ONUR ÖZKAYNAK

A STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL ON TRANSLANGUAGING PRACTICES, FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY, RECONCEPTUALIZED L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM, AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT OF EMERGENT BILINGUALS

A MASTER'S THESIS

BY

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A Structural Equation Model on Translanguaging Practices, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety, Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System, and Foreign Language Achievement of Emergent Bilinguals

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Onur Özkaynak

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May 2020

I certify that I have read this thesis and have found that it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

Asst. Prof. Dr. Hilal Peker (Supervisor)

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Approval of the Graduate School of Education

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ABSTRACT

A Structural Equation Model on Translanguaging Practices, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety, Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System, and Foreign Language Achievement of Emergent Bilinguals

Onur Özkaynak

M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Hilal Peker

June 2020

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between translanguaging practices, foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA), reconceptualized L2 motivational self system (R-L2MSS), and English language achievement scores of emergent bilinguals. To this end, 386 A1 and A2-level English learners, studying at a preparatory school of a university in Turkey, took part in the study. The quantitative data were derived through a 45-item survey. First, an exploratory factor analysis performed on the responses to the Translanguaging Practices Scale and two factors were obtained. Subsequently, the whole data were adapted and tested for measurement model validity and reliability. Partial least square structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) results, analyzed in Smart PLS (Version 3.2.9), revealed there was a statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices, foreign language classroom anxiety, and reconceptualized L2 motivational self system. However, the relationship between translanguaging practices and English language achievement scores was not statistically significant.

Keywords: Translanguaging practices, foreign language classroom anxiety, reconceptualized L2 motivational self system

ÖZET

Gelişmekte Olan İki Dilli Bireylerin Diller Arası Geçişlilik Uygulamaları, Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı, Yeniden Kavramsallaştırılmış İkinci Dil Motivasyonel Benlik Sistemi ve Yabancı Dil Başarısı Üzerine Bir Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli

Onur Özkaynak

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi

Tez Yöneticisi: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Hilal Peker

Haziran 2020

Bu çalışmanın amacı gelişmekte olan iki dilli bireylerin diller arası geçişlilik uygulamaları, yabancı dil sınıf kaygısı, yeniden kavramsallaştırılmış yabancı dil motivasyonel benlik sistemleri ve İngilizce başarı puanları arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla, çalışmaya bir üniversitenin hazırlık okulunda okuyan 386 A1 ve A2 seviyesindeki İngilizce öğrencisi katılmıştır. Nicel veriler, 45 maddelik bir anket ile elde edilmiştir. İlk olarak, Diller Arası Geçişlilik Uygulamaları Ölçeği'ne verilen yanıtlar için açımlayıcı faktör analizi uygulanmış ve iki faktör keşfedilmiştir. Daha sonra tüm veriler ölçüm modeli geçerliği ve güvenirliği için uyarlanmış ve test edilmiştir. Smart PLS (Versiyon 3.2.9) ile analiz edilen kısmi en küçük kareler yapısal eşitlik modellemesi sonuçları diller arası geçişlilik uygulamaları, yabancı dil sınıf kaygısı ve yeniden kavramsallaştırılmış ikinci dil motivasyonel benlik sistemleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ancak, diller arası geçişlilik uygulamaları ve İngilizce başarı puanları arasındaki ilişki istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmamıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Diller arası geçişlilik uygulamaları, yabancı dil sınıf kaygısı, yeniden kavramsallaştırılmış ikinci dil motivasyonel benlik sistemi

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The credence that foreign language teaching should be carried out in the target language (TL), with almost no recourse to the native languages of learners (L1), has dominated the field of foreign language teaching (FLT) for a considerable period of time. Since the beginning of the Reform Period, when the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) fell out of favor, as it failed to "promote the teaching of the spoken language" (Howatt & Smith 2014, p. 81), the systematic use of L1 has been avoided, and this stance against its use has even been acclaimed as "the foundation of language teaching" (Cook, 2001, p. 404). In this regard, much of the language teaching methodology has derived from the idea that it is essential both for teachers and learners to abstain from using L1 in the foreign language (L2) classroom, in which L2 should ideally be used to conduct the lessons (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Valdés, 1998). In fact, although not based on extensive scientific research, the separation of languages during language learning and teaching processes is still pervasive and persistent (Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2005; Littlewood & Yu, 2011). Nevertheless, despite their teachers' efforts to minimize or even forbid the use of L1 in the classroom, most language learners are inclined to "keep the two languages in contact" (Widdowson, 2003, p. 150). This is not unexpected, as foreign language learners are equipped with prior knowledge which profoundly affects the way they remember, reason, and acquire new knowledge (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). This has lead researchers and foreign language teachers to question the logic of monolingualism in foreign language teaching. Hence, in the last 20 years

or so, the monolingual paradigm in language teaching and learning has been contested, and new notions, such as translanguaging, which values the significance of interdependence across languages in second language acquisition (SLA), have begun to emerge. Unlike monolingual assumptions, translanguaging focuses on the strength that individuals bring to the table in terms of languages they know.

Originally coined by Cen Williams in 1994 as *trawsieithu* in Welsh, translanguaging simply consisted of pedagogical practices in which students were supposed to use Welsh and English simultaneously for receptive and productive language uses (Baker, 2001). Several scholars have attempted to devise definitions for the term translanguaging since then. For example, emphasizing the simultaneous utilization of two languages, Baker (2001) defines translanguaging as "the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages" (p. 288). Additionally, Canagarajah (2011a) posits that translanguaging refers to "the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system" (p. 401). García (2009a), as a vigorous advocate of translanguaging, on the other hand, argues that translanguaging "is the multiple discourse practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds" (p. 102). All of these definitions broadly refer to one point: so as to make meaning, speakers resort to all the languages in their mind and benefit from this merged body of linguistic knowledge. While translanguaging, the speakers transcend barriers between their native languages and the foreign language(s) which may allow them to promote a deeper understanding of the subject matter and strengthen the weaker language (Baker, 2001). In this sense, translanguaging can be conceptualized as a pedagogical

theory that aims to be an alternative to the monolingual ideology, which prohibits the use of more than one language in foreign language classrooms.

Prohibition and/or allowance of the use of learners' native languages in foreign language classes, nevertheless, may have both cognitive and affective impacts on language learners. As for the cognitive advantages, it has been observed that language learners can use their native languages as an advantageous tool to check meaning, understand grammatical constructions, complete tasks, improve their reading ability, learn vocabulary, gain cultural background knowledge, make meaning, and analyze the language (see Atkinson, 1993; Aurebach, 1993; Baker, 2001; Cummins, 2007; Hsieh, 2001; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Villamil & de Guerrero, 1996). On the other hand, giving language learners the permission to use their native languages can be beneficial for them to cope with affective barriers they happen to encounter while learning a foreign language and to increase their confidence in their success (see Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2001; García, 2009a; García & Wei, 2014; Harbord, 1992; Johnson & Lee, 1987; Kang, 2008; Kern, 1989; Lasagabaster, 2013; Wang, 2016). When considered from this point of view, any attempt to prevent language learners from making use of their native languages may be equal to depriving them of the benefits of an essential construct for language learning. The focus of this study, however, is the affective factors related to the prohibition and allowance of native language use in foreign language classes.

Motivation, as a significant variable and a widely-studied concept in foreign language learning, is one of these affective factors. The seminal work of Canadian Social psychologist Robert C. Gardner and his colleagues proposed the first conceptualization of motivation in L2 (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). In their work, Gardner and Lambert (1972) emphasized two concepts as the

underlying motivations of language learning: *integrative* and *instrumental orientation.* According to Gardner (2001), integrative orientation indicates the cultural context of L2 learning such as "reflecting an interest in integration with (or specifically in becoming closer psychologically to) the group who speaks the language" (p. 10). When learners are integratively motivated, they would like to learn the language to be able to adapt to the culture of the people who speak that language. Instrumental orientation, on the other hand, "focuses on a more practical purpose the language learning would serve for the individual" (Gardner, 2001, p. 10). Promotion at workplace, passing a course, and receiving a pay rise are some of the examples of instrumental motivation.

Dörnyei (2005, 2009), on the other hand, criticized the integrativeness concept, proposed by Gardner, postulating that learners may not always be able to integrate with the L2 community and he reconceptualized the foreign language learning motivation from *a selves perspective* as three basic components. He named the new conceptualization of motivation in L2 as *L2 Motivational Self System* (L2MSS). Dörnyei (2009) describes the components of L2MSS as follows:

> *Ideal L2 Self*, which is the L2-specific facet of one's 'ideal self': if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the 'ideal L2 self' is a powerful motivator to learn the L2. *Ought-to L2 Self*, which concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes. *L2 Learning Experience*, which concerns situated, 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g., the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success). (p. 29)

However, Peker (2016) pointing out that the L2MSS lacks an important component, offered a new self as *feared L2 self* that balances the ideal L2 component of L2MSS. The feared self refers to one's future mental representations that are associated with fear, anxiety, and dread. In respect to language learning motivation,

feared L2 self concerns the attributes related to language learning that a language learner avoids possessing. These attributes, for instance, may include failure to learn a foreign language, low proficiency, humiliation, being bullied, and discriminated against. In this sense, the feared L2 self can be "a motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to increase the discrepancy between the individual's actual and feared selves and decrease the discrepancy between the actual and ideal future L2 self" (Peker, 2016, p. 4).

Another affective factor associated with the prohibition and allowance of native language use in foreign language classes is *Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety* (FLCA). Anxiety, as it can interfere with learning many things, may inhibit language learners from successfully learning a foreign language, as well. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) define FLCA as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 128). Various researchers have attempted to categorize L2 anxiety as dichotomous concepts (e.g., Scovel, 1978; Spielberger,1983). To illustrate, *facilitating* and *debilitating* anxieties, classified by Scovel (1978), assert that anxiety is a multifaceted notion that can both further or weaken learning. That is, although a high level of anxiety is detrimental to learning, a lower level of anxiety can have a positive influence on it. Spielberger (1983), on the other hand, postulates that anxiety can be a *state* or a *trait.* The former is based on the recognition that anxiety can refer to a temporary feeling that can rise or fall depending on the context. The latter, however, refers to the permanence of the feeling across different situations.

The importance of foreign language anxiety and motivation in foreign language learning outcomes is undeniable. The relationship between these constructs

has been studied extensively and they have been found to be highly correlating with foreign language learning. As an emerging pedagogy, translanguaging may also have an impact on foreign language learning anxiety, motivation, and English language achievement. In this sense, exploring the relationship between translanguaging practices, foreign language anxiety, motivation, and English language achievement could yield beneficial results for foreign language teachers and researchers. To this end, this study seeks to investigate the relationship between translanguaging practices, FLCA, reconceptualized L2MSS (R- L2MSS), and the English language achievement scores of emergent bilinguals.

Background of the Study

The term translanguaging was originally developed by a Welsh teacher, Cen Williams, as a teaching practice through which the students were asked to read in one language (e.g., Welsh) and write in another (e.g., English) so that they could make full use of their linguistic repertoire. Since its inception, translanguaging has attracted the attention of several researchers, each of whom defining it slightly differently from each other. Among them, García (2009a) provides the most comprehensive definition of translanguaging as "the multiple discourse practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds" (p. 102). According to García and Wei (2014), translanguaging refers to the integrity of languages that construct one's linguistic repertoire rather than two separate languages.

Translanguaging has been studied by various researchers since it was first coined by Colin Baker. For example, Canagarajah (2011b) reports on the writing of a single student whom he called Buthaniah and her translanguaging strategies. A study conducted by Hornberger and Link (2012) emphasizes the importance of

translanguaging in classrooms as a desirable educational practice. In their study, Velasco and García (2014) investigated the writing texts and their use of translanguaging of five young bilinguals. Another study conducted by Mwinda and Van der Walt (2015) focused on the necessity of contextual analysis for translanguaging practices. Portolés and Martí (2017), on the other hand, investigated translanguaging practices that strategically utilize L1, L2, and L3. In a recent study, Duarte (2019) investigated the way students applied their linguistic repertoires to maintain tasks in content-matter classrooms. In another study, Turnbull (2019) explored the effects of weak and strong forms of translanguaging on the production of Japanese EFL students' academic and creative composition pieces. Wu and Lin (2019) elucidated the translanguaging/trans-semiotising practices of an experienced science teacher trying out a CLIL approach. Escobar (2019) presented the analysis of a translanguaging by design activity that he conducted with students finishing an EFL program at a Costa Rican university. Ortega (2019) exemplified the ways in which students as social beings learn English as a foreign language in Colombia and how the teacher uses trans[cultura]linguación.

Some other researchers have explored the attitudes of students and teachers' toward translanguaging. To illustrate, Wang (2019) carried out a study to explore what students and teachers think and do about translanguaging practices in beginners' classes in Chinese universities. Additionally, McMillan and Rivers (2011) examined the attitudes of native speakers of English toward translanguaging practices at a Japanese university. In another study, Holdway and Hitchcock (2018) examined K12 public school teachers' perspectives of students' translanguaging practices as a pedagogical resource. Escobar and Dillard-Paltrineri (2015) examined the beliefs of instructors and learners from the English Department at a public

university in Costa Rica, regarding English-Spanish translanguaging in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. Ngcobo, Ndaba, Nyangiwe, Mpungose, and Jamal (2016) conducted a qualitative study to explore the perceptions of students' toward translanguaging practices in the South African Higher Education context. Mazak and Harbas-Donoso (2015) carried out an ethnographic case study to describe translanguaging practices of a professor in detail in an undergraduate science course at an officially bilingual university.

Despite the growing body of research on translanguaging, its relationship with foreign language learning motivation, anxiety, and foreign language achievement of learners has not been investigated thoroughly. However, as pedagogical practices, translanguaging in foreign language classrooms may have an effect on R-L2MSS, FLCA, and English language achievement. Therefore, considering the fact that translanguaging is an emerging pedagogy, exploring the relationship between translanguaging practices, R-L2MSS, FLCA, and English language achievement can help translanguaging further conceptualize as a pedagogy.

Statement of the Problem

Once the power and influence of the people extend beyond their borders in some ways (e.g., advancements in technology and science, invasion of another country, imperialism, and migration, etc.), as a tool to disseminate their power, their language may gain a profound significance (Phillipson, 1992). In fact, the process in which the English language transformed into a global language can also be associated with the power of the countries where it is spoken predominantly: the British Empire and the United States of America (Crystal, 2003). The peoples of these nations, who principally speak English as their mother tongue, have played a

fundamental role in the crucial changes that have taken place in the last three centuries.

First, the Industrial Revolution, which began in Britain in the 18th century and from there spread to the other parts of the world, rendered the language of science and technology English. Subsequently, in the 19th century, the language of international banking became English with the prevalence of British pound and American dollar used in monetary transactions circulating all around the globe. The final impact of these series of changes was on the culture, nearly every aspect of which has a sort of history in the English language. To illustrate, the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), one of the pioneers of the societal radio users, started to broadcast in English so as to address public issues in the 1920s (Luthra, 2009). The development of radio was followed by the development of television and the Internet, whose roots can also be found in the United States. Television, to begin with, despite its widespread status at the local level, derives much of its international content from either native English sources or translated materials. The Internet, on the other hand, continuous to be a medium in which English is used as the lingua franca, although globalization of the Internet has led to the rise of other languages, too (Crystal, 2006).

Scientific and economic developments, emerged especially in the United States in the 18th century, urged European people coming from diverse backgrounds to immigrate to the United States with the aim of finding better prospects (De Jong, 2011). This period roughly coincides with the shift in the language teaching from Latin and Greek to modern languages. The first known account of ideas about teaching modern foreign languages dates back to the 1750s, which we now know as *the Classical Period*. In spite of the shift from Latin and Greek to the modern

European languages, the classics were used by modern language teachers in the development of their teaching materials (Howatt & Smith, 2014). Consequently, not being substantially different from the teaching of Latin and Greek, *the Classical Method* or *the Grammar Translation Method* (GTM) was adopted as the chief method of teaching modern foreign languages for reading proficiency (Brown, 2007). However, as being a bilingual method, the GTM was thought to be an unsuitable way of teaching English to the people who were native speakers of various languages. To meet this demand, monolingualism in language teaching came to the fore with the introduction of *the Direct Method* (DM), which promotes the exclusive use of the target language, inductive grammar teaching, instruction of oral communication skills, and everyday vocabulary while teaching the foreign language (Richards & Rodgers, 2012). To this day, most language teaching methods have embraced this "bedrock notion" inherited from the DM (Howatt, 1984, p. 289) and these methods have rarely touched upon the L1 unless they have advised teachers on minimizing its use (Cook, 2001). The fundamental tenet of this monolingual ideology is that "an exclusive focus on English will maximize the learning of the language, irrespective of whatever other languages the learner may know" (Phillipson, 1992, p. 185). In line with this tenet, according to the monolingual ideology, "the ideal teacher is a native speaker, somebody with native speaker proficiency in English who can serve as a model for the pupils" (Phillipson, 1992, p. 193). When the amount of linguistic input that learners receive for the development of language is taken into account, systematic exposure to the target language and processing of the input sound plausible (Ellis, 1994; Ellis 1997; Gas & Selinker; 2009) and this is also consistent with the sociocultural approach to development which posits that language of the child develops through scaffolding (Vygotsky,

1978). Nonetheless, considering half of the world's population is multilingual (Grosjean & Miller, 1994) and "multilingualism has become more visible" (García, 2019, p. 370), it would not be wrong to question the status quo of the monolingual approach to teaching foreign languages. As the foreign language learners are different from monolinguals, it may be inappropriate to base language teaching on the monolingual ideology (Cook, 2008).

The impact of monolingual ideology in the Turkish educational context can be classified under two phenomena: English-medium instruction (EMI) and English-only policy. Turkey, similar to most of the non-Anglophone countries, has not been indifferent to the adoption of English medium instruction in the higher education context. Although there have been various reforms, initiatives, and alterations in the higher education system of Turkey, the popularity of EMI has never faded; on the contrary, it has gained momentum with the establishment of state and foundation universities offering English preparatory classes to their students (Kırkgöz, 2009; Macaro & Akincioglu, 2018). The adaptation process to the European credit transfer system required by the Bologna initiative has also brought about certain changes in higher education in Turkey (O'Dwyer, Akşit, & Sands, 2010), one of which is the promotion of EMI programs in universities to increase student mobility. As a result of these, EMI gained ground in the Turkish education system rapidly.

Closely related to EMI, English-only policy, on the other hand, has been viewed as one of the cornerstones of language learning. Although this policy is not verbalized openly in most institutions, English language teachers are generally aware of its unofficial presence and violating this rule can even result in as a feeling of guilt for teachers and learners (Alshehri, 2017; Pan & Pan, 2011; Wang, 2019; Wei & Lin, 2019). The validity of such policies and effectiveness of EMI, however, is being

questioned now. A recent report drawn up by the British Council and the Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey (TEPAV) (2015) suggests EMI programs be at the graduate level only and EMI be limited and the Turkish Medium Instruction (TMI) be fostered until learners' English language level reaches B1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR; Council of Europe, 2001) (British Council & TEPAV, 2015).

