higher scores in the pre-test and post-test, these differences did not reach statistical significance. Nevertheless, the treatment group continuously outscored the control group in five writing assignments, demonstrating a statistically significant difference in one task. In contrast, the control group performed higher scores in the two assignments. The findings indicate that incorporating translanguaging into pre-writing brainstorming could positively affect vocabulary learning. Employing EMI teaching methods in pre-writing also promotes the proper use of vocabulary in the TL. Based on the findings, it is suggested that translanguaging promotes a more extensive and potentially more profound interaction with vocabulary by utilizing various linguistic tools, which is also mentioned by other studies (Ali, 2021; Galante, 2020a; Illman & Pietila, 2018; Ramirez, 2019; Smith & Robertson, 2019). On the other hand, EMI pedagogy emphasizes the accuracy and suitability of vocabulary usage in the TL, highlighting the complementary advantages of translanguaging and EMI pedagogy for vocabulary knowledge. Interacting between languages during pre-writing interactions enhances vocabulary comprehension, strengthening Vygotsky's claim that language is a cultural tool for learners' cognitive growth.

The examination of grammar performance demonstrated that the treatment group generally achieved higher scores than the control group in the pre-test, post-test, and most tasks, with no statistically significant difference. However, the control group had higher grades in the two writing assignments without statistical significance. The finding implies that incorporating translanguaging into pre-writing sessions could favor the acquisition of grammar. However, its influence on the performance is more apparent in other aspects, including content and vocabulary. The findings suggest that using translanguaging pedagogy promotes meaningful involvement with grammatical concepts through

bilingual talks, resulting in enhancements in the TL, also suggested by previous studies (İlhan, 2022; Karabulut, 2019; Ramirez, 2019). Integrating translanguaging facilitates a thorough exploration and internalization of grammatical principles, leading to a more meaningful comprehension and application of these rules in writing. However, it may not be the primary area of progress in writing performance compared to other writing criteria.

The findings about the mechanics criterion indicated that the treatment group obtained higher scores in the pre-test and post-test and five writing tasks, with statistically significant differences in the two tasks. While the control group performed better in the two assignments, with a significant difference in one task, the treatment group generally performed better in mechanics overall. These findings highlight the cognitive adaptability that translanguaging provides, allowing learners to use their L1 to explain and strengthen the mechanical principles of the TL. Translanguaging integration in pre-writing brainstorming sessions could improve learners' comprehension and utilization of mechanical rules, including spelling, punctuation, and capitalization. Students utilizing their whole language repertoire can effectively traverse and understand mechanics principles, enhancing correctness and consistency in paragraph writing. These findings emphasize the significance of translanguaging as an educational strategy for strengthening the mechanical components of writing, which most probably brings success in overall paragraph writing proficiency.

Upon analyzing the paragraph writing scores, it is evident that the participants in the treatment group who participated in translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming activities performed better than those in the control group. This was observed in the pre-test, the semester, and the post-test. A statistically significant difference in the post-test scores between the two groups indicated that translanguaging effectively improved paragraph writing performance over time. This difference was moderate in size and was not apparent in the pre-test scores.

This study presents evidence that using translanguaging could improve paragraph writing performance. Translanguaging enables learners to effectively utilize both L1 and the TL during pre-writing tasks, resulting in a more profound involvement in the writing process. Translanguaging facilitates the development of ideas and enhances the arrangement and expression of thoughts, resulting in more organized and cohesive written outputs.

The findings of this study are consistent with previous research that emphasizes the advantages of translanguaging in the process of acquiring a new language (Galante,

2020b; Illman & Pietila, 2018; İlhan, 2022; Kano, 2012; Karabulut, 2019; Ramirez, 2019; Turnbull, 2019; Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2022). Integrating translanguaging into pre-writing brainstorming has been proven to improve paragraph writing performance in the TL, assisting learners in obtaining a more refined and advanced language proficiency. Translanguaging pedagogy leverages the complete range of learners' language skills, fostering cognitive adaptability and enhanced comprehension, both essential for proficient writing.

Overall, this study demonstrates that translanguaging is an effective instructional strategy that can enhance the paragraph writing ability of tertiary-level EFL learners. Translanguaging utilizes learners' complete language abilities to improve writing performance and promote a more inclusive and culturally sensitive educational environment. Integrating translanguaging into pre-writing activities leads to a supportive and collaborative learning environment, enhancing cognitive flexibility and promoting more meaningful engagement with the writing tasks. This study contributes to the growing body of research that supports the incorporation of translanguaging in language teaching. It provides significant insights for educators and researchers who aim to enhance academic achievements for EFL learners by using pedagogical approaches informed by sociocultural factors.

6.2. Turkish EFL learners' views on translanguaging-integrated pre-writing activities

Based on the views of Turkish EFL learners about the writing classes, this study emphasizes the transformative impact of integrating translanguaging into pre-writing brainstorming activities on students' attitudes and writing performance. Before the implementation, participants regarded writing sessions as mainly instructive and advantageous for language development, highlighting the importance of traditional methods in enhancing overall language proficiency and specific writing abilities. The conventional EMI methodology was valued for its pragmatic and objective nature, enhancing vocabulary acquisition and overall language proficiency, similar to the study findings of Escobar and Dillard-Paltrineri (2015) and Wang (2019). After the implementation, the shift in attitudes highlights the ever-changing nature of learning when translanguaging is incorporated. The decrease in perceived usefulness and vocabulary enrichment indicates that while translanguaging enhances practical language skills and personal growth, it also introduces a critical viewpoint among students who

want more demanding and engaging content.

Translanguaging shifts perceptions regarding writing classes, demonstrating a change from a monolingual, information-focused teaching method to a more dynamic, student-centered learning environment. The observed shifts in student perspectives before and after the introduction of translanguaging are consistent with the ideas of SCT. The influence of Vygotsky's ideas on the ZPD and scaffolding can be observed in how translanguaging promotes collaborative learning and enhances cognitive engagement. SCT highlights the significance of social interaction and cultural instruments in the learning process and translanguaging acts as a mediating tool that empowers learners to utilize their complete language abilities. Students can improve their writing performance by effectively leveraging their linguistic skills to comprehend and apply writing-related concepts. Translanguaging promotes a deeper level of mental involvement, making it easier for students to learn new words and assess their progress. It also helps identify areas to focus on to keep students interested and engaged. Overall, incorporating translanguaging into pre-writing activities improves the practical utilization of language abilities, acquisition of vocabulary, and self-enhancement in a helpful and collaborative learning environment. However, it also requires carefully providing information and keeping students engaged to achieve their expectations.

The findings about the language preferences of EFL learners indicate changes in language usage preferences among students, highlighting the fluid and evolving character of language acquisition within a sociocultural framework. Initially, most students favored utilizing just English in their writing lessons, which showed a traditional dedication to using only one language in EFL settings. Nevertheless, a notable minority preferred utilizing their L1, suggesting an acknowledgment of the cognitive benefits and comfort associated with articulating complex concepts in their L1. The integration of translanguaging decreased the number of students who exclusively preferred English, indicating that translanguaging fostered a more inclusive and supportive learning environment. This change indicates that students have become more conscious of the advantages of utilizing their complete range of language skills to improve understanding and foster innovative thinking. The consistent preference for L1 highlights the long-lasting cognitive and emotional benefits of using one's mother tongue.

The shifts in language preferences underscore the focus of the SCT on the significance of social engagement and cultural resources in learning. Translanguaging promotes a cooperative and interactive learning atmosphere by allowing students to

utilize both their L1 and the TL, facilitating the joint construction of knowledge and supporting each other's learning within their ZPD, which is also represented in the study by Küçük (2018). The reduced inclination to use English and the consistent preference for L1 usage indicate that students are approaching their language acquisition process with enhanced flexibility and adaptability, which are fundamental principles of SCT. Moreover, the findings suggest that translanguaging facilitates the development of efficient language use habits. The trend towards using more balanced and strategic language preferences highlights the need for teaching approaches that can adjust and be flexible to accommodate the different linguistic backgrounds of learners. Translanguaging pedagogy improves practical language abilities and critical reasoning and encourages a more profound cognitive involvement with writing assignments.

Focusing on cooperation, translanguaging in pre-writing brainstorming activities affects EFL learners' collaboration and writing proficiency. At the beginning of the study, students had a favorable perception of collaboration, highlighting the advantages of exchanging information and ideas, which is consistent with Vygotsky's notion of scaffolding. These findings indicate that students valued the collaborative interactions in EMI sessions, which improved their comprehension and cognitive growth within the ZPD. After the implementation, the views on cooperation changed. Students stated that including translanguaging in brainstorming sessions improved their ability to generate ideas, demonstrating the advantages of exploratory talk in which cognitive growth is facilitated through dialogue. Translanguaging is likely to enhance creativity and generate a wide range of ideas, as learners can freely express themselves in both languages.

The transition from viewing cooperation as primarily an exchange of ideas to emphasizing idea generation and stress reduction underscores the multifaceted benefits of translanguaging. By cultivating a collaborative and supportive learning environment, the integration of translanguaging into pre-writing activities is consistent with the tenets of SCT, as translanguaging fosters cognitive development by facilitating social interaction and scaffolding within the ZPD, thereby enhancing creativity, skill development, and stress management.

Related to the findings about the views on L1, this study indicates that integrating L1 into pre-writing activities in EFL writing classes offers various advantages but presents specific obstacles. Initially, learners acknowledged the benefits of utilizing L1 to enhance vocabulary and content, generate ideas, and organize paragraphs, and also emphasized its role in facilitating conceptual understanding and language structure.

Nevertheless, translation issues were challenging, reflecting the difficulty in accurately communicating ideas in the TL. The advantages of L1 were consistently recognized in various writing assignments during the translanguaging implementation. Despite specific translation issues, positive outcomes included improved writing abilities, enhanced vocabulary acquisition, and better sentence formation. By the end of the study, learners underscored the ongoing benefits of incorporating L1, including enhanced motivation, effective idea sharing, and improved writing performance. Nevertheless, they also noted that the complexity of writing tasks increased, indicating that while translanguaging facilitates the generation and organization of ideas, it also requires meticulous management to address potential challenges.

The change in learners' viewpoints emphasizes the significance of translanguaging as a teaching technique within SCT. Utilizing both the L1 and TL promotes enhanced involvement, originality, and linguistic skills, which aligns with the socio-cultural focus on the social nature of learning and cognitive development. These findings support the idea of using translanguaging in EFL settings to fully take advantage of it while also dealing with possible difficulties. Integrating translanguaging into EFL writing classes improves learners' writing performance and motivation by utilizing their range of languages, even though it may introduce some challenges in carrying out tasks.

