

Volume 5, Issue 2, December 2018

EJournALL

**EuroAmerican Journal of
Applied Linguistics and Languages**

**Special Issue
Translingual and Multilingual
Pedagogies**

**Guest Editors
Josh Prada and Tarja Nikula**

EJournal

EuroAmerican Journal of
Applied Linguistics
and Languages

Volume 5, Issue 2, December 2018 pages i-130

Copyright © 2018.
This work is licensed under a
Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

ISSN 2376-905X

DOI <http://dx.doi.org/10.21283/2376905X.9>

Guest Editors

Josh Prada and Tarja Nikula

Editors in Chief

Laura Di Ferrante | Elisa Gironzetti

Associate Editor

Katie A. Bernstein

Editorial Team

Co-Editors in Chief

Laura Di Ferrante	Università per Stranieri di Siena, Italia
Elisa Gironzetti	University of Maryland, USA

Associate Editor

Katie A. Bernstein	Arizona State University, USA
--------------------	-------------------------------

Board

Laura Alba-Juez	UNED, España
Janice Aski	The Ohio State University, USA
Salvatore Attardo	Texas A&M University-Commerce, USA
Sonia Lucia Bailini	Università Cattolica di Milano, Italia
Paolo Balboni	Università Ca' Foscari, Italia
Nancy Bell	Washington State University, USA
Flavia Belpoliti	Texas A&M University-Commerce, USA
Hugo Bowles	University of Rome Tor Vergata, Italia
Diana Boxer	University of Florida, USA
Steven Brown	Youngstown State University, USA
Rubén Chacón-Beltrán	UNED, España
Viviana Cortés	Georgia State University, USA
Lidia Costamagna	Università per Stranieri di Perugia, Italia
Emma Dafouz	Universidad Complutense de Madrid, España
Eric Friginal	Georgia State University, USA
Giuliana Garzone	IULM, International University of Languages and Media, Italia
Carlo Guastalla	Alma Edizioni, Italia
Okim Kang	Northern Arizona University, USA
Javier Muñoz-Basols	University of Oxford, UK
Amanda Murphy	Università Cattolica di Milano, Italia
Elena Nuzzo	Università degli studi di Roma Tre, Italia
Diego Pascual y Cabo	University of Florida, USA
Susana Pastor Cesteros	Universidad de Alicante, España
Lucy Pickering	Texas A&M University-Commerce, USA
Elisabetta Santoro	Universidade de São Paulo, Brazil
Israel Sanz-Sánchez	West Chester University, USA
Laurel Stvan	University of Texas at Arlington, USA
Paolo Torresan	Alma Edizioni, Italia
Eduardo Urios-Aparisi	University of Connecticut, USA
Ada Valentini	Università degli studi di Bergamo, Italia
Massimo Vedovelli	Università per Stranieri di Siena, Italia
Veronica Vegna	The University of Chicago, USA
Miriam Voghera	Università degli Studi di Salerno, Italia
Manuela Wagner	University of Connecticut, USA

**Coordinators
of the Editorial Staff**

Emily Linares	University of California, Berkeley, USA
Luca Morazzano	Independent proofreader and translator, Italia
Consuelo Valentina Riso	James Madison University, USA

**Translators
& Proofreaders**

Jessica Adams	University of California, Berkeley, USA
Eric Patrick Ambroso	Arizona State University, USA
Kathryn Baecht	Independent translator and teacher, USA
Ombretta Bassani	Università degli Studi di Pavia, Italia
Silvia Bernabei	Hockerill Anglo European College, UK
Margherita Berti	University of Arizona, USA
Alessandra Callà	Independent translator and teacher, Italia
Emilio Ceruti	LS Middlebury College, USA
Geoffrey Clegg	Midwestern State University, USA
Vinício Corrias	Universidade de São Paulo, Brazil
Cristina Gadaleta	Independent teacher and researcher, UK
Bill Lancaster	Tyler Junior College, East Texas Baptist University, USA
Maryam Moeini Meybodi	University of California, Berkeley, USA
Viviana Mirabile	Independent proofreader and teacher, Italia
Giuseppe Maugeri	Università Ca' Foscari di Venezia, Italia
Alberto Miras Fernández	Benjamin Banneker Academic High School, USA
Sendy Monarrez	Texas A&M University-Commerce, USA
Marta Pilar Montañez Mesas	Universitat de València, España
Angela Mura	Universidad de Alicante, España
Elyse Ritchey	University of California, Berkeley, USA
Abigail Struhl	University of California, Berkeley, USA
John A. Tkac	James Madison University, USA
Rachel Weiher	University of California, Berkeley, USA

**Communication
Staff**

Shigehito Menjo	University of California Los Angeles, USA
Nabiha El Khatib	Texas A&M University-Commerce, USA

Table of contents

Introduction	Introduction to the special issue: On the transgressive nature of translanguaging pedagogies	1-7
	Josh Prada and Tarja Nikula	
Articles	The role of translanguaging in the multilingual turn: Driving philosophical and conceptual renewal in language education	8-23
	Josh Prada and Blake Turnbull	
	A holistic model for multilingualism in education	24-43
	Joana Duarte and Mirjam Günther-van der Meij	
	“Siento que siempre tengo que regresar al inglés”: Embracing a translanguaging stance in a Hispanic-serving institution	44-61
	Sandra Musanti and Alyssa Cavazos	
	Translation in the language classroom: Multilingualism, diversity, collaboration	62-75
	Gioia Panzarella and Caterina Sinibaldi	
	Pockets of hope: Cases of linguistic flexibility in the classroom	76-90
	Leah Durán and Kathryn I. Henderson	
	Translanguaging practices in CLIL and non-CLIL biology lessons in Switzerland	91-109
	Aline S. Bieri	
Reviews	García, Ofelia, Ibarra Johnson, Susanna, & Seltzer, Kate. (2017). <i>The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning</i> . Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Caslon.	110-113
	Laura Gasca Jiménez	
	Mazak, Catherine M. & Carroll, Kevin S. (Eds.). (2017). <i>Translanguaging in higher education. Beyond monolingual ideologies</i> . Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.	114-118
	Paola Guerrero-Rodríguez	
	Firpo, Elena, & Sanfelici, Laura (2016). <i>La visione eteroglossica del bilinguismo: spagnolo lingua d'origine e Italstudio. Modelli e prospettive tra gli Stati Uniti e l'Italia</i> . Milano, Italia: Edizioni Universitarie Lettere Economia Diritto - Lingue Culture Mediazioni.	119-124
	Andrea Scibetta	
	Mazzaferro, Gerardo (Ed.). (2018). <i>Translanguaging as everyday practice</i> . Cham, Switzerland: Springer.	125-130
	Valentina Carbonara	

All the articles in this issue underwent double blind peer review processes.
We thank the anonymous reviewers who contributed to the quality of this issue.

Introduction to the special issue: On the transgressive nature of translanguaging pedagogies

JOSH PRADA^{*a}, TARJA NIKULA^b

^aIndiana University-Purdue University—Indianapolis

^bUniversity of Jyväskylä

Received 17 December 2018; received in revised form 20 December 2018; accepted 21 December 2018

ABSTRACT

EN As translanguaging gains traction in language education, its political and ideological implications are becoming central considerations to researchers and practitioners. In this introductory article to the special issue, “Translingual and Multilingual Pedagogies” for the *EuroAmerican Journal of Applied Linguistics and Languages*, we provide a conceptual point of departure on the notion of translanguaging by revisiting Li Wei’s (2011) threefold description of its prefix *trans-* (i.e., transcending, transformative, transdisciplinary), which we expand by adding a new definitional element, transgressive, to reflect our understanding of translanguaging as politically charged and disruptive by virtue. We then move on to provide an overview of the articles and book reviews included in this special issue.

Key words: TRANSLANGUAGING, TRASNGRESSIVE PEDAGOGIES, MULTILINGUALISM

ES A medida que el translingüismo gana terreno en la enseñanza de idiomas, sus implicaciones políticas e ideológicas son cada vez más importantes. En este artículo introductorio del número especial “Pedagogías translingüales y multilingües” de la revista *EuroAmerican Journal of Applied Linguistics and Languages*, proporcionamos un punto de partida conceptual sobre la noción de translingüismo al revisar la descripción tripartita de Li Wei (2011) del prefijo *tras-* o *trans-* (trascendente, transformativo, transdisciplinario), que expandimos agregando un cuarto elemento de definición (transgresivo) para reflejar nuestra comprensión del translingüismo como concepto con carga política. Luego, proporcionamos una descripción general de los artículos y reseñas de libros que se incluyen en esta edición especial.

Palabras clave: TRANSLANGUAGING/TRANSLENGUAR, PEDAGOGÍAS TRANSGRESIVAS, MULTILINGÜISMO

IT Mentre il *translanguaging* trova terreno fertile nell’insegnamento delle lingue, le sue implicazioni politiche e ideologiche stanno diventando sempre più centrali. In questo articolo introduttivo al numero speciale “Pedagogie del translinguismo e multilingue” della rivista *EuroAmerican Journal of Applied Linguistics and Languages*, forniamo un punto di partenza concettuale sulla nozione di translinguismo rivisitando la triplice descrizione di Li Wei (2011) del prefisso *trans-* (cioè, trascendente, trasformativo, transdisciplinare), che espandiamo aggiungendo un quarto elemento descrittivo, trasgressivo, per sottolineare la concezione di *translanguaging* come connotato politicamente e dirompente per natura. Forniamo quindi una panoramica degli articoli e delle recensioni dei libri inclusi in questo numero speciale.

Parole chiave: TRANSLANGUAGING, PEDAGOGIE TRANSGRESSIVE, MULTILINGUISMO

1. Translanguaging as transcending, transformative, transdisciplinary, and transgressive

Theories and practices in language education are gradually shifting to incorporate a more organic and fluid understanding of bi-/multilingual practices and a more ecological perspective of those language users who engage in them (e.g., Cenoz & Genesee, 1998; García, 2009; May, 2013). On the premise that language does not operate in a vacuum, traditional approaches that conceptualize language, speaker, and context as independent are giving way to more dynamic perspectives: a turn that encourages us to think of

* Contact: jprada@iu.edu

the classroom as a space linked to the students who inhabit it, their social and linguistic practices, and their life trajectories, as they interplay with institutional and social-historical elements at a number of levels. Undoubtedly, at the core of these developments, the notion of *translanguaging* has taken off to capture the imagination of researchers and practitioners alike across multiple subfields in language education. Often seen in competition with other terms such as *metrolingualism* and *translingual practice*, and not without great deal of pushback, it is safe to say that translanguaging has become one of the few terms for the field of applied linguistics to call its own (Li Wei, 2017). As the notion of translanguaging has become more widespread, gradually more attention has been devoted to the nature, the implications, and the possibilities of multilingual practices in different educational contexts, including (but by no means limited to) complementary schools in the UK, bilingual education in the US, and multilingual institutions in South Africa, with examples ranging from World Englishes to CLIL (see e.g. Blackledge & Creese, 2014; García & Li Wei, 2014; Paulsrud, Rosén, Straszer & Wedin, 2017).

A starting definition of translanguaging is the “multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds” (García, 2009, p. 45). Elaborations on translanguaging rely on two key components: the notions of *flexibility* and *repertoires*. However, stances on translanguaging may vary: some of them are grounded on the idea of deploying elements from two (or more) languages or navigating two (or more) different languages (e.g., Canagarajah, 2007; Creese & Blackledge, 2010), while other perspectives emphasize a more emergent, post-structuralist perspective as multilinguals go beyond common patterns of monolingual language practice (e.g., Li Wei & Zhu Hua, 2013; Otheguy, García & Reid, 2015). Regardless, they coincide in their emphasis on fluidity and flexibility regarding traditional (socio)linguistic boundaries: boundaries among named languages, boundaries among language modes, and boundaries among social and cognitive spaces where certain practices are considered proper.

Similarly, central definitions of translanguaging draw on the notion of linguistic repertoire, a basic sociolinguistic concept referring to the “the totality of linguistic resources (i.e., including both invariant forms and variables) available to members of particular communities” (Gumperz & Hymes, 1972, p. 20) and including “the totality of distinct language varieties, dialects and styles employed in a community” or by a speaker (Cook-Gumperz, 1986, p. 7). Linguistic repertoires encompass “every bit of language we accumulate” in our lives (Blommaert & Backus, 2013, p. 28). Importantly, it is not adherence to normativity that dictates the importance and meaningfulness of these “bits of language” to the speaker, but the relevance they have to the individual’s life. This simple definition of repertoire is, therefore, one that builds on what speakers can do with their resources, treating these resources as continuously evolving and describing the speaker’s skills in relation to contextual specificities/requirements.

Departing from a perspective that subsumes flexibility (in multilingual practices) and the rich, heterogeneous repertoires of multilingual speakers, translanguaging thinking brings in what multilinguals do when they engage in multilingual practice. To provide an overarching working definition of translanguaging to guide this special issue, we turn to (and extend) Li Wei’s (2011) threefold take on the meanings of the prefix *trans-* to emphasize three levels of flexible multilingual practices. Li Wei’s take on translanguaging (as ours) derives from the notion of languaging, meaning “the process of using language to gain knowledge, to make sense, to articulate one’s thought and to communicate about using language” (Li Wei, 2011, p. 1223). By means of this process, “language serves as a vehicle through which thinking is articulated and transformed into an artifactual form” (Swain, 2006, p. 97). Li Wei describes translanguaging as “going between different linguistic structures and systems, including different modalities (speaking, writing, signing, listening, reading, remembering) and going beyond them”, thereby granting multilingual practice “its own transformative power” (p. 1223).

Among Li Wei’s (2011) three-way division of different levels of *trans-*, the first emphasis is on it as *transcending*: moving beyond notions of single systems, structures, and spaces, as well as beyond the idea that multilingual individuals simply alternate between different systems. Instead, translanguaging asks us to consider the entire range of a multilingual individual’s linguistic performance, across modalities and settings. The second level at which the prefix *trans-* operates is in relation to *transdisciplinarity*, because a translanguaging approach holistically connects cognition, social relations, and social structures. Finally, Li Wei connects the prefix *trans-* to the *transformative* nature of translanguaging, as it brings together various dimensions of the individual’s social, linguistic and cognitive skills, attitudes and beliefs into a constellation of (inter)personal elements that, when taken together, shape the configuration of the individual’s social world into what Li Wei calls *translanguaging space*: a space both for the act of translanguaging and which is created through translanguaging.

To those three levels from which the prefix *trans-* draws its meaning, we add a layer at which translanguaging is a form of *transgression*. The idea of translanguaging as transgression highlights the potential that translanguaging has to remove language-related hierarchies (e.g. García, 2009) and for bi-/multilingual individuals to engage in situated practices that challenge traditional normativity of language use. Translanguaging can allow speakers to access new positionalities and embrace empowered subjectivities in contexts that are characteristically governed by prescriptivist and/or suppressive views and actions. As García and Leiva (2014, p. 200) put it, translanguaging “attempt[s] to wipe out the hierarchy of languaging practices that deem some more valuable than others”. We refer to transgression to underscore similar functions but also as an attempt to distinguish them from the transformative nature introduced by Li Wei (2011), which is more geared towards translanguaging space.

To be clear, this transgressive character is contextual, as traversing perceived boundaries between the named languages conforming the individual’s repertoire is often perceived as disruptive in specific contexts only. For instance, when people from higher socio-economic backgrounds engage in similar practices, they are commonly congratulated for trying, often portraying their practices as remarkable, but not transgressive. Conversely, when minoritized speakers and/or individuals from low socio-economic backgrounds engage in these practices, they hold additional disruptive value. This is one way that translanguaging moves beyond transformation to transgression: when enabled in a top-down manner (e.g., by the teacher in the classroom setting) translanguaging holds transformative potential; when initiated from the bottom up (e.g., by a student), it can be a form of resistance. Because of this transgressive potential, translanguaging can lead to a reconfiguring of educational spaces through repositioning, empowerment, and transformative action.

Our extension of the *trans-* prefix in translanguaging to place emphasis on transgression reflects our belief that traditional language education models replicate and reify the monolingual bias in the classroom (see Prada & Turnbull, this special issue for a detailed discussion of this issue). A translanguaging approach instead enables pedagogical strategies which operationalize a diversifying, anti-racist philosophy, first, by generating translanguaging spaces through the participants’ repertoires, second, by opening opportunities for students to articulate their histories and trajectories, as well as explore their shared and non-shared experiences, and third, by fortifying a positive attitude towards being and becoming multilingual and to engaging multilingually. Due to the long-standing ideologies guiding current patterns underpinning the language teaching and learning landscape, radical innovations are necessary to make changes possible. As Sriskandarajah, Tidball, Wals, Blackmore, and Bawden (2010) argued, these radical innovations in education happen in niches “where dedicated actors nurture alignment and development on multiple dimensions to create ‘configurations that work’ . . . Niche-innovations may break through more widely if external landscape developments create pressures on the regime that lead to cracks, tensions and windows of opportunity” (2010, p. 495). We find that the edge of translanguaging pedagogy (and the philosophy underpinning it) has an ability to puncture the systemic normativity, leading to that window of opportunity for renewal in education as a whole, starting by the niche that is language education.

But our interest in disturbing the bedrock of top-down activities that bolster the status quo in language education is not new. We build on a tradition that is critical of treating languages as treasured objects that must not be altered, ignoring the realities of language change. We connect with Bourdieu’s (1991) critique of structural linguists and their treatment of languages “like an end in itself” (p. 31) and how this approach strengthens purist views on what the ideal version of a language is. At the opposite end of this line of argument stand scholars such as Reagan (2004) who claim that there is no such a thing as English or Spanish as these are mere social-historical constructions bound to change over time. Connectedly, Makoni and Pennycook (2009) emphasized that it is important to understand the interrelationships among factors, such as metadiscursive regimes, language inventions, colonial history, and strategies of disinvention and reconstruction.

These general considerations raise a series of interrelated questions in which we as translanguaging scholars are particularly interested. For example, what is the nature of the above-mentioned boundaries between named languages? How have they come to be, and how can we rethink them to create more inclusive, accessible, and universally-available sociolinguistic spaces? What are the opportunities and possibilities of translanguaging thinking to mainstream education? As these questions show, thinking about translanguaging and its implications is not merely an educational effort. Translanguaging captures the sociolinguistic and cognitive dynamics of multilingual speakers allowing to reconceptualize them from the bottom-up. This perspective guides new ways thinking about the standardized patterns typical of an

imagined, idealized, monolingual speaker. In doing so, references to this imagined, idealized speaker lose their grip in the dissemination of regulatory and centralizing narratives. From this perspective, standards may be described in socio-historical and political terms, as a mold to be imposed on speakers, and a tool to separate the wheat from the chaff, so to speak. Importantly, as others have pointed out (e.g., Flores & Rosa, 2015) these standards have traditionally been used to covertly subordinate individuals from minority(ized) backgrounds, an issue that deserves attention in language classrooms.

2. This special issue

It is common for teachers working in multilingual contexts to become excited about the idea of translanguaging. However, it is often the case that teachers are not sure how to translate theories and philosophies into hands-on practices. In the spirit of the *EuroAmerican Journal of Applied Linguistics and Languages*, our goal in this issue is to illuminate this grey area. We have sought to develop a special issue that provides both a panoramic overview of translanguaging as well as its materializations. The discussion above on different dimensions on the *trans-* prefix in translanguaging has highlighted the multidimensionality of the concept. This multidimensionality is clear in this special issue's six original pieces. Together, they offer a rich perspective, combining data-driven discussions with critical ones, to highlight the transdisciplinary, transcending, transformative, and transgressive functions of translanguaging. The articles cover multiple socio-political and educational contexts, focusing on both content and language classrooms, from African American English within the US K-12 system to Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in sciences school class in Switzerland, and they address different educational levels from elementary schools to university education. By doing so, they offer insight into the feasibility and applicability of translanguaging in different contexts. While translanguaging is not a one-fits-all approach to language education, the articles in this issue show its great potential across seemingly unrelated settings.

The articles are organized according to the following logic: the issue begins with a conceptually-oriented article (Prada & Turnbull), which will help readers who might be less familiar with translanguaging become familiar with how translanguaging connects with and facilitates current shifts in language teaching and learning. The order of the next five articles reflects their position on a continuum from institution-level and institution-affecting perspectives (Duarte & Günther-van der Meij; Musanti & Cavazos) to a discussion of a multilingual pedagogical approach to language teaching (Panzarella & Sinibaldi) to articles attending to micro-level translanguaging classroom practices (Durán & Henderson; Bieri). In what follows, each article is introduced in more detail. While all of the articles address translanguaging as transcending language boundaries, we will pay special attention to how each contributes to an enhanced understanding of the transformative and transgressive potential of translanguaging.

The first article, "The Role of Translanguaging in the Multilingual Turn: Driving Philosophical and Conceptual Renewal in Language Education," by Josh Prada and Blake Turnbull, provides a frame for the special issue by offering a thorough overview of the central developments that have paved the way for the shifting emphases from monolingual assumptions to the emergence of multilingual turn in education. The authors make a threefold call for transformatory action: 1) arguing for the need to adopt translanguaging-based pedagogy in the teaching of what have traditionally been referred to as foreign and second languages; 2) pinpointing core areas that need to be addressed when translating theorizations of classroom translanguaging into praxis, and 3) arguing how these have the potential to facilitate multilingual turn and open up spaces that can leverage students' learning in language classrooms.

The article, "Holistic Model for Multilingualism in Education," by Joana Duarte and Mirjam Günther-van der Meij, reports on an ongoing multilingual education project in the north of the Netherlands in school contexts with both migrant and minority pupils. The project involves design-based interventions in which teachers and researchers together develop multilingual activities. Among the pedagogical activities illustrated in the article are using cognates and translanguaging to support learning and language awareness. From a translanguaging-as-transgression perspective, it worth noting how such activities can give voice to migrant background children, contribute to their sense of ownership and raise language awareness of all students involved.

Both institutional and teacher perspectives are addressed by Sandra Musanti and Alyssa Cavazos in their article, "Siento que Siempre Tengo que Regresar al Inglés: Embracing a Translanguaging Stance in a Hispanic-Serving Institution," in which they reflect on the effects of their decisions to adopt a translanguaging stance and to engage in language-transcending practices in their undergraduate university courses in a

bilingual and bicultural region in the United States. Their discussion of tensions and struggles involved remind us of challenges that transforming language practices can trigger, yet there are also obvious transgressive aspects through problematization of language and monoglossic views of multilingualism by teachers and their students alike. The authors also showcase translanguaging as a transgressive act to challenge monoglossic norms through their own bilingual academic writing.

Also set at the university level, but this time in Europe and with foreign language teaching in focus, Gioia Panzarella and Caterina Sinibaldi's article, "Translation in the Language Classroom: Multilingualism, Diversity, Collaboration," addresses classrooms where students are studying Italian as part of their degree in a British university. The authors argue that transforming foreign language teaching by adopting a translanguaging perspective to translation as a collaborative and translingual practice can be used to foster multilingual competence and intercultural awareness. They also address transgressive aspects of translanguaging by referring to its potential to shake conventional orientations to language by stimulating critical reflection of forms and functions of both the source and target language and by providing opportunities for problematizing boundaries between languages.

Moving on to classroom-practice oriented studies, the fifth article by Leah Durán and Kathryn Henderson, "Pockets of Hope: Cases of Linguistic Flexibility in the Classroom," focuses on pedagogical practices of two elementary classroom teachers in Texas with predominantly Latinx, Spanish-English bilingual students. These teachers have chosen to transform the taken-for-granted classroom practices and linguistic norms by crossing both linguistic and dialectal borders and engaging in motivated shifts between academic and everyday language as an integral part of their teaching. The study shows the transgressive power of translanguaging pedagogy that challenges traditional language normativities in order to create more equitable classroom spaces. In these spaces, teachers and students value and take advantage of language diversity, and they engage with language in ways that help to prevent marginalization of emerging bilinguals and their language practices.

The sixth and final article by Aline Bieri, "Translanguaging Practices in CLIL and Non-CLIL Biology Lessons in Switzerland," shifts the focus to content teaching in both CLIL and regular biology lessons in the Swiss upper secondary school context, where apart from the standard German and English, Swiss German is also used. Through classroom data analysis and teacher interviews, Bieri found that in both explicitly bilingual (CLIL) contexts as well as those framed as teaching in L1, translanguaging occurs and has both content learning and interaction-oriented functions in both contexts. From a transgression viewpoint, the study shows how a translanguaging approach can reveal teachers' way of drawing on source languages such as Latin and Greek to support the negotiation of meaning of technical terms in biology in both CLIL and non-CLIL classrooms, and that this challenges monolingual views by showing the presence and important learning supportive functions of translanguaging.

Taken together, the articles in this issue provide an important contribution to the field, showing how multilingual and translanguaging pedagogies can help change educational realities by introducing new ways of working and thinking. These, in turn, can increase participants' potential to use their linguistic repertoires in the full and can foster multilingualism, language awareness, and a renewed sense of what it means to know a language. Importantly, the articles also illustrate concretely what it means to adopt a translanguaging stance in education, and they make evident the transgressive potential of translanguaging to challenge monoglossic ideologies and normative assumptions that bolster subordinating practices.

In addition to the above-mentioned original articles, the special issue also provides reviews of four current publications in the field of translanguaging and multilingual pedagogies. First, Laura Gasca Jiménez provides a critical *reseña* in Spanish of Ofelia García, Susana Ibarra-Johnson, and Kate Seltzer's *The Translanguaging Classroom: Leveraging Student Bilingualism for Learning* (2017). Then, Paola Guerrero authors a *reseña* of *Translanguaging in Higher Education. Beyond Monolingual Ideologies* (2017), edited by Catherine M. Mazak y Kevin S. Carroll. In Italian, Andrea Scibetta provides a *recensione* of *La Visione Eteroglossica del Bilinguismo: Spagnolo Lingua d'Origine e Italstudio. Modelli e Prospettive tra gli Stati Uniti e l'Italia* (2016), by Elena Firpo and Laura Sanfelici. Finally, la *recensione* di Valentina Carbonara reflects on Gerardo Mazzaferro's edited volume, *Translanguaging as Everyday Practice* (2018).

References

- Blackledge, Adrian, & Creese, Angela (2014). *Heteroglossia as practice and pedagogy*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Blommaert, Jan, & Backus, Ad (2013). Superdiverse repertoires and the individual. In Ingrid Saint-Georges, & Jean-Jacques Weber (Eds.), *Multilingualism and multimodality* (pp. 11-32). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.
- Bourdieu, Pierre (1991). *Language and symbolic power*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Canagarajah, Suresh (2007). Lingua franca English, multilingual communities, and language acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91(s1), 923-939.
- Cenoz, Jasone, & Genesee, Fred (Eds.). (1998). *Beyond bilingualism: Multilingualism and multilingual education* (Vol. 110). Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Cook-Gumperz, Jenny (1986). Literacy and schooling: An unchanging equation. In Jenny Cook-Gumperz (Ed.) *The social construction of literacy* (pp. 16-44). Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Creese, Angela, & Blackledge, Adrian (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(1), 103-115.
- Flores, Nelson, & Rosa, Jonathan (2015). Undoing appropriateness: Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, 85(2), 149-171.
- García, Ofelia (2009). Education, multilingualism and translanguaging in the 21st century. In Tove Skutnabb-Kangas, Robert Phillipson, Ajit K. Mohanty, & Minati Panda (Eds.), *Social justice through multilingual education* (pp.140-158). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- García, Ofelia, & Leiva, Camila (2014). Theorizing and enacting translanguaging for social justice. In Adrian Blackledge, & Angela Creese (Eds.), *Heteroglossia as practice and pedagogy* (pp. 199-216). New York, New York: Springer.
- García, Ofelia, & Li Wei (2014). *Translanguaging: language, bilingualism and education*. New York, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gumperz, John J., & Hymes, Dell (Eds.). (1972). *Directions in sociolinguistics*. New York, New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Li Wei (2011). Moment analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(5), 1222-1235.
- Li Wei, & Zhu Hua (2013). Translanguaging identities and ideologies: Creating transnational space through flexible multilingual practices amongst Chinese university students in the UK. *Applied Linguistics*, 34(5), 516-535.
- Makoni, Sinfree, & Pennycook, Alistair (Eds.). (2007). *Disinventing and reconstituting languages*. Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- May, Stephen (Ed.) (2013). *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and bilingual education*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- Paulsrud, BethAnne, Rosén, Jenny, Straszer, Boglárka, & Wedin, Åsa (Eds.). (2017). *New perspectives on translanguaging and education*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Otheguy, Ricardo, García, Ofelia, & Reid, Wallis (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 6(3), 281-307.
- Reagan, Timothy (2004). Objectification, positivism and language studies: A reconsideration. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies: An International Journal*, 1(1), 41-60.
- Sriskandarajah, Nadarajah, Bawden, Richard, Blackmore, Chris, Tidball, Keith G., & Wals, Arien, E. J. (2010). Resilience in learning systems: Case studies in university education. *Environmental Education Research*, 16(5-6), 559-573.
- Swain, Merrill (2006). Language, agency and collaboration in advanced language proficiency. In Heidi Byrnes (Ed.), *Advanced language learning: The contribution of Halliday and Vygotsky* (pp. 95-108). London, United Kingdom: Continuum.

Josh Prada, Indiana University-Purdue University—Indianapolisjprada@iu.edu

- EN** | **Josh Prada** (PhD, Texas Tech University; MA, Birkbeck, University of London) is Assistant Professor of Spanish Applied Linguistics in the Department of World Languages and Cultures, in the Indiana University School of Liberal Arts at IUPUI, where he teaches undergraduate and graduate courses in applied linguistics. His research interests are in critical approaches to bilingualism and multilingualism with an emphasis on minority/heritage speakers, complex approaches to language education, and translanguaging.
- ES** | **Josh Prada** (PhD, Texas Tech University; MA, Birkbeck, University of London) es profesor contratado de lingüística aplicada del español en el Departamento de lenguas y culturas del mundo en la Facultad de Estudios Liberales de la Universidad de Indiana IUPUI, donde enseña cursos de lingüística aplicada a nivel de grado y postgrado. Sus intereses investigadores se enfocan en el área de estudios críticos del bilingüismo y multilingüismo con énfasis en hablantes de lenguas de herencia o minoritarias, sistemas complejos en la enseñanza de lenguas y el translingüismo.
- IT** | **Josh Prada** (PhD, *Texas Tech University*, MA, Birkbeck, Università di Londra) è professore universitario di linguistica applicata spagnola nel Dipartimento di Lingue e Culture del Mondo, presso la *Indiana University School of Liberal Arts* a IUPUI, dove insegna corsi triennali e corsi avanzati di linguistica applicata. I suoi interessi di ricerca riguardano approcci critici al bilinguismo e al multilinguismo con un'enfasi sulle minoranze linguistiche e sugli alloglotti, approcci complessi all'educazione e translinguismo.

Tarja Nikula, University of Jyväskylätarja.nikula@jyu.fi

- EN** | **Tarja Nikula** is Professor at the Centre for Applied Language Studies, University of Jyväskylä, Finland. Her research interests include CLIL classroom interaction, the role of language in learning, and multilingualism in education. She is an editor of *Conceptualising Integration in CLIL and Multilingual Education* (Multilingual Matters, 2016).
- ES** | **Tarja Nikula** es catedrática en el Centro de Estudios de Lingüística Aplicada de la Universidad de Jyväskylä en Finlandia. Sus intereses de investigación incluyen la interacción en el aula, el método de Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE), el papel de la lengua en el aprendizaje y la educación multilingüe. En 2016 editó el libro *Conceptualising integration in CLIL and multilingual education* (Multilingual Matters).
- IT** | **Tarja Nikula** è professoressa presso il Centro di Studi Linguistici Applicati dell'Università di Jyväskylä, in Finlandia. I suoi interessi di ricerca includono l'interazione CLIL in classe, il ruolo della lingua nell'apprendimento e il multilinguismo nell'istruzione. È editrice di *Conceptualising integration in CLIL and multilingual education* (Multilingual Matters, 2016).

The role of translanguaging in the multilingual turn: Driving philosophical and conceptual renewal in language education

JOSH PRADA^{a*}, BLAKE TURNBULL^{b**}

^aIndiana University-Purdue University—Indianapolis

^bKyoto University

Received 28 June 2018; received in revised form 9 December 2018; accepted 18 December, 2018

ABSTRACT

EN The multilingual turn refers to a recent series of shifts in the core philosophical underpinnings in traditional foreign and second language classroom practice. These changes promote the normalization of processes and practices characteristic of bi-/multilingual speakers. This, in turn, has stimulated new ways of teaching and learning in the classroom. The goal of this article is twofold: first to chart the central developments that have led to the emergence of the multilingual turn thus far, and second to provide an account of how classroom translanguaging is fundamental to present and future developments. We present the conceptual framework undergirding the multilingual turn, before providing an overview of traditional tenets of foreign and second language education. We then examine translanguaging and its implications for language education, and end with a presentation of strategies that may facilitate the implementation of the multilingual turn in the additional language classroom.

Key words: TRANSLANGUAGING, FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION, SECOND LANGUAGE EDUCATION, ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE EDUCATION, MULTILINGUAL TURN

ES El giro multilingüe hace referencia a una serie de cambios que afectaron a los fundamentos filosóficos de las prácticas pedagógicas en la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras o segundas. Estos cambios promueven la normalización de los procesos y las prácticas propios de los hablantes bi-/multilingües, estimulando nuevas maneras de enseñar y aprender en el aula. El objetivo de este artículo es doble: en primer lugar, se delinean las principales causas que han llevado a que el giro multilingüe se fuera afirmando; en segundo lugar, se ofrece un resumen de como el translingüismo es fundamental para los desarrollos presentes y futuros. Antes de ofrecer un panorama general de los principios de la enseñanza de las lenguas extranjeras y segundas, se presenta el marco conceptual en el que se apoya el giro multilingüe. Se examina después el translingüismo y sus repercusiones para la educación lingüística y, para concluir, se presentan las estrategias que podrían facilitar la implementación del giro multilingüe en una clase de lengua adicional.

Palabras clave: TRANSLINGÜISMO, ENSEÑANZA DE LENGUAS EXTRANJERAS, ENSEÑANZA DE SEGUNDAS LENGUAS, ENSEÑANZA DE LENGUAS ADICIONALES, GIRO MULTILINGÜE

IT La svolta multilingue si riferisce a una serie di cambiamenti riguardanti fondamenti filosofici nelle pratiche didattiche delle lingue seconde e straniere. Questi cambiamenti promuovono l'uniformazione dei processi e delle pratiche caratteristici dei/delle parlanti bi-/multi- lingue e al contempo stimolano nuovi modi di insegnare e apprendere. L'obiettivo del presente articolo è duplice: in primo luogo, tracciare gli sviluppi principali che, fino a questo momento, hanno portato all'emergere della svolta multilingue, e in secondo luogo fornire un resoconto di come il *translanguaging* nella classe sia fondamentale per gli sviluppi presenti e futuri. Presentiamo qui il quadro teorico che sottende alla svolta multilingue per poi fornire una panoramica dei principi tradizionali della didattica delle lingue seconde e straniere. Quindi esaminiamo il *translanguaging* e le sue implicazioni per l'educazione linguistica. Il lavoro si conclude con la proposta di strategie per facilitare l'implementazione della svolta multilingue nell'aula di lingua aggiuntiva.

Parole chiave: TRANSLANGUAGING, DIDATTICA DELLE LINGUE SECONDE, DIDATTICA DELLE LINGUE STRANIERE, DIDATTICA DELLE LINGUE AGGIUNTIVE, SVOLTA MULTILINGUE

* Contact: jprada@iu.edu@gmail.com

** The authors contributed equally to the writing and content of this article and are listed in alphabetical order.

1. Introduction

Recent years have witnessed the beginning of a gradual paradigm shift, often labeled as the ‘multilingual turn’ (e.g., Conteh & Meier, 2014; May, 2013), towards the incorporation of multilingual and translanguaging perspectives in foreign (FL) and second (L2) language learning environments. This shift has provided us with new tools to critically analyze common practices, typologies, and assumptions that continue to guide language teaching and learning. Crucially, to move forward and reflect this emerging paradigm shift in an expanded FL/L2 classroom typology, teachers, curriculum designers, policy makers, and teacher trainers will need to reposition themselves and reformulate their practices in an organic expansion, rather than linear addition. In exploring strategies to facilitate such a change, we argue that translanguaging—or “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard to watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named languages” (Otheguy, García & Reid, 2015, p. 281)—may serve to articulate multilingual education philosophy and praxis in what have been traditionally considered FL and L2 classrooms. This comes as we incorporate recent proposals that cut across ecological understandings of bi-/multilingualism, equity and social justice, and an overall decentralization of monolingual practices as a standard (e.g., Canagarajah, 2014; Carreira & Kagan, 2018; García, 2009; Ortega, 2017; Shohamy, 2011; Turnbull, 2018).

The possibilities of this form of multilingual thinking are wide-ranging, creating room for expansion on (at least) four levels: an ontological one (i.e., processes of categorization), an epistemological one (i.e., the further development of knowledge), a methodological one (i.e., the ways to explore and expand knowledge) (Schulze & Smith, 2015), and an ethical one (whom or what our research benefits) (Ortega & Zyzik, 2008). Fundamentally, these different levels are not mutually exclusive, as engaging, for example, epistemological change calls for new ways of investigation (methodologies). In this theoretical paper we explore the possibilities of multilingual thinking in the language classroom, particularly in what are normally conceptualized as L2 and FL classrooms, and we focus on the potential role and possibilities of translanguaging in materializing the philosophy of this paradigm shift in pedagogy. We acknowledge that debate does exist about translanguaging theory regarding traditional system-based notions of language and its role in language pedagogy (see, for example, MacSwan, 2017). However, alongside other scholars (e.g., Otheguy, García & Reid, 2018), also counter such claims on the basis that psycholinguistic research has shown that all of a bi-/multilingual speaker’s languages remain active to some degree, even when only one is in verbal use (Kroll & Bialystok, 2013) and that lexical items belong to an expanded holistic network (Costa, 2005). A speaker’s languages, therefore, cannot belong to separate internal systems that can be “set aside” at will, but rather, are part of a single unitary system on which speakers draw selectively and strategically to navigate communicative contexts.

Our argument is rooted in current conceptualizations of multilingualism and incorporates the epistemological perspectives characterizing them (e.g., Cenoz & Genesee, 1998). Broadly speaking, Li Wei (2013) defines multilingualism as the “coexistence, contact and interaction of different languages” (p. 26). Crucially, bi-or multi-lingual individuals and contexts are qualitatively variable, with different degrees of discursive and socio-pragmatic values defining speakers, communities, and practices. Such conceptualizations of multilingualism follow what Otsuji and Pennycook (2010) refer to as *metrolinguism*: the “creative linguistic conditions across space and borders of culture, history and politics” (p. 244) that allow language users to incorporate their own hybrid, fluid linguistic practices to communicate and create meaning. Accordingly, the boundaries between named-languages are viewed as transient social-, cultural-, political-, and historical-constructs of the nation state (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007), and language itself is understood as a non-monolithic set of linguistic features, styles, and resources that speakers mobilize in accordance with communicative events.

The multilingual turn in FL/L2 teaching and learning reflects the above working definition of multilingualism and brings this complex perspective into the classroom setting. This conceptualization of the FL/L2 classroom as multilingual, therefore, asks us to move from thinking of multilingualism as an object of pursuit to consider it as a central strategy to pursue (and to promote), stimulating philosophical renewal. This renewal is not without obstacles. These obstacles are in keeping with traditional views of language separation, ideologies regarding language purity, and the centralization of monolingual speakers as the standard for linguistic mastery. Traditionally, FL and L2 education have suffered from the dogma of the *monolingual bias*, or the aim of ultimately developing double monolingualism, with the native speaker constituting the idealized target model (Auer, 2007), particularly in countries where monolingualism is the perceived norm. Since the 1990s, Grosjean’s (1989) staple argument about “the bilingual” not being “two

monolinguals in one person” has gradually grown into a foundational notion in applied linguistics research, however it has remained peripheral to language classroom practice. The conceptual limitations characterizing the native versus non-native speaker contrast have been addressed in the literature (e.g., Llurda, 2009; Rampton, 1990), with recent proposals for the use of LX in lieu of labels of second-, third- (etc.) language speaker (Dewaele, 2017) as well as critical takes on the epistemological bases of popular taxonomies (Meier, 2018). These conceptual developments bring to light what we identify as the second obstacle: FL/L2 learning as linked to processes of (self-)otherization.

Otherization refers to the “binary of us versus them” (Jamal, 2008, p. 116) and assumes (racial, religious, cultural) teachable/learnable differences between the learner’s world and the world of the target language natives. When languages are presented as foreign or second, learners are socialized into the notion that the target language is less pertinent to their everyday realities. Perhaps more importantly, this presentation bolsters the notion that L2/FL learners are second to native speakers, as they are epistemologically construed as ever-learners whose communicative potential is summarized by their status as L2/FL speakers. Similarly, this nomenclature also ignores the realities of those learners who have “multiple native languages” (Rothman & Treffers-Daller, 2014, p. 1), perpetuating misconceptions that do not coincide with today’s societies, and continuing to promote the one-fits-all view of learner profiles in the FL/L2 language classroom. Regarding this issue, we adhere to Dewaele’s (2017) perspective and operate under the assumption that terms such as FL and L2 teaching and learning, as well as FL and L2 learner and speaker represent obstacles to conceptualizing and articulating the *multilingual* classroom. While the terms FL and L2 are commonly used interchangeably, there have been distinctions between the two, mostly bearing on differences regarding context. L2 learning, for example, occurs in contexts where learners are exposed to the target language (TL) both inside the classroom and out (e.g., students learning English in the US or UK); whereas FL learning, on the other hand, refers to contexts in which students learn a language in the classroom that is not widely spoken by the outside community (e.g., students learning Japanese in Canada).

We instead propose to refer to contexts of additional language (AL) teaching and learning. This label functions not only as an umbrella term to encompass FL and L2, but as a conceptual tool to capture our problematization of conceptualizing languages and speakers as foreign or second versus native speakers. Moreover, importantly, we incorporate in our understanding of AL Dewaele’s (2017) argument that order of acquisition does not correlate with fluency or communicative abilities, given that individuals learning ALs may experience shifts in dominance resulting from life events such as relocation or immigration (e.g., Montrul, 2016). What is more, at times, individuals may identify with an AL more closely than with the first language they were exposed to/acquired, in terms of functionality, communicative skills, or sociocultural fluency. For these and other reasons, we find that AL teaching and learning promotes a more organic understanding of language learning than chronological order or foreignness to the geographical learning context, incorporating a systemic, dynamic view as opposed to the additive/linear one that characterizes current perspectives. These obstacles often combine with other context-specific ideological, attitudinal, and political-historical factors, which taken together bring linguicism to the fore in many decisions shaping language education. *Linguicism* refers to the “ideologies and structures which are used to legitimate, effectuate and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and non-material) between groups which are defined on the basis of language (i.e., their mother tongues)” (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988, p. 13).

The recognition of monolingual normativity has increased in the last few years, leading to discussions concerning its implications. This normativity operates across levels, from socio-political (Cruikshank & Wright, 2016) to the educational (Ortega, 2014; Meier, 2018; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2006), permeating research, practice, and policy. In order to facilitate the reproduction of multilingualism as currently defined in the multilingual turn in AL classrooms and support a move away from the monolingualism-as-standard default model, a set of changes is required. This monolingualism-as-standard default model partly builds on a set of assumptions, which, fundamentally draws on attitudes and ideologies about linguistic purity, language ownership, and unrealistic expectations for learners (e.g., Makoni & Pennycook, 2007; Pascual y Cabo & Prada, 2018). Crucially, we call for a shift from treating languages as discrete, bound objects to an understanding of language as a social construct belonging to a speaker’s integrated linguistic system (Otheguy, Garcia, & Reid, 2015). A multilingual classroom with such an orientation would also incorporate Cook’s (2002) view of language *learners* as language *users* with multicompetence: a notion that helps us rethink the negative connotations associated with the deficiency of being a learner, as well as a shift of focus away from idealizing the native speaker as the target model of

successful communicative competence. Against this background of epistemological renewal, in this paper we set out to provide an overview of the multilingual turn and its core components, with an emphasis on the role(s) of and possibilities for classroom translanguaging in further centralizing or normalizing multilingualism.

Having introduced the epistemological underpinnings of our argument, the following three sections offer (1) an overview of traditional FL and L2 education; (2) a description of translanguaging and its implication for AL teaching and learning; and (3) a presentation of strategies/protocols/stages that may facilitate an alignment philosophy defining the multilingual turn and classroom praxis that mobilizes translanguaging. The article closes with a brief conclusion and suggestions for future developments and possibilities.

2. Philosophical underpinnings of traditional FL and L2 education

L2 and FL teaching practices have traditionally perpetuated the concept of double monolingualism as their primary aim (Scott, 2010). As a result, the languages in which learners possess competence have been treated separately with little or no acknowledgement of the natural interaction between them, both internally (cognitively) and externally (interpersonally) (Cook, 2001). The dominant AL teaching methodologies throughout the late 20th century, including the Direct Method and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), tended to ignore, discourage, or actively exclude the use of learners' home languages in favor of exclusive use of the TL (Cummins, 2007; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009). This exclusion has been fundamental to the aforementioned notion of the native speaker as the idealized target model: a seemingly impossible and unnecessary goal for learners to approximate. However, the term *native speaker* not only connotes an individual who has grown up speaking a certain language since birth, but also one who has experienced a monolingual upbringing (Ortega, 2014; also see Rothman & Treffers-Daller, 2014). In contrast, AL learners may encompass individuals from an array of backgrounds and linguistic contexts, who bring with them a diverse set of language experiences and knowledge.

In idealizing the monolingual native speaker, AL learners' lived linguistic experiences are not recognized, nor are learners viewed as the emergent bilinguals that they are. Rather, they are viewed as deficient for not reaching native-like competence in the TL (Grosjean, 1989); in other words, they are framed in terms of what they are *not*, rather than what they have already achieved. Critically, in addition to underscoring deficiency, rather than proficiency, this perspective promotes the achievement of monolingual-like standards among speakers who are, by definition, not monolingual to begin with (Pascual y Cabo & Prada, 2018). It is, at least partly, based on this pursuit of monolingual proficiency that target-language only policies find their philosophical rooting. FL and L2 teaching has been guided by the maxim that teachers should use only the TL and avoid students' dominant language (Chambers, 1991; Littlewood & Yu, 2011). As a reaction to this, we position AL teaching as a conceptual turn that takes as its point of departure the multilingual nature of the AL learner.

The last 20 years have seen an acknowledgement of the possibilities of using students' dominant language in the classroom. Although some scholars (e.g., Antón & DiCamilla, 1999; Butzkamm, 2011; Lin, 2015; Littlewood, & Yu, 2011; Macaro, 2005; Scott & De La Fuente, 2008; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009) have advocated for the use of what is commonly referred to as the learners' home language in the FL/L2 classroom, these arguments remain based predominantly in monolingual perspectives of language separation. Fundamentally, as we see it, the mere inclusion of the learners' home language(s) in the AL learning environment does not necessarily work to frame said learning as a bilingual event. In keeping with this issue, Turnbull (2018) advocated for an epistemological reform in traditional FL education, claiming it to be a form of bilingual education. He argued for a change in the mindset surrounding FL learners to recognize their emergent bilingual status in an attempt to disrupt the construction of FL learners as unsuccessful monolinguals.

In a response, García (2017) took a critical, poststructuralist approach to further suggest that the active use of translanguaging practices is a key concept to facilitate this turn. She added that cross-linguistic pedagogies are required to leverage the entire linguistic repertoires of emergent bilinguals in AL learning contexts and facilitate their development and assimilation of bilingual languaging¹ strategies. However, AL

¹ *Languaging* refers to the continuous process of becoming oneself through the use of language and interaction in one's linguistic and environmental surroundings. Translingual practices, then, are those languaging practices that transcend between and beyond the socially constructed boundaries of languages in which a speaker holds multi-competence.

education has traditionally failed to accept the notion of developing language skills in cooperation with preexisting language knowledge, focusing instead on language separation and language development in competition. The overarching goal of AL learning is not merely to obtain linguistic competence in the TL as a monolingual of that language, but to *appropriate* new bilingual languaging strategies in association with old ones for use in an individual's everyday life. Hence, our emphasis is on organic expansion, as opposed to linear addition. It is ironic, then, that attaining a level of functioning bilingual ability through AL education is so firmly rooted in monolingual encounters with the TL (Scott, 2010). Butzkamm and Cadwell (2009) blame this on the instructor, who they suggest fails to "master the sophisticated and powerful bilingual techniques necessary to harness the linguistic resources of the learners" (p. 16). To their argument we add that teacher-training programs are a critical piece in the perpetuation of these ideologies, and the educational enterprise as a whole has exerted too sharp a focus on teaching the language (and its associated elements: cultural, ideological, postcolonial), instead of developing the learner (as an individual citizen). In fact, changes on this front have begun to be incorporated in mainstream thinking. For example, the centennial issue of *Hispania*, the journal of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP) has included current works that reference, if still through a language separation lens, the potential of using Spanish as a pivot language in the teaching of third languages within the US context (Donato, 2018), and in doing so, brings to bear tenets of the multilingual turn.

In line with this way of thinking, new voices have begun to advocate for the inclusion of translanguaging practices in the FL/L2 classroom, supporting our conceptualization of an AL classroom. In broad terms, translanguaging refers to the flexible linguistic practices multilingual individuals engage in their interactions (García & Li Wei, 2014). In acknowledging the value of such fluid practices, the implications and possibilities seem vast. Indeed, a translanguaging approach to AL extends beyond the classroom as it aims at the "development of different language practices to varying degrees in order to interact with increasingly multilingual communities in a global world" (García & Sylvan, 2011, p. 388). For us, it is important that the ability to engage in multilingual practices in "contact zones" (Pratt, 1991) move to the forefront of AL education, which we conceptualize below as the inclusion and promotion of "translanguaging as (meta)skill."

Similarly, Cenoz and Gorter (2011) proposed a Focus on Multilingualism (FoM) as an alternative to the traditional perspective of language separation in the AL classroom, hinging on three distinct elements: (1) the multilingual speaker; (2) the linguistic repertoire as a whole; and (3) the social context. When combined, these three components offer a framework that captures the multilingual speaker employing their complete linguistic system to create meaning in various social contexts. Just like we used AL teaching and learning as a conceptual tool to rearrange assumptions about the chronological axis and its implications, we view FoM as a holistic lens to approach the learner as a speaker in context. Taken together, AL and FoM offer a philosophical bedrock to entertain the possibilities of translanguaging as a legitimate and potentially transformative classroom practice. Cenoz (2017) notes that the inclusion of translanguaging practices lies at the heart of the multilingual turn, and although recent publications have supported this in a specifically FL learning context (e.g., Turnbull, 2018), the notion has yet to become widespread on a global scale. Against this background, we identify the possibilities of classroom translanguaging not only as a central component in the reconfiguration of FL and L2 into AL in terms of linguistic practice, but we also stress the transformative potential in terms of ideologies and attitudes among learners and teachers. Moreover, we highlight the role of classroom translanguaging to open the classroom to real-life discourses and needs that characterize our multilingual world.

While a deep discussion of the social justice component is beyond the scope of this discussion, we consider it a critical issue in traditional conceptualizations of FL and L2 education. The brief examination of some of the philosophical underpinnings of FL/L2 education presented above unveils ways in which L2/FL users are often constructed as ever-learning, underperforming individuals who seek to meet a standard that is external to their experience. These conceptualizations, however, are usually extended to also encompass speakers who have already achieved multilingual fluency. These individuals include, but are not limited to, speaker categories taxonomically incorporating some degree of built-in subordination and/or a need of further development, such as English language learners (in US bilingual education settings), heritage speakers, new speakers, and members of linguistically-diverse communities who seek literacy development in an official language. Just like we support bottom-up (as opposed to deficit-based) conceptualizations of these speaker types through their bi-/multi-lingual profiles, our argument accommodates the idea that those individuals who display communicative proficiency but have traditionally been construed as FL/L2 learners are best understood as AL users/speakers. This conceptual shift helps materialize a will to move stigmatized

and unprivileged practices from marginalized positions to discursive spaces where acknowledgement, understanding, and empowerment become possible.

3. Translanguaging in the AL classroom

Before delving into a more detailed account of translanguaging as a facilitator of the multilingual turn in language classrooms, an overview of classroom translanguaging as presented in the current literature is in order. The term *translanguaging* originated from Welsh educationalist Cen Williams's notion of *trawsieithu*, a central element to his (1994) unpublished doctoral dissertation. Williams framed translanguaging as the "planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012, p. 643), whereby languages were deliberately alternated for receptive and productive use (Baker, 2011). For example, learners could read a text in Welsh and discuss it in English or listen to a passage in English and write about it in Welsh. This is what García and Lin (2017) refer to now as *weak translanguaging*, whereby both languages are employed to various degrees and the barriers between them are softened but remain intact. In contrast, they propose the term *strong translanguaging* as a conceptual expansion that accounts for the complex, semiotic language practices and pedagogies of bi-/multi-lingual communities who transcend between and beyond the systems that make up their complete linguistic repertoires (also see Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Li Wei, 2014; Hornberger & Link, 2012). Within a strong translanguaging framework, language is viewed not as a closed, bound structure in the speaker's mind, but as a fluid practice in which speakers engage to make meaning (Pennycook, 2010). The barriers between these languages, those that have traditionally fueled the idea of language separation in FL and L2 learning, are considered a construction of the nation-state (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007), and the languages in which a speaker possesses competence as a set of linguistic features. These features belong to a single, integrated linguistic system on which bilingual speakers draw in accordance with the rules of socially-constructed languages to make meaning of their bilingual world, to express themselves, and to learn.

Although the original concept of translanguaging was specifically designed for use in bilingual education settings—see Williams' (1994) explanation in the Welsh bilingual context—, translanguaging practices can also be implemented in a multitude of learning contexts with slight conceptual differences. Whereas traditional bilingual education programs have varied goals and structures, they are generally united by the notion that learning is conducted in two languages with bilingualism as the intended goal. Other contexts that have not traditionally been considered as sites of bilingual education, such as those in which a target language is presented/learned as second or foreign, have conventionally operated under the assumption that immersion is most beneficial for students' learning, with translanguaging practices being construed as problematic and deviant. Against this baseline, recent counterarguments have emerged. For example, Kleyn (2016) suggests that translanguaging is a "multiway street to learning and integrating language practices" (p. 217) in a variety of different contexts. She identifies a number of different classroom types (including English as a second language, Content and Language Integrated Learning, and foreign language learning) as well as program types (including those bridging content areas and grade levels) as potential sites of pedagogical experimentation, although few specific details concerning how to enact translanguaging practices in such contexts are provided.

García and Li Wei (2014) emphasize that, regardless of context, language learners are not learning a separate language; instead, they are taking control of their own learning to appropriate and assimilate new languaging strategies and unique meaning-making resources. They identify seven ways in which translanguaging practices can be used to leverage students' learning in the AL classroom: (1) to differentiate among student levels and adapt instructional approaches accordingly; (2) to build background knowledge; (3) to deepen understandings and develop new knowledge and critical thinking; (4) to encourage cross-linguistic transfer and metalinguistic awareness; (5) to promote cross-linguistic flexibility for competent language use; (6) to encourage identity investment; and (7) to disrupt linguistic hierarchies and social structures. In the case of AL learning, teachers and students alike should consider how they can leverage their home language(s) and linguistic experiences to facilitate the development of languaging skills in the TL. Translanguaging practices can be used in situations even when instructors cannot speak the learners' home languages (García & Li Wei, 2014) so long as they are willing and able to relinquish some power to students, enabling them to take control of their own language development. This results in the development of a translanguaging classroom, which García, Ibarra Johnson and Seltzer (2017) describe as "a space built collaboratively by the teacher and bilingual students as they use their different language practices to teach and learn in deeply creative and critical ways" (p. 2). In allowing for creativity and criticality (see Li Wei, 2011), a translanguaging classroom

is a place in which learners of linguistically diverse backgrounds can integrate social spaces and language codes previously practiced in separation. Moreover, in the process, they may contest the language separation ideologies of traditional monolingual-based AL education. Turnbull (2017) also refers to the way in which translangual practices may be used in the AL classroom for assessment purposes from structural-, task-, and knowledge-based perspectives. In an attempt to dismantle the construct of AL learners as double monolinguals, he argues against the summative monolingual-based assessment formats that have thus far dominated traditional FL/L2 education, instead underscoring the importance of translangual models that holistically evaluate AL learners' complete linguistic repertoires. Such models help to reveal the ways in which students employ their unique linguistic repertoire to make meaning of their bilingual world, to express themselves as emergent bilinguals, and to learn in various bilingual contexts.

García (2017) perhaps summarizes the issue best: "As long as language learning is conceptualized as L2 skills, we will be left with L2 learners, and not with emergent bilinguals who are constructing and expanding their own bilingual repertoire" (p. 9). So long as traditional practices grounded in educated monolingual native-speakers as the idealized target model continue to reign prevalent in AL classrooms, we will not be able to make the jump required to modernize AL education by way of the multilingual turn. The inclusion of translangual practices can be adapted to fit the state of every language classroom regardless of the kind of learners, teachers, and/or educational context involved. Translangual practices teach us that AL learning is not simply additive, nor is it dual; bilingualism is resignified as unitary, connoting a single integrated system to which all linguistic features of so-called "named languages" are stored (García, 2009). It is important that we harness the integrated power of AL learners' complete linguistic repertoires to leverage their current and newly emerging bilingual languaging strategies as they aim to assimilate and develop new practices in combination with old ones, hence our focus on an organic ecological expansion of the speakers' communicative abilities, as opposed to a linear additive approach. Currently, practices emphasizing organic expansion are rarely encountered in the traditional AL classroom, but that is not to say we cannot realize this goal. The multilingual turn in AL education is the bridge between traditional monolingual-based forms of AL education and a future in which AL learners are recognized holistically as emergent bilinguals with particular personal trajectories and multiple experiential resources. This understanding stimulates ideological restructuring that equips learners to be sociolinguistically fluent in a plural and diverse world.

Considering the above account of classroom translanguaging, we identify three core factors to bear in mind when endeavoring to translate theorizations of classroom translanguaging into praxis: (1) deforeignizing the AL learner; (2) understanding hybrid forms as emergent; and (3) developing translanguaging as skill (Figure 1). We now provide a brief description of these three areas and their interfaces.

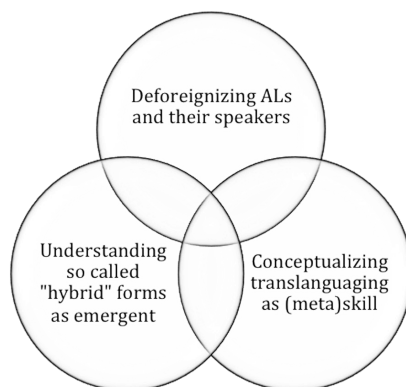


Figure 1. *Three areas of activity to support/enable classroom translanguaging.*

The first area to address revolves around the de-foreignization of ALs and their speakers. This notion is not new. The teacher training literature, for example, has developed a solid line of argumentation concerning the pedagogical abilities and communicative value of non-native language teachers (e.g., Braine, 2013; Llurda, 2006). Similarly, research on English as a lingua franca (e.g., Cenoz, 2017) and World Englishes (e.g., Canagarajah, 1999, 2006; Nikula, 2007) as well as heritage speaker bilingualism (e.g., Pascual y Cabo & Rothman, 2012; Rothman & Treffers-Daller, 2014) have asked us to rethink speaker types that have traditionally fallen outside of the native speaker standard through a multilingual perspective. A commonality

cutting across these proposals, which move away from deficiency descriptions, is a challenge to the assumption that non-(monolingual)-native speakers are somehow incomplete. More importantly, this perspective lays out epistemological foundations to tackle traditional ontological building blocks. For example, notions such as World/Global/New English(es) refer to multilingual English varieties spoken across the world in places such as Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean (for an in-depth treatment see Jenkins, 2006). This line of work allows us to approach the multilingual individual through a multilingual perspective—a notion that, while seemingly commonplace, has generally eluded AL practitioners. This epistemological change, while seemingly theoretical, offers multiple applications in terms of classroom policy, objectives and goals, and thematic components for classroom discussions (we discuss some of these in Section 4). Recent proposals such as Gorter and Cenoz's (2011) FoM, described in Section 1, become useful conceptual tools that can guide language practitioners and researchers in repositioning themselves and their AL students in light of the multilingual turn. By incorporating the multilingual profile of AL learners in our conceptualization, we seek to move away from perpetually representing them through deficit and otherness.