In order to communicate appropriately in real-life situations, language users utilize their linguistic resources (Cook, 2004). That is, they refer to "the set of language varieties exhibited in the speaking and writing patterns" of their speech community (Finegan, 2012, p. 315). In the case of a language learner, however, the linguistic repertoire is made up of the learner's first and the foreign language(s), which is the combination of the knowledge of several languages (Wei, 2018). The language learners deliberately and systematically access an inventory of linguistic knowledge and benefit from it to communicate successfully. In this sense, prohibiting the use of L1 or relying solely on the monolingual instructional practices would mean preventing learners from exploiting their full linguistic repertoire as well as depriving them of this valuable reserve. However, translanguaging values the functional interrelationship of the learners' languages rather than considering them as separate linguistic systems (Velasco & García, 2014). This emerging construct has encouraged several researchers to explore its practices in the ESL and EFL contexts (e.g., Canagarajah, 2011b; Duarte, 2019; Escobar, 2019; Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015; Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Mazak & Harbas-Donoso, 2015; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Mwinda & Van der Walt, 2015; Ngcobo, Ndaba, Nyangiwe, Mpungose, & Jamal, 2016; Ortega, 2019; Portolés & Martí, 2017; Turnbull, 2019; Velasco & García, 2014; Wang, 2019; Wu & Lin,

2019). Although translanguaging has attracted the attention of several researchers in the Turkish context (e.g., Karabulut, 2019; Küçük, 2018; Yuvayapan, 2019), their number is limited and most of the studies that are related to the L1 use of learners either focused on only code-switching (Eldridge, 1996; Köylü, 2018; Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005) or investigated the perceptions and beliefs of the instructors and learners toward the use of L1 in foreign language classrooms (Debreli & Oyman, 2015; Kafes, 2011; Kayaoğlu, 2012; Kaymakamoğlu & Yıltanlılar, 2019; Sali, 2014). The current study, however, focuses on the relationship between translanguaging practices, foreign language learning motivation, foreign language learning classroom anxiety, and English language achievement. In this respect, it may contribute to the literature of translanguaging in the Turkish context. It can also inspire further studies that investigate the effective and meaningful use of native languages of the learners in foreign language classes.

Research Questions

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between translanguaging practices employed by emergent bilinguals, their foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA), reconceptualized L2 motivational self system (R-L2MSS), and English language achievement scores. In this respect, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and foreign language classroom anxiety of emergent bilinguals?
2. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and the reconceptualized L2 motivational self system of emergent bilinguals?

3. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and English language achievement scores of emergent bilinguals?

Significance of the Study

The results of this study can be of benefit to the field of foreign language teaching and education in broader terms in several ways. In a world, where the number of people who can speak more than one language exceeds the number of monolinguals and languages become more intertwined (Cenoz, 2017; García, 2009a; García, 2019; Grosjean & Miller, 1994), neglecting the individuals' full linguistic resources and keeping their languages separate while educating them go against the grain. Leaving no space for the languages of individuals and not deploying their full linguistic repertoire while they are trying to learn a foreign language, a given subject or a content area will only serve the purpose of monolingual heritage. However, translanguaging that focuses on "the dynamism of the actual complex interaction of speakers with multiple semiotic resources" (García & Wei, 2014, p. 41) allows individuals to go beyond the tenets of monolingual ideology, thus empowering them to use their full linguistic repertoires. In this respect, the results of this study can provide an insight into the translanguaging practices that are employed by foreign language learners and rephrase them in an organized way. To this end, from the responses of the participants, various structured English language classroom activities embracing translanguaging practices could be derived. Therefore, foreign language teachers could be provided with a series of logical and well-planned practices that would guide them in using learners' native languages. The lack of consistency among English teachers and learners with regard to the use of mother tongue in English classes was also pointed out in the large-scale study on the state of English language teaching in state schools in Turkey (British Council & TEPAV,

2013). The results show that as the teachers and learners are not provided with proper guidance about the use of native languages in English classes, certain disparities exist between their practices, which curb learning in many occasions. However, the results of this current study may cast light on the consistent and systematic use of native languages in English classes so that neither teachers nor learners are left to their own devices about this pressing issue.

The results of the current study may also raise awareness of the stakeholders of the current situation of language minoritized students in Turkey. A great majority of the people living in Turkey speak Turkish, the only official language of the country, as their native language; however, approximately 15% of the population also speak a variety of languages that mainly include certain dialects of Kurdish and Arabic (Buran & Yüksel Çak, 2012). Therefore, there is a considerable number of bilingual children and adolescents in various levels of education throughout the nation. Additionally, as of 30 January 2020, Turkey hosts more than 3,5 million registered Syrian refugees who mostly speak Arabic, Kurdish, and certain dialects of Turkish and majority of these refugees receive education in state schools of Turkey (UNHCR, Situation Syria Regional Refugee Response, 2020). When viewed from this perspective, translanguaging practices gain prominence, since rather than compartmentalizing the languages of peoples in education, relying on translanguaging practices can construct “a third space that makes possible the development of students’ dynamic language and cultural practices, and thus a meaningful education” (Flores & García, 2013, p. 255). The current study, therefore, can yield valuable information about how to better educate individuals with refugee background and contribute to the promotion of educational equity.

Finally, as an emerging pedagogy, translanguaging is still an underresearched concept especially in the EFL contexts; thus, its pedagogical implications are still unknown to some extent. Although translanguaging takes place in English classes "in sanctioned and unsanctioned situations", legitimate practices of translanguaging need to be developed (García & Wei, 2014, p. 132). To this end, another aim of this study is to fill the research gap pertinent to the concept of translanguaging in the EFL context, more specifically the Turkish one.

Definition of Key Terms

Communication apprehension: is "a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127). Communication apprehension can cause individuals to avoid any form of social interaction with others due to high levels of anxiety.

Emergent bilingual: In the current study, the term emergent bilingual refers to the individuals who are currently learning English and "are at the early stages of bilingual development" (García, Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017, p. 2). With this term, the researcher intends to emphasize the developmental and dynamic process of language learning.

English learning experience: English learning experience "concerns situated, 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g., the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success)" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29).

English-Medium Instruction: English-medium Instruction is "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English" (Dearden, 2014, p.2).

Feared L2 Self: Feared-L2 self refers to linguistic incompetency that one fears to possess in the future. "The feared L2 self is a motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to increase the discrepancy between the individual's actual and feared selves and decrease the discrepancy between the actual and ideal future L2 self" (Peker, 2016, p. 4).

Fear of failure: concerns the psychological conditions that are related to the state of uncomfortableness due to being afraid of not being successful. In the current study, this construct refers to failing to learn English and to understand teacher.

Foreign language classroom anxiety: is "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128).

Ideal L2 self: This construct is "the L2-specific facet of one's 'ideal self': if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the 'ideal L2 self' is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29).

Ought-to L2 self: Ought-to L2 self "concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). If people around us expect us to become proficient in L2, the ought-to L2 self becomes a powerful motivator and we try to fulfill the expectations of others of us.

Translanguaging: Translanguaging refers to learners' use of their whole linguistic repertoire benefitting from all the languages they know or they are learning in order to communicate successfully (Velasco & García, 2014).

Conclusion

In this chapter, an overview of the literature on translanguaging has been provided. Following that, the statement of the problem, research questions and the significance of the study have been represented. The next chapter provides a detailed review of literature on the concept of translanguaging, FLCA, and R-L2MS.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical assumption of the current study derives from the work of Sociocultural Theory (SCT) because of the emphasis the theory places on the role of participation in social interactions that develop human cognition (Donato & McCormick, 1994). SCT was developed by Soviet psychologist Lev Semyonovich Vygotsky in the early 20th century as a response to behaviorism (Vygotsky, 1962). According to his theory, knowledge is and has to be constructed through interpersonal communication before it is *internalized* by individuals (Vygotsky, 1978). That is, individuals build knowledge through interacting with others and the world around them and they engage in higher-order thinking skills while doing this (Johnson, 2009). According to Vygotsky (1978), in order to interact with the environment, we need to master physical tools that extend our physical abilities as well as mental tools that enable us to make meaning.

One of the core concepts of SCT is mediation. As an umbrella term, mediation refers to the use of higher-level cultural tools (i.e. language, logic, reasoning) to establish an indirect relationship with the outside world (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). This means that individuals make use of tools as mediators between their environment and themselves to be able to modify it and gain benefits from it depending on their needs. Cognitive development, in this sense, is not the process of the revealing of innate capacities but is the alteration of such capacities when they come into contact with socioculturally constructed mediational tools (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995). In order to clarify the concepts of meditation and tool, Lantolf and Thorne (2007) exemplify them as follows:

> If we want to dig a hole in the ground in order to plant a tree, it is possible, following the behavior of other species, to simply use our hands. However, modern humans rarely engage in such nonmediated activity; instead, we mediate the digging process through the use of a shovel, which allows us to make more efficient use of our physical energy and to dig a more precise hole. (p. 199)

As an indispensable component of interaction, the language is a pivotal tool for the development of cognition (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Appel, 1994). Similar to using a shovel to mediate digging a hole, individuals use the language as a vehicle to construct knowledge. Vygotsky (1978) conceptualizes language as three different forms. These are *external speech*, *private speech*, and *inner speech.* The external speech refers to the language that is used by individuals to communicate with others. This kind of speech is mastered when children combine words starting from one word finally managing to advance from simple sentences to more complicated ones (Vygotsky, 1978). The private speech, on the other hand, is the vocalization of the thoughts of the child. While engaging in this kind of speech, ‘‘the child does not try to communicate, expects no answers, and often does not even care whether anyone listens to him” (p. 26). Much as it can be audible, the private speech is spoken to oneself and is not directed at anyone. Its primary aim, hence, is self-regulation or self-guide the child’s mental functioning (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). The private speech, in time, gives place to the inner speech by the time the child begins to stop ‘thinking aloud’. In other words, it “is an intermediate step toward the development of inner (nonvocal) speech, which later becomes the child's internalized tool for self-regulation” (Karpov & Haywood, 1998, p. 28). In the same vein, for translanguaging, language is also a socially constructed symbolic artifact and individuals use it to interact with the world and make meaning (García & Wei, 2014) and translanguaging promotes “metatalk (talk about talk), metacognition (talk about the task), and whispered private speech” (Kibler, 2010, p. 123).

The schema of growth and development of cognition stimulated by social interaction was conceptualized as *the zone of proximal development* (ZPD) by Vygotsky (1978). The concept was created to visualize the range of cognitive abilities that an individual can execute with the assistance of others. Vygotsky (1978) defines this concept as follows: "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)

Vygotsky envisages as long as individuals are provided with sufficient and appropriate assistance in line with their actual level of development (i.e. what the person already knows or can perform), they can move through their ZPD and master various (both cognitive and physical) tasks. Social interactions, in this respect, are regarded as scaffolding activities that support individuals until they are able to perform the task independently. Vygotsky (1962) refers to such activities as "properly organized instruction" that "will result in the child's intellectual development" (p. 121). When children engage in these activities with a *more knowledgeable other*, they are provided with instruction, correct model, and/or guidance to internalize the information.

Moll (as cited in García et al., 2017), taking the basis of Vygotsky's ZPD and blending it with the bilingualism lens, further expands the term as *the bilingual zone of proximal development.* In this respect, anything that learners do bilingually within their ZPD to scaffold their and one another's learning and to construct knowledge occurs in the bilingual ZPD. Similarly, Lantolf (2000) posits that as translanguaging involves mediation through language and using the full linguistic repertoires of the learners, it can also enable individuals to broaden their ZPD or more specifically

bilingual ZPD. Translanguaging's flexible feature of the language allocation policy supports individuals who are not able to make meaning in one language (García & Wei, 2019). In this way, individuals can add new linguistic features to their repertoire and retrieve them when they are supposed to engage in a conversation. In other words, they can self-regulate their learning with the assistance of their inner speech. Additionally, as translanguaging embraces the use of individuals' mother tongue during formal instruction, it "can be an important scaffolding strategy in solving problems, managing tasks, and task goals, and accessing language forms" (Kibler, 2010, p. 123).

Translanguaging also provides learners with the opportunity of engaging in collaborative dialogue that allows them to build knowledge and solve problems (Swain, 2000). Talking to one another and entering into "relationships with others whose language repertoires overlap with theirs" (García et al., 2017, p. 8) enable learners to develop knowledge interpersonally and better understand the context. The social network established through translanguaging becomes the ideal medium for individuals to exchange and construct knowledge. Interactional use of translanguaging in this network establishes an appropriate ground for the acquisition of knowledge (Duarte, 2019).

SCT can also be associated with the term *translanguaging space* proposed by Wei (2011). According to Wei, translanguaging space is a socially constructed milieu in which multilinguals use their linguistic repertoires "to form and transform their lives" (p. 1223). In this space, learners and teachers "use their different language practices to teach and learn in deeply creative and critical ways" (García et al., 2017, p. 2). From this perspective, translanguaging space can be said to have overlapping aspects with the bilingual ZPD, as the space created through translanguaging

involves strategic scaffolding that enables individuals to reach their proximal development level (Li & Luo, 2017). The bilingual ZPD, thus, can be regarded as a part of a larger space created through the active and systematic use of translanguaging. Wei (2011) claims, "the construction of the [translanguaging] space is an ongoing, lifelong process" (p. 1223). This process, hence, involves self-regulation of one's thoughts that is in progress throughout one's life.

All in all, the importance of language for the acquisition and internalization of knowledge is undeniable and it is regarded as an indispensable component of SCT. Translanguaging, which is the theoretical reflection of the complex linguistic practices of speakers, transcends boundaries between languages and allows individuals to acquire and internalize knowledge through their full linguistic repertoire. In this vein, translanguaging offers a new perspective to the notion of language in SCT and promotes its significance in interactional terms.

Bilingualism and Multilingualism

Suggesting a clear-cut definition for bilingualism and multilingualism is not an easy task. Various sources define them in terms of context (e.g., the number of languages spoken in a society or among the nations), some others classify them depending on the level of speakers' fluency in languages. Although such prefixes as *bi-*, *multi-* used with these terms can cause confusion, it is clear that production, procession, and comprehension of *at least* two languages are the main points in this discussion.

The most important difference between these two terms is the context of multilingualism, in which more than two languages are spoken. These societies may consist of people who can speak several languages as is the case in Singapore (e.g., Tamil, Malay, English, and Chinese) or some regions of Turkey (e.g., Turkish,

Kurdish, and Arabic). Clearly, the prefix *multi-* looks more suitable to define linguistic practices in such contexts. However, most scholars prefer to use the term bilingualism as an umbrella term to embody both bilingualism and multilingualism (Baker, 2001; García, 2009a; García & Wei, 2019). The current study, too, uses bilingualism in such an approach that it is used as a cover term, while emphasizing the views of bilingualism that form the concept.

In its broadest sense, bilingualism can be defined as the ability to use more than one language. Baker (2001), emphasizing the duality of the languages, draws an analogy between bilingualism and a bicycle as having two wheels and binoculars being for two eyes. Earlier accounts of bilingualism derive from the work of Bloomfield who perceived bilingualism from the perspective of native-like proficiency in two languages (García, 2009a). Later scholars, however, were not as strict as Bloomfield in their attempts to define bilingualism. Haugen, to illustrate, was content with minimum proficiency level to call someone a bilingual. Weinreich, on the other hand, regarded the alternation between two languages as the foundation of bilingualism (García, 2009a). Despite these differing propositions, it is apparent that there are at least two languages that are used by individuals to a certain level of proficiency to carry out their communicative acts.

Valdés and Figueroa (as cited in Baker, 2001) made a classification of bilinguals using six dimensions: (1) age, (2) ability, (3) balance of two languages, (4) development, (5) context, and (6) circumstantial and elective bilingualism. These dimensions help us have a better picture of what bilingualism is and who bilingual individuals are. Nevertheless, these dimensions, too, are framed by two dominant views of bilingualism that consider it from the monolingual and heterolingual lenses.

Monoglossic and Heteroglossic Views on Bilingualism

The definitions of bilingualism and bilingual individuals are shaped by two major linguistic ideologies about bilingualism: monoglossic and heteroglossic language ideology. When bilingualism is considered from a monoglossic or monolingual point of view, the idea of proficiency of two separate and distinct languages comes to the fore (Flores & García, 2013). In accordance with this view, individuals' proficiency levels of languages decide whether they are accepted as bilinguals or not. According to Grosjean (1989), the monolingual view of bilingualism is fractional, as it is claimed that "the bilingual is (or should be) two monolinguals in one person" (p. 4). That is, to be able to qualify as a bilingual, an individual has to achieve proficiency levels in two languages similar to those of the native speakers of two distinct languages. In connection with the monolingual ideology, evaluation and description of bilinguals in terms of linguistic competency and proportion of the languages they speak have led to the coinage of a number of qualifiers for bilinguals such ass *balanced, unbalanced, semilingual, dominant,* and *alingual* (Grosjean, 1985).

From the monoglossic or fractional perspective, bilinguals are seen as exceptions and thus having different cognitive and developmental features than monolinguals because bilingualism has apparent positive or negative effects on individuals (Grosjean, 2012). That is, similar to monolinguals, the bilingual person must possess "two separate and isolable language competencies" (Grosjean, 1985, p. 468). This kind of separation is explained with two kinds of monoglossic bilingual views: *subtractive* and *additive* bilingualism.

For Lambert (1975), subtractive bilingualism refers to the loss or displacement of linguistic features of a native language with the effect of another

language. In this model of bilingualism, an individual speaks one language as the first language and when the second language is added, the individual ceases to speak the first language (García, 2009a). Subtractive bilingualism is a common model in contexts where immigrants are educated and sometimes promoted as *transitional bilingual education models* that allow for the temporary use of the child's native language which later totally replaced by the dominant language (García, 2009a; García & Wei, 2014). For this reason, subtractive bilingualism is closely associated with the death and/or loss of many indigenous languages, erosion of identity, feeling of inferiority under the effect of the dominant language, and gradual monolingualism of individuals (Baker, 2001; García, 2009a).

Additive bilingualism, on the other hand, is the situation in which "the addition of a second language and culture is unlikely to replace or displace the first language and culture" (Baker, 2001, p. 58). That is, individuals continue to maintain their native language(s) while adding up one more language to their repertoires. This is generally the case when speaking the L2 is considered prestigious or being a part of the elite that speak it. Although not perceived to be detrimental to home languages, additive bilingualism is, too, related to the traditional notions of bilingualism that suggest the compartmentalization of the two languages in the brain (García & Wei, 2014; Grosjean, 2012).