Considering the findings on writing tasks with pre-writing translanguaging integration, the treatment group's overall perceptions of those writing assignments demonstrate consistent enhancements in writing performance, vocabulary expansion, and integration of new linguistic structures. The consistent focus on vocabulary expansion and incorporating new grammatical constructions in the assignments demonstrates a long-term dedication to improving lexical proficiency and writing performance. The persistent emphasis on skill development is in line with the emphasis of SCT on the significance of social contact and cultural tools in learning, occurring as students interact with their classmates and teachers to enhance their comprehension and utilization of language. However, the differing interpretations of task complexity imply that although translanguaging has generally beneficial impacts, it is crucial to carefully assess the complexity of assignments to ensure they address the various needs of all learners. By integrating translanguaging in pre-writing exercises, EFL learners' writing skills, vocabulary knowledge, and utilization of new grammatical structures can be improved. Nevertheless, it is essential to maintain a balance between the level of difficulty of the tasks and the specific requirements of each learner to optimize the advantages of

translanguaging.

The views on the benefits of translanguaging-integrated paragraph writing demonstrated a transformative impact on EFL learners' writing abilities and language acquisition. At first, learners acknowledged the advantages of writing English paragraphs, including enhanced language comprehension, higher writing proficiency, improved sentence organization, and expanded vocabulary acquisition. The pre-implementation perceptions highlight the significance of enhancing writing structure and skill development in the conventional monolingual setting. With translanguaging, the perceived advantages of writing assignments expanded to encompass a broader range of diverse and advanced abilities. During the implementation process, learners generally stated that they had enhancements in their writing skills, vocabulary, and grammar. The consistent nature of these advantages highlights the effectiveness of translanguaging in improving fundamental language abilities. Furthermore, the later assignments revealed additional cognitive and motivational benefits, such as stress reduction, increased self-confidence, and enhanced cognitive engagement. After the implementation, the perceived advantages could indicate a transition towards more specialized and advanced skill sets. The findings are consistent with Vygotsky's SCT, which suggests that learning is facilitated by social contact and cultural tools. Translanguaging is identified as a valuable tool for both cognitive and language development.

The change towards more focused and specific language learning, along with the advantages in motivation and cognitive abilities, emphasizes the significant impact of translanguaging. Translanguaging promotes innovative problem-solving and the practical use of language by encouraging learners to utilize their whole linguistic repertoire. Translanguaging integration improves linguistic skills and boosts cognitive involvement and motivation, resulting in a more efficient and captivating learning encounter. Therefore, incorporating translanguaging into pre-writing tasks improves EFL learners' writing proficiency, vocabulary, and grammar. Additionally, it offers cognitive and motivational advantages.

The perceptions regarding the challenges exhibit potential in addressing the enduring difficulties of vocabulary, grammatical inadequacies, and technical aspects of writing. Before the deployment of translanguaging, students often expressed challenges with vocabulary, grammar, sentence construction, and content development, indicating a widespread feeling of insufficiency in these essential domains. There were noticeable and ongoing problems with vocabulary and grammar during the tasks. Additionally, there

were increasing challenges with organizing ideas, maintaining coherence, and constructing sentences. The dynamic nature of these barriers indicates that although students may advance in specific domains, novel obstacles can emerge, underscoring the necessity for adaptable teaching practices. After the implementation, the main focus remained on vocabulary, but there was an apparent decrease in grammar-related problems and other technical aspects of writing. This decrease demonstrates that translanguaging assists learners in overcoming particular linguistic obstacles by utilizing their complete linguistic repertoire.

Implementing translanguaging provided a transformative method, enabling gradual enhancements in writing abilities and diminishing the range of challenges experienced by students. The persistent reference to difficulties with vocabulary and grammar throughout the study emphasizes the necessity for continuous focus on these domains. Nevertheless, the noticeable enhancements in several elements of writing, especially in subsequent tasks, suggest that translanguaging can improve learners' overall writing proficiency. The findings indicate that translanguaging reduces problems with vocabulary and grammar and improves organizational abilities, coherence, and overall writing competency. This study illustrates that implementing translanguaging pedagogy can serve as a strategic method for addressing these difficulties, promoting a more comprehensive and efficient learning atmosphere, and emphasizing the importance of social interaction and scaffolding in cognitive development.

Considering the suggestions for the writing tasks with translanguaging-integrated pre-writing activities, the significant impact of collaborative and linguistically inclusive instructional approaches is emphasized. The recommendations to improve the effectiveness of assignments and incorporate collaborative writing demonstrate a core congruence with Vygotsky's notion of the ZPD and the significance of social interaction in cognitive growth. By prioritizing collaborative writing, students acknowledge the need for scaffolding and peer learning to improve their writing performance. The consistent focus on integrating additional vocabulary exercises and exemplar texts indicates that learners derive advantages from explicit, situational illustrations that facilitate comprehension and application of novel linguistic principles. This underscores the need to offer significant educational resources supporting cognitive and language growth, consistent with utilizing cultural tools and resources in the learning process based on SCT. The request for more writing tasks and grammar exercises demonstrates a proactive attitude toward improving language proficiency, highlighting the importance of diverse

and complete teaching methods covering several language acquisition elements. The continuous satisfaction with certain aspects of the assignments, including their efficacy, suggests that ongoing enhancements and curriculum adjustments favorably influence students' educational experiences. By integrating collaborative writing, supplementary vocabulary exercises, and visual texts while referring to individual language support needs, one can adhere to the ideas of SCT by promoting a supportive and participatory educational environment.

6.3. The observation of the researcher about translanguaging pedagogy

The researcher's observations of integrating translanguaging in pre-writing sessions could provide insights into the dynamics of EFL writing classes. The consistent and active engagement in brainstorming activities highlights the effectiveness of collaborative pre-writing activities in generating and structuring ideas. The preference for studying in pairs or groups, even when not obligatory, indicates that collaborative learning environments naturally promote active engagement, and translanguaging fosters high-quality exploratory talk. Translanguaging integration into pre-writing is connected to the ZPD notion of SCT since it improves involvement and the growth of ideas through social interaction and scaffolding.

The flexible use of the L1 and TL in the brainstorming activities demonstrates learners' multilingual ability and comfort with both languages. Translanguaging-integrated brainstorming enhanced understanding, fostered idea production, and helped overcome linguistic barriers, indicating extensive use of translanguaging in collaborative learning observed in previous studies (Kwihangana, 2021; Rajendram, 2019). The transition from the L1 to the TL before engaging in paragraph writing highlights the cognitive and expressive advantages of generating ideas in the L1, which helps students produce more cohesive paragraphs in English. Moreover, translanguaging has become a crucial technique for overcoming difficulties in understanding, as it helps reduce fear and increase confidence by providing explanations in both the TL and L1.

The primary motivation for collaboration is the necessity of timely and reliable feedback, highlighting the significance of interactive learning. The participants' need for peer and teacher assistance in resolving ambiguities related to vocabulary, syntax, and sentence structure demonstrates the importance of collaborative interaction in improving understanding and developing paragraph writing quality. This collaborative approach -

integrating translanguaging in brainstorming- produced a supportive educational context, encouraging social and emotional assistance and affirmation among students.

In a nutshell, this study provides evidence that translanguaging is a successful teaching technique that can improve the paragraph writing performance of tertiary-level EFL learners. Additionally, integrating translanguaging into the pre-writing stages of EFL writing classes is consistent with SCT, as it highlights the significance of social interaction and scaffolding in cognitive growth. Translanguaging in pre-writing exercises facilitates collaborative learning, tackles language barriers, promotes comprehension, and cultivates a nurturing learning atmosphere. These findings support strategically using translanguaging to achieve the best language learning results in multilingual environments, which benefits individual and collective academic progress.

6.4. Implications of the study

This study has some implications for EFL teachers, instructors, curriculum planners, institutions, and decision-makers. First, it concludes that integrating translanguaging into pre-writing brainstorming positively affects the overall paragraph-writing performance of tertiary-level EFL learners. Moreover, the views of the EFL learners and the researcher's journals also demonstrate that translanguaging integration in the pre-writing stages of writing classes can improve cooperative learning, competency, and motivation by facilitating the natural utilization of diverse linguistic repertoires.

The most important implication of this dissertation might be proposing a practical approach to incorporating translanguaging pedagogy into English paragraph writing. Students' engagement in translanguaging-integrated pre-writing brainstorming emphasizes the efficacy of collaborative learning environments. Therefore, educators should prioritize group work and peer interactions to optimize the advantages of social learning and scaffolded support, aligning with Vygotsky's SCT. The findings indicate that translanguaging has the potential to be a powerful teaching method in EFL settings. By encouraging the utilization of a wide range of language skills, instructors can improve students' ability to write effectively and develop their cognitive abilities. In line with SCT, translanguaging also emphasizes the importance of social interaction and cultural tools in learning, promoting more dynamic and inclusive teaching methods.

The preference to utilize both L1 and the TL during pre-writing sessions implies that translanguaging can augment comprehension and foster idea formation. However, the

ongoing problems with vocabulary and grammar highlight the necessity for focused educational approaches. Incorporating multilingual materials and promoting flexible language use in the classroom might enhance students' ability to express and improve their ideas, leading to increased cognitive involvement. By incorporating translanguaging into writing exercises, students can utilize their entire range of languages, leading to enhanced linguistic abilities and less anxiety associated with language obstacles.

The beneficial influence of translanguaging on reducing stress and increasing self-confidence implies that this method has the potential to establish a more nurturing educational setting. Educators should prioritize the emotional and motivational dimensions of learning by cultivating an inclusive classroom environment that promotes the utilization of diverse languages.

Regarding the students' feedback on different and challenging assignments, language teachers/instructors should provide writing tasks that include collaborative components, supplementary vocabulary exercises, and illustrative texts. These components can facilitate language acquisition and practical application, enhancing learning engagement and effectiveness. The study also emphasizes the significance of incorporating translanguaging into educational policies and classroom activities. Therefore, institutions should promote translanguaging strategies to enhance language learning and accommodate students' diverse linguistic backgrounds.

Lastly, teachers and instructors should receive training to effectively incorporate translanguaging and multicultural methods into their teaching. Professional development programs can provide educators with the expertise and understanding necessary to establish productive, inclusive, and encouraging learning environments that amplify students' academic achievements. By integrating these implications, educators and institutions can cultivate a more efficient and inclusive learning atmosphere, enhancing EFL learners' writing performance and overall language proficiency through the deliberate implementation of translanguaging and sociocultural pedagogical methods.