The second area is focused on the flexible linguistic practices engaged in by bi-/multi-lingual speakers and their sociolinguistic value. There is a vast body of research on *hybrid* (for lack of a better term) varieties such as Spanglish (Ardila, 2005; Otheguy & Stern, 2011; Zentella, 1997) and Chinglish (Qiang & Wolf, 2003; Wenzhong, 1993). While the scholarly literature on this topic—despite its theoretical orientation—often treats such practices as communicatively valuable, this is arguably the case at the broader social level (MacSwan, 2000). These practices are most often construed as a sign of deficiency, a lack of education, or an effect of linguistic impairment (Fuller, 2013). It is, therefore, fundamental that AL students in particular (and language (arts) students in general) be exposed to and have opportunities to explore these practices from an informed perspective. By training future teachers in the emergent nature of linguistic repertoires and, therefore, linguistic practices, we can position them to create learning spaces where students can investigate and normalize multilingual practices. Along these lines, the third area centers on enabling AL learners to acknowledge their own emergent multilingualism as a resource. Ruiz (1995), in connection with the previous conceptual works of others (e.g., Fishman, 1991; Jernudd, 1999) and by drawing on Khun's work, proposes the understanding of language-as-societal resource. Over the years, the understanding of language-as-resource has become a site of contradictory perspectives, whereby some (e.g., Petrovic, 2014; Ricento, 2005) argue that positioning bilingualism as a resource unveils (and bolsters) a neoliberal perspective in which language constitutes a commodity. More recently, Ruiz (2010) revisited his language-as-resource corollary to explicitly move away from this neoliberal vein. In light of these discussions, we posit a translanguaging-as-resource perspective, whereby the ability to manipulate linguistic repertoires and semiotic resources becomes a central component of dexterous multilingual communicators in the 21st century. This particular ability, which we refer to as *translanguaging as skill*, is the third area of activity that we identify.

At the core of *translanguaging as skill* is the ultimate goal of helping language learners develop translingual abilities to successfully navigate contact zones. Pratt (1991) defined contact zones as “social spaces where cultures meet, clash and grapple with each other, often in contexts of highly asymmetrical relations of power” (p. 34). At present, a more organic understanding of these *clashes* has been advanced, partly due to increased global mobility and the internet as a site for everyday interactions. Canagarajah (2013) offered a compelling theorization of translingual abilities for contact zones in his proposal that viewing writing as translingual requires a shift in our orientation to literacy (i.e., from autonomous to negotiated). We align with this perspective and situate an understanding of translanguaging as skill as a signature element in AL education within the multilingual turn. Importantly, translanguaging as skill transcends methodological boundaries among traditional AL skills in pedagogy, enabling learners to mediate among and move beyond them. It revolves around the meaning-making capacity of multilinguals, understood holistically, instead of restricting practices that frame skills according to proficiency (and therefore deficiency) scales.

In light of the above discussion, it should be easier to understand the potential of classroom translanguaging and its implications and possibilities for AL educational contexts in particular, and for education and policy-making in general. Before turning our attention to explicit ways whereby translanguaging acts as a facilitator of the multilingual turn, a recap of some central points is in order. First, traditional (and current mainstream) perspectives on FL and L2 teaching and learning position the language of study as foreign to the learner's needs and repertoire, accentuating the belief that FL and L2 learners/speakers and their experiences are secondary to those of monolingual native speakers. Second, the use of alternative categories, such as AL teaching and learning, situates learners' repertoires as central to

processes of teaching and learning. Third, moving away from imagined monolingual standards requires the undoing of post-colonial structures that sustain everyday conceptualizations about what is good and right in language use and teaching. AL classrooms (and the training of AL teachers and language arts² teachers in general) would do well to contest old/static paradigms that position the AL learner as receiver and mimicker of monolingual patterns, thereby creating spaces for multilingual interaction and stimulating new ways of using language critically, creatively, and accurately. Finally, at its core, translanguaging teaches learners not only about language, but also about how to use language effectively (i.e., how to *language*) in different contexts. To this end, the promotion of cross-language learning and the use of related strategies in AL classrooms to which learners are sensitized can work to address a real need in today's society. We are not arguing that translanguaging represents as a more necessary skill than the ability to, for example, access monolingual texts in the target language, or produce narratives in the target language; rather, we argue that, as a communicatively purposeful activity with the potential to transform social spaces, it can promote multilingual practices (and their speakers). We now offer a detailed discussion of how translanguaging may help facilitate the multilingual turn in the AL classroom.

4. Facilitating the multilingual turn in AL education through translanguaging

We view translanguaging as a metaprocess that connects linguistic practices, promotes sociolinguistic equity, allows AL learners to express their true identities, and leverages their overall bilingualism so they may act as whole people in their bilingual worlds. Practical guides for enacting translanguaging practices in bilingual classrooms have been provided in the past (see, for example, García, Ibarra Johnson & Seltzer, 2017; García & Kleyn, 2016); however, these guides are normally offered within the framework of bilingual education and are less common for AL learning contexts. The main difference between AL classrooms and other forms of bilingual education (including heritage and minority language classrooms, in which, traditionally, translanguaging practices have arguably been more common), is that the goal of the latter is specifically to teach one named target language (García, 2017), conventionally through the exclusive use of said language (see Leeman & Serafini, 2016; Pascual y Cabo & Prada, 2018). However, that is not to say that translanguaging practices cannot be employed in AL activities as support for the development of the TL. As García et al. (2017) suggest, "If we limit students to the use of only part of the linguistic repertoires—especially the part that is considered their *weaker* language—we also limit their ability to learn" (p. 105). Research has shown that translanguaging pedagogical and learning strategies can be used in activities involving any or all of four main language skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing) in the AL classroom to enhance the learning and development of the TL by students of all ages and proficiency levels—see Poza's (2017) review of previous studies on translanguaging. In fact, translanguaging is, perhaps, a most powerful resource at the interface of different skills, as it stimulates skill transfer from the more dominant (more rehearsed/practiced/automatized) language(s) to support the weaker one(s).

In the AL classroom, the acceptance and enactment of a *translanguaging instructional design* (i.e., the strategic way in which teachers plan and implement a lesson within a translanguaging space) is a pivotal step toward facilitating the multilingual turn in AL education. A translanguaging instructional design connects students' home language practices and identities with those typical of the TL. García, Ibarra Johnson, and Seltzer (2017) refer to five key stages of the translanguaging instructional design cycle: (1) *explorar*; (2) *evaluar*; (3) *imaginar*; (4) *presentar*; and (5) *implementar*, which form the basis of a model from which teachers can plan and create translanguaging spaces in support of the multilingual turn. In this framework, *explorar* refers to having learners explore new content and themes from a variety of viewpoints and in multiple languages as a means to spark interest in a given topic. *Evaluar* refers to the assessment of what learners have learnt and the simultaneous encouragement of their creativity and criticality, a step that contributes to the next stage of the translanguaging instructional design cycle: *imaginar*. *Imaginar* encourages AL learners to employ various translanguaging practices to process and integrate new information in multiple languages, and to support and foster the development of new and imaginative ways of thinking in their bilingual worlds. In the fourth stage, *presentar*, AL learners are able to engage in peer-feedback, group discussion, and finally presentation of their work to pairs, groups, teachers, or the entire class so that they

² The term *language arts* refers to the study of the systems and structures of language and of language conventions, including grammar, punctuation, and spelling. Additionally, students explore how language conventions vary across contexts. In this context, language encompasses visual communication, spoken and written forms of expression (NCTE & IRA, 1996).

may reflect on, and become aware of, their learning and language practices and adapt them to relevant circumstances and interlocutors. Finally, the *implementar* stage provides AL learners with a space to show all that they know and can do through the employment of their complete linguistic repertoires for meaningful and authentic purposes. Students learn contextualized ways of using their language practices to communicate and make meaning with various interlocutors and in various contexts, thus showing themselves to be effective emergent bilinguals.

In terms of productive language activities within this model, translanguaging can be employed as students build background knowledge on a given topic before demonstrating this knowledge in the TL (i.e., in the *explorar* stage of the translanguaging instructional design cycle). For example, AL learners may discuss a topic in groups or pairs, or interview people in their community, in their home language(s) (referring to the structures and features the learner mobilizes at home and in the community beyond named languages) to gather ideas and develop an outline before giving an oral presentation in the TL. They may also write stories with bilingual characters using two languages, search on websites in their various languages to research a topic, or annotate texts with important vocabulary and ideas in their home language(s) before composing an essay or report in the TL. Translanguaging allows AL learners to brainstorm, plan, draft, edit, and revise oral presentations or written compositions in one language, or a combination of languages, before producing them in the target language; translanguaging practices can also be used during receptive language activities in AL contexts of learning. Learners may, for example, listen to a passage in the TL and then discuss the meaning in their home language(s), or watch a TL video with subtitles in their home language. They may also read and compare different texts on a given topic in various languages or discuss the meaning of a given TL text in their home language(s) after reading it to deepen their overall comprehension (also see activity guides by García et al., 2017; García & Kleifgen, 2018; García & Li Wei, 2014).

AL teachers may also assign translanguaging tasks such as projects in which learners may, for example, produce bilingual posters or books/pamphlets about a given topic and present to the class in the TL or language inquiry tasks where learners metalinguistically compare and contrast different aspects of their home language and the TL. Learners could also be required to engage in problem solving through translanguaging, both academically (e.g., textual analysis) and practically (e.g., acting out a response for various situations, such as being lost in a city), with the potential to extend translanguaging strategies beyond the AL classroom to other subjects, such as problem solving in math and science (also see Lin & Lo, 2017; Nikula & Moore, 2016, for work on translanguaging in CLIL classroom contexts). For a more holistic approach to assessment in the classroom, teachers may provide learners with a deeper sense of the class direction and goal by means of translations of lesson objectives and key words distributed prior to activities. They could also employ translanguaging following activities, in the *evaluar* stage of the translanguaging instructional design cycle. For example, assessment instructions or questions may be provided in learners' home language(s), with answers requested in TL. Alternatively, learners could be asked to paraphrase information they have learnt in one language in the other. Furthermore, various forms of translanguaging-based alternative assessments, including bilingual portfolios, journals, reading logs, role plays, and exhibits, can work to explore the process of languaging as well as learners' development as emergent bilinguals, challenging the traditional "one-answer" notion of standardized monolingual-based assessment in the AL classroom.

Another possibility is the exploration of the multilingual *linguistic landscape* of a street, town or neighborhood. Broadly speaking, linguistic landscape refers to the publicly displayed signs, billboards, and posters in a particular area (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Elola and Prada (forthcoming), propose a course of action for the implementation of a linguistic landscape-based unit in an advanced composition Spanish course at a US University, and explore its effects in terms of critical (socio)linguistic awareness. More specifically, a mixed group (composed of L2 and heritage language learners) worked in pairs or triads to explore the Spanish linguistic landscape of the surrounding city. In doing so, many of the students noticed and reported how Spanish and English were used in combination, beyond simple translations, to create complete messages. Strategies such as this expose students to the linguistic practices of others and facilitate their development of informed perspectives on bi-/multilingualism, and ultimately working to normalize multilingualism in the classroom.

Due to the continued dominance of traditional perspectives that position L2 and FL education as a monolingual event, the bilingual status of AL education and the emergent bilingual status of AL learners are too often overlooked. Moreover, the individual trajectories and experiences of learners are neutralized, and at times, problematized, particularly in the case of students from diverse racial and linguistic backgrounds and low socio-economic status. The undoing of the archaic constructs of monolingual-based pedagogies is

dependent upon a focus on multilingualism (see Cenoz & Gorter, 2011), an understanding of the AL learner as a multilingual speaker who employs their full linguistic repertoire to create meaning in various social contexts, and the introduction of a translanguaging instructional design cycle in the AL classroom. Teachers, teacher trainers, curriculum designers, policy makers, and AL students themselves should come to recognize the development of bilingualism as the ultimate goal of AL learning. It is only through the employment of translanguaging in the AL classroom that we can facilitate the over-due multilingual turn in AL education and move towards a holistic understanding of AL learners as emergent bilinguals. In doing so, we engage the *transformative* nature of translanguaging (see Prada & Nikula, 2018; Li Wei & Zhu Hua, 2013) to promote social justice in the classroom, that is, a non-threatening equality between bi-/multi-lingual speakers' languages and associated identities. This is important for AL learning as it "brings together different dimensions of the multilingual speakers' linguistic, cognitive, and social skills, their knowledge and experience of the social world and their attitudes and beliefs" (Li Wei & Zhu Hua, 2013, p. 4; also see García & Leiva, 2014; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009). In the process, we promote equality and harmony between the languages in which learners hold multicompetence and their associated identities, allowing them to draw upon their full linguistic repertoires in developing the TL, to express themselves as individuals, to make meaning of their bilingual worlds, and to learn.

5. Conclusions

The bilingual education arena, as addressed by the work of García and colleagues has pioneered the use of flexible language policies in the classroom. Similarly, in the UK, Creese and Blackledge documented translanguaging in complementary schools in Birmingham, and Canagarajah's work has focused on translanguaging practices in English literacy development. Building on their ideas and those of others, and drawing on our own previous research, this article has presented the potential role, possibilities for implementation, and opportunities for learners that translanguaging may mobilize to facilitate the multilingual turn in the AL classroom. We have focused on *AL teaching and learning*, a concept aimed to encompass but also to transcend the conceptual and philosophical boundaries of FL and L2 education. We understand translanguaging as a metaprocess and view it as fundamental to the reconceptualization of old perspectives, the normalization of bi-/multilingual practices and experiences, and the leveraging of sociolinguistic backgrounds and skills in the classroom and beyond. Three issues were identified as key to the adoption of a translanguaging pedagogy: a need to deforeignize the AL learner (their practices, their identities, and their experiences), to understand translanguaging as (meta)skill (and the ability to engage in meaning-making processes that may align with monolingual patterns but are communicatively purposeful and nuanced), and to understand so called hybrid language forms as emergent (as opposed to the addition of incomplete parts, or strategies to counterbalance semilingualism). The development of translanguaging as a metaskill in AL contexts does not preclude the employment of traditional practices in other contexts, such as the language arts classroom, where monolingualism and monolingual ideologies are perpetuated. Changes in other spaces, however, may occur over time. In developing our argument, we have emphasized the role of existing conceptualizations of being and becoming bi-/multi-lingual in educational contexts. In doing so, we described how standard monolingual ideologies may impede the cultivation of translanguaging in language classrooms.

There is a need for early socialization into models of sociolinguistic behavior that are representative of 21st century global citizenship in our connected world. Global citizenship (Banks, 2014; Lewin, 2010) builds on the normalization of the linguistic practices that are authentic (and ordinary) in globalized societies through the development of multilingual(ly aware) profiles. Consequently, it is important that ideologies underlying the translanguaging perspective permeate language arts curricula and, in the process, promote the value of diverse experiences during the early stages of language education. The multilingual turn (and with it, translanguaging) can only begin to take root as the normative paradigm not only in research but in education when teachers and students normalize the use of diverse repertoires in the language classroom.

References

- Antón, Marta, & DiCamilla, Frederick J. (1999). Socio-cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(2), 233–247.
- Ardila, Alfredo (2005). Spanglish: an anglicized Spanish dialect. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 27(1), 60–81.
- Auer, Peter (2007). The monolingual bias in bilingualism research, or: why bilingual talk is (still) a challenge for linguistics. In Monica Heller (Ed.), *Bilingualism: A social approach* (pp. 319–339). London, United Kingdom: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Braine, George (Ed.). (2013). *Non-native educators in English language teaching*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Routledge.
- Butzkamm, Wolfgang (2011). Why make them crawl when they can walk? Teaching with mother tongue support. *RELC Journal*, 42(3), 379–391. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0033688211419830>.
- Butzkamm, Wolfgang, & Cadwell, John A. (2009). *The bilingual reform: A paradigm shift in foreign language teaching*. Tübingen, Germany: Narr Studienbücher.
- Canagarajah, Suresh (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.
- Canagarajah, Suresh (2006). The place of world Englishes in composition: Pluralization continued. *College composition and communication*, 57(4), 586–619.
- Canagarajah, Suresh (2013). *Critical academic writing and multilingual students*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press.
- Canagarajah, Suresh (2014). In search of a new paradigm for teaching English as an international language. *TESOL Journal*, 5(4), 767–785. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/tesj.166>.
- Carreira, Maria, & Kagan, Olga (2018). Heritage language education: A proposal for the next 50 years. *Foreign Language Annals*, 51(1), 152–168. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/flan.12331>.
- Cenoz, Jasone (2017). Translanguaging pedagogies and English as a lingua franca. *Language Teaching*, 52(1), 1–15. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000246>.
- Cenoz, Jasone, & Genesee, Fred (Eds.). *Beyond bilingualism: Multilingualism and multilingual education*. Vol. 110. Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Cenoz, Jasone, & Gorter, Durk (2011). Focus on multilingualism: A study of trilingual writing. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 356–369. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01206.x>.
- Chambers, Francine (1991). Promoting use of the target language in the classroom. *Language Learning Journal*, 4(1), 27–31. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09571739185200411>.
- Conteh, Jean, & Meier, Gabriela (Eds.). (2014). *The multilingual turn in languages education: Opportunities and challenges*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Cook, Vivian (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue Canadienne des Langues Vivantes*, 57(3), 402–423. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.57.3.402>.
- Cook, Vivian (2002). Background to the L2 user. In Vivian Cook (Ed.), *Portraits of the L2 user* (pp. 1–28). Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Costa, Albert (2005). Lexical access in bilingual production. In Judith Kroll & Annette De Groot (Eds.), *Handbook of bilingualism: Psycholinguistic approaches* (pp. 308–325). New York, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Creese, Angela, & Blackledge, Adrian (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(1), 103–115.
- Cruickshank, Kenneth, & Wright, Jan (2016). A tale of two cities. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 39(1), 72–94.
- Cummins, Jim (2007). Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics/Revue Canadienne de Linguistique Appliquée*, 10(2), 221–240.
- De La Campa, Julianne C., & Nassaji, Hossein (2009). The amount, purpose, and reasons for using L1 in L2 classrooms. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(4), 742–759.

- Dewaele, Jean-Marc (2017). Why the dichotomy 'L1 versus LX user' is better than 'native versus non-native speaker'. *Applied Linguistics*, 39(2), 236–240. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/amw055>.
- Donato, Clorinda (2018). Polyglots, Multilinguals, and Translanguagers: Spanish as a Gateway Language. *Hispania*, 100(5), 285–287.
- Elola, Idoia, & Prada, Josh (forthcoming). Developing critical sociolinguistic awareness through linguistic landscapes: The case of Spanish in Texas. In David Malinowski, Hiram Maxim, & Sebastien Dubreil (Eds.), *Language Teaching in the Linguistic Landscape*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Fishman, Joshua A. (1991). *Reversing language shift: Theoretical and empirical foundations of assistance to threatened languages* (Vol. 76). Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual matters.
- Fuller, Janet M. (2013). *Spanish Speakers in the USA* (Vol. 9). Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- García, Ofelia (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Blackwell.
- García, Ofelia (2017). Reflections on Turnbull's reframing of foreign language education: bilingual epistemologies. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 16(4).
- García, Ofelia, Ibarra Johnson, Susana, & Seltzer, Kate (2017). *The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning*. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Caslon Inc.
- García, Ofelia, & Kleifgen, Jo Anne (2018). *Educating emergent bilinguals: Policies, programs, and practices for English language learners* (2nd ed.). New York, New York: Teachers College Press.
- García, Ofelia, & Kleyn, Tatyana (Eds.). (2016). *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- García, Ofelia, & Leiva, Camila (2014). Theorizing and enacting translanguaging for social justice. In Adrian Blackledge & Angela Creese (Eds.), *Heteroglossia as practice and pedagogy* (pp. 199–216). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- García, Ofelia, & Lin, Angel M. Y. (2017). Translanguaging in bilingual education. In Ofelia García, & Angel M. Y. Lin (Eds.), *Bilingual and multilingual education* (pp. 117–130). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- García, Ofelia, & Sylvan, Claire E. (2011). Pedagogies and practices in multilingual classrooms: Singularities in pluralities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 385–400.
- García, Ofelia, & Li Wei (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Basingstoke, United Kingdom: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Grosjean, François (1989). Neurolinguists, beware! The bilingual is not two monolinguals in one person. *Brain and Language*, 36(1), 3–15. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0093-934X\(89\)90048-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0093-934X(89)90048-5).
- Hornberger, Nancy H., & Link, Holly (2012). Translanguaging and transnational literacies in multilingual classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(3), 261–278. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.658016>.
- Jamal, Amaney (2008). Civil liberties and the otherization of Arab and Muslim Americans. In Amaney Jamal, & Nadine Naber (Eds.), *Race and Arab Americans before and after 9/11: From invisible citizens to visible subjects* (pp. 114–130). Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press.
- Jernudd, Bjørn (1999). Language education policies—Asia. In Bernard Spolsky (Ed.), *Concise Encyclopaedia of Educational Linguistics* (pp. 116–122). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier.
- Kleyn, Tatyana (2016). Setting the path: Implications for teachers and educators. In Ofelia García, & Tatyana Kleyn (Eds.), *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments* (pp. 202–220). New York, New York: Routledge.
- Kroll, Judith, & Bialystok, Ellen (2013). Understanding the consequences of bilingualism for language processing and cognition. *Journal of Cognitive Psychology*, 25(5), 497–514.
- Landry, Rodrigue, & Bourhis, Richard Y. (1997). Linguistic landscape and ethnolinguistic vitality: An empirical study. *Journal of language and social psychology*, 16(1), 23–49.
- Leeman, Jennifer, & Serafini, Ellen J. (2016). Sociolinguistics for heritage language educators and students. In Marta Fairclough & Sara M. Beaudrie (Eds.), *Innovative strategies for heritage language teaching: A practical guide for the classroom* (pp. 56–79). Washington, District of Columbia: Georgetown University Press.

- Lewis, Gwyn, Jones, Bryn, & Baker, Colin (2012). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 641–654.
- Li Wei (2011). Multilinguality, multimodality, and multicompetence: Code-and modeswitching by minority ethnic children in complementary schools. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 370–384.
- Li Wei (2013). Conceptual and methodological issues in bilingualism and multilingualism research. In Tej K. Bhatia, & William C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The handbook of bilingualism and multilingualism* (2nd ed.) (pp. 26–51). Oxford, United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishing.
- Li Wei, & Zhu Hua (2013). Translanguaging identities and ideologies: Creating transnational space through flexible multilingual practices amongst Chinese university students in the UK. *Applied Linguistics*, 34(5), 1–21. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/amt022>.
- Lin, Angel (2015). Conceptualising the potential role of L1 in CLIL. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 28(1), 74–89. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2014.1000926>.
- Lin, Angel, & Lo, Yuen Y. (2017). Trans/languageing and the triadic dialogue in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms. *Language and Education*, 31(1), 26–45.
- Lindholm-Leary, Kathryn, & Borsato, Graciela (2006). Academic achievement. In Fred Genesee, Kathryn Lindholm-Leary, Bill Saunders, & Donna Christian (Eds.), *Educating English language learners: A synthesis of research evidence* (pp. 176–222). New York, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Littlewood, William, & Yu, Baohua (2011). First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language Teaching*, 44(1), 64–77. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444809990310>.
- Llurda, Enric (Ed.). (2005). *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (Vol. 5). New York, New York: Springer.
- Llurda, Enric (2009). Attitudes towards English as an international language: The pervasiveness of native models among L2 users and teachers. In Farzad Sharifian (Ed.), *English as an international language: Perspectives and pedagogical issues* (pp. 119–134). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Macaro, Ernesto (2005). Codeswitching in the L2 classroom: A communication and learning strategy. In Ernesto Llurda (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (pp. 63–84). New York, New York: Springer.
- MacSwan, Jeff (2000). The threshold hypothesis, semilingualism, and other contributions to a deficit view of linguistic minorities. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 22(1), 3–45.
- MacSwan, Jeff (2017). A multilingual perspective on translanguaging. *American Educational Research Journal*, 54(1), 167–201. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/0002831216683935>.
- Makoni, Sinfree, & Pennycook, Alastair (2007). *Disinventing and reconstituting languages*. Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- May, Stephen (Ed.). (2013). *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and bilingual education*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- Meier, Gabriela (2018). Multilingual socialisation in education: Introducing the M-SOC approach. *Language Education and Multilingualism: The Langscape Journal*, 1(1), 103–125.
- Nikula, Tarja (2007). Speaking English in Finnish content-based classrooms. *World Englishes*, 26(2), 206–223.
- Nikula, Tarja, & Moore, Pat (2016). Exploring translanguaging in CLIL. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1254151>.
- Ortega, Lourdes (2014). Ways forward for a bi/multilingual turn in SLA. In Stephen May (Ed.), *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL and bilingual education* (pp. 32–53). London, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Ortega, Lourdes (2017). New CALL-SLA research interfaces for the 21st century: Towards equitable multilingualism. *CALICO Journal*, 34(3), 285–316.
- Ortega, Lourdes, & Zyzik, Eve (2008). Online interactions and L2 learning: Some ethical challenges for L2 researchers. In Sally Magnan (Ed.), *Mediating discourse online* (pp. 331–355). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Otheguy, Ricardo, García, Ofelia, & Reid, Wallis (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 6(3), 281–307.

- Otheguy, Ricardo, García, Ofelia, & Reid, Wallis (2018). A translanguaging view of the linguistic system of bilinguals. *Applied Linguistics Review*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2018-0020>.
- Otheguy, Ricardo, & Stern, Nancy (2011). On so-called Spanglish. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 15(1), 85–100. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1367006910379298>.
- Otsuji, Emi, & Pennycook, Alastair (2010). Metrolingualism: Fixity, fluidity and language in flux. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 7(3), 240–254. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14790710903414331>.
- Pascual y Cabo, Diego, & Prada, Josh (2018). Redefining Spanish teaching and learning in the United States. *Foreign Language Annals*, 51(3), 533–547.
- Pascual y Cabo, Diego, & Rothman, Jason (2012). The (il) logical problem of heritage speaker bilingualism and incomplete acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 33(4), 450–455.
- Pennycook, Alastair (2010). *Language as a local practice*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Petrovic, John E. (2014). *A post-liberal approach to language policy in education*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Poza, Luis (2017). Translanguaging: Definitions, implications, and further needs in burgeoning inquiry. *Berkeley Review of Education*, 6(2), 101–128. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5070/B86110060>.
- Pratt, Mary L. (1991). The arts of the contact zone. *Profession*, 91, 33–40.
- Qiang, Niu, & Wolff, Martin (2003). The Chinglish syndrome: Do recent developments endanger the language policy of China?. *English Today*, 19(4), 30–35.
- Rampton, Ben H (1990). Displacing the ‘native speaker’: Expertise, affiliation, and inheritance. *ELT Journal*, 44(2), 97–101.
- Ricento, Thomas (2005). Problems with the ‘language-as-resource’ discourse in the promotion of heritage languages in the USA. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 9(3), 348–368.
- Rothman, Jason, & Treffers-Daller, Jeanine (2014). A prolegomenon to the construct of the native speaker: Heritage speaker bilinguals are natives too!. *Applied linguistics*, 35(1), 93–98.
- Scott, Virginia M (2010). *Double talk: Deconstructing monolingualism in classroom second language learning*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Scott, Virginia M., & de la Fuente, Maria J. (2008). What’s the problem? L2 learners’ use of the L1 during consciousness-raising, form-focused tasks. *The Modern Language Journal*, 92(1), 100–113.
- Shohamy, Elana (2011). Assessing multilingual competencies: Adopting construct valid assessment policies. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 418–429.
- Schulze, Mathias, & Smith, Bryan (2015). In theory–We could be better. *CALICO Journal*, 32(1), i–iii.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, Tove (1988). Multilingualism and the education of minority children. In Tove Skutnabb-Kangas & Jim Cummins (Eds.), *Minority education: From shame to struggle* (pp. 9–44). Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual matters.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, Tove (2009). *Social justice through multilingual education*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Storch, Neomy, & Aldosari, Ali (2010). Learners’ use of first language (Arabic) in pair work in an EFL class. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(4), 355–375. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1362168810375362>.
- Storch, Neomy, & Wigglesworth, Gillian (2003). Is there a role for the use of the L1 in an L2 setting? *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(4), 760–769. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3588224>.
- Turnbull, Blake (2017). Towards new standards in foreign language assessment: Learning from bilingual education. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*.
- Turnbull, Blake (2018). Reframing foreign language learning as bilingual education: Epistemological changes towards the emergent bilingual. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(8), 1041–1048. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1238866>.
- Turnbull, Miles, & Dailey-O’Cain, Jennifer (Eds.). (2009). *First language use in second and foreign language learning*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Wenzhong, Li (1993). China English and Chinglish. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 4, 18–24.
- Williams, Cen (1994). *Arfarniad o ddulliau dysgu ac addysgu yng nghyd-destun addysg uwchradd ddwyieithog* [An evaluation of teaching and learning methods in the context of bilingual secondary education] (Unpublished PhD thesis). Bangor, United Kingdom: University of Wales.

Zentella, Ana C (1997). *Growing up bilingual: Puerto Rican children in New York*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Blackwell.

Josh Prada, Indiana University-Purdue University—Indianapolis
jprada@iu.edu

- EN** | **Josh Prada** (PhD, Texas Tech University; MA, Birkbeck, University of London) is Assistant Professor of Spanish Applied Linguistics in the Department of World Languages and Cultures, in the Indiana University School of Liberal Arts at IUPUI, where he teaches undergraduate and graduate courses in applied linguistics. His research interests are in critical approaches to bilingualism and multilingualism with an emphasis on minority/heritage speakers, complex approaches to language education, and translanguaging.
- ES** | **Josh Prada** (PhD, Texas Tech University; MA, Birkbeck, University of London) es profesor contratado de lingüística aplicada del español en el Departamento de lenguas y culturas del mundo en la Facultad de Estudios Liberales de la Universidad de Indiana IUPUI, donde enseña cursos de lingüística aplicada a nivel de grado y postgrado. Sus intereses investigadores se enfocan en el área de estudios críticos del bilingüismo y multilingüismo con énfasis en hablantes de lenguas de herencia o minoritarias, sistemas complejos en la enseñanza de lenguas y translingüismo.
- IT** | **Josh Prada** (dottorato presso la Texas Tech University e master presso la Birkbeck, University of London) è ricercatore di linguistica applicata spagnola presso il Dipartimento di Lingue e Culture del Mondo all'Indiana University School of Liberal Arts dell'Indiana University-Purdue University-Indianapolis, dove insegna corsi di laurea triennale, magistrale e post lauream in linguistica applicata. I suoi interessi di ricerca vertono sugli approcci critici al bilinguismo e al multilinguismo con un'enfasi sulle minoranze linguistiche e le lingue ereditarie, sugli approcci alla linguistica educative e al translanguaging.

Blake Turnbull, Kyoto University
turnbull.blake@gmail.com

- EN** | **Blake Turnbull** is an English instructor at Ritsumeikan University, and a Ph.D. student in the Department of Foreign Language Acquisition and Education at Kyoto University, Japan. He completed his MA degree in applied linguistics at the University of Otago, New Zealand. His research interests include language education, bi-/multilingualism, and translanguaging.
- ES** | **Blake Turnbull** es profesor de inglés en la Ritsumeikan University y estudiante de doctorado en el departamento de Enseñanza y Adquisición de Lenguas en la Kyoto University, Japón. Ha conseguido el Máster en lingüística aplicada en la University of Otago, Nueva Zelanda. Sus áreas de investigación incluyen la enseñanza de la lengua, el bi-/multilingüismo y el translingüismo.
- IT** | **Blake Turnbull** è docente di inglese alla Ritsumeikan University e studente di dottorato nel Dipartimento di Insegnamento e Apprendimento delle Lingue Straniere alla Kyoto University, Giappone. Ha conseguito il master in linguistica applicata presso la University of Otago, Nuova Zelanda. Le sue aree di ricerca includono l'insegnamento della lingua, il bi-/multilinguismo e il translanguaging.

A holistic model for multilingualism in education

JOANA DUARTE^{*ab}, MIRJAM GÜNTHER-VAN DER MEIJ^b,

^aUniversity of Groningen

^bNHL Stenden University of Applied Sciences

Received 16 July 2018; received in revised form 12 October 2018; accepted 15 November 2018

ABSTRACT

EN This paper presents a holistic model for multilingualism in education (Duarte, 2017), which combines different approaches to teaching and knowledge and places them in a continuum—from the acknowledgement of different languages to their actual use as a language of instruction. The model addresses attitudes, knowledge, and skills related to the multilingualism of both teachers and students (Herzog-Punzenberger, Le Pichon-Vorstman, & Siarova, 2017) and is suitable for different school types and students (i.e., for both minority and migrant students). The model is tested in the northern Netherlands in a multilingual education project that combines different approaches to multilingual education for both migrant and minority learners. Through design-based interventions, teachers and researchers collaboratively develop multilingual activities in a bottom-up approach (i.e., based on questions from the schools involved). Some preliminary results from the project are presented, and the model's contribution to research on multilingual education is discussed.

Key words: MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION, HOLISTIC APPROACH, MINORITY AND MIGRANT LANGUAGES

ES Este artículo presenta un modelo holístico para el multilingüismo en la educación (Duarte, 2017), el cual combina diferentes enfoques de la enseñanza y el conocimiento y los coloca en un continuo (desde el conocimiento de la existencia de diferentes idiomas hasta su uso actual como idioma de instrucción). El modelo responde a actitudes, conocimientos y habilidades relacionadas con el multilingüismo, tanto de los maestros como de los estudiantes (Herzog-Punzenberger, Le Pichon-Vorstman, & Siarova, 2017), y resulta adecuado para diferentes tipos de escuelas y estudiantes (por ejemplo, para estudiantes minoritarios y migrantes). El modelo se probó en el norte de los Países Bajos en un proyecto de educación multilingüe que combina diferentes enfoques de la educación multilingüe para estudiantes minoritarios y migrantes. Por medio de intervenciones basadas en el diseño curricular, los maestros y los investigadores desarrollan, en colaboración, actividades multilingües en un enfoque ascendente (por ejemplo, basado en preguntas de las escuelas involucradas). Se presentan algunos resultados preliminares del proyecto y se discute la contribución del modelo a la investigación sobre la educación multilingüe.

Palabras clave: EDUCACIÓN MULTILINGÜE, MODELO HOLÍSTICO, LENGUAS MINORITARIAS Y MIGRANTES

IT Questo articolo presenta un modello olistico per il multilinguismo nell'educazione (Duarte, 2017) che combina diversi approcci all'insegnamento e alla conoscenza e li colloca su un continuum – a partire dal riconoscimento delle diverse lingue fino al loro uso effettivo come lingue di insegnamento. Il modello affronta gli atteggiamenti, le conoscenze e le abilità relative al multilinguismo di insegnanti e studenti (Herzog-Punzenberger, Le Pichon-Vorstman, & Siarova, 2017) ed è adatto a diversi tipi di scuola e di studenti (per esempio, sia per le minoranze che per gli studenti migranti). Il modello è stato testato nei Paesi Bassi settentrionali in un progetto educativo multilingue che combina diversi approcci all'istruzione multilingue per studenti migranti e studenti di gruppi linguistici minoritari. Attraverso interventi basati sulla progettazione, insegnanti e ricercatori sviluppano collaborativamente attività multilingue in un approccio dal basso verso l'alto (cioè, sulla base delle domande delle scuole coinvolte). In questa sede vengono presentati alcuni risultati preliminari del progetto e viene discusso il contributo del modello alla ricerca sull'istruzione multilingue.

Parole chiave: EDUCATIVO MULTILINGUE, MODELLO OLISTICO, LINGUE MIGRANTI E MINORITARIE

* Contact: j.duarte@rug.nl

1. Introduction

The recent increase in the population of multilingual pupils in European schools has led to a renewed examination of models of multilingual education, or MLE (Cenoz, 2009; Hobbs, 2012) as means to improve school participation and outcomes of multilingual pupils. According to Cenoz and Gorter (2015), “multilingual education refers to the use of two or more languages in education, provided that schools aim at multilingualism and multiliteracy” (p. 2). It is thus an umbrella term for various pedagogical approaches that utilize several languages of instruction, also for those aiming to foster elite bilingualism. One common feature of many recent programs framed within an MLE perspective is the active inclusion of pupils’ family languages as a resource in instruction. Some pedagogical approaches have been developed to include pupils’ family languages in instruction even within typically monolingual education settings. However, these approaches have limitations when implemented within complex linguistic settings. This paper puts forward a new form of MLE, which we have termed *holistic multilingual education*, and discusses empirical evidence deriving from the implementation of this approach. We aim to determine whether our development is yet another “new something” or indeed something new.

The pressing need for the development of the holistic multilingual education approach derived from the particular context of the research. The study is set in Fryslân, a bilingual province in the North of the Netherlands, where Frisian is a regional minority language. About 55% of the 646.000 inhabitants of Fryslân speak Frisian as their mother tongue, whilst 30% speak Dutch as their mother tongue and 15%, often from a migrant background, speak another language (Provinsje Fryslân, 2015). Native Frisian speakers are typically proficient in Dutch, since Dutch is the dominant language. Frisian is typically spoken in rural areas and to a much lesser extent in urban areas, where Dutch or dialects are spoken (Provinsje Fryslân, 2015). English is the most commonly taught foreign language. Our setting is thus a typical case of a region still in the process of consolidating the position of a regional minority language in education, while at the same time dealing with increasing migration-induced diversity (Duarte & Günther-van der Meij, 2018).

Within this complex language ecology, teachers struggle with several issues in relation to language(s) education (Herzog-Punzenberger, Le Pichon-Vorstman, & Siarova, 2017). First, schools are required to help students achieve certain levels of proficiency in the Frisian regional minority language, although not all pupils speak the language at home. Second, English is increasingly being introduced at earlier grades of primary education and demands for proficiency in this language are rising. Third, based on their understanding of the significance of the Frisian language for Frisian-speaking pupils, most teachers are aware that pupils with an immigrant background should also be supported in using their languages within mainstream education, but state that they are un-prepared to do so (Duarte & Jellema, 2017). Hence, the main challenge deriving from our setting is how to meet the demands of multilingual education in an education system in which a national language, a minority language, a foreign language, and many different migrant languages co-exist.

An answer to this challenge is currently being developed within the 4-year project **3M: Meer kansen Met Meertaligheid** (More opportunities with More Languages). Using a design-based research approach (McKenney & Reeves, 2013), 24 teachers in 12 primary schools are participating in the project to develop and implement a holistic multilingual education intervention that acknowledges and uses several languages in instruction. As part of this project, the aims for the present article are to a) present the principles of the model for holistic multilingual education, b) to discuss examples of the intervention program developed by participating schools in relation to the model, and c) explore a case-study of the implementation of the holistic approach on the basis of the work of one school. To do this, we will explore the views and opinions of the principal, teacher, and pupils on the holistic approach, as well as provide examples of classroom interaction.

The paper starts with an overview of MLE approaches and presents the principles behind the model for holistic multilingual education. After the methodology section, examples of activities developed within the project and results of the interviews and scenes from classroom interaction will be discussed in relation to the model. In the conclusion, we will evaluate the utility of the proposed approach.

2. From bilingual to multilingual education

Traditionally, bilingual education models are aimed at fostering productive and receptive skills in two or more languages (Baker, 2011). These programs differ in the target degree of bi-/multiliteracy and whether the languages used in instruction are dominant or non-dominant in the surrounding societal context. Bilingual education can be classified into different models, according to the time spent in teaching the

different languages, the pupils they serve, and the degree of support in teaching languages (Benson, 2009). Bilingual education models for regional minority languages have been implemented in the Basque, Catalan, and Welsh contexts (Gorter & Cenoz, 2012). Likewise, bilingual programs aiming at including migrant languages in education have been widely implemented (review of results in Sierens & Van Avermaet, 2017). Furthermore, there is a growing number of bilingual programs that seek to foster two dominant languages (e.g., German and English) and which are typically reserved for a minor group of elite pupils (Lindholm-Leary, 2001). Baker (2011) makes a distinction between weak and strong forms of bilingual education. Weak programs only make use of bilingualism to achieve native-like monolingual competence in L2, whereas strong programs aim at full development of the students' bi-/multilingual competence.

In general, the key rationale behind bilingual models draws upon the time-on-task hypothesis (Hopf, 2005), which argues that pupils need maximum exposure to the languages of instruction in order to acquire native-like proficiency. In order for this to be operationalized in curricula, materials and teaching hours, these models are organized according to principles of strong separation of the involved languages of instruction (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). This rigid separation of languages has also been termed the "two solitudes" assumption (Cummins, 2008). In addition, traditional bilingual models are also very much based on monoglossic conceptualizations of speakers, language and culture, "developed as part of the rise of nation-states in Europe to create structures and goals that normalize monolingualism and erase the bilingual language practices of language-minoritized students" (Flores & Baetens-Beardsmore, 2015, p. 219). In the past decades, increased mobility has also led to more multilingual classrooms, and with these, the realization of plurilingualism rather than balanced bilingualism as the suitable goal for education (Jaffe, 2012). Recently, several approaches have been put forward in order to move away from traditional bilingual models and take on a more heteroglossic stance in bilingual education (Flores & Baetens-Beardsmore, 2015). Horner, Lu, Royster and Timbur (2011), for example, propose the development of a *translingual approach*, which acknowledges the authority of language users to shape language to specific purposes, recognizes the linguistic heterogeneity of language users, and directly challenges monolingual expectations (Horner et al., 2011). The idea of translingualism thus differs from the concept of balanced bilingualism in that it challenges monoglossic ideologies of distinct languages in which pupils must be separately proficient (Flores & Baetens-Beardsmore, 2015).

Other recent approaches focus on fostering language skills of multilingual pupils, usually in students' home languages and the (often national) languages of schooling. Examples of these are *linguistically responsive teaching* (Lucas, Villegas, & Freedson-Gonzalez, 2008), *language-sensitive subject teaching* (Leisen, 2013), *culturally responsive pedagogy* (Gay, 2010) and *continuous inclusive language education* (Gogolin et al., 2011), which is the most comprehensive and systematic concept. Drawing from research on language acquisition of multilinguals, Cenoz and Gorter propose a "focus on multilingualism" approach (2011, 2015) meaning that schools should take on a holistic perspective "when looking at multilingual students and their languages" (2015, p. 4) by acknowledging the full linguistic repertoires of multilingual pupils. While these approaches have proven successful in raising competencies in the languages of schooling, they often do less well at making use of pupils' multiple languages and varieties as functional resources for learning. Cummins's (2008) interdependence hypothesis, however, states that successfully acquired knowledge in the home languages can be easily transferred to other languages, as long as there is adequate exposure to and motivation to learn the language. This notion of cross-linguistic transfer can be linked to Cook's (2003) notion of *multicompetence*, which aims at explaining multidirectional transfer in multilinguals and implies that all the languages of the learners form one shared system, rather than a collection of completely isolated systems.

Several pedagogical approaches have been put forward in order to include multiple languages in mainstream instruction. One feature of these models is that they include the family languages of their pupils as a resource in instruction. One of these approaches is *language awareness*. Generally speaking, language awareness approaches aim at four dimensions of language competence: (1) the ability to reflect upon and reveal some degree of awareness of their own dispositions and motivations regarding languages (socio-affective dimension); (2) the capacity to manage their linguistic and communicative biography in new interaction situations (management of linguistic and communicative repertoires dimension); (3) the ability to manage acquisition processes (management of learning repertoires dimension); and lastly (4) the ability to reflect upon the interactive processes which characterize language contact situations, (management of interaction dimension) (Andrade et al., 2003, p. 489). Activities that foster language awareness (Candelier, 2010) have the following features: (a) integrated language learning, aimed at establishing associations between different languages (minority, immigrant, instruction and foreign languages); (b)

intercomprehension, which particularly works with various languages within the same language family, and (c) a pedagogy for awakening to languages, implying attempts to break with the segmentation and isolation of the language teaching methods at schools. The positive academic results achieved in teaching programs that aimed at raising language awareness extend beyond language minority students to all pupils (Hélot & Young, 2006; Oliveira & Ançã, 2009; Wildemann, 2013).

In addition, *receptive multilingualism* refers to the ability of a speaker to understand utterances or texts in another language, even when they are not able to actively speak it. This skill, often linked to mutual intelligibility of closely related languages, can be used in as a teaching method to raise receptive skills of languages (Braunmüller, 2013; ten Thije & Zeevaert, 2007). Within this context, intercomprehension between Romance languages in Europe has been widely studied (the EuRom4 method, the Galatea and Galanet programs and the Euromania manual are well-known examples). In addition, intercomprehension between Romance and Germanic languages has also been explored (e.g., the ICE, InterCompréhension Européenne and EuroCom programs).

Research has also provided strong empirical evidence for *language comparison* as a primary learning device bringing about positive effects on conceptual learning in several areas (Gentner, 2010; Rittle-Johnson & Star, 2011). The core idea is that when two different units (e.g., objects, problems, languages) are juxtaposed, intentional comparison processes promote deeper processing of their features due to the fact that their similarities and differences become particularly highlighted (Ziegler & Stern, 2014). Furthermore, this procedure helps learners to abstract principles that may be used to solve novel problems (Catrambone & Holyoak, 1989). In an intervention focused on finding sustainable effects of contrasting early algebra skills such as addition and multiplication, Ziegler and Stern (2014) found that in the short term, during the training, students actually performed worse under the condition in which these skills were juxtaposed. Yet, in the follow-up tests, the contrast group clearly outperformed the group in which the skills were presented as unrelated to each other, which also held true for the replica of the study. The authors conclude that contrasted comparison of similar but conceptually different features results in enhanced long-term learning.

Based on the view that different communication systems form a single integrated system where languages are fluid, translanguaging approaches have recently been put forward (Canagarajah, 2011; Duarte, 2016; García, Ibarra Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017). *Translanguaging* refers to the use of the learner's full language repertoire in teaching and learning (García & Li Wei 2014; García, Ibarra Johnson, & Seltzer 2017). García and Kano refer to translanguaging in education as

a process by which students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices that include ALL the language practices of ALL students in a class in order to develop new language practices and sustain old ones, communicate and appropriate knowledge, and give voice to new socio-political realities by interrogating linguistic inequality. (2014, p. 261)

Empirical research so far has focused on analyzing classroom interaction by zooming in on the ways translanguaging is used for constructing meaning, acquiring knowledge, and negotiating power in diverse classrooms. An array of studies has underlined the advantages of a translanguaging pedagogy at different levels of school performance and for both migrant and minority languages. These advantages include better lesson accomplishment (Arthur & Martin, 2006; Lin & Martin, 2005), balancing the power-relations among languages in the classroom (Canagarajah, 2011), protection and promotion of minority languages (Cenoz, 2017), increased participant confidence and motivation (Creese & Blackledge, 2010), maximization of learning (Hornberger, 2005; Hornberger & Link, 2012), empowerment and language learning (Latisha & Young, 2017), and higher cognitive engagement in content matter learning (Duarte, 2016).

A more traditional and widely accepted method for using foreign languages in education is the *CLIL* approach. CLIL stands for *Content and Language Integrated Learning* and refers to teaching subjects such as science, history and geography to students through a foreign language (Cenoz, 2013), focusing on both content and language. CLIL approaches are often implemented as a means to provide instruction in recognized foreign languages, such as English, French or German.

In sum, several approaches to including multiple languages in education have been shown to bring about positive academic, attitudinal, and socio-affective results for pupils (see Cenoz & Gorter 2011, 2015; Sierens & Van Avermaet, 2014). However, as Herzog-Punzenberger et al. (2017) point out:

it appears that the most important challenge is not so much a lack of evidence-based strategies in highly diverse classrooms – although clearly more research is needed – but rather the availability of this knowledge and the need for a shift in attitudes of those who

work with highly diverse classrooms on a daily basis, teachers, educators and policy-makers. (p. 33)

As a result, the focus of research should be on finding ways to disseminate and implement available knowledge in a sustainable way. In addition to the lack of practical implementation of these approaches, there seems to be a lack of interconnection between them in terms of empowering professionals to combine elements from different approaches, which would allow them to develop tailored approaches for their specific school setting. This may be due to the fact that research and available materials within the different approaches have been developed in isolation from one another. An extra aspect clouding the implementation of different approaches is that they have often been developed with specific groups of multilingual pupils in mind: language awareness programs for newly arrived pupils; trilingual models for minority language maintenance; CLIL programs in international schools. Professionals often have access only to materials and approaches generally used for the target groups of pupils attending their own schools.

The current research aims to address these shortcomings, through the development of an approach to explicitly explore the multilingual resources of all pupils for learning in mainstream classrooms. It combines different perspectives in order to acknowledge and use multilingualism of different types of multilingual pupils attending diverse school types in the Netherlands.

3. A holistic approach to multilingualism in education

The broad consensus across approaches is that effective learning of languages requires a holistic approach. At the level of school development, whole-school approaches focus on creating an inclusive school culture as an important component of multilingual education. When implementing a whole-school approach, a positive attitude towards all languages is fundamental (Herzog-Punzenberger et al., 2017). An example of such an approach was put forward in the “European Core Curriculum for Teacher Education” (Roth, Duarte, Bainski, & Brandenburger, 2012). The program proposes that the teaching of academic language skills for both multilingual and monolingual pupils with reduced exposure to the academic register in their home environment should be a whole-school endeavor, addressing the levels of leadership, material development, and language and content-subjects. Other approaches focus on the notion of inclusion, operationalized as the intertwining of language aspects transversely in the curriculum, across subjects and in all teaching activities. The *Multilingualism Curriculum* (Krumm & Reich, 2013), for example, spells out a fully inclusive approach from grades 1 to 12 for general and vocational education, both for language and content teaching. In their *Focus on Multilingualism* approach, Cenoz and Gorter (2011, 2015) take a holistic stance on how the full linguistic repertoire of pupils can be used in educational settings. Hence, holistic education defines the concept of inclusion as widening the scope of language(s) education in three dimensions: (a) horizontally, across subjects; (b) vertically, across the age span of pupils, and (c) transversally, in terms of encompassing diverse layers of education and educational agents (leadership, materials, curricula, teacher training, parental involvement). However, we claim that, from the perspective of teacher professionalization and sustainable implementation, these efforts are not yet sufficiently comprehensive to offer a holistic approach for multilingual education.

Our *Holistic Model for Multilingualism in Education* (Figure 1) was first developed to address the needs of schools within the official bilingual region of Fryslân, in the North of the Netherlands. Although linguistic diversity in the region is rapidly growing, it contrasts with the persistent monolingual orientation of mainstream schools (Kroon & Spotti, 2011), in which standard Dutch is not only a central subject but also the main language of instruction. Large-scale monitoring studies have identified insufficient proficiency levels in the language of instruction as a major contributor to the achievement gap between pupils with and without an immigrant background (OECD, 2016). This gap is also present in the Dutch context, where a considerable part of immigrants’ low educational achievement cannot be explained by their differences between their family background and that of natives (Schneepf, 2007). Although much less investigated, a similar gap has been found for the Frisian minority (De Boer, 2009). To address this issue, the investigation of both minority and migrant multilingual forms—that due to political reasons deriving from the different statuses of the languages have not been jointly examined so far (Extra & Gorter, 2001)—has to be combined in order to reach a broader understanding of the potential of the pupils’ linguistic repertoires in the learning process. Accordingly, the first principle of the developed model for holistic multilingual education lies on its

combination of the knowledge and teaching approaches that have proven effective in education of both minority and migrant pupils into one model and is thus suitable for different school types.

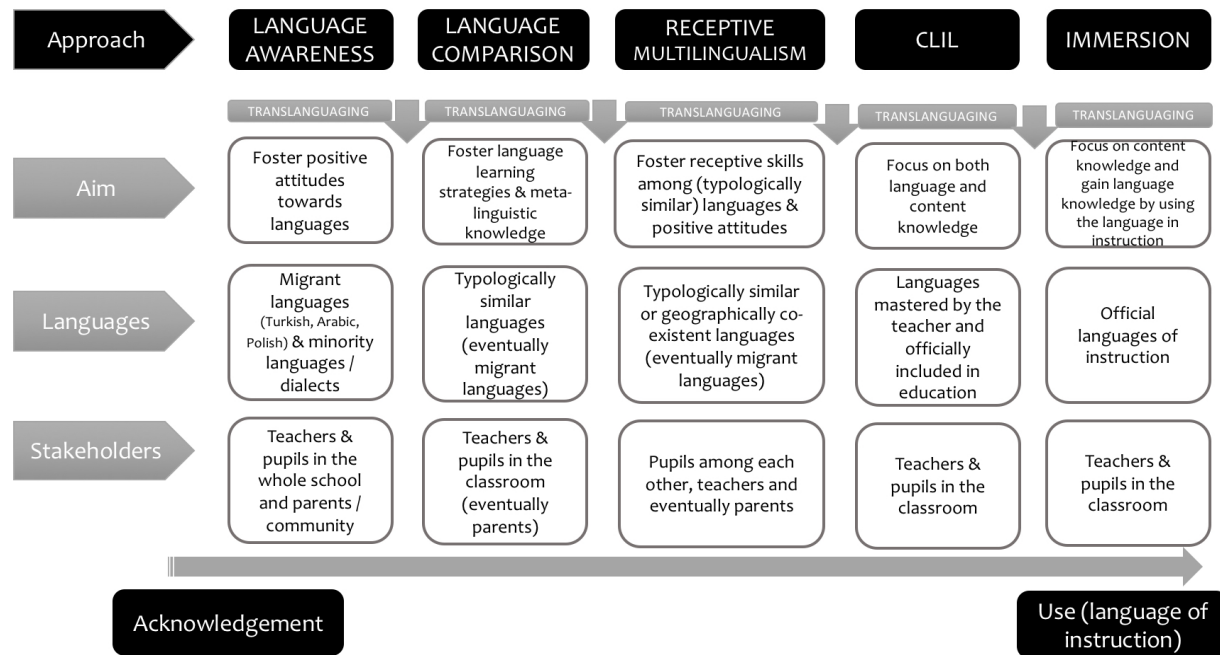


Figure 1. *Holistic Model for Multilingualism in Education (Duarte, 2017).*

The second principle of the model is its incorporation of the different approaches towards multilingual education mentioned above, by placing them along a continuum that oscillates between the acknowledgement of different languages and their actual use in instruction. This supports teachers in distinguishing between what they can do with languages that they speak themselves and the possibilities for them to engage with languages which they do not share with their pupils. Within the scope of the acknowledgment of languages, approaches can be used that convey knowledge about languages and language learning, thus broadening the meta-linguistic knowledge of pupils and teachers. Language awareness allows for the exploration of all existing languages and dialects in the classroom and in the surroundings and a reflection about the role of languages and linguistic diversity in society. Also, different cultural features can be integrated in the classroom. The aim is to promote positive attitudes towards language learning and linguistic and cultural diversity. In order to foster explicit language learning strategies, language comparison methods can be used both with languages of instruction and the languages of the pupils. Language comparison raises knowledge of how languages work as formal systems (grammar, phonology, lexis, etc.) by comparing specific features across languages. Pupils can become experts in their own languages and may ask parents to provide extra information when needed. Typologically similar languages mastered by the teacher and migrant languages from the pupils can be compared in class. In terms of using languages in instruction, receptive multilingualism stimulates the pedagogical use of situations in which asymmetric communication between typologically similar languages is used to raise receptive skills of learners. This mode, which is characteristic of border regions in Europe, can also be applied to the context of learning a foreign or minority language, present in the teacher's own repertoire. Furthermore, CLIL can be used to convey content knowledge via a foreign language. Immersion necessarily entails the use of foreign languages, although for minority and migrant pupils, learning in the official language of schooling is also considered an immersion approach.

The third principle of our holistic model is that it addresses multilingual attitudes, knowledge and skills of both teachers and pupils (Herzog-Punzenberger et al., 2017). Teachers are invited to combine different approaches into tailored teaching activities. While experimenting with language awareness, language comparison, and receptive multilingualism can promote positive attitudes of teachers and pupils towards multilingualism, CLIL and immersion-based activities provide language knowledge. To stimulate

theoretical knowledge of teachers cooperating in the project, there are regular workshops and study days in which several aspects of the FREPA, the Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to Languages and Cultures (Candelier, 2010) are addressed. Teaching skills are gained through cyclic experimenting (see more in methods below).

4. Methods

This study is part of a larger project which includes the design, implementation, and testing of the Holistic Model for Multilingualism in Education. The 4-year project “3M: Meer kansen Met Meertaligheid” (More Opportunities with More Languages), financed by the Dutch Science Foundation, intends to test the model within the official bilingual region of Fryslân, in the north of the Netherlands. The project is at the end of its first funding year, so nothing can be said yet about its long-term effects on attitudes and performance. This paper is concerned with the development and implementation of one intervention based on the model.

4.1. Research questions

The research questions for the current paper are:

- 1) What elements of the holistic model for multilingualism in education are implemented by teachers, teacher trainers, student-teachers and researchers in their pedagogical experiments?
- 2) What are the impressions of all stakeholders at one school working within a holistic multilingual education approach?

To answer RQ1, examples of teaching activities and materials developed within the project will be presented in relation to the above discussed model. To answer RQ2, data from interviews, focus groups, and video observations in one school will be presented.

4.2. Study design

The 3M-project has an intervention pre-post design. It is based on both a quantitative examination of the effects of the implementation of design-based interventions on attitudes and knowledge of teachers and pupils, as well as on the qualitative exploration of the processes triggered within the schools in developing the proposed holistic multilingual strategies.

To answer the research questions in the current paper, we make use of a case-study methodology (Yin, 2009) and present different elements of the implementation focused on a specific school. We will mainly focus on providing examples of the activities developed so far within the project and on the impressions of the different stakeholders when engaging with holistic multilingual education.

4.3. Design-based research (DBR)

The study aims at developing, implementing and evaluating design-based interventions (McKenney & Reeves, 2013) for holistic multilingual education. DBR acknowledges the complexity of educational contexts by carefully examining the different processes, levels, and actors involved in carrying out a jointly engineered educational experiment (Cobb, Confrey, diSessa, Lehrer, & Schauble, 2003). McKenney and Reeves describe DBR as

situated in real educational contexts, focusing on the design and testing of interventions, using mixed methods, involving multiple iterations, stemming from partnership between researchers and practitioners, yielding design principles, different from action research, and concerned with an impact on practice. (2013, pp. 97–98)

As in the case of an intervention, these experiments are based on previously-gathered theoretical knowledge. However, design-based approaches are of formative nature, in that they must possess an iterative, cyclic design intended to systematically improve the original experiment and report back to all participants involved. They are thus well-suited to yield positive results in teacher-training (Collins, Joseph, & Bielaczyc, 2004).

As seen in Figure 2, conducting educational research from a DBR perspective includes several phases, during which all stakeholders, including teachers, are seen as experts for their own field. After jointly

exploring theoretical knowledge on one of the approaches for multilingual language instruction by means of a workshop with an expert, teachers analyze their own situation at school and formulate a research question aiming at improving the quality of instruction in terms of multilingualism. Together with researchers, teacher trainers and teacher-students, the school team designs a teaching activity and material. Small aspects of the experiment might be tested with the pupils. Once the activity is developed, it is implemented in class. Video observation is conducted during implementation. Recordings are analyzed by the research team and a feedback form is filled in by the teachers. At a later phase, each of these first developed activities will be implemented at another school in order to be improved and finally enter the project's online toolbox. In the current project, we are in the phase of designing and evaluating the first teaching activities with teachers, so we have not yet reached the phase of implementation.