Heteroglossic view of bilingualism, on the other hand, asserts that "The bilingual is *not* the sum of two complete or incomplete monolinguals; rather, he or she has a unique and specific linguistic configuration" (Grosjean, 2012, p. 13). Heteroglossic lens of bilingualism, hence, denies the juxtaposition or compartmentalization of languages of bilinguals and views languages as a unified body of linguistic repertoire that involves concurrent profusion of multilingual

discourses (García, 2009a). Heteroglossic view of bilingualism is grounded in the term *heteroglossia* that was coined by Soviet literary theorist Mikhail Bakhtin (1981). Heteroglossia, according to Bakhtin (1981), refers to the simultaneous existence of multiple voices either in written or spoken language. Expanding the idea further, Bailey (2007) posits heteroglossia "can account for the multiple meanings and readings of forms that are possible, depending on one's subject position" (p. 268). Similarly, Grosjean (1985) argues, the bilingual, according to the heteroglossic view, is the one who uses two languages in various social contexts either separately or simultaneously depending on his or her purpose. In this respect, bilingualism is dynamic rather than linear, that is, multilingual communities and bilingual individuals employ various language practices to different extents (García & Kleifgen, 2018).

English Learners as Emergent Bilinguals

Learning a language is not a static or linear action, rather it is a developmental process that continues throughout one's life. It cannot be pictured as something that starts at the bottom and mounts gradually up to the top. The dynamic nature of language learning, therefore, should also be reflected its definition. In this respect, English language learners deserve to be defined on their own merits. Traditionally, English language learners are defined according to whether they learn English as a foreign language (EFL) or as a second language (EFL). The term EFL is reserved for the learners who learn English as a foreign language in a country where English is not an official or second language but a foreign one. The term ESL, on the other hand, is used when the learner is situated in an English-speaking environment where the medium of instruction is English, such as the Philippines or in a country like India, where it is used as a lingua franca due to the high variety of local

languages spoken (Marckwardt, 1963). According to the philosophy that lies behind the concept of translanguaging, this definition is both deficient and has negative connotations. First, to Gracía (2009a), labeling learners as second language learners means robbing "bilingualism of its possibilities of being considered as the norm for large sections of the world's population" (n. p.). That is, characterizing bilinguals as second language learners reflects the monoglossic ideology of language that ignores "the role of translanguaging in the process of developing students' bilingualism" (García & Wei, 2014, p. 65). Another fallacy about the term stems from its referral to an ordinal number that predetermines the number of languages spoken by an individual. According to this definition, English is the second language that is spoken by the learner; however, in some cases, the linguistic repertoire of the person may include elements from other languages, too. The definition can also be associated with the colonial linguistic inheritance, as the number second implies the established role of English through colonization. In India, for instance, the English language was regarded as an important step to the 'modernization' of the country from the early days of colonialism and promotion of the English language had close relations with political, economic, and social pressures (Phillipson, 1992).

García (2009b) claims that calling language learners *emergent bilinguals* has both positive associations and it lays emphasis on the "potential in developing their bilingualism" (p. 322). García et al. (2017) posit that *emergent bilinguals* are the learners "who are at the early stages of bilingual development" (p. 2). This definition is more appropriate for the inherent developmental nature of language learning and can be better conceptualized when it is compared to the term *experienced bilinguals* whose linguistic abilities include "using two or more languages with relative ease" (García et al., 2017, p. 2). The term also puts the learner into a bilingual continuum

so that it is possible to avoid artificial classifications, such as second language learners (García, 2009b). According to García (2009b), grounding the definition in the concept of bilingualism is beneficial for a large group of people ranging from learners to societies at large in that looking at individuals through heteroglossic lens paves the way for a more equal educational system as well as a better appreciation of people's linguistic resources.

The term emergent bilingual also aligns with the SCT that asserts learning and the context it occurs are inseparable notions (Nieto, 2006) and individuals use language as a mediational tool to make meaning of their worlds (Vygotsky, 1978). From this perspective, emergent bilinguals also need to interact with others to construct knowledge and this interaction usually take place in a classroom context through translanguaging. Emergent aspect of learning a language or being a bilingual/multilingual and constructive development of knowledge share significant commonalities in that they both enhance as a result of a logical consequence. In this vein, this current study also adopts the term *emergent bilinguals* so as to define anyone learning another language apart from their native language regardless of the number of languages they know or they are learning and individuals' proficiency levels.

Translanguaging: Origins and Development

Originally, translanguaging was used by a Welsh educator, Cen Williams, as *trawsieithu* in the Welsh language as an attempt to conceptualize the pedagogical practice he utilized in the Welsh-English bilingual classrooms. The term was then translated into English and introduced internationally by Colin Baker (Baker, 2001). He defined translanguaging as "the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages" (p. 288).

The practice of translanguaging basically included deliberately and systematically switching of "the language mode of input and output in bilingual classrooms" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012, p. 643). In order to facilitate their comprehension of the content, the learners received the input in one language (e.g., English) and the production was made through another language (e.g., Welsh) (Williams, 1996).

Grounding their definition of translanguaging on the pedagogical practices employed by Williams (1996), or more precisely, referring to his classroom activities that involve systematic change of input and output languages, Lewis, Jones, and Baker (2012) further elaborate the concept of translanguaging and suggest that in translanguaging "both languages are used in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner to organize and mediate mental processes in understanding, speaking, literacy, and, not least, learning" (p. 655). The underlining aspect of their definition of translanguaging is that it accentuates the organizing and mediating attribution of translanguaging and its impact on learning. In this sense, Baker (2001) propounds four advantages of translanguaging. These are *better comprehension of the content matter*, *developing language skills of the weaker language*, *facilitating home-school cooperation*, and *developing individuals second language ability and content knowledge at the same time*. However, definitions proposed by Lewis et al. (2012) and Baker (2001) are criticized by García and Wei (2014), as they make reference to two languages. For García and Wei (2014), translanguaging "goes beyond the concept of the two languages of additive bilingualism or interdependence" (p. 20).

According to the additive view of bilingualism, learning L2 is not detrimental to L1of the person (Landry & Allard, 1993). That is, there will be no linguistic loss in one's L1 because of an additional language. On the contrary, it can cognitively and linguistically be beneficial for the person. The Linguistic Interdependence, on

the other hand, posits that L1 and L2 of the person are constructed on a common basis called Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) (Cummins, 1979).

Canagarajah (2011a), on the other hand, emphasizing the integrativeness of the linguistic repertoire of the speakers provides another definition of translanguaging as "the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system" (p. 401). In his definition, Canagarajah claims that there is a unified linguistic system stored in the mind of the speakers that they benefit from to communicate successfully. Although this definition is regarded plausible by García and Wei (2014) to some extent, they claim that Canagarajah's (2011a) definition views translanguaging as a part of the multicompetence of bilingual speakers (see Cook, 2008). What García and Wei oppose about this definition is the idea that multicompetence of bilingual speakers encompasses translanguaging and they argue "Multicompetence regards the languages of a multilingual individual as an interconnected whole – an eco-system of mutual interdependence" (p. 21). That is, there is not one unified body of linguistic systems in the speaker's mind; instead, there are two systems from which one's "sentences come from" (Cook, 2008, p. 16). Therefore, once again criticizing the additive approach to bilingualism, García and Wei (2014) claim that bilinguals employ complex and interrelated discursive processes that do not emerge in a linear way or function separately. Therefore, to account for the unity of the linguistic system of the bilinguals, García (2009a) puts forward a new framework of bilingualism that encompasses translanguaging, too. She explains her model of *dynamic bilingualism* as follows:

> A dynamic theoretical framework of bilingualism allows the simultaneous coexistence of different languages in communication, accepts translanguaging, and supports the development of multiple linguistic identities to keep a

> linguistic ecology for efficiency, equity, and integration, and responding to both local and global contexts. (p. 119)

In the dynamic theoretical framework of bilingualism, García refuses the additive and subtractive views of bilingualism. She suggests that dynamic bilingualism adopts a heteroglossic language ideology that supports multilingual speaker's fluid language practices. She further claims that translanguaging practices foster the speaker's dynamic bilingualism, as they allow them to access a unified body of linguistic repertoire.

Wei (2011) approaches to translanguaging from a psycholinguistic perspective and coins translanguaging space, in which translanguaging takes place and is created by itself. For Wei (2011), translanguaging space includes various aspects of the personal history, experience, attitude, belief, and ideologies of bilingual speakers. In other words, bilingual speakers go between different linguistic systems and structures using their full range of linguistic repertoires to make-meaning. Thus, they create an abstract medium in which they "generate new identities, values, and practices" (Wei, 2011, p. 1223). Translanguaging space, according to Wei (2011), involves the creativity and criticality of the speakers that allow them to communicate strategically. More specifically, translanguaging space can be associated with *strategic competence*, one of the components of communicative competence. Canale and Swain (1980) conceive strategic competence as "verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (p. 80). In this sense, translanguaging space provides the speakers with a socially constructed context in which they access their full linguistic repertoire to prevent possible breakdowns during communication. In

other words, translanguaging allows the speakers to “better capture the sociolinguistic realities of life” (García & Wei, 2014, p. 29)

Discussions around the idea of what translanguaging is and how it should be theorized slightly differ from each other, yet, as an emerging theory, translanguaging can be viewed from two fundamental perspectives: the sociolinguistic and the pedagogical perspective. While the sociolinguistic perspective of translanguaging portrays the flexible linguistic practices of bilinguals, its pedagogical perspective focuses on the practices employed by teachers to foster a deeper understanding of the subject matter (Flores & Schissel, 2014). In this sense, rather than being a linguistic incompetency, translanguaging is a norm in bilingual settings (García & Kleifgen, 2018).

Code-Switching / Code-Mixing and Translanguaging

The concept of translanguaging is often compared and contrasted to another linguistic phenomenon: code-switching. Broadly, code-switching refers to the combination of elements from two languages. Cook (2001) perceives code-switching as a unique way of using L2 that occurs in “the bilingual mode of language in which L1 and L2 are used simultaneously” (p. 408). Grosjean (2010), on the other hand, emphasizes that code-switching allows bilinguals to express themselves more precisely rather than trying to find an equivalent expression in the other language. However, according to Gumperz (1977), code-switching cannot be justified with intelligibility or lucidity of the conversation as in most of the cases in which code-switching takes place, speakers can reiterate the code-switched message with another code nearly equally well enough.

Code-switching is also seen as a cover term that is made up of two linguistic phenomena: code-switching and code-mixing (Bokamba, 1988). Although some

scholars prefer to use these terms interchangeably (Muysken, 2000), some others point out their difference (Sridhar & Sridhar, 1980). Muysken (2000) does not deem it necessary to differentiate between these terms, thus, simply postulating code-switching and mixing are the appearances of lexical and grammatical features of two languages in one sentence. With this stance, he provides a more holistic view of changing or mixing the codes. On the other hand, Sridhar and Sridhar (1980) reserve code-switching for the occurrences embedding or mixing of words, phrases, and sentences and code-mixing, according to them, refer to embedding or mixing of smaller linguistic units such as affixes, words or phrases. According to Bokamba (1988), the distinction between code-switching and code-mixing is both convenient and necessary, as their linguistic and psycholinguistic assumptions are different. More specifically, the two phenomena differ from each other considering the way they are employed by bilingual speakers, yet both of them refer to the alternation between languages that result in mixed forms of language (Crystal, 2008).

According to García (2009a), translanguaging theory embraces code-switching (code-mixing, too); however, it goes beyond it. Although code-switching and translanguaging have common or similar aspects, García and Wei (2014) elaborate their difference in the following terms:

> Translanguaging differs from the notion of code-switching in that it refers not simply to a shift or a shuttle between two languages, but to the speakers' construction and use of original and complex interrelated discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or another traditional definition of a language, but that make up the speakers' complete language repertoire. (p. 22)

However, code-switching, in its traditional sense, is perceived as the practice of alternating or shuttling between two languages and it "still constitutes a theoretical endorsement of the idea that what the bilingual manipulates, however masterfully, are two separate linguistic systems" (Otheguy, García, & Reid, 2015, p. 282).

Therefore, contrary to translanguaging, code-switching implies a fractal conceptualization of bilingualism and/or multilingualism. In connection with this, code-switching is understood as the heritage of the monolingual ideology that posits the separation of modes (or codes). However, translanguaging does not suggest a switch between two separate linguistic systems. Therefore, when bilinguals code-switch, according to the translanguaging theory, they make use of their merged body of linguistic repertoire rather than switching back and forth between language codes.

Empirical Findings on Translanguaging

As mentioned earlier, the roots of translanguaging can be traced back to the 1990s when Cen Williams first used the word *trawsieithu* to name the pedagogical practice he employed in Welsh-English bilingual classes in Wales. Since the term was popularized by Colin Baker (2001) in his book *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, scientific interest in it has grown rapidly. Canagarajah (2009), for instance, carried out a qualitative case study in which he conducted a classroom ethnography on the development of teacher identities and literacy awareness. In this study, Canagarajah reported his interpretations of the codemeshing in the writing assignments of one Saudi Arabian student, Buthainah. The results of the study indicated that Buthainah used three languages, her native Arabic, as well as English and French in her writing assignments. Canagarajah categorizes her codemeshing (changes as translanguaging in Canagarajah, 2011b) as *reconceptualization* and *interactional strategies* and suggested that the student translanguaged, as she wanted to satisfy her motivation because formal educational institutions failed her. Moreover, the study revealed that Buthainah translanguaged in her assignments to encourage readers to co-construct meaning. The results of this

study also indicated that translanguaging is not a sign of linguistic deficiency, instead, it is a deliberate activity that is done to convey meaning.

García and Velasco (2014) in their study on translanguaging and the writing of bilingual learners analyzed five pieces of written texts produced by young bilinguals who translanguaged during the planning, drafting, and production stages of their writing. For instance, one of the children was asked to write in Korean; however, he preferred to use the entire semiotic repertoire at his disposal. That is, he both drew a picture of himself and wrote English words to get to the text. This means that he used translanguaging as a scaffolding activity that would help him start writing. Another child from the same study used glosses – brief notations in a text when he wrote about his dog run over by a car in Spanish. He wrote *guts* under the Spanish word *tripas* (guts in Spanish) to be able to use it the following day when English was being used.

Another study that was conducted by Mwinda and Van der Walt (2015) investigated the effect of translanguaging on English vocabulary development in a rural primary school in Namibia. The school where the study took place was in a multilingual region where more than two local languages are spoken. For educational purposes, the inhabitants in this region use English because it is medium of teaching at schools in Namibia; however, they prefer the local languages for communication purposes. Out of the local languages, they use Rumanyo language as the lingua franca across their community. Believing that such a context would provide opportunities for translanguaging practices especially for vocabulary development of the learners, the researchers decided to carry out the study. The study included 8 7-grade students and 7 teachers. First, the researchers interviewed the participant teachers and observed their classes. The observations and interviews revealed that

the teachers made use of code-switching extensively but in a seemingly random and unplanned way. The students, on the other hand, were given texts in Rumanyo and asked to interpret them in English. Also, they were given English texts for the same purpose. The analyses of the interpretations showed that the students performed better when they were asked to read the text in English and interpret it in Rumanyo. For the vocabulary assessments, the researchers used pictures with bilingual labels, containing words both in English and Rumanyo. The observation after the practice was that the use of such bilingual flashcards improved students' vocabulary. Therefore, the researchers concluded that use of students' home language as a resource for developing vocabulary in English would be a beneficial strategy.

In their qualitative study, Portolés and Martí (2017) examined the translanguaging practices in early language learning in preschool education in Castelló, Spain. Their sample consisted of 25 children whose ages ranged between four to five. The children spoke Spanish and Catalan as their L1 and/or L2s. In addition to this, due to the immigrant community in the region, some children's native languages were Romanian or Arabic. In this case, English was being taught as L3 and none of the children had been exposed to it before they started learning it in their second year of preschool education. The researchers collected the data through classroom observations and recordings conducted in a longitudinal way in November, February, and May. They analyzed the data and coded the translanguaging practices of the preschool children. The results indicated that the children used translanguaging practices to mediate understanding, to co-construct meaning, to include and exclude others, and to demonstrate knowledge. For instance, in one of the instances, a child spoke to another child in Catalan to mediate his understand of teacher's warning him to be quiet. Another excerpt showed that a child

used Spanish to demonstrate he understood the word ‘black’ is a color in English. The children also translanguaged to express their wish to participate in the activity while they were excluding some other children around them. As a result, it was observed that these very young learners used their entire linguistic repertoire to make meaning of their multilingual world.

Duarte (2019) conducted a study that drew on videographic data recorded in 59 10th grade classes in secondary schools in Hamburg, Germany. The researcher videotaped various subject matter classes such as mathematics and social sciences as a whole teaching unit. 84.5% of the participants indicated that they were born in Germany while 74.5% of the participants had an immigrant background. As for the languages, 63.8% of the participants spoke at least one language apart from German at home. These languages were Turkish, Russian, Bosnian, Dari, Twi, and English. Applying sociocultural discourse analysis, the researcher coded peer to peer interaction of the participants and explored how they engaged in collaborative talk and co-construction of knowledge to scaffold each other. The results revealed that the participants translanguaged to acquire knowledge, to make sense of the task, to negotiate meaning, paraphrasing the task and so on. In this respect, the results indicated that translanguaging plays central functions in bilingual and/or multilingual classes as it encourages collaborative talk and allows for co-construction of meaning.

In his mixed-methods study, Turnbull (2019) investigated the effects of weak and strong forms of translanguaging on the written production of Japanese EFL learners. As for the weak form of translanguaging, the researcher adopted Williams’s (1996) translanguaging practices that soften the boundaries between languages. On the other hand, the strong form of translanguaging practices were in line with the suggestions of García and Wei (2014) that allow bilinguals to use their linguistic

repertoires freely rather than adhering to socially constructed barriers. Two classes of 30 first-year Japanese EFL learners who were coming from similar educational backgrounds and were at similar ages took part in the study. The participants were divided into two main categories for writing genres as *academic writing* and *creative writing.* Within each category, they were also split into three focus groups as *Group 1* that was working under monolingual practices (English-only), *Group 2* that was employing a weak form of translanguaging, and *Group 3* that was allowed to employ strong translanguaging. Translanguaging practices of the Group 2, similar to Williams's practices, were confined to using Japanese for discussion and using English for writing. However, Group 3 was not asked to adhere to any rules or limitations while they were both discussing and writing. Each group was given a topic and 20 minutes to discuss it and write their notes to plan their essays. Their discussions were also recorded to be analyzed later on. After the discussion part, each participant was asked to write the essay individually within 40 minutes. The composition pieces were blindly evaluated with a rubric and the recordings from the group discussions were analyzed. The results showed that the participants who employed strong translanguaging practices performed better than the ones who were allowed to use weak translanguaging practices and English-only practices.