6.5. Limitations of the study

Despite its potential contributions to the field, the current research has some limitations. First, the first semester scores of the control and treatment groups were used to determine their English proficiency levels due to the possible negative washback effect of international examinations. The testing unit in the school of foreign languages was

responsible for examining each exam for reliability and validity problems. It could have been preferable to compare the group's English proficiency levels using worldwide standardized assessment types. From this perspective, this could be regarded as a study limitation.

Secondly, the study was conducted with 41 EFL learners studying English in their preparatory year at a state university in Adana, Türkiye, in the spring term of the 2021-2022 academic year. Although there were many more students at that time, the study was conducted with 41 participants since it was the number of volunteers enrolled in the instructor's classes. Seven students, however, in those classes did not prefer participating in the study. Investigating the research problem with more participants in the current and other tertiary contexts could have been better, but not being able to generalize the findings might be another limitation.

Thirdly, translanguaging was embedded in classes for the pre-writing brainstorming activities in writing classes, though the classes were reading and writing classes. However, this study could have focused on the potential effects of translanguaging on reading skills, which could be a study limitation.

In the study, only one language instructor could grade the writing tasks during the semester due to the heavy workload of the school's instructors. It might have been better to have two instructors evaluate each paragraph writing task, as in the achievement exams, which might be another limitation.

Lastly, the study approaches paragraph writing skills since this was what was expected from the students based on institutional decisions. However, addressing different genres could have been better to investigate the potential effects of translanguaging on writing skills, which could be another limitation in the current research.

6.6. Suggestions for future studies

Though some limitations, this research is valuable because it offers practical implementation of translanguaging and incorporates students' perspectives into the researcher's classroom observations. This study provides opportunities for future research to explore the effects of translanguaging on various language skills in different contexts. Therefore, future research should

- consider carrying out longitudinal studies to examine the long-term impact of translanguaging on the writing performance of EFL learners. This research could offer a more profound understanding of how continuous use of translanguaging affects language development over a period of time.
- investigate the utilization of translanguaging in various educational settings and at diverse academic levels, including primary, secondary, and tertiary education. This can help assess the adaptability and efficacy of translanguaging pedagogy in diverse learning settings.
- examine the impact of technology on translanguaging practices, focusing on digital tools and online platforms.
- explore the influence of translanguaging on specific writing tasks, such as narrative, expository, and argumentative writing to identify which type(s) benefits translanguaging most.
- investigate the cultural and social factors that influence the use of translanguaging in classrooms with multilingual students. Gaining insight into the impact of cultural backgrounds on translanguaging procedures can offer a more nuanced perspective on its efficacy and potential areas for enhancement.
- address teacher training programs mentioning that translanguaging procedures can assist in developing professional development, providing instructors with the necessary skills and knowledge.

By addressing these specific areas, future research can contribute to a more thorough comprehension of translanguaging and its capacity to improve EFL teaching in diverse and dynamic learning settings.

REFERENCES

- Adamson, J. L., & Coulson, D. (2015). Translanguaging in English academic writing preparation. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning*, 10(1), 24-37. <https://doi.org/10.1080/22040552.2015.1084674>
- Adamson, J. L., & Fujimoto-Adamson, N. (2021). Translanguaging in EMI in Japanese tertiary context: Pedagogical challenges and opportunities. In A. B. Paulsrud, Z. Tian & J. Toth (Eds.), *English-medium instruction and translanguaging* (pp. 15-28). Multilingual Matters.
- Adler, A. P., & Adler, P. (1994). Observational techniques. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 377–392). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ahmad, B. H., & Jusoff, K. (2009). Teachers' code-switching in classroom instructions for low English proficient learners. *English Language Teaching*, 2(2), 49-55. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v2n2p49>
- Ahmed, H. P. (2019). Major writing challenges experienced by EFL learners in Soran university. *Journal of University of Human Development*, 5(3), 120-126. <http://dx.doi.org/10.21928/juhd.v5n3y2019.pp120-126>
- Aizawa, I., Rose, H., McKinley, J., & Thomson, G. (2023). A comparison of content learning outcomes between Japanese and English medium instruction. *Language and Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2023.2238688>
- Akbari, R. (2008). Transforming lives: introducing critical pedagogy into ELT classrooms. *ELT Journal*, 62(3), 276-283.
- Akın, Ş. (2016). *Attitudes of L2 English speakers in Turkey towards Turkish English code-switching in university and business setting*. (Master's Thesis, Bahçeşehir University, İstanbul, Türkiye). Available from CoHE Thesis Center (No:448430).
- Ali, A. (2021). Understanding the role of translanguaging in L2 acquisition: Applying Cummins' CUP Model. *Journal of Cultura and Lingua*, 2(1), 15-25. <https://doi.org/10.37301/culingua.v2i1.10>
- Allard, C. E. (2017). Re-examining teacher translanguaging: An ecological perspective. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 40(2), 116-130. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2017.1306597>
- Alptekin, C. (2002). Towards intercultural communicative competence in ELT. *ELT*

- Journal*, 56(1), 57-64. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/56.1.57>
- Anderson, J. (2017). Reimagining English language learners from a translingual perspective. *ELT Journal*, 72(1), 26-37. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccx029>
- Ataş, U. (2023). Translanguaging in English-medium instruction (EMI): Examining English literature content classroom. *Turkish Journal of Education*, 12(3), 142-157. <https://doi.org/10.19128/turje.1210174>
- Auerbach, E. (1993). Reexamining English only in the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27, 9-32. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586949>
- Aydın, F., & Karakaş, A. (2021). Turkish EFL teachers' awareness about ELF and the underlying ideologies behind their (non)-awareness. *The Reading Matrix*, 21(1).
- Baker, C. (2001). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (3rd ed.). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Baker, C. (2004). Biliteracy and transliteracy in Wales: Language planning and the Welsh. In N. Hornberger (Ed.), *Continua of biliteracy: An ecological framework for educational policy, research and practice in multilingual settings* (pp. 71-90). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th ed). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Barnes, D. (1992). *From communication to curriculum*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook-Heinemann.
- Barnes, D. (2008). Exploratory talk for learning. In N. Mercer & S. Hodgkinson (Eds.), *Exploring talk in school* (pp. 1-16). London, UK: SAGE
- Barnes, D. (2010). Why talk is important. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 9(2), 7-10.
- Barnes, D., Britton, J., & Torbe, M. (1990). *Language, the learner and the school*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook Publishers.
- Bayyurt, Y., & Sifakis, N. (2015). ELF-aware in-service teacher education: A transformative perspective. In H. Bowles & A. Cogo (Eds.), *International perspectives on teaching English as a lingua franca* (pp. 117-135). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Beacco, J. C., Byram, M., Cavalli, M., Coste, D., Cuenat, M. E., Goullier, F., & Panthier, J. (2016). *Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education*. Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe Publishing.

- Becker, A. L. (1988). Language in particular: A lecture. In D. Tannen, (Ed.) *Linguistics in context*. (pp. 17–35). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Biricik Deniz, E., Kemaloğlu-Er, E., & Özkan, Y. (2020). ELF-aware pre-service teacher education: practices and perspectives. *ELT Journal*, 74(4), 453-462. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccaa040>
- Blackledge, A., & Creese, A. (2010). *Multilingualism: A critical perspective*. London, England: Continuum.
- Blackledge, A., & Creese, A. (2017). Translanguaging and the body. *International Journal of Multilingualism* 14, 250–68.
- Bobb-Wolff, L. (1996). Brainstorming to autonomy. *English Teaching Forum*, 34, 3-4.
- Bonacina-Pugh, F., Da Costa Cabral, I. & Huang, J. (2021). A state-of-the-art review of translanguaging in education. *Language Teaching*, 54(4), 439-471. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444821000173>
- Bonner, A., & Tolhurst, G. (2002). Insider-outsider perspectives of participant observation. *Nurse Researcher*, 9(4), 7-19. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7748/nr2002.07.9.4.7.c6194>
- Boyatzis, E. R. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: thematic analysis and code development*. Sage Publications.
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.
- Brooks, N. (1960). *Language and language learning: Theory and practice*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.
- Brooks, N. (1964). *Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice*. Harcourt, Brace & World.
- Broughton, G., Brumfit, C., Flavell, R., Hill, P., & Pincas, A. (1980). *Teaching English as a Foreign Language* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social Research Methods* (4th Ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Burgess, G. R. (Ed.). (1989). *The Ethics of Educational Research*. Lewes: Falmer Press.
- Burke, B. M., & Holbrook, H. R. (2018). Empowering students as multilingual writers with writer's workshop. In A. J. Foss (Ed.), *The Power of Language, the Power of People: Celebrating 50 Years*, (pp. 55-92). Ashland, VA: Robert M. Terry.
- Burton, J. & Rajendram, S. (2019). Translanguaging-as-resource: University ESL instructors' language orientations and attitudes toward translanguaging. *TESL Canada Journal*, 36(1), 21-47. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v36i1.1301>

- Butler, G. Y. (2012). Bilingualism/multilingualism and second-language acquisition. In T. K. Bhatia & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The Handbook of Bilingualism and Multilingualism* (2nd ed.) (pp. 26-53). UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Byrd, D. R. (2011). Putting the writing process into action in the L2 classroom: Pre-writing techniques that work. *The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 2011(1), 64-77.
- Caldas, B. (2019). To switch or not to switch: Bilingual pre-service teachers and translanguageing in teaching and learning. *TESOL Journal*, 10, 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.485>
- Canagarajah, A. (2002). Multilingual writers and the academic community: Towards a critical relationship. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1, 29-44. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585\(02\)00007-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(02)00007-3)
- Canagarajah, S. (2006). Toward a writing pedagogy of shuttling between languages: Learning from multilingual writers. *College English*, 68(6), 589–604. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/25472177>
- Canagarajah, S. (2009). Multilingual strategies of negotiating English: From conversation to writing. *Journal of Advanced Composition*, 29(1), 17-48.
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguageing. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 401–417. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01207.x>
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1-47.
- Carstens, A. (2016). Translanguageing as a vehicle for L2 acquisition and L1 development: students' perceptions. *Language Matters*, 47(2), 203-222.
- Celic, C., & Seltzer, K. (2013). *Translanguageing: A CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators*. New York: CUNY-NYSIEB.
- Cenoz, J. (2013). Defining Multilingualism. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 33, 3–18. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S026719051300007X>
- Cenoz, J. (2017). Translanguageing in school context, International perspectives: An introduction. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, 16, 193-198. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2017.1327816>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2017). Minority languages and sustainable translanguageing: Threat or opportunity? *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 38(10), 901-912. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2017.1284855>

- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2020). Pedagogical translanguaging: An introduction. *System*, 92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102269>
- Cenoz J., & Gorter D. (29 Jan. 2021). *Pedagogical translanguaging in multilingual Education* [Video]. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GegKR7u6SYI&ab_channel=PlurilingualLab on 25.08.2024.
- Chabert, A. & Agost, R. (2020). Communicative language teaching: is there a place for L1 in L2 learning? *European Journal of Language Policy*, 12(1), 55–83. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3828/ejlp.2020.4>
- Chaiklin, S. (2003). The zone of proximal development in Vygotsky's analysis of learning and instruction. In A. Kozulin, B. Gindis, S. V. Ageyev & M. S. Miller (Eds.), *Vygotsky's education theory in cultural context* (pp. 39-64). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Chapelle, A. C. (2010). The spread of computer-assisted language learning. *Language Teaching*, 43(1), 66-74. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444809005850>
- Chumak-Horbatsch, R. (2012). *Linguistically appropriate practice: A guide for working with young immigrant children*. Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press.
- Clark, A. J. (1994). Objectivity, subjectivity, and relativism in educational research. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 24(1), 81-94. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1180147>
- Close, N. (2002). *Listening to children: Talking with children about difficult issues*. London, UK: Allyn and Bacon.
- Cogo, A. (2016). Conceptualizing ELF as a translanguaging phenomenon: Covert and overt resources in a transnational workplace. *Waseda Working papers in ELF*, 5, 61-77.
- Cogo, A. (2021). ELF and translanguaging, covert and overt resources in a transnational workplace. In K. Murata (Ed.), *ELF Research Methods and Approaches to Data and Analyses* (pp. 38-54). Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Cohen, L., & Manion, L. (1980). *Research Methods in Education*. London: Groom Helm Ltd.
- Cohen, L. V., & Cowen, E. J. (2010). *Literacy for children in an informational age: Teaching reading, writing and thinking*. Belmont, CA: Thomson.
- Conteh, J. (2018). Translanguaging. *ELT Journal*, 72(4), 445–447. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccy034>

- Cook, V. (1991). The poverty of the stimulus argument and multicompetence. *Second Language Research*, 7, 103–117. <https://doi.org/10.1177/026765839100700203>
- Cook, V. (1995). Multi-competence and learning of many languages. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 8(2), 93–98. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908319509525193>
- Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57, 402–423. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.57.3.402>
- Cook, V. (2002). Background to the L2 user. In V. Cook (Ed.), *Portraits of the L2 user* (pp. 1-28). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Cook, V. (2007). The goals of ELT: Reproducing native-speakers or promoting multicompetence among second language users? In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.), *International Handbook of English Language Education* (Vol. 1). (pp. 237–248). Norwell: Springer.
- Costa, F. (2012). Focus on form in ICLHE lectures in Italy: Evidence from English-medium science lectures by native speakers of Italian. *AILA Review*, 25, 30-47. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/aila.25.03cos>
- Coste, D., Moore, D., & Zarate, G. (2009). *Plurilingual and pluricultural competence: Studies towards a Common European Framework of Reference for language learning and teaching*. Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe Publishing.
- Copland, F. (2018). Observation and Fieldnotes. In: Phakiti, A., De Costa, P., Plonsky, L., Starfield, S. (Eds), *The Palgrave Handbook of Applied Linguistics Research Methodology* (pp. 249-268). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Coulmas, F. (2019). *An introduction to multilingualism: Language in a changing world*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Coultas, V. (2012). Classroom talk: Are we listening to teachers' voices? *English in Education*, 46(2), 175-189.
- Creese, A. (2011). Making local practices globally relevant in researching multilingual education. In F. M. Hult & K. A. King (Eds.), *Educational linguistics in practice: Applying the local globally and the global locally* (pp. 41–55). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(1), 103-115. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x>
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2011). Ideologies and interactions in multilingual education: What can an ecological approach tell us about bilingual pedagogy? In C.

- He'lot & M. O'Laoire (Eds.), *Language policy for the multilingual classroom* (pp. 3–21). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2015). Translanguaging in educational settings. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 35, 20-35. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000233>
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th edition). Boston: Pearson.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (4th edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Cuesta, H. (2013). *Practical data analysis*. Birmingham, UK: Packt Publishing.
- Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In California State Department of Education (Eds.), *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework* (pp. 3-41). Los Angeles, CA: California State Department of Education.
- Cummins, J. (1984). Wanted: A theoretical framework for relating language proficiency to academic achievement among bilingual learners. In C. Rivera (Ed.). *Language Proficiency and Academic Achievement*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Cummins, J. (2005). A proposal for action: Strategies for recognizing heritage language competence as a learning resource within the mainstream classroom. *Modern Language Journal*, 89, 585-592.
- Cummins, J. (2007). Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 10(2), 221-240.
- Cummins, J. (2009). Fundamental psycholinguistic and sociological principles underlying educational success for linguistic minority students. In T. Skutnabb-Kangas, R. Phillipson, A. K. Mohanty & M. Panda (Eds.), *Social justice through multilingual education* (pp. 19-35). Clevedon, England: Channel View Publications.
- Cummins, J. (2021). Translanguaging: A critical analysis of theoretical claims. In P. Juvonen & M. Källkvist (Eds.) *Pedagogical Translanguaging: Theoretical, Methodological and Empirical Perspectives* (pp. 7-36). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Cummins, J., & Persad, R. (2014). Teaching through a multilingual lens: The evolution of EAL policy and practice in Canada. *Education Matters*, 2(1), 3-40.
- Curle, S., Jablonkai, R., Mittelmeier, J., Sahan, K., & Veitch, A. (2020). *Part 1: Literature review*. In N. Galloway (Ed.), *English in higher education- English medium*. British

- Council. Report no: 978-0-86355-977-8. Retrieved from <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/publications/case-studies-insights-and-research/english-higher-education-english-medium> on 06.05.2024.
- Dafouz, E. (2014). Integrating content and language in European higher education: An overview of recurrent research concerns and pending issues. In A. Psaltou-Joycey, E. Agathopoulou & M. Mattheoudakis (Eds.), *Cross-curricular approaches to language education* (pp. 289–304). Tyne, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Dafouz, E., Hüttner, J., & Smit, U. (2016). University teachers' beliefs of language and integration in English- medium education in multilingual settings. In T. Nikula, E. Dafouz, P. Moore & U. Smit (Eds.), *Conceptualising Integration in CLIL and Multilingual Education* (pp. 123–143). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Daniel, M. S., Jimenez, R. T., & Pray, L. (2019). Scaffolding to make translanguaging a classroom norm. *TESOL Journal*, 10(1). <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.361>
- Daniel, M. S., & Pacheco, B. M. (2015). Translanguaging practices and perspectives of four multilingual teens. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 59(6), 653–663. <https://doi-org.proxy.lnu.se/10.1002/jaal.500>
- Davis, A. K. (1995). Qualitative theory and methods in applied linguistics research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 427-453. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588070>
- Darayseh, A. (2003). *The effect of a proposed program based on semantic mapping and brainstorming strategies on developing the English writing ability and attitudes of the first scientific secondary students*. (Doctoral Thesis, Amman Arab University, Amman, Jordan). Retrieved from <https://platform.almanhal.com/Reader/Thesis/62751> on 20.08.2024.
- Dearden, J. (2014). English as a medium of instruction: A growing global phenomenon. British Council. Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.es/sites/default/files/british_council_english_as_a_medium_of_instruction.pdf on 26.04.2024.
- Deignan, T., & Morton, T. (2022). The challenges of English medium instruction for subject lectures: a shared viewpoint. *ELT Journal*, 76(2), 208-217. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccab084>
- DeLyser, D. (2001). Do you really live here? Thoughts on insider research. *Geographical Review*, 91(1), 441-453.
- Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process*. New York, USA: D.C. Heath and Company.

- Dobinson, T., Dryden, S., Dovchin, S., Gong, Q., & Mercieca, P. (2024). Translanguaging and “English only” at universities. *TESOL Quarterly*, 58(1), 307-333. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.3232>
- Doiz, A., & Lasagabaster, D. (2017). Teachers’ beliefs about translanguaging practices. In C. M. Mazak & K. S. Carroll (Eds.), *Translanguaging in Higher Education: Beyond Monolingual Ideologies* (pp. 157-166). Tonawanda, NY: Multilingual Matters.
- Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 33-56). Norwood, USA: Ablex.
- Donato, R. (2000). Sociocultural contributions to understanding the foreign and second language classroom. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 27-52). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics; Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Methodologies*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Duarte, J. (2019). Translanguaging in mainstream education: A sociocultural approach. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(2), 150-164. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1231774>
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Escobar, C. F., & Dillard-Paltrineri, E. (2015). Professors’ and students’ conflicting beliefs about translanguaging in the EFL classroom: Dismantling the monolingual bias. *Revista De Linguas Modernas*, 23, 301-328.
- Espinosa, C., Ascenzi-Moreno, L. & Vogel, S. (2016). *A translanguaging pedagogy for writing: A CUNY-NYSIEB guide for educators*. New York, usa: CUNY-NYSIEB, The Graduate Center.
- Fang, F., & Baker, W. (2018). A more inclusive mind towards the world: English language teaching and study abroad in China from intercultural citizenship and English as a lingua franca perspectives. *Language Teaching Research*, 22(5), 608–624.
- Fang, F., & Hu, G. (2022). English medium instruction, identity construction and negotiation of Teochew-speaking learners of English. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2022.2051711>