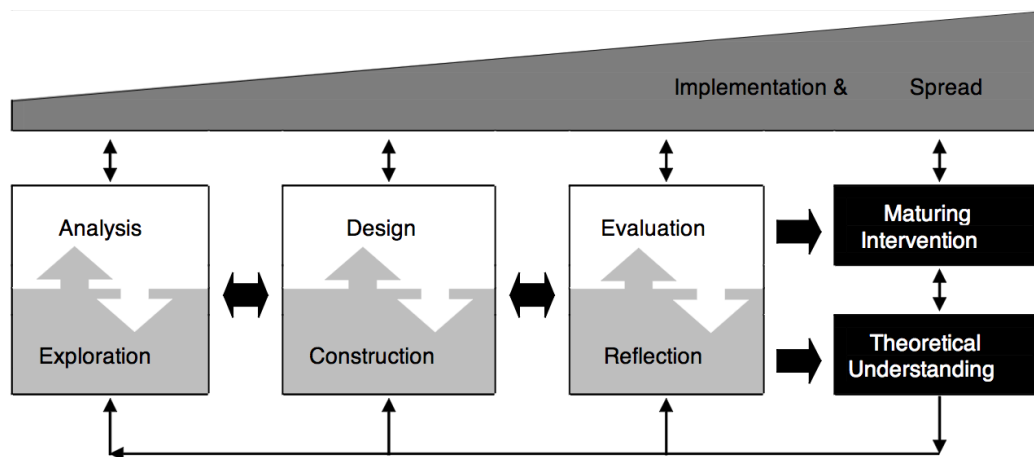


Figure 2. Generic model for conducting educational design research (reproduced from McKenney, Susan & Reeves, Thomas C. [2012]. *Conducting educational design research*. New York, New York: Routledge.)

4.4. Participants, setting, and data collection

In the 3M-project, 12 schools, 24 teachers, about 600 pupils, 4 researchers, 3 teacher trainers, and 4 teacher-students jointly develop the educational experiments, following the holistic model for multilingualism in education. For the current paper, we present the specific case study (Yin, 2009) of the implementation of the project in one trilingual primary school in Fryslân. In this small rural school, Dutch, Frisian, and English are the official languages of instruction and the curriculum is divided between these three languages. Since 2015, the school has received a considerable number of migrant pupils, mainly of Polish and Syrian backgrounds. As this school participated in a pilot in 2016-2017 (Duarte & Jellema, 2017), they have had three DBR developmental cycles. The schools' overarching research questions for the project are: "How can we integrate other languages in our trilingual concept without speaking those languages?" and "How can we guarantee that minority and migrant languages have an equal position at our school?"

Data for the current paper consist of one interview with a teacher, one interview with the director, two focus groups with four children, and observation of classroom interaction during two classroom days (12 hours total) recorded via video. In order to provide an overview of the practices and impressions of all stakeholders participating in the implementation of the experiments for holistic multilingual education, key quotes were selected from the interviews and focus groups. Excerpts were selected to exemplify the different features of the implemented project activities. In addition, transcripts of classroom interaction will be discussed, so as to provide an insight into classroom activities.

5. Results

5.1. Development of the activities from a holistic multilingual education perspective

The first research question (*What elements of the holistic model for multilingualism in education are implemented by teachers, teacher trainers, student-teachers and researchers in their pedagogical experiments?*) will be answered by presenting two examples of teaching activities and materials developed in the project in relation to the model presented, using the design-based approach.

5.1.1. Meta-linguistic awareness through cognate comparison

Together with several trilingual schools in the project, the 3M team developed a quiz around cognates in Frisian, Dutch, and English for pupils aged 7-8. Exploring cognates can benefit pupils' cognate awareness, i.e. the ability to use cognates in a home language as a tool for understanding the language of schooling (Pérez, Peña, & Bedore, 2010). While the three languages are typologically related and share various common features at phonetic, phonological, and morphosyntactic levels, they are typically taught separately from each other and not often explicitly compared. The quiz is intended to foster meta-linguistic awareness about the different levels in which these three languages are comparable to each other and thus expand language learning strategies. The pupils were divided into three expert language groups: Frisian, Dutch, and English and asked to give the answer to 10 riddles (e.g., "What is the opposite of sour?" yields the answer "sweet"). Pupils answered in the language of their expert group. The answers were written down and then discussed to check for differences and similarities at different levels (phonetic, orthographic, etc.). It became clear that sometimes Frisian and English words are closer to each other compared to the Dutch words, e.g., Frisian *swiet* and English *sweet* against Dutch *zoet*. Figure 3 gives an overview of some of the answers.

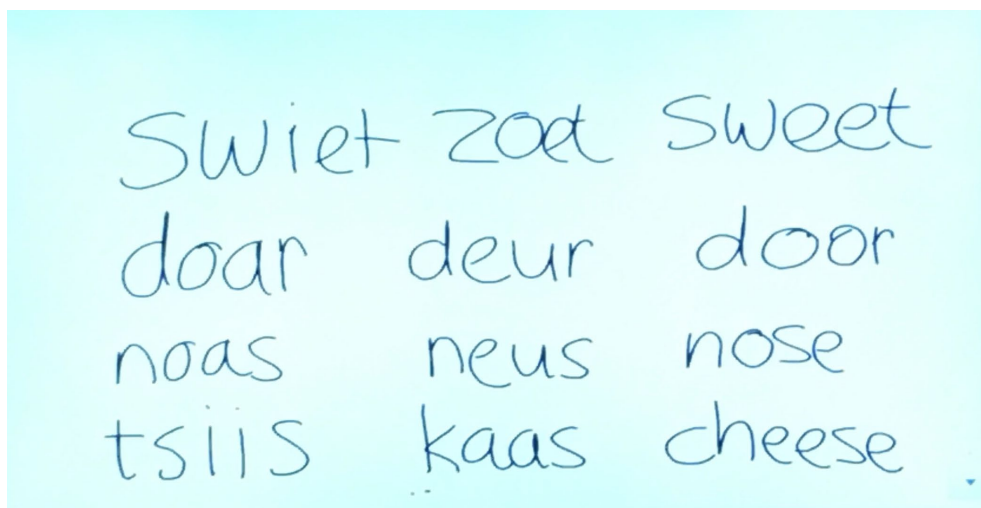


Figure 3. Examples of cognate riddle with Frisian, Dutch and English words.

Linking this activity to the model presented in Section 3, this was an example of explicit language comparison, as common features between the three languages were discovered by the pupils. These features could appear at the phonological, semantic, or orthographic levels. In addition, the activity was also conducted using an immersion approach, as the language of instruction used was English. Although pupils used also Frisian and Dutch in their answers, instructions and answers were mainly provided in English and paraphrased in other languages, allaying teachers concern about reducing the use of English in language comparison activities, since these activities raised awareness of language similarities and differences while still targeting pupils' English language proficiency. Overall evaluation of the activity was very positive. Teachers, teacher-trainers, and researchers noted a great engagement of pupils with the activity. Through the presence of different language groups, the pressure to use only English decreased; pupils were focused on the task at hand and not on producing correct English sentences. They gradually used the English language more, but as means to communicate their results and not as an end in itself.

5.1.2. Translanguaging with Dutch and Polish

Another activity created by the 3M-team for a trilingual school with a high percentage of migrant pupils was a lesson within the subject of natural sciences in which the process of making bread was discussed, from growing the grain to baking. This particular activity was developed for a class of pupils aged 8-9 of which about 15% of the pupils speak Polish as home language and one pupil speaks Arabic at home. The 3M-team's Polish pre-service teacher performed the activity with the class. The pupils first had a tasting of twelve sorts of bread from all over the world, learning their names and where they were originally produced (e.g., *naan* from India, or *pide* from Turkey). Pupils discussed the differences in color, taste, and texture. Then, the teacher explained all the different steps involved in the baking process. She used a translanguaging approach to alternate between Dutch and Polish. The pupils formed groups of four, and it was ensured that each group had speakers of several languages (Frisian, Dutch, Polish and, in one case, Arabic,). However, each group was an expert for one of the languages. The groups had to place the different steps of the breadmaking process in the right order and to match the words in Frisian, Dutch, English, and Polish corresponding to each step (Figure 4). The single Arabic pupil added the words in Arabic to the other languages. At the end the work was checked and discussed with the whole class.

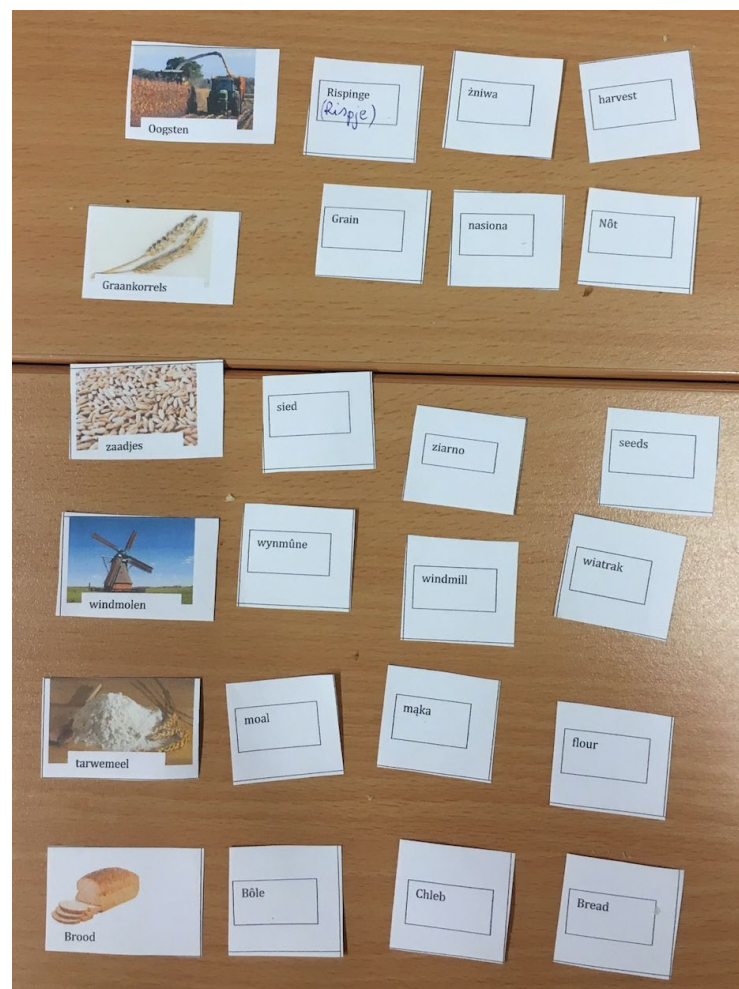


Figure 4. Breadmaking process with steps in four different languages.

This activity is an example of the explicit use of translanguaging through the alternation of two languages of instruction, Polish and Dutch. In its original formulation as coined in Welsh by Williams (1994), translanguaging referred to the deliberate practice of alternating the language of input and the language of output, the basic idea being that one language reinforces the other in order to raise understanding as well as pupils' activity in both languages (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). The activity also included a language

awareness element, as in addition to Polish and Dutch other languages—such as Frisian, English and Arabic—were acknowledged in instruction by collecting knowledge from the pupils, even though they were not actively used by the teacher herself.

5.2. Interviews with stakeholders and recording of classroom interaction

To answer research question 2, (*What are the impressions of all stakeholders at one school working within a holistic multilingual education approach?*), key data from interviews with the principal and one teacher, focus group discussions with pupils, and a transcript of classroom interaction obtained through video-observation are discussed.

5.2.1. Welcoming migrant languages in the whole school

The school where the case-study data was obtained is a trilingual Frisian-Dutch-English school which has recently received Polish and Syrian pupils. The school's aim is to welcome all home languages spoken by the pupils and to integrate the holistic multilingual approach in the whole school. As the principal puts it: "To us it is very important to acknowledge the children in their own languages". She mentions that the Polish pupils had reached a minimum language threshold (Cummins, 1976) required to speak Dutch and by encouraging them to use Polish with each other they can now translate important information from Dutch, supporting both their language development and their participation in class. Before the project, the school was hesitant to allow Polish in the classroom, as teachers could not control what the children would be discussing, but as the interviewed teacher said:

Eventually we felt slightly ashamed for that attitude since it is their language, their way of communicating, and their only way of communicating. If we forbid it, how can they communicate with us? How can they express how they feel, what is going on inside them? So, for us it was important to let them feel, "You're welcome here, whatever language you speak. And for us it is difficult to learn your language as well."

All teachers now incorporate migrant languages in their lessons. By doing this, they show the pupils that they are trying to understand and learn the pupils' family languages, which lowers the threshold (Cummins, 1976) needed for the migrant pupils to learn Dutch and even Frisian. In addition, this bi-directionality of learning supports teachers in understanding difficulties of migrant pupils when coping with the three new languages of instruction offered at school.

5.2.2. Fostering language transfer

The school decided to develop an own operationalization of Cummins's (2008) interdependence hypothesis, based on the idea of teaching for language transfer. After discussion in one of the project's workshops, the idea that fostering language knowledge in general would reinforce all languages and enhance meta-linguistic awareness was embraced by the school. After one year of implementation, the principal now highlights the fact that languages are not in competition with each other but in fact reinforce each other. As a result, migrant languages are not seen as a threat to learning Dutch or Frisian. She indicated that:

Actually, we see that because the pupils are already familiar with certain concepts in their mother tongue, they can more easily link a second concept onto that and that enables us to compare languages in the middle and upper grades.

This way, the school makes explicit use of the languages the pupils already know to facilitate learning of the other languages of instruction, as suggested by Cenoz and Gorter's Focus on Multilingualism approach (2011, 2015). In the annual national exams, which are conducted in the Dutch language, the pupils of this school attained comparable or slightly higher results to similar schools, although they have a considerable number of multilingual pupils.

5.2.3. Awakening to languages

From the focus group discussions with four pupils it became clear that the pupils themselves feel positively toward the use of several languages at their school. They feel that it allows them to understand many types of languages all over the world, for example on holiday, and to have contact with other children. They learn Arabic words from their classmates and in return teach their peers Frisian. As one pupil remarks, "It is very interesting when you visit another country, to be able to speak the language spoken there."

They also highly value the multicultural aspect of their school; they find it interesting to have several cultures at their school and to learn about the customs of different families. Further, pupils are curious and positive in relation to each other's languages. When speaking about the Arabic alphabet, one pupil mentioned in the focus group, "There is a girl from Syria in my class. When she writes in Arabic the signs she uses are beautiful."

5.2.4. Integration of migrant languages in classroom routines

Excerpt 1, the first example of classroom interaction, is from a lesson of the first grades of primary education (pupils aged 4 to 6 learning together). At the day of the recording, the language of instruction was Frisian. However, from the start of the lesson onwards it is clear that all home languages of the children are integrated into the school's daily routines. The class starts with a greeting and welcome in five languages (Frisian, Dutch, English, Polish and Arabic) by five different pupils. Next, two pupils get the English dolls (Pompoms) and speak English. The class asks "Good morning Pompoms, how are you?" "I'm fine, thank you," answer the two pupils who have the dolls. Then the date of that particular day is discussed (the 14th of December). The whole class recites the days of the week aloud in Frisian, Dutch, and English, after which the whole class counts to 14 in Frisian, Dutch and English. The teacher asks the Polish and Syrian pupils to count to 14 in their home languages:

Excerpt 1.

-
- | | |
|------------|---|
| 1. Teacher | En Iwan dy is hiel knap want Iwan syn opa en oma wenje noch yn Poalen hin Iwan? Kinsto ek yn it Poalsk telle?
<i>[And Iwan is very bright because Iwan's grandparents live in Poland, right? Can you count for us in Polish?]</i> |
| 2. Pupil | Ja.
<i>[Yes]</i>
(counts to 14 in Polish) |
| 3. Teacher | Do krijst fan ús in hiele dikke duim.
<i>[You receive a huge thumbs up from us.]</i> |
| 4. Teacher | Mar wy hawwe ek Isra yn 'e klasse en Isra komt fan Syrië. Isra kin yn Arabysk telle hin? Mar Isra begjint nooit mei de tomme mar Isra begjint mei de pink te tellen. Moatte jim mar ris sjen.
<i>[But we also have Isra in the classroom and Isra is from Syria. Isra can count in Arabic, right? But Isra never starts counting with the thumb but Isra starts with the little finger. All of you pay attention.]</i> |
| 5. Isra | (counts to 14 in Arabic) |
| 6. Gustavo | Wat knap hin?
<i>[Isn't that smart?]</i> |
-

The Pompoms return to their homes: "Bye bye see you next time" says the whole class. Next, in Excerpt 2, the teacher introduces a color domino game, using Frisian, English, and, for the color name, Polish:

Excerpt 2.

-
- | | |
|-----------------|--|
| 1. Teacher | Gean wy noch in lyts spultsje dwaan hin, hienen we fan 'e wike al efkes oefene, der sitte allegear kleurkes yn, <i>we will play a little game, with the colors</i> . No moatte jim even hiel goed oplette. Ik sil it ris even yn in oare taal sizze. Wy begjinne mei <i>niebiesk</i> .
<i>[We will play a little game, which we've practiced this week, there are several colors in (the box), we will play a little game, with the colors. Now you all have to pay close attention. I'll say it in another language. We'll start with niebiesk.]</i> |
| 2. Pupil | <i>Niébiesk.</i> |
| 3. Teacher | <i>Niebiesk</i> , wie hat der <i>niebiesk</i> ?
<i>[Niebiesk, who has niebiesk?]</i> |
| 4. Polish pupil | (lays down a blue stone) |
| 5. Teacher | <i>Niebieski</i> is blauw. Wie hat der noch mear in <i>niebiski</i> , of in blauw or <i>in blue</i> ? |
-

6. Pupil *[Niebieski is blue. Who else has a niebiski, or a blue or a blue (stone)?]*
 (indicates she has a blue stone)
 7. Teacher Isra kom mar. En Isra kinst ek fertelle hoe't blauw yn it Arabysk hjit?
[Come here, Isra. Isra, can you tell what blue is in Arabic?]
 8. Isra *Azraq*
 9. Teacher *Azraq* hin? *Azraq* is blauw yn it Arabysk.
[Azraq, right? Azraq is blue in Arabic]
 10. Teacher Wa hat der swart of giel? *Black or yellow?* Wolsto de kleur even sizze? Wolsto it even yn it Ingelsk fertelle?
[Who has black or yellow? Black or yellow? Will you name the color? Will you say it in English?]
 11. Pupil *Red and swart*
[Red and black]
 12. Teacher Hoe hjit dat yn it Ingelsk?
[How is that called in English?]
 13. Class *Black.*
 14. Teacher Witsto Isra, wat grien yn it Arabysk is?
[Do you know Isra, what green is in Arabic?]
 15. Isra *Akhdir*
[Green]
 16. Teacher *Akhdir.*
 and pupils *[Green]*
 17. Pupil Muoilik wurd.
[Difficult word.]
 18. Teacher Muoilik wurd hin? Knap hin fan Isra?
[Difficult word, right? Smart of Isra, right?]

The teacher then asks a Polish pupil to name red and green in Polish, she repeats the words, and he corrects her pronunciation. The teacher involves the whole class and they repeat the Polish words. Excerpt 3 highlights a metalinguistic discussion that took place immediately after this repetition.

Excerpt 3.

1. Polish pupil Het is in een andere taal.
[It is in a different language.]
 2. Teacher Ik vind jouw taal best een beetje moeilijk hoor.
[I do find your language slightly difficult.]
 3. Polish pupil Eigenlijk zijn die letters anders gezegd.
[Actually, you pronounce the letters differently.]

The last remark in Excerpt 3 illustrates that the pupil is aware that Polish is not a transparent language. The above transcription shows that although the language of instruction is Frisian, and the main focus is on the English words for the colors, all languages present in the class are involved and moreover, all pupils are encouraged to use all languages. In addition, the aim is that both pupils and teacher learn from each other.

5.2.5. Multilingual approach in foreign language teaching

The last example of classroom interaction, Excerpt 4, was recorded in grade 5 (pupils aged 8-9). The language of instruction was Dutch on the day of filming. The class counts to 10 in six languages (Frisian, Dutch, English, Arabic, Swedish, and Polish). Then they play a multilingual version of the *Wie ben ik?* (Who am I?) game. One pupil picks a card from a set of cards on which names of characters are written. Without looking at it, the pupil shows the card to the class. The pupil then picks a language from a set of cards (Frisian, Dutch or English) and is provided a paper with questions to ask in the chosen language, in order to try to guess which character was written on the first card. The answers are given by the class, who also choose a

language card and who can answer only *yes* or *no* in that language. In the first round, a picture of Santa Claus is picked and the pupil who plays the character asks the questions in English, while the class answers in Swedish. The teacher supports in English and Frisian, as needed.

Excerpt 4.

1. Pupil	Do I have a hat on?
2. Class	Ja. [Yes.]
3. Pupil	Am I on television?
4. Class	Nej. [No]
5. Teacher	Sometimes, soms wel. [Sometimes, <i>sometimes</i>]
6. Swedish pupil	Ibland [Sometimes]

As the game continues, as shown in Excerpt 5, the teacher repeats the questions in English, sometimes elaborating on them. The next pupil whose turn it is to play the character picks Queen Maxima of the Netherlands, and Dutch as the language to ask questions in. The class answers in English.

Excerpt 5.

1. Pupil	Ben ik een mens? [Am I a human being?]
2. Class	Yes.
3. Teacher	You are a person.
4. Pupil	Heb ik zwart haar? [Do I have black hair?]
5. Class	No.
6. Teacher	No, you don't have black hair.
7. Pupil	Heb ik blond haar? [Do I have blond hair?]
8. Class	Yes.
9. Teacher	Yes, you are blond.

On each of the class's yes/no answers, the teacher elaborates: "Yes, you are a woman. No, we don't know. No, you are not a princess, but you are close, *je bent dichtbij* (you are close)." This scene shows how the multilingual approach is also used in the teaching of English as a foreign language. The teacher oscillates between moments of immersion in the English language with moments in which several languages are used. However, during the multilingual moments, language choice is not always random. While in moments of great cognitive engagement pupils are free to choose the language they wish to discuss in, in moments of practice or summarizing of acquired knowledge, the teacher manages language use and increasingly scaffolds the use of more English.

6. Discussion and conclusion

The aims of the current paper were to present a holistic model of multilingualism in education, discuss concrete activities developed within a design-based project implementing the model, and provide insight into the concrete activities of one case study school. Due to the complex language ecology of our research setting (Duarte & Günther-van der Meij, 2018), which derives both from an increase in different languages and from the tensions in promoting a regional minority language in education, a holistic model for multilingualism in education was developed in order to work with teachers in developing tailored interventions that tackle new needs in language education. The model was labeled *holistic*, as it aims at being

suitable for (a) both minority and migrant pupils, (b) different school types, (c) combining various approaches towards multilingual education, and (d) tackling attitudes, knowledge and skills needed by teachers to implement multilingual education in a successful and sustainable way.

While whole-school approaches (Gogolin et al., 2011; Herzog-Punzenberger et al., 2017; Roth et al., 2012) frequently depart from the required conditions for successful language development of multilingual pupils and thus focus mainly on fostering the language of instruction across the curriculum and lifespan of the pupils, our holistic model addresses both the language-learning requirements of pupils and the needs of teachers. It operates at three levels—symbolic, linguistic, and cognitive—tapping into needs of both pupils and teachers. A summary of the dimensions involved in this process, from both the perspective of pupils and teachers, is provided in Table 1.

Table 1

Dimensions of operationalization of holistic multilingual education from pupils' and teachers' perspectives

Dimension	Pupils' perspective	Teachers' perspective
Symbolic	Acknowledging all languages in education fosters positive attitudinal and motivational aspects that, according to research, enhance school outcomes in the long run.	Acknowledging all languages raises teachers' own language and cultural awareness which has positive attitudinal and motivational aspects towards implementing a multilingual approach.
Linguistic	Fostering language comparison and raising meta-linguistic knowledge enhances language learning strategies of pupils.	Fostering language comparison and raising meta-linguistic knowledge improves language teaching methodology of teachers.
Cognitive	Linking multilingual language learning to content knowledge across the curriculum supports high cognitive engagement of pupils in all learning areas.	Linking multilingual language learning to content knowledge across the curriculum supports higher understanding of teachers for the basic requirement of language education as transversal task.

The challenges faced by our teachers in Fryslân are similar to those described by Little and Kirwan (2018) within the Irish-English context. They describe the five features of one school's response to the growing linguistic diversity in Dublin: "an inclusive ethos, an open language policy and an integrated approach to language education, a strong emphasis on the development of literacy skills, teaching methods that strive to be as explicit as possible, and respect for teachers' professional autonomy" (Little & Kirwan, 2018, p. 317). The activities developed so far within the 3M-project presented here follow similar principles. However, they also add the central aspect of teacher professionalization for MLE which is a key aspect in the success of the project. Professional development of teachers and language development of pupils thus go hand in hand. As such, the model is not to be implemented without the design-based research methodology for the work with teachers. The cyclic design-based approach (Cobb et al., 2003; McKenney & Reeves, 2013) allows teachers to develop their own pedagogical experiments and first implement those in their teaching at a small scale. In order for this to succeed, teachers need to (a) create safe spaces in which to experiment with multiple languages in the classroom; (b) operationalize the various approaches for MLE for their own context and particular aims, and (c) combine them in ways that allow them to tackle their concrete challenges. So far, this design-based approach has been successful in fostering a sense of ownership of the developed activities in the participating schools and high levels of acceptance of the model, as teachers acknowledge its potential to provide answers for language education in their complex linguistic settings.

Yet the question remains: Is our holistic multilingual education approach really something new or simply another new something? By this question, we wish to reflect on whether the model is transferable to other contexts as a means of enhancing implementation of MLE. The answer to this question is not yet a straightforward one. On the one hand, the model does seem to provide a means to tackle several challenges which also appear in contexts outside the province of Fryslân. First, it provides one way to address the societal and educational challenge of fostering language development and scholastic achievement for migrant, minority, and majority pupils. Second, it addresses the research challenge deriving from the

compartmentalization of research into the various existing approaches for MLE. Finally, it also addresses the third challenge, an implementation challenge of MLE approaches, which are widespread in mainstream education (Herzog-Punzenberger et al., 2017) and related to the lack of teacher professionalization for MLE.

On the other hand, the implementation of the model as described in this study is in the beginning stages and does not yet allow for effects on language proficiency and school attainment of pupils to be assessed. A longitudinal measurement of teacher attitudes is being carried out but has not yet yielded the necessary conclusions. What we can tentatively conclude so far is that it takes time for schools and teachers to adopt the model. In our research design, the implementation phase is therefore planned for two years. This assumes a long-term commitment of schools when adopting the model. This commitment extends to the fact that implementation should be carried out by the majority of the team and not by isolated teachers. As such, the model still has shortcomings related to the lack of quantifiable results and the degree of involvement of schools needed for its implementation. Nevertheless, we hope that our research design will provide the needed empirical evidence to allow us to turn our holistic model for multilingualism in education into something new.

References

- Andrade, Ana Isabel, Araújo e Sá, Maria Helena, Bartolomeu, Ines, Martins, Fernando, Melo, Silvia, Santos, Leonor, & Simões, Ana Raquel (2003). Análise e construção da Competência Plurilingue - Alguns percursos didáticos. In António Neto, José Nico, João Carlos Chouriço, Paulo Costa & Paulo Mendes (Eds.), *Didáticas e metodologias de educação – percursos e desafios* (pp. 489–506). Évora, Portugal: Universidade de Évora, Departamento de Pedagogia e Educação.
- Arthur, Jo, & Martin, Peter (2006). Accomplishing lessons in postcolonial classrooms: Comparative perspectives from Botswana and Brunei Darussalam. *Comparative Education*, 42, 177–202.
- Baker, Colin. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Benson, Carol (2009). Designing effective schooling in multilingual contexts: Going beyond bilingual models. In Tove Skutnabb-Kangas, Robert Phillipson, Ajit Mohanty, & Minati Panda (Eds.), *Social justice through multilingual education* (pp. 63–81). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Braunmüller, Kurt (2013). Communication based on receptive multilingualism: Advantages and disadvantages. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 10(2), 214–223.
- Canagarajah, Suresh (2011). Translanguaging in the classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 2, 1–28.
- Candelier, Michel (Ed.). (2010). *FREPA/CARAP: Framework of reference for pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures*. Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe.
- Catrambone, Richard, & Holyoak, Keith (1989). Overcoming contextual limitations on problem-solving transfer. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning Memory and Cognition*, 15(6), 1147–1156.
- Cenoz, Jasone (2009). *Towards multilingual education. Basque educational research from an international perspective*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Cenoz, Jasone (2013). Discussion: towards an educational perspective in CLIL language policy and pedagogical practice. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 16(3), 389–394.
- Cenoz, Jasone (2017). Translanguaging in school contexts: international perspectives. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, 16(4), 193–198.
- Cenoz, Jasone, & Gorter, Durk (2011). Focus on multilingualism: A study of trilingual writing. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 356–369.
- Cenoz, Jasone & Gorter, Durk (Eds.). (2015). *Multilingual education. Between language learning and translanguaging*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Cobb, Paul, Confrey, Jere, diSessa, Andrea, Lehrer, Richard, & Schauble, Leona (2003). Design experiments in educational research. *Educational Researcher*, 32(1), 9–13.
- Collins, Allan, Joseph, Diana, & Bielaczyc, Katerine (2004). Design research: theoretical and methodological issues. *The Journal of the Learning Science*, 13(1), 15–42.

- Cook, Vivian (Ed.). (2003). *Effects of the second language on the first*. Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Creese, Angela, & Blackledge, Adrian (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(1), 103–115.
- Cummins, Jim (1976). The influence of bilingualism on cognitive growth: A synthesis of research findings and explanatory hypotheses. *Working Papers in Bilingualism*, 9, 1–43.
- Cummins, Jim (2008). Teaching for transfer: Challenging the two solitudes assumptions in bilingual education. In Nancy Hornberger (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 1528–1538). New York, New York: Springer.
- De Boer, Hester (2009). *School success of Frisian students in secondary education*. Groningen, Netherlands: RUG/GION.
- Duarte, Joana (2016). Translanguaging in mainstream education: A sociocultural approach. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. Advanced Online Publication. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1231774>
- Duarte, Joana (2017). *3M: Meer Kansen Met Meertaligheid - projectaanvraag*. Leeuwarden, Netherlands: NHL Stenden Hogeschool.
- Duarte, Joana, & Jellema, Klaske (2017). *Translanguaging yn de trijetalige skoalle*. Leeuwarden, Netherlands: NHL University of Applied Sciences.
- Duarte, Joana, & Günther-van der Meij, Mirjam (2018). Drietalige basisscholen in Friesland: een gouden greep in tijden van toenemende diversiteit? In Orhan Agirdag & Ellen-Rose Kembel (Eds.), *Meertaligheid en onderwijs: Nederlands plus* (pp. 90–102). Amsterdam, Netherlands: Boom.
- Extra, Guus, & Gorter, Durk (2001). Regional and immigrant minority languages. In Guus Extra, & Durk Gorter (Eds.), *The other languages of Europe* (pp. 1–41). Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Flores, Nelson, & Baetens-Beardsmore, Hugo (2015). Programs and structures in bilingual and multilingual education. In Wayne Wright, Sovicheth Boun, & Ofelia García (Eds.), *Handbook of bilingual and multilingual education* (pp. 205–222). Oxford, United Kingdom: Wiley-Blackwell.
- García, Ofelia, Ibarra Johnson, Susana, & Seltzer, Kate (2017). *The translanguaging classroom. Leveraging student bilingualism for learning*. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Caslon.
- García, Ofelia, & Kano, Naomi (2014). Translanguaging as process and pedagogy: Developing the English writing of Japanese students in the US. In Jean Conteh, & Gabriela Meier (Eds.), *The multilingual turn in languages education: Opportunities and challenges* (pp. 258–277). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- García, Ofelia, & Li Wei (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. New York, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gay, Geneva (2010). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice*. New York, New York: Teachers College Press.
- Gentner, Dedre (2010). Bootstrapping the mind: analogical processes and symbol systems. *Cognitive Science*, 34(5), 752–775.
- Gogolin, Ingrid, Dirim, İnci, Klinger, Thorsten, Lange, Imke, Lengyel, Drorit, Michel, Ute, Neumann, Ursula, Reich, Hans, & Schwippert, Knut (2011). *Förderung von Kindern und Jugendlichen mit Migrationshintergrund FÖRMIG. Bilanz und Perspektiven eines Modellprogramms*. Münster: Waxmann Verlag.
- Gorter, Durk, & Cenoz, Jasone (2012). Regional minorities, education and language revitalization. In Marilyn Martin-Jones, Adrian Blackledge, & Angela Creese (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Multilingualism* (pp. 184–198). New York, New York: Routledge.
- Hélot, Christine, & Young, Andrea (2006). Imagining multilingual education in France: A language and cultural awareness project at primary level. In Ofelia García, Tove Skutnabb-Kangas, & Maria Torres-Guzmán (Eds.), *Imagining multilingual schools. Languages in education and glocalization* (pp. 69–90). Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Herzog-Punzenberger, Barbara, Le Pichon-Vorstman, Emanuelle, & Siarova, Hanna (2017). *Multilingual education in the light of diversity: Lessons learned*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

- Hobbs, Robert Dean (2012). Diverse multilingual researchers contribute language acquisition components to an integrated model of education. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 9(3), 204–234.
- Hopf, Diether (2005). Zweisprachigkeit und Schulleistung bei Migrantenkindern. *Zeitschrift Für Pädagogik*, 2, 236–251.
- Hornberger, Nancy (2005). Opening and filling up implementational and ideological spaces in heritage language education. *The Modern Language Journal*, 89(4), 605–612.
- Hornberger, Nancy, & Link, Holly (2012). Translanguaging and transnational literacies in multilingual classrooms: a biliteracy lens. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(3), 261–278.
- Horner, Bruce, Lu, Min-Zhan, Royster, Jacqueline, & Timbur, John (2011). Language difference in writing: Toward a translangual approach. *College English*, 73, 303–321.
- Jaffe, Alexandra (2012). Multilingual citizenship and minority languages. In Marilyn Martin-Jones, Adrian Blackledge, & Angela Creese (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of multilingualism* (pp. 83–89). New York, New York: Routledge.
- Kroon, Sjaak, & Spotti, Max (2011). Immigrant minority language teaching policies and practices in The Netherlands: Policing dangerous multilingualism. In Vlatka Domovic, Marianne Krüger-Potratz, & Anna Petravic (Eds.), *Europsko obrazovanje: Koncepti i perspektive iz pet zemalja* (pp. 80–95). Zagreb, Croatia: Kolska Knjiga.
- Krumm, Hans-Jürgen, & Reich, Hans (2013). *Multilingualism curriculum: Perceiving and managing linguistic diversity in education*. Münster, Germany: Waxmann Verlag.
- Latisha, Mary, & Young, Andrea (2017). From silencing to translanguaging: Turning the tide to support emergent bilinguals in transition from home to pre-school. In BethAnne, Paulsruud, Jenny Rosen, Boglárka Straszer, & Asa Wedin (Eds.), *New perspectives on translanguaging and education* (pp. 108–128). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Leisen, Joseph (2013). *Handbuch Sprachförderung im Fach. Sprachsensibler Fachunterricht in der Praxis*. Stuttgart, Germany: Klett Verlag.
- Lewis, Gwyn, Jones, Bryn, & Baker, Colin (2012). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 641–654.
- Lin, Angel, & Martin, Peter (Eds.). (2005). *Decolonisation, globalisation: Language-in-education policy and practice*. Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Lindholm-Leary, Kathryn (2001). *Dual language education*. Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Little, David, & Kirwan, Deirde (2018). Translanguaging as a key to educational success: The experience of one Irish primary school. In Piet Van Avermaet, Stef Slembrouck, Koen Van Gorp, Sven Sierens, & Katrijn Maryns (Eds.), *The multilingual edge of education* (pp. 313–339). London, United Kingdom: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Lucas, Tamara, Villegas, Ana Maria, & Freedson-Gonzalez, Margaret (2008). Linguistically responsive teacher education: preparing classroom teachers to teach English language learners. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 59(4), 361–373.
- McKenney, Susan, & Reeves, Thomas (2013). Systematic review of design-based research progress: Is a little knowledge a dangerous thing? *Educational Researcher*, 42(2), 97–100.
- OECD. (2016). *PISA 2015 Results (Volume I). Excellence and equity in education*. Paris, France: OECD.
- Oliveira, Ana Luisa, & Ançã, Maria Helena (2009). “I speak five languages”: fostering plurilingual competence through language awareness. *Language Awareness*, 18(3-4), 403–421.
- Pérez, Anita, Peña, Elizabeth, & Bedore, Lisa (2010). Cognates facilitate young Spanish-English bilinguals’ test performance. *Early Childhood Services*, 4(1), 55–67.
- Provinsje Fryslân (2015). *De Fryske Taalatlas*. Ljouwert, Netherlands: Provinsje Fryslân.
- Rittle-Johnson, Bethany, & Star, John (2011). The power of comparison in learning and instruction: learning outcomes supported by different types of comparisons. *Psychology of Learning and Motivation: Cognition in Education*, 55, 199–225.
- Roth, Hans-Joachim, Duarte, Joana, Bainski, Christiane, & Brandenburger, Anja (2012). Inclusive academic language training: Das europäische Kerncurriculum zur durchgängigen bildungssprachlichen

- Förderung (EUCIM-TE). In Elmar Winters-Ohle, Bettina Seipp, & Bernd Ralle (Eds.), *Lehrer für Schüler mit Migrationsgeschichte. Sprachliche Kompetenz in Kontext internationaler Konzepte der Lehrerbildung* (pp. 93–111). Münster, Germany: Waxmann Verlag.
- Schnepf, Sylke (2007). Immigrants' educational disadvantage: an examination across ten countries and three surveys. *Journal of Population Economics*, 20(3), 527–545.
- Sierens, Sven, & Van Avermaet, Piet (2014). Language diversity in education: Evolving from multilingual education to functional multilingual learning. In David Little, Conrad Leung, & Piet Van Avermaet (Eds.), *Managing diversity in education: Languages, policies, pedagogies* (pp. 204–222). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Sierens, Sven, & Van Avermaet, Piet (2017). Bilingual education in migrant languages in Western Europe. In Ofelia García, Angel Lin, & Stephen May (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 489–503). New York, New York: Springer International Publishing.
- ten Thije, Jan, & Zeevaert, Ludger (2007). *Receptive multilingualism: Linguistic analyses, language policies and didactic concepts*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Wildemann, Anja (2013). Sprache(n) thematisieren – Sprachbewusstheit fördern. In Steffen Galiberger & Frauke Wietzke (Eds.), *Handbuch Kompetenzorientierter Deutschunterricht* (pp. 321–338). Berlin, Germany: Beltz Verlag.
- Williams, Cen (1994). Arfarniad o Ddulliau Dysgu ac Addysgu yng Nghyd-destun Addysg Uwchradd Ddwyieithog, [An evaluation of teaching and learning methods in the context of bilingual secondary education], Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Wales, Bangor.
- Yin, Robert (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- Ziegler, Esther, & Stern, Elizabeth (2014). Delayed benefits of learning elementary algebraic transformations through contrasted comparisons. *Learning and Instruction*, 33, 131–146.

Mirjam Günther-van der Meij, NHL Stenden University of Applied Sciencesm.guenther@nhl.nl

- EN** | **Mirjam Günther-van der Meij**, Ph.D., is a Senior Researcher and teacher trainer in the Academy for Primary Education at the NHL Stenden University for Applied Sciences. Her research focuses on multilingual language development and on multilingualism and education. She contributes to multilingual education projects and teaches multilingualism for the primary teacher training course. She has previously worked as a researcher at the Fryske Akademy and the University of Groningen.
- ES** | **Mirjam Günther-van der Meij**, Ph.D., es investigadora principal y formadora de docentes en la Academia de Educación Primaria en la Universidad NHL Stenden para las Ciencias Aplicadas. Su investigación se enfoca en el desarrollo multilingüe del habla y en el multilingüismo y la educación. Contribuye a proyectos de educación multilingüe y enseña multilingüismo en los cursos de capacitación para docentes de primaria. Anteriormente trabajó como investigadora en la Academia Fryske y la Universidad de Groningen.
- IT** | **Mirjam Günther-van der Meij**, Ph.D., è ricercatrice senior e formatrice di insegnanti nell'Accademia per l'Istruzione Primaria presso l'Università NHL Stenden per le Scienze Applicate. La sua ricerca si concentra sullo sviluppo linguistico multilingue e sul multilinguismo e l'educazione. Dr. Günther-van der Meij contribuisce a progetti di educazione multilingue ed insegna il multilinguismo per il corso di formazione di insegnanti primari. In precedenza ha lavorato come assegnista di ricerca presso l'Accademia Fryske Akademy e l'Università di Groningen.

Joana Duarte, University of Groningenj.duarte@rug.nl

- EN** | **Joana Duarte**, Ph.D., is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Frisian Language and Culture at the University of Groningen and at the Academy for Primary Education at the NHL Stenden University for Applied Sciences. Her research focuses on multilingualism and education and, in particular, on the role of immigrants' family languages for teaching and learning. She previously worked as a Senior Researcher at the University of Cologne and University of Hamburg, where she also lectured on multilingualism in the teacher training programs. She co-edited the volume, *Linguistic Superdiversity in Urban Areas* (2013), with Ingrid Gogolin.
- ES** | **Joana Duarte**, Ph.D., es profesora contratada en el Departamento de Idioma y Cultura de Frisia en la Universidad de Groningen y en la Academia para la Educación Primaria de la Universidad NHL Stenden para las Ciencias Aplicadas. Su investigación se enfoca en el multilingüismo y la educación y, en particular, en el rol de los idiomas de las familias inmigrantes para la enseñanza y el aprendizaje. Trabajó anteriormente como investigadora principal en la Universidad de Colonia y en la Universidad de Hamburgo, donde también enseñó sobre multilingüismo en los programas de formación docente. Fue, con Ingrid Gogolin, coeditora del volumen de *Linguistic Superdiversity in Urban Areas* (2013).
- IT** | **Joana Duarte**, Ph.D., è ricercatrice nel dipartimento di Lingua e Cultura Frisone presso la Università di Groningen e presso l'Accademia per l'Istruzione Primaria all'Università NHL Stenden per le Scienze Applicate. La sua ricerca si concentra sul multilinguismo e l'educazione linguistica e, in particolare, sul ruolo delle lingue delle famiglie immigrate ai fini dell'insegnamento e dell'apprendimento. In precedenza ha lavorato come ricercatrice senior presso l'Università di Colonia e l'Università di Amburgo, dove ha anche tenuto conferenze sul multilinguismo nei programmi di formazione degli insegnanti. Ha curato insieme a Ingrid Gogolin il volume *Linguistic Superdiversity in Urban Areas* (2013).

“Siento que siempre tengo que regresar al inglés”: Embracing a translanguaging stance in a Hispanic-serving institution

SANDRA I. MUSANTI*, ALYSSA G. CAVAZOS
The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley

Received 27 June 2018; received in revised form 16 October 2018; accepted 14 November 2018

ABSTRACT

EN This chapter centers on our reflections and pedagogical moves as two bilingual educators at a Hispanic-Serving Institution on the borderland region of South Texas, a predominantly bilingual and bicultural community. Specifically, the chapter documents how we embrace a translanguaging pedagogical stance. Translanguaging practices are identity markers and represent the complex ways bilinguals use their linguistic repertoire to communicate across contexts and to negotiate social identities (García & Li Wei, 2014; Martínez-Roldán, 2015). Drawing on García, Johnson, and Seltzer's (2017) conceptualization of a translanguaging “corriente,” we describe our translanguaging stance and moves as we, respectively, design and teach two undergraduate courses: an upper-level undergraduate Foundations of Bilingual Education course and an undergraduate Rhetoric and Composition I course. We identify tensions, as well as commonalities and differences in our experience enacting translanguaging pedagogies and assignments in two different disciplinary areas. We also present two students' reflections and assignments to illustrate the outcomes of our translanguaging pedagogies.

Key words: TRANSLANGUAGING, HIGHER EDUCATION, BILINGUALISM

ES Este capítulo se centra en nuestras reflexiones y actividades pedagógicas como educadoras bilingües en una institución de servicio a hispanos en la región fronteriza del sur de Texas, una comunidad predominantemente bilingüe y bicultural. Específicamente, el capítulo documenta cómo tomamos una postura pedagógica translingüista. Las prácticas translingüistas son marcadores de identidad y representan las formas complejas en que los bilingües usan su repertorio lingüístico para comunicarse en diferentes contextos y negociar identidades sociales (García y Li Wei, 2014; Martínez-Roldán, 2015). Basándonos en la conceptualización de una “corriente” translingüista de García, Johnson y Seltzer (2017), describimos nuestra postura y nuestras actividades translingüistas al diseñar y enseñar, respectivamente, dos cursos universitarios: uno, de nivel avanzado (Fundamentos de educación bilingüe), y otro, de escritura, de primer año universitario. Identificamos tensiones, aspectos en común y diferencias en nuestra experiencia al implementar las pedagogías y evaluaciones translingüistas en dos áreas disciplinarias diferentes. También presentamos dos reflexiones y actividades de alumnos que ilustran los resultados de nuestras pedagogías translingüistas.

Palabras clave: TRANSLANGUAGING, EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR O UNIVERSITARIA, BILINGÜISMO

IT Questo capitolo è centrato sulle nostre riflessioni e sulle nostre scelte pedagogiche in veste di docenti bilingui in un istituto con utenza ispanica nell'area di confine del Texas meridionale, che è popolata da una comunità prevalentemente bilingue e biculturale. Nello specifico, il capitolo documenta il modo in cui sposiamo una posizione di pedagogia translanguaging. Le pratiche translinguistiche sono marcatori di identità e rappresentano i modi complessi in cui i bilingui utilizzano il loro repertorio linguistico per comunicare in contesti diversi e per negoziare identità sociali (García & Li Wei, 2014; Martínez-Roldán, 2015). Basandoci sulla concettualizzazione di García Johnson e Seltzer (2017) di una “corriente” translanguaging, descriviamo l'approccio e le strategie che ognuna di noi ha messo in essere mentre progettavamo e insegnavamo due corsi universitari: un corso avanzato chiamato Foundations of Bilingual Education e un corso iniziale chiamato Rhetoric and Composition I. Inoltre identifichiamo le tensioni, gli aspetti in comune e le differenze nella nostra esperienza di messa in pratica delle pedagogie translanguaging e nei compiti in due diverse aree disciplinari. Presentiamo anche le riflessioni ed i compiti di due studenti per illustrare i risultati delle nostre pedagogie translanguaging.

Parole chiave: TRANSLANGUAGING, ISTRUZIONE SUPERIORE, BILINGUISMO

* Contact: sandra.musanti@utrgv.edu

1. Introduction

Translanguaging practices are identity markers and represent the complex ways in which bilinguals use their linguistic repertoires to communicate across contexts and to negotiate social identities (García & Li Wei, 2014; Martínez-Roldán, 2015). In addition, translanguaging practices have the potential to be powerful tools for learning that have been insufficiently researched and documented in higher education contexts (García & Li Wei, 2014; Mazak & Carroll, 2017; Musanti & Rodríguez, 2017). Recently, translanguaging pedagogies have been defined as political acts, as they challenge monoglossic views of bilingual education and leverage students' linguistic repertoires (García & Li Wei, 2014; Palmer, Martínez, Mateus, & Henderson, 2014). This chapter aspires to contribute to emerging conversations and pedagogical innovations that tap into bilingual students' full linguistic repertoires. It explores how two faculty who teach undergraduate courses at a Hispanic-Serving Institution attempt to move from a language-compartmentalized approach to instruction that leverages students' bilingualism for learning (García & Li Wei, 2014). The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley (UTRGV) is the second largest Hispanic-Serving Institution in the United States, where 89% of the student population self-identify as Hispanic. The mission of the University is to become a bilingual, bicultural, and biliterate institution. As an institution of higher education located on the Mexico/U.S. border, translanguaging practices occur naturally among linguistically diverse students as they engage with various stakeholders in and outside of the university context. However, the region is fraught with contradictory perceptions of the value, purpose, and aims of bilingualism (Musanti, 2017; Sayer, 2013; Sutterby, Ayala & Murillo, 2005).

2. Translanguaging and translingual practice

The notions of translingual practices (e.g., Canagarajah, 2011, 2013; Cavazos, 2017) and translanguaging (e.g., Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Li Wei, 2014; Sayer, 2013) challenge the practice of separating monolingual and multilingual perspectives on language. Language users do not have a separate competence for each language, but rather operate with an integrated linguistic system (Canagarajah, 2013; Nikula & Moore, 2016; Otheguy, García, & Reid, 2015). This integrated understanding is anchored on the premise that named languages are social as opposed to static and separate entities (Otheguy et al., 2015; Sayer, 2013). Moreover, language is a local practice; we understand local, with Pennycook (2010), to mean a dynamic and fluid space where language is used, constructed, and interpreted amid social interaction.

Scholars in the field of bilingual education have conceptualized translanguaging as "*multiple discursive practices* in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds" (García, 2009, p. 45, emphasis in original). The notion of translanguaging is embedded in the idea of flexible bilingualism. It acknowledges the need to leverage students' linguistic and sociocultural resources by embracing language integration instead of language separation for teaching and learning (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Nikula & Moore, 2016). From a sociolinguistic perspective, two central tenets of translanguaging are the problematization of the separation of languages and the challenge to the monoglossic view of bilingualism.

One of the main arguments supporting the strict separation of languages in educational settings derives from the idea that it is important to protect the space of minority languages in contexts that tend to suppress them (Otheguy et al., 2015). But translanguaging acknowledges bilingual individuals languaging to make meaning across social contexts and within one integrated, complex, dynamic, and flexible linguistic repertoire (Creese, 2017; García & Li Wei, 2014; Guerra, 2015). This insider perspective on languaging puts the emphasis back on what bilingual people do with language as opposed to what a language is from an outsider's perspective (Otheguy et al., 2015). As Swain (2006) explains, languaging refers to "the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language" (p. 98), and is therefore central to learning and to learning about language. Moreover, recognizing translanguaging practices as intrinsic to bilingual individuals' way of making meaning and learning is "an ideological and pedagogical shift for linguistic rights and social justice in education in an increasingly diverse world" (Paulsrud, Rosén, Straszer, & Wedin, 2017, p. 17). For this reason, we are inspired to engage in problematizing our teaching approach and in inquiring how translanguaging pedagogies can promote language awareness and advance linguistic rights in an increasingly bilingual and multilingual world.

2.1. Translanguaging as pedagogy

Addressing translanguaging from a pedagogical perspective is especially relevant in bilingual communities because, as García (2009) explains, it is impossible to participate, communicate, and interact in

a bilingual community without appealing to translanguaging. Bilingual and multilingual classrooms are social spaces and translanguaging practices are salient features in the communication process (Creese, 2017). A dynamic, holistic understanding of language challenges the notion that languages are mutually exclusive as well as the belief that there is a risk of “confusion or cross-contamination” (Jacobson & Faltis, 1990, p. 7), ideas that are still present in bilingual classrooms. Disregarding the prevailing emphasis on promoting monolingual instruction and on strictly separating languages, teachers use translanguaging to support students' learning process (García & Li Wei, 2014).

A translanguaging approach to teaching zooms in on students' language experiences, acknowledges their languages as resources for learning, and raises questions about how educators should create opportunities and design learning environments that integrate and extend students' linguistic repertoire (Cavazos, Hebbard, Hernandez, Rodriguez, & Schwarz, 2018; García, 2014; García & Li Wei, 2014; Martínez-Roldán, 2015; Musanti & Rodríguez, 2017; Paulsrud et al., 2017). More specifically, in higher education, Van der Walt and Dornbrack (2011) have argued for approaches that create learning opportunities where “students are encouraged to draw on their various languages (even if complete fluency is not available) as resources, rather than as barriers...” (p. 101). To respond to varying levels of language fluency, García, Johnson & Seltzer (2017) propose following the translanguaging *corriente*, which is a metaphor that refers to the “current or flow of students' dynamic bilingualism that runs through our classrooms” (p. 21). The imagery of a tide of language resonates with the reality of our borderland region, where the Rio Grande has been designated as the geographical separation between countries. The *corriente* is especially visible in our bilingual and bicultural borderland region where the language landscape is fluid, where Spanish and English are deeply rooted in the identity of the region, and where translanguaging practices define and identify its people. In the words of García, Johnson, and Seltzer (2017):

Thus, U.S. Latinos, as well as other bilinguals, experience “language” and histories constructed through one or another named “language” as an integrated system of linguistic and cultural practices. The translanguaging *corriente* generates the creative energy and produces the speaker's way of interacting with others and other texts, rather than responding to restrictions imposed by the officially accepted way of using language. (p. 23)

The translanguaging *corriente* has specific implications for a translanguaging pedagogy that includes three strands: (1) embracing a translanguaging stance, (2) building a translanguaging instructional design, and (3) engaging in making meaningful translanguaging shifts (García et al., 2017). A translanguaging stance refers to a pedagogical approach that embodies the idea of dynamic and holistic bilingualism, that embraces students' full and complex linguistic repertoire as resource for learning, and that provides opportunities for students to develop metalinguistic awareness. A translanguaging instructional design “refers to how we strategically plan instruction to work within the translanguaging corriente” (García et al., 2017, p. 61) and is grounded on and integrates students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds and practices. In using an instructional design based on translanguaging, teachers use translanguaging pedagogical strategies that create spaces for students to use their entire linguistic repertoire while developing language skills and learning new content. In following the translanguaging *corriente* intrinsic to interactions in a bilingual class, educators comply with their design while making moment-by-moment pedagogical decisions that will ultimately enact their translanguaging stance (García et al., 2017). We contend that higher-education educators and teacher-educators in bilingual contexts need to embrace a translanguaging stance, follow a translanguaging design, and make meaningful translanguaging moves.

3. Methodological considerations

We approach this work from the perspective of self-study in education and its “moral commitment to improving practice” (Bullough & Pinnegar, 2004, p. 317). From a methodological perspective, self-study involves three characteristics: (1) it emphasizes the centrality of inquiring about self; (2) it renders teacher educators' experience as a resource for research; and (3) it urges those who engage in self-study to be critical of their roles as researchers and educators (Feldman, Paugh, & Mills, 2004).

Our positionality as bilingual educators who learned English as a foreign and as a second language, respectively, influences not only how we design linguistically inclusive coursework, but also how we investigate the impact of our pedagogical practices on student learning. Sandra, first author, learned English as a foreign language in Argentina and then as a second language when completing her graduate studies in the United States. Alyssa, second author, emigrated to the United States from Mexico when she was eight years

old and began to learn English as a second language when she was in fifth grade. As teacher-scholars, we recognize that our own personal and scholarly experiences continuously shape how we have redesigned our courses, how we ask research and pedagogical questions, and how we adjust our own pedagogies to optimize student learning and success across their full linguistic repertoire.

During one semester we engaged in purposefully enacting a translanguaging stance in two of our undergraduate courses. We kept a journal where we wrote notes on our lesson planning, after-thoughts about the implementation of our design, and questions that arose about our practices as the semester progressed. In addition, as part of a broader research study, we collected students' assignments and met twice during the semester to discuss salient events in our courses. We also observed each other and collected survey data from our students to document their linguistic profiles.

For this article, we decided to produce a detailed documentation of our classes and to identify students whose coursework provided evidence of the effects of implementing a translanguaging design. We worked individually to reconstruct and document our teaching experiences, drawing from the recordings of our meetings, our journals, our class materials, and student work. We then met to compare and contrast our accounts and to identify commonalities and differences that we analyzed from the perspective of the translanguaging *corriente* (García et al., 2017). In what follows, we present our individual instructional accounts, illustrating elements of translanguaging stance, design, and pedagogical moves through the work of two students selected in our respective classes. We draw on our complex linguistic repertoire to represent the translanguaging *corriente* that influences how we think and teach. In their call for proposals, the guest editors, Josh Prada and Tarja Nikula, invited contributors to "purposefully push the boundaries of monolingual academic writing through written translanguaging." We embrace this invitation because it is an opportunity to accurately represent how we draw on our full linguistic repertoire to think about and make sense of our teaching practices. In this way, we invite readers of all language backgrounds to remain open to our linguistic differences and enact a translanguaging stance as they navigate between English and Spanish while making meaning with us. Therefore, we choose not to translate from one language to another but rather integrate them in the narrative.

4. Alyssa's translanguaging stance and design

Because as an English as a second language learner, I struggled with learning how to write well in English throughout my education, I began to question and explore how to design writing courses where students reflect on and compose in different languages and for different purposes, thereby encouraging metalinguistic awareness. This is necessary in a discipline where the English language is often privileged (Horner & Trimbura, 2002; Matsuda, 2006). Due to my language background and writing experiences, I wanted to learn about how multilingual faculty conduct research and how multilingual faculty and students negotiate languages for different purposes (Cavazos, 2015; Cavazos, in press). Through conversations with multilingual faculty members and students, descubrí nuevas perspectivas que me han ayudado a diseñar cursos centrados en los conocimientos multilingüísticos de mis alumnos. First-year writing son mis cursos favoritos de enseñar porque es un espacio ideal para desafiar las expectativas y normas de la escritura académica en inglés. De esta manera, nos enfocamos en ser conscientes de cómo es que usamos el lenguaje en diferentes contextos académicos y en la comunidad para comunicarnos con una variedad de audiencias. Con un enfoque en nuestras propias experiencias lingüísticas, podemos crear nuevos conocimientos mientras investigamos teorías de la escritura. First-year writing encompasses two one-semester writing courses in which first-year students learn about research methods and analyze and compose written, visual, and aural genres for different audiences. First-year writing is a part of the core curriculum in the Texas higher education system and is critical to the academic success of first-year college students. According to institutional data, in first-year writing courses, on average, 94% of the students self-identify as Hispanic or of Latino origin and 68% of the total number of students enrolled in these courses self-identify as fluent Spanish speakers.

4.1. Translanguaging stance

Los cursos de first-year writing tradicionalmente se enfocan en la enseñanza de la escritura en inglés, ya que el prefijo del curso es *English 1301: Rhetoric and Composition I* y, por esta razón, los estudiantes creen que la clase se enseña en dicho idioma. La mayor parte del curso sí lo enseñó en inglés, ya que aprendí sobre la disciplina leyendo teorías de la escritura en este idioma. Por lo tanto, para mí es importante desafiar el

predominio del inglés de manera explícita y directa, especialmente en como comunico mi translanguaging stance. My first semester first-year writing course is titled “Writing about (Translingual) Writing,” which is partially inspired by Downs and Wardle’s (2007) writing-about-writing approach to teaching first-year writing and my previous research on language diversity in the writing classroom (Cavazos, 2017; Cavazos, in press). My translanguaging stance is conveyed in the syllabus in various forms: in semester-long guiding questions, in a translingual statement, and in learning outcomes. Additionally, I describe my value of collaborative learning and language awareness and provide questions that will guide our thinking, writing, and reading activities. One of those questions reads, “How does our knowledge of languages other than English function as a strength when writing academically in college and future careers?” These questions continuously evolve and change as all the students, with their unique linguistic abilities, respond to course readings, engage in collaborative activities, and reflect on course projects.

To further convey my translanguaging stance, I incorporate a *translingual statement* into my syllabus. Because the purpose of the course is for students to become aware of how to write for different audiences and rhetorical contexts, their knowledge of different languages is essential: it gives them access not only to more literacies but also to a broader audience. I write the translingual statement in both English and Spanish as these are the two languages I know and the most common languages used by students in the course. Part of the statement reads as follows:

Yo los invito a escribir, leer y desarrollar investigaciones en cualquier lenguaje o dialecto que esté alineado a sus metas y expectativas... Usar diferentes lenguajes o dialectos mientras hacemos investigaciones, conversamos y escribimos no solo incrementa nuestro acceso a conocimientos diversos, pero también incrementa nuestra habilidad de crear nuevos conocimientos.

I accentuate that knowledge of different languages expands our access to different conocimientos that we would not have access to otherwise, which is critical because in first-year writing students are exposed to the research process and the dominance of English in scholarship has been well-documented (Canagarajah, 2013; Cavazos, 2015). In this way, students are encouraged to conduct more critical and deeper investigations of knowledge production in diverse languages and beyond traditional academic texts. Subsequently, I introduce students to how their exploration of the guiding questions throughout the semester and their diverse linguistic abilities will ensure they achieve student learning outcomes.