Another recent study conducted by Escobar (2019) indicated that if given the opportunity, the learners tend to translanguage for various purposes that have significant and positive impacts on their oral communication skills. For the study, Escobar selected 19 senior EFL students whose ages ranged between 21 to 23. First, the researcher informed the students about the concept of translanguaging and helped them become familiar with it. Then, as a planned activity, the researcher showed the participants pictures of various street graffiti from around Costa Rica and had them

discuss these pictures in groups of three using their entire linguistic repertoire after placing a voice recorder in the middle of each group. After the activity, the researcher interviewed some of the participants on their translanguaging practices. The analysis of the 2,5 hours of data suggested that the reason why the participants translanguage was not related to their deficiency in English. Instead, they translanguaged in order to refer to the key content so that they could stay focused on the topic. Additionally, they translanguaged when they wanted to express their opinions in Spanish. This also allowed them to be on task as they did not lose track of the topic while trying to come up with the English equivalents of the words or phrases. The analysis of the interviews yielded valuable information about the affective factors pertinent to translanguaging practices. For instance, the participants expressed that they felt more comfortable when they translanguaged, as they did not experience the constant fear of making mistakes. In addition to this, they stated translanguaging came natural to them, as they found being forced to follow the English-only policy was meaningless in a bilingual society.

In the Hungarian context, Nagy (2018) explored the roles of translanguaging in foreign language teaching. Qualitative data of the study stemmed from the language task that 15 first-year English learners participated in. The task, which consisted of two parts, required learners to read an English text paragraphs of which were jumbled and put them into the correct order. Following this activity, the participants were asked to answer some dichotomous statements in Hungarian. After the reading part, the researcher had the participants discuss the topic of the reading text without giving them any instructions about the languages they would use. The researcher observed the participants throughout the activity and concluded that the students engaged in direct translation, code-switching, and code-mixing. The

researcher also evaluated the statements of the participants about translanguaging and expressed that some of the participants felt that it was inappropriate to use Hungarian in English classes. The researcher concluded that participants' *ideal L2 self* might have caused them to think that there was no room for other languages while learning English.

Another study focusing on pre-service teachers' use of translanguaging strategies was conducted by Makalela (2015). The participants of the study were 60 second-year pre-service teachers who were the native speakers of several Nguni languages (a group of Bantu languages spoken by the people in the South of Africa). As an additional language, these pre-service teachers signed up for the Sepedi language course that lasted 23 weeks and covered basic communication skills. Half of the participants was selected as the control group that received monolingual education and the other half were allowed to use translanguaging strategies shuttling between the languages recognized by the school (i.e., English, isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, and SiSwati). The results of the pre and post-test showed that the translanguaging group performed better than the monolingual group in terms of vocabulary and reading development. The analysis of the qualitative data, on the other hand, indicated that translanguaging strategies provided the learners with the sense of plural selves and created a positive experience. The participants also stated that they gained deeper understanding of the subject matter when they were allowed to translanguage. Another theme emerged was the multilingual teacher identity that was fostered by the translanguaging strategies. In line with this, the pre-service teachers believed that they would allow and promote translanguaging practices in their own classes in the future.

Kiramba (2017) investigated the writing practices of the fourth-graders in a multilingual setting in rural Kenya. The data of this ethnographic study was collected in six months from 28 emergent bilinguals' six English and three Kiswahili composition papers written on various topics. The ages of the participants ranged between nine and 12. Although most students employed translingual writing strategies, composition of one student called Adila stood out in the study. In the excerpts of her paper provided by the author, it can be seen that she drew from her full linguistic repertoire using three languages: Kiswahili, English, and Kimeru. By using these languages, she was able to coherent and detailed paragraphs. The results of the study were also consistent with the study carried out by Canagarajah (2011b) who described the translingual writing practices of his student Buthainah using three languages in her writing tasks. Additionally, the researcher claimed that students' use of translingual writing practices allowed authentic voices and inclusive instruction.

In her qualitative study, Wang (2019) explored the attitudes of Chinese beginner students and their instructors toward translanguaging as well as observing students' translanguaging practices in natural settings. The study included a questionnaire survey to understand students' attitudes and in-depth interviews to understand teachers' attitudes. Structurally coded verbatim transcribed interviews revealed that the teachers had ambivalent attitudes toward translanguaging practices in Chinese classes. That is, despite some teachers' positive perceptions of translanguaging practices, some others indicated their favor of them. The teachers who found it difficult to accommodate multilingualism claimed Chinese people do not mix codes while speaking so as to avoid contaminating their language. However, the other teachers stated they would be willing to embrace *anything* that could be for their students' benefit. More than half of the students who spoke various languages

as their L1s, including English and Korean, indicated that they would prefer their teachers to use both Chinese and English while teaching. The classroom observations, on the other hand, revealed the teachers translanguaged to provide the students with metalinguistic scaffolding to help them grasp grammar rules and lexical items. The teachers also employed translanguaging practices to give feedback, to clarify instructions, and to praise their students. Finally, the students preferred to translanguage while interacting with one another using multiple languages such as English, Chinese, and Korean.

The final study took place in a CLIL biology class in Hong Kong (Wu & Lin, 2019). The researchers gathered the data through observations, post-lesson interviews and a survey conducted with 18 grade 10 biology major students and an experienced science teacher. The analysis of the data revealed that both the teacher and the students resort to translanguaging to mediate their learning lexical collocations. Additionally, the study focused on the trans-semiotizing practices of the teacher that included drawing of diagrams on the blackboard and his use of body language. All these observations and interviews indicated that translanguaging/trans-semiotizing practices had a positive impact on the students, as they allowed them to co-make knowledge and mediate their understanding of the language and the content knowledge.

Translanguaging in the Language Classroom

Although translanguaging is a norm in bilingual settings, its use as a legitimate pedagogical practice in English language classrooms still needs to be further elucidated and categorized (Canagarajah, 2011a; García & Wei, 2014). To this end, teachers must be equipped with sufficient knowledge about their students' meaning-making processes so that they can leverage their linguistic practices for

their linguistic achievements. However, it is worth noting that before exemplifying pedagogical practices of translanguaging, several misconceptions need to be clearly explained.

First, it must be established that translanguaging practices do not necessarily require teachers to be bilingual (García & Kleifgen, 2018). Although it would be an asset for teachers to be knowledgeable about the native languages of their students to some extent, there are still several ways for them to encourage their students to use their entire linguistic repertoires without knowing their native languages. Teachers' becoming co-learners who learn from their students through translanguaging is one of the options that monolingual teachers can consider. To illustrate, they can ask students to translate certain expressions or phrases from their native languages to English. They can also learn some basic vocabulary items to be able to communicate with their students (García & Wei, 2014). Another requirement is creating a translanguaging space in which students' multilingual interactions can take place (Wei, 2011). In doing so, teachers should give learners the opportunity to translanguage to bring about a translanguaging space in which they can expand their bilingual ZPD through social interaction with their peers.

As long as teachers become more conscious about the conditions they should consider for translanguaging, development of translanguaging practices get more feasible. Some of the recommendations could be as follows (García et al., 2017; García & Kleifgen, 2018; García & Wei, 2014):

- Pairing two students for reading tasks depending on their level (one higher-level one lower-level student)
- Encouraging bilingual books, dictionaries, and magazines.
- Encouraging students to read in their native languages for research purposes.

- Having students brainstorm in their native languages first.
- Allowing students to use online translators and bilingual dictionaries while writing.
- Allowing students to use annotations in their native languages.
- Encouraging students to keep a bilingual vocabulary journal.
- Assigning projects that require students to work bilingually.
- Encouraging students to recognize cognates (both false and true ones).
- Allowing students to listen to content materials in their native languages.
- Comparing and contrasting syntactic and morphological features of languages with students (affix classification, syntactic order, etc.).

Background of English-Medium Instruction in Turkey

Due to the global dominance of English-speaking countries, Great Britain and the United States respectively, within the non-anglophone world, the English language has earned indisputable popularity nearly in all aspects of life, such as international trade, scientific publishing, international communication, diplomacy, and education (Crystal, 2003; Northrup, 2013). As a result of this, the use of English as a medium of instruction has become a common phenomenon at all levels of education, specifically at tertiary level (Dearden, 2015). EMI, which is defined as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English" has a long and controversial history in Turkey (Dearden, 2015, p. 4).

EMI at tertiary education in the Turkish context dates back to the year 1956 when the Middle East Technical University, as the first English-medium state university, was established in Ankara (Kırkgöz, 2009). The first foundation EMI university, on the other hand, is Bilkent University that was founded in 1984. The

legislation issued in the Official Gazette in the same year expounded the purpose of EMI at universities as "to enable students who are registered at an English medium department to access scientific and technological information published in English in their related disciplines" (as cited in Kırkgöz, 2005, p. 102). Upon growing interest toward EMI in the higher education context, with the introduction of the regulation by the Higher Education Council in 1996, each higher education institution that adopted EMI was required to provide their students with one-year English education in the language centers they were supposed to establish (Kırkgöz, 2005).

Students admitted to EMI programs have to prove an adequate level of English language proficiency for entry into academic programs in the chosen departments. They can either sit in-house proficiency exam of the school or document their English proficiency through internationally accepted external examinations (e.g., Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), International English Language Testing System (IELTS)). As of 2020, there is a total of 202 universities in Turkey, and 129 of these universities are state-funded and 73 of them are privately-funded. Most privately funded universities and a considerable number of state-funded universities offer EMI programs to their students. According to a recent report issued by the European Association for International Education (Sandström & Neghina, 2017), amongst 19 European countries studied, ranking first in the list, the Turkish universities had 545 EMI programs in bachelor's degrees.

There are various reasons why the demand for EMI programs boosted considerably in Europe. The Bologna process, launched with the Bologna declaration of 1999, urged higher education institutions to adapt their systems to the extent that staff and student exchange between them would be possible (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2011). This process also triggered the employability of graduates and staff as

well as enhancing the prestige of the universities (Coleman, 2006). In the same vein, EMI universities rapidly became widespread in East Asia, too. Cho (2012) suggests that the main motive of adopting EMI by the universities in East Asia is the desire to be in the league of world-class universities by attracting more international students. Although being in a different context, Cho's claims are applicable to the European setting, as well since most universities are in fierce competition with each other in enrolling international students.

Despite its apparent popularity, EMI is also criticized by some scholars, as it may pose a threat to minority languages and create an educated elite (Coleman, 2006). According to Coleman (2006), EMI, in negative terms, may contribute to the domination of the English language that leads to a diglossic world in which native languages become extinct and only English is spoken for formal and broader communication. This, unfortunately, may mean that the ones who can afford to receive education in this widely acclaimed language would have the potential to become a member of the more educated aristocracy.

The effect of EMI has also been investigated on academic achievement and retainment of content knowledge. For instance, Akünal (1993) did a quantitative study with 186 second-year students in an EMI university in Ankara. Majority of the participants (60 percent) rated themselves as good at reading and comprehension and 43% of them indicated that they could comprehend most of things (but not all) said in English. However, as for the productive skills, the students' responses revealed that only 9% of them can speak fluently and 44% of them claimed they could write "well enough to communicate most ideas with few errors" (p. 523). An interesting result of the study is that 13.9% of the students believed that they could not speak English at all. The participation rate of the students was also questioned in the study

and it was found that approximately 60% of the students reported having a poor level of participation. In this respect, it can be inferred that although the participants can read, write, and listen reasonably well, they fail to communicate, participate in the class discussions.

Another study carried out by Kılıçkaya (2006) revealed that lecturers at EMI programs are inclined to switch to their native language, as they believe using it enables learners to comprehend the subject matter better. Additionally, using the lecturers believed that using their native language would increase student participation. The lecturers who participated in the study also suggested that assignments should be given in both Turkish and English despite the fact that the university adopts English as the medium of instruction, as doing so could bolster students' interest in learning.

Karabinar (2008) conducted a quantitative study with 586 university students receiving their higher education in 6 universities in Istanbul. Three of the universities in the study adopted English as the medium of instructions and three of them were Turkish and English medium universities. The participants of the study were particularly chosen from the departments where they were supposed to rely on their linguistic abilities more. In this sense, students from departments such as mathematics and physics were not included in the study. The findings of the study showed that the use of the native language of the learners during instruction had a positive effect on the comprehension of the subject. The findings also revealed that EMI did not positively correlate with the confidence level of the learners.

Collins (2010) investigated the perspectives of students and instructors on the effectiveness of EMI through a mixed-methods study in a foundation university in Ankara. The data of the study was gathered 1011 students and 117 instructors

through closed and open-ended questions. Having analyzed the quantitative and qualitative data of the study, the researcher found that the majority of the students did not favor EMI and they reported a low level of English proficiency that prevented them from comprehending the subject matter. Although the majority of the instructors held a positive attitude toward EMI, they admitted that EMI could also have a negative effect on students' self-confidence and creativity.

According to another study, conducted by Kırkgöz (2014), there were significant differences between the perceptions of students who studied in an EMI program and the ones who were enrolled in a program in their native language. The students who were taught in their native language indicated that they did not experience difficulty in understanding information pertinent to their fields and it was easier for them to acquire detailed knowledge in their native language. Additionally, contrary to the EMI students, they stated that they could retain the knowledge for a longer period of time when they were taught in their native language. The EMI students, on the other hand, mentioned the employment opportunities that their English proficiency might provide them and their access to the up-to-date information about their fields; however, they pointed that they may not be able to gain a deeper understanding of the subject matter due to the language constraints.

In a more recent qualitative study, Raman and Yigitoglu (2015) investigated the educational functions of code-switching in an EMI university in Northern Cyprus. The data collected through in-class observations, field notes, and stimulated recall interviews with 3 novice instructors and 12 students of them were analyzed through qualitative analysis software. The analyzed and coded data revealed that code-switching was implemented to create a feeling of connectedness, express emotions and conceptualize abstract terms. The study also revealed that both the

instructors and the students perceived code-switching as a positive contributor rather than a deficient use of language as implied by the monolingual stance.

A review of certain studies on EMI at the tertiary level in the Turkish EFL context reveals that English as the medium of instruction is favored by students and instructors. The concerns related to EMI include negative attitudes of students and instructors, feeling of security in the classroom, content mastery, and classroom participation. Nevertheless, the use of English as the medium of instruction at the tertiary level is still popular and the demand is fairly high in such programs.

Motivation in Foreign Language Learning

Motivation is an important determinant of language learning achievement and it has been studied extensively in second and foreign language contexts for a considerable period of time. Initiated by Canadian psychologists, Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert, research of motivation in language learning has attracted the attention of many researchers. Consequently, a number of language learner motivation models have emerged and been discussed in the field of sociolinguistics. Nevertheless, the current study will focus on two of these models: Socio-educational Model of Gardner (1972) and L2MSS of Dörnyei (2005, 2009).

Socio-educational Model of Gardner

Since the late 1950s, motivation has been an integral part of research pertinent to language learning. In particular, Gardner and Lambert's (1972) socio-educational theory of motivation had been the most influential and dominant theory for decades. According to the socio-educational theory of motivation, language learners' attitudes toward the target language and the socio-cultural environment in which the target language is spoken are the determinants of successful language learning. In other words, successful language learning is based on the learner's

interest in the culture and the society of the speakers of the target language (Gardner, 2001). Gardner and Lambert (1972) elaborate this with the concept of *integrative motive* that consists of three components: *integrativeness*, *attitudes toward the learning situation* and, *motivation*. Integrativeness involves "class of reasons that suggest that the individual is learning a second language in order to learn about, interact with, or become closer to, the second language community" (Gardner, 1985, p. 54). That is, when individuals are more willing to blend with the target culture, their motivation to learn the language will be higher compared to the individuals who are not that willing (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Attitudes toward the learning situation is related to "the individual's reaction to anything associated with the immediate context in which the language is taught" (p. 127). This can involve the school environment, teachers, textbooks, and any other learning materials. Lastly, the concept of motivation refers to the combination of these three components (Gardner, 2000).

Gardner and his fellows have conducted much of their research in Canada, either with French-speaking and English-learning individuals or English-speaking and French-learning ones. When viewed in this sense, it can be said that their work is confined to a specific context; therefore, it may not be possible to assert the same claims for other languages or language learning contexts. A native speaker of Turkish who lives and learn English in Turkey, to illustrate, may never have the opportunity to make contact with the L2 community as a Canadian person can do. Considering this, Gardner's concept of integrativeness has been deemed incompatible with today's world where "more than half of the inhabitants are not only bilingual or multilingual but members of multiple ethnic, social and cultural communities, and where pluralism (rather than integration) is the norm" (Ushioda,

2011, p. 200). In such a diverse world, the concept of integrativeness, in terms of coming into contact with the native speakers of English, is meaningless, as the learners may never step out of their learning contexts to integrate with the target community (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). Thus, claiming that the concept of integrativeness is not globally applicable, as the Canadian context substantially differs from the rest of the world where English is learned as an academic subject with no direct contact with English speakers, Dörnyei (2005, 2009) reinterpreted Gardner's integrativeness in relation to a number of theories, most notably *Possible Selves Theory* (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and *Self-Discrepancy Theory* (Higgins, 1987).

Dörnyei (2005), having been extremely intrigued by the active and dynamic structure of the self-system, grounded L2MSS on the self concept of Markus and Nurius (1986). The concept of self is about the past, present, and future of individuals and it includes opinions about oneself with regard to their self schemas. Possible selves, specifically, are future-oriented representations of one's thoughts, beliefs, and feelings that derive from the past. Markus and Nurius (1986) conceive the concept suggesting the following definition for it: "Possible selves are the ideal selves that we would very much like to become. They are also the selves we could become, and the selves we are afraid of becoming" (p. 954). In this sense, the future relatedness of the concept makes it important for motivated behavior. In this respect, Dörnyei (2005) posits "possible selves offer the most powerful, and at the same time the most versatile, motivational self-mechanism" (p. 98). Further, he suggests that when the possible self is more memorable and sophisticated, its effect on motivation is to be more powerful. On the basis of the concept of self, Dörnyei (2005, 2009) refers to Higgins' (1987) *ideal* and *ought self* concepts and he reinterprets them from the language learning perspective.

L2 Motivational Self System

Dörnyei (2005) claims that there are three fundamental perceptions that have encouraged him to offer a new conceptualization of L2 motivation that grounds it on the theory of self and identity. His first perception about foreign language learning is that learning a language is not about solely learning a new code that is similar to learning other academic subjects. Instead, foreign language learning is closely related to one's identity and cognition thus should be considered from a whole-person perspective. With this proposition, Dörnyei develops a more humanistic point of view of L2 motivation that centers on individual's inner feelings and self-image. The second observation that has led Dörnyei to the reformulation of L2 motivation is Robert Gardner's concept of integrativeness. Dörnyei (2005, 2009) maintains that the concept of integrativeness, which is based on the integration of the individual with the target language community, does not fit in all language learning situations. To Dörnyei, the concept of integrativeness is context-bound and real contact with L2 speakers may never take place for a language learner who does not live in the country where the target language is spoken. In this sense, Dörnyei (2005) finds integrativeness a concept that needs to be reconceptualized in a broader sense that would include the language learners who do not have contact with L2 speakers. Lastly, Dörnyei (2002) constructs his new conceptualization of L2 motivation on the empirical longitudinal study he carried out with Kata Csizér. The results of the empirical study revealed that there was a consistent relationship between the latent variables of integrativeness, instrumentality, attitudes toward L2 community, and learning behavioral measures. This consistency, therefore, formed the basis of the new conceptualization of L2 motivation as L2MSS.