- Fang, F., & Liu, Y. (2020). 'Using all English is not always meaningful': Stakeholders' perspectives on the use of and attitudes towards translanguaging at a Chinese university. *Lingua*, 247. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2020.102959>
- Fernández Dobao, A. (2014). Vocabulary learning in collaborative tasks: A comparison of pair and small group work. *Language Teaching Research*, 18(4), 497-520. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168813519730>
- Fernandez, M., Wegerif, R., Mercer, N., & Rojas-Drummond, S. (2001). Reconceptualizing "scaffolding" and the zone of proximal development in the context of symmetrical collaborative learning. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, 36(2), 40-55.
- Fitze, M. (2008). Assessing the benefit of pre-writing conferences on drafts. In F. Zhang & B. Barber (Eds.), *Handbook of research on computer-enhanced language acquisition and learning* (pp. 20 – 35). IGI Global.
- Fitze, M., & Glasgow, R. (2009). Comparing the effect of collaborative and non-collaborative pre-writing activities on first drafts. *Journal of Research in Education*, 19(1), 67-83.
- Flick, U. (2017). *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Data Collection*. London: Sage.
- Flores, N. (2020). From academic language to language architecture: Challenging raciolinguistic ideologies in research and practice. *Theory into Practice*, 59(1), 22-31. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2019.1665411>
- Flores, N., & Garcia, O. (2013). Linguistic third spaces in education: Teachers' translanguaging across the bilingual continuum. In D. Little, C. Leung, & P. Van Avermaet (Eds.), *Managing diversity in education: Languages, policies, pedagogies* (pp. 243-256). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Fu, D. (2003). *An island of English. Teaching ESL in Chinatown*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Gaciu, N. (2021). *Understanding quantitative data in educational research*. London: Sage.
- Galante, A. (2020a). Pedagogical translanguaging in a multilingual English program in Canada: Student and teacher perspectives of challenges. *System*, 92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102274>
- Galante, A. (2020b). Translanguaging for vocabulary development: A mixed-methods study with international learners in a Canadian English for academic purposes program. In Z. Tian, L. Aghai, P. Sayer, & J. L. Schissel (Eds.), *Envisioning TESOL*

- through a translanguaging lens: Global perspectives* (pp. 293-328). Switzerland: Springer.
- Galloway, N. (2013). Global Englishes and English Language Teaching (ELT)- Bridging the gap between theory and practice in a Japanese context. *System*, 41(3), 786–803.
- Galloway, N., & Rose, H. (2015). *Introducing Global Englishes*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Gambier, Y., & Doorslaer, L. V. (2009). *The metalanguage of translation*. Amsterdam /Philadelphia: Benjamins Publishing Company.
- García, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- García, O. (2012). Bilingual community education: Beyond heritage language education and bilingual education in New York. In O. García, Z. Zakharia, & B. Otcu (eds.), *Bilingual community education and multilingualism: Beyond heritage languages in a global city* (pp.3-42) Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- García, O. (2013). Theorising translanguaging for educators. In C. Celic & O. García, *Translanguaging: A CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators* (pp. 1-6). New York: CUNY-NYSIEB The Graduate Center.
- Garcia, O. & Flores, N. (2014). Multilingualism and Common Core State Standards in the United States. In S. May (Ed.), *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and Bilingual Education* (pp. 147-166). New York: Routledge
- García, O., Johnson, S., & Seltzer, K. (2017). *The translanguaging classroom. Leveraging student bilingualism for learning*. Philadelphia, PA: Caslon.
- García, O., & Kano, N. (2014). Translanguaging as process and pedagogy: Developing the English writing of Japanese students in the US. In J. Conteh & G. Meier (Eds.), *The Multilingual Turn in Languages Education* (pp. 258–277). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- García, O., & Kleifgen, J. (2019). *Educating emergent bilinguals: Policies, programs, and practices for English Language Learners*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- García, O., & Kleyn, T. (2016). *Translanguaging with multilingual students*. New York, USA: Routledge.
- García, O., & Leiva, C. (2014). Theorizing and enacting translanguaging for social justice. In A. Blackledge & A. Creese (Eds.), *Heteroglossia as Practice and Pedagogy* (pp. 199–216). New York: Springer.

- García, O., & Lin, A. M. Y. (2017). Translanguaging in bilingual education. In O. García, A. M. Y. Lin, & S. May (Eds.), *Bilingual and Multilingual Education* (pp. 117-130). Springer.
- García, O., & Sylvan, C. E. (2011). Pedagogies and practices in multilingual classrooms: singularities in pluralities. *Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 385-400.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014a). *Translanguaging*. New York, USA: Palgrave MacMillan.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014b). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- García, O., Zakharia, Z., & Otcu, B. (2012). Bilingual community education: Beyond heritage language education and bilingual education in New York. In O. García, Z. Zakharia, & B. Otcu (Eds.), *Bilingual community education and multilingualism: Beyond heritage languages in a global city* (pp. 3-42). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters, pp.3-42.
- Gardner, A., & Johnson, D. (1997). *Teaching personal experience narrative in the elementary and beyond*. Flagstaff, AZ: Northern Arizona Writing Project Press.
- Gass, S. & Selinker, L. (1983). *Language transfer in language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2001). *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gillham, B. (2008). *Developing a questionnaire*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Goodman, B., & Tastanbek, S. (2021). Making the shift from a codeswitching to a translanguaging lens in English language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 55(1), 29-53. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.571>
- Grbich, C. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis: An introduction* (2nd edition). London, UK: Sage.
- Greg, G., MacQueen, K. M., & Namey, E. E. (2012). *Applied thematic analysis*. California: Sage.
- Gregory, I. (2003). *Ethics in research*. London, UK: Continuum.
- Grosjean, F. (1985). The bilingual as a competent but specific speaker-hearer. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 6(6), 467-477.
- Grosjean, F. (1989). Neurolinguists, beware! The bilingual is not two monolinguals in one person. *Brain and Language*, 36, 3-15. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0093-934X\(89\)90048-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0093-934X(89)90048-5)

- Grosjean, F. (1992). Another view of bilingualism. *Cognitive Processing in Bilinguals*, 83, 51–62. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4115\(08\)61487-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4115(08)61487-9)
- Grosjean, F. (1997). The bilingual individual. *Interpreting*, 2(1/2), 163–187. <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.2.1-2.07gro>
- Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. *Educational Resources Information Center Annual Review Paper*, 29, 75-91.
- Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, S. Y. (1989). What is this constructivist paradigm anyway? In E. G. Guba & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds), *Fourth Generation Evaluation* (pp. 79-116). California: Sage.
- Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, S. Y. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research*, 3rd Ed. (pp. 105-117). California: Sage.
- Guerrero, M., & Villamil, O. (2000). Activating the ZPD: Mutual scaffolding in L2 peer revision. *The Modern Language Journal*, 84, 51-68.
- Gutiérrez, D. K. (2008). Developing a sociocritical literacy in the third space. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 43(2), 148–164.
- Hall, G., & Cook, G. (2012). Own-language use in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching*, 45(3), 271-308.
- Hamid, M. O., & Honan, E. (2012). Communicative English in the primary classroom: Implications for English-in-Education policy and practice in Bangladesh. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 25(2), 139-156. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2012.678854>
- Hammond, J., & Gibbons, P. (2001). What is scaffolding? In J. Hammond (Ed.), *Scaffolding: Teaching and learning in language and literacy education* (pp. 1-14). Newtown, New South Wales: Primary English Teaching Association.
- Hanson, J. (2013). Moving out of the monolingual comfort zone and into the multilingual world: An exercise for the writing classroom. In A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Literacy as translingual practice* (pp. 207–214). New York: Routledge.
- Hariri, A. K. (2015). Using L1 in teaching English to advanced students. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, 4(6). <http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.4n.6p.220>
- Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching* (4th Ed.). USA: Pearson Education Limited.

- Hasan, K., & Akhand, M. (2010). Approaches to writing in EFL/ESL context: Balancing product and process in writing class at tertiary level. *Journal of NELTA*, 15(1-2), 77-88.
- Heller, M. (1999). *Linguistic minorities and modernity: A sociolinguistic ethnography*. London: Longman.
- Herdina, P., & Jessner, U. (2002). *A dynamic model of multilingualism: Changing the psycholinguistic perspective*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Hesson, S., Seltzer, K. & Woodley, H.H. (2014). *Translanguaging in curriculum and instruction: a CUNNY-NYSIEB guide for educators*. New York: CUNYNYIEB.
- Hoffman, D. L., Wolsey, J., Andrews, F. J., & Clark, D. M. (2017). Translanguaging supports reading with deaf adult bilinguals: A qualitative approach. *The Qualitative Report*, 22(7), 1925–1944.
- Holliday, A. (2006). Native-speakerism. *ELT Journal*, 60(4), 385-387.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccl030>
- Hornberger, H. N., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging in today's classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *Theory into Practice*, 51(4), 239-247.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/23362829>
- Horner, B., Lu, M. Z., Royster, J. J., & Trimbur, J. (2011). Language difference in writing: Toward a translingual approach. *College English*, 73(3), 303–321.
- Howatt, A. P. R., & Smith, R. (2014). The history of teaching English as a foreign language, from a British and European perspective. *Language and History*, 57(1).
<https://doi.org/10.1179/1759753614Z.00000000028>
- Hu, G. (2009). The craze for English-medium education in China: Driving forces and looming consequences. *English Today*, 25(4), 47–54.
- Hyland, K. (2003). *Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Illman, V. & Pietila, P. (2018). Multilingualism as a resource in the foreign language classroom. *ELT Journal*, 72(3), 237-248.
- Ishikawa, T. (2021). Translanguaging and English-Within-Multilingualism in the Japanese EMI Context. In W. Tsou & W. Baker (Eds.), *English-medium instruction translanguaging practices in Asia: Theories, framework and implementation in higher education* (pp. 39-57). Cham: Springer.
- İlhan, B. (2022). *The effects of translanguaging pedagogy on listening and reading comprehension and learners' perspectives on translanguaging in an EFL context*.