4.2. Translanguaging design

Conveying a translanguaging stance to students in the course syllabus not only provides the framework for the course, but also prepares students for optimal translanguaging engagements. Most importantly, because a translanguaging stance is a living and dynamic pedagogical approach (García et al., 2017), it is continuously enacted throughout the pedagogical design and moves of the course, such as course readings, course project descriptions, collaborative activities, reflective writing, and teacher and peer feedback throughout the semester. Así como mis investigaciones surgen de mis propias experiencias como estudiante que aprendió inglés como segundo idioma, diseño mi curso de first-year writing de esta misma forma. Deseo que los estudiantes analicen y reflexionen sobre sus propias experiencias como escritores y lectores y que reconozcan que estas experiencias tienen el mismo peso y validez que las fuentes académicas. Esta estructura provee incentivos a los estudiantes para que desarrollen sus propias perspectivas, argumentos y conocimientos y así puedan identificar a una audiencia a quien le beneficiaría saber más sobre los temas de reflexión e investigación. To illustrate how students engage translanguaging practices, I provide a short case-study narrative of Rafael’s writing and languaging experiences. Rafael is a 20-year-old freshman and first-generation college student who returned to school two years after graduating from high school. He is from Veracruz, Mexico where, as he describes, “opportunities are [rare], and people rarely finish school.” Rafael learned English as a second language, and he is a business management major. He self-identifies as bilingual and as proficient in reading, writing, speaking, and listening in both English and Spanish but shares that he experiences challenges writing in English.

In a translingual writing course, my choice of readings and how students respond to those readings are purposeful. Course readings are essential as they not only frame course projects, but also represent my attempt at consciously challenging the dominance of English in writing studies scholarship (Horner, NeCamp, & Donahue, 2011). The readings are divided into three sections, corresponding to the three major projects in the course: translanguaging autoethnography, navigating sources that disagree, and writing for public

change. Therefore, course readings encompass the following: personal narratives of translanguaging (e.g., Tan, 1990; Brandt, 1998), academic articles on investigating translanguaging practices (e.g., Canagarajah, 2011; Cavazos, 2017), academic articles on reading rhetorically and on arguments as conversation (e.g., Haas & Flower, 1988; Kantz, 1990; Greene, 2001), and a variety of primary documents that merge the personal and academic for the specific purpose of writing for change (e.g., Young, 2010; Guerra, 2012). Students are encouraged to respond to course readings via rhetorical responses where they analyze translanguaging events (Alvarez, 2014) and create translanguaging events. In response to Canagarajah's (2011) reading titled "Codemeshing in Academic Writing: Identifying Teachable Strategies of Translanguaging" and Amy Tan's (1990) "Under Western Eyes," which included discussion questions written in both English and Spanish as part of my translanguaging moves, Rafael wrote the following in his rhetorical response:

As writers, we are in the process of learning new strategies of writing [...] Por ejemplo, yo en la clase de Cavazos me siento mas libre de expresarme mayor. Muchas de las veces quisiera expresarme en inglés pero no seria lo mismo que si me expresara en español, y por eso pienso que debemos usar los recursos que tenemos como estudiantes "Bilingual". We also need to be more open minded; we need to think out of the box when it comes to writing. For example, Buthania uses symbols in some parts of her essay, which means that she uses symbols as another language. Maybe that's one way where she can express better [...] This literacy show[s] us that we can be linguistic[ally] discriminated by the way we talk, but if we see the positive side of this, we can also use it as a motivation to overcome any language we are trying to learn.²

Rafael not only synthesizes two different course readings in his response, but also creates a translanguaging event as he uses both English and Spanish to convey how he overcame linguistic discrimination. He deliberately challenges monolingual ideologies in written academic texts. Y es esto, precisamente, el propósito de las lecturas y preguntas de discusión —comprender y analizar los factores culturales, raciales y socioeconómicos que contribuyen al desarrollo de la escritura y la lectura en diferentes idiomas.

Después de analizar las lecturas, continuamos con proyectos reflexivos sobre la alfabetización que escribo en inglés con algunas palabras claves en español. Una de las metas del translingual autoethnography es que los estudiantes desarrollen un argumento sobre los factores que contribuyeron a su aprendizaje de las habilidades lectoescritoras. Rafael explora estos factores de su alfabetización con detalles de cómo su papa le enseñó a leer:

Mi papa no sabía escribir ni leer tanto, pero a pesar de eso, el tomo la decisión de ñarme a leer, ¿cómo le hizo? Tal vez su instinto de enseñarnos a siempre ser lo mejor que podamos en cualquier cosa que nos pongamos en mente.

Rafael relaciona su desarrollo como lector y escritor a cómo su padre le enseñó a nunca darse por vencido. Al final de su ensayo, Rafael comparte:

We might not know it, but persons, things, can affect the way we better ourselves. Ya sea en estudiar o mejorar como personas. Siempre es bueno mirar hacia adelante sin importar lo que la gente piense. I'm very happy with everyone who helped me achieve the English language; no matter what language I learn, I will always love my Spanish because fue el idioma con el que crecí, con que el que mis papas me enseñaron, y con el que algún día le enseñare a mis hijos a ser grandes personas. I can say I know how to read/write in English, but for now on, I am going to focus on mastering my accent. It is going to be a very difficult task, but that is my goal. I know if I am willing to put all the work, I will achieve my goal. "El querer es poder."

From his initial rhetorical analysis to his reflections on his autoethnography, Rafael is building critical language awareness by using both English and Spanish in more natural ways as he draws on his language resources to convey his message. Mientras los estudiantes escriben su translingual autoethnography, los invito a identificar preguntas de investigación que surjan de sus propias experiencias. Así, los estudiantes reúnen diversas fuentes que tratan su pregunta desde diferentes puntos de vista y las analizan using rhetorical reading strategies (Haas & Flower, 1988) y enfocándose en cómo los autores llevaron a cabo sus

² To respect students' linguistic choices, their writing excerpts are included verbatim.

investigaciones (qué argumentos, evidencia marcos teóricos emplean). El propósito de esta actividad es que los estudiantes cuestionen los argumentos presentados en estas lecturas a la vez que presentan sus propias perspectivas, contribuyendo así al debate. Ya que su padre influenció su desarrollo como lector y escritor, Rafael decidió explorar la siguiente pregunta de investigación: “¿Qué efecto tienen los papás en sus hijos al no tener conocimiento de leer y escribir?” La mayoría de sus fuentes académicas fueron en inglés pero Rafael decidió analizarlas en los dos idiomas. En su análisis, Rafael emplea las estrategias de rhetorical analysis que sugieren Haas and Flower (1988), Kantz (1990) y Greene (2001):

Literacy is a powerful tool needed in many situations, such as a country's economy. [Researchers] concluded that if we encourage people to acquire some knowledge on literacy, we can help them get jobs which will improve the economy of a country. We can use myself for example. We got more jobs due to our bilingualism and the more jobs, the more money we can make. We can change people's lives by empowering them to learn new things. My parents were the key to where I am right now. They empower me to become someone in life, and they also contributed to my literacy knowledge since I was a little boy [...] La alfabetización es algo interesante de mirar. Te puede ayudar a desarrollar nuevas habilidades como aprender otro idioma. Te puede mejorar la vida agarrando mas conocimiento. Todo empieza en la casa con nuestros padres. I believe that our parents are the key to our way to success.

Si enseñara el research project en mi clase de una forma estricta y si les dijera a mis estudiantes que solamente pueden escribir en inglés, tal vez algunos de ellos no llegarían a desarrollar las ideas que el uso de sus dos (o más) idiomas les permite conceptualizar. Rafael not only articulates the arguments the authors present, but he also expands upon them by providing his own experience on bilingualism—a perspective the authors he cites did not address. Rafael recognizes his goal of becoming proficient in English and is critically aware of his internal linguistic system as he draws on his language resources to strengthen his analysis.

El trabajo final requiere que los estudiantes diseñen algún proyecto para una audiencia específica y el contenido de este proyecto, regularmente, surge del translingual autoethnography y del proyecto de investigación. Rafael analiza cómo llegó a identificar a su audiencia:

After doing project one and project two, I realized the huge impact our parents play in our education. Project three means a lot to me because it shows me how far I have gotten with the support of my parents. I always imagined myself doing something else with my life. But if it wasn't because of my parents, I wouldn't be here right now writing this project. I believe that the same way my parents supported my brothers and me is the way parents should take into consideration when it comes to helping their kids with their education journey.

Rafael wrote the above analysis in English, perhaps, because most of his academic sources were in English. The lack of sources in other languages may have influenced his decision to create a document that would appeal to parents in Spanish. While his analysis of genre choices is in English, he decided to analyze the document he created, a flyer, in Spanish (see Figure 1).

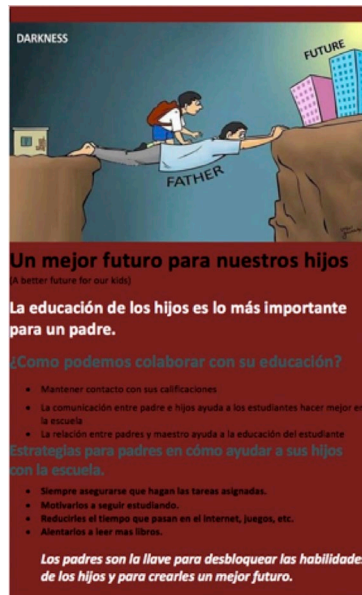


Figure 1. Rafael's public document.

He shares: "En este proyecto 3 la audiencia que elegí fueron los padres [...] No necesariamente tienen que ayudarles con sus trabajos sino alentarlos y apoyarlos con otros recursos, como los que mencioné anteriormente." Rafael has taken a translanguaging stance by addressing his intended audience, parents, in Spanish, which allowed him to develop rhetorical and linguistic agency as he draws on his full linguistic repertoire throughout the various stages of his writing projects.

4.3. Translanguaging moves

A translanguaging stance is enacted throughout the semester via class activities, course discussions, and feedback to student writing. Aunque durante los translanguaging moves sentía que siempre tenía que regresar al inglés, ya sea para explicar alguna lectura o rhetorical reading and writing strategies, Rafael's reflections illustrate how a course focused on overt translanguaging moves creates optimal opportunities for learning, writing, and the creation of meaning. Rafael synthesizes various perspectives presented in the course through course readings, original research, and personal experiences with writing and reading in different languages. This type of synthesis and critical analysis is the work we expect from first-year writing students—enhancing their ability to think critically and rhetorically about their writing choices and to develop their own voice and perspectives. In the final reflection of the course, where students are expected to self-assess their rhetorical writing abilities, Rafael narrates:

Voy a escribir en español porque es una de las experiencias que disfrute durante este semestre. Toda mi vida desde que llegué a este país, nunca volví a poner en práctica mi forma de escribir en español. Como el español es parte de mi cultura creo que por eso no me costó tanto trabajo volverme adaptar a él. Al usar el español en esta clase, me ayudo a entender las materias mejor. Cuando se requirió hacer apuntes de la lectura, yo siempre los hacía en español. Esto me ayudaba a regresar y mirar los puntos importantes de la lectura. Siento que, por ser mi primer idioma, le encontraba más sentido a lo que apuntaba. Atraves de estas lecturas que tuvimos en clases aprendí que nadie se tiene que sentir menos por como hablas el inglés. Amy Tan dice que no importa si tienes un "broken english" porque cada quien tiene su forma de expresarse. Al igual cuando se requiere escribir. Vershawn AshantiYoung nos enseña que los escritores deberían de usar su propio inglés. No importa si es black english, mexican english, or any other type of english. Young en sus lecturas nos demuestra que también no deberíamos de solo usar una lengua a la hora de escribir. Él dice that it is okay to code mesh cuando sea necesario ... Algo que me gusto de esta clase fue que pude utilizar mi lenguaje más fuerte. Me hizo sentir más libre de asimismo ... En un futuro talvez ya no vuelva a utilizar el español debido a que los demás maestros no piensan como

usted ... Al dejarnos comunicarnos en español fue algo realmente excitante, porque yo hasta la fecha no tengo la confianza suficiente para poder comunicarme oralmente en inglés.

My translinguaging moves, inviting students to engage reading and writing in Spanish in an English writing class through discussion questions and written feedback, facilitated Rafael's linguistic agency and awareness. Rafael challenged the perception that learning and writing only happen in English by reconnecting with the Spanish language in written form, which is one of the learning moments he explicitly states that he valued. If our goal as first-year writing teachers is to teach students how to engage rhetorically with course readings, research, and their projects, then we must consider that students may be adept at rhetorical analysis in languages other than English.

5. Sandra's translinguaging stance and design

My pathway to bilingualism was later in life, as I came to the United States to pursue a masters' degree. I am originally from Argentina, so Spanish is my first language. I see myself as a teacher educator with a passion for inquiry, and as a sequential bilingual who discovered the meaning of translinguaging when I arrived in South Texas seven years ago to teach in the bilingual education EC-6 (early childhood through sixth grade) teaching certification program. I was puzzled and I marveled when listening to my students using their Spanish and English repertoire in such a fluid and complex way. I was also saddened to hear them apologize for speaking *pocho*, a new term to me at the time, which to them means that they do not speak well enough. This illustrates how the stereotypical characterization of bilingual Mexican Americans as people who speak English but lack fluency in Spanish embodies an ideology of language oppression and suppression still prevalent in this region and across the nation.

As a teacher educator, I felt the need to explore how to better integrate students' communicative practices in the courses I was teaching for the bilingual education certification program that were taught in Spanish. As I taught these classes, it became clear that English was unavoidable for several reasons. First, the lack of materials written in Spanish that were appropriate to cover course content. Second, the dominant presence of the English language in the schooling experiences of my students and the configuration of bilingual education itself. And, most importantly, translinguaging was evident in students' interactions in class and written assignments as well as in my teaching.

The self-study was conducted in one of the five courses required for the bilingual education certification, Foundations of Bilingual Education and English as Second Language (ESL), one of the first courses in the bilingual courses sequence. All bilingual specialization courses in the program are taught in Spanish. The group of student teachers registered for these courses represented the student profile of most of my undergraduate classes and students in this program. A class survey showed that of a total of 25 students, 19 indicated they speak Spanish as a first language, three English, and three both. However, when asked which language they dominate, nine indicated Spanish, nine English and seven both. In addition, 18 believed their writing skills were stronger in English, five in Spanish, and two in both languages. The survey asked them to identify the language in which they feel most comfortable reading for a class. 10 students indicated both languages, 10 chose English, and only four chose Spanish. These data portray a complex linguistic landscape that informs and impacts my pedagogical stance, course design, and pedagogical moves.

5.1. Translinguaging stance

At the beginning of each course, I lay out what I call the *contrato pedagógico*, a pedagogical agreement that bounds what I do and what I expect from my students. This is also an opportunity to provide a pedagogical rationale informed by theoretical principles for my approaches to teaching. For instance, as I discuss with my students what teaching and learning are, I define learning as a social process that is co-constructed through interaction with each other and the course content. As a result of my ongoing inquiry on translinguaging dynamics in my courses (Musanti & Rodriguez, 2017), I have freed myself from chains imposed by the relentless push for strict language separation in bilingual education contexts (García, 2014; Mazak, & Herbas-Donoso, 2015). However, the pathway to translinguaging pedagogy is still a road under construction. Framing the course from a translinguaging perspective required me to make explicit statements in the course syllabus for student teachers. Initially, given the predominant monolingual ideology dominating education in the region, it was important to clearly define the role of English in a course taught in Spanish. The following statement in Spanish followed the English version and was discussed with students

the first week of class. The statement explains how bilingual people use their linguistic repertoire to communicate and make meaning and how I am including translanguaging as an innovation in my classes to integrate students' full linguistic repertoire:

Un aspecto innovador de este curso es el uso del translenguar. La noción de translenguar está basada en que la gente bilingüe usa el lenguaje para muchos propósitos incluyendo la expresión de ideas y la interacción (García, 2009). En las comunidades bilingües, así como en los salones de clase que sirven a estudiantes bilingües, los participantes utilizan el translenguar como un mecanismo no sólo de comunicación sino también de pertenencia al grupo de hablantes que negocia significados a través del uso de las dos lenguas con diferentes personas, en diferentes contextos y con diferentes propósitos. En este curso usaremos todos los recursos lingüísticos de las aspirantes a maestras bilingües, es decir, las clases modelarán el uso del lenguaje inglés y español para la enseñanza bilingüe y a la vez promoverán el uso del lenguaje de modo tal que facilite el aprendizaje.

As this course is designed for pre-service bilingual teachers, an important feature of my translanguaging stance was including the preview-view instructional strategy to use as a model of instruction in a bilingual classroom. This particular strategy has been thoroughly described (e.g., Freeman & Freeman, 2005; Mercuri, 2015) and consists of introducing a topic in the language that is not targeted for instructional purposes but is part of students' linguistic repertoire as a way to create background knowledge, and then developing the main portion of the lesson in the language of instruction. Sometimes, a review moment is included at the end of the lesson when the instructor returns to the minority or non-targeted language for content integration or to establish explicit cross-linguistic connections (Mercuri, 2015). The preview-view approach was reflected in the organization of the course, which involved an initial week discussing basic ideas on bilingualism by reading, writing, and talking in Spanish as a preview of the content. The following three weeks, we covered content on first- and second-language acquisition theories (e.g., Wright, 2015) while doing some writing and discussion in Spanish. Then, we continued the course in Spanish, referencing these authors and theories when appropriate but using Spanish as the language for teaching and learning.

5.2. Translanguaging design

One important translanguaging factor in how students are granted access to knowledge relates to the availability of materials in different, "named" languages or "the language of a nation or a social group" (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 281) included in the course. Resources related to bilingual education in the United States are available mainly in English. Even though this trend seems to be changing, it still shows how English is legitimized as the language of knowledge and science (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015). Course readings were in Spanish and English. The textbook assigned to the course was a recently published book in Spanish (Guerrero, Guerrero, Soltero-González, & Escamilla, 2017), one of the few available related to the course's topic. I assigned other readings to expand each topic, some of which were in English. One criterion for including a given reading in English was that it was relevant or that it covered a specific aspect of a topic not found in any of the Spanish texts. For instance, for a topic like historical and legal foundations of bilingual education, the syllabus included two readings in Spanish (Aquino-Sterling, Rodríguez-Valls, & Outes, 2017; Crawford, 2001). However, student teachers read materials relevant to bilingual and ESL education in Texas that were available only in English through the Texas Education Agency. An important insight related to the decision to include texts in Spanish and English to address the same themes is that this practice afforded student teachers with opportunities to shuttle between texts and languages. Thereby, students engaged in translanguaging through reading and writing about those texts—an important cross-linguistic skill for future bilingual teachers.

Another important component in the course design that reflected elements of a translanguaging approach were the assignments. All assignments were required to be written only in Spanish in previous versions of this course. However, for this iteration of the course, I purposefully made some changes to reflect the translanguaging stance of the course while trying to safeguard Spanish as the main language for teaching and learning. I struggled with this decision because most of my students have had minimal opportunities to develop academic Spanish writing skills. Only five students in a course of 25 believed their writing skills were stronger in Spanish than English. These were students who had completed most of their K-12 schooling in Mexico.

I designed a collaborative reflective inquiry assignment that attempted to incorporate two key translanguaging approach tenets: to appeal to student teachers' full linguistic repertoire (García & Li Wei, 2014), and to engage in a process of inquiry in collaboration with peers and the community through the use of their full range of oral and written translanguaging strategies (Canagarajah, 2013; Cavazos, 2017). During the semester, student teachers received detailed instructions in Spanish and English to complete the assignment. The following is a transcription of the assignment description included in the syllabus:

This assignment requires that you and one or two peers (no more than three students per group) conduct research to investigate the state of bilingual education in Texas and teachers, administrators, students, and/or parents' beliefs and knowledge about bilingualism and bilingual education. You will conduct this research in English and Spanish. However, you will write the paper mainly in Spanish using English when appropriate (for instance, quoting a text or a participant). Detailed instructions are available in Spanish and English in Blackboard.

The research paper included three parts: (a) a collaborative writing project including a review of the literature, an explanation of the methodology, and data collection; (b) an individual reflective writing project analyzing the interview data, and (c) a team-led showcase of the research results in the form of an infographic. As this was a multilayered project, I dedicated a class to discussing the instructions in Spanish.

Por ejemplo, expliqué y di ejemplos de cómo elaborar la revisión de literatura, un género con el cual mis estudiantes no habían tenido experiencia, por lo que fue importante darles una estructura sólida para guiar su trabajo. Esta estructura incluía preguntas tales como ¿cuál es el tema central?, ¿qué conceptos o ideas contribuyen a explicar ese tema?, ¿qué fuentes usaré?, entre otras. Además, el diseño de esta actividad integraba momentos para que pudieran revisar sus borradores en grupo y de manera individual utilizando unas rúbricas preparadas con este fin. Through examples and targeted questioning, I instructed students how to approach writing a research paper, scaffolding their writing process in the new genre of conducting a literature review in Spanish. Critical in this process were spaces to provide peer review, following a rubric intended to support student teachers' linguistic knowledge. The inclusion of translanguaging spaces to revise and read each other's work in Spanish was important for comparing different elements of Spanish academic writing vis-à-vis elements of English academic writing, like the use of punctuation and sentence structure, among others.

To provide the opportunity to represent and communicate their knowledge in a graphic manner, I asked students to work in teams to create an infographic. The graphic (Figure 2) showcases student teachers' learning about content as well as how they embraced translanguaging to communicate knowledge. The infographic uses different language features strategically to inform an audience of families, communities, and/or educators, depending on the group research topic (Otheguy et al., 2015).

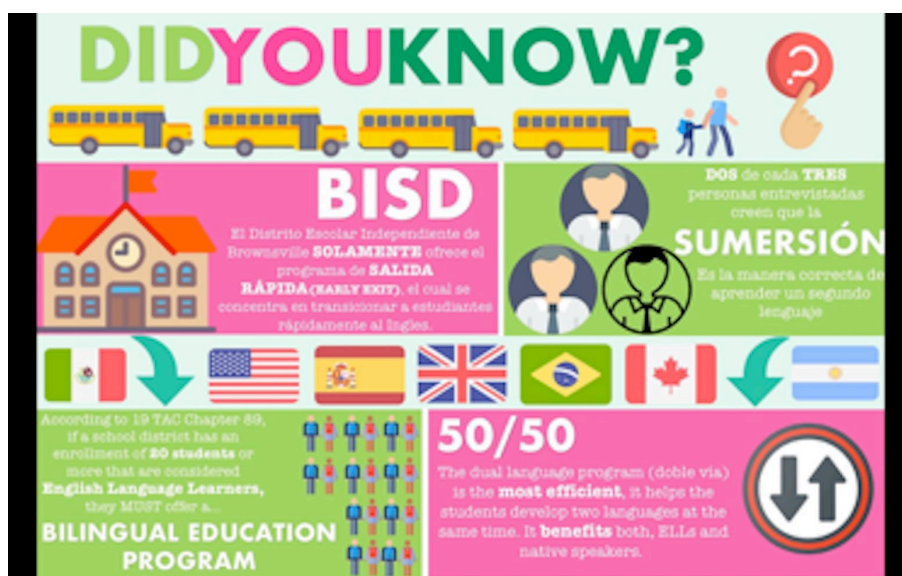


Figure 2. Infographic created by Sandra's student teachers.

5.3. Translanguaging moves

During the semester, I purposefully described and explained how languages are resources for learning and how the impact of not allowing students to use their whole linguistic repertoire might affect their achievement. This was a very conscious decision on my part to model and to facilitate their understanding of what it means to leverage language for student learning. My pedagogical moves, or what García et al. (2017) identified as translanguaging shifts, were imprinted with this idea. In one of my initial journal entries I described a classroom event and the pedagogical move that emerged:

When discussing the first reflective writing activity, the prompt indicated that they could write it in English, Spanish, or using both languages. My purpose was to open this activity, so they could use the language they felt most comfortable with or that they felt it was more suitable to convey their understanding. But I realized they weren't sure what it could mean to use both languages. So, we discussed possibilities.

Allowing myself to purposefully explore and open spaces for translanguaging in my courses was liberating and empowering for the student teachers and for me. During that conversation, student teachers shared different translanguaging examples, for instance, the use of terms that are difficult to translate, such as *open house*, due to the strong sociocultural component reflected in an event typical of schools in the United States. I came to the realization that translanguaging practices had been part of my teaching approach as well as of my students' interactions as they grappled with content. However, in hindsight, I see how I limited the use of translanguaging to scaffold students' access to meaning as opposed to integrating it as a purposeful pedagogy (García et al., 2017). I recognized the need to incorporate English when delivering instruction in Spanish to support student teachers' understanding of the course content, as well as to introduce them to specific terminology that they would encounter as future teachers in the realm of schools. For instance, in many of my presentations in Spanish I included references to educational terminology in English, such as *English language learner*, *sheltered instruction*, and *seal of biliteracy*, among other terms that were coined to define the specifics of the bilingual educational landscape in the United States. Interestingly, I did not find the same pattern in the materials I generated for my presentations in English. This exposes the hegemony of English in bilingual teacher preparation.

Gabriela's case illustrates the possibilities of a translanguaging pedagogy from the student perspective. Gabriela is in her thirties and she is a mother of two who is clearly more comfortable speaking in English during class. She identifies Spanish and English as her first languages, and English as her dominant language. She indicates that she uses both languages to communicate with family and friends but she speaks mostly English with her children: "Spanish only when needed, or when speaking to my mother or friends that strictly speak Spanish." Her writing and reading skills are stronger in English and she did not have any experience in a bilingual education setting during her schooling in the United States. Both of her parents speak Spanish and one speaks English. She is a first-generation college student, as her mother completed an elementary level of schooling and her father completed high school.

Her class assignments provide a glimpse into her journey through language and a rationale for her choice to become a bilingual teacher despite her struggles with Spanish. Students wrote four *escrituras reflexivas* (reflective writing assignments) responding to different prompts designed to demonstrate understanding of concepts, integration of ideas, and connection and application to their experiences as learners or as future teachers. For her first reflection, Gabriela wrote:

When it comes to speaking Spanish, it is not highly valued by a lot of people. As a teacher there will be students that can't speak the language very well. Speaking a second language is not a deficit. . . . Although my Spanish is not very fluent, I consider to have an extra advantage (meaning extra and not less) when it comes to communicating with people with more than one language. . . . Although I consider myself bilingual I found that the first week of class was a little overwhelming due to trying to articulate in a second language. Las palabras escolarizadas parecían un lenguaje completamente nuevo para mí. A principios de la segunda semana empecé a pensar como me hería en esta clase, no solo hablando mi lengua menos usada, pero también aprendiendo palabras escolarizadas.

Even though I did not mandate that students write the reflections in Spanish, Gabriela made the attempt to use Spanish as she reflected on her use of language. She translanguaged to refer to her struggle with *palabras escolarizadas*, her term for academic Spanish. Her reflection renders a metalinguistic analysis of

her language development by demonstrating the importance of leveraging bilingualism while avoiding segregation practices typical in the region. Gabriela notices how bilingual students in the region are separated from “regulars,” or mainstream students, for instruction. This is a practice she observed with her own children and that she explored through the collaborative inquiry project. She recognizes she has a long way to go in terms of mastering the norms of the Spanish language that are expected by teachers, schools, and society. Following a segment of her fourth *escritura reflexiva* where she describes how she had to navigate Spanish teaching and learning:

Al empezar este semestre se me hizo difícil hasta contemple cambiar de programa porque, aunque si entendía lo que se dice en español, aunque un poco lento comparados con otros estudiantes que usan español como lengua primaria . . . Me sentía como ese estudiante bilingüe separado de la clase por tener otra lengua primaria. Esto fue el principio del semestre. . . Esta semana que paso ya 8 semanas ... le comenté [a una amiga] que, aunque ya sé que todavía necesito bastante practica y enseñanza, pero siento más cómoda en desarrollando la segunda lengua y siento que ha logrado crecimiento en mi segunda lengua con el español académico. Hasta en veces en contexto que no es la universidad se me sale la segunda lengua con personas que normalmente hablo solo inglés. . . . Mi compañera que conocí este semestre por tener todas las clases iguales habla español en su primera lengua. Es como ejemplo bilingual pairs porque en las clases de inglés yo también le puedo ayudar. . . Por eso ... pienso que el desarrollo del bilingüismo funciona mejor cuando están los estudiantes juntos y no segregados.

Gabriela's *escrituras reflexivas* show how she took a stance, too—she embraced her Spanish background and used it effectively to communicate her emotions, thinking, and struggles with *palabras escolarizadas* in her first reflection, and seamlessly transitioning from English to Spanish to produce a powerful statement. Then, in her last *escritura reflexiva*, ella vuelve a describir su lucha y sentimientos and how this discomfort with Spanish transforms into some level of comfort with the language as the semester progressed. Her reflections and the collaborative inquiry paper show how she grapples with what she has learned in the course about bilingualism and bilingual programs and the monoglossic ideology that keeps imposing a language separation and devaluing Spanish as a legitimate resource for learning:

Cuando las participantes dos y tres contestaron que la mejor manera de adquirir [la segunda] lengua para sus hijos en la escuela contestaron “mezclados” no están totalmente incorrectas. Los programas que se han mostrado más efectivos en disminuir la brecha académica de los estudiantes bilingües son los programas de lenguaje dual.

Gabriela explains how parents participating in her research responded that the best way for their children to learn languages is “mezclados,” meaning integrated as opposed to separated. Her narrative demonstrates the rhetorical power of learning with the languages *mezclados*, and the implicit understanding that there is value to the translanguaging practices that are a part of the community's and students' linguistic repertoire.

6. Discussion and conclusion

As we reflect on our respective journeys through the translanguaging *corriente*, we see the importance of opening translanguaging spaces in our classrooms to leverage our students' linguistic resources for learning. When educators engage in reflections about languaging, they gain insights that can impact their translanguaging stance and the design of activities and assignments focused on leveraging students' languages for learning and knowledge-making in equitable ways (Cavazos et al., 2018; García & Kleyn, 2016). A translanguaging pedagogy should not be conceived only as a scaffold to support students' language development or content comprehension; rather, it should be understood as purposeful and strategic (García et al., 2017). Our pathways show important commonalities in disclosing our translanguaging stance, in our instructional design, and in the consequent pedagogical moves that we implemented. However, we also identify tensions and challenges in our experiences, specifically in counteracting the power of English as the perceived language of teaching and learning with the knowledge-making opportunities Spanish offers in educational contexts (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015).

Our personal histories and professional trajectory shape our translanguaging stance. Alyssa's stance grows from her background in language diversity in writing, which impacts her choice to focus on rhetorical

language awareness (e.g., audience, purpose, genre, and language choices) in the teaching of writing. Sandra's stance grows from her background in teacher education and her work with bilingual teachers, which influence her focus on the pedagogical implications, the moves, and impact on bilingual teacher candidates. A common point in our stance is our commitment to the problematization of language: to making students aware of the monoglossic view of bilingualism by inviting them to reflect on and enact languaging (Swain 2006; Otheguy et al., 2015).

Our instructional designs integrate translanguaging spaces that Li Wei (2017) defines as “created by and for translanguaging practices and a space where language users break down the ideologically laden dichotomies between the macro and the micro, the societal and the individual, and the social and the psychological through interaction” (p. 15). Alyssa opens a space for self-reflection through language by designing a translingual autoethnography assignment, which invites students to leverage their language resources in creative ways as they consider audience while exploring their experiences as writers and readers. Sandra uses the preview/view model to show student teachers how to purposefully integrate translanguaging spaces in their own classrooms, so their future students might have access to opportunities to use all their language resources for learning. In agreement with García et al. (2017), our translanguaging designs illustrate key purposes of a translanguaging pedagogy: they provide opportunities to develop linguistic repertoires, create spaces for students' bilingualism and ways of knowing, and support students' bilingual identities and socioemotional development (p. 7).

In the process of designing our courses, planning each class, and delivering instruction, we were both confronted with the struggle of a perceived need to return to English when describing our respective pedagogical approaches and leaning expectations in the syllabi and during class discussions of concepts and terminology well-established in the scholarship in English. Sandra noticed that her syllabus was dominated by English despite being a class taught in Spanish. The fact that English was the language of choice conveyed a contradictory message, ultimately legitimizing English as the default language of instruction. While Alyssa also noticed the dominance of English in her course syllabus, she experienced more challenges countering the dominance of English during verbal interactions with students, especially as she attempted to translate concepts in Writing Studies to Spanish, such as *rhetorical reading*, *rhetorical writing*, and *using sources persuasively*. Although Alyssa could use a direct translation of the terms, they would not have the same meaning for the students because they have not been exposed to them in academic Spanish. When Alyssa has conversations with students in Spanish about their writing, she does not necessarily need to translate those or other terms because that is how they appear in the scholarship of the discipline in English. In this way, Alyssa and her students continue to challenge dominant expectations of standardized or *correct* language use in academic contexts by drawing on all their language resources. Similarly, English became unavoidable in Sandra's class, especially in relation to terminology that defined specific aspects of the educational bilingual and ESL learning landscape. For instance, Sandra made the decision not to translate terms, such as *sheltered instruction* or *English language learner*, among others, as those terms are central to the field and intrinsic to the educational landscape in the United States. These concepts are a part of the academic knowledge required for bilingual teachers and need to be part of their linguistic repertoire. However, Sandra includes, as course content, conversations around translations of key academic terms and the nuances in meaning (e.g., literacy, biliteracy, and dual language programs are terms that have been translated in different ways). This is an important skill that bilingual teachers need to develop and use as they plan spaces for students to build on cross-linguistic connections. The tension between English and Spanish reflects the hegemonic position of English as a language of knowledge and learning (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015) despite the bilingual and bicultural sociohistorical roots of the community and the region. Drawing from our teaching experiences, within each of our academic disciplines, we see the need to produce and identify scholarship that engages disciplinary concepts in Spanish.

By providing spaces for translanguaging, our pedagogical moves reflejan lo que los estudiantes son capaces de producir—critical reflections on and enactments of new ideas using their full linguistic repertoire. If we genuinely believe, as translingual educators and scholars across academic disciplines, that multilingual students operate from one internal linguistic system, then we must ensure that our pedagogy and learning expectations reflect one linguistic system. Rafael's and Gabriela's respective reflections illustrate the benefits of creating a learning space where students can enact their linguistically diverse agency with a purpose. Gabriela's reflective writing shows how she moves from acknowledging her feelings of inadequacy trying to express herself through *palabras escolarizadas*—as she identifies academic language—to embracing *escrituras reflexivas* as opportunities to construct knowledge in Spanish and articulate her understanding of

bilingual education and bilingualism. Assessing Gabriela's writing from a standard language position would render her writing as insufficient; on the other hand, acknowledging her production as the enactment of her linguistic repertoire and her efforts to pull from different language features, both in Spanish and English, allows us to see her growth in terms of language nuances and comprehension of linguistic and cultural issues impacting bilingual learners. As with Gabriela, Rafael also uses his full linguistic repertoire to reconnect with Spanish, his native language, as he reflects on his early literacy history, conducts original research on the role of parents in literacy development, and designs useful flyers on literacy support for Spanish-speaking parents. Gabriela and Rafael were both critically aware of when and how they used Spanish as well as their own levels of literacy and fluency in both languages. Their ability to use their full linguistic repertoire leveraged their language learning experiences in the course by strengthening their analytical skills in both languages.

Our critical reflections on teaching *Rhetoric and Composition I* and *Foundations of Bilingual Education and ESL*, respectively, illustrate translanguaging pedagogies at all academic levels from first-year to upper-level, discipline specific coursework. Our experiences reflect the benefits of engaging in cross-disciplinary conversations to create optimal opportunities for students to reflect on and engage their full linguistic repertoire. As a result of our experiences in this collaboration, we propose higher education faculty should engage in continuous reflection on not only our translanguaging pedagogical approaches, but also on students' translanguaging reflections and creations, which can lead to new insights on how we might (re)design future iterations of purposeful translanguaging pedagogies. While we continue to challenge the dominance of English as the language of instruction in higher education, we also acknowledge that we must continue to draw on our full bilingual repertoire as we account for discipline-specific expectations and students' unique language histories.

References

- Alvarez, Steven (2014). Translanguaging tareas: Emergent bilingual youth as language brokers for homework in immigrant families. *Language Arts*, 91(5), 326–339.
- Aquino-Sterling, Cristian, Rodríguez-Valls, Fernando, & Outes, Rosario (2017). La educación bilingüe en Estados Unidos de Norteamérica: Continuidades y discontinuidades históricas y actuales. In Michael Guerrero, Maria Consuelo Guerrero, Lucinda Soltero-González, & Kathy Escamilla (Eds.), *Abriendo brecha: Antología crítica sobre la educación bilingüe de doble inmersión* (pp. 1–18). Albuquerque, New Mexico: Fuente Press.
- Brandt, Deborah (1998). Sponsors of literacy. *College Composition and Communication*, 49(2), 165–185.
- Bullough, Robert V., & Pinnegar, Stephanie E. (2004). Thinking about the thinking about self-study: An analysis of eight chapters. In John Loughran, Mary Lynn Hamilton, Vicki K. LaBoskey, & Tom Russell (Eds.), *International handbook of self-study of teaching and teacher education practices* (pp. 313–342). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer.
- Canagarajah, Suresh (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95, 401–417.
- Canagarajah, Suresh (2013). *Translingual practice: Global Englishes and cosmopolitan relations*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- Cavazos, Alyssa G. (2015). Multilingual faculty across academic disciplines: Language difference in scholarship. *Language and Education*, 29, 317–331.
- Cavazos, Alyssa G. (2017). Translingual oral and written practices: Rhetorical resources in multilingual writers' discourses. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 21(4), 385–401. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1367006916629225>.
- Cavazos, Alyssa G. (in press). Encouraging languages other than English in first-year writing courses: Experiences from linguistically diverse writers. *Composition Studies*.
- Cavazos, Alyssa G., Hebbard, Marcela, Hernandez, Esteban, Rodriguez, Crystal, & Schwarz, Geoffrey (2018). Advancing a transnational, transdisciplinary and translingual framework: A professional development series for teaching assistants in writing and Spanish programs. *Across the Disciplines: Interdisciplinary Perspectives on Language, Learning, and Academic Writing*, 15(3), 11–27.

- Crawford, John (2001). La educación bilingüe en los Estados Unidos: Política vs pedagogía. *Jornadas de Educación Plurilingüe*. Retrieved from <http://www.languagepolicy.net/articles/vitoria.htm>.
- Creese, Angela (2017). Translanguaging as an everyday practice. In BethAnne Paulsrud, Jenny Rosén, Boglarka Straszer, & Asa Wedin (Eds.), *New perspectives on translanguaging and education* (pp. 1–9). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Creese, Angela, & Blackledge, Adrian (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching?. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94, 103–115.
- Downs, Douglas & Wardle, Elizabeth (2007). Teaching about writing, righting misconceptions: (Re)envisioning 'first-year composition' as 'introduction to writing studies.' *College Composition and Communication*, 58(4), 552–584.
- Feldman, Allan, Paugh, Patricia, & Mills, Geoff (2004). Self-study through action research. In John Loughran, Mary Lynn Hamilton, Vicki K. LaBoskey, & Tom Russell (Eds.), *International handbook of self-study of teaching and teacher education practices* (pp. 943–977). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer.
- Freeman, Yvonne S., & Freeman, David E. (2005). Preview, view, review: Giving multilingual learners access to the curriculum. In Linda Hoyt (Ed.), *Spotlight on comprehension: Building a literacy of thoughtfulness* (pp. 453–457). Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Heinemann.
- García, Ofelia (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Wiley-Blackwell.
- García, Ofelia (2014). Countering the dual: Transglossia, dynamic bilingualism and translanguaging in education. In Rany Rubdy, & Lubna Alsagoff (Eds.), *The global-local interface, language choice and hybridity* (pp. 100–118). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- García, Ofelia (2017). Critical multilingual language awareness and teacher education. In Jasone Cenoz, Durk Gorter, & Stephen May (Eds.), *Language awareness and multilingualism* (pp. 1–17). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
- García, Ofelia, & Kleyn, Tatyana (2016). *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- García, Ofelia, Ibarra Johnson, Susana, & Seltzer, Kate (2017). *The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning*. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Caslon.
- García, Ofelia, & Li Wei (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. New York, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Greene, Stuart (2001). Argument as conversation: The role of inquiry in writing researched argument. In Wendy Bishop, & Pavel Zemliansky (Eds.), *The subject is research* (pp. 145–164). Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Boynton/Cook Publishers.
- Guerra, Juan C. (2012). From code-segregation to code-switching to code-meshing: Finding deliverance from deficit thinking through language awareness and performance. In Pamela J. Dunston, Linda B. Gambrell, Kathy Headley, Susan King Fullerton, & Pamela M. Stecker (Eds.), *61st Yearbook of the Literacy Research Association* (pp. 108–118). Oak Creek, Wisconsin: Literacy Research Association.
- Guerra, Juan C. (2015). *Language, culture, identity, and citizenship in college classrooms and communities*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- Guerrero, Michael D., Guerrero, Maria Consuelo, Soltero-González, Lucinda, & Escamilla, Kathy (2017). *Abriendo brecha: Antología crítica sobre la educación bilingüe de doble inmersión*. Albuquerque, New Mexico: Fuente Press.
- Haas, Christina, & Flower, Linda (1988). Rhetorical reading strategies and the construction of meaning. *College Composition and Communication*, 39(2), 167–183.
- Horner, Bruce, NeCamp, Samantha, & Donahue, Christiane (2011). Toward a multilingual composition scholarship: From English only to a translingual norm. *College Composition and Communication*, 63(2), 269–300.
- Horner, Bruce, & Trimbur, John (2002). English-only and U.S. college composition. *College Composition and Communication*, 53(4), 594–630.
- Jacobson, Rodolfo, & Faltis, Christian (Eds.). (1990). *Language distribution issues in bilingual schooling*. Cleveland, Ohio: Multilingual Matters.

- Kantz, Margaret (1990). Helping students use textual sources persuasively. *College Composition and Communication*, 52(1), 74–91.
- Lewis, Gwyn, Jones, Bryn, & Baker, Colin (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. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718488>.
- Li Wei (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics*, 39(1), 9–30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx039>.
- Martínez-Roldán, Carmen María (2015). Translanguaging practices as mobilization of linguistic resources in a Spanish/English bilingual after-school program: An analysis of contradictions. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 9(1), 43–58. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2014.982442>.
- Matsuda, Paul K. (2006). The myth of linguistic homogeneity in U.S. college composition. *College English*, 68(6), 637–651.
- Mazak, Catherine M., & Carroll, Kevin S. (2017). *Translanguaging in higher education: Beyond monolingual ideologies*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Mazak, Catherine M., & Herbas-Donoso, Claudia (2015). Translanguaging practices at a bilingual university: A case study of a science classroom. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(6), 698–714.
- Mercuri, Sandra (2015). Teachers' reflective practice: Implementing the preview/view/review structure as a tool for learning. In Yvonne S. Freeman, & David E. Freeman (Eds.), *Research on preparing inservice teachers to work effectively with emergent bilinguals (Advances in Research on Teaching*, Vol. 24, pp. 81–106). Bingley, United Kingdom: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Musanti, Sandra I. (2017). A novice bilingual teacher's journey: Teacher's noticing as a pathway to negotiate contradictory teaching discourses. *International Journal of Multicultural Education*, 19(2), 146–162.
- Musanti, Sandra I., & Rodríguez, Alma D. (2017). Translanguaging in bilingual teacher preparation: Exploring pre-service bilingual teachers' academic writing. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 40(1), 38–54. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2016.1276028>.
- Nikula, Tarja., & Moore, Pat (2016). Exploring translanguaging in CLIL. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1254151>.
- Otheguy, Ricardo, García, Ofelia, & Reid, Wallis (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 6(3), 281–307.
- Palmer, Deborah. K., Martínez, Ramón Antontio, Mateus, Suzanne G., & Henderson, Kathryn (2014). Reframing the debate on language separation: Toward a vision for translanguaging pedagogies in the dual language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(3), 757–772.
- Paulsrud, BethAnne, Rosén, Jenny, Straszer, Blogarka, & Wedin, Åsa (Eds.). (2017). *New perspectives on translanguaging and education*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Pennycook, Alastair (2010). *Language as a local practice*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- Sayer, Peter (2013). Translanguaging, TexMex, and bilingual pedagogy: Emergent bilinguals learning through the vernacular. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(1), 63–88.
- Sutterby, John A., Ayala, Javier, & Murillo, Sandra (2005). El sendero torcido al español [The twisted path to Spanish]: The development of bilingual teachers' Spanish-language proficiency. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 29(2), 435–501.
- Swain, Merrill (2006). Language, agency, and collaboration in advanced language proficiency. In H. Byrnes (Ed.), *Advanced language learning: The contribution of Halliday and Vygotsky* (pp. 95–108). London, United Kingdom: Continuum.
- Tan, Amy (1990). Under western eyes. *The Three Penny Review*, 315–320.
- Young, Vershawn Ashanti (2010). Should writers use they own English? *Iowa Journal of Cultural Studies*, 12, 110–117.
- Van der Walt, Christa, & Dornbrack, Jacqui (2011). Academic biliteracy in South African higher education: strategies and practices of successful students. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 24(1), 89–104.
- Wright, Wayne E. (2015). *Foundations for teaching English language learners: Research, theory, policy, and practice* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Caslon

Sandra I. Musanti, The University of Texas Rio Grande Valleysandra.musanti@utrgv.edu

- EN** **Sandra I. Musanti** is an Associate Professor in the Bilingual and Literacy Studies Department at The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley. She was a postdoctoral fellow at the Center for the Mathematics Education of Latinos/as, a project funded by the National Science Foundation. Sandra prepares elementary pre-service teachers in the Early Childhood Bilingual Generalist program and teaches graduate-level courses in the bilingual master's and doctoral program. Her areas of expertise are bilingual pre-service and in-service teacher education. Presently, her research interests focus on bilingual teacher preparation and development across content areas, translanguaging in higher education, and bilingual teacher identity and agency.
- ES** **Sandra I. Musanti** es profesora contratada en el Departamento de Estudios Bilingües y de Literacidad en la Universidad de Texas de El Valle del Río Grande. Fue becaria posdoctoral en el Centro para la Educación Matemática de Latinos, un proyecto financiado por la Fundación Nacional de Ciencias. Prepara a maestros de educación primaria en formación en el programa generalista en educación bilingüe infantil (Early Childhood Bilingual Generalist) e imparte cursos de nivel posgrado en los programas bilingües de maestría y doctorado. Su área de especialización es la capacitación de maestros bilingües en formación y en servicio. Actualmente, sus intereses de investigación se centran en la preparación y el desarrollo de maestros bilingües en todas las áreas de contenido, el translingüismo en la educación superior y la identidad y la agencia de maestros bilingües.
- IT** **Sandra I. Musanti** è professoressa associata nel Dipartimento Bilingue e di Studi Letterari presso la University of Texas Rio Grande Valley. Precedentemente è stata assegnista di ricerca presso il Centro per l'Educazione Matematica per gli Ispanici, un progetto finanziato dalla National Science Foundation. Sandra prepara insegnanti di scuola elementare in prova nel programma di Prima Infanzia Bilingue Generalista ed insegna corsi post-lauream nel programma di master bilingue e in quello di dottorato. Le sue aree di competenza sono la formazione degli insegnanti bilingue in prova e in servizio. Attualmente, i suoi interessi di ricerca si concentrano sulla preparazione e lo sviluppo dell'insegnante bilingue in varie discipline, sul translanguaging nell'istruzione universitaria e sull'identità e l'agentività degli insegnanti bilingui.

Alyssa G. Cavazos, The University of Texas Rio Grande Valleyalyssa.cavazos@utrgv.edu

- EN** **Alyssa G. Cavazos** is an Assistant Professor of Rhetoric, Composition, and Literacy Studies in the Department of Writing and Language Studies at The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley. She teaches first-year writing and upper-level undergraduate and graduate coursework in writing studies. Her pedagogical and scholarly interests include language difference in the teaching of writing, translingual writing, multilingualism across communities, border rhetorics, and Latina/os in higher education. As reflected by her 2017 Regents' Outstanding Teaching Award, she is committed to designing linguistically inclusive projects and pedagogies, which can lead to students' academic success across academic disciplines in higher education.
- ES** **Alyssa G. Cavazos** es profesora de retórica, composición y literacidad en el Departamento de Escritura y Estudios del Lenguaje en la Universidad de Texas de El Valle del Río Grande. Imparte clases de escritura a nivel universitario y de posgrado. Sus intereses pedagógicos y académicos incluyen el uso de diferentes idiomas en la enseñanza de la escritura, la escritura translingüista, el multilingüismo en las comunidades, la retórica en la frontera y las/los latinas/os en la educación superior. Como se refleja en su premio, Regents' Outstanding Teaching Award, del año 2017, está comprometida en diseñar proyectos y pedagogías lingüísticamente inclusivas que puedan llevar a los estudiantes a tener éxito académico en todas las disciplinas académicas en la educación superior.
- IT** **Alyssa G. Cavazos** è ricercatrice di Retorica, Composizione e Studi Letterari nel Dipartimento di Scrittura e Studi Linguistici presso la University of Texas Rio Grande Valley. Insegna corsi di scrittura in corsi di laurea triennale, specialistica e post-lauream. I suoi interessi pedagogici e accademici includono la differenza linguistica nell'insegnamento della scrittura, la scrittura translingue, il multilinguismo tra le comunità, la retorica di confine e gli ispanici nell'istruzione universitaria. Come dimostra il premio che ha ottenuto nel 2017, il Regents' Outstanding Teaching Award, è impegnata nella realizzazione di progetti e pedagogie linguistiche inclusive, che possono portare gli studenti al successo accademico nelle varie discipline universitarie.

Translation in the language classroom: Multilingualism, diversity, collaboration

GIOIA PANZARELLA*, CATERINA SINIBALDI
University of Warwick

Received 5 June 2018; received in revised form 2 December 2018; 12 December 2018

ABSTRACT

EN The aim of this article is to discuss the ways in which translation can be used to foster multilingual competence and intercultural awareness in the foreign language classroom. While translation was described as a vital skill for foreign language learners in a European Commission study (2013), it has also been criticised for hindering the objectives of communicative approaches. This article draws on a number of examples and strategies to examine the potential of translation and, ultimately, to demonstrate how translation can play a key role in language teaching. The translation activities that have been selected place emphasis on collaboration and are designed to challenge cultural stereotypes, as well as monolingual and monocultural assumptions. Translation is presented both as a skill in itself and as a versatile pedagogical tool to improve learners' confidence, critical thinking, and intercultural competence, both in curricular and in extra-curricular settings.

Key words: TRANSLATION, MULTILINGUALISM, COLLABORATION, ITALIAN PEDAGOGY

ES El objetivo de este artículo es analizar cómo la traducción puede fomentar la competencia multilingüe y el conocimiento intercultural en el aula de lenguas extranjeras. En un estudio de la Comisión Europea (2013), se ha descrito la traducción como una herramienta vital para los estudiantes de lenguas extranjeras, aunque también se le ha criticado por interferir con los objetivos de una enseñanza comunicativa de la lengua. Este artículo recurre a numerosos ejemplos y estrategias para examinar el potencial pedagógico de la traducción y demostrar que puede tener un papel central en la enseñanza de lenguas. Las actividades de traducción seleccionadas se centran en la colaboración y han sido diseñadas para cuestionar los estereotipos culturales y las suposiciones monolingües y monoculturales. De este modo, la traducción se presenta tanto como una habilidad en sí y también como una herramienta pedagógica versátil que permite mejorar la confianza de los alumnos, su razonamiento analítico y su competencia intercultural en ambientes escolares y extracurriculares.

Palabras clave: TRADUCCIÓN, MULTILINGÜISMO, COLABORACIÓN, PEDAGOGÍA ITALIANA

IT L'obiettivo di questo articolo è discutere i modi in cui la traduzione può essere impiegata per favorire la competenza multilingue e la consapevolezza interculturale nella classe di lingua straniera. Sebbene in uno studio della Commissione Europea del 2013 la traduzione sia stata definita come un'abilità essenziale per i discenti di una lingua straniera, è stata anche criticata perché contrasterebbe gli obiettivi dell'approccio comunicativo. In questo articolo, oltre ad esaminare il potenziale della traduzione attraverso numerosi esempi e strategie, si vuole dimostrare come la traduzione può ricoprire un ruolo chiave nell'insegnamento della lingua straniera. Le attività di traduzione che sono state selezionate enfatizzano la collaborazione e sono state create per mettere in discussione gli stereotipi culturali, così come assunti monolingue e monoculturali. La traduzione è presentata sia come abilità in sé sia come strumento pedagogico versatile che migliora la sicurezza, il pensiero critico e la competenza interculturale degli studenti in ambiti curriculari ed extra-curriculari.

Parole chiave: TRADUZIONE, MULTILINGUISMO, COLLABORAZIONE, PEDAGOGIA ITALIANA

* Contact: Gioia.Panzarella@warwick.ac.uk

1. Introduction

How can translation be used to foster multilingualism? What do we mean by *translation* in the language classroom? What kind of strategies and activities can be employed to build on and enhance students' multilingual competence in the globalised world? By attempting to overcome the dichotomy between grammar-based and communicative approaches, this article explores the three-way relationship between translation, language teaching, and multilingualism, in a perspective that encourages intercultural competences.

The translation-based activities proposed in the present article place translation at the centre of the language classroom and highlight its potential to develop (inter)cultural and linguistic competences. By arguing for the specific pedagogical value of translation in the language classroom, we stress the importance of challenging negative attitudes toward the use of the students' first language in foreign language teaching. Furthermore, when engaging with some uses of translation in the language classroom through specific examples (see Sections 3 and 4), we shift the focus from the acquisition of the target language through a strictly monolingual model to the broader linguistic competences that students can acquire through multilingual practices.

The multilingual nature of translation is particularly relevant to our discussion; far from being limited to the relationship between source and target language, the translation process can encompass translanguaging practices including code-switching, code-mixing, and crossing, which are used to create meaning across and beyond languages (Otheguy, García, & Reid, 2015). Our discussion will show how, as a translanguaging and trans-cultural communicative act, translation is an effective pedagogical tool which should play a key role in the contemporary foreign language classroom.

In order to demonstrate this role, it is important to define what we mean by translation, and which uses of translation we chose to focus on for the purposes of this article. Throughout history, the understanding of translation has evolved from a purely linguistic phenomenon to a process which is deeply embedded in a socio-cultural context. With the so-called cultural turn in Translation Studies (Bassnett & Lefevre, 1990), the emphasis shifted from translation as a product, to the historical, economic, social, cultural and political conditions in which translation is performed. As Even-Zohar (1990) explained in his ground-breaking work: "Translation is no longer a phenomenon whose nature and borders are given once and for all, but an activity dependant on the relations within a certain cultural system" (p. 51). In the present article, we refer to translation not as a practice aiming to achieve equivalence between two monolingual systems, but rather as a process which creates a productive, dynamic environment and which encourages movement among languages, within and beyond the source language and the target language. Among the many "modes and variety" of translation, as Pym (2015, p. 1) puts it, this article will focus on some meaningful examples that show the intrinsic multilingual value that translation can add to the language classroom in two different contexts. In particular, we will show how translation is vital for fostering multilingual competence in learners. As a highly flexible pedagogical tool, translation promotes collaboration by giving students an opportunity to brainstorm, to select and rank ideas, and to evaluate and negotiate meanings. These activities, which are traditionally referred to as being suitable for advanced-level students, are here described as applicable to a diverse range of levels and teaching settings which draw on students' own linguistic resources and critical thinking. The concept of cognition, which we borrow from the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) methodology (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2005), helps to highlight the importance of such activities: translating is in itself a highly cognitively engaging practice and one which facilitates unique learning processes. Whilst the central task in translation-centred teaching is often the quest for language equivalence, we argue that shifting the focus on broader issues—such as register and style—shows how translation activities can benefit language learners at all levels and in different settings.

Consequently, a study by the European Commission (2013) lamented translation's "marginal status in language learning at present" since translation is a valuable skill that should be fostered in language learners. In this collection of essays, translating is described "as a mode of language use that can and should be learned in addition to the other four" (pp. 1-2), therefore equating translation to the traditional language skills of reading, speaking, writing, and listening. The document also highlights the strong connection between multilingualism and translation, drawing attention to "how learners will use their language skills in a multilingual world" (p. 2). In particular, it points out that translation should be seen as one of the mediating activities that are mentioned in the CEFR and that learners should develop (p. 2). A central research question that this publication asks is: Can translation contribute to effective language learning? In our article, we would like to expand on this question by further investigating the relationship between translation and

multilingualism, which we argue is key to understanding the value and the potential of using translation in language learning. Accordingly, our research question is the following: How can we effectively use translation in the language classroom to foster multilingual competence?

Section 2 of this article offers an overview of the presence of translation in language teaching. In discussing different pedagogical models and uses of translation, we refer to some of the critical contributions that challenged a view of translation as a means for acquiring grammatical rules. This section shows that whilst translation has often been associated with grammar-based methods – which are seen as irreconcilable with the communicative approach – this association has been challenged by scholars who discussed its potential for encouraging language interaction, multilingualism, diversity, and collaborative learning.

In this perspective, the two following sections illustrate a range of activities revolving around translation which can be used in language teaching. In Section 3 of this article, a collaborative translation workshop is presented as a learning context which overturns the power dynamics traditionally in place in the language classroom. Whilst the teacher is normally perceived as the figure in charge of a knowledge and the student as a passive recipient, in the collaborative translation classroom the student is in charge of negotiating the meaning and the interpretation of the text. Similarly, collaborative translation challenges the idea of translation as a solitary act, as well as a solitary learning experience, to be carried out in silence with a dictionary. The aim of such activities is to reflect on a text collaboratively in order to develop a set of skills that refer to a wider, cross-linguistic competence.

Section 4 presents a number of classroom activities aiming to challenge stereotypical representations of nation states and languages, and encouraging students to question the relationship between dominant languages and cultures versus minority languages, dialects, and translingual speakers. These examples show that translation is a skill that in turn fosters a wide range of competences, going beyond grammar and linguistic accuracy and building a broader linguistic awareness. The activities that are described centre on exercises of manipulation and transformation, which we argue to be key to promoting critical thinking while moving across languages and cultures.

The selection of examples has been guided by the intention to show a wide range of possible uses of translation in language teaching. Whilst the activities described were originally designed for university-level students of Italian in a British university, it is crucial to stress that these translation-based activities may be adapted or to other curricula or teaching contexts. Moreover, as we discuss in the following pages, the teaching settings were not homogenous. The collaborative translation workshops were optional classes open to students from all faculties, while the classroom activities described in Section 4 were embedded in the Italian language modules of Modern Languages students. In this regard, this article opens up further questions about how to include translation in university-level language teaching. On the one hand, the presence of formal assessments measuring intended learning outcomes, among other things, needs to be considered when incorporating translation activities into a language curriculum. On the other hand, extra-curricular settings such as the collaborative translation workshops should be planned in such a way that they provide students with an opportunity for deeper reflection on the language learning process.

Finally, an underlying, recurring theme of this article concerns the role of the teacher in translation-based language teaching. We argue that while acting as facilitators, when engaging students in translation activities teachers also create a multilingual environment in which students are encouraged to make the most of their linguistic competence.

2. Translation in language teaching: an argument for multilingualism

Before offering some practical examples of how translation can be effectively used in language teaching to promote multilingualism, it is important to provide a brief overview of the changing attitudes towards translation in foreign language pedagogy. We will also outline some of the critical contributions which are relevant to our discussion, and which shape our definition of translation.

Translation has played a key role in foreign language teaching and learning throughout history. One of the earliest language teaching methods is commonly identified in the Grammar-translation method, an eighteenth-century adaptation of the Classical Method, which was used for teaching Greek and Latin. At a time when foreign language acquisition was seen as an intellectual discipline, the main goal of the Grammar-translation method was not communication but translation between L1 and L2 as a way to learn grammar through a contrastive approach (Byram & Hu, 2013, p. 288). Although it should be noted that the Grammar-translation method was not the only language teaching method to be used in the eighteenth century (Pym &

Ayvazyan, 2017), it is undeniable that translation and grammar were taught in combination as an essential component of language learning.

From the 1970s, the prominence of accuracy over fluency and the focus on structural elements of the language (i.e. grammar and vocabulary) are called into question by the communicative approach to language teaching. This new approach shifted the emphasis to the functional aspects of the language which were seen as crucial for developing communicative competence in learners (Littlewood, 1981). Over the course of the twentieth century, foreign language teaching methodologies promoting the exclusive use of the target language in the classroom such as the Direct Method and, later on, the Audio-lingual Method, also gained considerable popularity (Richard & Rogers, 2001).

As a result, the grammar-translation method has been dismissed and translation itself has been highly criticised. The main argument used against translation was that, by keeping the focus on their first language, learners would not experience the consistent exposure the target language that was crucial to the communicative approach. Not only was language interference perceived as a potential risk for learners who were engaged in translation activities, but translation was also seen as having little relevance to the main four skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening (Malmkjær, 2010a, p. 185).