Dörnyei (2005) introduced the L2 motivational self system to explain individual differences in language learning motivation. Fundamental tenet of L2MSS is that when there is a discrepancy between individuals' actual and ideal or ought selves, the discrepancy acts as a motivator so that individuals "reach a condition where their self-concept matches their personally relevant self-guides" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 100). Dörnyei (2005) explained the motivational self-guides of his paradigm using Higgin's self-discrepancy theory that consists of three essential concepts of self: actual self, ideal self, and ought self. Higgins (1987) describes these selves as follows:

> There are three basic domains of the self: (a) the actual self, which is your representation of the attributes that someone (yourself or another) believes you actually possess; (b) the ideal self, which is your representation of the attributes that someone (yourself or another) would like you, ideally, to possess (i.e., a representation of someone's hopes, aspirations, or wishes for you); and (c) the ought self, which is your representation of the attributes that someone (yourself or another) believes you should or ought to possess (i.e., a representation of someone's sense of your duty, obligations, or responsibilities). (pp. 320-321)

Out of these concepts of self, Dörnyei (2009) used the ideal self and ought self and reconceptualized them as *the ideal L2 self* and *ought-to L2 self* from the perspective of language learning motivation. In addition to this, he created one more component that he called *the L2 learning experience*. The ideal L2 self refers to the state that a language learner would like to reach. That is, it represents the desires and expectations of oneself in terms of foreign language learning. The individual, according to this component, is motivated to learn a language so that he or she can reduce the disparity between one's actual and ideal self. To illustrate, a language learner might be motivated to reach his/her ideal L2 self, as he/she believes learning a foreign language will allow him/her to carry out a conversation in English effectively.

The ought-to L2 self, on the other hand, is the combination of expectations of others of the individual. This concept is also comprised of avoidance of negative outcomes. The ought-to L2 self is associated with obligations and responsibilities of the individual as a language learner. In this sense, a learner may think that he/she should learn a foreign language because others would like him/her to do so.

Lastly, the L2 learning experience is related to individuals' immediate learning environment that might involve motives such as the teacher, the curriculum, the textbook, or their classmates. Dörnyei (2005) explains this dimension as the representation of "the situation-specific" motives (p. 106). Although the paradigms of ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self originated from the concept of self image, L2 learning experience is an umbrella term of that consists of motives affecting the quality of learner engagement in language learning (Dörnyei, 2019).

Since its introduction, there has been a growing interest in the L2MSS "with literally hundreds of studies appearing worldwide" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 91). For instance, Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009) carried out a comparative study in Japan, China, and Iran with approximately 5,000 participants. They included participants from Japan, China, and Iran that have dissimilar populations, economies, histories, religions, and cultures. The results of the study confirmed Dörnyei's assumption that Hungary can be regarded as a prototype of a general foreign language context. Furthermore, in all three contexts, the ideal L2 self was found to positively correlate with the concept of integrativeness. In this respect, this study validated the relabeling of integrativeness as the ideal L2 self. That is, the concept of integrativeness could be reinterpreted as the concept of the ideal L2 self and this reinterpreted concept was the strongest component of L2MSS. Taguchi et al. (2009) also employed structural equation modeling to investigate the causal relationship

among the attitudinal/motivational factors and the components of L2MSS. The results of the SEM analysis also confirmed the validity of all the components of L2MSS.

Another study that aimed to empirically test the validity of the components of L2MSS and investigate the concept of L2MSS within the Japanese educational setting was carried out by Ryan (2009). A total of 2,397 learners of English coming from five tertiary and four secondary institutions across Japan participated in the study that was conducted through a comprehensive 'motivational factors questionnaire'. The most important finding of this nation-wide study was that the reinterpretation of L2 motivation from a self perspective was empirically supported. In the same vein, the ideal L2 self was a stronger predictor of motivation than the concept of integrativeness.

Ghapanchi, Khajavy, and Asadpour (2011) examined the predictability of the L2 proficiency by personality and L2MSS variables in the Iranian context. The study involved 141 Iranian university students. The results of the study showed that the ideal L2 self and the L2 learning experience variables are very strong predictors of the L2 proficiency. With regards to personality traits, regression analyses showed that ideal L2 self and English learning experience accounted for 35% of the variance in L2 proficiency. In addition to this, extroversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and openness accounted for 25% of the variance of in ideal L2 self. This study was an important one, as it contributed to the validation of L2MSS in the Iranian context.

So as to confirm the validity and applicability of L2MSS in the Pakistani context, Islam, Lamb, and Chambers (2013) conducted a correlational study. The data of the study was gathered from 1000 participants who were university students in various departments. In the proper study, 975 participants' responses to 71-item 6-

point Likert scale to questionnaire were analyzed. The analysis part of the study included correlational and regression analyses of the data. The results of the correlation and regression analyses provided that L2MSS is valid and relevant in the Pakistani context. More specifically, the learning experience and Ideal L2 self were found to be the strongest predictors of learning effort.

In the Turkish context, Thompson and Erdil-Moody (2014) examined the language learning motivation and multilingual status specifically focusing on the ideal and ought-to L2 selves. The data were collected from 159 Turkish learners of English at tertiary level. The results of the study indicated that there is a strong correlation between ideal L2 self and L2 proficiency of the participants. However, the results also showed that there was no significant correlation between ought-to L2 self and L2 proficiency. As for the genders of the participants, no significant differences were concluded.

These studies confirmed the validation of three latent dimensions of L2MSS in a broad range of contexts. According to these studies, it can be inferred that contrary to the concept of integrativeness, L2MSS is not a context-specific paradigm. Instead, it can apply to various contexts that differ from each other substantially. Specifically, the studies indicated that the ideal L2 self is the most prominent dimension of the paradigm and it could replace the concept of integrativeness, as it applies to a broader range of contexts and motives.

Reconceptualization of L2MSS. A New Component: Feared L2 self.

In their seminal work, Markus and Nurius (1986) maintain an individual's repertoire of possible selves may include "the good selves (the ones we remember fondly), the bad selves (the ones we would just as soon forget), the hoped-for selves, the feared selves, the not-me selves, the ideal selves, the ought selves" (p. 957).

While reinterpreting the concept of integrativeness from these selves perspectives, Dörnyei (2005, 2009) focused merely on ideal and ought possible selves. More specifically, *promotion focus* of ideal self and *prevention focus* of ought self attracted his attention. The promotion focus is an umbrella term for individuals' gains or advancements and it "regulates the presence and absence of positive outcomes" (Higgins, 1998, p. 16). The prevention focus, on the other hand, "is concerned with safety, responsibilities, and obligations. It regulates the absence and presence of negative outcomes" (Higgins, 1998, p. 16).

However, possible selves do not only consist of hopes and goals or responsibilities and obligations of individual. They are also the cognitive manifestations of *fears* that individuals carry. In other words, individuals do not feel motivated or demotivated only because of promotion and prevention drives. Their fears also have a substantial effect on their possible selves. When considered from this point of view, a motivational self system whose components also make reference to the fears of individuals may be maximally representative of human motivation. In this respect, Peker (2016) decided to reconceptualize L2MSS by offsetting the ideal L2 self with the feared L2 self through the use of avoidance focus. Contrary to Dörneyi (2005, 2009), Peker (2016) operationalized L2 possible selves as follows:

> …individuals' ideas of what L2-specific facet they would like to become or achieve (ideal L2 self), what they think as necessary to realize and meet the expectations of worthy others (ought-to L2 self), and what attributes and characteristics they are afraid of acquiring in relation to language learning (feared L2 self). (p. 27)

In her study, Peker (2016) approached the feared self from bullying victimization perspective of English language learners. The data obtained from 1022 English language learners were analyzed through partial least square structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). The results of the analysis indicated a strong

relationship between bullying victimization, traditional bullying, cyberbullying, and L2MSS. Particularly, traditional bullying victimization and cyberbullying victimization had a statistically significant effect on English learners' feared L2 selves. In this sense, the feared self could be added to the L2MSS as an offsetting component of the paradigm. This current study also adopts the reconceptualized version of the L2MSS, as including the fears of English language learners as a motivational factor would portray a more complete and maximal representation of language learning motivation of the learners.

Anxiety

Anxiety is a natural reaction of our body to the feeling of stress and is an integral part of everyday human life. Regardless of the situation they are in, people can experience anxiety and suffer from apprehension and/or fear that is related to anxiety. Spielberger (1983), emphasizing its subjectivity, defines anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (p. 1). Anxiety, in this respect, is a highly personal state that differs from individual to individual. To illustrate, while some individuals feel anxious in particular situations, some others may not find them as that stressful thus continue to operate normally.

Scovel (1978), offering a dichotomy, classifies anxiety as *facilitating* and *debilitating* anxieties. As the name suggests, the facilitating anxiety is a beneficial feeling that enhances one's performance rather than inhibiting it. In a way, the facilitating anxiety becomes a driving factor that motivates individual to accomplish a task. The facilitating anxiety is associated with individuals who state that they can perform better under pressure. When considered from learning perspective, it can be postulated that, with the help of facilitating anxiety, the learner can be motivated to

"fight the new learning task" (Scovel, 1978, p. 139). Motivated with a lower level of anxiety, the learner may be able to learn how to cope with the task successfully. The debilitating anxiety, in contrast, has a detrimental effect on learning and it causes learner to perform poorly under the influence of anxiety. A learner aroused with debilitating anxiety is motivated to escape from a new learning situation; therefore, he/she adopts "avoidance behavior" (p. 139). Nevertheless, despite this dichotomy on anxiety, "research has suggested that anxiety causes cognitive interference in performing specific tasks" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, p. 285). In other words, although anxiety has sometimes been linked to the facilitation of learning, its debilitative effects on learning is apparent. As a matter of fact, it can be very difficult to assess the 'right' amount of anxiety that would facilitate learning, as learner characteristics may vary greatly from person to person.

Another perception of anxiety concerns with it as two complementary concepts. In this regard, Spielberger (1983) perceives anxiety as permanent and temporary feelings that he conceives as *trait* and *state anxiety.* As the name suggests, the trait anxiety refers to personal differences that cause the feeling of anxiety across different situations. In other words, the trait anxiety is "a stable predisposition to become anxious in a cross-section of situations" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 198). Irrespective of the situation they experience, certain individuals may suffer from the trait anxiety, as they are more prone to have anxiety attacks than other people due to their nature. On the other hand, "the state anxiety is the transient, moment-to-moment experience of anxiety as an emotional reaction to the current situation" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 198). For the experience of this emotion, presence of a distressing situation is prerequisite. The trait anxiety, in this regard, is related to "the intensity at a particular time of

subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry" (Spielberger & Reheiser, 2009, p. 276).

As an alternative concept to the state anxiety, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) adopt *situation-specific anxiety*. The situation-specific anxiety is measured when individuals are given a specific task to complete in a limited context (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). The situation-specific anxiety, from this perspective, can be considered as the measurement of the trait anxiety in a more specific context. Therefore, as the situation-specific anxiety outlines the situation for the individual in a more sophisticated and diverse way, it "can offer more to the understanding of anxiety" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, p. 91). In other words, the individuals are queried about a more general concept when their trait anxiety is measured whereas the measurement of the situation-specific anxiety involves various aspects of a specific situation.

Foreign Language Anxiety

Learning contexts can be especially anxiety-provoking because they may include agitation and/or distress associated with fear of failure, communication apprehension, peer pressure, and test anxiety. Similar to the anxious atmosphere of classes such as science or mathematics, many people may perceive foreign language learning as an anxious process (Horwitz et al., 1986). When language learners experience a considerable amount of anxiety, they tend to make mistakes, forget things they otherwise know. According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), foreign language learning anxiety is "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning" (p. 284). With this definition, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) offer a wider perspective on foreign language anxiety and do not specify the foreign or second

language contexts. However, Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest a more specific definition to the term by referring to the anxiety emanating from variables such as peers, tests, and instructors that are inherent in foreign language classes. According to their definition, the foreign language anxiety is "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 128). This current study also adopts the second definition, as MacIntyre and Gardner's definition is more applicable in ESL contexts and is too general with regard to the concept of context. However, the definition coined by Horwitz et al. (1986) is much more concerned with the effect of foreign the language classroom and variables related to it on individuals' anxiety levels. Moreover, because the current study takes place in a country where English is taught as a foreign language rather than the second, a definition that touches upon this reality would be much more appropriate.

The definition by Horwitz et al. (1986) came as a result of their specific studies focusing on anxiety triggered by the factors evolving around learning a foreign language. Claiming that FLA should be distinguished from general anxiety, they carried out a study with thirty foreign language learners who joined the Support Group for Foreign Language Learning at the University of Texas. First, the researchers organized group meetings whereby they could elicit anxiety related-symptoms such as tenseness, trembling, perspiring, palpitations, and sleep disturbances. The participants also indicated that sometimes they had to wait outside the door of the class for some time so as to summon up enough courage to enter their foreign language class, and they blot out everything related to the class before the exams (Horwitz et al., 1986). As a result of these meetings, the researchers developed a Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) that consisted of

33 items. The scale had three components that were categorized as performance anxieties. These were *Communication Apprehension, Test-Anxiety, and Fear of Negative Evaluation*.

Components of FLCA

The first component of FLCA is *communication apprehension* which refers to "a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127). The construct of communication apprehension comprises a substantial part of FLCA, as it is directly linked to interpersonal interaction between individuals and the communicative nature of language. According to Horwitz et al. (1986), speaking in front of people or listening to a spoken interaction can cause communication apprehension which will most probably also permeate foreign language learning.

The second component is *test-anxiety* that emanates when an individual undergoes a kind of evaluation whether written or oral. Horwitz et al. (1986) claim that the origin of test-anxiety is the fear of failure. Aroused with fear of failure, the learners are likely to experience a considerable amount of difficulty and make errors. In this respect, anything less than a perfect test performance will not be acceptable for test-anxious learners.

The last component of the FLCA is *fear of negative evaluation*. It concerns the thoughts about others' evaluations of oneself. Although it can be confused with test-anxiety, fear of negative evaluation is not confined to formal test-taking situations. Instead, it can be observed in social settings where the individual is not tested formally (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Although originally categorized into three subcomponents, this current study employs 10 items of the FLCAS, which correspond to *the Communication Apprehension* and *the Fear of Failure* (Toyama & Yamazaki, 2018).

Sources of FLCA

FLCA can be the manifestation of various factors. According to Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014), for instance, the learner, the instructor or their interaction could be the root of the FLCA. The learner-induced anxiety is associated with the fear of negative evaluation that is the result of the overconcerned behavior of the learner (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). That is, some learners might be perturbed about what others think of them regarding their language proficiency; therefore, they tend to be more anxious due to their nature.

Additionally, Young (1991) maintains that instructors can also be the source of anxiety in a foreign language class. Instructors who are inclined to correct their students constantly, who do not allow for groupworks, as they think they would lose control of the class, and who dominate the classroom and do most of the talking, may trigger the anxiety levels of their learners. Anxieties associated with the instructor-learner interactions are also the source of FLCA (Horwitz et al., 1986). That is, correcting learners in front of their peers or using a harsh language while giving feedback may lead learners to feel incompetent, thus causing anxiety.

Other causes of the FLCA center primarily on procedures related to language classes and aspects of language testing. To illustrate, oral presentations in from of the class and/or oral quizzes that require learners to respond to questions orally are reported to be the most anxiety-producing classroom procedures (Young, 1991). The test-anxiety, on the other hand, are both related to the anxiety-causing aspect of language testing and the mismatch between the instructional procedures and test

items. When the way an instructor teaches (e.g., communicatively) differs from the way he/she evaluates the students (e.g., grammar-based), the anxiety levels of students are observed to increase.

Empirical Findings on FLCA

Since the development of FLCAS by Horwitz et al. (1986), the FLA has been investigated extensively throughout the world. Some of these studies have been conducted in EFL settings and some others have been carried out in ESL settings. Below some of these studies that took place in the Turkish setting and used FLCAS as their data collection tool are summarized.

Batumlu and Erden (2007) investigated the relationship between FLCA and foreign language achievement of university students. Analyses of the data collected from 150 English preparatory school students indicated that the anxiety level of higher-level students was determined higher compared to the lower-level students. In addition to this, there was a negative correlation between the FLCA levels and achievement scores of the participants. In other words, while the anxiety levels of the students increased, their achievement scores were observed to decrease. The gender factor was also found to be statistically insignificant with regard to its effect on FLCA.

In their quantitative study, Tuncer and Doğan (2013) explored the relationship between the FLCA and the foreign language achievement of Turkish university students in an English preparatory school in eastern Turkey. Using the FLCAS, they conducted the study with 271 engineering students who were learning English in the preparatory school. The results of the study indicated that at the beginning of the preparatory school, the FLCA was not a strong predictor of the foreign language achievement; however, the FLCA was found to account for the

academic failure. The study also revealed that FLCA is an evolving phenomenon that can increase due to instruction in time.

Another study examining the relationship between FLCA and foreign language achievement was carried out by Şener (2015) at the English Language Teaching Department of a state university in Turkey. The data was collected through FLCAS from 77 freshmen 50 of whom were female students. For foreign language achievement, the researcher used the students' Communication Skills Course scores. The results showed that there was a strong relationship between FLCA and foreign language achievement. The results also indicated that the female students were found to be more anxious compared to the male ones.

Elaldı (2016) investigated the FLCA levels of students studying the English language and literature at a university in Turkey. The researcher focused on gender differences and examined whether gender factor was effective on FLCA. The data collected from 98 freshmen and seniors. The results revealed that the students were more anxious when they became seniors. Additionally, the male students who participated in the study were found to be more anxious compared to the female students.

In their mixed-methods study, Thompson and Khawaja (2016) explored the FLCA from the multilingualism lens. A total of 156 English language learners with different levels of English from various universities across Turkey took part in the study, and 64 of the participants identified themselves as bilinguals and 92 of them stated that they were multilinguals. The languages spoken by the participants included Turkish, Kurdish, German, French, Spanish, Russian, Arabic, Italian, and Romanian. The participants first completed the 33-item FLCAS and then they were asked to respond to the open-ended survey questions. The open-ended survey

questions were asked to explore whether knowing a foreign language helped or hindered the participants' ability to learn a new language. According to the results of the study, multilinguals had a medium level of anxiety in classroom performance and they hold more positive attitudes toward the English language. The findings also revealed that the bilinguals were found to be less confident in English compared to the multilinguals who participated in the study. This study was particularly important for the current study, as it was one of the few studies focusing on the concepts of bi and multilingualism.