- (Doctoral Thesis, Çukurova University, Adana, Türkiye). Available from CoHE Thesis Center (No:768428).
- İnci-Kavak, V. (2016). *A conversation analytic approach to the functions of learner code-switching in a university level EFL classroom in Turkey*. (Master's Thesis, Sıtkı Koçman University, Muğla, Türkiye). Available from CoHE Thesis Center (No:428418).
- İnci-Kavak, V., & Kırkgöz, Y. (2022). Attitudes towards translanguaging practices: A comparative study of literature and food engineering classes. *Sustainable Multilingualism*, 21(1), 105–142. <https://doi.org/10.2478/sm-2022-0015>
- James, C. (2022). *All English and no code-switching: Athematic analysis of writing behaviours among EMI master's students*. (Master's Thesis, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden). Retrieved from <https://www.diva-portal.org/smash/record.jsf?pid=diva2%3A1697643&dswid=-1556> on 27.08.2024.
- Jayasri, K. (2018). Teaching and learning of English as a foreign language. *Language in India*, 18(2), 187-192.
- Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a lingua franca: Attitudes and identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jenkins, J. (2009). *World Englishes* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge
- Jenkins, J. (2015). Repositioning English and multilingualism in English as a Lingua Franca. *Englishes in Practice*, 2(3), 49–85. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v6n10p130>
- Jenkins, J., Cogo, A., & Dewey, M. (2011). Review of developments in research into English as a lingua franca. *Language Teaching*, 44(3), 281-315. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444811000115>
- Jenkins, J., & Mauranen, A. (2019). *Linguistic diversity on the EMI campus*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Juvonen, P. & Källkvist, M. (2021). *Pedagogical Translanguaging: Theoretical, Methodological and Empirical Perspectives*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org.proxy.lnu.se/10.21832/9781788927383>
- Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the Outer Circle. In R. Quirk & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the world: Teaching and learning the language and literatures* (pp.11-30). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Kalan, A. (2022). Negotiating writing identities across languages: Translanguaging as enrichment of semiotic trajectories. *TESL Canada Journal*, 38(2), 63-87. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v38i2.1357>
- Kano, N. (2012). *Translanguaging as a process and a pedagogical tool for Japanese students in an English writing course in New York* (Doctoral Thesis, Columbia University, New York, USA). Retrieved from <https://www.proquest.com/openview/9d8cce8c394683fcca9710120bb42d59/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=18750&diss=y> on 25.08.2024.
- Karabulut, A. (2019). *Translanguaging as a pedagogical tool for Turkish EFL students in writing classes*. (Doctoral Thesis, Bahçeşehir University, İstanbul, Türkiye). Available from CoHE Thesis Center (No:569705).
- Karakaş, A. (2016). Turkish lecturers' views on the place of mother tongue in the teaching of content courses through English medium. *Asian Englishes*, 18(3), 242–257. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13488678.2016.1229831>
- Karakaş, A. (2023). Translanguaging in content-based EMI classes through the lens of Turkish students: Self-reported practices, functions and orientations. *Linguistics and Education*, 77. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2023.101221>
- Kaufhold, K. (2018). Creating translanguaging space in students' academic writing practices. *Linguistics and Education*, 45, 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2018.02.001>
- Ke, C. I., & Lin, S. (2017). A Translanguaging Approach to TESOL in Taiwan. *English Teaching & Learning*, 41(1), 33-61. <http://dx.doi.org/10.6330/ETL.2017.41.1.02>
- Keeves, J. P. (1997). *Educational research methodology and measurement*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kemaloğlu-Er, E. (2021). Explicit, implicit or both? Novel ways of ELF integration into Global Englishes language teaching. In A. F. Selvi & B. Yazan (Eds.), *Language Teacher Education for Global Englishes – A practical resource book* (pp. 94-99). Routledge.
- Kemaloğlu-Er, E., & Bayyurt, Y. (2018). ELF-aware pre-service teacher education: Teaching practices and reflections from Turkey. In L. Cavaleiro (Ed.), *Preparing English language teachers for today's globalized world* (47-63). Lisbon: Humus & University of Lisbon Centre for English Studies.
- Kemaloğlu-Er, E., & Bayyurt, Y. (2019a). ELF-awareness in teaching and teacher education: Explicit and implicit ways of integrating ELF into the English language

- classroom. In N. C. Sifakis & N. Tsantila (Eds.), *English as a Lingua Franca for EFL contexts* (147-163). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Kemaloğlu-Er, E., & Bayyurt, Y. (2019b). Project-based and ELF-aware pre-service teacher education in Turkey: Sample cases of discovery, creativity, interaction and multicultural diversity. In A. Gras-Velazquez (Ed.), *Project-based learning in second language acquisition: Building communities of practice in higher education* (82-97). London: Routledge.
- Kemaloğlu-Er, E., & Biricik Deniz, E. (2020). Defining ELF as a sociolinguistic concept and a pedagogical perspective. In Y. Bektaş Çetinkaya (Ed.), *Intercultural competence in ELT – Raising awareness in classrooms* (pp. 21-37). Bristol: Peter Lang. <https://doi.org/10.3726/b17543>
- Kemaloğlu-Er, E., Biricik Deniz, E., & Özkan, Y. (2024). Integrating ELF-aware pedagogy into English classes: Practical ideas and hands-on practices. In E. Illes & Y. Bayyurt (Eds.), *English as a Lingua Franca in the language classroom: Applying theory to ELT practice* (pp. 89-108). Routledge.
- Kemper, A. E., Stringfield, S. & Teddlie, C. (2003). Mixed methods sampling strategies in social science research. In A. Tashakkori and C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp.273-296). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Kırkgöz, Y., Morán P., Karakaş, A., & İnci-Kavak, V. (2021). Classroom discourse in EMI courses in Turkey: On the dynamics of translanguaging practices. *System*, 113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2023.102982>
- Kırkgöz, Y., İnci-Kavak, V., Karakas, A., & Moran, S. (2023). Translanguaging practices in Turkish EMI classrooms: Commonalities and differences across two academic disciplines. *System*, 113, 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2023.102982>
- Kibler, A. (2010). Writing through two languages: First language expertise in a language minority classroom. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19, 121– 142.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2014). The Language(s) of HE: EMI and/or ELF and/or Multilingualism. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics* 1(1), 4–15.
- Kirsch, C. (2020). Opening minds to translanguaging pedagogies. *System*, 92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102271>
- Kivunja, C., & Kuyini, A. B. (2017). Understanding and applying research paradigms in educational contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6, 26-41. <https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v6n5p26>

- Kleyn, T., & García, O. (2019). Translanguaging as an act of transformation: Restructuring teaching and learning for emergent bilingual students. In L. de Oliveira (Ed.), *The Handbook of TESOL in K-12* (pp. 69-82). Malden, MA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Kohi, M. & Suvarna Lakshmi, G. (2020). Use of L1 in ESL/EFL Classroom: Multinational Teachers' Perceptions and Attitudes. *International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies*, 8(3), 88-96.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. London: Longman.
- Krashen, S. (1988). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Great Britain: Prentice-Hall.
- Krefting, L. (1991). Rigor in qualitative research: The assessment of trustworthiness. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 45, 214-222.
- Kuhn, S. T. (1962). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. (1st Ed). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Küçük, C. (2018). *Investigating translanguaging as a teaching and learning practice in an English medium higher education context in Turkey*. (Master's Thesis: Çukurova University, Adana, Türkiye). Available from CoHE Thesis Center (No:531272).
- Küçükali, E. (2021). *Planned and spontaneous translanguaging pedagogies by bilingual and multilingual teachers with L2 and L3/ L3+ learners*. (Doctoral Thesis: Yeditepe University, Istanbul, Türkiye). Available from CoHE Thesis Center (No:672217)
- Kwihangana, F. (2021). Enhancing EFL students' participation through translanguaging. *ELT Journal*, 75(1), 87-96. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccaa058>
- Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures: Applied linguistics for language teachers*. The USA: University of Michigan Press.
- Lantolf, J. P. (2000). *Socio-cultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Appel, G. (1994). Theoretical framework: An introduction to Vygotskian approaches to second language research. In J. P. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian Approaches to Second Language Research* (pp. 1-32). New Jersey, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

- Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, E. M. (2014). *Sociocultural theory and the pedagogical imperative in L2 education: Vygotskian praxis and the research/practice divide*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, L. S. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (1997). Chaos/complexity science and second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 18, 141-65. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/18.2.141>
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2012). Complex, dynamic systems: A new transdisciplinary theme for applied linguistics. *Language Teaching*, 45(2), 202-214.
- Lee, J. W. (2016). Beyond translanguaging writing. *College English*, 79(2), 174-195.
- Leung, C., & Valdes, G. (2019). Translanguaging and the transdisciplinary framework for language teaching and learning in a multilingual world. *The Modern Language Journal*, 103(2), 348-370.
- Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation: An International Journal on Theory and Practice*, 18(7), 641-654.
- Lin, A. M. Y. (2015). Conceptualising the potential role of L1 in CLIL. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 28(1), 74-89.
- Lin, A. M. Y. (2016). *Language across the curriculum and CLIL in English as an additional language (EAL) contexts: Theory and practice*. Singapore: Springer.
- Lincoln, S. Y. & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Liu, J., & Fang, F. (2017). Perceptions, awareness and perceived effects of home culture on intercultural communication: Perspectives of university students in China. *System*, 67, 25-37.
- Lo, Y. Y. (2015). How much L1 is too much? Teachers' language use in response to students' abilities and classroom interaction in Content and Language Integrated Learning. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(3), 270-288.
- Lodico, G. M., Spaulding, D. T., & Voegtler, H. K. (2010). *Methods in educational research from theory to practice*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Lopez, A. A., Turkan, S., & Guzman-Orth, D. (2017). Conceptualising the use of translanguaging in initial content assessments for newly arrived emergent bilingual students. *ETS Research Report*, 2017(1), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ets2.12140>
- Lourenco, O. (2012). Piaget and Vygotsky: Many resemblances, and a crucial difference. *New Ideas in Psychology*, 30(3), 281-295.
- Lucas, T., & Villegas, A. M. (2013). Preparing linguistically responsive teachers: Laying the foundation in preservice teacher education. *Theory Into Practice*, 52(2), 98–109. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2013.770327>
- Macaro, E. (2018). *English medium instruction*. Oxford University Press.
- Mackey, A. & Gass, M. S. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Mahmoud, A. E., & Galante, A. (2020). Complexity theory and translanguaging as pedagogy for ESL learner empowerment. *English Language Learning Magazine CONTACT*, 46(3), 5-12.
- Makalela, L. (2015). Moving out of linguistic boxes: The effects of translanguaging strategies for multilingual classrooms. *Language and Education*, 29, 200–17.
- Manouchehry, A., Farangi, M. R., Fatemi, A. M., & Qaviketf, F. (2014). The effect of two brainstorming strategies on the improvement of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing skill. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, 6(4), 176-187.
- Marie, A. K. (2013). Coping with English as language of instruction in higher education in Rwanda. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 2(2), 1-12.
- Marshall, M. N. (1996). Sampling for qualitative research. *Oxford Journals Family Practice*, 13(6), 522-526. <https://doi.org/10.1093/fampra/13.6.522>
- Martin-Beltrán, M. (2014). “What do you want to say?” How adolescents use translanguaging to expand learning opportunities. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 8(3), 208- 230.
- Matsuda, K. P. (2014). The lure of translingual writing. *PMLA*, 129(3), 478-483.
- May, S. (2017). What the research tells us. In O. Garcia, A. M. Y. Lin & S. May. (Eds.), *Bilingual and multilingual education* (3rd Ed.) (pp. 81-100). Switzerland: Springer.
- Mazak, C. M. (2017). Introduction: Theorizing translanguaging practices in higher education. In C. Mazak & K. S. Carroll (Eds.), *Translanguaging in higher education: Beyond monolingual ideologies* (pp. 1–10). Tonawanda, NY: Multilingual Matters.