Some scholars, however, believe that translation can and should still play a role in foreign language acquisition. Carreres (2014) explores the validity of using translation both as a means and as an end in the language classroom, challenging the “belief that learning to translate and learning a foreign language are significantly different activities” (p. 123)². According to Venuti (2016), both translation as an activity and the academic discipline of Translation Studies are still largely misunderstood in academic and educational circles, and “prevalent notions of translatability conceive of translation as a one-to-one correspondence with the source text, reducing it to a process of mechanical substitution” (p. 5). This is particularly true in language teaching. Although the focus nowadays is less on linguistic and grammatical equivalence and more on translation as a skill in itself, there is still a need to stress the effectiveness of translation to develop broader inter-linguistic and intercultural skills beyond the contrastive dimension that is emphasised in language teaching. Guy Cook (2010) describes translation as an act that happens naturally in the brains of language learners and that should not be repressed, but rather understood. In his reassessment of translation as a useful pedagogical tool, Cook maintains that learning to cope with first-language interferences and code-switching are vital skills for language learners. In our globalised world, and in an increasingly multilingual society, Cook argues that being able to move between languages and cultures is of vital importance, and that language learners should be trained to be competent translators. Similarly, González-Davies (2017) proposes an Integrated Plurilingual Approach (IPA), in which translation is implemented “to advance [...] plurilingual communicative competence (PCC), defined as “an appropriate use of natural plurilingual practices (e.g., translation, code-switching or an informed use of the L1) to advance inter-linguistic and intercultural communication” (p. 125).

Promoting multilingualism is arguably one of the founding principles of foreign language teaching, as well as a strategic priority for the European Union, which, soon after its establishment in 1993, listed “proficiency in three Community Languages” as one of the core educational objectives (European Commission, 1995, pp. 47–49). However, a number of scholars have highlighted that the monolingual ethos of many university language programmes might work against this (Kelly, 2015). The target-language only approach has the effect of discouraging contact between different languages, including translation activities, thus turning the classroom into a monolingual space where only the target language is used. In his critique of monolingual pedagogies and practices, May (2014) refers to the “pathologizing of language transfer, mixed systems, convergence, and the interpenetration of systems, which are all central to language interaction in the ecology of multilingualism” (p. 8). The goal of a communicative approach to language teaching is to develop fluency in learners through extensive exposure to the target language from a reliable source, embodied by the teacher. In this context, the teacher becomes the source of an ideal authentic language to which learners should aspire. The *native speaker ideal* in foreign language teaching has been criticised both from a political and a pedagogical point of view. For instance, Holliday (2005) talks about the ideology of *native-speakerism* as the “established belief that ‘native-speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology” (p. 5). Chavez (2003) also suggested that “one of the paradoxes of a strictly monolingual classroom is the idea that the goal of

² In the recent *Mundos en Palabras* (2018), Carreres, Noriega-Sánchez, and Caldach have designed a textbook that integrates the theory and practice of translation with activities for advanced learners of Spanish.

bilingualism is to be achieved via monolingualism” (p. 166), and spoke about the “inevitability of diglossia in the classroom” (p. 194) due to the fact that language learners use their first language in mental speech and self-talk.

Furthermore, various scholars have pointed out that the native speaker model is discouraging for language learners, since it relies on unrealistic expectations which can generate frustration and a sense of failure (Kelly, 2015). The notion that in order to empower language learners we need to place emphasis on their multilingual competence, rather than on their target-language inadequacy, is not new. Already in 1999 Cook suggested that language learners should be viewed as “multicompetent language users rather than as deficient native speakers” (p. 185) and that language teaching should use methods that acknowledge the students’ native language as a resource rather than an obstacle. However, recent surveys of the literature on language teaching reveal predominantly negative attitudes toward the use of translation as a pedagogical tool, mainly due to the notion that, when engaging in translation activities, learners are constrained by their native language and therefore unable to develop communicative fluency (Kelly & Bruen, 2014).

Although translation is normally seen as the opposite of spontaneous, creative language use, we can argue that translation activities have the potential to foster learners’ independent use of the language while enhancing their perceived self-efficacy. Bandura (1995) first described the concept of self-efficacy as a fundamental motivator of human action: “Among the mechanisms of agency, none is more central or pervasive than people’s beliefs of personal efficacy” (p. 2). Applying this notion to the context of language learning, Conti (2015) argues that, despite being a “powerful catalyst of learner motivation and resilience” (n.p.n.) self-efficacy remains the most neglected motivational factor in the foreign language classroom. Going back to Venuti’s discussion of current attitudes to teaching translation, the author explains that while translation implies the inevitable loss of the relations between source-language features and source-culture contexts, it also brings “a gain of comparable relations between translating-language features and translating-culture contexts” (p. 8). In working towards reconstructing those relations between source and target languages and cultures, learners can develop skills and abilities that go beyond grammatical equivalence and acquire confidence in their multilingual and multicultural competence.

Finally, as illustrated in the next section, although translation is commonly perceived as a solitary activity, recent studies emphasise its collaborative nature and the different forms of negotiation that are involved in the process (Cordingley & Frigau Manning, 2017). The collaborative dimension of translation and its pedagogical value for the foreign language classroom are particularly evident if we consider Vygotsky’s (1978) early definition of the *zone of proximal development* as “the distance between the actual developmental 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). By engaging in translation activities as collaborative practices, language students can work within their zone of proximal development and draw on their collective knowledge to enhance their awareness of the forms and functions of language.

3. Collaborative translation workshops as a tool for language education

A series of workshops of Italian and English language using collaborative translation are presented here as an example of how translation may be employed in the language classroom in a perspective that encourages multilingualism (Panzarella & Wall, 2016; Wall & Panzarella, 2017).³ The element of collaboration is key to emphasizing dynamics of negotiation present when moving across languages. In particular, the central activity of each session—the conversation translation—reveals itself as a space for reflection in which students are invited to build on their global knowledge as well as their (multi)language background. Interaction is a key element of this activity, encouraging “students’ participation and dialogue” (González-Davies, 2004, p. 2). Collaborative translation should therefore be regarded as a process-oriented practice in which the contribution provided by each student is essential, as well as the negotiation between them.

³ These workshops were organized as part of the “Collaborative Translation: a Model for Inclusion” one-year project, which was co-lead by researchers at the University of Warwick (UK) and Monash University (Australia) and funded by the Monash-Warwick Alliance. Two series of workshops—one for learners for Italian and one for learners of English—were conceived and delivered by Gioia Panzarella and Georgia Wall (University of Warwick). As part of the research, the students’ feedback was collected, and students consented for it to be used as part of the research. Further details on the workshops can be found in Panzarella and Wall (2016) and Wall and Panzarella (2017).

In this context, defining the role and prerogatives of the instructor of the session is of critical importance. The moment of translation is shaped as an occasion in which learners can brainstorm, select and rank proposals, and evaluate options on the basis of their own competence and experience. In this sense, whilst considering that the instructor and students are collaborators who both contribute to the conversation translation, the central task of the instructor is to mobilize the above-mentioned practices. The teacher is therefore a facilitator of the session, instigating practices of collaborative translation with a range of verbal, but also visual and mimic aids. Among the questions collected during the workshops are the following: “Would you use this term in this context?”, “I feel that I would not use this term in this context, what would you say?”, “What would you call the person whose job is to...”, “What would you say works best, this term or that term?” For example, teachers may guide students by suggesting parallels or highlighting significant elements provided by the text, but not anticipating possible answers unless it is clear that it is only as a suggestion. All in all, as a facilitator, the teacher’s main task is to help students develop a broad language sensitivity.

Among the collaborators, students are given a role of responsibility: they are in charge of making translation decisions, and are designated as the collaborator who has the ultimate linguistic competence: in a collaboration perspective that values the competence of each collaborator, the instructor covers the language that the students are learning, which is the source language of the text to be translated, whilst students master the target language of the translation. In other words, students are asked to play a role in the class setting that traditionally is expected to be played by the teacher, that of the authority figure. For example, Balboni (2013) states that translation “should be carried out under the supervision of an expert, i.e., the teacher, who intervenes when necessary by filling in the gaps in students’ knowledge, thus acting like a resource that they can draw on” (p. 182).⁴ The collaborative translation workshops emphasize that the teacher is certainly an expert and a tool that students will use, because of their role of facilitator of the session, but also that the teacher’s role is not to fill in the gaps in the students’ knowledge, as Balboni would put it (p. 182). On the contrary, the role of the teacher is to make students aware of their ability to provide results and to train students to explore their own strategies. Students’ questions or doubts should not be seen as gaps that the instructor is responsible for filling, simply because the instructor is not the collaborator who is asked to contribute as far as the target language of the translation is concerned.

However, referring to the languages that are used in class as two separate and defined entities—one source language and one target language—would be misleading. Although students work on a text in the language that they are learning, they are encouraged to conduct the conversation translation in their vehicular language(s), to make sure that they can work as much as possible on issues such as register, nuances of meaning, and idioms. First, this is central to the aims of collaborative translation: the aim is not to reach a final and definite version of the text, but to train the students’ ability to negotiate meaning and reflect on the text collaboratively. Second, this choice challenges the necessity of using the student talking time uniquely in the target language, as the conversation translation activity prioritizes a negotiation among collaborators that can be achieved by communicating in the linguistic code that suits the students the most. There should not be overlapping with a speaking activity: the aim of the collaborative translation is to negotiate a meaning, which according to the Framework is a far too advanced task to be conducted in the language that students are learning, especially at beginner level (Council of Europe, 2001).

For this reason, working with a group of beginners has shown that students with a more advanced level of the language are not necessarily more at ease at translating collaboratively. In this sense, the selection of materials is in itself a tool that helps beginner students to approach texts that would not be suitable for translation at their level. Graphic elements guide students to identify key aspects such as the text typology and the register. Students are asked to use a set of skills that are not necessarily acquired in the language classroom, or at least at beginner level: for example, in the workshops, a song, a newspaper article, and a literary text were chosen. Students are encouraged not to focus on a final output but instead to consider, evaluate and discuss various options. In terms of learners’ needs, such skills cross the learning of a specific language and provide levels of awareness that can be applied to the learning not only of modern languages, but awareness of their own language. This is what Balboni would define *language education*, which transcends the specific objectives of a single foreign language class by developing a set of skills that can be

⁴ “avviene condotta sotto la guida di un esperto, il docente, che quindi sopperisce laddove necessario alle lacune degli studenti diventando uno ‘strumento’ a loro disposizione” (our translation).

applied to other learning contexts—such as the students' first language or classical languages—as well as to real life.

The collaborative translation class becomes therefore a multilingual context, in which two—or more—languages are in dialogue and subject to comparisons and reflections by students. The emphasis is placed on acquiring awareness and the tools that can be applicable to language learning, as well as on raising the students' awareness of their translanguaging and intercultural being (Phipps & Gonzalez, 2004). When negotiation of the translation has taken place within smaller groups, the sessions of the workshop conclude with a recap of the most controversial points of the translation, and by asking each group to identify some interesting points to be reported to the whole class. This practice allows students to demonstrate—and teachers to assess—the ability to navigate in multiple languages. This set of competences is central to the class; thus, developing such competences becomes a priority.

Finally, considering the way in which this workshop has been conceived, it is crucial to establish that students are not requested to produce a written translation, which would force them to make a definitive choice of the words and phrasing. An output that would suit more the aims of the activity would be a commentary that highlights problematic word choices, or issues that students have discussed by exploring the various options considered and the positions of the collaborators on various proposals. This exercise—which would also function as a means of assessment—would therefore reflect the aim of the session: not a final output of translation (or grammatically accurate output, as it is often the case in more traditional uses of translation in language learning), but a reflective practice on elements of the text such as register, format, idioms, synonyms, and most importantly in what ways the negotiation between the collaborators has contributed to the development of ideas, highlighting the input of various collaborators and the necessity of asking for the expertise of the other members. In this sense, a further step towards an assessment would be to establish descriptors that may illustrate the depth and breadth of reflexivity that emerges from the students' conversations, both with the teacher and among themselves.

4. Using translation in the language classroom: multilingual competence and intercultural awareness

While the translation workshops described above place emphasis on translation as a process, rather than a final output, when translation is taught as part of a university language course, there are other considerations at play. First and foremost, students taking part in language modules are assessed through formative and summative tasks, therefore their learning outcomes need to be measured. This section aims to show several ways in which translation can be used as an effective and versatile pedagogical tool in the language classroom, by illustrating how several activities can enhance students' overall language proficiency, their reading comprehension and writing skills, as well as their critical skills and intercultural awareness.

The following translation activities that took place in language classes aimed at beginners, intermediate or advanced students studying Italian as part of their degree in a British university. While there is an existing body of scholarship focusing on the pedagogical value of translation (e.g., Cook, 1999; González-Davies, 2004; Källkvist, 2013; Laviosa, 1997; Leonardi, 2010; Malmkjær, 2010b), a limited number of studies deal specifically with the use of translation in Modern Languages degrees (Malmkjær, 2010b; Pym 2015; Venuti, 2016). Existing studies tend to focus either on Translation Studies as an academic discipline, or on translation as a professional skill. It is worth clarifying that, in designing the following activities, translation was understood both as a language skill in itself and as a practice which, in turn, fosters a number of other fundamental skills. For this reason, these activities do not focus solely on developing grammar accuracy, nor are they intended to train professional translators. Rather, they promote overall fluency as well as interlinguistic and intercultural competence, and therefore include translation both into and out of the first language of the students.

The studies dealing specifically with translation in foreign language teaching (e.g., Källkvist, 2013; Pym, 2017) are mostly aimed at measuring the efficacy of translation as a language learning tool, against other methods where only the target language is used. Our intention, on the contrary, is not to evaluate the opportunities and limitations of using translation to develop language accuracy, or to assess the effectiveness of specific translation activities. Rather, our objective is to illustrate the potential of translation to develop a broad range of skills that are fundamental to language graduates in the twenty-first century, and to stimulate further discussion around two key questions: how can we use translation to promote language students' multilingual sensitivity and challenge monolingual assumptions that may hinder the learning process?, and

how can translation contribute to the core objectives of a Modern Languages degree, such as fostering intercultural awareness and critical thinking?

One way in which translation activities can be used to challenge monolithic assumptions about languages, as well as notions of one-to-one equivalence in translation, is by presenting students with texts that problematize and interrogate the boundaries between languages. The author Jhumpa Lahiri is a good case in point. Born in London to Bengali Indian parents and raised in the United States, Lahiri gained literary recognition as an American fiction writer and was awarded the 2000 Pulitzer Prize for Fiction. It was only in 2015, after having studied Italian only for a few years, that she made the conscious decision of continuing to write fiction exclusively in a language she unexpectedly fell in love with. Her first novel written in Italian, *In altre parole*, was published in 2015 and translated into English by Ann Goldstein in 2016. In it, Lahiri describes the paradoxically liberating experience of writing in a foreign language without the boundaries and limitations of English (the language in which she grew up) and Bengali (the language of her family). At the same time, in an extract published in *The New Yorker* (2015) she refers to the experience of writing in Italian as a form of “exile” and a “state of separation ... Italian belongs mainly to Italy, and I live on another continent, where one does not readily encounter it.”

We can see how this kind of material would be an excellent resource for intermediate to advanced language students in helping them to reflect on their own experience of moving between languages and cultures. As part of this activity, students would start by watching her interview with *La Repubblica*, an Italian new site, where the author speaks slowly in Italian and chooses her words carefully when describing what she calls her “love story” with the language⁵.

Students would then be presented with extracts from the Italian novel, which includes Lahiri’s (2016) questions and reflections on writing in a foreign language, such as: “What does it mean to give up a palace to live practically on the street, in a shelter so fragile? Maybe because from the creative point of view there is nothing so dangerous as security” (p. 85). When translating these extracts from Italian into English, students are effectively back-translating the text into the author’s native language. They can then compare their versions with the published English translation, and identify the differences and similarities in translation choices, with special attention to the differences between American English (the language of the translator) and British English. The experience of translating a text in which the author talks about her multilingual experience can foster debates on the broader implications of Lahiri’s writing, which challenges the traditional notion of the native speaker. For students at a lower level of proficiency, the translation of a whole extract can be replaced with other activities which break down the text in smaller chunks in order to build subject-specific vocabulary or focus on particular language structures. For instance, beginner students could be presented with simple sentences from the Italian original and a multiple choice of English translations, among which they would have to identify the published version and detect the differences in the other options.

Lahiri’s writing testifies to the fact that non-native speakers can achieve sufficient proficiency to express themselves creatively in the target language and can bring their unique contribution to it. This is an inspiring message for language learners, particularly multilingual ones, since Lahiri is clear about the fact that her pre-existing languages are not an obstacle to her language learning process; rather, they all contribute to her overall linguistic and literary competence. It follows that choosing this material for a translation class contributes to challenging what Kelly (2015) refers to as “the inherent monolingualism of language teaching” (p. 73), which is often complemented by monoculturalism. According to Kelly, this is reflected in the selection of teaching materials that are “commonly chosen to reject traditional or distinctive aspects of a target culture and in some cases may be purged of references to other cultures” (p. 73). As shown above, translation can be used to challenge this approach, particularly through the choice of texts that promote multilingualism and, in some cases, go even further by challenging the boundaries between languages.

In this regard, the concept of translanguaging (García & Li Wei, 2013; Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012) can be helpful in providing an additional layer of linguistic and cultural diversity to translation activities. The majority of existing studies discussing the theoretical and practical implications of translanguaging in education focus on the specific context of bilingual or multilingual classrooms. However, as will be demonstrated in the following example, translanguaging can also be used in the foreign language classroom as a useful pedagogical tool (Cenoz, 2017; García & Kleyn, 2016). One definition which is particularly relevant

⁵ See interview in *La Repubblica*, 16/02/2015: <https://video.repubblica.it/rubriche/posto-che/reptv-news-jhumpa-lahiri-la-mia-storia-d-amore-con-l-italiano/192271/191233>

to our discussion refers to translanguaging as “the deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages” (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 281). A clear example of this can be found in the work of Gabriella Kuruvilla, an author born in Milan in 1969 from Indian father and Italian mother. Let us consider an extract from her 2012 novel, *Milano, fin qui tutto bene*:

Mi a-go lef inna di morrows: io me ne vado domani. Ormai ho fatto il mio tempo, in questo spazio. Devo schiodarmi da qui. Qui è tutto e niente. Pure i confini di questa zona stanno dint o' core e dint a' cap da gent: no dint o' munno. (p. 141)

These are the words of Tony, a character born in Jamaica who moved from Naples to Milan and who speaks a mixture of Jamaican slang, standard Italian, and Neapolitan dialect. The novel is divided into four chapters, each introducing the reader to a different area of Milan through the eyes of different characters who inhabit the city. The urban space is portrayed as dynamic and multicultural, and the boundaries between languages and nations are intentionally blurred to reflect the complex identities of the characters. While there are noticeable challenges in translating this text into English, it is also a valuable resource to stimulate students' creativity and make them focus on the transcultural elements of translation.

From a linguistic point of view, this activity would be more suitable for advanced learners of Italian, who can work towards decoding the original language, identifying regional variations, and trying to extract the meaning from idiomatic expressions they might not be familiar with. Initially, students would be asked to think about the image of Italy which is portrayed in the novel, and on how this image can be conveyed to an English-speaking reader. Specifically, from the point of view of language and translation, the discussion would focus on how to recreate the original voice of the characters in English, thus developing specific translation competence going beyond language learning (González-Davies, 2004, p. 11). What translation strategies would they employ? Can we translate a foreign dialect with a corresponding regional variation of English? And if so, how do we ensure that the same relationships and power dynamics between the different languages of the original novel are reproduced? Looking at the extract above, we can identify a foreign dialect (Jamaican), and Italian dialect with a long-standing history and pre-existing connotations (Neapolitan) and standard Italian. Would students consider using footnotes to make English readers aware of the different connotations of these languages in the Italian context?

This discussion would precede the translation exercise and frame it in such a way that translation becomes a tool for understanding the diversity of Italian language and society. When translating this passage into English, students would be asked to pay special attention to the role of translanguaging. Why is the author using different languages, and what is she trying to achieve? Can we preserve this multilingualism in the English translation? Students would be encouraged to use their full linguistic repertoire by employing any languages or regional variations they already know, thus relying on their multilingual competence. After having completed their translations, students would reflect on which features of the source text have been reproduced in their English versions, and which have been lost. By doing so, they would interrogate the process of selection and manipulation involved in translation, while also reflecting on the relationships between the languages, nations and cultures involved. Tymoczko (1999) uses the expression “metonymics of translation” when arguing that “translation is always a partial process” (p. 282), because it implies the selection of aspects of a source text which can never be reproduced in its entirety. Moreover, she highlights how “translated texts are written and read as representations of their source cultures” (p. 282). It follows that language teachers have a responsibility in how they represent the languages and the nations to which our students are exposed. The translation activity described above aims to engage students as critical and creative learners, by making them aware of the political and ideological implications of translanguaging, while also presenting them with a non-stereotypical image of a contemporary Italian city.

A last example of how translation can be used as a tool for promoting linguistic and intercultural awareness, also suitable for students at lower level, can be found in the graphic novel *Sotto il velo* (2016) (literally, “under the headscarf”) by Italian-Tunisian artist, Takoua Ben Mohamed. A young Muslim woman living in Italy, the protagonist talks about her experience navigating life in Italy in a headscarf. Her thoughts and feelings, often in response to the questions she receives from Italians who know very little about Islam, are revealed to the reader in an ironic yet critical way. The relationship between visual and verbal elements makes this text particularly suitable for students at different levels of proficiency, and can form the basis for a number of translation activities. For instance, in one activity students would be given a selection of cartoons without the speech bubbles and would have to write their own captions in English. They would then be

presented with the original cartoons and would compare them with their own version. Group discussion would centre around questions such as, “How have you interpreted the emotions displayed by the protagonist?” and, “Do you notice any differences or similarities compared to the original?” Students would then translate their own captions into Italian (thus producing an alternative version of the original), always making sure that they are working within the constraints of the speech bubbles and not exceeding their size. A similar activity would involve students translating the Italian captions into English, and then back-translating them into Italian without looking at the original.



Figure 2. Ben Mohamed (2016). *Sotto il velo*.

From the linguistic point of view, the recurrent format of the captions, divided into a question and an answer, is particularly useful in showing students how to form questions in Italian as opposed to English. This leads us to consider how translation can play a very important role in fostering what is known as *noticing*, a concept proposed by Schmidt, who described the process of noticing as a prerequisite to language learning or, in his own words, a “necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake” (Schmidt, 1990, p. 129).

According to Schmidt’s Noticing Hypothesis, in order to learn the structure of a foreign language, students need to consciously notice them. The level of consciousness that is necessary for acquiring foreign language structures is still open to debate and remains the most controversial aspect of the Noticing Hypothesis (Ellis, 2003; Ortega, 2009). However, as argued by Conti (2016), when used as part of an eclectic syllabus, translation can effectively focus students’ attention on noticing specific features of the foreign language. If we consider the graphic novel described above, we can see how noticing can apply to cultural elements, as well as linguistic ones. When learning about the experience of a young Italian Muslim, and particularly when having to translate that experience into English, students are presented with an image of contemporary Italy which stimulates further discussion around different models of multicultural society, in Europe and beyond. They are also given the opportunity to engage with topical issues, such as cultural attitudes towards the headscarf, which vary across time and space.

To conclude, the activities described above show how translation can enhance students’ overall language proficiency while also contributing to their broader intercultural competence, which is an essential aspect of a Modern Languages degree. By providing students with an image of contemporary Italy which challenges generalisations and stereotypes, students are engaged in the language learning process as critical agents, whose multilingual voices are valued and recognised.

5. Conclusion

Multilingualism has been a strategic priority for the European Union since its inception, and the aforementioned 2013 publication by the European Commission refers to the importance of translation as a key language skill. Yet the use of translation in language teaching is often still associated with the teaching of grammar and has been subject to criticism over the twentieth century. While in recent years a number of scholars have devoted more attention to the pedagogical value of translation (Cook, 2010; Pym, 2015; Venuti, 2016), we believe that the relationship between language teaching, translation and multilingualism has the potential of offering new avenues of investigation.

The examples that have been discussed in this article do not exhaust the wide range of applications that translation may find in the language classroom. However, we hope to have demonstrated that translation can effectively enhance some of the core skills of language learning. In particular, by placing emphasis on translation as a process rather than a final output, collaborative translation workshops stimulate in-depth reflections on the forms and functions of the source and target language (such as register, style, and idioms). Moreover, when using translation in more traditional classroom settings, the choice of texts can provide students with an opportunity for problematizing the boundaries between languages and stimulating critical reflection on issues of national identity and belonging. As North and Piccardo (2016) point out, the “social dimension in language” is also crucial to developing skills that go beyond “reception and production” and, in this sense, translation is a tool to facilitate the “co-construction of meaning” (p. 455). Finally, by encouraging students to go beyond a *word-by-word equivalence* model, translation can stimulate learners’ agency and foster intercultural understanding, which is a key competence for language students.

In conclusion, nourishing a *multilingual sense of self*, as we read in the abstract of a recently-created journal on translation and translanguaging⁶, should be a key objective of language teaching and learning. At a time when higher education is becoming more internationalized, and students working toward Modern Languages degrees are often learning two or three languages, the present article has argued that translation can foster valuable pedagogical practices. Although further research would be required to determine the impact of the strategies presented, we hope to have demonstrated that translation has the potential of fostering multilingual competence, intercultural awareness, and critical thinking skills. We also identified several issues for further research, particularly around multilingualism as a resource for language teaching in the specific context of higher education, where multiple foreign languages are taught to an international student body.

References

- Balboni, Paolo E. (2013). *Fare educazione linguistica: insegnare italiano, lingue straniere e lingue classiche*. Torino, Italy: UTET.
- Bandura, Albert (1995). Exercise of personal and collective efficacy in changing societies, in Albert Bandura (Ed.) *Self-Efficacy in Changing Societies*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Bassnett, Susan, & Lefevere, André (1990). *Translation, history and culture*. London, United Kingdom: Printer Publishers.
- Ben Mohamed, Takoua (2016). *Sotto il velo*. Padua, Italy: BeccoGiallo.
- Byram, Michael, & Hu, Adelheid (Eds.). (2013). *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Carreres, Ángeles (2014). Translation as a means and as an end: Reassessing the divide. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 8(1), 123–135.
- Carreres, Ángeles, Noriega-Sánchez, María, & Calduch, Carme (2018). *Mundos en palabras: Learning advanced Spanish through translation*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- Cenoz, Jasone (2017). Translanguaging in school contexts: International perspectives. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 16(4), 193–198.

⁶ *Translation and Translanguaging in Multilingual Contexts*: <https://benjamins.com/catalog/ttmc>

- Chavez, Monika (2003). The diglossic foreign-language classroom: Learners' views on L1 and L2 functions. In Blyth, Carl Stewart (Ed.), *The Sociolinguistics of foreign language classrooms* (pp. 163–208). Boston, Massachusetts: Thomson/Heinle.
- Conti, Gianfranco (2015). Self-efficacy – the most neglected motivational factor in foreign language instruction. Retrieved from <https://gianfrancoconti.wordpress.com/2015/05/30/self-efficacy-the-most-neglected-motivational-factor-in-the-foreign-language-classroom/>
- Conti, Gianfranco (2016). Grammar Translation and Communicative Language Teaching Compared. Retrieved from <https://gianfrancoconti.wordpress.com/2016/01/12/grammar-translation-and-communicative-language-teaching-compared/>
- Cook, Guy (2010). *Translation in language teaching: An argument for reassessment*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.
- Cook, Vivian (1999). Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(2), 185–209.
- Cordingley, Anthony, & Frigau Manning, Céline (Eds.). (2017). *Collaborative translation: From the renaissance to the digital age*. London, United Kingdom: Bloomsbury Academic.
- Coyle, Do, Hood, Philip, & Marsh, David (2010). *Content and language integrated learning*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, Nick C. (2003). Constructions, chunking, and connectionism: the emergence of second language structures. In Catherine Doughty, & Michael H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 63–103). Oxford, United Kingdom: Blackwell.
- European Commission (1995). Teaching and learning: Towards the learning society. White Paper on Education and Training. Retrieved from http://europa.eu/documents/comm/white_papers/pdf/com95_590_en.pdf
- European Commission (2013). *Translation and language learning: The role of translation in the teaching of languages in the European Union: A Study*. Luxembourg, France: Directorate-General for Translation.
- Even-Zohar, Itamar (1990). The position of translated literature within the literary polysystem. *Poetics Today*, 1(1), 45–53.
- García, Ofelia, & Kleyn, Tatyana (Eds.). (2016). *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- García, Ofelia & Li Wei (2013). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. New York, New York: Palgrave MacMillan
- González-Davies, María (2017). The use of translation in an Integrated Plurilingual Approach to language learning: Teacher strategies and best practices. *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching*, 4(2), 124–135.
- González-Davies, María (2004). *Multiple voices in the translation classroom activities, tasks and projects*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Holliday, Adrian (2005). *The struggle to teach English as an international language*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.
- Lahiri, Jhumpa (2015a). *In altre parole*. Parma, Italy: Guanda.
- Lahiri, Jhumpa (2016). *In other words*. (Ann Goldstein, Transl.). New York, New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Lahiri, Jhumpa (2015b, December 7). Teach yourself Italian. *The New Yorker*. Retrieved from <https://www.newyorker.com/magazine/2015/12/07/teach-yourself-italian>
- Källkvist, Marie (2013). Linguaging in translation tasks used in a university setting: Particular potential for student agency? *The Modern Language Journal*, 97, 217–238.
- Kelly, Michael (2015). Challenges to multilingual language teaching: Towards a transnational approach. *European Journal of Language Policy*, 7(1), 65–83.
- Kelly, Niamh, & Bruen, Jennifer (2014). Translation as a pedagogical tool in the foreign language classroom: A qualitative study of attitudes and behaviors. *Language Teaching Research*, 19(2), 150–168.
- Kuruvilla, Gabriella (2012). *Milano, fin qui tutto bene*. Roma/Bari, Italy: Laterza.
- Laviosa, Sara (1997). Didattizzare la traduzione per acculturare e comunicare. *Italica*, 74(4), 485–496.
- Leonardi, Vanessa (2010). *The role of pedagogical translation in second language acquisition: From theory to practice*. Bern, Switzerland: Peter Lang.

- Lewis, Gwyn, Jones, Bryn, & Baker, Colin (2012), Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 1-14.
- Littlewood, William (1981). *Communicative language teaching: An introduction*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Malmkjær, Kirsten (2010a). Language learning and translation. In Yves Gambier, & Luc van Doorslaer (Eds.), *Handbook of translation studies* (pp. 185–190). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamin.
- Malmkjær, Kirsten (Ed.). (2010b). *Translation in undergraduate degree programmes*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- May, Stephen (Ed.). (2014). *The multilingual turn*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- North, Brian, & Piccardo, Enrica (2016). Developing illustrative descriptors of aspects of mediation for the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR): A Council of Europe project. *Language Teaching*, 49(3), 455–459. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444816000100>
- Ortega, Lourdes (2009). *Understanding second language acquisition*. London, United Kingdom: Hodder.
- Otheguy, Ricardo, García, Ofelia, & Reid, Wallis (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 6, 281–307.
- Panzarella, Gioia, & Wall, Georgia (2016). Focus sulla sensibilità linguistica: la traduzione collaborativa nella classe di lingua. *Italiano LinguaDue*, 8(2), 328–337.
- Phipps, Alison, & Gonzalez, Mike (2004). *Modern languages: learning and teaching in an intercultural field*. London, United Kingdom: Sage.
- Pym, Anthony (2015). Where translation studies lost the plot: Relations with language teaching. Retrieved from http://usuaris.tinet.cat/apym/on-line/training/2016_TS_lost_plot.pdf
- Pym, Anthony, & Ayvazyan, Nune (2017). Nineteenth-century discourses on translation in language teaching. In Kirsten Malmkjær (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of translation studies and linguistics* (pp. 393–407). London, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Richards, Jack, & Rodgers, Theodore (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Tymoczko, Maria (1999). *Translation in a postcolonial context*. Manchester, United Kingdom: St. Jerome.
- Venuti, Lawrence (2016). *Teaching translation: Programs, courses, pedagogies*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Vygotsky, Lev Semënovič (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Wall, Georgia, & Panzarella, Gioia (2018). Creativity, inclusivity and linguistic sensitivity in language learning: collaborative translation workshops. *Interdisciplinary Italy*. Retrieved from <http://www.interdisciplinaryitaly.org/creativity-inclusivity-linguistic-sensitivity-language-learning-collaborative-translation-workshops/>

Gioia Panzarella, University of Warwick
 Gioia.Panzarella@warwick.ac.uk

- EN** | **Gioia Panzarella** has recently completed a Ph.D. in Italian (Warwick, 2018). Between 2014 and 2018 she has been a Language tutor at the School of Modern Languages and Cultures of the University of Warwick. She specialises in contemporary migration writings in the Italian language and foreign language teaching. In 2016-2017, she coordinated the project, "Collaborative Translation: A Model for Inclusion," in collaboration with Monash University (Australia), with a focus on the uses of collaborative translation in the language classroom.
- ES** | **Gioia Panzarella** ha recientemente completado un Ph. D. en Italiano (Universidad de Warwick, 2018) y desde el 2014 hasta el 2018 trabajó como instructora de lengua en la Facultad de Lenguas y Culturas Modernas en la University of Warwick. Está especializada en literatura contemporánea de la migración en italiano y en pedagogía de lenguas extranjeras. Durante el año académico 2016-2017, coordinó el proyecto "Traducción colaborativa: Un modelo para la inclusión" en colaboración con la Monash University (Australia), centrado en el uso de la traducción colaborativa en el aula de lenguas.
- IT** | **Gioia Panzarella** ha recentemente completato un Dottorato in Italiano (Università di Warwick, 2018). Dal 2014 al 2019 ha lavorato come Tutor di lingua nella Scuola di Lingue e Culture Moderne presso l'Università di Warwick. È specializzata in letteratura italiana contemporanea della migrazione e didattica della lingue straniere. Durante l'anno accademico 2016-2017 ha coordinato il progetto "Collaborative Translation: A Model for Inclusion" (Traduzione Collaborativa: Un Modello per l'Inclusione), in collaborazione con l'Università di Monash (Australia), il cui tema centrale è l'uso della traduzione collaborativa nella classe di lingua.

Caterina Sinibaldi, University of Warwick
 C.Sinibaldi@warwick.ac.uk

- EN** | **Caterina Sinibaldi** is Teaching Fellow and Italian Language Coordinator at the University of Warwick. She holds a PhD in Italian Studies (2013) and an MA in Translation Studies (2008). Her areas of teaching and research include Translation Studies, Italian Fascism, Children's Literature, and Foreign Language Pedagogy. Previously, she was a Teaching Fellow at the University of Bath, a Lecturer at the University of Manchester, and worked in the Sales and Rights Department of Penguin Random House (London).
- ES** | **Caterina Sinibaldi** es instructora y coordinadora del italiano en la Universidad de Warwick. Obtuvo un doctorado en Estudios italianos (2013) y un máster en Estudios de la traducción (2008). Sus campos de investigación y enseñanza incluyen la traducción, el fascismo italiano, la literatura infantil y la pedagogía de lenguas extranjeras. Anteriormente, fue instructora en la University of Bath y profesora numeraria en la University of Manchester, además de trabajar en el departamento de ventas y derechos de Penguin Random House (Londres).
- IT** | **Caterina Sinibaldi** è docente e coordinatrice della Lingua Italiana all'Università di Warwick. Ha conseguito il dottorato in Italiano (2013) e un master in Scienze della Traduzione (2008). I suoi campi di ricerca e di insegnamento includono Scienze della Traduzione, il Fascismo Italiano, la Letteratura Infantile e Didattica delle Lingue Straniere. Inoltre, è stata docente all'University of Bath e docente all'University of Manchester e ha lavorato nell'ufficio commerciale e diritti della casa editrice Penguin Random House (Londra).

Pockets of hope: Cases of linguistic flexibility in the classroom

LEAH DURÁN^a, KATHRYN I. HENDERSON^b

^aUniversity of Arizona

^bUniversity of Texas at San Antonio

Received 1 October 2018; received in revised form 6 November 2018; accepted 13 November 2018

ABSTRACT

EN This study adds to the small but growing body of work demonstrating the instructional potential of linguistic flexibility and hybridity to support student learning. Our findings from two elementary classrooms illustrate the way that translanguaging pedagogy contributes to students' understanding of content-area material as well as their mastery of language arts skills. Student language practices described as reflecting academic language, language variation, and code-switching represent three domains that are often talked about separately. We consider the ways both focal teachers created spaces for students to draw on linguistic resources across these domains. In our discussion of the findings and their implications, we attempt to unite these perspectives in order to extend current understandings about translanguaging pedagogy and highlight ways to value and employ a broader spectrum of language practices for academic purposes.

Key words: LANGUAGE IDEOLOGIES; TRANSLANGUAGING; ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

ES Este estudio contribuye a la creciente, aunque todavía limitada, literatura científica que demuestra el potencial pedagógico de la flexibilidad e hibridez lingüística para el aprendizaje. Los resultados del análisis de dos clases primarias ilustran cómo la pedagogía translingual contribuye a que los estudiantes comprendan la materia a la vez que desarrollan sus habilidades lingüísticas. A menudo, las prácticas lingüísticas de los estudiantes que reflejan su uso del lenguaje académico, la variación lingüística y los cambios de código se tratan por separado. Sin embargo, aquí analizamos cómo los dos instructores crearon espacios para que los estudiantes movilizaran sus recursos lingüísticos en los tres ámbitos. En el apartado de discusión de los resultados y sus implicaciones, aunamos estas perspectivas con el fin de extender nuestro entendimiento la pedagogía translingual y destacar maneras en las que podemos valorar y emplear un amplio abanico de prácticas lingüísticas para fines académicos.

Palabras clave: IDEOLOGÍAS LINGÜÍSTICAS; TRANSLANGUAGING; EDUCACIÓN PRIMARIA

IT Questo studio si aggiunge al piccolo ma crescente corpo di lavoro che dimostra il potenziale didattico della flessibilità e dell'ibridazione linguistica a supporto dell'apprendimento degli studenti. I risultati emersi dal nostro studio di due classi di scuola primaria illustrano come la pedagogia translanguaging contribuisca alla comprensione dei contenuti disciplinari da parte degli studenti e alla loro padronanza delle abilità linguistiche. Le pratiche linguistiche degli studenti, che mostrano il loro uso del linguaggio accademico, della variazione linguistica e del *code-switching*, rappresentano tre domini di cui spesso si parla separatamente. In questo studio, invece, consideriamo i modi in cui entrambi gli insegnanti coinvolti hanno creato spazi affinché gli studenti attingessero alle risorse linguistiche di tutti e tre i domini. Nella discussione dei risultati e le loro implicazioni uniamo queste prospettive al fine di estendere le attuali conoscenze sulla pedagogia translanguaging e di sottolineare come valorizzare e impiegare un più ampio spettro di pratiche linguistiche per scopi accademici.

Parole chiave: IDEOLOGIE LINGUISTICHE, TRANSLANGUAGING, ISTRUZIONE PRIMARIA

* Contact: leahgduran@email.arizona.edu

1. Introduction

The overarching aim in this research project is to increase our understanding of how teachers can create and sustain equitable learning spaces for linguistically diverse students. While researchers have convincingly established the importance of students' everyday language practices as resources for learning (Gort, 2006; Lee, 1997; Martínez, 2010; Orellana & Reynolds, 2008), teachers often tacitly or explicitly convey that these practices are non-academic or inappropriate for school (Alim, 2005). Hybrid language practices, in which students communicate using more than one named language, are both typical of bilingual communities and often highly stigmatized, by teachers and by speakers alike (Martínez, 2013; Urciuoli, 1996). The current school accountability climate in the United States emphasizing standardized testing, and consequently monolingual language policy, reinforces these deficit views towards language hybridity, promoting ideologies of language standardization and linguistic purism (Menken, 2008). And yet, in our research, we have found pockets of hope, specifically classroom spaces in which students engage fluidly in their home and community language practices for meaning-making. In this study, we examine the pedagogical practices of two elementary teachers in central Texas who valued a wide range of student language performances. Our central guiding research question was: How do these teachers create classroom spaces for culturally and linguistically diverse students to engage in diverse language practices?

This study adds to the small but growing body of research demonstrating the academic value of linguistic flexibility in supporting student learning. We also consider the way that speakers cross dialectal as well as linguistic borders in the service of their learning. Our findings illustrate how translanguaging pedagogy supports a broad range of student language performances and contributes to students' understanding of content-area material as well as their mastery of language arts skills.

2. Theoretical perspectives and literature review

How language is defined and understood is central to the purpose of this study. We draw on an understanding of language as a social practice rather than a discrete object (Pennycook, 2010). García's (2009) conception of translanguaging, defined as the everyday language practices of bilinguals, aligns with this perspective on language. Translanguaging, as defined by García, goes beyond code-switching to connote a single linguistic repertoire. Theoretically, this definition encompasses a vast array of bilingual language practices, including shifts between named languages as well as dialectal shifts within named languages. Studies exploring translanguaging in schools have traditionally focused on the practice of shifting between named languages (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Gort & Sembiente, 2015; Palmer, Martínez, Mateus, & Henderson, 2014; Seltzer, Collins, & Angeles, 2016). In this study we consider language practices both along a Spanish-English and standard-vernacular continuum. We use the term *linguistic flexibility* to emphasize a broad range of language practices, characterized by hybridity and variation, within classroom spaces.

At the same time, we understand the differences between Spanish and English and "standard" and "vernacular" to be socially constructed and subject to change over time. In considering the kinds of language labeled "academic" or "standard" or "appropriate for school," our work builds on previous contributions that establishing the racialized and arbitrary nature of such labels. For example, Aukerman (2007) considered the ways that both teachers and researchers have framed bilingual students' language use as either social BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) or decontextualized, cognitively demanding CALPs (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiencies). Her analysis demonstrates that language use qualified as BICS can be quite cognitively demanding and not very "basic"; conversely, what is labeled as academic is socioculturally defined and embedded in social relationships. Others have asserted that the "standard language" which is held up as exemplary is frequently based on written, edited language, rather than spontaneous, spoken language (Lippi-Green, 2012). Rather, "standard English" is closer to an ideal and cultural emblem than a set of defined linguistic practices (Silverstein, 1996). Finally, critiques of appropriateness-based discourses—the notion that some language practices are more appropriate for school than others—have highlighted how language practices considered appropriate and normative when spoken by white students are often perceived as inappropriate when spoken by students of color (Flores & Rosa, 2015).

At the same time, language continues to serve as a gatekeeper in school, and academic disciplines, like other subcultures, have their own particular ways with words (Schleppegrell, 2004). In our work, we echo the position of scholars who argue that rather than more effectively teach students how to switch between "standard" and "nonstandard" or "academic" and "everyday" language practices, we can support them in becoming, "effective communicators by doing what we all do best, what comes naturally: blending,

merging, meshing dialects" (Young, 2009, p. 72). We add that the ability to blend, merge, and mesh both dialects and languages has the potential to support bilingual students as they learn about and through language. Our work also embraces the ideological underpinnings of translanguaging, and views language hybridity and students' fluid bilingualism as a resource (Celic & Seltzer, 2011; García, 2009).

Translanguaging encompasses both language practices and the use of these diverse practices for meaning-making (García & Li Wei, 2014). In a school setting, translanguaging as a pedagogical approach allows and supports spaces of linguistic flexibility for learning. Since Cummins (2005) called for the development of translanguaging pedagogies much research has moved in this direction (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Flores & García, 2013; Gort & Pontier, 2013). Research has examined how diverse language practices can be used across different instructional programs including English as a Second Language (ESL) (Zapata & Laman, 2016) and forms of bilingual education (Palmer, Martínez, Mateus, & Henderson, 2014) as well as within specific academic areas including literacy (Michael-Luna & Canagarajah, 2007), and content-area instruction.

Translanguaging pedagogies have been connected to positive academic outcomes. For example, through their exploration of Gujarati and Chinese complementary school in the United Kingdom, Creese and Blackledge (2010) identified how instructors' translanguaging practices helped increase student engagement and access to difficult texts. Seltzer et al. (2016) found that translanguaging pedagogy in an 11th-grade English literature classroom in the United States allowed students to increase meaning-making in literacy activities. Sayer (2013) examined how students' practice of shifting between English and Spanish as well as the vernacular afforded academic, linguistic, and identity development. More current research has considered how translanguaging instructional approaches and strategies combine to form a pedagogical framework. Research identifies three components of a translanguaging pedagogy: stance, design, and shifts (García, Ibarra Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017; García & Kleyn, 2016). An educator's stance includes his or her understanding of language and language ideologies. The translanguaging design includes how teachers plan to utilize diverse language practices in the classroom and how shifts in language use result from moment-to-moment in-class instructional decisions. While this pedagogical framework is well-developed theoretically, more classroom-based research is needed to identify possible strengths and challenges in practice.

Just as researchers have explored translingual pedagogies that make use of more than one language, similar work has been done to develop pedagogies for students who are bidialectal. Strategies have spanned a wide continuum, ranging from the use of dialect readers (Simpkins & Simpkins, 1981) to the use of contrastive analysis that highlights differences between language varieties (Taylor, 1989; Wright, 1999) to curricular experiences that promote awareness of students' own language and linguistic variation generally (Wolfram, Adger, & Christian, 1999; Henderson & Ingram, 2018), and, most recently, to instruction that works to instill critical awareness of how linguistic discrimination upholds inequitable power relations (Alim, 2005; García, 2017; Purnell, Idsardi, & Baugh, 1999).

Carol Lee's (1995) cultural modeling approach is one example of ways that teachers have been able to position linguistic diversity and flexibility as an asset rather than an impediment to learning. She outlined the respects in which some rhetorical aspects of African American Language (also known as Black Language, Black English, African American Vernacular English, and Black English Vernacular) are analogous to the practices of literary analysis. This work and that of her colleagues further demonstrates that encouraging students to use, value, and develop the full spectrum of their linguistic repertoire supports literacy development and achievements (Lee, 1995; Smitherman, 1994). Researchers extending this cultural modeling framework to Spanish-English bilingual students have illustrated similar relationships between the often-stigmatized language practices of bilinguals and literacy skills such as audience awareness and the communication of nuance (Martínez, 2010; Orellana, Reynolds, Dorner, & Meza, 2003). Collectively, the contributions of these scholars have shown that everyday language practices, while often stigmatized by teachers, can contribute in important ways to children's learning. Although the complex language practices of children and youth have been extensively documented, a better understanding of how teachers can use linguistic diversity as a pedagogical resource is still needed.

A few studies have described translanguaging across both linguistic and dialectal boundaries in secondary settings. Martinez (2016) describes the language practices of Lorenzo, a high school student in Los Angeles. Martinez observed that Lorenzo's linguistic flexibility and ability to move seamlessly between varieties of English and Spanish was typical of many students in linguistically diverse communities and often recognized by sociolinguists; however, such abilities are rarely acknowledged or valued by educators. Instead, students like Lorenzo who speak Spanish are often perceived as inherently monolingual, and

students who speak stigmatized dialects in school are usually corrected when they use them (Ball, Skerrett, & Martínez, 2011). In contrast to this norm, de los Ríos and Seltzer (2017) describe two secondary classrooms where teachers asked students to study and respond to translanguaging texts, noting that this created space for students to critique linguistic discrimination and develop personally meaningful and linguistically dexterous writing practices typically censored in English classrooms. Building on this scant body of literature, the study described here contributes to research by focusing on translanguaging in elementary schools, which includes shifting both within and across languages. Specifically, we focus on two teachers who embrace a translanguaging stance and examine how they create linguistically flexible spaces. In turn, we highlight the academic benefits of their translanguaging pedagogy for literary development and engagement with cognitively demanding content.

3. Methods of inquiry

This dual case study draws on data from two separate larger studies carried out during the 2013-2014 school year. The collaboration for this article focused on teachers' translanguaging pedagogy. Both teachers (whom we are calling Ms. Barry and Mr. Clarke) were White, had a bilingual endorsement as part of their teacher certification, and were teaching in classrooms (1st grade ESL classroom and 3rd grade bilingual classroom) with predominantly Latinx Spanish-English bilingual students. The teachers were purposefully selected based on their pluralist language ideologies and expertise in their fields. Ms. Barry was recommended as an exemplary teacher by local teacher educators and, when approached, expressed both pluralist ideologies and an interest in collaborating with a researcher. Mr. Clarke was identified through his participation in a language ideology survey taken by a random sample of 323 educators in the school district. He was selected for a case-study based on his highly pluralist ideologies, reflected in his survey responses and a follow-up interview. Data sources for both case studies included ethnographic fieldnotes from participant observations in classrooms; video and audio recordings of children and teachers in whole-group, small group, and dyadic interaction; written artifacts, including work samples from children and teachers' notes and lesson plans; and transcripts of semi-structured interviews with teachers and children. In addition, we both engaged in retrospective interviews (Martínez, 2014; Rampton, 2003) with each teacher during which we presented them with pieces of data for their reaction and opinion.

In Durán's case study, she visited Ms. Barry's classroom three times weekly for one school year, with each visit lasting approximately 45 minutes. Data sources included ethnographic fieldnotes, over 30 hours of video and audio-recordings, collection of artifacts like student work, and student interviews. Ms. Barry's classroom was located in a school in central Texas, which according to the state reports, was at the time 93.6% economically disadvantaged, 85.1% Latina/o, and 10% African American. The remainder of the student body was White, mixed-race, Native, or other. In this school, 50.3% of students were labeled "Limited English Proficient" and participated in the school's ESL or bilingual programs. Within Ms. Barry's classroom, all students had been identified as English learners based on home language surveys; however, her classroom was designated ESL rather than bilingual.

In Henderson's case study, she visited Mr. Clarke's class for two full school days followed by targeted visits ($n = 14$) for a minimum of two hours during the spring semester. Data sources included approximately eight hours of video recording, classroom artifacts (photographs, writing samples, etc.), and a language ideology survey. Observations were strategically planned to include a period of time before or after instruction for informal interviews (lunch, specials period, or recess). Mr. Clarke's classroom was also located in a school in central Texas, which, according to the state reports, was at the time 93% economically disadvantaged and approximately 86% Latina/o. The remainder of the student body was African American, White, mixed-race, Native, or other. In this school 41% of students were labeled "Limited English Proficient" and served in the school's ESL or bilingual programs. Mr. Clarke's classroom was designated as a one-way dual language bilingual education classroom, and all of his students were identified as English learners based on home language surveys.

Data analysis was ongoing and began alongside data collection, which consisted of expansive field notes and analytic memos (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 2011). The analytic process involved tracking language practices through video logs. Classroom video was logged in 1-minute intervals. The log included a space to summarize what was happening in the video, a space for coding what occurred inductively, and a space for coding deductively with pre-determined language codes (i.e., TEO: teacher English-only). Video segments identified as including translanguaging practices were selected for transcription, coding, and thematic

analysis. Similarly, we analyzed student artifacts featuring translanguaging (Glesne, 2010; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). We defined translanguaging as instances of shifting between named languages (Spanish and English) and/or dialectal styles. Engaging in data display, the analytic process included examining student writing across students at several different points in time across the year in order to document commonalities and changes. We compared and contrasted our findings to consider how both teachers valued and utilized translanguaging practices in their classrooms (Merriam, 1998). We re-visited the classroom videos and artifacts drawing on our evolving themes for (dis)confirming evidence.

We recognize that our positionalities influenced data collection and analysis. Durán identifies as a mixed (White and Latina) female and Henderson as a White female. Both researchers are bilingual (Spanish/English) and, when possible, tried to mirror the language choices of the teacher and students when engaging with them. We also brought a pedagogical lens to our investigation and analysis based on our prior educational experiences as a former ESL and bilingual teacher in the United States (Durán) and a former bilingual elementary teacher in Mexico (Henderson).

4. Findings

Across cases, our analyses suggested that the teachers encouraged translanguaging as a literary technique and as a means to access subject content. In this section, we begin by presenting data from Ms. Barry's 1st grade classroom during language arts instruction, followed by Mr. Clarke's 3rd grade classroom during math and science instruction.

4.1. Ms. Barry: Linguistic flexibility as literary

In our first case, the teacher's positive evaluation of translanguaging shaped her teaching in significant ways. Ms. Barry noted that the school policy was heavily focused on transitioning students to all-English quickly. However, she felt that it was important to value and support students' bilingualism. In her words, "And here I feel very protective of Spanish, and I think I'm one of a few teachers at my school that really believes speaking Spanish is important and building off your home language is important" (Teacher Interview, January 2014). She attributed this pro-bilingualism stance to her graduate coursework in bilingual/bicultural education. Ms. Barry noted that, after having studied bilingualism intensively, she no longer felt comfortable enforcing rigid rules about when students could use their home language. She had previously worked in schools with strict language separation policies and had herself upheld those policies, however, after learning more about bilingual education, "You can't just go back to doing things the way you did before, because there's a piece of you that's like, wait, that's wrong" (Teacher Interview, January 2014). In her estimation, her knowledge about bilingualism and bilingual education shaped her response to her current school's language policy and led her to encourage bilingualism and biliteracy even in a school context where this approach was not emphasized or supported.

This positive stance towards linguistic flexibility and translanguaging influenced how she taught her bilingual students to read and write. As part of her writing instruction, Ms. Barry invited students to closely study and approximate the kinds of language use modeled by published children's books authors. This writing pedagogy, in which "mentor texts" are used as examples and inspiration, often leads students to appropriate (Wertsch, 1991) the language of the author, first in imitative and subsequently in original ways. These authors and their linguistic choices, then, help apprentice students into an understanding of the possibilities of creating literature and what counts as literary. Importantly, Ms. Barry deliberately and regularly featured books by bilingual Latinx writers in which the author made use of translanguaging. For example, she planned an extended author study of the work of bilingual Chicana author Carmen Tafolla, in which students read many of Tafolla's books and discussed her language use. She asked students to consider which of Tafolla's composing decisions they might try out in their own writing. This author study included Tafolla's *What can you do with a paleta?/¿Qué puedes hacer con una paleta?* (2009) and *What can you do with a rebozo?/¿Qué puedes hacer con un rebozo?* (2009). These books describe possible uses for a *paleta* (popsicle) and *rebozo* (shawl), respectively. They are published in parallel translation, and the English text includes a number of Spanish words and phrases. This kind of translanguaging is a hallmark of Latinx and Chicana literature as written by adults (Rudin, 1996).

Following their study of Tafolla's writing, a number of students tried out this kind of translanguaging style in their own writing. The following page from a student-created book (Figure 1) represents a typical example of students' writing, using the occasional single-word insertion of Spanish in a mostly English text:

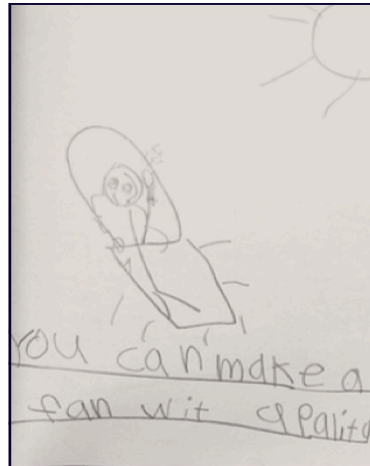


Figure 1. You can make a fan with a paleta.

Like the examples from Tafolla's (2009) *What can you do with a paleta?/¿Qué puedes hacer con una paleta?*, this student used a single word in Spanish (*paleta*) and explored potential context of use ("You can make a fan with a paleta"). This specific pattern of bilingual writing diverged from the usual patterns of mixing in students' oral speech, as explained below. However, it was in keeping with conventions of the genre. Bilingual children's picture books typically feature either single-word insertions or parallel translations, rather than the unmarked and integrated use of Spanish and English characteristic of many bilinguals' speech (García, 2011). This limited form of translanguaging likely stems, at least in part, from the gatekeepers (editors, reviewers, publishers) of children's literature, many of whom assume that bilingual books should be written so as to remain accessible to monolingual English speakers (Pérez & Enciso, 2017). It may be that an express focus on bilingual audiences would change the kind of translanguaging that is visible, both in published children's literature and in the writing that children do.

Students' linguistic flexibility also appeared sensitive to genre conventions. While children engaged in language mixing in both speech and writing, their speech was often deeply hybrid, with mixing evident both within and across sentence boundaries (e.g., "We love tamales too, especially de pollo") The following language chart illustrates the kind of translanguaging that was typical of students' oral language use (see Martínez, Durán, & Hikida, in press, for further discussion):



Book Titles	What we noticed	Connections
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -pueden hacer bigotes (mustache) -La niña le dio un pedacito al perrito (Paw) -You can paint your tongue blue and scare your brother (brother) -The man with the cart went down the hill. (Cart) -The girl shared with the woman vendiendo frutas. (fruit) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -He shared a paleta de Sandía con su mamá. -You got a paleta from her Vecinos Paletería (truck). -buy paletas que te pica at the store with his mom. -Carmen had a banana Paleta. -She had a paleta de limón from a truck.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -You can use a rebozo to carry a baby. (Mama) -The girl sleeps with her rebozo as a cobija. (blanket) -The abuela wraps the girl in a rebozo when it's cold. (cold) -The mom puts a rebozo to look like a butterfly. (butterfly) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Diana's mom wraps her in a cobija when she's scared. (fear) -Pablo and his brother have blankets. -Juan has a hello kitty rebozo.

Figure 2. Excerpt of language chart.

Evident in this chart of children's verbatim talk is the kind of translanguaging common in children's oral language. Children's talk often featured the influence of both Spanish and English at the lexical and syntactical level (e.g., "the girls shared with the woman vendiendo frutas"; "He buy[s] paletas que te pica at the store with his mom.") However, when children wrote books during writers' workshop, they typically either wrote using single-word insertions of Spanish words or parallel translations. This difference between their written and oral language use suggests that part of children's learning was an understanding of the conventions of different modes of communication. Their ability to shift between styles and modes of translanguaging suggests the mastery of state language arts standards (e.g., "understand how communication changes when moving from one genre of media to another," Texas Education Agency, 2010, §110.14).

Moreover, the possibilities for linguistic flexibility in Ms. Barry's classroom extended beyond just mixing Spanish and English. For example, during a unit of study on poetry, Ms. Barry shared with the class a number of poems from the anthology *Hip Hop Speaks to Children* (Giovanni, 2008), which features a range of different poetic examples of African American Language (AAL), such as Gwendolyn Brook's "We Real Cool" and Lucille Clifton's "why some people be mad at me all the time." In writing poetry, one student, Jesenia, occasionally made use of linguistic features typically associated with AAL, such as copula deletion (e.g., "they Ø sweet") or the habitual or invariant be (to indicate an ongoing action), in some of her poetry, as in the following:

Cherries
Are good
they taste
Sweet
They always
Be sweet.

Both the invariant be and copula deletion are distinctive feature of AAL (Rickford & Rickford, 2000) and are unlikely to reflect the influence of Spanish, as Spanish has no parallel linguistic features. Jesenia's use of syntactic features associated with AAL may have also been influenced by her teacher's provision of published children's poetry that included them. It is also possible Jesenia's use of copula deletion (in other poems) and the invariant be in this one ("they always be sweet") may represent examples of what Rampton (1995) termed "crossing," or the use of linguistic features identified most closely with another ethnic group. Just as not all African American children make use of AAL, many users of AAL are not African American (Bucholtz, 1999; Chun, 2001). In schools like this one, where Latinx and African American students compose the majority of the student body, researchers have documented similar kinds of language crossing or sharing across social and ethnic groups (Martinez, 2016; Paris, 2009). However, poetry seemed to be the only genre where these features were evident in Jesenia's writing. Further suggesting an attentiveness to genre, Jesenia's poem about cherries used line breaks, color, and text placement in order to make her poem visually resemble a cherry. This technique (making a *concrete poem*) had also been highlighted by the teacher in published collections of poetry. Collectively, these writing moves suggest that Jesenia was paying close attention to the kinds of creative possibilities available in the genre of poetry, as modeled in published anthologies, and then exploring the wide spectrum of options. Her flexible use of language echoed those of accomplished, published poets and suggested her own emerging command of the literary form.

Although Ms. Barry did not explicitly discuss features of AAL on any of the days where she was observed, it is possible that such discussions occurred on other days. Engaging in metalinguistic conversations with this book or others like it might have created opportunities for students to engage with the larger questions of how language practices come to be associated with "standardness" or not (de los Ríos & Seltzer, 2017). However, Ms. Barry's decision to prominently feature authors who wrote using language practices that are often stigmatized or corrected in classrooms appeared to have created opportunities for her students to see such practices as both academic and literary.