There have also been studies on FLCA conducted in various EFL contexts throughout the world. By and large, they have shown consistent results with the studies carried out in the Turkish context. Some of these studies are briefly mentioned below.

In the Japanese context, Williams and Andrade (2008) carried out a quantitative study with 243 Japanese students participating in conversational English classes at various universities across Japan. The results indicated that the participants experienced anxiety especially at the output and processing stages of the learning process. The participants' responses also revealed that the cause of the FLCA was mainly their teachers and peers. As for the strategies that coped with the FLCA, the participant students stated that they felt helpless and frustrated, as they could not overcome their anxiety.

Another study conducted in the Iranian context by Ghorbandordinejad and Nasab (2013) examined the relationship between perfectionism and English language achievement mediated by foreign language classroom anxiety. The FLCAS and Perfectionism Scale were administered to a total of 239 students. The results indicated that there was not a statistically significant relationship between

perfectionism levels and English language achievement of the participants. However, FLCA was found to be significantly and negatively correlating with the English language achievement of the participants.

Amengual-Pizarro (2018) did a correlational study to explore the degree of FLCA of 67 undergraduates enrolled in two university degree programs at a university in Spain. The findings revealed that most of the participants were experiencing from average to high anxiety levels in their foreign language classes. Communication apprehension, followed by fear of negative evaluation, was found to be the main source of FLCA of the students. However, gender was not a statistically significant variable in terms of FLCA.

In another study, Dewaele and Ip (2013) investigated the link between Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity (SLTA), FLCA, and self-rated English proficiency of 73 Chinese students in Hong Kong. Statistical analyses showed that SLTA, FLCA, and self-rated English proficiency were predictors of the half of the variance in each other. When students were more tolerant of second language ambiguity, their anxiety level was found to be lower and they also expressed that they felt more proficient in English.

In the Slovak context, Sokolov and Šuplatová (2018) investigated the relationship of socio-biographical variables (gender and language proficiency), and generalized anxiety with the FLCA of 210 Slovak adolescents and young adults who were recruited via e-mail and social media. 152 of the participants were female and 58 of them were male. Each participant of the study stated that they had learned at least two foreign languages. Results of the generalized anxiety scale indicated that the female participants were more anxious than the male ones. However, for FLCA, both female and male participants had approximately the same scores. In other

words, in terms of FLCA, gender-based anxiety was not manifested in the educational context. The results also revealed that there was a statistically significant correlation between generalized anxiety and FLCA. That is to say, higher levels of generalized anxiety were found to be positively correlating with higher levels of FLCA.

FLCA is a common phenomenon in language learning and has been the subject of a growing body of research in both EFL and ESL contexts. The results of the abovementioned studies are consistent and reveal that anxiety is prevalent among language learners regardless of their contexts (i.e., Turkey, Japan, Slovakia, Iran, etc.). The results also indicate that FLCA has a debilitating effect on language learning and should be minimized for a successful language learning process.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the relevant literature on translanguaging, reconceptualized L2MSS, and FLCA has been provided as well as the theoretical background of the study. The literature review includes definitions of related concepts and terms, and previously conducted studies on each construct. It can be concluded that levels anxiety and motivation are of great importance to foreign language learners since they can both facilitate and debilitate their learning process. Translanguaging practices, on the other hand, may provide learners with the instructional scaffolding that would increase their levels of motivation and decrease their FLCA.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between translanguaging practices carried out by emergent bilinguals with their FLCA, R-L2MSS, and English language achievement scores. In this respect, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and FLCA of emergent bilinguals?
2. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and the R-L2MSS of emergent bilinguals?
3. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and English language achievement scores of emergent bilinguals?

Research Design

This study adopts a correlational design, as it seeks to explore the relationship among various variables (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). More specifically, its aim "is to discover the relationship between variables through the use of correlational statistics" (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007, p. 332). In correlational research, no manipulation of variables or treatment take place, as the aim is only to discover the degree of association between variables and report this degree in statistical terms (Creswell, 2012). Correlational research designs are considered convenient in educational sciences because they allow researchers to explore the relationships

among a large number of variables in a single study and to put forth the degree of relationship between the variables included in the study (Gall et al., 2007). In this study, the variables are *translanguaging practices*, *foreign language anxiety (i.e., communication apprehension and fear of failure)*, *reconceptualized L2 motivational self system (i.e., ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, feared L2 self, and English learning experience)*, and *English language achievement scores of the emergent bilinguals* (*i.e., learners' scores at the final exam in fall semester*) at a foundation university in Ankara.

The relationship between these variables was investigated through partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM), which enables researchers to analyze complex relationships between latent and observed variables (Hair, Risher, Sarstedt, & Ringle, 2019). SEM is a multivariate analysis technique and contrary to univariate or bivariate analysis, it analyzes multiple variables simultaneously (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). According to Hair et al. (2019), there are a number of points to consider when deciding whether PLS is an appropriate SEM method of analysis. These include sample size, distributional assumptions, statistical power, and goodness-of-fit. Some of these points also suggest PLS-SEM is the most appropriate method for this present study. The first reason why PLS-SEM was selected for this study was that it "offers solutions with small sample sizes when models comprise many constructs and a large number of items" (Hair et al., 2019, p. 4). Although the sample size of this study was not too small, benefitting from the algorithm of PLS-SEM was still a good option in terms of obtaining more reliable results. Another reason was the suitability of PLS-SEM for exploratory research. Despite the complexity of the model and data characteristics, as a variance-based structural equation modeling, PLS-SEM focuses "on explaining the variance in the dependent

variables" and this makes it a better-suited technique for developing theories (Hair et al., 2017, p. 4).

Setting and Participants

The current study took place at the English Preparatory School of a foundation university in Ankara. Based on their performance on the school's in-house proficiency exam, the students either start their degree programs or are placed in one of the four levels in the English Language Preparatory School. The four levels are designed in compliance with the standards of the CEFR (2001). However, while categorizing the levels, contrary to the six-point scale of the CEFR (2001), the school follows its own leveling system and designates levels as D, C, B, and A. In this categorization, D is considered to be the lowest level whereas A is the highest one. Below is the correspondence of levels according to the CEFR (2001) and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL, 2012) scales (see Table 1).

Table 1

Correspondence of School's Proficiency Levels according to the CEFR and ACTFL Scales

School's Level	CEFR Level	ACTFL Level
D	A1	Novice Low
C	A2	Novice Mid
B	B1	Intermediate Low
A	B+	Intermediate High

The school offers intensive English courses, consisting of 27 class hours of English language instruction per week, as well as providing a self-access center and various club activities (e.g., drama club, speaking club, movie club, writing club,

etc.). One academic year consists of four terms each of which lasts 8 weeks (with the exception of 10-week last term). In each level, the students are supposed to take 5 pop quizzes, 5 writing quizzes, 2 achievement exams, and 2 speaking exams (one formative, one summative). To be able to complete one level successfully, the students must receive 60 points out of 100, which is made up of the 65% of the achievement exams (including the speaking exams), 15% of the pop quizzes, 10% of the writing quizzes, and 10% of the online and in-class assignments. For D level students, the cut score is 65 points, and for the rest of the students, it is 60 points. After all the calculations, the students who fail to receive 60 points have to repeat the same level they have just finished. The students who succeed in completing each level successfully are required to take an in-house proficiency exam and receive a minimum of 60 points to be able to continue their studies in their departments.

The current study used convenience sampling, one of the most common nonrandom sampling methods in language learning research, due to the proximity of the sample to the researcher, researcher's familiarity with the site and the participants, and the number of the sample (Gall et al., 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2011). The accessible population of this study was 386 A1 and A2-level emergent bilinguals who started learning English at the English preparatory school of the aforementioned foundation university in Ankara, Turkey in the 2019-2020 Fall semester. Majority of the participants aged between 18 and 24 years. Six participants indicated that they were between 25 to 34 years old. Finally, one participant stated that he was between 34 to 45 years old. As for the gender of the participants, 194 of the participants identified themselves as female and 192 of them identified themselves as male. Please refer to Table 2 for more detailed demographic information about the population of the current study.

Table 2

Demographic Information of the Participants in the Main Study

Demographics	N	%
Age		
18 – 24	379	98.2
25 – 34	6	1.6
35 – 45	1	0.3
Gender		
Female	194	50.3
Male	192	49.7
Years of learning English		
Less than 1 year	81	21.0
1 – 3 years	39	10.1
3 – 5 years	38	9.8
5 – 7 years	53	13.7
7 – 9 years	81	21.0
9 + years	94	24.4
Native Language		
Turkish	373	96.6
Kurdish	4	1.0
Arabic	3	0.8
Persian	1	0.3
Other	5	1.3

Instrumentation

The instrumentation tool of this study was a survey consisting of 45 items (see Appendix A and B). The survey was constructed using three different scales.

These scales were a) Translanguaging Practices Scale (developed by the researcher), b) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz et al., 1986), and c) Motivational Factors Questionnaire (Dörnyei, 2010; Peker, 2016). The subcategories of these scales are shown as constructs in Table 3.

Table 3

Survey Constructs and Item Numbers in the Current Study

Source	Name of Construct	Item Numbers
García et al. (2017)	Translanguaging Practices	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11
Horwitz et al. (1986)	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale	
	Communication Apprehension	12, 13, 14, 15, 16
	Fear of Failure	17, 18, 19, 20, 21
Dörnyei (2009)	Motivational Factors Questionnaire	
	English Learning Experience	22, 23, 24, 25, 26
	Ideal L2 Self	27, 28, 29, 30
	Ought-to L2 Self	31, 32, 33, 34, 35
Peker (2016)	Feared L2 Self	36, 37, 38, 39, 40

Existing scales on translanguaging in the literature solely focus on the perceptions of the teachers and the learners and they are not relevant to the scope of the current study; therefore, there was a need for a scale that would focus on translanguaging practices employed by emergent bilinguals. To this end, the Translanguaging Practices scale was developed by the researcher. The items in the survey were created based on the translanguaging practices suggested by García et al. (2017). These practices focused on the use of entire linguistic repertoire of the

participants allowing them to translanguage when they carry out them (e.g., *When I take notes in English classes, I use all the languages I know and I am currently learning*). Since the scale was developed by the researcher, its exploratory factor analysis was also conducted as a part of the reliability analyses. The process of exploratory factor analysis will be presented in detail in Chapter 4.

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, on the other hand, was developed by Horwitz et al. (1986). Originally, it was formulated as a 33-item scale; however, the current study used 10 items of the original scale under two constructs whose latest confirmatory factor analysis was conducted by Toyama and Yamazaki (2018). The constructs were named as *communication apprehension* and *fear of failure*. The first construct had items pertinent to the situations in which the participants abstained from engaging in communication in English classes (e.g., *I worry about making mistakes in my English language class*). The second construct, on the other hand, concerned the emotional consequence of failing English classes on the participants (e.g., *It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher saying in English*). The main purpose of using two constructs of the scale limiting it to ten items in total was to keep the number of items as minimum as possible considering the response rate to the survey.

The Motivational Factor Questionnaire was based on Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system (L2MSS) questionnaire. It consisted of three subconstructs as *English learning experience*, *ideal L2 self*, and *ought-to L2 self*. English learning experience consisted of statements pertinent to "the perceived quality of the learner's engagement with various aspects of the learning process" (Dörnyei, 2019, p. 20). These statements aimed to uncover participants' thoughts about their immediate learning environment and opportunities to practice English. To illustrate, the

participants were requested to rate statements such as "*I always look forward to English classes or any time that I can practice English*" or "*I find learning English really interesting*". Ideal L2 self, secondly, was made up of statements such as *imagining oneself using English successfully in the future*. Thus, their aim was to unravel participants' ideal selves about learning a foreign language (e.g., *I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends or colleagues* or *Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English*). Ought-to L2 self, on the other hand, focused on whether others' ideas had an influence on the participants' ought selves. More specifically, it concerned the L2 image of the participants influenced by other people. To illustrate, the questionnaire included statements such as "*Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so* or *Learning English is important because the people I respect think that I should do* it".

However, the current study used the reconceptualized version of the L2MSS that contained one more construct called *feared L2 self* developed by Peker (2016). Feared L2 self was added to the L2MSS as a construct to contribute to the balance of ideal L2 self in L2 motivation. It focuses on the feared possible outcomes of not being able to learn English and the questionnaire included statements pertinent to such fears (e.g., *I am afraid of being humiliated/teased in the future due to my limited use of English* or *I am afraid of writing or speaking in English because I fear that I will be corrected in a teasing/humiliating way*).

The items in the four surveys consisted of five-point Likert scale statements. The items of the Translanguaging practices scale were formulated as *always, most of the time, about half the time, sometimes*, and *never.* For the Translanguaging Practices Scale, *1* refers *never* and *5* refers to *always.* The items of the Foreign

Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, Motivational Factors Questionnaire, and Feared L2 Self Scale were formulated in a way that they would allow the researcher to find out students' agreement and disagreement with the statements. For these scales, *1* refers to *strongly disagree* and *5* refers to *strongly agree.*

The last part of the survey involved the participants' demographic information such as their student identification number, the number of years of learning English, their native language, and their ages. English language achievement scores of the participants were manually entered by the researcher upon receiving the scores from the administration of the institution. The passing grades were coded as *1* and the failing ones were coded as *2*. All the items in the survey were translated into Turkish by the researcher and revised by a Turkish language expert. Then, the Turkish version was translated back into English to crosscheck its accuracy. The English version of the survey was also reviewed by a native speaker of English.

Pilot Study

In order to evaluate the data collection instrument and detect any possible problems prior to the main study (Fraenkel et al., 2012; Gall et al., 2007), the pilot testing of the study was conducted on the 2nd of January 2020. Before conducting the pilot study, one native speaker of Turkish, who was working as a Turkish teacher, was requested to review the Turkish version of the survey and the English version of the survey was also reviewed by a native speaker of English, who work at the institution where the study was carried out. Additionally, both versions of the survey were analyzed by the graduate level TEFL students because their thoughts as English teachers and researchers were thought to be valuable for the improvement of the instrument. Following the reviewing and brainstorming processes, necessary

alterations regarding the wording and the languages used in the survey were made by the researcher and the survey was put into its final form.

For correlational studies, the minimum sample size is advised not to be fewer than 30, although larger sizes can provide results that are subject to less error variance and stronger assertions about representativeness (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel et al., 2012; Gall et al., 2007). In this respect, the sample size of the pilot testing was 96 randomly-selected emergent bilinguals from the convenience sample learning English at an English preparatory school ($N = 96$). Following the administration of the survey, Cronbach's alphas of each scale were calculated to demonstrate the reliability of the survey. The results indicated that the values were high and at satisfactory levels for each scale (see Table 4). That is, they surpassed the acceptable level of 0.70 (Field, 2018).

Table 4

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients of the Survey Used in the Pilot Study

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha
Translanguaging (Overall Scale)	.80
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety	
Communication Apprehension	.83
Fear of Failure	.83
Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System	
English Learning Experience	.74
Ideal L2 Self	.80
Ought-to L2 Self	.75
Feared L2 Self	.84

Following the pilot testing of the study, five students who completed the survey were interviewed and asked to evaluate the items in the survey. The students' answers regarding the survey items revealed that they did not find any of the items confusing or misleading. Nevertheless, it was decided that a more precise instruction explaining the aim of the survey was to be provided for the participants. The interview session with the students was particularly useful, as it allowed the researcher to better understand the students' perceptions of the Translanguaging Practices Scale.

To sum up, the results of the pilot study revealed that the scales were consistent and reliable. The items in the FLCA scale (Toyama & Yamazaki, 2018), L2MSS (Islam et al., 2013), and feared L2 self (Peker, 2016) had already been tested and validated before in various studies. Therefore, they were expected to be valid and reliable in the pilot study as well. However, as the items in the Translanguaging scale were prepared by the researcher, conducting a pilot study to analyze the factors and measure their reliabilities was essential. Correspondingly, the Translanguaging scale was also found to be reliable and valid and suitable to use in the main study.

Data Collection Procedure

Before conducting the data collection, the researcher had received the required permissions both from the institutional review board (i.e., ethics committee) of Bilkent University and the administration of the university where the main study would be carried out. Having received the permissions to distribute the survey, the researcher first conducted a pilot study to evaluate the data collection instrument and detect any possible problems prior to the main study. In light of the pilot study, the final version of the survey was formed and converted into an online version using the Qualtrics website both in English and Turkish (see Appendix A and B).

Prior to the day of the data collection, the link to the online survey created by the researcher was shared with the instructors who were teaching the participating 20 classes through their Moodle accounts. The data collection procedure was completed within two days (January 6 and 7 2020). On the first day of the data collection, due to the time constraints, first ten classes participated in the study and on the second day, the remaining ten classes were included in the data collection process. On the first and the second days of data collection, the participating classes were visited by the researcher before the participants started to complete the survey. During the visit, the participants and the instructors were briefed about the content and the length of the survey. Additionally, the participants were informed that their participation was anonymous and the data they provided were going to be kept confidential.

Data Analysis

The data collected for this study consisted of quantitative data gathered through an online questionnaire. For the statistical analysis of the data, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 25) and SmartPLS (Version 3.2.9) were utilized. First, the data were cleaned up, sorted, and organized in SPSS. The names of the variables were assigned and the midterm results of the students obtained from the school administration as a pass and fail status were transferred into SPSS. Then, exploratory factor analysis was carried out for *Translanguaging* items to investigate the variable relationships and identify the latent factors among 11 items. The results showed that there were two latent factors. The factors were named according to the items they were composed of. Next, Cronbach's alphas were calculated for each scale used in the questionnaire. Finally, in order to answer the research questions, the data were analyzed through SmartPLS.

Conclusion

In the methodology chapter, information about the research design was covered with reference to the research questions. The chapter presented information about the setting, participants of the study, instruments used, the pilot study, data collection procedures, and data analysis. The next chapter explains in-depth data analysis procedures and displays the results of the data analysis.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between translanguaging practices carried out by emergent bilinguals with their FLCA, R-L2MSS, and English language achievement scores. In this respect, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and FLCA of emergent bilinguals?
2. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and the R-L2MSS of emergent bilinguals?
3. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and English language achievement scores of emergent bilinguals?

In the current study, the relationship between translanguaging practices of 386 emergent bilinguals, their FLCA, R-L2MSS, and English language achievement scores was explored in respect of the research questions above. The quantitative data were gathered through an online survey consisting of 11 sections and 44 items (see Appendix A and B). The first section includes items pertinent to translanguaging practices employed by emergent bilinguals. The second and the third sections consisted of items related to foreign language classroom anxiety which were categorized as *communication apprehension* and *fear of failure respectively*. The sections ranging from the fourth and the seventh included items belonging to reconceptualized L2MSS. These were *English learning experience*, *ideal L2 self*,

ought-to L2 self, and *feared L2 self* respectively. The remaining sections of the survey contained items about demographic information about the population of the current study.