- Mbirimi-Hungwe, V. (2020). An insight into South African multilingual students' perceptions about using translanguaging during group discussion. *Applied Linguistics*, 42(2), 252-268. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/amaa012>
- McCluskey, A., & Lalken, A. G. (2007). Statistics II: Central tendency and spread of data. *Continuing Education in Anaesthesia Critical Care & Pain*, 7(4), 127-130.
- Mercer, N. & Wegerif, R. (1999). Is exploratory talk productive talk? In P. Littleton & K. Light (Eds.), *Learning with computers: Analyzing productive interaction* (pp.79-115). Florence, KY: Routledge.
- Mercer, N., Wegerif, R. & Dawes, L. (1999). Children's talk and the development of reasoning in the classroom. *British Educational Research Journal*, 25(1), 95-111.
- Moody, S., Chowdhury, M., & Eslami, Z. (2019). Graduate students' perceptions of translanguaging. *English Teaching and Learning*, 43, 85-103.
- Moore, J. P. (2013). An emergent perspective on the use of the first language in the English-as-a-foreign-language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 97(1), 239-253. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/23361748>
- Moragh, J. M. (2009). It's easy to learn when you using your home language but with English you need to start learning language before you get to the concept: Bilingual concept development in an English medium university in South Africa. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 30(4), 345-359.
- Muysken, P. (2000). *Bilingual speech: A Typology of code-mixing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Myers, A. S. (2017). Instructional communication. In P. Moy (Ed.), *Oxford bibliographies of communication* (pp. 149-159). Oxford University Press.
- Neokleous, G. (2017). Closing the gap: Student attitudes toward first language use in monolingual EFL classrooms. *TESOL Journal*, 8(2), 314-341.
- Ngwaru, J. M. (2011). Transforming classroom discourse and pedagogy in rural Zimbabwe classrooms: the place of local culture and mother tongue use. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 24(3), 221-240.
- Nicolarakis, D. O., & Mitchell, T. (2023). Dynamic bilingualism to dynamic writing: Using translanguaging strategies and tools. *Languages*, 8(2). <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages8020141>
- Nkhi, E. S., & Shange, T. (2024). The impact of pedagogical translanguaging in enhancing communicative competence of university students in Lesotho. *International Journal of Language Studies*, 18(1), 29-52.

- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle, Cengage Learning.
- O'Dwyer, J., & Atlı, H. H. (2018). ESP/EAP in university programs in a non-target language community issues and challenges. In Y. Kırkgöz & K. Dikilitaş (Eds.), *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education* (pp. 291–304). Springer.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Collins, K. M. (2007). A typology of mixed methods sampling designs in social science research. *The Qualitative Report*, 12(2), 281-316. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2007.1638>
- Ortega, L. (2009). Studying writing across EFL Contexts: Looking back and moving forward. In R. Manchón (Ed.), *Writing in Foreign Language Contexts: Learning, Teaching, and Research* (pp. 232-255). Bristol, Blue Ridge Summit: Multilingual Matters.
- Ortega, L. (2019). SLA and the study of equitable multilingualism. *The Modern Language Journal*, 103, 23-38. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12525>
- Otheguy, R., García, O., & Reid, W. (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 6, 281–307. <https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2015-0014>
- Özkaynak, O. (2020). *A Structural equation model on translanguaging practices, foreign language classroom anxiety, reconceptualized L2 motivational self-system, and foreign language achievement of emergent bilinguals*. (Master's Thesis, İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University, Ankara, Türkiye). Available from CoHE Thesis Center (No:627852)
- Pallant, J. (2016). *SPSS Survival Manual A Step By Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS Program* (6th ed.). London, UK McGraw-Hill Education.
- Palfreyman, D. M., & Van der Walt, C. (2017). *Academic biliteracies: Multilingual repertoires on higher education*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Petelin, R. (2021). *How writing works: A field guide to effective writing*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Piller, I. (2017). *Linguistic Diversity and Social Justice: An Introduction to Applied Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Pinker, S. (1994). *The Language Instinct*. New York: Morrow.
- Preece, S. (2022). Developing the multilingual agenda in EMI higher educational institutions. *ELT Journal*, 76(2), 183-193. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccab087>

- Price, C. P., Jhangiani, R., Chiang, A. C., Leighton, C. D., & Cuttler, C. (2017). *Research methods in psychology*. California: The Saylor Foundation.
- Prilutskaya, M. (2021). Examining pedagogical translanguaging: A systematic review of the literature. *Languages*, 6(180). <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages6040180>
- Prilutskaya, M., & Knoph, R. (2020). Research on three L2 writing conditions: Students' perceptions and use of background languages when writing in English. *Cogent Education*, 7(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2020.1832179>
- Rajendram, S. (2019). *Translanguaging as an agentive, collaborative and socioculturally responsive pedagogy for multilingual learners*. (Doctoral Thesis, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada). Available from ProQuest (22620764).
- Rajendram, S. (2021). Translanguaging as an agentive pedagogy for multilingual learners: affordances and constraints. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 20(2), 595-622. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2021.1898619>
- Rallis, F. S., & Rossman, B. G. (2003). *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Raman, Y., & Yiğitoğlu, N. (2015). Friend or foe: English as the medium of instruction policy versus code-switching practices. *The International Journal of Research in Teacher Education*, 6(3), 1–23.
- Ramirez, A. E. V. (2019). *The effects of the integration of translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy in the EFL university classroom*. (Master's Thesis, Universidad De Cuenca, Cuenca, Ecuador). Retrieved from <https://dspace.ucuenca.edu.ec/handle/123456789/32882> on 27.08.2024.
- Ramratan, L., Grange, L., & Shawa, B. L. (2017). Ethics in educational research. In L. Ramrathan (Ed.), *Education studies for initial teacher development* (pp. 432-443). Cape Town: Juta.
- Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Richards, J., Platt, J. J., & Weber, H. (1985). *The Longman dictionary of applied linguistics*. London: Longman.
- Richards, C. J., & Rodgers, S. T. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rivera, A. J., & Mazak, C. M. (2017). Analyzing student perceptions on translanguaging: A case study of a Puerto Rican university classroom. *HOW*, 24(1), 122-138. <http://dx.doi.org/10.19183/how.24.1.312>

- Rojas-Drummond, S., Perez, V., Velez, M., Gomez, L., & Mendoza, A. (2003). Talking for reasoning among Mexican primary school children. *Learning and Instruction*, 13(6), 653–670.
- Rojas-Drummond, S., Torreblanca, O., Pedraza, H., Vélez, M., & Guzmán, K. (2013). ‘Dialogic scaffolding’: Enhancing learning and understanding in collaborative contexts. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, 2(1), 11-21.
- Rose, H., & Galloway, N. (2019). *Global Englishes for Language Teaching*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Rymes, B. R. (2010). Classroom discourse analysis: A focus on communicative repertoires. In N. Hornberger & S. McKay (eds.), *Sociolinguistics and Language Education* (pp. 528-546). Buffalo, USA: Multilingual Matters.
- Sah, K. P., & Li, G. (2020). Translanguaging or unequal languaging? Unfolding the plurilingual discourse of English medium instruction policy in Nepal’s public schools. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 25(6). <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2020.1849011>
- Sahan, K., & Rose, H. (2021). Problematising the E in EMI: translanguaging as a pedagogic alternative to English-only hegemony in university contexts. In D. Paulsrud, Z. Tian, & J. Toth (Eds.), *English-medium instruction and translanguaging* (pp. 1-14). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781788927338-005>
- Saleh, I. (2018). *Difficulties Faced by Ninth Grade EFL Students When Practicing Writing Skills: Spelling and Punctuation Marks*. (Master’s Thesis, Middle East University, Amman, Jordan). Retrieved from https://meu.edu.jo/libraryTheses/5adc58afc9a7a_1.pdf on 01.09.2024.
- Sali, P. (2014). An analysis of the teachers' use of L1 in Turkish EFL classrooms. *System*, 42, 308-318.
- Samway, D. K. (2006). *When English language learners write: connecting research to practice, K-8*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Sari, P. (2021). Students’ expository writing: A case study in paragraph writing class. *English Journal Literacy UTama*, 5(2), 374-380. <https://doi.org/10.33197/ejlutama.vol5.iss2.2021.136>
- Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: Relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of the scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigm. *English Language Teaching*, 59(9), 9-16.

- Seidlhofer, B. (2009). Common ground and different realities: World Englishes and English as a lingua franca. *World Englishes*, 28(2), 236–245.
- Seltzer, K. & Garcia, O. (2020). Broadening the view: Taking up a translanguaging pedagogy with all language-minoritized learners. In Z. Tian, L. Aghai, P. Sayer & J. L. Schissel, (Eds.), *Envisioning TESOL through a translanguaging lens: Global perspectives* (pp. 23-42). Switzerland: Springer.
- Seow, A. (2002). The writing process and process writing. In C. J. Richards & A.W. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice* (pp. 315-320). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Singh, S. (2013). Role of L1 in foreign language learning classrooms: A case study of learners of French. *Language and Language Teaching*, 2(1).
- Siregar, M., Bahri, S., & Sanjaya, D. (2014). Code switching and code mixing in Indonesia: Study in sociolinguistics. *English Language and Literature Studies*, 4(1), 77-92. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ells.v4n1p77>
- Smith, H., & Robertson, L. (2019). Sociocultural theory and translanguaging-to-learn: Proposed conceptual integration. *Language and Sociocultural Theory*, 6(9), 213-233. <https://doi.org/10.1558/lst.36955>
- Solarza, C. R., Aponte, Y. G., Leverenz, T., Becker, T. & Frias, B. (2019). *Translanguaging in dual language bilingual education: A blueprint for planning units of study*. New York: CUNY-NYSIEB.
- Stern, H. H. (1992). *Issues and options in language teaching*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Storch, N. (2005). Collaborative writing: Product, process, and students' reflections. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14, 253-173.
- Storch, N. (2008). Metatalk in a pair work activity: Level of engagement and implications for language development. *Language Awareness*, 17, 95-114.
- Sun, X. (2024). Pedagogical scaffolding in L2 teaching: An examination of an EFL summary writing lesson. *ELT Forum: Journal of English Language Teaching*, 13(2), 81-92.
- Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: The uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 251-274.
- Swain, M., Lapkin, S., Knouzi, I., Suzuki, W., & Brooks, L. (2009). Languaging: University students learn the grammatical concept of voice in French. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93, 5–29.