4.1. Mr. Clarke: Linguistic flexibility as a means to access subject content in math and science

In the second classroom, the teacher (Mr. Clarke) strategically engaged in translanguaging pedagogy. He used both Spanish, English, and varieties of Spanish and English during instruction and encouraged students to draw on their full linguistic repertoires to access content material. Mr. Clarke taught the science and math portion of the curriculum to two groups of students, while his co-teacher taught language arts and

social studies. In this bilingual classroom context, there was no separation of language or restriction of hybrid practices. In the linguistic analysis of the first video, which was 15 minutes long, Mr. Clarke shifted between English and Spanish 26 times. His flexible language policy was based on his view that translanguaging was both normal and useful. He explained, “Yo creo que hacer el ‘code-switching’ es algo muy funcional, es lo que hace la gente bilingüe siempre cada día” (*I think that doing ‘code-switching’ is something very functional. It is what bilingual people do every day*) (Teacher Interview, February 2014). He continued to explain that he would often let students speak any language in his classroom for content knowledge development, saying “con tal de que haya comunicación está muy bien” (*as long as there is communication, it’s very good*) (Teacher Interview, February 2014). While Mr. Clarke’s flexible language policy could be critiqued as appearing to lack structure and intentionality, ongoing classroom observation and analysis revealed that Mr. Clarke’s curricular design and translanguaging shifts (García, Ibarra Johnson, & Sletzer, 2017) were strategic, purposeful, and useful for both language development and access to subject content. Mr. Clarke’s science classes involved hands-on activities, including science experiments, scientific observation and recording, and reporting of results. To develop these science skills, Mr. Clarke both allowed students to access their full language repertoires and validated their choices. This linguistic flexibility reflecting a translanguaging pedagogy was consistent across all science class observations. For example, during one science unit, each student was provided with a seed in a petri dish and a graphic organizer to record observations of how the seed was changing and developing. On the wall Mr. Clarke hung a vocabulary anchor chart with key vocabulary in Spanish and English (i.e., *seed coat/recubrimiento*) and a list of cognates (*germination/germinación*). After completing their observations and recordings on their graphic organizers, selected students shared their findings with the whole class on the overhead projector. Some students recorded predominantly in English or Spanish, while others drew on both. In Excerpt 1, the interaction between Mr. Clarke and a student (Karla) illustrates this translanguaging pedagogy and the validation of linguistic fluidity for academic learning:

Excerpt 1.

-
- | | | |
|----|------------|--|
| 1. | Mr. Clarke | Karla, what seed are you doing? |
| 2. | Karla | (Karla walking to the front of the room)
Sunflower
(Karla places her observation sheet on the overhead monitor) |
| 3. | Mr. Clarke | Sunflower. ¿Que nos cuentas en el mundo de girasoles? [<i>What can you tell us about the world of sunflowers?</i>] |
| 4. | Karla | Observé que el girasol ya creció (inaudible) [<i>I observed that the sunflower already grew (inaudible)</i>] |
| 5. | Mr. Clarke | (Teacher pointing at the projected writing “Obreve”)
¿Que dice al principio? Perdón. [<i>What does it say at the beginning? Sorry</i>] |
| 6. | Karla | Observé [<i>I observed</i>] |
| 7. | Mr. Clarke | (Teacher pointing to the projected words and reading)
Oh! Observé que mi sunflower ya creció una hoja seed coat. [<i>Oh! I observed that my sunflower already grew a seed coat leaf.</i>] |
| 8. | Mr. Clarke | ¿Se está cambiando de color, Karla? [<i>Is it changing color, Karla?</i>] |
| 9. | Karla | (Karla shakes her head no) |
-

In line 1, Mr. Clarke initiated the interaction in English asking Karla about her seed while she walked to the front of the room and Karla answered in English. Mr. Clarke re-voiced her answer “sunflower” in line three, but then shifted to Spanish and asked Karla to tell the class what she learned about “el mundo de girasoles” (*the world of sunflowers*). By re-voicing Karla’s response, he ratified her response, and by shifting to Spanish he developed a linguistic connection, specifically the content-based vocabulary word *sunflower/girasol*. Karla’s written text was displayed on the overhead and read, “Obreve que Mi Sun flower ya le crecio una hoja seed coat” (*I observed that my sunflower already grew a seed coat leaf*). The written text included translanguaging along the Spanish-English continuum. Karla combined both Spanish and English words in her observation. She also departed from additional standard conventions including writing “Obreve” versus *Observé*, capitalizing the M in *mi* and S in *sunflower*, and writing *sunflower* as two words. Yet, she departed from what she wrote in her oral explanation substituting *girasol* for *sunflower* in line 4. By doing

this, Karla positioned herself as a competent bilingual who knew the content-based vocabulary word in both languages.

In line 5 Mr. Clarke pointed to her sentence and asked in Spanish what it said, indicating his inability in the moment to decode Karla's written "obreve" for *observe* (*I observed*). Immediately following the question, he said "perdón" (*sorry*), placing the breakdown in communication on himself, the reader, rather than Karla as writer. This subtle addition potentially prevented Karla from becoming discouraged about her writing. In line 6 Karla clarified orally in Spanish that she wrote "observe" (*I observed*). Having received the clarification, in line 7, Mr. Clarke read Karla's entire written observation. Importantly he did not modify her hybrid language choices. Rather, after having read her observational recording, he asked a follow-up content question in line 9 in Spanish, "¿Se está cambiando de color, Karla?" (*Is it changing color, Karla?*). In this brief interaction, Mr. Clarke validated and normalized Karla's bilingual writing by reading it out loud to the classroom and focusing on its content rather than form. His follow-up content question further prioritized access to content and content understanding over the reproduction of standardized linguistic form. At the same time, classroom language development did occur. Both Mr. Clarke and Karla used and modeled content-area vocabulary word including seed coat and sunflower.

Mr. Clarke and Karla's interaction illustrated linguistic flexibility, including translanguaging shifts (García, Ibarra Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017), engaged in by both teacher and student. This linguistic flexibility during a science lesson included variation within Spanish. In a separate science unit investigating and observing crayfish, another student Marta shared her recording that her crayfish "se echó pa'tras" (*It moved backwards*), using a vernacular form of Spanish. This example is a calque (*echar pa'tras* = to move backwards) borrowed from the English phrase and translated into Spanish commonly associated with Spanglish. Again, Mr. Clarke repeated and normalized this linguistic variation of Spanish, embracing it as a tool for content-based investigation and meaning-making.

Mr. Clarke used the same approach—modeling and allowing linguistic flexibility for problem solving and meaning-making—during math instruction. Standardized test preparation for the 3rd grade State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR) math exam was a mandated part of the curriculum. The school provided each teacher with required test preparation booklets. Mr. Clarke worked with his students on testing strategies. One key strategy was to identify the pattern in the provided answers. He debunked the standardized test format for the students in the following way, telling students: "When we look at these problems, two are dumb, one is tricky and one is for realz" (Classroom Observation, April 2014). He intentionally used dialectal language that was familiar and common in his students' repertoires to demystify and take power away from the test. Students would identify the pattern and make statements like "D is for realz" or "A and C are dumb."

Students were also able to draw on their full language repertoires when solving math problems. In Excerpt 2, Mr. Clarke was reviewing practice test problems that the students just completed:

Excerpt 2.

-
- | | | |
|----|------------|---|
| 1. | Mr. Clarke | Okay, read it for us please. |
| 2. | Gustavo | ¿En español? Porque aquí está en español. [<i>In Spanish? Because here it's in Spanish.</i>] |
| 3. | Mr. Clarke | Bueno, en lo que tú quieres, en chino si quieres (laughs). [<i>Well, in whatever you want, in Chinese if you want.</i>] |
| 4. | Gustavo | Which clock below shows at times between six thirty p.m. and six forty-five p.m.? |
| 5. | Mr. Clarke | So what do we need to circle up here (pointing at the word problem on the board)?
Which clock below shows the time between six thirty and six forty-five |
| 6. | Gustavo | Este...You have to circle the...u::h...u::h...entre [<i>Hmmm.... You have to circle the...u::h...u::h...between</i>] |
| 7. | Mr. Clarke | Yeah. ¿Entre que? [<i>Between what?</i>] |
| 8. | Gustavo | Entre seis treinta, seis y media y seis cuarenta y cinco [<i>Between six thirty, six and a half, and six forty-five</i>] |
-

Mr. Clarke initiated the interaction in English, asking Gustavo to read the problem. Gustavo was preparing for the 3rd grade STAAR test in Spanish, and therefore the problem in his book was in Spanish. In line 2 he asked in Spanish if he should read it in Spanish. Mr. Clarke responded in line 3 in Spanish, mirroring Gustavo's language shift, that he could read it in any language he wanted. He joked that he could read it in

Chinese if he wanted. Mr. Clarke's joke and verbalized language policy emphasized that students could draw on any language resources they wanted for math problem solving. Interestingly, despite asking in Spanish and having the problem in Spanish in front of him, Gustavo read the problem in English from the board (line 4), positioning himself as a competent bilingual. Even though his problems were in Spanish, he demonstrated his ability to read the problem in English. Mr. Clarke's intentionally flexible language policy as part of his classroom design (García, Ibarra Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017) afforded Gustavo the opportunities to practice, take risks, and develop his content-area math English despite having monolingual Spanish test preparation materials.

In turn 5, Mr. Clarke mirrored Gustavo's choice and continued the questioning in English. This more cognitively challenging question asked Gustavo to identify the clue word to help solve the problem. Line 6 demonstrated the power of a translinguaging pedagogy for math problem solving. Gustavo began with the Spanish filler word "este (hmmm)," indicating that he was thinking. He continued in English: "You have to circle, the..." followed by additional thinking filler words "u::h" before ultimately providing the answer in Spanish, "entre (*between*)." In this example, Gustavo drew on both Spanish and English for sense making. Mr. Clarke demonstrated his flexible language policy by mirroring Gustavo's language choice for a third time in line 7, asking in Spanish, "¿Entre que?" (*Between what?*). Overall, for the cognitively challenging process of solving decontextualized standardized math test problems, Mr. Clarke modeled linguistic flexibility, verbalized language flexibility as a language policy, and validated students' diverse language practices in their meaning-making processes.

Mr. Clarke's dynamic bilingualism was also demonstrated by his shifting in and out of language varieties for additional academic purposes in math and science instruction (García, Ibarra Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017). Mr. Clarke described in a retrospective interview that engaging in diverse language practices or language performances that reflected his students' repertoires increased student engagement, encouraged an environment of risk-taking, and lowered students' affective filter. To serve this additional academic purpose, Mr. Clarke used dialectal language practices in both Spanish and English. In Spanish, for example, he ended with a dialectal form of saying please, "porfis" (*pretty please*), when giving instructions, and he used the vernacular phrase "Te vas a meter en pleito" (*You're going to get in a fight*) when speaking to one student who was having problems with his classmate. Furthermore, when celebrating students' successes, he gave fist bumps and used words such as "¡Chócola!" (*high five!*) or "¡Qué padre!" (*How cool!*) On the other hand, in English, while responding to students correct answers he said, "booyah," and when a student asked to borrow a pencil he said, "I'll front you a pencil. But you will owe me a buck." Both examples, include English phrases often associated with African American Language. The examples in both English and Spanish illustrate how Mr. Clarke switched in and out of varieties of each language.

Mr. Clarke's use of diverse language practices in his classroom discourse could be viewed as controversial. As a White, native English speaker, his use of vernacular forms of Spanish and English, specifically those rooted in African American culture, could be questioned. The presence of these language practices in his speech could be seen as styling practices reflective of appropriation (Bucholtz, 1999; Rampton, 1995). However, Mr. Clarke has been working in this community for eleven years, where he has adeptly learned "doing being bilingual" (Auer, 1984, p. 7, as cited in Gort, 2015). His language practices appeared to authentically reflect his deep involvement with the students' lives and backgrounds, and his students ratified his language choices continuously. Reyes (2005) explored the appropriation of African American Language by Asian youth and found that the use of dialectal language was used by youth to create social boundaries between teenagers and adults. In this study, Mr. Clarke appeared to engage in translinguaging by shifting between and within named languages as a way to connect to his students, bridge social boundaries, and create an inclusive, encouraging, risk-taking environment to access math and science content.

5. Discussion and conclusion

Translinguaging pedagogy can be used to challenge traditional schooling structures that marginalize emerging bilinguals and their language practices. Research has considered the ways linguistic flexibility can disrupt traditional teacher-student roles, understandings of language, categorization of students, forms of instruction, and what counts as learning (García & Kleyn, 2016). Together, these teacher cases suggested ways that educators can create more equitable classroom spaces that value and take advantage of language diversity. Issues of academic language, language variation, and translinguaging are three domains often

discussed separately, but our findings illustrate how each teacher challenged linguistic norms in all three of these areas.

In the case of Ms. Barry's classroom, she drew on a body of work by published authors that showcased language variation. In particular, both the poetry and the prose that she selected to share with students reflected the literary talents of writers who used "nonstandard" language in their texts. In featuring the written work of authors like Carmen Tafolla and Gwendolyn Brooks, Ms. Barry conveyed that Spanish, English, and AAL were all academic, appropriate for school, and valuable forms of literary expressions. Students seemed to take up this message, as many explored the possibilities for linguistic variation in their writing. The instructor's selection of literacy materials and the mentor texts themselves validated hybrid language practices and reflected a linguistically responsive pedagogical stance. Likewise, in her language chart, Ms. Barry recorded students' translanguaging talk without translating to one language or the other, further reinforcing the notion that translanguaging in written form was acceptable and useful for academic purposes such as literary analysis. Such an approach seemed to create a climate in which students were willing to try out a wide range of possibilities for literary analysis and composition.

Mr. Clarke similarly challenged what was considered "academic language" in his classroom. He himself flexibly engaged in diverse language practices during science and math content instruction, shifting between Spanish and English and dialectal varieties of both English and Spanish. He also validated students' hybrid language practices by repeating their language choices and mirroring them in his responses. Collectively, Ms. Barry and Mr. Clarke created translanguaging classroom spaces for the development of content-area discourses and access to academic content.

One implication of this research is the critical role of the translanguaging stance for developing and fostering classroom spaces with linguistic flexibility. Both Ms. Barry and Mr. Clarke articulated pluralist language ideologies that constitute the core of a translanguaging stance (García, Ibarra Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017). Ms. Barry felt that "building off your home language is important" for classroom instruction, and Mr. Clarke expressed that "code-switching es algo muy funcional" (*code-switching is something that is very functional*). Their articulated perspectives represented linguistic flexibility and hybridity as a resource for student development rather than a problem (García, 2009; Ruiz, 1984).

This research also demonstrated how the teachers' translanguaging stance connected to their articulated and embodied classroom language policies. Both teachers espoused strong messages when it came to allowing students to access their full linguistic repertoires in the classroom for meaning-making. Ms. Barry articulated an embrace of translanguaging, noting that, after intensive study of bilingualism, restricting students to English-only in the classroom seemed wrong. She also embodied this language policy in her classroom through her selection of books and her support for students' use of practices that spanned the English-Spanish and standard-vernacular continua. Mr. Clarke normalized the process of using diverse language practices for access content, stating, "Es lo que hace la gente bilingüe siempre cada día" (*It is what bilingual people do every day*). He emphasized this perspective to his students by making a joke during instruction that they could use "chino si quieres" (*Chinese if you want*) if it would help them learn the content, despite no students having previously engaged in Chinese language practices in the classroom.

Professional development for in-service teachers could target the translanguaging stance as a starting point for transforming classroom language policy and practices. Teachers could be asked to reflect on their personal language ideologies and how they connect (or not) to the language policies in their classroom. Teachers could be asked to view their beliefs across a broad spectrum of language practices, including what they consider academic language, how they perceive code-switching or language mixing, and what they know and think about the use of dialects and vernacular forms of named language such as English and Spanish. Both Ms. Barry and Mr. Clarke described themselves as outliers in their school community. As such, teachers could be asked to simultaneously reflect on the language ideologies and language policies that circulate through the school community and to consider how educators and administrators impact the existence of school spaces that support diverse language practices.

For teachers wishing to enact a translanguaging stance in their own work, these cases offer several useful implications. Both Ms. Barry's and Mr. Clarke's teaching moves illustrate the value of focusing pedagogical attention on ideas rather than on the form of their expression. For students who are working to learn a new concept, it may not be essential that they express their thinking in any one particular way. Rather, their talk is a tool to help them learn, and the more tools they have, the better. Although there are times to teach students about the linguistic patterns typically privileged in schools, there are also times to prioritize content over form. Moreover, Ms. Barry's example highlights the value of seeking out linguistic variety in

literature and inviting children to pay attention the craft of writing. Many accomplished writers use language in skilled and evocative ways that cross linguistic and dialectal boundaries. A number of scholars and the #WeNeedDiverseBooks movement have called for diversifying the literature available in schools; this study further supports the need to seek out literature that represents a wide variety of experiences and linguistic practices (Brooks & McNair, 2009; Mendoza & Reese, 2001; Thomas, 2016).

In summary, both of these cases illustrated the power of the teacher to reconceptualize what academic language is and what kinds of linguistic practices are appropriate for schools. Although working under different school language policies, each teacher understood that students' everyday language practices were marginalized. At the same time, these teachers perceived translanguaging as a useful tool for bilingual learners and organized their curriculum and instruction to take advantage of this resource. They communicated in both explicit and implicit ways that students' communicative practices were valuable for school-based learning. We view these teachers and students as pockets of hope: examples of classroom spaces that empower the linguistically marginalized.

References

- Alim, H. Sami (2005). Critical language awareness in the United States: Revisiting issues and revising pedagogies in a resegregated society. *Educational Researcher*, 34(7), 24–31.
- Aukerman, Maren (2007). A culpable CALP: Rethinking the conversational/academic language proficiency distinction in early literacy instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, 60(7), 626–635.
- Brooks, Wanda, & McNair, Jonda (2009). "But this story of mine is not unique": A review of research on African American children's literature. *Review of Educational Research*, 79, 125–162.
- Bucholtz, Mary (1999). You da man: Narrating the racial other in the production of white masculinity. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 3, 443–460.
- Celic, Christina, & Seltzer, Kate (2011). *Translanguaging: A CUNY-NYSIEB guide for educators*. New York, New York: Research Institute for the Study of Language in Urban Society at the Graduate Center, CUNY.
- Chun, Elaine W. (2001). The construction of White, Black, and Korean American identities through African American Vernacular English. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology*, 11(1), 52–64.
- Creese, Angela, & Blackledge, Adrian (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: Pedagogy for learning and teaching? *Modern Language Journal*, 94, 103–115.
- Cummins, Jim (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.
- de los Ríos, Cati, & Seltzer, Kate (2017). Translanguaging, coloniality, and English classrooms: An exploration of two bicoastal urban classrooms. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 52(1), 55–76.
- Emerson, Robert, Fretz, Rachel, & Shaw, Linda (2011). *Writing ethnographic fieldnotes*. Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press.
- Flores, Nelson, & Rosa, Jonathan (2015). Undoing appropriateness: Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, 85(2), 149–171.
- Flores, Nelson, & García, Ofelia (2013). Linguistic third spaces in education: teachers translanguaging across the bilingual continuum. In David Little, Constant Leung, & Piet Van Avermaet (Eds.), *Managing diversity in education: Key issues and some responses* (pp. 243–256). Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- García, Ofelia (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Malden, Massachusetts: Wiley/Blackwell.
- García, Ofelia (2017). Critical multilingual awareness and teacher education. In Jasone Cenoz, Durk Gorter, & Stephen May (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (3rd ed.). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- García, Ofelia, & Kley, Tatyana (Eds.). (2016). *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- García, Ofelia, Ibarra Johnson, Susana, & Seltzer, Kate (2017). *The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning*. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Caslon.

- García, Ofelia, & Li Wei (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. London, United Kingdom: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Glesne, Corinne (2010). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction (4th ed)*. White Plains, New York: Longman.
- Giovanni, Nikki (2008). *Hip hop speaks to children: A celebration of poetry with a beat (A poetry speaks experience)*. Naperville, Illinois: Sourcebooks Jabberwocky.
- Gort, Mileidis (2006). Strategic codeswitching, interliteracy, and other phenomena of emergent bilingual writing: Lessons from first grade dual language classrooms. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, 6(3), 323–354.
- Gort, Mileidis (2015). Transforming literacy learning and teaching through translanguaging and other typical practices associated with “doing being bilingual.” *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 9(2), 1–6. doi:10.1080/19313152.2014.988030
- Gort, Mileidis, & Pontier, Ryan W. (2013). Exploring bilingual pedagogies in dual language preschool classrooms. *Language and Education*, 27(3), 223–245.
- Gort, Mileidis, & Sembiante, Sabrina F. (2015). Navigating hybridized language learning spaces through translanguaging pedagogy: Dual language preschool teachers’ languaging practices in support of emergent bilingual children’s performance of academic discourse. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 9(1), 7–25. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2014.981775>
- Henderson, Kathryn. I., & Ingram, Mitch (2018). “Mister, you’re writing in Spanglish”: Fostering spaces for meaning making and metalinguistic connections through teacher translanguaging shifts in the bilingual classroom. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 41(3) 1–19.
- Lee, Carol D. (1995). A culturally based cognitive apprenticeship: Teaching African American high school students’ skills in literary interpretation. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 30(4), 608–630.
- Lee, Carol D. (1997). Bridging home and school literacies: A model of culturally responsive teaching. In J. Flood, S. B. Heath & D. Lapp (Eds.), *A handbook for literacy educators: Research on teaching the communicative and visual arts* (pp. 330–341). New York, New York: Macmillan.
- Lippi-Green, Rosina. (2012). *English with an accent: Language, ideology, and discrimination in the United States* (2nd ed). New York, New York: Routledge.
- Martinez, Danny C. (2016). Latino linguistic repertoires in an intensely-segregated Black and Latina/o high school: Is this super-diversity? *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 2(241), 69–95.
- Martínez, Ramón Antonio (2010). “Spanglish” as literacy tool: Toward an understanding of the potential role of Spanish-English code-switching in the development of academic literacy. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 45(2), 124–149.
- Martínez, Ramón Antonio (2013). Reading the world in Spanglish: Hybrid language practices and ideological contestation in a sixth-grade English language arts classroom. *Linguistics and Education*, 24(3), 276–288.
- Martínez, Ramón Antonio (2014). “Do they even know that they do it?”: Exploring awareness of Spanish English code-switching in a sixth-grade English language arts classroom. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 37(2), 195–210.
- Martínez, Ramón Antonio, Durán, Leah, & Hikida, Michiko (In press). Where translanguaging meets academic writing: Exploring tensions and generative connections for bilingual Latina/o/x students. In Marjorie F. Orellana, & Immaculada García-Sánchez (Eds.), *Everyday learning: Leveraging non-dominant youth language and culture in schools*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- Mendoza, Jean, & Reese, Debbie (2001). Examining multicultural picture books for the early childhood classroom: Possibilities and pitfalls. *Early Childhood Research & Practice*, 3(2), 155–170.
- Menken, Kate (2008). *English learners left behind: Standardized testing as language policy*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Merriam, Sharan B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass.
- Miles, Matthew B., Huberman, A. Michael, & Saldaña, Johnny (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE.

- Michael-Luna, Sara, & Canagarajah, Suresh (2007). Multilingual academic literacies: pedagogical foundations for code meshing in primary and higher education. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 48–65.
- Orellana, Marjorie. F., Reynolds, Jennifer, Dorner, Lisa, & Meza, Maria (2003). In other words: Translating or “para-phrasing” as a family literacy practice in immigrant households. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 38(1), 12–34.
- Orellana, Marjorie. F., & Reynolds, Jennifer (2008). Cultural modeling: Leveraging bilingual skills for school paraphrasing tasks. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 43(1), 48–65.
- Paris, Django (2009). “They’re in my culture, they speak the same way”: African American Language in multiethnic high schools. *Harvard Educational Review*, 79(3), 428–448.
- Pérez, Ashley Hope, & Enciso, Patricia (2017). Decentering whiteness and monolingualism in the reception of Latinx YA literature. *Bilingual Review/Revista Bilingüe*, 33(5), 1–14.
- Pennycook, Alistair (2010). *Language as a local practice*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Rampton, Ben (1995). *Crossing: language and ethnicity among adolescents*. London, United Kingdom: Longman.
- Rampton, Ben (2003). Hegemony, social class and stylisation. *Pragmatics*, 13(1), 49–83.
- Reyes, Angela (2005). Appropriation of African American slang by Asian American youth. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 9(4), 509–532.
- Rickford, John R. & Rickford, Russell J. (2000). *Spoken Soul: The story of Black English*. New York, New York: Wiley.
- Rudin, Ernst (1996). *Tender accents of sound: Spanish in the Chicano novel in English*. Tempe, Arizona: Bilingual Review Press.
- Ruiz, Richard (1984). Orientations in language planning. *National Association for Bilingual Education Journal*, 8(2), 15–34.
- Sayer, Peter (2013). Translanguaging, TexMex, and bilingual pedagogy: Emergent bilinguals learning through the vernacular. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(1), 63–88.
- Schleppegrell, Mary J. (2004). *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Smitherman, Geneva (1993). African American student writers in the NAEP, 1969–1988/89 and “the blacker the berry, the sweeter the juice.” In Geneva Smitherman (Ed.), *Talkin that talk: Language, culture and education in African America* (pp. 163–194). New York, New York: Routledge.
- Tafolla, Carmen, & Córdova, Amy (2009). *What can you do with a rebozo?/¿Qué puedes hacer con un rebozo?*. Berkeley, California: Tricycle Press.
- Texas Education Agency (2010). Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills for English Language Arts and Reading Subchapter A. (2013). Retrieved from <http://ritter.tea.state.tx.us/rules/tac/chapter110/ch110a.html>
- Thomas, Ebony Elizabeth (2016). Stories still matter: Rethinking the role of diverse children's literature today. *Language Arts*, 94(2), 116–123
- Urciuoli, Bonnie (1996). *Exposing prejudice: Puerto Rican experiences of language, race, and class*. New York, New York: Westview Press.
- Wertsch, James V. (1991). *Voices of the mind: Sociocultural approaches to mediated action*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Young, Vershawn Ashanti (2009). “Nah, we straight”: An argument against code switching. *JAC*, 29(1/2), 49–76.
- Zapata, Angie, & Tropp Laman, Tasha (2016). “I write to show how beautiful my languages are”: Translingual writing instruction in English-dominant classrooms. *Language Arts*, 93(5), 366–378.

Leah Durán, University of Arizona

leahgduran@email.arizona.edu

- EN** | **Leah Durán** is an assistant professor in the department of Teaching, Learning and Sociocultural Studies at the University of Arizona. Previously, she taught in English as a Second Language (ESL) and bilingual classrooms in Texas. Her scholarship explores bilingual students' everyday language and literacy practices and how teachers can build on those practices as resources for academic learning.
- ES** | **Leah Durán** es profesora contratada en el departamento de Enseñanza, aprendizaje y estudios socioculturales de la University of Arizona. Antes, enseñó cursos de inglés como segunda lengua y en programas bilingües en Texas. Su investigación explora el uso de la lengua y la literacidad de estudiantes bilingües y cómo los docentes pueden integrar estas prácticas como recursos para el aprendizaje académico.
- IT** | **Leah Durán** è ricercatrice presso il Dipartimento di didattica, apprendimento e studi socioculturali della University of Arizona. In precedenza, ha insegnato inglese come seconda lingua e in programmi bilingui in Texas. La sua ricerca esplora la lingua d'uso quotidiano e le pratiche linguistiche degli studenti bilingui e il modo in cui gli insegnanti possono integrare tali pratiche come risorse per l'apprendimento accademico.

Kathryn I. Henderson, University of Texas at San Antonio

kathryn.henderson2@utsa.edu

- EN** | **Kathryn I. Henderson** is an assistant professor in the Department of Bicultural-Bilingual Studies within the College of Education and Human Development at the University of Texas at San Antonio. She taught elementary school for five years in Guadalajara, Mexico. Her education interests include language ideologies, language policy, and dual language bilingual education programs.
- ES** | **Kathryn I. Henderson** es profesora contratada en el departamento de Estudios bilingües/biculturales de la facultad de Educación y Desarrollo Humano en la University of Texas en San Antonio. Enseño en la escuela primaria durante cinco años en Guadalajara, México. Sus intereses en el ámbito de la educación incluyen las ideologías lingüísticas, las políticas lingüísticas, y los programas de doble inmersión (*dual language*).
- IT** | **Kathryn I. Henderson** è ricercatrice nel Dipartimento di studi biculturali-bilingui nella facoltà di Educazione e Sviluppo Umano presso la University of Texas a San Antonio. Ha insegnato nella scuola primaria a Guadalajara, Messico per cinque anni. I suoi interessi nell'ambito dell'istruzione includono ideologie linguistiche, politiche linguistiche e programmi d'istruzione bilingue (*dual language*).

Translanguaging practices in CLIL and non-CLIL biology lessons in Switzerland

ALINE S. BIERI*
University of Basel

Received 17 June 2018; received in revised form 18 October 2018; accepted 19 November 2018

ABSTRACT

EN Studies on translanguaging in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) programmes have predominately focused on the use of the first language (L1) as a potential resource in CLIL lessons. This article argues that translanguaging practices that involve more than students' L1 are valuable, even necessary, pedagogies in both CLIL and non-CLIL biology lessons. The qualitative analysis of transcripts from 31 CLIL (English) and non-CLIL (German) biology lessons in Switzerland reveals that translanguaging involving the source languages of the technical vocabulary represents a particularly useful tool for negotiating meaning. Only one of the two instructors who participated in this study engaged in this kind of translanguaging when discussing the semantic content of technical vocabulary. Interestingly, this instructor had more extreme attitudes concerning classroom linguistic behaviour, upholding the need for monolingual (i.e., English-only) practices in his classroom. This observation indicates that teachers' stances towards translanguaging do not necessarily coincide with their practices.

Key words: TRANSLANGUAGING PRACTICES, TRANSLANGUAGING WITH SOURCE LANGUAGES, BIOLOGY, CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING (CLIL), SWITZERLAND

ES Muchos de los estudios sobre translingüismo en programas del aprendizaje integrado de contenidos y lenguas extranjeras (AICLE) se han enfocado en el uso de la lengua materna (L1) como posible recurso para el aprendizaje y la enseñanza de segundas lenguas a través de contenidos. Este artículo argumenta que las prácticas de translingüismo que involucran otros recursos más allá de la L1 del alumno constituyen una estrategia pedagógica valiosa (quizá necesarias) y eficaces en clases de biología con o sin un modelo AICLE. El análisis cualitativo de un corpus de 31 lecciones de biología de AICLE (inglés) y no AICLE (alemán) en Suiza revela que el translingüismo en el ámbito del vocabulario técnico en la L1 representa una herramienta particularmente útil para la negociación del significado. Solo uno de los otros docentes que ha participado en este estudio ha empleado translingüismo al hablar del contenido semántico del vocabulario técnico. Curiosamente, este docente tenía actitudes extremas relacionadas con el comportamiento lingüístico en el aula, ya que sostenía la necesidad de prácticas monolingües (esto es, el uso exclusivo del inglés) en su clase. Esta observación indica que las posturas de los docentes hacia el translingüismo no coinciden necesariamente con sus costumbres.

Palabras clave: PRÁCTICAS TRANSLINGÜALES, TRANSLINGÜAR CON LAS L1, BIOLOGÍA, APRENDIZAJE INTEGRADO DE CONTENIDOS Y LENGUA (AICLE), SUIZA

IT Gli studi sul *translanguaging* nei programmi CLIL (apprendimento integrato di contenuti e lingue straniere) si sono concentrati principalmente sull'uso della lingua materna (L1) come potenziale risorsa nei corsi con metodologia CLIL. In questo articolo si sostiene che le pratiche *translanguaging* che integrano altre risorse oltre alla L1 degli studenti sono altrettanto valide e persino necessarie nei corsi di biologia con o senza metodologia CLIL. L'analisi qualitativa di un corpus di 31 corsi di biologia CLIL (in inglese) e non CLIL (in tedesco) in Svizzera, rivela che il *translanguaging* che include l'uso della lingua di partenza del lessico tecnico nella L1 degli studenti rappresenta uno strumento particolarmente utile alla negoziazione del significato. Solo uno dei due insegnanti che hanno partecipato allo studio si è servito del *translanguaging* per discutere del contenuto semantico del lessico tecnico. È interessante notare come lo stesso insegnante abbia atteggiamenti più estremi riguardo al comportamento linguistico, sostenendo la necessità di implementare pratiche monolingvistiche (ossia, solo l'inglese) nelle sue classi. Questa osservazione indica che le posizioni degli insegnanti nei confronti del *translanguaging* non coincidono necessariamente con le loro pratiche.

Parole chiave: PRATICHE TRANSLANGUAGING, TRANSLANGUAGING CON L1, BIOLOGIA, APPRENDIMENTO INTEGRATO DI CONTENUTI E LINGUE STRANIERE (CLIL), SVIZZERA

* Contact: aline.bieri@unibas.ch

1. Introduction

Traditionally, language education has been dealt with and believed to be best achieved by promoting strict monolingual instruction and keeping languages separated. In other words, the target language (TL) is best learnt without any interference from other languages (Hall & Cook, 2012). Early studies reported in Creese and Blackledge (2010) show that “moving between languages” (p. 105) was traditionally strongly discouraged in the classroom and seen as a last resort. According to Lasagabaster and García (2014), this separation of languages is based on two popular ideas: firstly, the fear that the learning of a second language (L2) could come at the cost of proficiency in the first language (L1), and secondly, that more exposure automatically leads to higher proficiency (p. 558). Even within Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and applied linguistics research, language acquisition and learning have typically been treated as processes that are ideally “uncontaminated by knowledge and use of one’s other languages” (May, 2014a, p. 2).

Only recently has the field of applied linguistics and educational research begun to shift from a monolingual perspective toward a more inclusive and flexible perspective on multilingualism. This has been coined the *multilingual turn*, in that it assumes “multilingualism, rather than monolingualism, as the new norm of applied linguistic and sociolinguistic analysis” (May, 2014a, p. 1). Even though awareness of the monolingual bias in research is rising and thus shifting, as evidenced in recent publications problematizing this issue (see e.g. Conteh & Meier, 2014; May, 2014b), in practice this shift is far from complete as the prevalent ideology in classrooms is still often monolingually oriented (Cummins, 2005, 2007, 2008).

This holds true even for educational approaches such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), a European educational model that was originally introduced in 1994 with the aim of promoting multilingualism and multiculturalism through the integration of content and language (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010; Marsh, Maljers, & Hartiala, 2001). In CLIL programmes, content subjects such as history or biology are taught in a second or foreign language with the aim of improving both content knowledge as well as language proficiency. Since its introduction, CLIL, in many different forms, has become a firm component of the bilingual education landscape in Europe¹. However, many CLIL classrooms, like L2 classrooms, are, from a pedagogical perspective, still frequently monolingually-oriented spaces (Gierlinger, 2015; Lasagabaster 2013). Despite this monolingual orientation, Moore and Nikula (2016; Nikula & Moore, 2016) recently showed that translanguaging—the use of languages other than the TL—is actually a feature of many CLIL classrooms. They further found that translanguaging fulfils a variety of different purposes in the CLIL classroom, enriching it on multiple levels. Yet, Moore and Nikula, like other scholars, mainly examine alternating language use in CLIL classes (see Section 2.2), focusing not on *multilingual* practices, but on practices primarily concerned with the use of the L1 as a potential resource in CLIL lessons.

This article investigates the translanguaging practices in CLIL (English) and non-CLIL (German) biology lessons in Switzerland to show how a broader understanding of translanguaging can shed light on new and potentially valuable and effective pedagogies in CLIL and non-CLIL biology lessons. Switzerland is an ideal context to investigate translanguaging beyond the simple use of L1 and TL—especially in technical subjects such as biology—due to the many languages present there: the individual linguistic repertoires of students and teachers (Swiss German or other L1s), the medium of instruction (Standard German or English), and the languages present in the technical vocabulary of the subject-specific language of biology (Greek, Latin and other languages). Further, it is worthwhile to examine how these diverse translanguaging practices reflect teachers’ attitudes to the TL use in their classes, as well as how their attitudes and practices coincide or deviate from each other.

2. Translanguaging

2.1. Definition

There are generally two ways to approach the term translanguaging. The classical approach starts with its etymology. The term is an English translation of the Welsh word *trawsieithu*, which describes a specific pedagogical practice in which, as part of a revitalization programme of Welsh, teachers would teach in Welsh and students would answer in English (Williams, 1994). Williams and later Baker (2011) reported on the cognitive advantages of this pedagogical practice involving varying language input and output.

¹ Although CLIL used to be a predominately European phenomenon, it has established itself as part of bilingual educational programmes all over the world (see e.g. Lo & Macaro, 2012; McDougald & Anderson, 2015; Tedick & Cammarata, 2012).

While for Williams and Baker, translanguaging remained primarily a pedagogical approach, García (2009) expanded the term to denote typical bilingual behaviour (see also Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012b, p. 647). According to García (2012):

Translanguaging posits that bilinguals have *one linguistic repertoire* from which they select features *strategically* to communicate effectively. That is, translanguaging takes as its starting point the *language practices of bilingual people as the norm*, and not the language of monolinguals, as described by traditional usage books and grammars. (p. 1, emphasis in original)

Similar to the multilingual turn, translanguaging in García's sense shifts away from a monolingual perspective, taking practices of bilinguals as the normal mode of communication. Further, García states that bilinguals have not two separate repertoires that they can switch between, but one single linguistic repertoire from which they choose depending on context. This is in line with Canagarajah's (2011) elaboration of translanguaging as "treating the diverse languages that form their [the students'] repertoire as an integrated system" (p. 401).

Another way to look at translanguaging, as Li (2018) proposes, is to start with *linguaging*, the view that language per se is not a finished product, but an ever-ongoing process to express thought and cognitive and meaning-making processes. Adding the prefix *trans-* to *linguaging* emphasizes, according to Li (2018), the fluid nature of multilinguals' practices in two aspects: first, these practices do not work "unilingually in a politically named language", and second, they include all kinds of "cognitive, semiotic, and modal resources" (p. 18). While the first aspect resonates with García's proposition of one single linguistic repertoire for multilingual individuals, Li elaborates further by claiming that translanguaging is not restricted to the use of linguistic repertoires, but can include various para- and non-linguistic resources.

Translanguaging, then, is not simply a synonym for other related terms such as code-switching, code-mixing or translation (García & Li Wei, 2014; Lasagabaster & García, 2014; Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012a; Li Wei, 2018; Moore & Nikula, 2016; Nikula & Moore, 2016). Although code-switching, code-mixing and/or translation can be part of translanguaging, translanguaging goes beyond by saying that there are not only two separate codes that one switches back and forth, but that there is a multitude of integrated and interacting resources that compose each individual's repertoire where the individual can choose from in order to communicate effectively. From this perspective, translanguaging is neither a synonym for nor mutually exclusive with the idea of code-switching or code-mixing. Instead it adds and expands this notion to all kinds of linguistic and non-linguistic resources². It is thus not only timely but necessary to investigate the value of such a broader notion of translanguaging with regard to CLIL.

2.2. Translanguaging and CLIL

Although translanguaging occurs in everyday communication as well as in school contexts (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 401), it is the educational context where it has attracted the most attention, as reflected in the publication of recently edited volumes on that topic (e.g., Cenoz & Gurter, 2015; García & Li Wei, 2014; Mazak & Carroll, 2017; Paulsrud, Rosén, Straszer, & Wedin, 2017). Translanguaging has also become a very prominent and popular theme in current CLIL research. Some studies on translanguaging in CLIL focus on teachers' attitudes to and self-reported use of the L1 in the CLIL classroom. These studies have found that CLIL teachers seem generally open towards using the L1, however, since they have not been trained on how to use translanguaging as a pedagogic strategy, they feel insecure as to what extent they should use or allow the L1 (see Gené-Gil, Juan Garau, & Salazar Noguera, 2012; Gierlinger, 2015; Lasagabaster, 2013; Méndez García, & Pavón Vázquez, 2012). Other studies on translanguaging in CLIL that focus on classroom data have revealed that translanguaging is not only a feature of many CLIL classrooms, but also that translanguaging practices do indeed serve various purposes such as facilitating content, managing the classroom, creating language awareness, or signalling alignment, to name just a few (see e.g. Gallagher & Colohan, 2017; Gierlinger, 2015; Moore & Nikula, 2016; Nikula & Moore, 2016; Paulsrud 2014, 2016; Toth 2018). Thus, translanguaging practices can enrich the CLIL classroom on multiple levels. Nevertheless, in their investigation of translanguaging practices in the CLIL context, the above-mentioned studies all follow the paradigm of bilingualism by focussing on practices primarily concerned with the use of the L1 as a potential resource in CLIL lessons. However, following the exploration of translanguaging outlined

² See Holmström and Schönström (2018) and Murray (2018) on translanguaging involving sign language.

in Section 2.1., it follows that one should take an approach to translanguaging in CLIL that goes beyond the simple use of L1 and TL, but incorporates all facets of the multilingual repertoires of students and teachers. This is exactly what the present study sets out to do.

3. The present study

The present study is an exploratory, qualitative investigation of teachers' and students' translanguaging practices. This study examines the multilingual resources used in whole-class interactions as well as teacher monologues in 31 teacher lectures in CLIL (English) and non-CLIL (German) biology lessons. It analyses classroom transcripts as well as transcripts of semi-structured interviews with participating teachers about their views on translanguaging in the classroom.

3.1. The context

In Switzerland, the context of the present study, language education can vary considerably among different regions due to its decentralised education system and its complex plurilingual situation³. There are no national CLIL programmes in public schools during compulsory education (grades 1-9), and those schools that employ CLIL are mostly grass-roots movements based on individual initiatives (e.g. *Schulprojekt 21*, see Büeler, Stebler, Stöckli, & Stotz, 2010). The only nationwide implemented form of CLIL is called *zweisprachige Matur* (bilingual baccalaureate), which can be found at *Gymnasien*, upper-secondary or grammar schools, and is offered in around 70% of 177 schools (SKBF, 2014, p. 150). The most common form of the *zweisprachige Matur* is found in the German-speaking part of Switzerland with Standard German as the mainstream language (ML) and English as the target language (TL) (Elmiger, 2008, pp. 15, 26; SKBF, 2014, p. 150). The data collected for the purpose of this study are taken from an upper-secondary school that offers the *zweisprachige Matur* in this most common form, with ML Standard German and TL English.

3.2. Classroom data and analysis

Data were collected by the author over a consecutive period of four weeks in 2015 at an upper-secondary school in the canton of Basel-Land. The data consist of 31 video-taped biology lessons (45 min) taught by two teachers, who teach their subject biology in both German (non-CLIL) and English (CLIL). Basel-Land is a canton in the Northwest of Switzerland that shares borders with France and Germany and thus belongs to the German-speaking part of Switzerland. Consequently, the L1 of both teachers and most students is Swiss German. Students in this study were in grades 10 and 11 and ages 15 to 17 years old. A distribution of the lessons according to the teachers can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. *Distribution of video-taped biology lessons according to teachers.*

Grade + Programme	Teacher 1 (T1)		Teacher 2 (T2)	
	Class	Hours	Class	Hours
10 CLIL	1e	5	1b	5
10 non-CLIL	1a	6	1f	6
11 CLIL	2e	3	2b	2
11 non-CLIL	2d	2	2h	2
Total		16h		15h

Note: 1h indicates one lesson of 45min

Classroom data include whole-class interactions and teacher monologues. Whole-class interactions are defined as "consist[ing] of the teacher conducting a dialogue with the class as a collective conversational partner" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 31), whereas teacher monologue is identified as any "[l]onger stretches of coherent teacher talk is the classic lecture-type format for presenting curricular information" (p. 32) that are not part of whole-class interaction and often start with a discourse marker like *okay*, *alright*, or *now* (Lemke, 1990, p. 64).

³ There are four official languages (Standard German, French, Italian and Romansh), a spoken variety (Swiss German) that differs considerably from the official Standard German, and one fifth of the population that has a different L1 than any of the above-mentioned languages (BFS, 2017, p. 32; EDA, 2017).

For the analysis of the classroom data, I draw on Moore and Nikula's (2016) broad categories of salient and unmarked translanguaging⁴. Moore and Nikula define salient translanguaging situations as those where "participants orient to language in order to facilitate content learning" and unmarked translanguaging as situations where "participants orient primarily to the flow of interaction" (p. 219). That is, in salient translanguaging, the focus is on the language as it serves to clarify technical terminology or subject-specific concepts. Moore and Nikula found, for instance, that salient translanguaging in the L1 was used by a teacher for the purpose of clarifying key lexis, negotiating its meanings and having explicit reflections on language (e.g. T: "what does x mean in the L1?"). They also found that it can be student-initiated (e.g. S: "what does x mean in the L1?"), or can even be prompted by the teacher asking for students' expertise and at times, may even foster linguistic creativity (Moore & Nikula, 2016, p. 219-226).

Unmarked translanguaging, on the other hand, occurs unnoticed and is used to keep the interaction going without any obvious signs in the interaction that participants are consciously translanguaging. In Moore and Nikula's work, unmarked translanguaging was mainly present in the teachers' regulative register, as a result of teachers managing the classroom, clarifying and checking instructions of tasks and most importantly, signalling alignment with students by switching to the L1 or the TL (pp. 226-231).

In the first step of analysis, I identified instances of translanguaging in all CLIL and non-CLIL biology lessons by marking them as salient or unmarked translanguaging. Since I argued that in this particular Swiss context, a more inclusive notion of translanguaging is necessary, I then considered instances of translanguaging that go beyond the use of the L1 and TL in both CLIL and non-CLIL biology lessons. Since Moore and Nikula investigated translanguaging practices in a variety of subjects (biology, physics, geography, history, technology and music) in three different contexts (Finland, Spain and Austria), I assumed that similar instances of salient and unmarked translanguaging are present in the CLIL data at hand. Due to the special sociolinguistic context of the study, where Swiss German is spoken in addition to Standard German in the non-CLIL lesson, I expected salient and unmarked translanguaging practices to occur in these lessons as well, however, likely to a lesser extent than in the CLIL classroom. Last but not least, due to the technical nature of the subject content, I expected that translanguaging practices also occur involving subject-specific terminology.

3.3. Teacher interviews

To complement the classroom data, I conducted two semi-structured interviews with both teachers. Both teachers are Swiss and, thus, non-native speakers of English. Both are content and not language teachers, and lateral entrants in the teaching profession, i.e. they worked in a different field before they decided to become teachers. T1 holds a Ph.D. and a PostDoc in zoology and also worked in the information technology (IT) sector. At the point of the interview, he had approximately five years of teaching experience, with three in CLIL. T2 studied IT at a Swiss university before obtaining a PhD in zoology in Britain. He had approximately nine years of teaching experience, with three in CLIL. Even though the primary focus of these interviews was on getting the teachers' perspectives on the differences between CLIL and non-CLIL lessons, the issue of translanguaging arose in both interviews. The semi-structured interviews lasted 35 and 45 minutes respectively, and they were audio-recorded, transcribed, and qualitatively analysed with a focus on translanguaging.

4. Results and discussion

In this section, I first discuss the results of the classroom data with regard to salient and unmarked translanguaging. When appropriate, I include excerpts from the teacher interviews in the discussion of the classroom data. At the end, I reflect upon the classroom data through the lens of each individual teachers' perspectives on translanguaging. Throughout this section, the following abbreviations are used: L1 = Swiss German, ML = Standard German, TL = English.

⁴ I did not use functional categories to classify instances of translanguaging like other researchers (e.g. Paulsrud, 2014, 2016; Toth, 2018) as such predefined categories might have limited the scope of the exploration and veered from the study's aim to explore translanguaging practices that go beyond the use of the L1.

4.1. Translanguaging practices

4.1.1 Salient translanguaging in CLIL biology lessons

Teachers used salient translanguaging practices in CLIL biology lessons to clarify and explain key lexis and scientific concepts, exploit more proficient English students' knowledge, and to allow for linguistic creativity and for students to inquire about key lexis and its meanings. By far the most frequent salient translanguaging practice used by the teachers is shown in the following excerpts, where a technical term is directly followed by a translation in the ML (Excerpts 1 and 2, see Appendix for transcription conventions).

Excerpt 1. CLIL biology lesson 20150507_2e⁵

-
- | | |
|-------|---|
| 1. T1 | Airways are enforced by rings of cartilage , <i>Knorpelspangen</i> . |
|-------|---|
-

Excerpt 2. CLIL biology lesson 20150507_1b

-
- | | |
|-------|---|
| 1. T2 | To reinforced concrete that's <i>Stahlbeton</i> in German. |
|-------|---|
-

Excerpts 1 and 2 occur both in teacher monologues, a function of which is “to ensure that all of the listeners are able to follow the message” (Moore & Nikula, 2016, p. 220). However, translanguaging involving key lexis also occurs in interaction, for instance, as an explicit pedagogical strategy, as shown in Excerpt 3. The teacher wants to ensure that his students understand what chickpeas are before starting the experiment, and thus prompts the students to provide the German equivalent for chickpeas to ensure mutual understanding.

Excerpt 3. CLIL biology lesson 20150511_1e

-
- | | |
|-------|---|
| 1. T2 | Chickpeas. What are chickpeas ? |
| 2. S | <i>Kichererbsen</i> . |
| 3. T2 | <i>Kichererbsen</i> , exactly. |
-

On the other hand, salient translanguaging in interaction also frequently occurs when students lack a term and thus use the ML equivalent (Excerpt 4) or explicitly ask for the translation of the word (Excerpt 5). In such cases, it is usually the teacher who provides students with the English term so the students can then incorporate it into their responses.

Excerpt 4. CLIL biology lesson 20150521_2e

-
- | | |
|-------|---|
| 1. S | Well, I don't know how, but uhm the big arrow, it just shows that they uhm <i>Gleichgewicht</i> ? |
| 2. T1 | Balance. |
| 3. S | The balance of the reaction is on the right side. |
-

Excerpt 5. CLIL biology lesson 20150507_1b

-
- | | |
|-------|---|
| 1. S1 | The upper (end) is in general yeah just yeah it's uhm. <i>Was heisst zusammenfassen?</i> [What does summarise mean?] ⁶ |
| 2. S2 | Mh? <i>Zämmefasse?</i> Ah <i>was heisst das scho wieder?</i> [Mh? Summarise? Ah what is it again?] |
| 3. T2 | Summarise. |
| 4. S1 | Yeah, summarise , please. |
-

⁵ All excerpts in this article are taken from the data that forms the basis of this study. “CLIL biology lesson 20150507_2e” means that Excerpt 1 is taken from a biology lesson in English (CLIL), of class 2e on the 7th of May 2015. All subsequent excerpts are labelled accordingly.

⁶ All English translations in square brackets have been made by the author.

Excerpt 5 is interesting with regard to language choice: In line 1, S1 switches mid-sentence from English to Standard German to ask for the equivalent in English, whereupon S2 replies in Swiss German. The teacher, however, sticks to English, and provides the translation, which is then incorporated by S1 in line 4.

Sometimes, not only students lack a term, but also the teachers. Since in the present case both CLIL teachers are non-native speakers of English, they occasionally were not sure of terminology in the TL. One strategy to solve this is illustrated in Excerpt 6, where the teacher asks the class for the English equivalent of *Seerosen*.

Excerpt 6. CLIL biology lesson 20150528_1b

- | | | |
|----|----|---|
| 1. | T2 | What i- what is <i>Seerosen</i> in English? |
| 2. | S | (xx) |
| 3. | T2 | Pardon? |
| 4. | S | Wasn't it water lily ? |
| 5. | T2 | Water lily , yes, thank you. Water lily . |
-

One could argue that, in this situation, the teacher simply uses translanguaging to “reinforce meaning” (Moore & Nikula, 2016, p. 220), or, similar to Excerpt 3, wants to ensure that the whole class knows the term in question in the ML and the TL. However, in this case, the teacher's *thank you* in line 5 as well as the intonation from the video-recording indicate that this seems to be a genuine request for information from the teacher.

As seen across the above excerpts, a frequent translanguaging strategy to solve a situation where the teacher does not know the TL term consists of consulting and even exploiting students' knowledge. This occurs particularly when the “class itself is multilingual, in which case it may contain students who are more competent TL speakers than the teacher” (Moore & Nikula, 2016, p. 223). In fact, T1 and T2 both have CLIL classes that are very multilingual in nature, including native speakers of English. Thus, it seems “only logical that the teacher acknowledge[s] that expertise, and exploit[s] it” (Moore & Nikula, 2016, p. 223). This is in fact confirmed by T1 (Interview Excerpt 1), who explains this to be a strategy he often uses.

Interview Excerpt 1. CLIL biology lesson 20150521_2e⁷

- | | | |
|----|----|---|
| 1. | T1 | What I do when I'm lacking a word, or I really don't know a word, then I very openly ask the native speakers in front of the class: “Can you please provide a translation for this word?” |
|----|----|---|
-

Translanguaging can also be used as a reply to student-initiated clarification requests (“what is x?”). Moore and Nikula (2016) discuss such cases in terms of the *principle of least effort* (see p. 223), meaning that it is often easier (and more time-efficient) for teachers to simply translate a term rather than paraphrase it in the TL. However, this is not always an option, especially when there is no direct equivalent in the ML, or if the teacher needs to explain the scientific concept behind a term. Take for instance Excerpt 7, where the student-initiated clarification request revolves around the complex concept of affinity.

Excerpt 7. CLIL biology lesson 20150521_2e

- | | | |
|----|----|--|
| 1. | S1 | What means affinity ? |
| 2. | T1 | <i>Begehren</i> ? Uhm you can also call it just call simply call it uhm love for oxygen. I mean it really is or eh uhm. Anybody have a better word for that? |
| 3. | S2 | Magnet ? |
| 4. | T1 | Pardon? |
| 5. | S2 | Magnet ? |
| 6. | T1 | Magnet ? |
| 7. | S2 | No? |
| 8. | T1 | Well, you will see soon why magnet is not really appropriate |
-

⁷ This and all subsequent excerpts from the teacher interviews have been translated from Swiss German to English by the author.

Affinity and the German technical term *Affinität* derive from Latin *affinitas*. Thus, it would make no sense for the teacher to merely provide the student with the ML equivalent of the technical term, as it is exactly the same as in English, and will thus say nothing about the actual concept of affinity. Consequently, he instead decides to provide the student with a translation of a more everyday term *Begerehen* (desire). He also tries to circumscribe it (“love for oxygen”) and then asks the class for a better word. When S2 suggests magnet as an alternative (line 3), the teacher’s response in line 8 concludes that this is not an appropriate alternative though. Interestingly enough, although the teacher mentions in line 8 that the students will soon see “why magnet is not appropriate”, at the end of this very lesson it becomes evident that despite all the teacher’s attempts to explain the scientific concept in question, the students seem to not have grasped it yet.

Another translanguaging practice that we encounter is when there is a term in the ML that does not have an exact equivalent in the TL. Lin (2016) claimed that sometimes, “the L1 of the students might not encode or construe technicality in the same way as English” (p. 49). An example of this is Excerpt 8, where the teacher explains what happens to the muscles when one exercises too much, which is a concept incorporated in the term *Muskelkater* (muscle hangover). Since there is no direct equivalent for this feeling of sore or aching muscles after exercising too much in English, the teacher chooses to explicitly translanguage by using *we*—meaning us who speak German—and explaining that *we* have a term for this concept, which we call *Muskelkater*.

Excerpt 8. CLIL biology lesson 20150518_1e

- | | |
|-------|--|
| 1. T1 | This has to do something with <i>Muskelkater</i> . We call it s- uhm <i>Muskelkater</i> that your muscles actually hurt after an exercise. |
|-------|--|
-

This may have something to do with the aforementioned principle of least effort: if there is an existing technical term encoding the whole concept in the ML but not in the TL, it might be easier (although not necessarily pedagogically preferable) to simply use the term already encoding the concept, instead of explaining it to the students in the TL.

Translanguaging also creates a space that allows for linguistic creativity. In fact, two purposes identified by Moore and Nikula (2016, pp. 224-226) for salient translanguaging concern joint negotiation of subject-specific language and the creative use of two languages as a resource. Excerpt 9 shows a particularly interesting exchange in this regard: the teacher draws on both the TL and the ML to discuss subject-specific language (line 1), which then triggers a linguistically creative exchange (lines 2-3). In this case, subject-specific language revolves around the word *peanuts* and how the English and German names are actually misleading since peanuts do not belong to the taxonomy of nuts. This then triggers an exchange where the student, following the teacher’s explanation, attempts to create the taxonomically correct name for peanuts in German (line 2), which is then completed by the teacher’s creative coinage of the German terms *Erderbsen* (earthpeas) and *Erdbohlen* (earthbeans) (line 3).

Excerpt 9. CLIL biology lesson 20150528_1b

- | | |
|-------|---|
| 1. T2 | <i>Erdnüsse</i> . Well, uhm this is all, the also the, the English name peanuts , pea is correct, it belongs to the family of of peas , of beans, but nuts is incorrect. These are not nuts . |
| 2. S | Peanuts are not nuts . And in German, <i>Erdnüsse</i> , <i>Erd</i> , earth , is correct, because they (live), they grow underground, but of course, nuts , <i>Nüsse</i> , it’s not correct. <i>Ja</i> . |
| 3. S | So, peanuts in German should actually (be) called <i>Erd-</i> , <i>Erd-</i> |
| 4. T2 | <i>Erderbsen</i> . <i>Ja</i> . Something like that or <i>Erdbohlen</i> . |
-

Contrary to Moore and Nikula (2016,), I have not found any instances of “learners’ joint negotiation of subject-specific language,” where peers are “stepping in with support when their colleagues signal gaps by translanguaging” (p. 224-225). In cases where a student signals a gap by translanguaging, it is the teacher, not the peer, who provides the missing term (as illustrated in Excerpts 4 and 5). Apart from this, though, I have found salient translanguaging practices in CLIL biology lessons to be used very similarly to the contexts shown in Moore and Nikula’s work.

4.1.2. Unmarked translanguaging in CLIL biology lessons

Unmarked translanguaging, as explained in Section 3.2, refers to situations in the classroom where translanguaging is used, but not explicitly focused on, i.e. the interaction goes on “as if nothing unusual has occurred” (Bonacina & Gafaranga, 2011, p. 329). With regard to unmarked translanguaging in CLIL biology classes, most occurrences are found in the regulative register (Christie, 2002), that is, in situations concerned with classroom management and not with content teaching. By far the most frequent occurrence of unmarked translanguaging concerns the use of certain established administrative terms in Standard German that do not exist as such in English. In Excerpt 10, for instance, the teacher closes the lesson by reminding his students that there will be an *Arbeitswoche* next week, which literally translates to *Labour Week*, but simply refers to a project work week.

Excerpt 10. CLIL biology lesson 20150521_1e

- | | |
|-------|--|
| 1. T1 | Next time in a week, we will make a class lesson uhm. So it will not be biology (xx) we'll talk about what's coming up soon, namely the <i>Arbeitswoche</i> . And then uh the next time uhm the lesson after that we will talk about what's happening in here in the chloroplasts. |
|-------|--|
-

In Excerpt 11, a student uses the word *Berufswahltag*—literally *Job Choosing Day*, which is a specific event taking place every year where students can inform themselves about future job opportunities.

Excerpt 11. CLIL biology lesson 20150505_2b

- | | |
|------|--|
| 1. S | (xx) we already we've already saw when we were there like <i>Berufswahltag</i> ? |
|------|--|
-

As is shown in the excerpts above, these terms are administrative and not subject-matter related. Importantly, these German terms contain highly contextualised meanings known to all participants. Following the principle of least effort, it makes sense to simply use these, rather than painstaking circumlocution to convey the same meaning in English.

Translanguaging can also occur when discourse markers from the whole repertoire are employed, which is a typical bilingual behaviour (see Moore & Nikula, 2016, p. 229; Nikula & Moore, 2016, p. 8). Although Standard German and Swiss German share some discourse markers with English such as *so* or *okay*—in which case it is impossible to determine the exact source of the discourse marker—I found examples where the discourse marker *aso* in Swiss German (*also* in Standard German) meaning *so* or *that is* was transferred to English. Excerpt 12 shows the teacher using this discourse marker.