In this chapter, findings emerging from the analysis will be presented in reference to three research questions. In this respect, detailed analyses of the quantitative data obtained through the online survey will be discussed under the sub-sections below.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive analysis of the data includes the descriptive statistics of the five-point Likert scale items of the survey. In this section, statistical summaries about the sample and the scales are provided and they are summarized for model formulation in PLS-SEM.

Descriptive Analysis of the Survey

This section includes a descriptive analysis of the survey items with a focus on each construct. In this respect, in order to continue with the descriptive statistics, composite scores were formed for each construct. The composite scores consisting of mean, standard deviation (SD), and their skewness and kurtosis values of the constructs are presented in Table 5. As it was mentioned in Chapter 3, the items of the survey were measured on a five-point Likert scale. For the Translanguaging practices scale *1* represents *never* while *5* stands for *always*. For the rest of the survey, *1* means *strongly disagree* and *5* represents *strongly agree*.

Table 5

Composite Scores of the Survey Constructs

Construct	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Mediating Understanding	3.52	0.71	-0.16	0.24

Table 5 (cont'd.)

Composite Scores of the Survey Constructs

Construct	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Writing and Planning	3.83	0.76	-0.63	0.32
Communication Apprehension	2.91	1.12	0.04	-1.00
Fear of Failure	3.13	1.03	-0.23	-0.76
English Learning Experience	3.66	0.77	-0.18	-0.34
Ideal L2 Self	4.17	0.82	-1.09	1.07
Ought-to L2 Self	3.68	0.92	-0.45	-0.51
Feared L2 Self	2.52	1.15	0.38	-0.91

The descriptive statistics for the Translanguaging Practices Scale were calculated under two constructs extracted after the exploratory factor analysis which will be explained in detail below. The first construct was named as *mediating understanding* and the second one was named as *writing and planning*. The results indicate that both constructs had high means (M_1 = 3.52 & M_2 = 3.83) and standard deviations for the constructs were lower than 1. This means that there was a positive tendency among the participants toward the use of translanguaging practices and the standard deviations indicated a low variance; that is, the scores of the participants were in a similar pattern (Field, 2018). The number of participants who had a negative attitude toward the translanguaging practices items was relatively low. Additionally, when the means of both constructs were compared, it was understood that *writing and planning* construct a higher mean than *mediating understanding* construct.

As for *the communication apprehension* construct of FLCA, the participants seem to have a relatively high level of anxiety that was triggered by communication

acts (*M* = 2.91, *SD* = 1.12). In terms of *the fear of failure*, on the other hand, the participants' responses revealed that the fear of failing their English classes aroused their level of foreign language classroom anxiety more (*M* = 3.13, *SD* = 1.03). In general, the participants seemed to be more anxious to fail their classes than to engage in communication.

Relatively higher means and standard deviations of *English learning experience* construct suggest that most of the participants had positive feelings about their English classes and materials (*M* = 3.66, *SD* = 0.77). *Ought-to L2 self* also exhibited a very similar mean to *English learning experience* (*M* = 3.68, *SD* = 0.92). Out of the components of the R-L2MSS, ideal L2 self had the highest mean value (*M* = 4.17). Feared L2 self, on the other hand, had the lowest mean value (*M* = 2.52). The lower mean value indicates that the participants had negative perceptions of this construct.

PLS-SEM is a non-parametric statistical method; thus, it does not require a normal distribution of the data. Nevertheless, data that are extremely distributed may also pose risks of problematic assessment of the parameters (Hair et al., 2019). In this respect, skewness and kurtosis values were examined for the normality of data. Field (2018) explains skewness and kurtosis in simple terms as follows:

> Positive values of skewness indicate a pile-up of scores on the left of the distribution, whereas negative values indicate a pile-up on the right. Positive values of kurtosis indicate a heavy-tailed distribution, whereas negative values indicate a light-tailed distribution. The further the value is from zero, the more likely it is that the data are not normally distributed. (p. 345)

As a rule of thumb, skewness and kurtosis values within +/-2.0 indicate the normality of data (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). The skewness values of the data indicate that they are between -1.09 (Ideal L2 Self) and 0.38 (Feared L2 Self). The kurtosis values, on the other hand, range between -1.00 (Communication

Apprehension) and 1.07 (Ideal L2 Self). These values reveal that the variables are normally distributed. However, as mentioned before, because PLS-SEM is a non-parametric statistical method, the normality of the data is not a prerequisite for the statistical analysis.

Analysis of the Survey: Exploratory Factor Analysis

Another step of analyzing the quantitative data obtained through the online survey was to conduct an exploratory factor analysis for the Translanguaging Practices Scale to investigate the variable relationships and identify the latent variables among 11 items. The factor analysis was conducted using *principal components analysis* with *direct oblimin rotation* as a method of oblique rotation via SPSS v.25. The principal components analysis is one of the most widely utilized methods to extract factors from a correlational matrix, as it makes it possible to extract "the maximum amount of variance that can be possibly extracted by a given number of factors" (Gorsuch, 2015, p. 101). In this respect, the utilization of the principal components method was essential. The factors, on the other hand, were expected to correlate, that is, they were assumed to be related to each other and the data of the study involved human participants. Therefore, the direct oblimin rotation was preferred as the method of oblique rotation (Field, 2018).

As a result of the exploratory factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) value was found to be .84 indicating the data was suitable for factor analysis, as the value was above the recommended threshold (Field, 2018). Out of 11 translanguaging practices items, two latent factors were extracted. The first factor consisted of items 1, 2, 7, 9, 10, and 11 and it explained 37% of the variance. The second factor, on the other hand, included items 3, 4, 5, 6, and 8 and 47% of the variance was explained by it. The factor loadings and

communalities based on a principal components analysis are shown in Table 6. When the items were analyzed, it was found out that the items of the first factor represented the mediational aspect of translanguaging and the items of the second factor referred to the writing and planning practices. Hence, the factors were named after these aspects as *mediating understanding through translanguaging* and *writing and planning through translanguaging*.

Table 6

Factor loadings and Communalities Based on a Principal Components Analysis with Direct Oblimin Rotation for 11 Items

Item Number	Factor Loadings	Communality
4	.81	.63
5	.73	.47
3	.64	.45
6	.60	.50
8	.53	.45
1	.87	.63
9	.80	.62
2	.50	.42
10	.47	.43
7	.41	.24
11	.40	.33

In order to measure the internal consistency of factors, the Cronbach's Alpha values of them were calculated via SPSS (v.25). For the first factor consisting of items 1, 2, 7, 9, 10, and 11, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to be .72. Cronbach's alpha of the second factor consisting of items 3, 4, 6, and 8 was found to be .74.

Ideally, Cronbach's alpha values that are above .70 are considered to be acceptable (Field, 2018). In this respect, these values indicated that the factors were internally consistent. In addition to the reliability analysis conducted in SmartPLS, Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the other sections of the survey were also calculated in SPSS and the values were found to be above acceptable levels, as well (see Table 7). These results, in general, indicate that the scales were reliable enough to conduct statistical analysis.

Table 7

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients of the Survey Used in the Main Study

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha
Translanguaging	
Mediating Understanding	.72
Writing and Planning	.74
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety	
Communication Apprehension	.87
Fear of Failure	.81
Reconceptualized L2 Motivational Self System	
English Learning Experience	.74
Ideal L2 Self	.83
Ought-to L2 Self	.75
Feared L2 Self	.88

Partial Least Square Structural Equation Model (PLS-SEM) Estimation

This section includes the evaluation of the PLS-SEM measurement models. For PLS-SEM, the examination of the measurement model is essential to check whether the models meet all the criteria for the assessment of the structural model

(Hair et al., 2019). For the measurement model, reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of the models are examined. The structural model, on the other hand, includes "the coefficient of determination (R^2), the blindfolding-based cross-validated redundancy measure Q^2, and the statistical significance and relevance of the path coefficients" (Hair et al., 2019, p. 11).

Assessment of the Measurement Model

Assessment of the measurement model started with the PLS-SEM analysis conducted in SmartPLS (v. 3.2.9) utilizing the path weighting. The initial algorithm converged in 19 iterations. Figure 1 shows the structural model overlaid with the estimation parameter results from the output of the PLS-SEM algorithm. First, the latent variable correlations table was examined to check whether there was an unexpected correlation between the variables that might not fit in the model. Correlation of each construct was cross-checked with the other constructs and problematic indicators were detected. According to the literature, for instance, achievement scores were supposed to correlate negatively with fear of failure. Additionally, feared L2 self was also expected to be in a negative correlation with mediating understanding. These indicators are underlined in the latent variable correlations table (see Appendix C).

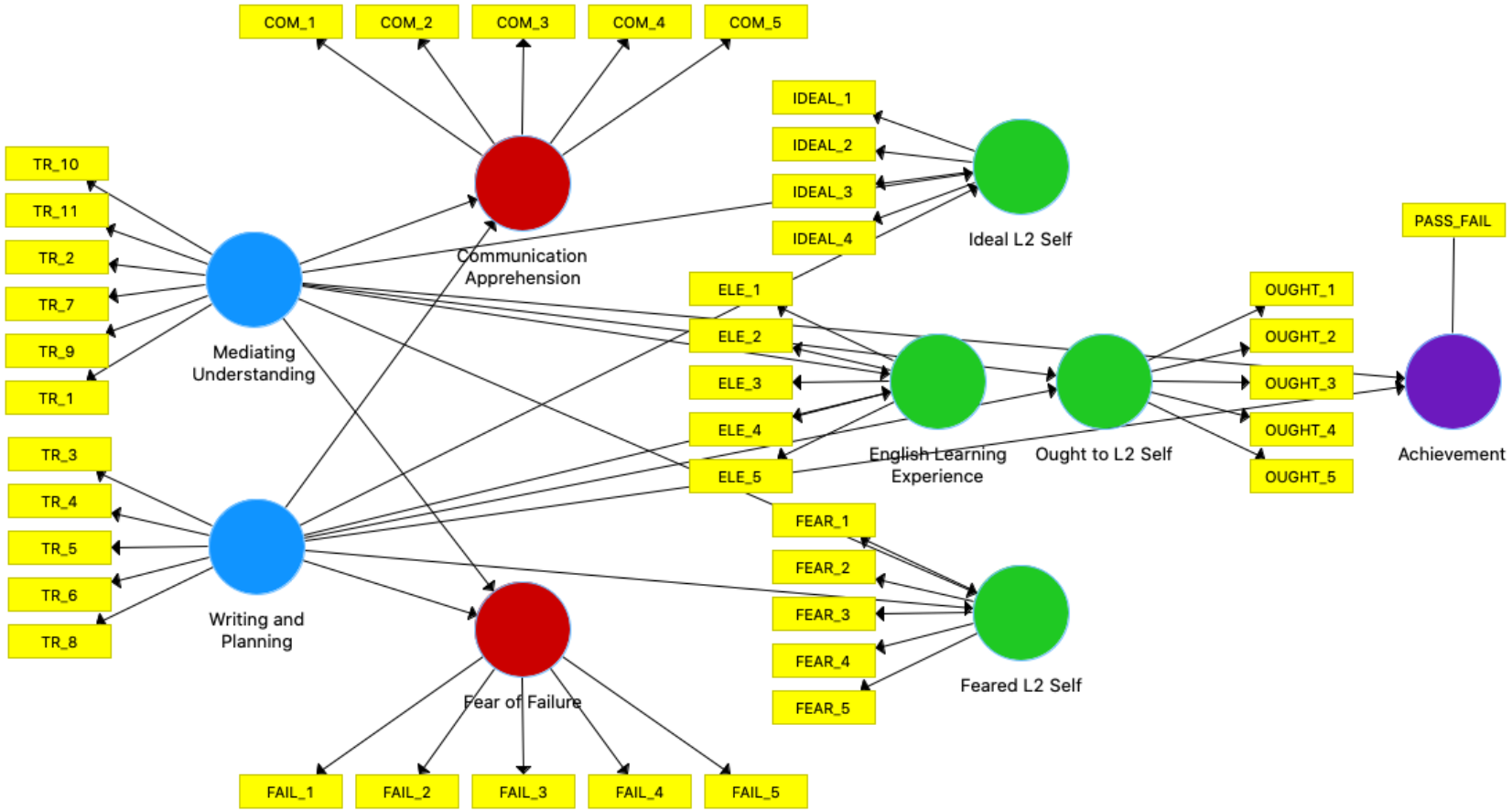

Figure 1. Structural model overlaid with estimation results from the PLS-SEM algorithm

Convergent Validity (AVE)

The convergent validity of each construct was measured in the second analysis. Hair et al. (2019) explain the parameter and its acceptable values for exploratory research as follows:

> Convergent validity is the extent to which the construct converges to explain the variance of its items. The metric used for evaluating a construct's convergent validity is the average variance extracted (AVE) for all items on each construct. To calculate the AVE, one has to square the loading of each indicator on a construct and compute the mean value. An acceptable AVE is 0.50 or higher indicating that the construct explains at least 50 per cent of the variance of its items. (p. 9)

The results of the assessment of the measurement model revealed that AVEs of mediating understanding, ought-to L2 self, and writing and planning constructs were below the acceptable threshold. These values are represented in Table 8.

Table 8

Initial Summary of the Quality Criteria

Construct	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Mediating Understanding	.81	.42
Ought to L2 Self	.78	.47
Writing and Planning	.83	.49
English Learning Experience	.83	.50
Feared L2 Self	.83	.52
Fear of Failure	.86	.56
Communication Apprehension	.90	.64
Ideal L2 Self	.89	.66
Achievement	.00	.00

Composite Reliability

The internal consistency reliability was assessed using composite reliability. Higher composite reliability values are a sign of higher levels of reliability and acceptable values range between .60 and .90 (Hair et al., 2019). According to this criterion, composite reliability values of most of the constructs were above .80, which indicates higher levels of reliability of the scale. Table 6 shows the composite reliability values of the constructs.

Discriminant Validity

Evaluation of discriminant validity is the next step in assessing the measurement model. Discriminant validity "is the extent to which a construct is empirically distinct from other constructs in the structural model" (Hair et al., 2019, p. 9). The underlying logic of this kind of validity is comparing the shared variance for all model constructs to their AVEs. When the shared variance of constructs is larger than their AVEs, discriminant validity is violated. There are three methods for examining the discriminant validity of the measurement model, and these are the Fornell-Larcker criterion, cross-loadings of indicators, and Heteroit-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT). The last method was offered as a replacement to first two methods and "is defined as the mean value of the item correlations across constructs relative to the (geometric) mean of the average correlations for the items measuring the same construct" (Hair et al., 2019, p. 9). Lower HTMT values indicate fewer discriminant validity issues.

The discriminant validity of the current model was evaluated via three methods separately. When the cross-loadings were examined, it was found out that all the constructs had the highest loadings with their corresponding constructs, meaning there were no discriminant validity issues (Appendix D, E, and F).

Similarly, evaluating the results of the Fornell-Larcker criterion indicated that the square root of each construct's AVE is greater than its highest correlation with any other construct (Hair et al., 2017) (see Appendix E). Finally, according to the HTMT values, it was seen that the discriminant validity of the model was present (see Appendix F).

Summary of Measurement Model Evaluation

The last step of the assessment of the measurement model involves the determination of removing or retaining constructs so as to improve the parameters of the model. As mentioned earlier, it is recommended that AVE values for PLS-SEM should be no lower than .50. In this respect, so as to establish statistically stronger AVEs, some of the items were removed from the model. To illustrate, removing TR 7 increased the AVE of Mediating Understanding from .43 to .47. This new value indicated that the construct explained 47 percent of the variance of its items. However, since the value was still below .50, one more item that had a lower outer loading was removed from the model. Upon removing TR 3 the AVE of Mediating Understanding improved, establishing the new value: .51. For the Writing and Planning construct, on the other hand, removing TR 3 increased the AVE from .49 to .53.

Having established statistically stronger AVE values for the model, the outer loadings table was examined to determine whether it contained items with low outer loadings. Hair et al. (2017) suggest to prove that constituent indicators of a construct have much in common, "the standardized outer loadings should be 0.708 or higher" and "in most instances, 0.70 is considered close enough to 0.708 to be acceptable" (p. 113). However, finding items with lower outer loadings if the scales are newly developed is a common issue in social sciences (Hulland, 1999). In such cases, it is

suggested that removing or retaining items in a construct should be decided depending on their effects on the composite reliability and the content validity of the construct (Hair et al., 2017). Figure 2 shows the diagram to test outer loading relevance. As the diagram suggests, researchers can remove items from the scale "only when deleting the indicator leads to an increase in the composite reliability" (p. 113).

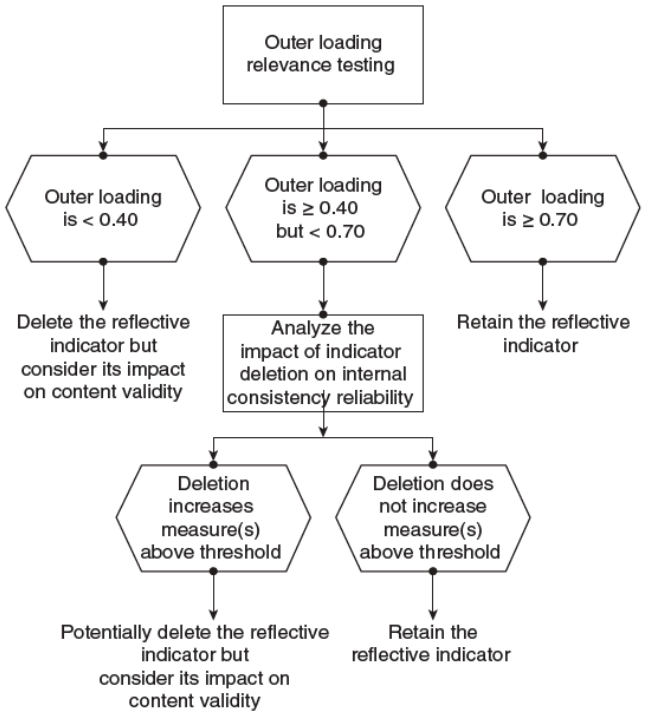

Figure 2. Outer loading relevance testing. From *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)* (2nd. ed.), by J. F. Hair, G. T. M. Hult, C. M. Ringle, and M. Sarstedt, 2017, Washington, DC: Sage Publications. Copyright 2017 by SAGE Publications. Reprinted with permission.