- Şevik, M. (2007). The place of mother tongue in foreign language classes. *Ankara University, Journal of Faculty of Educational Sciences*, 401, 99–119. https://doi.org/10.1501/Egifak_00000000167
- Tai, H. K. W., & Wei, L. Engaging students in learning and creating different translanguaging sub-spaces in Hong Kong English Medium Instruction history classrooms. *Language and Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2023.2248958>
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social & Behavioral Research*. California: Sage.
- Tastanbek, S. (2023). Translanguaging pedagogy in EAP writing: A multilingual Qazaq instructor's perspective. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 63. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2023.101075>
- Tavares, J. N. (2015). How strategic use of L1 in an L2-medium mathematics classroom facilitates L2 interaction and comprehension. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(3), 319-335. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2014.988115>
- Tian, Z., & Shepard-Carey, L. (2020). (Re)imagining translanguaging pedagogies through teacher–researcher collaboration. *TESOL Quarterly*, 54(4), 1131-1143. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781800413184>
- Tomlinson, S. (1998). English on the Internet. Online available at: <http://www.delmar.edu>
- Tran, H. T. T., Burke, R., & O'Toole, J. M. (2021). Perceived impact of EMI on students' language proficiency in Vietnamese tertiary EFL contexts. *IAFOR Journal of Education: Language Learning in Education*, 9(3).
- Tsou, W., & Baker, W. (2021). *English-medium instruction translanguaging practices in Asia: Theories, frameworks and implementation in higher education*. Singapore: Springer.
- Turnbull, M. (2001). There is a role for the L1 in second and foreign language teaching, but. *Canadian Modern Language Reviews*, 57(4), 531-540.
- Turnbull, B. (2016). Reframing foreign language learning as bilingual education: epistemological changes towards the emergent bilingual. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(8), 1041-1048. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1238866>
- Turnbull, B. (2019). Translanguaging in the planning of academic and creative writing: A case of adult Japanese EFL learners. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 42(2), 232-251.

- Unluer, S. (2012). Being an insider researcher while conducting case study research. *The Qualitative Report*, 17(58), 1-14.
- Van Viegen, S. (2020). Translanguaging for and as learning with youth from refugee backgrounds. *Australian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 3, 60–76.
- Vaus, A. D. (2001). *Research design in social research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Velasco, P., & García, O. (2014). Translanguaging and the writing of bilingual learners. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 37, 6-23.
- Villamil, O., Guerrero, M. (1996). Peer revision in the ELT classroom: Social cognitive activities, mediating strategies, and aspects of social behaviour. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 5(1), 51-75.
- Vogel, S. & García, O. (2017). Translanguaging. In G. W. Noblit (Ed.), *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education* (pp. 1-21). Oxford, UK Oxford University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Massachusetts, USA: Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Walqui, A. (2006). Scaffolding instruction for English language learners: A conceptual framework. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 9(2), 159–180. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050608668639>
- Wang, D. (2019). Translanguaging in Chinese foreign language classrooms: Students and teachers' attitudes and practices. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(2), 138-149. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1231773>
- Wang, D., & Kirkpatrick, A. (2012). Code choice in the Chinese as a foreign language classroom. *Multilingual Education*, 2(3).
- Wei, L. (2011a). Moment analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43, 1222–1235.
- Wei, L. (2011b). Multilinguality, multimodality, and multicompetence: Code- and mode-switching by minority ethnic children in complementary schools. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95, 370–384.
- Wei, L. (2017). Translanguaging as a theory of language: Some conceptual and methodological considerations [Video]. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?reload=9&v=j8xT1XKZ14c&ab_channel=OUH.KChannel on 25.08.2024

- Wei, L. (2022). Translanguaging as a political stance: Implications for English language education. *ELT Journal*, 6(2), 172-182. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac001>
- Wei, L., & García, O. (2022). Not a first language but one repertoire: Translanguaging as a decolonizing project. *RELC Journal*, 53(2). <https://doi.org/10.1177/00336882221092841>
- Wei, L., & Ho, W. Y. (2018). Language learning sans frontiers: A translanguaging view. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 38, 33-59. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190518000053>
- Wells, G. (1999). *Dialogic inquiry: Towards a sociocultural practice and theory of education*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Wiley, G. T., & García, O. (2016). Language policy and planning in language education: Legacies, consequences, and possibilities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100 (S1), 48-63. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12303>
- Williams, C. (1994). Arfarniad o Ddulliau Dysgu ac Addysgu yng Nghyddestun Addysg Uwchradd Ddwyeithog [An evaluation of teaching and learning methods in the context of bilingual secondary education]. (Doctoral Thesis: University of Wales, Bangor, Wales).
- Williams, C. (1996). Secondary education: Teaching in the bilingual situation. In C. Williams, G. Lewis, C. Baker. (Eds.), *The Language Policy: Taking stock: Interpreting and Appraising Gwynedd's Language Policy in Education*. Montana: CAI Language Studies Centre.
- Williams, J. (2005). *Teaching writing in second and foreign language classrooms*. Boston: McGraw Hill.
- Woodall, B. (2002). Language-switching: Using the first language while writing in a second language. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 11, 7-28.
- Woods, D., Bruner, J. S. & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 17(2), 89-100.
- Wu, W. (2018). A Vygotskian sociocultural perspective on the role of L1 in target language learning. *Cambridge Open-Review Educational Research e-Journal*, 5, 87-103. <https://doi.org/10.17863/CAM.34885>
- Yang, L. (2014). Examining the mediational means in collaborative writing: case studies of undergraduate ESL students in business courses. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 23, 74-89. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2014.01.003>

- Yeh, C. C. (2013). Instructors' perspectives on English-medium instruction in Taiwanese universities. *Curriculum and Instruction Quarterly*, 16(1), 209-231.
- Yevudey, E. (2015). Translanguaging as a language contact phenomenon in the classroom in Ghana: Pedagogic relevance and perceptions. In J. Angouri, T. Harrison, S. Schnurr & S. Wharton (Eds.), *Learning, Working and Communicating in a Global Context* (pp. 259-170). London: Scitsiugnil Press.
- Yılmaz, T. (2021). Translanguaging as a pedagogy for equity of language minoritised students. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 18(3), 1-20.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2019.1640705>
- Yin, K. R. (2003). *Case study research, design, and methods*. Newbury, CA: Sage Publications.
- Yu, S., & Lee, I. (2014). An analysis of Chinese EFL students' use of first and second language in peer feedback of L2 writing. *System*, 47, 28-38.
- Yuvayapan, F. (2019). Translanguaging in EFL classrooms: Teachers' perceptions and practices. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 15(2), 678-694.
- Yüzlü, M. Y., & Dikilitaş, K. (2022). Translanguaging in the development of EFL learners' foreign language skills in Turkish context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching* 16(2), 176-190.
- Zorluel Özer, H. (2021). "We are going to negotiate!" Graduate teacher-scholars' understanding of translingual pedagogy. *Composition Forum*, 46. Retrieved from <https://compositionforum.com/issue/46/translingual-pedagogy.php> on 06.06.2023.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Writing Grading Criteria Protocol

	CONTENT (5)	ORGANIZATION (5)	VOCABULARY (4)	GRAMMAR (4)	MECHANICS (2)
0	*Task not attempted in any way	*No control of organizational features	*No control of word formation *Only a few isolated words are used	* Complete inability to use sentence forms	* No control over spelling and punctuation, capitalization, and paragraph indentation etc.
1	*Shows little knowledge of the subject *Barely responds to the task *Attempt to present one or two ideas, but without further development	*Disorganized * Ideas do not follow in a logical order * Almost no unity and coherence *Ideas and examples are disconnected *Almost no signal of linking words	*Only a very limited range of level appropriate words and expressions is used *Poor knowledge of words, idioms and word forms *Most words or expressions are inaccurate or irrelevant *Basic vocabulary is used repetitively	*The language is rarely clear *Minimum attempt to use learned structures *Frequent errors in agreement, number, tense, negation, word order, articles, pronouns, prepositions	* Occasional errors in spelling which do not interfere with meaning * Occasional errors in punctuation, capitalization * No paragraph indentation *Illegible handwriting
2	*Inadequate coverage of the topic with inappropriate and/or insufficient ideas *Ideas do not follow each other in a logical way, may be irrelevant, repetitive or not well supported	*Inadequately organized (misplaced or weak topic sentence, insufficient supporting ideas, repetitive and unclear concluding sentence) *Considerably incoherent, ideas are not well connected *Some use of linking words	*Shows some use of varied word choice that is relevant to the content of the task *Frequent word/idiom errors, inappropriate choice and usage	*Few examples of learned structures *Occasional mistakes in using appropriate grammatical structures, which cause problems in conveying the message	* Almost no errors in conventions of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraph indentation, etc.
3	*Adequate coverage of the topic, but addresses the topic using somewhat appropriate	*Adequately organized (somewhat good topic sentence, somewhat good development of supporting ideas or	*Adequate range of level-appropriate vocabulary that is relevant to the content of the task	*No major difficulties in the use of appropriate grammatical structures *A variety of	

	and/or sufficient ideas	a somewhat good concluding sentence) *Mostly coherent and fluent passages, ideas flow logically and meaningfully, but may contain some redundancy and some unclear connections *Adequate use of linking words	*Some attempts to use less common vocabulary *Some errors of word/idiom choice, but effective transmission of meaning	complex structures is used with only occasional mistakes or inappropriacies	
4	*Good coverage of the topic with relevant, clear, appropriate, and sufficient ideas	*Generally well-organized (sufficiently developed topic sentence, supporting ideas, and concluding sentence) *Coherent and fluent passages, ideas generally flow meaningfully and logically *Good use of linking words	*A wide range of level-appropriate vocabulary that is relevant to the content is used effectively and accurately *Almost no mistakes in the word/idiom choice	* A wide range of level structures is used effectively and accurately *Hardly any grammatical mistakes	
5	*Very good coverage of the topic *Fully developed paragraph with very good justification	*Well-organized (a clear topic sentence, fully developed supporting ideas, and a good concluding sentence) *Very coherent and fluent passage with very good use of linking/signal words			

* If a student writes **less than 120 words**, he/she cannot be awarded a maximum score for each category. The maximum score for that student can be **15 pts (4+4+3+3+1)**.

If a student writes **more than 1 paragraph, that student **cannot** be awarded more than **2 pts for organization**.

*** If a student submits a **blank paper** or the written task is **completely off topic**, that students will be graded **0** for all categories.