Excerpt 12. CLIL biology lesson 20150528_1b

- | | |
|-------|--|
| 1. T2 | the stem is shiny, <i>aso</i> [that is] shiny surface. |
|-------|--|
-

Another unmarked translanguaging practice that is illustrated in Moore and Nikula (2016, p. 229, extract 22) consists of the teacher using the L1 to make a meta-comment. In Excerpt 13, the teacher switches to Swiss German to make a meta-comment to himself about his action, before returning to content teaching in English.

Excerpt 13. CLIL biology lesson 20150505_2b

- | | |
|-------|---|
| 1. T2 | It's the Sebastian et al. is it (Früh)? <i>Ah i muess no einisch go luege</i> . [Ah I have to look at this again]. It is this one here. |
|-------|---|
-

Thus, I have found instances of translanguaging with contextualised Standard German to be the most frequent unmarked translanguaging practice, one that did not occur in Moore and Nikula's (2016) data (see for example pp. 226-231). Similar to them, I found occurrences of unmarked translanguaging in the form of

discourse markers and meta-comments. I did not, however, find any unmarked translanguaging due to signalling alignment or emotional charge (see pp. 230-231).

4.1.3. Salient and unmarked translanguaging in non-CLIL biology lessons

Translanguaging has received much less attention in monolingual content classes where the ML is the medium of instruction and, thus, the focus is on content learning and not on language. However, looking at the non-CLIL data of biology lessons, there are in fact instances of translanguaging. On the one hand, this has to do with the sociolinguistic context of this study, where the medium of instruction (Standard German) is not the language students typically converse in (Swiss German). Consequently, it seems logical to find instances of translanguaging in non-CLIL lessons involving Standard and Swiss German. On the other hand, this also has to do with the subject matter, as will be seen further below. Starting with unmarked translanguaging, there are similar instances as in the CLIL biology lesson, for instance with regard to the discourse marker *aso*, as shown in Excerpt 14.

Excerpt 14. Non-CLIL biology lesson 20150505_1f2

-
- | | |
|------|--|
| 1. S | Uhm <i>aso</i> es hat unten so Stacheln und die sind uhm gegen Fisch <i>aso</i> dass sie nicht gefressen werden.
[Uhm <i>so</i> it has spikes down there and they are uhm against fish <i>that is</i> that they don't get eaten.] |
|------|--|
-

Similar to Excerpt 13 in the previous section, the teachers, Swiss German speakers themselves, also use Swiss German for making meta-comments reflecting on their own actions, as illustrated in Excerpt 15.

Excerpt 15. Non-CLIL biology lesson 20150505_1f1

-
- | | |
|-------|--|
| 1. T1 | <i>Das mussi no ufschribe dass es richtig esch gsi.</i> Uh können Hefe können Atmung und Gärung betreiben wenn Sauerstoff zur Verfügung steht?
[<i>I just have to note that down that it was correct.</i> Uh can yeast can run respiration and fermentation if there is oxygen?] |
|-------|--|
-

Both excerpts above include instances of unmarked translanguaging through the use of Swiss German discourse markers (Excerpt 14) or meta-comments (Excerpt 15). Interestingly, the most common salient translanguaging practice in the CLIL biology lessons—translating key terms (see Excerpts 1 and 2)—is also found in the non-CLIL lesson. In Excerpt 16, the teacher provides the English equivalent of the term in question.

Excerpt 16. Non-CLIL biology lesson 20150505_2h

-
- | | |
|-------|---|
| 1. T2 | Deshalb sind ja auch die uh Herzsehnen hier <i>heart strings</i> (xx) die verhindern dass diese Klappe hier durchschlägt und einfach so auf die andere Seite umklappt.
[That's why the uh heart strings here <i>heart strings</i> (xx) which prevent that this valve here penetrates and simply turns down to the other side.] |
|-------|---|
-

One explanation for this excerpt could be that the teacher provides the translation of the term in order to draw students' attention to this fact that the language of science is generally English. However, since the English equivalent is directly followed by unintelligible talk, it is hard to come up with a conclusive interpretation for the teachers' translanguaging behaviour in this specific excerpt. Nevertheless, it shows that salient translanguaging from Standard German to English is also present in the non-CLIL lesson.

As mentioned in Section 3.1, biology lessons in Switzerland provide a rich context for the study of translanguaging since there are multiple languages at work simultaneously. While all the previous excerpts involved translanguaging with Swiss German, Standard German and/or English, the following excerpts illustrate translanguaging practices involving the source languages of the subject-specific terminology. Natural sciences in general have a high amount of technical terms, many of which derive from languages such

as Latin (e.g. *synthesis*, *assmiliation*) or Greek (e.g. *photo-*, *chlorophyll*). If we adopt a broader view of translanguaging that goes beyond the simple use of the TL and ML/L1, translanguaging with the source languages of subject-specific terminology must be included in this investigation.

An example of this can be found in Excerpt 17. The teacher is explaining the term assimilation. In order to do that, he employs all of his and his students' existing linguistic resources by drawing on related familiar terms from French and English. At the end of his turn, the teacher explicitly asks the students what the word *similar/similaire* in English or French means in German. A student then provides the correct translation (line 2), and from this the teacher then reconstructs the technical term assimilation.

Excerpt 17. Non-CLIL biology lesson 20150526_1f2

- | | |
|-------|--|
| 1. T2 | Assimilation. Gehen wir vom gehen wir vom Begriff aus. Simile kennen Sie aus dem Englischen aus dem Französischen, also die Endung ist ein bisschen anders similar or or similaire . Französisch oder Englisch similar heisst was? Ja?
[Assimilation. Let's start with let's start with the term itself. Simile you know from English or French, well the ending is a bit different similar or or similaire . French or English similar means what? Yes?] |
| 2. S | Gleich und gleichwertig.
[Same and equivalent.] |
| 3. T2 | Gleich ja. Gleich. Und bei der Assimilation werden diejenigen Prozesse bezeichnet die Stoffe gleichmachen wie die eigenen Stoffe, und das ist zum Beispiel was die Photosynthese macht [...] Und deshalb wird werden Prozesse wie die Photosynthese Assimila- auch Assimilation genannt.
[Same yes. Same. And assimilation is what we call processes that make substances the same like their own substances, and this is for example what photosynthesis does. (...)
And this is why processes such as photosynthesis are also called assimilation .] |
-

Although the term *assimilation* originally derives from Latin *assimilare*⁸, the teacher draws on more familiar resources the students may have (i.e. French and English⁹) in order to break down the meaning of the word itself. This is a good example of the pedagogical strategy of unpacking-repacking (Lin 2016), where teachers break down technical terms (i.e. unpacking) and then repack or put everything together in order to show the students how the term is used in scientific discourse. In this example, the teacher then repacks *assimilation* and shows the students why processes such as photosynthesis are considered processes of assimilation. Here translanguaging serves to clarify not only key lexis, but also to help students understand the scientific concept behind the key lexis.

It becomes even more interesting when we look at what the teacher does in the following excerpt. Excerpt 18 is taken from the same lesson, but this time the teacher explains the opposite of assimilation—dissimilation. He takes a similar approach by drawing on French and English as resources.

Excerpt 18. Non-CLIL biology lesson 20150526_1f2

- | | |
|-------|---|
| 1. T2 | und die Umkehrung davon etwas ungleich machen. Jetzt muss ich grad überlegen auf Französisch ungleich. Das Gegenteil von similaire ich muss irgendeine Vorsilbe im Französischen davorhängen. Ich bin nicht nicht, ich weiss, ich weiss nicht aso, der Fachbegriff ist Dissimilation . Dis- und Dis- uh ist ein Vorsilbe übersetzt mit un-ungleich. Dis- was gibts schlaues Wort mit dis- das mit dis- beginnt. Kommen nur englische Wörter in den Sinn. Englisch wird sehr die die Vorsilbe dis- sehr oft verwendet für un-. Disease . Ja disease danke ja. Disease . Uh ease das bedeutet wohl, dass es einem wohl ist. Man ist at ease dann ist es einem wohl, disease das heisst eigentlich unwohl, unwohl sein.
[and the opposite of it is to make something not the same. Now I have to just think what is not the same in French. The opposite of similar I have to add some prefix in French. I |
|-------|---|
-

⁸ <http://www.oed.com/view/Entry/11934?redirectedFrom=assimilation#eid>.

⁹ Pupils in the canton of Basel-Land start learning French in grade 3 and English in grade 5 (EDK 2013, p. 2).

am not, no, I know, I don't know so, the technical term is **dissimilation**. **Dis-** and **dis-** uh is a prefix translated as not not-the-same. **Dis-** what clever word is there that with **dis-** starts with **dis-**. Can only think of English words. English the the prefix **dis-** is frequently used for not. **Disease**. Yes **disease** thanks yes. **Disease**. Uh **ease** this means well, that one is at ease. One is **at ease**, then one is well. **Disease** that means actually not well, not being well.]

In this example, first, based on the previous explanation, the teacher associates the opposite of assimilation, *dissimilation*, with making "something not the same." The teacher then draws on French, but eventually struggles to come up with the opposite of *similaire*. In the middle of the excerpt, he clarifies that "the technical term is *dissimilation*." He then goes on to dissect the word, singling out the prefix *dis-* as meaning *not*. In the end, he comes up with the English example of *disease*, and he explains how the prefix *dis-* changes the semantics of the word it is attached to, and that, consequently the technical term *dissimilation* means making something "not the same".

Other examples of this kind of salient translanguaging occur in the non-CLIL biology lessons, as Excerpts 19 and 20 illustrate. In Excerpt 19, the teacher explicitly asks for the meaning of the Greek word *chloro*, and when the student provides the answer (line 2), the teacher uses this to reconstruct the literal meaning of the word *chlorophyll*.

Excerpt 19. Non-CLIL biology lesson 20150526_1f2

- | | |
|-------|--|
| 1. T2 | Was heisst chloro ? Wer weiss es gerade? Ja ?
[What does chloro mean? Who knows this? Yes?] |
| 2. S | Grün.
[Green.] |
| 3. T2 | Genau, grün. Also Chlorophyll heisst auf Deutsch Blattgrün.
[Exactly, green. So chlorophyll means in German Leaf green.] |
-

Excerpt 20 deals with the concept of holo- and hemi-metabolic metamorphosis. Insects can be holometabolic, meaning they go through a complete metamorphosis (e.g., butterflies), whereas hemimetabolic insects do not change considerably in their appearance from larval to adult stage (e.g., locusts). By explaining the literal meaning of the Greek prefixes *holo-* and *hemi-*, the concept of complete and half metamorphosis becomes more graspable.

Excerpt 20. Non-CLIL biology lesson 20150507_2h

- | | |
|-------|---|
| 1. T2 | Imago ist das erwachsene Tier. Das ist holometabol . Holo heisst?
[Imago is the adult animal. This is holometabolic . Holo means?] |
| 2. S1 | Ganz.
[Whole] |
| 3. T2 | Dankeschön, ja. Ganz. Sollte auf der Liste draufstehen.
[Thank you, yes. Whole. Should be on the list.] |
| 4. S1 | Stimmt.
[True.] |
| 5. T2 | Die Alternative ist hemimetabol . Hemi heisst?
[The alternative is hemimetabolic . Hemi means?] |
| 6. Ss | Halb.
[Half] |
| 7. T2 | Halb. Ja das ist wunderbar wie das chunnt. Hemi heisst halb.
[Half. Yes this is wonderful how this turns out. Hemi means half.] |
-

If we find this kind of translanguaging in the non-CLIL biology classes with German, we might also find these in the CLIL biology lessons with English. And indeed, as the subsequent section shows, this translanguaging practice is also present in CLIL biology lessons.

4.1.4. Translanguaging with source languages in CLIL biology classes

Similar to the salient translanguaging examples in the previous section, Excerpt 21 illustrates this translanguaging practice in the CLIL biology lesson. The topic of the lesson is dendrochronology¹⁰, the scientific study of dating trees by counting their rings. The teacher uses translanguaging with the Greek roots in order to assist students understanding the term and the concept behind it. He translates the first part of the term *dendro*, then goes on by asking the students whether they have an idea of what the second part of the term—*chronos*—means. Although S1's answer in line 2 is unintelligible, based on the teacher's reaction (line 3), it seems not to have been the correct answer. The teacher makes another analogy to *chronologer*, a word for a stopwatch, which then triggers the correct answer by S2 in line 4.

Excerpt 21. CLIL biology lesson 20150518_1b

-
- | | | |
|----|----|--|
| 1. | T | Dendro could you know the word dendro ? Probably not. Dendro is a tree. Chronos that's a word you might know chronolog of chronology . |
| 2. | S1 | (xx) |
| 3. | T | It's not exactly no, a chronometry that's if therefore what is chr- what we call a stopwatch was originally called a chronologer , yes? |
| 4. | S2 | Time. |
| 5. | T | It's time, time, yes. |
-

Excerpt 22 works in the same way—the teacher explicitly asks what the term *blastoderm* means, and the student replies by deconstructing the term into its components *blasto* and *derm* and their literal equivalents in English¹¹.

Excerpt 22. CLIL biology lesson 20150526_2b

-
- | | | |
|----|----|---|
| 1. | T2 | Blastoderm what is a blastoderm ? Martina ¹² ? |
| 2. | S1 | Blasto means germ and derm skin. |
| 3. | T | Mmh. Exactly. |
-

In Excerpt 23, a similar exchange occurs. The topic revolves around the meaning of the term *exodermis*. In line 1, the student initiates this translanguaging exchange first by translanguaging herself to Swiss German (*ah nei*) and then directing her question to the teacher in English by asking whether *exo* actually means outside, which is confirmed by the teacher (line 2). The student then deduces that *exodermis* in that case must be outside of the *epidermis*. She then states that she does not know what *dermis* means. The teacher provides the translation in line 4, and then continues himself by inquiring whether the students know the meaning of *epi*. Although the student does not know the literal meaning of the prefix *epi*, she knows a German word starting with this prefix. Taking up the student's idea of epicentre and recasting his initial question in line 8, the student (line 9) suggests that deducing from the word epicentre, *epi* must mean “more in the middle”. The teacher corrects this (line 12) by clarifying that *epi* actually means “above the centre,” whereupon the student (line 13) concludes that *epi* is “more outside” than *exo*, which is then confirmed by the teacher and put into perspective with the technical term *endodermis* (lines 14 and 16).

¹⁰ This is a great example of a technical term that can be broken down by engaging with source languages. The Greek word *dendro* stands for *tree*, *chronos* means *time* in Greek, and the Greek suffix *-logy* can be translated as *the science/study of*. Thus, the literal meanings of these three terms already contain all the information one needs—dendrochronology is the study of time in trees.

¹¹ What is not shown in Excerpt 22 is the teacher's repacking of the term, where he, based on the student's explanation, uses the literal meaning “germ skin” to explain and describe the specific stage of *blastoderm* in the embryonic development.

¹² All names of participants have been changed in order to preserve their anonymity.

Excerpt 23. CLIL biology lesson 20150504_1b

1.	S	Uhm (xx) <i>ah nei</i> (xx) and doesn't uhm exo mean outside?
2.	T2	Yes.
3.	S	So it would be outside the epidermis oh now it's dermis , what does dermis mean?
4.	T2	Dermis is skin.
5.	S	Aha.
6.	T2	And epo what does epi mean that's the question.
7.	S	Mmh ah Epizentrum.
8.	T2	Mmh it's an epicentre yes. What does epi mean?
9.	S	So more in the middle than outside.
10.	T2	No.
11.	S	Okay then.
12.	T2	Epicerter epi has nothing to do with centre, epi is something above the centre.
13.	S	Mmh, so it's more outside than exo .
14.	T2	Epi in this at least in this case it's more outside and then you have exo and exo in many contrast to endo .
15.	S	Ah.
16.	T2	There is also the endodermis .

All of these excerpts (17-23) show that translanguaging including the source languages of subject-specific technical vocabulary can be a very efficient scaffolding strategy in CLIL and non-CLIL biology lessons. It might have attracted the meticulous reader's attention that all of the excerpts concerning salient translanguaging in Sections 4.1.3 and 4.1.4 come from only one of the two teachers. Indeed, only T2 translanguages with languages other than English, Standard German or Swiss German.

4.2. Teacher perspectives

Although translanguaging occurred in both teachers' classrooms, only one teacher, T2, engaged in translanguaging practices using the source languages (Latin, Greek) of subject-specific vocabulary and did so in both CLIL and non-CLIL lessons. This section examines both teachers' attitudes with regard to the use of English in their classes to see whether their translanguaging practices might be reflected in their attitude towards translanguaging.

Interestingly, in the interviews, both teachers reveal that they imagine their CLIL classrooms as idealised monolingual spaces.

Interview Excerpt 2.

1.	T1	I am consistent in the classroom. As soon as I hear Swiss German, I tell them they should talk in English. But this is a Sisyphean task. I do it nevertheless, I do it consistently until the higher grades (xx). And I simply remind them. And I also understand that they fall back. That is, back to the mother tongue, this is somehow understandable. Uhm yeah. Yes, it- it is annoying because I consistently have to remind them. Because it actually is a concern of mine that they can speak English. And I also make this extra effort since it neither is my mother tongue. And yeah, but it is not disruptive, it simply is an extra effort yeah.
----	----	---

In Interview Excerpt 2, T1 explains that he has to consistently remind his students to speak in English (TL), so that they will not switch back to Swiss German (L1). By calling it a "Sisyphean task," he hints at the fact that students very easily slip back to speaking Swiss German with each other and that his reminding never holds for long. His statement that "it is actually a concern of mine that they can speak English" particularly reveals his ideology of a monolingual classroom. It shows the teacher's idea that learning English is directly connected to the amount of exposure; that is, the stricter the focus on the TL English, the more his students will learn. This attitude regarding the use of English is also present, and perhaps more extreme, in T2's interview.

Interview Excerpt 3.

-
- | | |
|-------|---|
| 1. T2 | Outside of biology class, I actually expect and I tell them this in the beginning as well, I expect that they whatever lies within the scope of school, that is here in the school building, here I expect that they speak English. [...] This is- this is immersion is diving in. And actually I expect tell them that, but sometimes the implementation is a bit rocky. When they enter this door here inside it's English. It's English. |
|-------|---|
-

In Interview Excerpt 3, T2 goes as far as requesting that his students talk to him in English even outside of the classroom. He explains this view by saying that this is “immersion,” and immersion is “diving in.”

One of the earliest arguments for CLIL was this metaphor of the language bath (Bürgi, 2007), i.e., that simple additional exposure to a language automatically increases the proficiency of that language. This view has largely been rejected, however, as it is convincingly claimed that simple exposure is not enough to enhance proficiency (see e.g. Llinares, Morton, & Whittaker, 2012). Additionally, the idea of a monolingual classroom rarely holds true. This is something that both teachers hint at in their interviews. T1, for instance, explicitly says that his students often fall back on talking in Swiss German and that he has to constantly remind them to speak in English. T2 says it less explicitly, but hints at the same idea: when he says that “sometimes the implementation is a bit rocky,” he means that the “implementation” of only speaking English is not always easy and does not always work, as was shown in the analyses of classroom exchanges. Interestingly, it is only T2, the teacher with the stricter attitude towards English-only use in and outside of his classroom, who engages in translanguaging practices involving the source languages of technical words (see Sections 4.1.3 and 4.1.4). This shows that teachers’ attitudes towards translanguaging do not necessarily coincide with their practices.

Yet, T2 does not specifically discuss the use of vocabulary-specific source languages as translanguaging. Since he translanguages using vocabulary-specific source languages in both the CLIL *and* non-CLIL lessons, it may imply that he sees this practice primarily as a strategy to teach biology in general, no matter the programme (CLIL or non-CLIL). However, even after the qualitative investigation it seems that T2 does in fact translanguange more frequently, not only with regard to source languages, but also in regards to L1/ML and TL. It would thus be interesting to investigate quantitatively whether T2 indeed uses more translanguaging with the L1/ML in the CLIL classes as compared to T1, and, thus, whether his extreme attitude towards English-only is really not reflected in his practice.

5. Conclusion

In this article, I examined the translanguaging practices in two teachers’ CLIL and non-CLIL biology lessons. In both teachers’ CLIL lessons, I found salient translanguaging involving the TL and L1/ML. This kind of translanguaging was used in order to clarify and negotiate key lexis and scientific concepts (teacher- and student-initiated), to exploit student knowledge, and to create space for linguistic creativity. Unmarked translanguaging was found in both the CLIL and non-CLIL lessons, in the form of discourse markers and meta-comments, and, in the CLIL lessons, in the use of highly contextualised ML words. Importantly, by looking at the data with a more inclusive view of translanguaging, I also found instances of translanguaging with the source languages of the subject-specific vocabulary. This involved translanguaging with the etymology of technical terminology such as Latin or Greek. These kinds of translanguaging practices were identified in both CLIL and non-CLIL biology lessons, and the excerpts in Sections 4.1.3 and 4.1.4 have shown how this practice can enhance and scaffold students’ understanding of scientific terminology and its associated concepts. In fact, these excerpts show that translanguaging with subject-specific terminology, using all linguistic resources available, can be an efficient pedagogy to clarify and negotiate meaning in biology lessons.

Further research, however, is needed to validate to what extent this kind of translanguaging is actually successful in facilitating content learning.. Nevertheless, translanguaging provides a potential tool to help students comprehend complex concepts. For instance, in Excerpt 7, when T1 struggled to explain the word *affinity* to his students, drawing on resources from Latin (*affinitas*) and French (*affinité*) may at least have provided another possible avenue for students to understand the meaning of this word. This kind of translanguaging—engaging with the source languages of technical terms to deduce and negotiate scientific concepts—can therefore be a pedagogy that is particularly useful in CLIL. In light of recent research

investigating the subject-specific requirements for CLIL teachers and students (see e.g. Hüttner & Smit, 2018; Lorenzo & Dalton-Puffer, 2016; McCabe & Whittaker, 2017), this study shows the potential of translanguaging as an effective, perhaps even necessary, pedagogical tool in biology lessons. While translanguaging, including source languages of technical terms, is not necessarily restricted to the subject of biology, it does seem particularly useful for subjects with a high density of technical words. It would be interesting to explore translanguaging with source languages in other subjects to understand the value of such a pedagogy for different CLIL subjects.

This article also highlights the need, in research on translanguaging practices, to pair data from surveys, questionnaires, and interviews with transcripts from actual classroom interaction. Too often still, researchers rely on self-reported data, as in Lasagabaster's (2013) study, which discusses teachers' L1 use, but is actually referring to their self-reported LI use. As Gierlinger (2015) states:

The majority of these studies base teachers' beliefs on code switching on qualitative interviews or questionnaires without any reference to classroom data, and therefore may run the risk of presenting a perspective whose results do not adequately portray the complexity of the classroom code-switching context. (p. 351)

While studies that focus on teachers' reported language use can give us important insights into the attitudes that shape teaching, this study shows that what teachers say they do and what they do are not always the same. While T2 in this study is the teacher with more extreme attitude towards the use of English in, and even outside of, his classroom (based on the belief that more exposure leads to more proficiency), he indeed seems to engage in more translanguaging than T1, using not only the TL of English, the ML of Standard German and his L1 Swiss German, but also the source languages of the subject-specific vocabulary. Thus, studies that draw only on surveys, questionnaires, and interviews may actually tell us very little about actual classroom discourse, and further research linking teacher attitudes and actual translanguaging practices is needed.

Transcription notes

Identity of speakers

T1, T2	teacher 1, teacher 2
S	unidentified student
S1, S2	probably student 1, student 2
Ss	several or all students simultaneously

Commentary in the transcript

(x), (xx)	indicates a stretch of talk unintelligible to the researcher
(founder)	indicates an unclear or probable item
[thanks]	indicates the English translation of an utterance made in the ML or L1
the cell means <i>Zelle</i>	bold font shows key terms that are subject of translanguaging, whereas italics show the actual translanguaging practice

References

- Baker, Colin (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th ed.). Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Bundesamt für Statistik (2017). *Die Bevölkerung der Schweiz 2016*. Neuchâtel: Bundesamt für Statistik.

- Bonacina, Florence, & Gafaranga, Joseph (2011). 'Medium of instruction' vs. 'medium of classroom interaction': Language choice in a French complementary school classroom in Scotland. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 14(3), 319–334.
- Büeler, Xavier, Stebler, Rita, Stöckli, Georg, & Stotz, Daniel (2010). *Evaluation "Schulprojekt 21" - Executive summary*. Retrieved from <http://www.ife.uzh.ch/de/research/ppd/forschung/abgeschlosseneprojekte/evaluationen/schulprojekt21.html>
- Bürgi, Heidi (2007). *Im Sprachbad: Besseres Englisch durch Immersion. Eine Evaluation zweisprachiger Ausbildungsgänge an drei kantonalen Gymnasien in der Schweiz* (1. Aufl. ed.). Bern, Switzerland: Hep Verlag.
- Canagarajah, Suresh (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 401–417. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01207.x>
- Cenoz, Jasone, & Gurter, Durk (Eds.). (2015). *Multilingual education: Between language learning and translanguaging*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Christie, Frances (2002). *Classroom discourse analysis: A functional perspective*. London, United Kingdom: Continuum.
- Conteh, Jean, & Meier, Gabriela (Eds.). (2014). *The multilingual turn in languages education: Opportunities and challenges*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters
- Coyle, Do, Hood, Philip, & Marsh, David (2010). *CLIL: Content and language integrated learning*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Creese, Angela, & Blackledge, Adrian (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>
- Cummins, Jim (2005) A proposal for action: Strategies for recognizing heritage language competence as a learning resource within the mainstream classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 89(4), 585–592.
- Cummins, Jim (2007) Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 10(2), 221–240.
- Cummins, Jim (2008) Teaching for transfer: Challenging the two solitudes assumption in bilingual education. In Jim Cummins & Nancy H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (2 ed., Vol. 5: Bilingual education, pp. 65–75). New York, New York: Springer.
- Dalton-Puffer, Christiane (2007). *Discourse in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- EDA - Presence Switzerland (2017). Language – facts and figures. Retrieved from <https://www.eda.admin.ch/aboutswitzerland/en/home/gesellschaft/sprachen/die-sprachen---fakten-und-zahlen.html>
- EDK - Erziehungsdirektoren (2013). *Ich lerne Sprachen: Eine Informationsbroschüre zum Lernen von zwei Fremdsprachen ab der Primarschule*. Bern: Schweizerische Konferenz der kantonalen Erziehungsdirektoren (EDK). Retrieved from <http://www.edk.ch/dyn/26820.php>
- Elmiger, Daniel (2008). *Die zweisprachige Maturität in der Schweiz: Die variantenreiche Umsetzung einer bildungspolitischen Innovation*. Bern, Switzerland: Staatssekretariat für Bildung und Forschung. (SBF).
- Gallagher, Fiona, & Colohan, Gerry (2017). T(w)o and fro: Using the L1 as a language teaching tool in the CLIL classroom. *The Language Learning Journal*, 45(4), 485–498. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2014.947382>
- García, Ofelia (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Wiley-Blackwell.
- García, Ofelia (2012). Theorizing translanguaging for educators. In Christina Celic, & Kate Seltzer (Eds.), *Translanguaging: A CUNY-NYSIEB guide for educators* (pp. 1–6). New York, New York: CUNY-NYSIEB.
- García, Ofelia, & Li Wei (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Basingstoke, United Kingdom: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Gené Gil, Maria, Juan Garau, Maria, & Salazar Noguera, Joana (2012). A case study exploring oral language choice between the target language and the L1s in mainstream CLIL and EFL secondary education. *Revista de Lingüística y Lenguas Aplicadas*, 7(1), 133–145. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4995/rlyla.2012.1129>
- Gierlinger, Erwin (2015). ‘You can speak German, sir’: On the complexity of teachers’ L1 use in CLIL. *Language and Education*, 29(4), 347–368. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2015.1023733>
- Hall, Graham, & Cook, Guy (2012). Own-language use in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching*, 45(3), 271–308. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000067>
- Holmström, Ingela, & Schönström, Krister (2018). Deaf lecturers’ translanguaging in a higher education setting. A multimodal multilingual perspective. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 9(1), 90–111. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2017-0078>
- Hüttner, Julia, & Smit, Ute (2018). Negotiating political positions: Subject-specific oral language use in CLIL classrooms. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(3), 287–302. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2017.1386616>
- Lasagabaster, David (2013). The use of the L1 in CLIL classes: The teachers’ perspective. *Latin American Journal of Content & Language Integrated Learning*, 6(2), 1–21.
- Lasagabaster, David, & García, Ofelia (2014). Translanguaging: Towards a dynamic model of bilingualism at school / Translanguaging: Hacia un modelo dinámico de bilingüismo en la escuela. *Cultura y Educación*, 26(3), 557–572. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/11356405.2014.973671>
- Lemke, Jay L. (1990). *Talking science: Language, learning, and values*. Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex.
- Lewis, Gwyn, Jones, Bryn, & Baker, Colin (2012a). Translanguaging: Developing its conceptualisation and contextualisation. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 655–670. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718490>
- Lewis, Gwyn, Jones, Bryn, & Baker, Colin (2012b). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 641–654. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718488>
- Li Wei (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics*, 39(1), 9–30. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx039>
- Lin, Angel M. Y. (2016). *Language across the curriculum & CLIL in English as an additional language (EAL) contexts: Theory and practice*. Singapore: Springer.
- Llinares, Ana, Morton, Tom, & Whittaker, Rachel (2012). *The roles of language in CLIL*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Lo, Yuen Yo, & Macaro, Ernesto (2012). The medium of instruction and classroom interaction: Evidence from Hong Kong secondary schools. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(1), 29–52. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2011.588307>
- Lorenzo, Francisco, & Dalton-Puffer, Christiane (2016). Historical literacy in CLIL: Telling the past in a second language. In Tarja Nikula, Emma Dafouz, Pat Moore, & Ute Smit (Eds.), *Conceptualising integration in CLIL and multilingual education* (pp. 55–72). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Marsh, David, Maljers, Anne, & Hartiala, Aini-Kristiina (Eds.). (2001). *Profiling European CLIL classrooms*. Jyväskylä, Finland: University of Jyväskylä and European Platform for Dutch Education.
- May, Stephen (Ed.). (2014). *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and bilingual education*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- Mazak, Catherine M., & Carroll, Kevin S. (Eds.). (2017). *Translanguaging in higher education: Beyond monolingual ideas*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- McCabe, Anne, & Whittaker, Rachel (2017). Genre and appraisal in CLIL history texts: Developing the voice of the historian. In Ana Llinares & Tom Morton (Eds.), *Applied linguistics perspectives on CLIL* (pp. 105–124). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- McDougald, Jermaine S., & Anderson, Carl Edlund (2015). CLIL and education coming together: The crossroads for multilingualism. *Latin American Journal of Content & Language Integrated Learning*, 8(2), 73–83. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5294/laclil.2015.9.2.1>

- Méndez García, María del Carmen, & Pavón Vázquez, Víctor (2012). Investigating the coexistence of the mother tongue and the foreign language through teacher collaboration in CLIL contexts: Perceptions and practice of the teachers involved in the plurilingual programme in Andalusia. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(5), 573–592. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.670195>
- Moore, Pat, & Nikula, Tarja (2016). Translanguaging in CLIL classrooms. In Tarja Nikula, Emma Dafouz, Pat Moore, & Ute Smit (Eds.), *Conceptualising integration in CLIL and multilingual education* (pp. 211–234). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Murray, Joseph, J. (2018). The Baobab: Translanguaging in a multimodal sign language translation project. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 9(1), 135–156. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2017-0085>
- Nikula, Tarja, & Moore, Pat (2016). Exploring translanguaging in CLIL. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1–13. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1254151>
- Paulsrud, BethAnne (2014). *English-Medium Instruction in Sweden: Perspectives and practices in two upper secondary schools*. (Doctoral thesis). Stockholm University, Stockholm. Retrieved from <http://su.diva-portal.org/smash/record.jsf?pid=diva2%3A715747&dswid=-5048>
- Paulsrud, BethAnne (2016). English-medium instruction in Sweden: Perspectives and practices in two upper secondary schools. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education*, 4(1), 108–128. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/jicb.4.1.05pau>
- Paulsrud, BethAnne, Rosén, Jenny, Straszer, Boglárka, & Wedin, Åsa (Eds.). (2017). *New perspectives on translanguaging and education*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- SKBF - Schweizerische Koordinationsstelle für Bildungsforschung. (2014). *Bildungsbericht Schweiz 2014*. Aarau: Schweizerische Koordinationsstelle für Bildungsforschung.
- Tedick, Diane J., & Cammarata, Laurent (2012). Content and language integration in K–12 contexts: Student outcomes, teacher practices, and stakeholder perspectives. *Foreign Language Annals*, 45(s1), 28–53. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2012.01178.x>
- Toth, Jeanette (2018). *English-medium instruction for young learners in Sweden. A longitudinal case study of a primary school class in a bilingual English-Swedish school*. (Doctoral thesis). Stockholm University, Stockholm. Retrieved from <http://su.diva-portal.org/smash/record.jsf?pid=diva2%3A1205724&dswid=-5048>
- Williams, Cen (1994). *Arfarniad o Ddulliau Dysgu ac Addysgu yng Nghyd-destun Addysg Uwchradd Ddwyieithog, [An evaluation of teaching and learning methods in the context of bilingual secondary education]* (PhD thesis). University of Wales, Bangor. Retrieved from <http://e.bangor.ac.uk/id/eprint/9832>

Aline S. Bieri, University of Basel
 aline.bieri@unibas.ch

- EN** | **Aline Bieri** is a research and teaching assistant to Professor Miriam Locher in the English Department at the University of Basel. She holds a master's degree in English and Biology from the University of Basel and is currently completing her Ph.D. project, *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in the Swiss Context: The Linguistic Challenges and Implications of Teaching a Subject Such as Biology in English*.
- ES** | **Aline Bieri** trabaja con la profesora Miriam Locher como asistente de investigación y enseñanza en el Departamento de Inglés en la Universidad de Basel. Obtuvo su título de maestría en la Universidad de Basel en Inglés y biología y actualmente está completando su proyecto de doctorado, *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in the Swiss Context: The Linguistic Challenges and Implications of Teaching a Subject Such as Biology in English*.
- IT** | **Aline Bieri** è docente e assegnista di ricerca della Professoressa Miriam Locher nel Dipartimento di Inglese dell'Università di Basilea. Ha conseguito un master in Inglese e Biologia presso l'Università di Basilea e attualmente sta completando la sua tesi di dottorato dal titolo *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in the Swiss Context: The Linguistic Challenges and Implications of Teaching a Subject Such as Biology in English*.

García, Ofelia, Ibarra Johnson, Susanna, & Seltzer, Kate (2017). *The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning*. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Caslon.

LAURA GASCA JIMÉNEZ*

Fairfield University

Book review

Received 27 August 2018; received in revised form 29 October 2018; accepted 2 December 2018

ABSTRACT

ES Basado en la fundamentación teórica presentada en García y Li Wei (2014), que entiende el translenguar como “un enfoque centrado en el uso de la lengua, el bilingüismo y la educación de los bilingües que considera las prácticas lingüísticas de los bilingües no como dos sistemas lingüísticos autónomos (...) sino como un único repertorio lingüístico con características que has sido socialmente construidas y atribuidas a dos lenguas separadas” (p. 2), el trabajo de García, Ibarra Johnson y Seltzer (2017) posibilita la transición de la teoría translenguar a su implementación en contextos educativos bi/multilingües. Esta reseña sitúa la obra dentro del giro plurilingüe, ofrece una breve descripción de su contenido y destaca su contribución al campo de la enseñanza.

Palabras clave: LINGÜÍSTICA APLICADA, GIRO PLURILINGÜE, TRANSLENGUAR, ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE, REPERTORIO LINGÜÍSTICO

EN Based on the theoretical foundation presented in García and Li Wei (2014) that defines translanguaging as “an approach to the use of language, bilingualism, and the education of bilinguals that considers the language practices of bilinguals not as two autonomous language systems (...) but as one linguistic repertoire with features that have been societally constructed as belonging to two separate languages” (p. 2), the work of García, Ibarra Johnson, and Seltzer (2017) presents an application of translanguaging theory into practice in bi/multilingual educational contexts. This review situates their work within the plurilingual turn, offering a brief description of the book's contents and highlighting its contribution to the field of education.

Keywords: APPLIED LINGUISTICS, PLURILINGUAL TURN, TRANSLANGUAGING, BILINGUAL EDUCATION, LINGUISTIC REPERTOIRE

IT Basato sul quadro teorico presentato in García e Li Wei (2014), in cui il translinguismo viene inteso come “un approccio all'uso della lingua, al bilinguismo e all'istruzione dei bilingue, che considera le pratiche linguistiche dei bilingue non come due sistemi linguistici autonomi (...) ma come un unico repertorio con caratteristiche che sono state socialmente costruite come appartenenti a due lingue separate” [our translation] (p.2). Il lavoro di García, Ibarra Johnson e Seltzer (2017) rende possibile la transizione della teoria del translanguaging ad ambiti educativi bi/multilingui. Questa recensione situa il loro lavoro all'interno della svolta plurilingue, offrendo una breve descrizione dei suoi contenuti e evidenziando il suo contributo al settore dell'istruzione.

Parole chiave: LINGUISTICA APPLICATA, SVOLTA PLURILINGÜE, TRANSLANGUAGINF, EDUCAZIONE BILINGUE, REPERTORIO LINGUISTICO

En la última década, hemos presenciado un giro plurilingüe en la educación que ha suscitado un creciente interés por la adopción de pedagogías centradas en la interacción entre lenguas y la naturalización de las prácticas lingüísticas de los estudiantes bi/multilingües (p. ej., Corcoll, 2013; Colina & Lafford, 2017; González Davies, 2014, 2018;). Estas pedagogías responden a la nueva conceptualización de que los repertorios lingüísticos de los aprendientes están interconectados, en oposición a la perspectiva monolingüe de que las lenguas se compartimentan de forma independiente que ha dominado tradicionalmente la lingüística aplicada. Por ejemplo, el modelo pedagógico propuesto por González Davies (2018), basado en una

* Contact: lgascajimenez1@fairfield.edu

metodología socio-constructivista, fomenta el uso de estrategias plurilingües con el objetivo de normalizar las prácticas naturales de los estudiantes y favorecer la comunicación interlingüística e intercultural. Como ejemplo de estrategias plurilingües, esta autora propone el uso del translenguar y de la traducción. De forma similar, Colina y Lafford (2017) apuestan por la práctica de la traducción para fomentar la interacción entre lenguas y contribuir al desarrollo de habilidades de mediación en contextos de enseñanza de segundas lenguas y lenguas de herencia. Además, estas autoras fomentan la integración sistemática de la traducción como quinta destreza. En este contexto, la traducción se conceptualiza como un proceso de mediación:

We define translation as a cross-linguistic mediation process of, or a product resulting from, transferring or mediating text(s) of different lengths (ranging from words and sentences to entire books) from one human language to another, which generally requires a significant degree of resemblance or correspondence (Colina, 2015). We do not restrict the term translation exclusively to written texts, including also language mediation that occurs via oral (referred to in professional circles as interpreting) and hybrid media. (Colina y Lafford, 2017, p. 5)

De forma similar, y desde una perspectiva posestructuralista de la lengua, el enfoque translenguar se aleja de la visión tradicional del bilingüismo como dos sistemas lingüísticos independientes y defiende la existencia de un solo sistema lingüístico. Varios trabajos publicados hasta el momento han sentado las bases teóricas de la pedagogía translenguar (p. ej., Canagarajah, 2013; García, 2009; García & Li Wei, 2014), mientras que otros han adoptado una postura más didáctica al describir contextos educativos que adoptan esta pedagogía (p. ej., García & Kleyn, 2016). Sin embargo, *The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning*, editado por Ofelia García, Susana Ibarra Johnson y Kate Seltzer, destaca por ser el primero en brindar un puente entre la teoría y la práctica mediante explicaciones concisas sobre las bases teóricas del translenguar y pautas detalladas para su implementación. Se trata de un manual que entra en diálogo con los novedosos trabajos de González Davies (2014) y Carreres, Noriega-Sánchez y Caldach (2018) que, si bien se basan en la traducción pedagógica, comparten la visión plurilingüe de que los repertorios lingüísticos de los hablantes bi/multilingües están interconectados.

Dirigido principalmente a educadores de primaria y secundaria (K-12 en el contexto de los Estados Unidos), el trabajo de García, Ibarra Johnson y Seltzer está basado en la fundamentación teórica presentada en García y Li Wei (2014) que entiende el translenguar como

an approach to the use of language, bilingualism, and the education of bilinguals that considers the language practices of bilinguals not as two autonomous language systems, as has been traditionally the case, but as one linguistic repertoire with features that have been societally constructed as belonging to two separate languages. (p. 2)

Este volumen busca posibilitar la transición de la teoría translenguar a su implementación en contextos educativos bi/multilingües. Se encuentra dividido temáticamente en tres secciones y once capítulos: *Dynamic bilingualism at school* (capítulos 1-3), *Translanguaging pedagogy* (capítulos 4-7) y *Reimagining teaching and learning through translanguaging* (capítulos 8-11). Asimismo, incluye un glosario y un apéndice con diferentes materiales de instrucción y evaluación para usar en el aula. Los capítulos, divididos en tres apartados principales, siguen una misma estructura: primero, se presentan los objetivos de aprendizaje, luego el contenido central y, por último, preguntas de reflexión y actividades que fomentan el desarrollo, la implementación y la evaluación de prácticas pedagógicas que se adscriben a la teoría translenguar.

Los dos primeros capítulos introducen conceptos centrales de la pedagogía translenguar y presentan los tres pilares y los cuatro objetivos de esta pedagogía mediante la combinación de explicaciones teóricas y descripciones de contextos educativos reales. Estos dos primeros capítulos son particularmente útiles para aquellos lectores que no estén familiarizados con esta pedagogía. El tercer capítulo presenta materiales y estrategias que permiten identificar a los estudiantes bilingües, documentar sus perfiles lingüísticos y evaluar sus destrezas. El cuarto capítulo ilustra el primero de los tres pilares de la teoría translenguar, la orientación filosófica de los educadores (*translanguaging stance*). El quinto capítulo, basado en el segundo (*translanguaging design*) y tercer pilar (*translanguaging shifts*), describe cómo organizar y abastecer las aulas, diseñar materiales didácticos y poner en práctica estrategias pedagógicas del translenguar. El sexto capítulo se centra en el desarrollo de instrumentos y la puesta en práctica de estrategias que permitan evaluar el repertorio lingüístico de los estudiantes en su totalidad, es decir, tanto el desempeño lingüístico general

(*general linguistic performance*) como el específico en una lengua determinada (*language-specific performance*). El séptimo capítulo describe de forma minuciosa cómo implementar la pedagogía translenguar en el aula. El octavo capítulo explica cómo conciliar la pedagogía translenguar y los estándares educativos. El noveno capítulo se centra en cómo combinar la enseñanza de contenido y el desarrollo de destrezas de alfabetización. El décimo capítulo describe la implementación de un nuevo modelo de bialfabetización y, por último, el undécimo capítulo resalta dos objetivos fundamentales de la educación: el bienestar socioemocional de los estudiantes y la justicia social.

Escrito en un lenguaje claro y conciso, este libro, además de sintetizar la teoría translenguar con un objetivo práctico en mente, facilita la implementación de dicha teoría en contextos educativos bi/multilingües. Resulta particularmente relevante para el campo de la enseñanza de lenguas de herencia, área en la que proliferan las propuestas que promueven el multilingüismo y la inclusión de las experiencias previas de los estudiantes (p. ej., Leeman, 2018). Además, cabe celebrar el espacio central que se le otorga al bienestar socioemocional de los estudiantes a lo largo del volumen, un aspecto que, a pesar de su transcendencia, suele recibir limitada atención en los manuales sobre enseñanza. Numerosos son los capítulos que ofrecen estrategias pedagógicas para reconocer y considerar las prácticas lingüísticas de los estudiantes. Por ejemplo, en el tercer capítulo, los autores proponen la creación de perfiles bilingües que incluyan, por un lado, información sobre las lenguas que los estudiantes usan para comunicarse con familiares y amigos, su exposición a las lenguas, escolarización, niveles de alfabetización, lugar de nacimiento y los países en los que han residido y/o estudiado. Por otro lado, estos perfiles permiten recopilar información sobre las habilidades lingüísticas de los estudiantes en la clase.

Del mismo modo, es digno de mención el meticuloso trabajo comparativo que se lleva a cabo entre modelos tradicionales de enseñanza y otros más recientes entre los cuales destaca la comparación que se presenta en el décimo capítulo entre los modelos tradicionales de bialfabetización y el modelo de bilafabetización translenguar. Este cuidadoso trabajo comparativo permite que los educadores revisiten y adapten los modelos que tradicionalmente han puesto en práctica. Otro aspecto que ensalzar es que las recomendaciones pedagógicas no se limitan exclusivamente a la instrucción, sino que también se cubre detalladamente la evaluación. Así, en el sexto capítulo, se presenta un modelo de evaluación holístico y dinámico que, además de evaluaciones formativas por parte de los educadores, incluye autoevaluaciones, evaluaciones por pares/grupos y evaluaciones de familiares. Asimismo, el volumen no se centra exclusivamente en la enseñanza de lenguas, sino que trata la aplicabilidad de la pedagogía translenguar en otras áreas de enseñanza. Además, cabe subrayar que la atenta estructuración de los capítulos en objetivos de aprendizaje, contenido y actividades y preguntas de reflexión hace de este un volumen idóneo para la formación de educadores. Sin embargo, cabe advertir que, si bien el volumen resultaría de suma utilidad para educadores en contextos de educación superior, no se ofrecen directamente pautas para este público.

En definitiva, nos encontramos ante un volumen esperado que destaca por su actualidad y originalidad y que, sin duda alguna, constituye una valiosa aportación al campo de la enseñanza. Dada su organización temática y su orientación didáctica, se trata de un volumen muy recomendable tanto para profesores que estén formando a futuros educadores como para educadores que busquen, de forma autodidacta, ampliar su filosofía y sus prácticas pedagógicas.

Referencias

- Canagarajah, Suresh (2013). *Translingual practice: Global Englishes and cosmopolitan relations*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- Carreres, Ángeles, Noriega-Sánchez, María, & Calduch, Carme (2018). *Mundos en palabras: Learning advanced Spanish through translation*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- Colina, Sandra, & Lafford, Barbara (2017). Translation in Spanish language teaching: The integration of a “fifth skill” in the second language curriculum. *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching*, 4(2), 110-123.
- Corcoll, Cristina (2013). Developing children's language awareness: Switching codes in the language classroom. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 10(1), 27-45.
- García, Ofelia (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Wiley-Blackwell.

- García, Ofelia, & Kleyn, Tatyana (2016). *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments*. New York, New York: Routledge.
- García, Ofelia, & Li Wei (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. New York, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- González Davies, María (2004). *Multiple voices in the translation classroom: Activities, tasks and projects*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- González Davies, María (2014). Towards a plurilingual development paradigm: From spontaneous to informed use of translation in additional language learning. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 8(1), 8-31.
- González Davies, María (2018). The use of translation in an integrated plurilingual approach to language learning: Teacher strategies and best practices. *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching*, 4(2), 124-135.
- Leeman, Jennifer (2018). Critical language awareness and Spanish as a heritage language: Challenging the linguistic subordination of us Latinxs. En Kim Potowski (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of Spanish as a heritage language* (pp. 345-358). New York, New York: Routledge.

Laura Gasca Jiménez, Fairfield University

lgascajimenez1@fairfield.edu

-
- ES** | **Laura Gasca Jiménez** es profesora contratada de Español y Traducción en la facultad de Lenguas y Literaturas Modernas de la Fairfield University. Obtuvo un doctorado en Lingüística Hispánica de la University of Houston y un Máster en Traducción de la Kent State University. Además, recibió una beca de posgrado de la fundación La Caixa. Sus áreas principales de investigación son la lingüística aplicada, el bilingüismo y la traductología.
- EN** | **Laura Gasca Jiménez** is an Assistant Professor of Spanish and Translation Studies in the Department of Modern Languages and Literatures at Fairfield University. Dr. Gasca Jiménez holds a Ph.D. in Hispanic Linguistics from the University of Houston and an M.A. in Translation from Kent State University. She is the recipient of a La Caixa Foundation Fellowship. Her main research areas are applied linguistics, bilingualism, and translation studies.
- IT** | **Laura Gasca Jiménez** è ricercatrice di Spagnolo e Scienze della Traduzione nella facoltà di Lingue e Letterature Moderne alla Fairfield University. Ha conseguito un dottorato in Linguistica Ispanica presso la University of Houston e un Master in Traduzione dalla Kent State University. Ha, inoltre, ottenuto la borsa di studio post-dottorato della fondazione La Caixa. Le sue aree principali di ricerca sono la linguistica applicata, il bilinguismo e le scienze della traduzione.

Mazak, Catherine M. & Carroll, Kevin S. (Eds.). (2017). *Translanguaging in higher education. Beyond monolingual ideologies*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.

PAOLA GUERRERO-RODRIGUEZ*

University of Florida

Book review

Received 4 October 2018; received in revised form 28 November 2018; accepted 2 December 2018

ABSTRACT

ES Esta reseña se centra en el volumen *Translanguaging in Higher Education*, el cual ofrece un panorama global que muestra distintas prácticas translingüales en diferentes puntos geográficos a través de distintos autores y en áreas que van más allá de la enseñanza de lenguas, contribuyendo en gran medida al naciente campo del translingüismo como práctica educativa.

Palabras clave: TRANSLINGÜAR, PANORAMA GLOBAL, PRÁCTICA EDUCATIVA

EN This review focuses on the volume, *Translanguaging in Higher Education*, which offers a global perspective showing different translingual practices in a variety of geographic spaces through the eyes of different authors. The book goes beyond language teaching, substantially contributing to the emerging field of translanguaging as educational practice.

Key words: TRANSLANGUAGING, GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE, EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE

IT Questa recensione riguarda il volume *Translanguaging in Higher Education*, che offre una prospettiva globale sulle differenti pratiche translinguistiche in varie aree geografiche e attraverso gli occhi di differenti autori. Il libro va oltre l'insegnamento della lingua e contribuisce in modo sostanziale al settore emergente del translanguaging come pratica educativa.

Parole chiave: TRANSLANGUAGING, PROSPETTIVA GLOBALE, PRATICA EDUCATIVA

Hasta hace menos de dos décadas, la preponderancia de las ideologías monoglósicas representaba una constante (Makalela, 2013, 2015) que dominaba en los contextos educativos bi/multilingües (García & Torres-Guevara, 2009). Sin embargo, distintas perspectivas y metodologías educativas recientes, tales como el translingüismo, la pedagogía crítica o la justicia social, pretenden contrarrestar estas ideologías monoglósicas, centralizando el bi/multilingüismo y alejándose de la concepción de las lenguas como unidades aisladas (Makalela, 2017). En este sentido, *Translanguaging in Higher Education* muestra, a través del trabajo de distintos autores, las prácticas translingüales que caracterizan diferentes ámbitos geográficos y áreas disciplinares, yendo más allá de la enseñanza de lenguas y contribuyendo así al naciente campo del translingüismo como práctica educativa.

El volumen está dividido en diez capítulos. El primer capítulo presenta no sólo la introducción al libro, sino también a las diversas conceptualizaciones del término translingüismo como un acto que va más allá de ser algo “natural” para los hablantes multilingües (Canagarajah, 2011), un acto relacionado con cuestiones identitarias, de transmisión de información y transmisión de valores (Li Wei, 2011, p. 1223), y un acto que representa una ideología lingüística, apoyando el desarrollo de una nueva teoría del bilingüismo, a la par de un conjunto de prácticas y una postura pedagógicas (p. 5). En este primer capítulo introductorio también se presenta, de manera sucinta, el contenido del libro y algunos trabajos previos en el campo del translingüismo (Sayer, 2013).

* Contact: joanapaoguerrero@ufl.edu

El segundo capítulo ilustra las prácticas de translingüismo como método de enseñanza innovador en la educación superior de Sudáfrica adoptando el mantra de las prácticas lingüísticas sudafricanas conocidas como *ubuntu*, en las que se establece que “*I am because you are, you are because we are.*” En este capítulo, Makalela presenta la investigación que realizó con 20 estudiantes de enseñanza de sepedi como segunda lengua en la Escuela de Educación de la Universidad de Witwatersrand, Sudáfrica. La premisa fue adoptar un enfoque comunicativo multilingüe que valoraba lo que los estudiantes hacen con las lenguas que hablan. A través de *focus groups* y entrevistas, Makalela encontró que el uso del *ubuntu* representa la creación de un microcosmos multilingüe en el que los repertorios lingüísticos de los participantes se vieron incrementados y, al mismo tiempo, contribuyeron a la creación de diferentes identidades (Norton, 2000; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007).

En el capítulo tres, Daryai-Hansen, Barfod y Schwarz examinan las prácticas translingüísticas en la Universidad de Roskilde, Dinamarca, a través del diseño de una actividad centrada en los perfiles lingüísticos de los estudiantes. En este capítulo se conceptualiza al translingüismo como una “práctica que integra otras lenguas y se basa en el principio pedagógico que deliberadamente toma ventaja de las competencias plurilingües de los estudiantes” (p. 30). Partiendo de esta definición, los estudiantes de Humanidades y Ciencias Sociales de la Universidad de Roskilde trabajaron en sus perfiles lingüísticos en el marco de un programa de alemán (de un máximo de 20 créditos por semestre). Daryai-Hansen *et al.* analizaron el programa de alemán y en este capítulo discuten como este contribuyó a promover un espacio en el que se logró una interacción social eficiente y no problemática. Del mismo modo, los autores analizan las actitudes de los maestros y de los estudiantes del programa hacia las prácticas translingüísticas y muestran una tendencia hacia las prácticas monolingües por parte de los estudiantes. Esto, sugieren los autores, es un indicio de que las prácticas translingüísticas pueden tomar un tiempo antes de ser percibidas como un recurso o una estrategia eficaz fuera y dentro del aula (p. 47).

La ecología del translingüismo en la universidad ucraniana Alfred Nobel es el tema central del capítulo cuatro elaborado por Goodman. A través de las notas de campo, transcripciones de clases y eventos escolares, fotografías y entrevistas obtenidas como parte de un estudio etnográfico llevado a cabo durante el año escolar 2010-2011, la autora analiza las prácticas translingües de tres grupos de estudiantes y sus profesores. Goodman presenta información sobre el translingüismo no sólo como medio oral sino también escrito (p. 63). A partir de estos datos, y en relación a la implementación de una perspectiva pedagógica translingüística, la autora propone que los académicos se pregunten: ¿Quién está realizando el translingüismo, de qué lengua a qué lengua y con qué propósito?, ¿qué modalidades del translingüismo están siendo utilizadas?, ¿en qué eventos comunicativos ocurren ciertas formas del translingüismo? (p. 66). Solo cuando den respuesta a estas preguntas, sugiere la autora, estos docentes podrán planear e implementar una pedagogía del translingüismo en sus clases.

En el capítulo cinco se presentan tres casos de profesores que adoptan la práctica translingüística en la Universidad de Puerto Rico, recinto de Mayagüez (UPRM). Mazak, Mendoza y Pérez Mongonéz observan el translingüismo como una práctica pedagógica mediante la cual los profesores de UPRM crean oportunidades para que los estudiantes desarrollen un lenguaje académico en español y en inglés, a la vez que fomentan la creación de *affordances* para la comprensión de la clase (p. 70). Es necesario hacer hincapié en que las clases analizadas en este estudio no eran de lengua, sino de agricultura, biología y psicología. La recolección de datos se llevó a cabo a través de observaciones de clase, entrevistas con los profesores y los estudiantes y encuestas completadas por los estudiantes. Mazak *et al.* encontraron que los tres profesores participantes adherían a una ideología translingüística que promueve prácticas translingüísticas a través de la atención y validación de los bagajes sociolingüísticos, culturales e históricos de los estudiantes (p. 88).

En el capítulo seis, He, Lai y Lin investigan las prácticas translingüísticas y la transemiotización implementadas por el profesor Liu, de origen chino, en un seminario de matemáticas en Hong Kong. Las preguntas de investigación que guiaron a este estudio giran en torno a dos temas. Por una parte, el translingüismo como facilitador de la comunicación intercultural en una comunidad bi/multicultural y, por otra parte, la relación entre el translingüismo y la transemiotización (p. 95). Mediante el análisis de textos escritos y orales —la presentación de Power Point usada por el profesor Liu y el audio de la grabación de la presentación— los autores muestran como el uso estratégico de recursos bi/multilingües, así como de multimodalidades en un contexto bi/multilingüe, puede facilitar la comunicación intercultural y el desarrollo de un lenguaje académico por parte de hablantes bilingües emergentes (p. 177).

En el capítulo siete, Groff ofrece una mirada hacia las políticas y las prácticas lingüísticas en la India. De acuerdo con la autora, en este país asiático, a pesar de la diversidad lingüística, el inglés se ha impuesto

como la lengua dominante. Groff divide su capítulo en dos secciones: la primera ofrece una visión sobre las políticas lingüísticas en la educación superior en la India que datan de la época de la colonia, cuando “la educación debería impartir los valores y el conocimiento europeo” (Annamalai, 2005, p. 21). Así, la educación primaria y secundaria se impartían en lenguas indias (Krishnamurti, 1990) mientras que el inglés era como la lengua de instrucción y evaluación en las escuelas preparatorias, los institutos y las universidades (p. 123-124). Sin embargo, de manera oficial y extraoficial, las lenguas indias han seguido presentes en el ámbito educativo indio. Mediante el análisis de observaciones y entrevistas obtenidas durante nueve meses de investigación etnográfica en la región de Kumaun, en los campus de la Universidad de Kumaun (Almora) y y de la Universidad de Delhi (Nainital), Groff concluye que las prácticas lingüísticas de estos contextos educativos reflejan una ideología multilingüe (p. 138).

El capítulo ocho, de Carroll y van den Hoven, presenta las prácticas translingüísticas en los Emiratos Árabes Unidos. El objetivo de este capítulo es lograr un mejor entendimiento de cómo estas prácticas son percibidas en los EAU. Para ello, los autores entrevistaron a 6 participantes, de los cuales tres eran profesores de educación superior y tres restantes eran empleados administrativos en el nivel educativo superior. Los seis participantes eran hablantes bilingües de inglés y árabe con doctorados obtenidos en universidades occidentales (p. 146). Los resultados de esta investigación muestran que en contextos educativos en los EAU, el inglés es la lengua a la que se le atribuye superioridad y prestigio (p. 153).

Continuando con el estudio de la percepción de los docentes hacia las prácticas translingüísticas, en el capítulo nueve Doiz y Lasagabaster presentan las opiniones de 13 maestros de inglés del País Vasco, España, con respecto al uso de la lengua materna en un contexto donde el inglés es el medio de instrucción (pp. 162-163). Los autores llevaron a cabo grupos de discusión en español con los participantes para conocer su actitud hacia las prácticas translingüísticas. Los resultados muestran que la mayoría de los maestros participantes tienden a evitar el uso de la L1 en sus clases, aunque sí admiten recurrir a ella en ciertas ocasiones, sobre todo cuando el tema no es familiar para los estudiantes o existe una posible brecha en el entendimiento (pp. 172-173). De esta manera, el translingüismo no representa una práctica habitual en este contexto, por lo que los autores sugieren futuras investigaciones que incluyan un componente de observación de clases y permitan ver lo que realmente sucede en el aula.

Finalmente, en el último capítulo del libro el editor, Carroll, presenta las conclusiones y una recopilación de las diferentes perspectivas hacia el translingüismo ejemplificadas y analizadas en los diferentes capítulos. Carroll propone que una de las necesidades fundamentales en la educación superior, sin importar el lugar geográfico, es promover el prestigio de las lenguas no dominantes (p. 177) e indica que para que este objetivo se pueda lograr es necesario recurrir a prácticas translingüísticas, tal y como como sugieren Carroll & Mazak (2017). Carroll finaliza el capítulo planteando que éstas prácticas se deberían promover, entre otras formas, a través de la contratación de profesores con bagajes lingüísticos similares a los de los estudiantes, mediante la publicación de investigaciones en lenguas distintas al inglés o la inclusión de prácticas translingüísticas en los cursos de preparación de profesores para que puedan experimentarlas de primera mano.

De manera general, *Translanguaging in Higher Education* provee al lector con una visión genérica, informativa y, hasta cierto punto, global sobre el translingüismo y su concepción en diversos contextos bi/multilingües que van más allá del aula de enseñanza de lenguas. Este libro representa un buen recurso para lectores sin conocimiento ni experiencia previa en el campo del translingüismo, ya que los autores llevan al lector desde la mera conceptualización del término hasta la presentación de prácticas translingüísticas en contextos. Las referencias usadas a través de los distintos capítulos del volumen (e.g., García, 2009; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Canagarajah, 2011; García & Li Wei, 2014; Cummins, 2014) fungen como fuentes adicionales a las cuales el lector puede recurrir para ampliar su conocimiento o expandir las posibilidades de adentrarse en el translingüismo a través de sus distintas conceptualizaciones. De particular interés resulta el hecho de que los capítulos presentados en *Translanguaging in Higher Education* muestran las actitudes de diferentes hablantes en puntos geográficos diversos, yendo más allá de ofrecer una perspectiva occidental hacia el bi/multilingüismo.

Referencias

- Annamalai, Elay (2005). Nation building in a globalized world: Language choice and education in India. En Angel Lin, & Peter Martin (Eds.), *Decolonization, Globalization: Language-in-Education Policy and Practice* (pp. 21-38). Clevedon, Reino Unido: Multilingual Matters.
- Carroll, Kevin, & Mazak, Catherine (2017). Language policy in Puerto Rico's higher education: Opening the door for translanguaging practice. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 48(1), 4-22.
- Cummins, Jim (2014). Rethinking pedagogical assumptions in Canadian French immersion programs. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education* 2, 3-22.
- García, Ofelia (2009). *Bilingual Education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Malden, Massachusetts: Wiley/Blackwell.
- García, Ofelia & Li Wei (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. London, Reino Unido: Palgrave Macmillan.
- García, Ofelia, & Torres-Guevara, Rosario (2009). Monoglossic ideologies and language policies in the education of US Latinas/os. En Enrique G. Murillo, Sofia A. Villenas, Ruth Trinidad Galván, Juan Sánchez Muñoz, Corinne Martínez, & Margarita Machado-Casas (Eds.), *Handbook of Latinos and education: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 182-193). London, Reino Unido: Routledge.
- Krishnamurti, Bhadriraju (1990). The regional language vis-à-vis English as the medium of instruction in higher education: The Indian dilemma. En Debi P. Pattanayak (Ed.), *Multilingualism in India* (pp. 15-24). Hyderabad, India: Orient Longman.
- Li Wei (2011). Moment analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Multilingual Structures and Agencies* 43(5), 1222-1235.
- Makalela, Leketi (2013). Translanguaging in Kasi-taal: Rethinking old language boundaries for new language planning. *Stellenbosch Papers in Linguistics Plus* 42, 111-125.
- Makalela, Leketi (2015). Moving out of linguistic boxes: The effects of translanguaging strategies for multilingual classrooms. *Language and Education* 24(4), 406-414.
- Norton, Bonny (2000). *Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity and educational change*. Harlow, Reino Unido: Pearson Education/Longman.
- Pavlenko, Aneta, & Norton, Bonny (2007). Imagined communities, identity, and English language teaching. En Jim Cummins y Chris Davison (Eds.), *International Handbook of English Language Teaching* (pp. 669-680). New York, New York: Springer.
- Sayer, Peter (2013). Translanguaging, TexMex, and bilingual pedagogy: Emergent bilinguals learning through the vernacular. *TESOL Quarterly* 47(1), 63-88.
- Swain, Merrill, & Lapkin, Sharon (2000). Task-based second language learning: the uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research* 4, 251-274.

Paola Guerrero-Rodriguez, University of Florida

joanapaoguerrero@ufl.edu

- ES** **Paola Guerrero-Rodriguez** es una estudiante de doctorado en la Facultad de Español y Portugués en la University of Florida donde estudia Lingüística Hispánica. Ha conseguido el Master en Lenguas Romances en la Texas Tech University en 2017. Sus áreas de investigación incluyen las lenguas hereditarias, la pedagogía de la lengua, la dialectología y la lengua como práctica social.
- EN** **Paola Guerrero-Rodriguez** is a doctoral student at the University of Florida in the Department of Spanish and Portuguese Studies, where she studies Hispanic Linguistics. She earned her MA in Romance Languages from Texas Tech University in 2017. Her research interests include heritage languages, language pedagogy, dialectology and language as a social practice.
- IT** **Paola Guerrero-Rodriguez** è dottoranda nella Facoltà di Spagnolo e Portoghese alla University of Florida, dove studia Linguistica Ispanica. Nel 2017 ha conseguito il Master in Lingue Romanze presso la Texas Tech University. Le sue aree di ricerca includono le lingue ereditarie, la pedagogia della lingua, la dialettologia e la lingua come pratica sociale.

Firpo, Elena, & Sanfelici, Laura (2016). *La visione eteroglossica del bilinguismo: spagnolo lingua d'origine e Italstudio. Modelli e prospettive tra gli Stati Uniti e l'Italia*. Milano, Italia: Edizioni Universitarie Lettere Economia Diritto.

ANDREA SCIBETTA*

Università per Stranieri di Siena

Book review

Received 3 December 2018; accepted 7 December 2018

ABSTRACT

IT Questa recensione intende presentare i contenuti del volume *La Visione Eteroglossica del Bilinguismo: Spagnolo Lingua d'Origine e Italstudio* di Elena Firpo e Laura Sanfelici. Il libro offre una ricca panoramica sulle politiche linguistiche volte alla promozione del bilinguismo in contesti educativi nordamericani ed europei. Inoltre, il volume si focalizza su un progetto di ricerca-azione sperimentale, chiamato LI.LO (Lingua Italiana, Lingua d'Origine), condotto dal 2013 al 2015 in una scuola di Genova con una considerevole percentuale di alunni ispanofoni. L'obiettivo principale di tale progetto era quello di contribuire a valorizzare un'educazione bilingue più inclusiva nei confronti della lingua spagnola (intesa come lingua di origine) attraverso pratiche didattiche basate sul *translanguaging*.

Parole chiave: SCUOLA ITALIANA, BILINGUISMO, VISIONE ETEROGLOSSICA, EDUCAZIONE BILINGUE, SPAGNOLO LINGUA DI ORIGINE

EN This review reports on the contents of *La Visione Eteroglossica del Bilinguismo: Spagnolo Lingua d'Origine e Italstudio* (*The Heteroglossic Vision of Bilingualism: Spanish as a First Language and the Study of Italian*) by Elena Firpo and Laura Sanfelici. The book offers a rich overview of linguistic policies aimed at promoting bilingualism in North American and European educational contexts. Additionally, it details an experimental action research project, "LI.LO" (*Lingua Italiana, Lingua d'Origine*, or Italian Language, First Language), carried out from 2013 to 2015 at a school in Genoa with a considerable proportion of Spanish-speaking students. The main objective of this project was to reinforce the value of more inclusive bilingual instruction that incorporates Spanish (students' first language) through teaching practices rooted in *translanguaging*.

Palabras clave: ITALIAN SCHOOL SYSTEM, BILINGUALISM, HETEROGLOSSIC VISION, BILINGUAL EDUCATION, SPANISH AS A HERITAGE LANGUAGE

ES Esta resección presenta los contenidos del volumen *La Visione Eteroglossica Del Bilingüismo: Spagnolo Lingua d'Origine e Italstudio*, de Elena Firpo y Laura Sanfelici. El libro ofrece una amplia visión de las políticas lingüísticas que pretenden promover el bilingüismo en contextos educativos norteamericanos y europeos. Además, centra la atención en un proyecto de investigación-acción experimental, llamado LI.LO (Lengua Italiana, Lengua Origen), que se llevó a cabo de 2013 a 2015 en una escuela de Génova, con un porcentaje considerable de estudiantes hispanohablantes. Este proyecto tiene como objetivo principal contribuir a reafirmar el valor de una educación bilingüe más inclusiva del idioma español (como lengua de origen) a través de una pedagogía basada en el *translingüismo*.

Key words: ESCUELA ITALIANA, BILINGÜISMO, VISIÓN HETEROGLÓICA, EDUCACIÓN BILINGÜE, ESPAÑOL COMO LENGUA DE HERENCIA

Il volume *La Visione Eteroglossica del Bilinguismo: Spagnolo Lingua d'Origine e Italstudio* di Elena Firpo e Laura Sanfelici, edito nel 2016 con Edizioni Universitarie Lettere Economia Diritto, intende fornire uno sguardo d'insieme sul concetto di *educazione bilingue* (Baker & Jones, 1998) focalizzandosi sulle sue applicazioni nel contesto scolastico italiano, e, nello specifico, in quello genovese. L'obiettivo principale del

* Contact: scibetta@unistrasi.it

volume, infatti, è quello di descrivere le fasi di svolgimento e i risultati principali di un progetto sperimentale di ricerca-azione, intitolato LILO (Lingua Italiana Lingua d'Origine), volto alla valorizzazione del bilinguismo italiano-spagnolo all'interno di un Istituto Comprensivo di un quartiere di Genova dove si registra una presenza considerevole di parlanti ispanofoni provenienti da diversi paesi.

Il volume è suddiviso in otto capitoli, preceduti da un'introduzione a cura di Maite (María Teresa) Sánchez, della City University of New York, e seguiti da una breve conclusione. Nell'introduzione Sánchez menziona la ricerca-azione alla quale LILO si è ispirato, ovvero quella condotta nelle scuole newyorkesi nell'ambito del progetto CUNY-NYSIEB (City University of New York – New York State Initiative on Emergent Bilinguals). L'obiettivo di tale progetto è infatti quello di valorizzare le *lingue di origine* degli alunni bilingui emergenti (in particolare ispanofoni) nel contesto scolastico attraverso attività basate sul *translanguaging*. Secondo l'approccio del translanguaging, il repertorio linguistico del soggetto bilingue è concepito come un *unicum*, e non in modo compartimentato (García & Kley, 2016), ed è proprio questo approccio a rappresentare la risorsa teorico-pratica centrale nello svolgimento di entrambi i progetti (CUNY-NYSIEB e LILO).

I capitoli sono ripartiti in tre parti principali. La Parte I, che comprende i capitoli 1, 2, 3 e 4, contiene un esaustivo inquadramento teorico nel quale si affrontano i concetti principali su cui si basa la ricerca descritta nel volume, ovvero l'educazione linguistica democratica nel contesto italiano, il bilinguismo, l'educazione bilingue e le politiche linguistiche per la promozione di un'educazione bilingue di tipo eteroglossico nei contesti educativi europei.

Il capitolo 1, intitolato *La Scuola Italiana e le Generazioni 2.0*, si apre con una riflessione sul concetto di *educazione linguistica democratica* e sulla tutela dei diritti linguistici di tutti i parlanti, partendo dagli articoli 3, 6, 33 e 34 della Costituzione Italiana e dai pluriennali lavori del collettivo G.I.S.C.E.L., Gruppo di Intervento e Studio nel Campo dell'Educazione Linguistica (G.I.S.C.E.L., 2007). Si procede quindi con un esaustivo sguardo d'insieme sulla presenza di alunni stranieri nelle scuole italiane, sulla loro distribuzione nei vari ordini scolastici, sui loro risultati scolastici e sulla scelta degli indirizzi della scuola secondaria di secondo grado. Vengono poi fornite informazioni sulle minoranze linguistiche, sul concetto di lingua d'origine (LO), tradotto letteralmente dall'inglese *heritage language* (Potowski, 2005), e sui meccanismi di subordinazione delle lingue minoritarie nei confronti delle lingue dominanti (LD) in specifiche aree politico-amministrative. Nella parte finale del capitolo ci si sofferma sul concetto di lingua di studio e, in particolare, sul binomio *Italbase e Italstudio*, nonché sul parallelismo fra questo binomio e la distinzione BICS (*Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills*) - CALP (*Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency*) operata da Cummins (1979).

Il capitolo 2 ("Bilinguismo") è dedicato a un'ampia riflessione sul concetto di bilinguismo e alle diverse connotazioni utilizzate per descrivere tale concetto. Il soggetto bilingue viene preso in considerazione da un punto di vista sociolinguistico, con un focus specifico sulla distinzione fra abilità e uso (Baker, 2011), e da un punto di vista dell'evoluzione dell'individuo, della sua condizione di bilingue e delle variabili individuali che incidono sullo sviluppo della competenza bilingue individuale (come l'equilibrio delle due lingue, l'età, lo sviluppo). Vengono quindi fornite definizioni di bilinguismo in relazione all'età di acquisizione delle due lingue (simultaneo, precoce, tardivo) e alla dimensione psicologico-affettiva attribuita alle lingue, nonché al valore sociale ad esse riconosciuto (sottrattivo, additivo). L'ultima parte del capitolo è dedicata all'analisi del bilinguismo dal punto di vista della neurolinguistica: vengono citati i fenomeni di *code switching* e *code mixing* in relazione alla competenza bilingue e i vantaggi cognitivi derivanti dall'essere bilingui. Una menzione speciale viene fatta in merito al concetto di translanguaging, interpretato come l'evoluzione più recente degli approcci al bilinguismo, ovvero un'ottica secondo cui "il sistema linguistico non sarà né separato, secondo la visione monoglossica, né comune, secondo la visione eteroglossica, ma seguirà un *continuum* di alternanze di repertorio linguistico e di caratteristiche (F) secondo un ordine FnFnFnFnFn" (p. 45).

Il capitolo 3 ("L'Educazione Bilingue") ha come oggetto l'educazione bilingue, definita da Cazden e Snow (1990) una "semplice etichetta di un fenomeno complesso" (p. 49). Tale concetto viene innanzitutto contrapposto da Firpo e Sanfelici a quello di "educazione alla lingua straniera o alla seconda lingua" (p. 51); successivamente, vengono proposti due principali modelli di educazione linguistica, ovvero quello monoglossico e quello eteroglossico. Secondo il primo dei due approcci, due lingue vengono trattate in modo separato, spesso producendo come effetto un tipo di bilinguismo sottrattivo, insieme ad una gerarchizzazione fra le due lingue. Il secondo approccio, invece, prende in considerazione pratiche linguistiche multiple in interrelazione, contribuendo ad attribuire medesimo valore simbolico alle due lingue e conferendo maggiore dinamicità all'uso alternato dei due sistemi linguistici. Il capitolo termina con un'importante riflessione sulla

necessità di progressione e continuità nei processi di promozione del bilinguismo in contesto educativo: “la mancanza di progressione e continuità conduce a uno sviluppo infruttuoso del bilinguismo” (p. 59).

Il capitolo 4 (“Le Politiche di Educazione Bilingue di Tipo Eteroglossico: il Panorama Europeo”) presenta alcuni riferimenti alla storia dei più noti provvedimenti di politica linguistica in contesto europeo (promulgati sia da parte dell’Unione Europea sia da parte del Consiglio d’Europa). Oltre a fornire alcune informazioni essenziali circa le strategie più diffuse per supportare la presenza di lingue minoritarie e per contribuire a mantenere un bilinguismo equilibrato in specifiche aree geografiche (regioni dove viene parlata la lingua sami, Catalogna, Paesi Baschi), le autrici si soffermano in modo particolare sulle politiche di sviluppo bilingue e plurilingue in contesto educativo. Viene innanzitutto citato il modello CLIL, puntualizzando anche sulle sue applicazioni nei sistemi scolastici di diversi paesi europei. Successivamente viene offerto un breve sguardo d’insieme sulle politiche per il sostegno linguistico ai bambini di lingua materna diversa da quella ufficiale nel paese di accoglienza.

La parte II, che include i capitoli 5, 6 e 7, descrive i macro-contesti sociali e linguistici da cui prende spunto e a cui fa riferimento il progetto di ricerca-azione LI.LO. Viene fornita innanzitutto una descrizione dettagliata del modello di valorizzazione del bilinguismo rivolto ai parlanti di lingue d’origine con focus specifico sui parlanti ispanofoni) in contesto statunitense, da cui la ricerca prende spunto. Successivamente, le autrici passano ad analizzare la presenza e la vitalità della lingua spagnola nel contesto scolastico italiano, soffermandosi poi sull’applicazione del modello eteroglossico dell’educazione bilingue nelle scuole genovesi.

Il capitolo 5, intitolato “Dagli USA all’Italia”, rappresenta il punto di collegamento fra l’inquadramento teorico della parte I del libro e la descrizione del contesto, delle fasi di implementazione e dei risultati del progetto LI.LO. All’interno del capitolo, infatti, le autrici iniziano descrivendo il contesto statunitense, prima dal punto di vista della relazione fra la dimensione plurilingue e la storia delle più rilevanti azioni in termini di politica linguistica per valorizzare o altre volte contenere la vitalità e la visibilità delle lingue minoritarie. Un focus specifico è dedicato alla storia della presenza ispanofona in contesto statunitense, nonché ai provvedimenti di politica linguistica ad essa connessi, in modo particolare nel campo educativo. Emblematica, in questo passaggio, è la citazione ripresa da Baker, secondo cui “le scelte dei *policy makers* non sono solo il risultato di una preferenza pedagogica, ma rappresentano lo specchio del pensiero su rapporti di potere, lingue minoritarie, culture minoritarie, immigrati, pari opportunità, assimilazione o integrazione, pluralità e plurilinguismo” (p. 80). Le autrici passano poi a inquadrare alcuni fra i principali modelli a cui chi si occupa di educazione linguistica si può ispirare. Per quanto riguarda gli Stati Uniti, viene condiviso il punto di vista di García (2009), secondo cui i tre modelli di educazione bilingue attualmente presenti sono la *Transitional Bilingual Education (early exit)*, la *Developmental Bilingual Education* e la *Two Way Bilingual Education (Inmersión Dual)*. Nelle sezioni successive ci si focalizza sull’insegnamento dello spagnolo rivolto ai parlanti di lingue d’origine nel contesto sociolinguistico statunitense, puntualizzando sulla necessità di prendere in considerazione l’ispanofonia nella sua eterogeneità, complessità e dinamicità (si utilizza l’intelligente definizione “identità transglossica”, p. 88), rifuggendo da una concezione monolitica e iper-generalizzata. Si enunciano anche nove principi per una teoria di acquisizione della lingua d’origine riguardante in modo specifico lo spagnolo negli Stati Uniti, riprendendo Lynch (2003). I più rilevanti fra questi, ovvero il *Purposeful Acquisition Principle*, l’*Incidental Acquisition Principle*, il *Variability Principle*, il *Simplification Principle*, il *Discourse Principle*, il *Social Identity Principle* e il *Language Recontact Principle*, sono stati adottati anche nella ricerca-azione condotta dalle autrici nel contesto genovese, sebbene modificati secondo nuovi e specifici bisogni educativi contestuali. Ci si sofferma inoltre sul concetto di *spettro bilingue*, ovvero “il repertorio bilingue, quel *continuum* di abilità linguistiche e di strategie comunicative che un individuo possiede in ogni lingua e che varia a seconda dell’interlocutore, del tema e della situazione” (p. 91). In relazione ai parlanti ispanofoni si fanno diversi esempi relativi a strutture linguistico-comunicative tipiche del contatto linguistico fra spagnolo come lingua d’origine e inglese nordamericano. Prendendo in considerazione i parlanti di spagnolo come lingua d’origine in contesto educativo, si analizzano alcuni loro fenomeni comunicativi come il *code-switching* e l’uso di varietà ibride (ciò che da molti viene superficialmente definito *Spanglish*), nonché alcuni schemi percettivi ed emotivi ricorrenti nei confronti della competenza nella propria lingua di origine (la “*position of deficiency*” che spesso produce come effetto un generalizzato senso di vergogna, cfr. p. 90). Il capitolo si conclude con una breve panoramica sull’insegnamento delle lingue e sull’educazione bilingue nel contesto italiano, con focus sulle lingue di origine degli studenti non italo-foni. Si sottolinea l’importanza della valorizzazione dello spagnolo come lingua d’origine in modo specifico nel contesto genovese attraverso il *translanguaging* come approccio didattico.

Il capitolo 6 ("Lo Spagnolo nel Sistema Scolastico Italiano") affronta la situazione relativa alla presenza della lingua spagnola nel sistema scolastico italiano, in particolare nella sua dimensione di lingua di origine di un numero considerevole di studenti ispanofoni provenienti da varie parti del mondo, America Latina *in primis*. Dopo una breve panoramica di tipo storico sul contatto linguistico fra italiano e spagnolo, le autrici passano a menzionare alcuni importanti provvedimenti legislativi e documenti di politica linguistica che, in modo specifico a partire dai primi anni Duemila, hanno contribuito a valorizzare il bilinguismo e il plurilinguismo in contesto scolastico. Particolare attenzione viene prestata al valore del documento *La via italiana* dell'Osservatorio Nazionale per l'Integrazione (2007) e alla sua innovatività nella promozione dello sviluppo di un plurilinguismo responsabile in ambito educativo. Successivamente viene presa in analisi in modo più specifico la presenza dello spagnolo come lingua di origine nel sistema scolastico italiano, e la si confronta con il contesto statunitense in termini numerici, percentuali, di nazionalità degli alunni ispanofoni, e legislativi. Interessante è la riflessione sull'ambivalenza di schemi percettivi nei confronti della lingua spagnola: quando essa rappresenta una LS da studiare, essa viene maggiormente apprezzata, mentre quando essa rappresenta una "lingua immigrata" (p. 104), allora diventa più facilmente oggetto di stigmatizzazioni. Un'altra significativa riflessione in chiusura al capitolo riguarda la carenza di risorse per rendere strutturate e continuative le varie buone pratiche educative basate sulla valorizzazione del bi- e del plurilinguismo. La mancanza di sistematicità produce infatti uno svantaggio a detrimento delle numerose buone pratiche ancora troppo relegate ad una dimensione locale.

Il capitolo 7, che chiude la parte II del volume, è intitolato "Genova e la Visione Eteroglossica". All'interno di questo capitolo le autrici contestualizzano il concetto di educazione bilingue italiano-spagnolo nella realtà genovese, ovvero una realtà caratterizzata, negli ultimi decenni, da numerosi arrivi di parlanti ispanofoni provenienti da diverse aree geografiche. Ci si focalizza quindi sulla presenza di alunni ispanofoni nelle scuole primarie e secondarie di primo grado e sulla valorizzazione dello spagnolo come LO (*español como lengua de herencia*) all'interno della didattica attraverso un modello eteroglossico. La finalità principale di tale processo di valorizzazione sta nel fatto di promuovere un bilinguismo equilibrato da un lato e di evitare fenomeni di erosione dall'altro. Nel caso specifico di questo pubblico di studenti, la cui LO è tipologicamente vicina all'italiano, si può instaurare un produttivo parallelismo fra plurilinguismo e intercomprensione, intesa quest'ultima come "modalità di comunicazione in cui ciascun interlocutore può usare la propria lingua madre facendo affidamento alle competenze ricettive degli altri" (p. 116, cfr. Benucci, 2015). Un approccio che valorizzi la dimensione plurilingue dei contesti scolastici con forte presenza ispanofona e che agevoli processi di intercomprensione può essere messo in pratica attraverso l'uso del translanguaging come pratica didattica in grado di "tenere in considerazione l'abilità raggiunta in una *named language* (in questo caso lo spagnolo) e le *general linguistic performances* dall'altro" (p. 117). Nell'ultima parte del capitolo, in riferimento alla scuola secondaria di primo grado, viene menzionato un progetto sperimentale, dal titolo *Español Lengua de Herencia*, portato avanti dalle autrici e dalla Prof.ssa Oliviero nella scuola Don Milani di Genova dal 2006 al 2013, e strutturato su lezioni settimanali di due ore in lingua spagnola basate sulla metodologia CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning). Inoltre, vengono riportati i principali risultati di un test linguistico somministrato nell'anno scolastico 2014/2015, in una prima fase del progetto LILO, nella scuola secondaria di primo grado Sampierdarena di Genova, al fine di verificare da un lato il livello di competenza in lingua italiana di un gruppo di studenti ispanofoni rispetto ad un gruppo di studenti nativi italofofoni, e dall'altro il livello di erosione esercitato sulla lingua spagnola (in particolare in relazione alle discipline di studio) degli studenti ispanofoni a vantaggio della lingua italiana. Dal test preliminare risulta che gli studenti ispanofoni hanno minori competenze in italiano rispetto ai loro compagni nativi italofofoni, e, allo stesso tempo, che la loro competenza in lingua italiana, in particolare quella disciplinare, è superiore rispetto a quella in lingua spagnola.

La terza e ultima parte (III) comprende soltanto il capitolo 8 ("Il Progetto LILO") ed è dedicata alla presentazione del progetto LILO, alla descrizione delle sue principali fasi di articolazione e all'analisi del suo impatto sugli alunni coinvolti e dei più rilevanti risultati raggiunti. Il capitolo inizia con una breve presentazione del progetto, realizzato dalle autrici negli anni scolastici 2013/2014 e 2014/2015 presso l'Istituto Comprensivo Sampierdarena di Genova. L'intervento, rivolto sia agli alunni italofofoni nativi sia agli alunni parlanti di spagnolo come LO, aveva tre principali obiettivi: contribuire al raggiungimento della CALP nelle due lingue (italiano e spagnolo) da parte degli studenti ispanofoni, il miglioramento delle abilità di studio (accompagnato allo sviluppo di abilità di riflessione metalinguistica) e la conoscenza e l'uso delle TIC (Tecnologie dell'Informazione e della Comunicazione). In una prima fase è stato somministrato un test di *screening* a tutti gli studenti delle quinte elementari dell'Istituto Comprensivo. Il test, composto da una

sezione dedicata alla biografia linguistica e da una dedicata ad un test linguistico in italiano, aveva l'obiettivo di valutare il livello di padronanza di lessici e contenuti, disciplinari e non, da parte di alunni ispanofoni rispetto agli italofoeni nativi. Nelle fasi successive, è stata avviata una sperimentazione rivolta agli studenti ispanofoni, sia nell'anno scolastico 2013/2014 che in quello 2014/2015. In queste fasi, LI.LO è stato strutturato attraverso incontri settimanali in orario extrascolastico, durante i quali un gruppo di apprendenti parlanti spagnolo come LO ripassava e approfondiva, anche per mezzo dell'uso delle nuove tecnologie, quanto già appreso nelle lezioni curriculari di storia e geografia condotte in italiano (p. 125). Il principale approccio di riferimento per la progettazione e la realizzazione degli incontri era di tipo lessicale, focalizzato sui linguaggi disciplinari delle materie in questione, collegato ad una metodologia contrastiva. Per quanto riguarda i contenuti, si è tenuto conto di un input che fosse comprensibile e appropriato al livello di padronanza dei linguaggi disciplinari da parte dei destinatari, ed è stato preferito l'uso di materiale autentico e non semplificato (privilegiando quindi le abilità ricettive). Sono state incoraggiate inoltre le attività di confronto interlinguistico, in modo da favorire lo sviluppo di abilità legate alla riflessione metalinguistica. L'uso delle TIC, infine, ha consentito di strutturare l'intervento anche in chiave multimodale. Al fine di verificare i risultati raggiunti attraverso il progetto, sono stati ripetuti test linguistici in lingua italiana, analoghi a quello svolto in fase pre-progetto, sia con gli studenti coinvolti nella sperimentazione sia con un gruppo di controllo di studenti ispanofoni che non hanno partecipato a LI.LO e con un gruppo di italofoeni. Prendendo in considerazione il test condotto in fase preliminare e quelli somministrati alla fine della sperimentazione negli anni scolastici 2013/2014 e 2014/2015, il corpus di apprendenti preso in esame ammonta a 223 alunni, di cui 99 italofoeni, 104 parlanti di spagnolo come lingua d'origine e 20 bilingui emergenti parlanti altre lingue.

L'obiettivo dei test condotti a fine sperimentazione era quello di verificare progressi nella competenza nei linguaggi disciplinari e nelle capacità metalinguistiche da parte di coloro che avevano partecipato a LI.LO. Le analisi statistiche condotte sui risultati dei test dimostrano come i destinatari del corso si siano avvicinati notevolmente alle competenze linguistiche disciplinari dei loro compagni italofoeni nativi, e, allo stesso tempo, come le competenze disciplinari degli apprendenti ispanofoni del gruppo di controllo risultino essere visibilmente inferiori rispetto ai partecipanti a LI.LO in fase post-progetto.

Il volume costituisce senza dubbio un punto di riferimento per un approccio ai concetti di educazione bilingue e di translanguaging come risorsa per orientare una didattica inclusiva. Il ricco impianto teorico esposto nella prima parte guida il lettore verso un'analisi critica dei meccanismi di valorizzazione del bi- e del plurilinguismo in contesto scolastico, anche grazie a un dettagliato confronto fra il contesto nord-americano (in particolare statunitense) e il contesto europeo in termini di politica linguistica e interventi didattici; da qui si arriva, quindi, gradualmente al contesto scolastico italiano. Dal punto di vista delle implicazioni pedagogiche, risulta essere importante il ricorrente focus sul potenziale del translanguaging come pratica didattica in grado di produrre de-gerarchizzazioni linguistiche e accentuare lo sviluppo di identità transglossiche, nonché l'intersezione fra questa prospettiva e quella della tutela dei diritti linguistici di tutti gli apprendenti. Per quanto riguarda il progetto LI.LO, nello specifico, esso rappresenta uno dei primi interventi strutturati in Italia nel quale si utilizza l'approccio del translanguaging in ambito didattico, cercando di trarre il meglio dalla pedagogia e dall'educazione bilingue statunitense per contestualizzarla (in modo decisamente produttivo, secondo chi scrive) all'interno del sistema scolastico italiano.

Il volume, tuttavia, presenta anche alcuni punti di debolezza. Innanzitutto, dal punto di vista della struttura, si ha l'impressione che sia stato dedicato uno spazio troppo ristretto alla descrizione del progetto. Pensando ad un pubblico di lettori costituito da insegnanti e facilitatori linguistici, sarebbe stato opportuno approfondire di più sulle tecniche didattiche adottate e, magari, inserire in appendice alcuni modelli di attività realizzate. Per quanto riguarda lo svolgimento del progetto, tenendo in considerazione la necessità, sottolineata nel capitolo 3, di progressione, continuità e sistematicità di interventi didattici inclusivi basati sulla valorizzazione del bi- e plurilinguismo, le autrici non specificano se e come il progetto abbia avuto un seguito, oppure se gli insegnanti coinvolti abbiano continuato ad adottare l'approccio di LI.LO. anche in autonomia. Una prospettiva interessante potrebbe essere quella di uscire dalla dimensione extra-curriculare, provando a includere sperimentazioni di questo tipo all'interno della didattica formale (cfr. Carbonara & Scibetta, *in stampa*). Tale prospettiva potrebbe rappresentare un'occasione di sviluppo di competenze linguistiche e metalinguistiche a vantaggio di tutti gli studenti, non solo degli ispanofoni.

Il pubblico a cui il volume si rivolge può comprendere sia studenti universitari e ricercatori che siano interessati ad approfondire le proprie conoscenze sull'educazione bilingue e sulle sue applicazioni, sia insegnanti, mediatori e facilitatori linguistici che vogliano sperimentare nuove pratiche didattiche inclusive.

Riferimenti bibliografici

- Baker, Colin (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*. Clevedon, Regno Unito: Multilingual Matters.
- Baker, Colin, & Jones, Sylvia Prys (1998). *Encyclopedia of bilingualism and bilingual education*. Clevedon, Regno Unito: Multilingual Matters.
- Benucci, Antonella (2015). *L'intercomprensione: il contributo italiano*, Torino, Italia: UTET.
- Carbonara, Valentina, & Scibetta, Andrea (in stampa). "Il translanguaging come strumento efficace per la gestione delle classi plurilingui: il progetto 'L'AltRoparlante'. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata (RILA)*, 1, 2018.
- Cazden, Courtney B., & Snow, Catherine E. (Eds.). (1990). *English plus: Issues in bilingual education*. London, Regno Unito: Sage.
- Cummins, Jim (1979). Cognitive/academic language proficiency, linguistic interdependence, the optimum age question and some other matters. *Working Papers on Multilingualism*, 19, 121-129.
- García, Ofelia (2009). *Bilingual education in 21st century: A global perspective*. Oxford, Regno Unito: Wiley-Blackwell.
- García, Ofelia, & Kleyn, Tatiana (2016). Translanguaging theory in education. In García, Ofelia, & Tatiana Kleyn (Eds.), *Translanguaging with multilingual students. Learning from classroom moments* (pp. 9-33). New York, New York: Routledge.
- G.I.S.C.E.L. (Ed.). (2007). *Educazione linguistica democratica. A trent'anni dalle Dieci Tesi*. Milano, Italia: Franco Angeli.
- MIUR (2007). *La via italiana per la scuola interculturale e l'integrazione degli alunni stranieri*. Osservatorio nazionale per la scuola interculturale e l'integrazione degli alunni stranieri.
- Potowski, Kim (2005). *Fundamentos de la enseñanza del español a hispanoablantes en los EE. UU.* Madrid, Spagna: Arco Libros.

Andrea Scibetta, Università per Stranieri di Siena

scibetta@unistrasi.it

-
- IT** **Andrea Scibetta** è assegnista di ricerca presso l'Università per Stranieri di Siena. Ha conseguito un Dottorato di Ricerca in "Linguistica e Didattica della Lingua Italiana a Stranieri" presso l'Università per Stranieri di Siena nel 2017 con una tesi sullo sviluppo di abilità pragmatiche in italiano come seconda lingua (L2) da parte di apprendenti sinofoni. I suoi settori di interesse scientifico comprendono la didattica dell'italiano L2 a sinofoni, la didattica della lingua cinese, i processi di valorizzazione del plurilinguismo (con focus specifico sul cinese) nelle scuole italiane, e le strategie di pianificazione e realizzazione di percorsi didattici inclusivi nelle classi plurilingui.
- EN** **Andrea Scibetta** is a research fellow at the Università per Stranieri di Siena. He earned a Ph.D. in Linguistics and Didactics of Italian Language for Foreigners at the Università per Stranieri di Siena in 2017, with a dissertation focused on Chinese learners' development of pragmatic skills in L2 Italian. His research interests include the teaching of L2 Italian to Chinese speakers, Chinese language pedagogy, strategies to support multilingualism (with a specific focus on Chinese) in Italian schools, and the development and implementation of inclusive educational practices in multilingual classes.
- ES** **Andrea Scibetta** es investigador postdoctoral en la Università per Stranieri di Siena. En 2017 consiguió el doctorado en Lingüística y Didáctica del Italiano como Lengua Extranjera en la Università per Stranieri di Siena con una tesis sobre el desarrollo de competencias pragmáticas en italiano L2 por parte de estudiantes sinohablantes. Sus líneas de investigación incluyen la didáctica del italiano L2 a sinohablantes, la didáctica del chino, los procesos de valoración del plurilingüismo (con enfoque en el chino) en las escuelas italianas y las estrategias de planificación y realización de una didáctica inclusiva en las clases plurilingüe.

Mazzaferro, Gerardo (Ed.). (2018). *Translanguaging as everyday practice*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

VALENTINA CARBONARA*

Università per Stranieri di Siena

Book review

Received 5 December 2018; accepted 7 December 2018

ABSTRACT

IT In questo contributo viene proposta la recensione del testo *Translanguaging as Everyday Practice*, curato da Gerardo Mazzaferro (Università degli Studi di Torino) e pubblicato nel 2018 dall'editore Springer. Il libro propone 14 studi che, attraverso approcci metodologici diversi, offrono una profonda analisi del concetto di *translanguaging* in molteplici contesti. Questa nozione viene esaminata, per esempio, nell'intersezione con fenomeni più ampi quali la costruzione identitaria nelle comunità immigrate o minoritarie, il mantenimento e l'erosione linguistica, l'*agency* dei singoli soggetti nei contesti educativi. In questa recensione, dopo una breve introduzione sugli obiettivi del testo e sul tipo di audience a cui si rivolge, vengono presentati i contenuti dei singoli capitoli e infine si mettono in luce gli aspetti rilevanti e di pregio del testo, accanto ad alcune lievi criticità che non sottraggono valore a questo ottimo libro.

Parole chiave: TRANSLANGUAGING, PLURILINGUISMO, MIGRAZIONE, IDENTITÀ, RICERCA QUALITATIVA

EN This manuscript reviews *Translanguaging as Everyday Practice*, edited by Gerardo Mazzaferro (Università degli Studi di Torino) and published in 2018 by Springer. The book contains 14 studies, drawing on different methodological approaches and implemented in multiple contexts, that contribute to a rich analysis of translanguaging. The concept of translanguaging is explored at the intersection of broader discussions, such as identity construction in immigrant or minority communities, language maintenance and loss, and individual agency in educational contexts. In this review, following a brief overview of the book's objectives and intended audience, the contents of the individual chapters are presented with commentary on noteworthy and valuable contributions as well as minor critiques, which do not detract from the value of this excellent volume.

Key words: TRANSLANGUAGING, PLURILINGUALISM, MIGRATION, IDENTITY, QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

ES Este trabajo presenta la revisión del libro *Translanguaging as Everyday Practice*, editado por Gerardo Mazzaferro (Universidad de los Estudios de Turin) y publicado en 2018 por la editorial Springer. Incluye 14 estudios que, a través de diversos acercamientos metodológicos, ofrecen un profundo análisis del concepto de *translanguaging* en múltiples contextos. La noción de translanguaging se examina en la intersección con fenómenos más amplios como, por ejemplo, la construcción identitaria en las comunidades migrantes o minoritarias, el mantenimiento y la pérdida de la lengua y la agencia individual en contextos educativos. En esta revisión, después de una breve presentación de los objetivos del texto y el público al que se dirige, se presenta el contenido de cada capítulo y, por último, se resaltan los aspectos relevantes y valiosos del texto, junto con unas críticas que, sin embargo, no le quitan mérito a esta admirable obra.

Palabras clave: TRANSLANGUAGING, PLURILINGÜISMO, MIGRACIÓN, IDENTIDAD, INVESTIGACIÓN CUALITATIVA

1. Un approccio multidisciplinare

Il libro *Translanguaging as Everyday Practice*, a cura di Gerardo Mazzaferro ed edito da Springer nel 2018, presenta una raccolta di 14 saggi di carattere multidisciplinare che ruotano intorno al complesso

*Contact: carbonara@unistrasi.it

concetto di *translanguaging* (García & Li Wei, 2014). L'obiettivo del testo è quello di approfondire il concetto di translanguaging in una prospettiva di ricerca multifocale, rileggendo fenomeni identitari e linguistici della società contemporanea globale e post-moderna attraverso la lente prismatica delle pratiche translinguistiche. Il volume si rivolge principalmente al settore accademico e può costituire una guida per dottorandi e giovani ricercatori che si apprestano a studiare il translanguaging in diversi contesti, poiché i saggi presenti offrono una estesa varietà di approcci metodologici. A livello didattico, il libro può essere utile anche a docenti della scuola primaria e secondaria già sensibili e formati su queste tematiche. Il testo, infatti, condensa numerose prospettive teoriche e, seppur marginalmente, anche didattiche, che possono essere comprese principalmente da insegnanti già consapevoli delle implicazioni della pedagogia del translanguaging.

2. Contenuti dei singoli capitoli

Il primo capitolo, "Translanguaging as Everyday Practice: An Introduction", a firma del curatore del volume, Gerardo Mazzaferro, si pone come presentazione dell'opera e dei suoi contenuti, fornendo indicazioni sulla chiave di lettura interdisciplinare del libro. Questo saggio, però, presenta anche una attenta e profonda disamina del concetto di translanguaging, ripercorrendo la nascita del termine e le tappe del suo sviluppo epistemologico, tra teoria linguistica e pratica didattica. Mazzaferro pone la definizione del termine nella cornice più ampia del dibattito relativo alle *named languages* (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007). L'autore, inoltre, non trascura di menzionare la componente ideologica insita nel concetto di translanguaging, che implica l'idea di inversione dei rapporti di potere nell'attuale epoca neoliberale, tramite azioni di *human agency* (Li Wei, 2011). Mazzaferro, infine, per contestualizzare il titolo del libro, offre anche una spiegazione dell'idea di *translanguaging as everyday practices*, sottraendo questo termine all'ambito dell'eccezionale e non ordinario, ma attribuendogli, invece, il ruolo di normale pratica comunicativa non marcata nell'interazione in contesti multilingui.

Il secondo capitolo "Translanguaging in a Monoglot Context: Children Mobilising and (Re)Positioning Their Multilingual Repertoires as Resources for Learning", scritto da Pinky Makoe, presenta uno studio etnografico svolto in una scuola primaria pubblica di Johannesburg durante un periodo di quattro mesi. Lo scopo della ricerca consisteva nel confrontare la politica linguistica della scuola, tendenzialmente monolingue, con le strategie comunicative plurilingui degli studenti. Dalle interviste condotte con le docenti, emerge una concezione fortemente monologica del contesto educativo, incentrato sull'inglese, mentre le lingue di origine degli studenti sono percepite come un problema. Estratti di conversazioni avvenute in classe evidenziano l'insistenza dei docenti riguardo l'uso dell'inglese, ma al contempo episodi di translanguaging fra gli studenti che coinvolgono le loro lingue di origine nella co-costruzione della conoscenza e per rafforzare la comprensione. L'autrice del capitolo conclude con una riflessione riguardante l'importanza della legittimazione di pratiche interazionali multilingui nella scuola per supportare il processo di apprendimento.

Il terzo saggio, "Translanguaging as Playful Subversion of a Monolingual Norm in the Classroom", di Teppo Jakonen, Tamás Péter Szabó e Petteri Laihonon, descrive un caso di studio svolto in Finlandia all'interno di una classe con metodo CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) di lingua inglese. Gli autori si focalizzano sull'interazione ibrida di uno studente come reazione alla normatività monolingue in L2 imposta dalla docente e presentano alcuni estratti di scambi comunicativi in momenti di transizione della lezione CLIL. L'analisi è condotta su estratti di interazione con la docente o fra studenti e mostra come il bambino oggetto di studio utilizzi la L1 o formule miste assimilabili a translanguaging per violare volontariamente l'ideologia della separazione fra lingue. Il contributo si conclude con una riflessione di natura pedagogica sull'utilizzo di forme di translanguaging a seconda dei diversi contesti educativi, come la lezione CLIL.

Il capitolo 4, "We Know the Same Language and Then We Can Mix Them: A Child's Perspectives on Everyday Translanguaging in the Family", i cui autori sono BethAnne Paulsruud e Boglárka Straszer, presenta una ricerca incentrata sull'analisi delle dinamiche di politica linguistica di una famiglia multilingue in Svezia, con un focus specifico su una delle figlie. Le autrici, dopo una attenta e completa literature review, espongono dati triangolati composti da interviste, annotazioni e registrazioni di interazioni raccolte dai genitori e dalle ricercatrici. L'analisi mostra come il soggetto della ricerca, Laura, sia consapevole del suo repertorio linguistico di *named* (svedese, finlandese, ungherese e tedesco) e non *named languages* (lingue di gioco e *baby talk*), ma anche del repertorio linguistico degli altri membri della famiglia. La bambina mostra una forte inclinazione all'uso di pratiche di translanguaging, il cui livello di mixing e le combinazioni di lingue coinvolte variano a seconda dell'interlocutore, del luogo e dello scopo dell'interazione. Le autrici indagano anche la

componente di consapevolezza metalinguistica e offrono una riflessione finale sulle gerarchie linguistiche dentro e fuori dal nucleo familiare e come l'*agency* di Laura può riscrivere o meno tali categorizzazioni.

Il quinto contributo, "Translanguaging in a Birmingham Chinese Complementary School: Ideology and Identity" di Jim Huang, illustra uno studio longitudinale svoltosi in una scuola di lingua cinese di Birmingham per studenti con background migratorio sinofono. I dati raccolti in un periodo di dieci mesi (osservazioni partecipate, annotazioni, interviste di stampo narrativo, informazioni di tipo documentaristico e fotografie) e analizzati attraverso la metodologia della *critical-informed ethnographic discourse analysis*, hanno messo in luce diversi atteggiamenti rispetto all'idea di translanguaging. I docenti di origine cantonese, per esempio, manifestano un maggiore attaccamento ad una interazione didattica monolingue in cinese, mentre i docenti di madrelingua mandarina affermano l'importanza di usare anche l'inglese, dato evidenziato da conversazioni con mixing a livello inter e intra-frasale. Questa differenza è dovuta principalmente a dinamiche sociali, migratorie e di appartenenza di classe dei due gruppi di insegnanti. L'autore approfondisce anche aspetti legati alla percezione identitaria del ruolo del docente e il discorso intorno alla *Chinese-ness*, mettendo in evidenza la componente di negoziazione ideologica nell'uso o meno di pratiche di translanguaging.

Il saggio 6, "Language Maintenance and Shift Within New Linguistic Minorities in Italy: A Translanguaging Perspective", scritto dal curatore del volume, Gerardo Mazzaferro, presenta uno studio relativo alle pratiche comunicative della comunità filippina della città di Torino. L'autore, dopo una attenta disamina dei concetti di *language maintenance* e *language shift*, analizza le percezioni valoriali di giovani filippini rispetto alla lingua italiana e alla lingua di origine, mettendole in relazione con il modellarsi della loro identità plurima in riferimento a episodi di translanguaging. L'aspetto più rilevante del contributo risulta nel mettere in evidenza le fluttuazioni culturali e linguistiche all'interno della comunità, non assimilabili ad una scelta univoca fra due identità monolitiche. In questo modo, lo studio si discosta da una visione lineare e unidirezionale dei processi di mantenimento ed erosione linguistica delle comunità immigrate, ma evidenzia gli aspetti di *agency* e di costruzione attiva e dinamica della propria identità linguistica e culturale da parte dei giovani filippini.

Il settimo contributo, "Translanguaging: A Vital Resource for First Nations Peoples", di Donna Starks, presenta dati su conversazioni fra adolescenti appartenenti alle popolazioni autoctone dell'odierno Canada, le cosiddette *First Nations*, raccolti negli anni 80. Dopo alcune pagine di considerazioni teoriche sui concetti di *lexical innovation*, *language attrition*, *language switching* e translanguaging, l'autrice descrive il contesto etnico della ricerca, rappresentato dalle popolazioni native del Canada e illustra alcuni scambi comunicativi fra giovani ragazzi appartenenti alla comunità Cree. L'analisi evidenzia l'uso dell'inglese per colmare la mancanza di determinati termini in lingua Cree, per chiarimenti in casi di *lexical attrition*, per esprimere emozioni tramite alcune formule di interiezione e in modalità di *switching* consapevole in precise strutture narrative nel racconto di uno dei partecipanti allo studio. Forme ascrivibili a translanguaging vengono, invece, utilizzate in riferimento ad alcuni prestiti lessicali inglesi, a cui i parlanti aggiungono suffissi derivabili dalla lingua di origine per adattare i termini al contesto culturale Cree. Queste formule ibride, quindi, non sono semplicemente sostitutive o indice di erosione linguistica ma segno di riposizionamento identitario fra le due culture.

Il capitolo 8, "Translanguaging and Hybrid Spaces: Boundaries and Beyond in North Central Arnhem Land" di Jill Vaughan, esplora le interazioni linguistiche nella comunità indigena di Maningrida, in Australia, un'area con una notevole diversità linguistica. L'autrice presenta alcuni estratti audio-registrati durante momenti comunitari come la presentazione di un libro e una partita di calcio e, utilizzando una lente translanguistica e il *framework* concettuale dello spazio ibrido o *third space* (Bhabha, 1994), offre delle riflessioni sulle scelte linguistiche adottate dai parlanti e sulle dinamiche socio-psicologiche del multilinguismo della regione. L'analisi dimostra un elevato livello di mixing tra inglese e lingua Burarra secondo pattern flessibili e ristrutturabili a seconda dell'interazione, ma allo stesso tempo sedimentati da una pratica condivisa e rinegoziata all'interno della comunità. L'autrice assimila questo genere di scambi comunicativi all'emergere in una "multilingua franca" (Makoni & Pennycook, 2012), ma con una specifica contestuale.

Il capitolo 9 "Translinguistic Practices in Global Business. A Longitudinal Study of a Professional Communicative Repertoire", scritto da Tiina Räisänen, si focalizza sul repertorio comunicativo professionale di un ingegnere finlandese. Gli estratti di scambi interazionali presentati, evidenziano cambiamenti sostanziali nell'arco di tredici anni, seguendo il corso della transizione professionale in altri settori da parte del soggetto analizzato. Oltre all'uso dell'inglese come lingua franca del business, pratiche di translanguaging

emergono in corrispondenza di necessità di chiarimento, per scopi di socializzazione e uso retorico. Il contributo si conclude con una riflessione sull'uso del translanguaging per plasmare il repertorio multilingue individuale e le concezioni valoriali individuali in rapporto allo spazio translinguistico rappresentato dal mondo del lavoro, sempre più influenzato da movimenti globali.

Il decimo saggio, "Communicative Repertoires in Advertising Space in Lesotho: The Translanguaging and Commodification Nexus", di Henry Amo Mensah, esplora il panorama semiotico del regno di Lesotho, con particolare riferimento alle pubblicità nei giornali, nelle insegne e nei volantini, secondo la prospettiva del concetto di translanguaging e di *commodification* (Bourdieu, 1977). Applicando la *Critical Discourse Analysis*, l'autore analizza una serie di messaggi pubblicitari mettendo in evidenza l'utilizzo di risorse plurilingui e simboliche, tra cui espressioni gergali giovanili o urbane tratte anche dalla messaggistica. Forme di translanguaging vengono utilizzate per orientare il messaggio pubblicitario sia a culturale che identitario per raggiungere uno scopo commerciale.

Il contributo 11, "Translanguaging and Collaborative Creative Practices: Communication and Performance in an Intercultural Theatre Group", scritto da Naomi Wells, mette in relazione gli studi di stampo culturale con un approccio di tipo sociolinguistico nella descrizione delle attività comunicative di una compagnia teatrale di Bologna, che organizza workshop rivolti a rifugiati e richiedenti asilo. L'autrice delinea alcune pratiche di interazione riscontrate durante i workshop, tra cui la traduzione, il ricorso esplicito ad alcune *named languages* e l'utilizzo di ulteriori risorse multimodali come il corpo o l'intonazione. Gli estratti di interviste presentati evidenziano l'impiego di risorse translinguistiche nelle performance, per cui i partecipanti allo studio, recitando testi trasposti dalla propria cultura di origine, non si limitano ad una mera traduzione in italiano, ma propongono delle rielaborazioni creative in cui la componente linguistica si fonde con la resa artistica generando un'espansione di senso.

Il capitolo 12, "Translanguaging and Language Creativity in Drama Staging", di Joëlle Aden e Maria Pavlovskaya, proseguendo nella corrente tematica del saggio precedente, presenta una ricerca su giovani studenti bilingui provenienti da famiglie russe che vivono in Francia. Questi giovani hanno partecipato a workshop teatrali sperimentali in cui vengono coinvolte tutte le lingue del loro repertorio. Basandosi su un compito di realtà, cioè l'interpretazione di un testo drammaturgico rivolto a un pubblico di lingua francese e di lingua russa con nessuna competenza nell'altra lingua, le autrici analizzano una sequenza comunicativa in cui gli studenti utilizzano le loro risorse linguistiche e gestuali per negoziare decisioni quali la divisione dei ruoli e per costruire in modo cooperativo la performance. Il contributo si conclude con una riflessione sull'importanza di promuovere un approccio pedagogico basato sulla non separazione fra cognitivo ed emotivo, mente e corpo e abilità linguistiche.

Il tredicesimo saggio, "Translanguaging and the Negotiation of Meaning: Multilingual Signage in a Swiss Linguistic Landscape", di Edina Krompák e Stephan Meyer si colloca nell'ambito degli studi relativi al linguistic landscape, esponendo una ricerca sul panorama semiotico del quartiere Kleinbasel a Basilea. Gli autori utilizzano un approccio metodologico plurimo che comprende, oltre alla raccolta etnografica visiva di fotografie di cartelli e insegne, anche interviste e focus groups condotti con coloro i quali potenzialmente ricevono i messaggi collocati nello spazio urbano del distretto. Ad un primo gruppo di partecipanti, definiti *expert translanguagers*, e ad un secondo gruppo di *translanguagers* meno consapevoli è stata presentata una serie di immagini tratte dal *linguistic landscape* multilingue di Kleinbasel. I soggetti, mettendo in atto processi di creazione di significato per analizzare i messaggi, dispiegano le proprie risorse linguistiche e semiotiche individuali e collettive. Utilizzando un'analisi basata sulla *Grounded Theory* (Charmaz, 2006) e sulla linguistica interazionale, vengono messi in luce gli aspetti intersoggettivi e intrasoggettivi della negoziazione translinguistica dei significati.

Il capitolo 14, che conclude il libro, si intitola "What Shapes Everyday Translanguaging? Insight from a Global Mental Health Project in Northern Uganda" ed ha come autori Jane Andrews, Richard Fay e Ross White. Il contributo presenta uno studio condotto nell'area di Lira, nel nord dell'Uganda, che analizza un gruppo di ricercatori di tipo socio-sanitario il cui scopo è migliorare la salute mentale degli abitanti, da anni sottoposti a conflitti. Gli autori illustrano gli scambi comunicativi fra il team di ricerca anglofono e quello locale, in cui vengono utilizzate pratiche translinguistiche che comprendono l'inglese, la lingua Lango e altri codici linguistici, senza rigide compartimentazioni. I ricercatori utilizzano le varie lingue, anche quelle che non appartengono saldamente al proprio repertorio, per instaurare relazioni e socializzare. Inoltre, il saggio propone un interessante parallelismo tra l'ideologia del translanguaging e la metodologia di intervento psicosociale DIME (*design, implementation, monitoring e evaluation*), che pone come base di ogni misura diagnostica o intervento, l'adattamento di questi ultimi al contesto dove si opera, al contrario della tendenza

occidentale, che solitamente non considera i fattori situazionali. Gli autori presentano e analizzano, quindi, anche estratti di considerazioni dei ricercatori sull'intersezione fra il concetto di translanguaging e la metodologia DIME nel loro vissuto come operatori socio-sanitari.

3. Valutazioni conclusive

Translanguaging as Everyday Practice è un testo rilevante nell'ambito degli studi di linguistica applicata, in particolare per chi si occupa o intende occuparsi di translanguaging. Uno degli aspetti più significativi del libro è la pluralità di approcci metodologici utilizzati nei vari studi, in cui si spazia dall'etnografia all'analisi della conversazione, dallo studio di caso all'analisi del discorso. Un altro elemento degno di nota è la varietà di contesti presentati: scuola, famiglia, settore professionale, mondo artistico e performativo, paesaggi urbani, comunità immigrate, minoritarie e indigene.

I saggi inclusi nell'opera sono per la maggior parte di tipo descrittivo. Questo aspetto, da un lato è fondamentale per approfondire epistemologicamente il concetto di translanguaging e conferirgli autonomia concettuale rispetto ad altri termini utilizzati per descrivere pratiche linguistiche multilingui, ed è altresì importante per far emergere schemi percettivi o reali legati alle politiche linguistiche individuali, familiari, educative e della società. Dall'altro lato, è rilevante ricordare la componente politica di *agency* insita nel translanguaging, che non dovrebbe essere limitata solo alla sfera dei docenti o dei singoli individui, ma estesa ai ricercatori: tramite attività di ricerca-azione trasformativa (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016), l'università può contribuire a costruire contesti educativi democratici ed ecologici (Hult, 2013), in linea con l'impegno civile che l'accademia dovrebbe esercitare nella società.

Un altro aspetto molto positivo del libro risiede nell'aver saputo raccogliere studi provenienti da diversi contesti internazionali ed europei e averli disposti in modo coerente all'interno del testo, che risulta essere un'opera coesa e ben strutturata. Il curatore è sicuramente ben consapevole che nel contesto italiano, a parte alcuni recenti studi (Carbonara & Scibetta, in stampa; Coppola & Moretti, 2018; Firpo & Sanfelici, 2015), il tema risulta ancora poco esplorato, pertanto il libro non include lavori italiani. Ci auguriamo che questo volume, dalla paternità italiana, possa conferire una spinta intellettuale allo sviluppo di una corrente di studi sul translanguaging anche in Italia.

Riferimenti bibliografici

- Austin, Jennifer, Blume, María, & Sánchez, Liliana (2015). *Bilingualism in the Spanish-speaking world: Linguistic and cognitive perspectives*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Bloomfield, Leonard (1993). *Language*. London, United Kingdom: George Allen and Unwin.
- Bhabha, Homi (1994). *The location of culture*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Bourdieu, Pierre (1977). The economics of linguistic exchange. *Social Science Information*, 16(6), 645-668.
- Carbonara, Valentina, & Scibetta, Andrea (in stampa). Il translanguaging come strumento efficace per la gestione delle classi plurilingui: il progetto L'AltRoparlante. *RILA, Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*.
- Charmaz, Kathy (2006). *Constructing grounded theory. A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. Los Angeles, California: Sage.
- Coppola, Daria, & Moretti, Raffaella (2018). Valorizzare la diversità linguistica e culturale. Uno studio di caso. In Carmel Mary Coonan, Ada Bier, & Elena Ballarin (Eds.), *La didattica delle lingue nel nuovo millennio. Le sfide dell'internazionalizzazione*. Venezia, Italia: Edizioni Ca' Foscari.
- Firpo, Elena, & Sanfelici, Laura (2016). *La visione eteroglossica del bilinguismo: Spagnolo lingua d'origine e Italstudio*. Milano, Italia: Edizioni Universitarie di Lettere Economia Diritto.
- García, Ofelia, & Li Wei (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. New York, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- García, Ofelia, & Kleyn, Tatyana (Eds.). (2016). *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments*. New York, New York: Routledge.

- Hult, Francis (2013). Ecology and multilingual education. In Carol Chapelle (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of applied linguistics (Vol. 3)* (pp. 1835-1840). Malden, Massachusetts: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Li Wei (2011). Moment analysis and translanguaging spaces: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(5), 1222-1235.
- Makoni, Sinfree, & Pennycook, Alastair (2012). Disinventing multilingualism: From monological multilingualism to multilingualia francas. In Marilyn Martin-Jones, Adrian Blackledge, & Angela Creese (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of multilingualism* (pp. 439-472). London, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Makoni, Sinfree, & Pennycook, Alastair (Eds.). (2007). *Disinventing and reconstituting languages*. Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.

Valentina Carbonara, Università per Stranieri di Siena

carbonara@unistrasi.it

- IT** | **Valentina Carbonara** è assegnista di ricerca presso l'Università per Stranieri di Siena. Ha conseguito un Dottorato di Ricerca in Linguistica e Didattica della Lingua Italiana a Stranieri presso l'Università per Stranieri di Siena nel 2017 sulla progettazione di un programma di educazione bilingue in una scuola dell'infanzia in Turchia. I suoi interessi di ricerca sono il bilinguismo, l'apprendimento precoce delle lingue, la metodologia CLIL e il translanguaging. È co-responsabile del gruppo LEND di Siena. Dal 2016, insieme ad Andrea Scibetta, coordina il progetto L'AltRoparlante, supervisionato dalla Prof.ssa Carla Bagna, che mira all'implementazione di pratiche orientate alla pedagogia del translanguaging in diverse scuole primarie e secondarie italiane.
- EN** | **Valentina Carbonara** is a research fellow at the Università per Stranieri di Siena. She obtained a Ph.D. in Linguistics and Didactics of Italian Language for Foreigners from the Università per Stranieri di Siena in 2017 after designing a bilingual education program in a Turkish kindergarten. Her research interests include bilingualism, early language learning, CLIL methodology, and translanguaging. She is the co-chair of the LEND group in Siena. Since 2016, together with Andrea Scibetta, she has coordinated the L'AltRoparlante project, supervised by Dr. Carla Bagna, which seeks to implement pedagogical practices that support translanguaging in several primary and secondary Italian schools.
- ES** | **Valentina Carbonara** es investigadora postdoctoral en la Università per Stranieri di Siena. Se doctoró en Lingüística y Didáctica del Italiano para Extranjeros de la Università per Stranieri di Siena en 2017 con un proyecto sobre el diseño curricular de un programa bilingüe en una escuela infantil en Turquía. Sus intereses de investigación incluyen el bilingüismo, el aprendizaje precoz de lenguas, la metodología AICLE y el translanguaging. Es la co-directora del grupo LEND de Siena. Desde 2016 coordina, junto con Andrea Scibetta, el proyecto L'Altroparlante, gestionado por la profesora Carla Bagna, que se centra en la implementación de prácticas orientadas a la pedagogía del translanguaging en diversas escuelas primarias y secundarias italianas.