Two more items from the translanguaging practices constructs were removed so as to improve their AVE values. Taking Hair et al.'s (2017) suggestions about removing or retaining items into consideration, the items that were closer to .708 were kept in the model, although the ones that were too far from .708 were removed from the model. In addition to these, some other items in the other constructs were

removed from the model. These included item 5 from communication apprehension, item 3 from fear of failure, items 1 and 4 from English learning experience, item 3 from feared L2 self, and item 4 from ought-to L2 self. Although the AVE values of these constructs were within the acceptable levels, their outer loadings were below .708. Therefore, it was decided that they should be removed from the model. When the final version of the model was created, the composite reliability and discriminant validity of the model were also evaluated via the aforementioned procedure and no issues pertinent to reliability and validity were detected. Figure 3 shows the final version of the model before the assessment of the structural model.

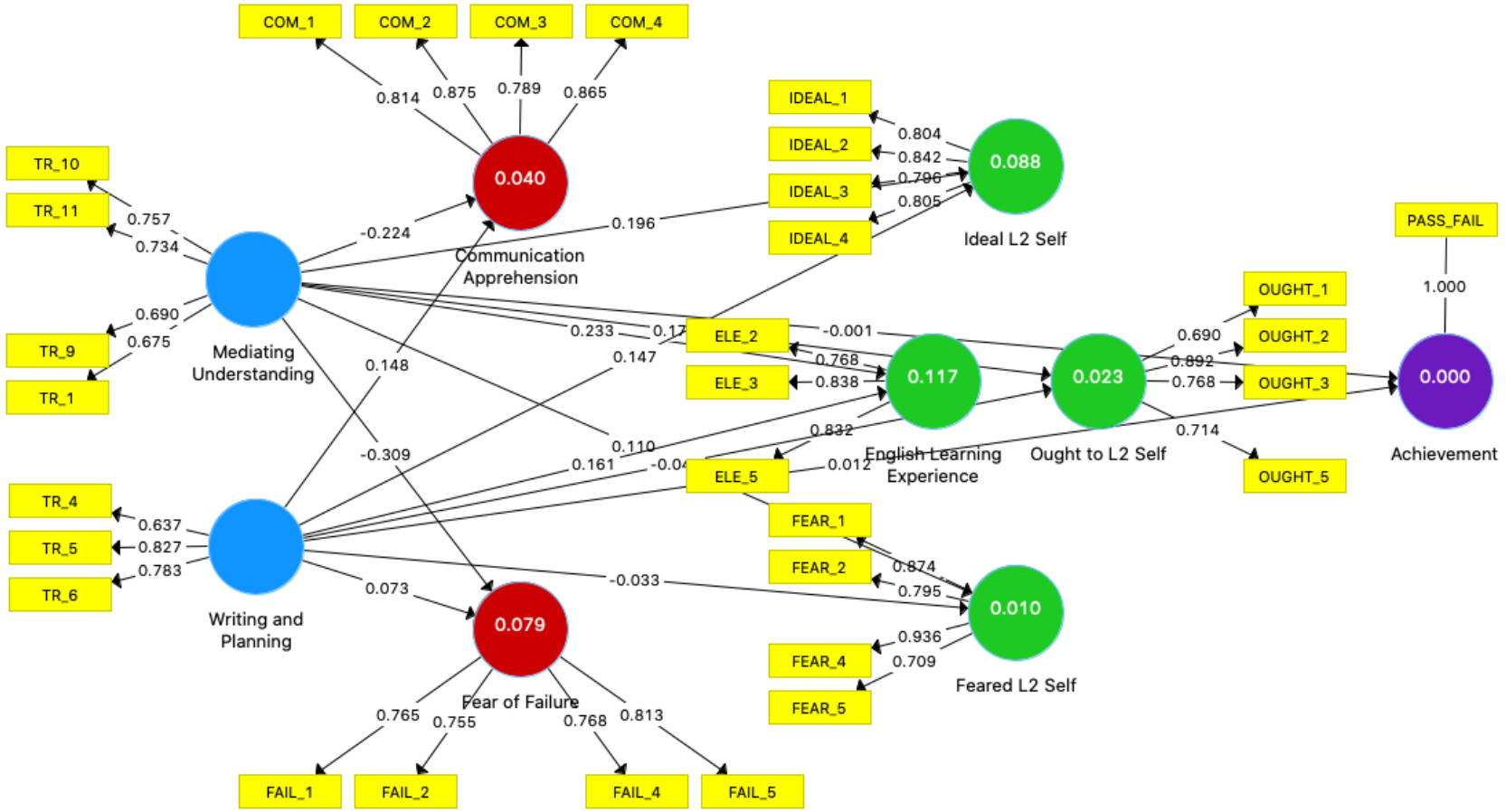

Figure 3. Structural model after removing low outer loaded items

Assessment of Structural Model

In the previous section, all the quality requirements of the integrity of scales in the construct were presented and the final version of the model was drawn up. This section includes the assessment of the structural model. Suggested steps are as follows (Hair et al., 2019):

1. Examining collinearity to ensure that "it does not bias the regression results" (p. 11).
2. Examining structural model path coefficients.
3. Examining R^2 values of the constructs to determine their predictive power.
4. Evaluating the effect size f^2.
5. Calculating Q^2 values as an alternative "means to assess the PLS path model's predictive accuracy" (p. 11).

Collinearity Assessment

Collinearity issues arise when "when there is a strong correlation between two or more predictors" in the model (Field, 2018, p. 533). In other words, it is the situation when at least two variables in the data refer to the same construct which leads to multicollinearity. There are both high and low levels of collinearity. While low levels of collinearity are not a very strong disturbance to the data, high levels of it can be problematic and cause issues such as an untrustworthy standardized beta coefficient, a limitation in the size of *R*, and difficulty in assessing the importance of individual predictors (Field, 2018).

In PLS-SEM models, variance inflation factor (VIF) is a measurement of collinearity and VIF values should be between 0.20 and 5. More precisely, ideal "VIF values should be close to 3 and lower" (Hair et al., 2019, p. 11). The VIF

values show that the values were between these values thus not indicating multicollinearity (see Appendix G and H).

Structural Model Path Coefficients

Following the collinearity assessment, bootstrapping was run to evaluate path coefficients, "which represent the hypothesized relationships among constructs" (Hair et al., 2017, p. 195). It is a nonparametric procedure that tests the statistical significance of PLS-SEM results such as path coefficients, f^2, and R^2 values. The process was run with 3000 samples. In this process, the number of samples refers to bootstrapping samples not the sample size of the study. After the process, significant and nonsignificant path coefficients were determined. Table 7 shows a summary of the structural model analysis determined through the bootstrapping process with 3000 samples.

Coefficient of Determination (R^2 Value)

R^2 "is a measure of how much of the variability in the outcome is accounted for by the predictors" (Field, 2018, p. 546). As a rule of thumb, "values of 0.75, 0.50 and 0.25 can be considered substantial, moderate and weak" (Hair et al., 2019, p. 11). However, depending on the context of the study and the high number of predictor constructs, the R^2 can vary. Therefore, the R^2 is advised to be interpreted taking the context of the study and the number of predictor constructs (Hair et al., 2019). The R^2 is also subject to certain limitations, thus should be interpreted cautiously. To illustrate, a high coefficient of determination may not always indicate that powerful predictions can be made or a value close to zero may not always indicate the variables are irrelevant (Kutner, Nachtsheim, Neter, & Li, 2005). The results indicated that the R^2 value of *the English learning experience* construct was close to

the values mentioned above. However, the rest of the variables were below 0.25 (see Table 9 and 10).

Effect Size (f^2 Value)

Effect size (f^2), also known as the removal effect, is the metric that is used to "assess how the removal of a certain predictor construct affects an endogenous construct's R^2 value" (Hair et al., 2019, p. 11). As a rule of thumb, while 0.02 represents a small removal effect, 0.15 and 0.35, respectively, refer to medium and large removal effects. The values less than 0.02, on the other hand, mean there is no effect. When the effect sizes were assessed, it was concluded that mediating understanding construct had a small removal effect on communication apprehension ($f^2 = 0.040$), English learning experience ($f^2 = 0.047$), fear of failure ($f^2 = 0.079$), ideal L2 self ($f^2 = 0.032$), ought-to L2 self ($f^2 = 0.022$). It had no effect on feared L2 self and achievement. Writing and planning construct, on the other hand, had a small effect on English learning experience ($f^2 = 0.022$) and had no effect on the other constructs.

Q^2 Values

Based on the blindfolding procedure, calculating the Q^2 values is another way of the PLS path model's predictive accuracy (Hair et al., 2019). The values larger than zero are accepted as predictive relevance and "0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, respectively, indicate that an exogenous construct has a small, medium, or large predictive relevance for a certain endogenous construct" (Hair et al., 2017, p. 209). When the construct cross-validated redundancy table was examined, it was found out that mediating understanding and writing planning constructs had higher predictive relevance for communication apprehension ($Q^2 = 0.025$), fear of failure ($Q^2 = 0.041$), English learning experience ($Q^2 = 0.071$), and ideal L2 self ($Q^2 = 0.052$). However,

they had no predictive relevance for ought-to L2 self, feared L2 self, and achievement (see Appendix I).

PLSpredict Results

Interpreting the results of the R^2 statistic is a frequently-used means of measuring the predictive power of models. However, while the R^2 statistic indicates the in-sample explanatory power of the model, it does not make reference to the out-of-sample predictive power of the model (Hair et al., 2019). While in-sample refers to the data collected by the researcher, out-of-sample is the data that the researcher does not possess but wants to estimate. In order to forecast out-of-sample data, the PLSpredict algorithm was developed by Shmueli, Ray, Velasquez Estrada, and Chatla (2016). The algorithm that "executes *k*-fold cross-validation" estimates "the model on an analysis sample" for out-of-sample prediction (Hair et al., 2019, p. 12). The PLSpredict results are assessed with evaluating Q^2_{predict} values which "is similar to assessing the blindfolding-based Q^2 statistic in PLS-SEM" (Shmueli, Sarstedt, Hair, Cheah, Ting, Vaithilingam, & Ringle, 2019, p. 2328). The Q^2_{predict} value of the algorithm compares the PLS model's prediction errors to simple mean predictions. The Q^2_{predict} values that are above zero indicate they have predictive power while the ones that are below zero show no predictive power, thus not included in the analysis (Hair et al., 2019). The next step is examining the PLS-SEM and the linear regression model (LM) values for each indicator focusing on either root mean square error (RMSE) or mean absolute error (MAE). "As the RMSE squares the errors before averaging, the statistic assigns a greater weight to larger errors, which makes it particularly useful when large errors are undesirable" (Hair et al., 2019, p. 13). For the analysis of PLSpredict results, Shmueli et al. (2019) suggest the guidelines represented in Figure 4.

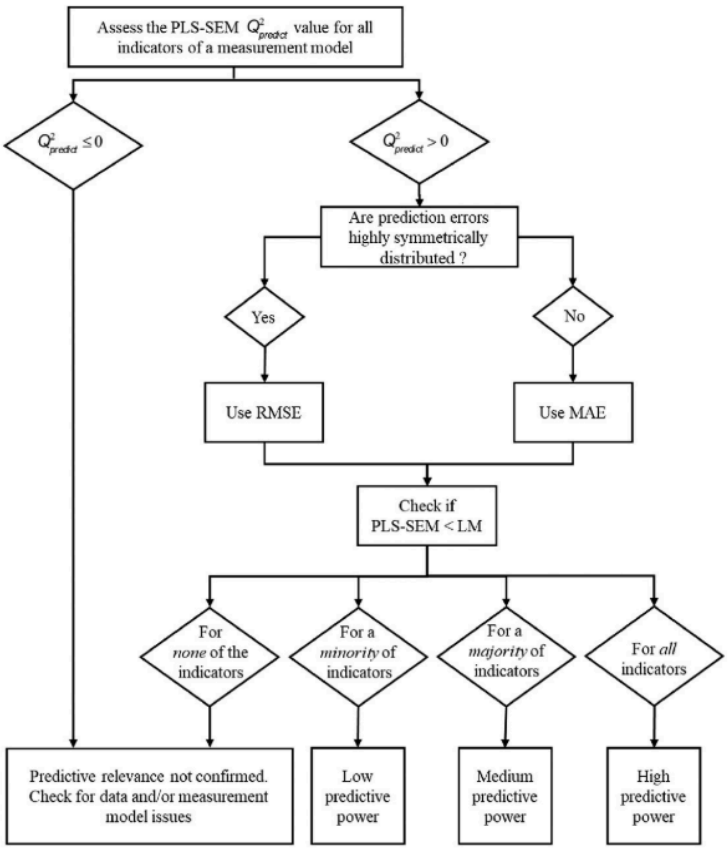

Figure 4. Guidelines for using PLSpredict. From "Predictive Model Assessment in PLS-SEM: Guidelines for Using PLSpredict," by G. Shmueli, M. Sarstedt, J. F. Hair, J-H. Cheah, H. Ting, S. Vaithilingam, and C. M. Ringle, 2019, *European Journal of Marketing*, *52*(11), p. 2329. Copyright by 2019 Emerald Publishing Limited. Reprinted with permission.

After the examination of PLSpredict results, it was concluded that 13 variables had either minus $Q^2_{predict}$ values or lower LM values than PLS values. On the other hand, 11 variables did not have negative values and their LM values were larger than their PLS values. The results revealed that almost the same number of manifest variables (MV) in the PLS-SEM analysis yields smaller prediction errors compared to the LM (see Appendix J). Therefore, it was concluded that the model had medium predictive power (Shmueli et al., 2019).

Summary of the Results

The PLS-SEM analysis of the current study was conducted through the analysis of the measurement model and the analysis of the structural model. With the aim of improving the model for the subsequent structural model analysis stage, some of the constructs were removed from the model. These were TR_2, TR_7, TR_3, TR_8, COM_5, FAIL_3, ELE_1, ELE_4, FEAR_3, and OUGHT_4. Figure 3 shows the structural model after removing low outer loaded items. Tables 9 and 10 represent the summary of the results of the PLS-SEM analysis and the results of the current study are discussed based on Tables 9 and 10, and Figure 3.

Table 9

Summary of the Structural Model Results (Mediating Understanding)

Construct	Paths	Path Coefficients	f^2	R^2
Mediating Understanding	Communication Apprehension	-.22*	.04	.04
	Fear of Failure	-.31*	.08	.08
	English Learning Experience	.23*	.05	.12
	Ideal L2 Self	.20*	.03	.09
	Ought-to L2 Self	.17*	.02	.02
	Feared L2 Self	.11	.01	.01
	Achievement	-.00	.00	.00

Note. * indicates $p < .05$ and underlined areas indicate non-significance.

Table 10

Summary of the Structural Model Results (Writing and Planning)

Construct	Paths	Path Coefficients	f^2	R^2
Writing and Planning	Communication Apprehension	.15*	.02	.04
	Fear of Failure	.07	.00	.08
	English Learning Experience	.16*	.02	.12
	Ideal L2 Self	.15*	.02	.09
	Ought-to L2 Self	-.05	.02	.02
	Feared L2 Self	-.03	.00	.01
	Achievement	.01	.00	.00

Note. * indicates $p < .05$ and underlined areas indicate non-significance.

Analysis of the Results in the Context of Research Questions

The following section includes the analysis of the findings in reference to the research questions. The isolated areas of the overall model corresponding to each research question are shown below (see Figure 5, 6, and 7). The questions are discussed in accordance with the structural model parameters such as path coefficients, R^2, and f^2 values as well as Q^2 values.

As aforementioned, translanguaging practices were divided into two categories as a result of the exploratory factor analysis. These categories are *mediating understanding* and *writing planning*. Correspondingly, the analyses of the relationship between translanguaging practices and the other constructs of the study will be carried out in two stages. Therefore, the first stage of the analysis includes the relationship between the mediating understanding construct of translanguaging

practices and the other constructs of the study. The second stage of the analysis, on the other hand, indicates the relationship between the writing and planning construct of translanguaging practices and the other constructs of the study.

Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and foreign language classroom anxiety of emergent bilinguals?

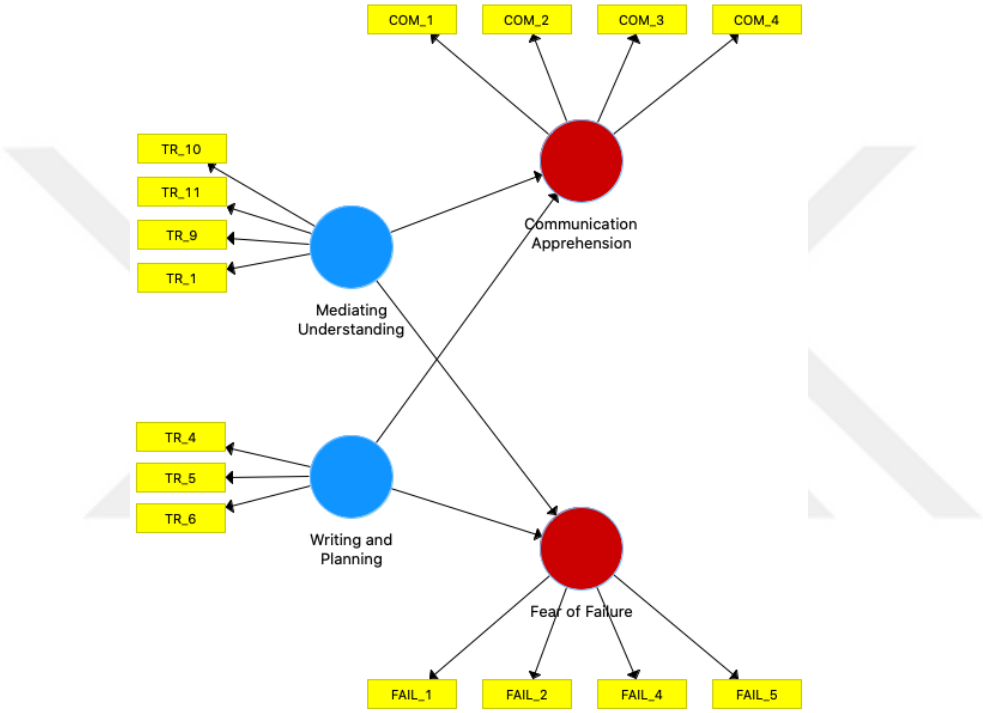

Figure 5. Isolated model of the relationship between translanguaging practices and foreign language classroom anxiety

The relationship between the mediating understanding construct of translanguaging practices and the communication apprehension construct of foreign language classroom anxiety of emergent bilinguals was statistically significant ($p <$ .05) with the path coefficient -.22. The removal effect (f^2) of mediating understanding on communication apprehension was .04 and R^2 value was also .04. This indicates that mediating understanding had a small effect on communication apprehension. The relationship between the mediating understanding construct of

translanguaging practices and the fear of failure construct of foreign language classroom anxiety of emergent bilinguals was also statistically significant ($p < .05$) with the path coefficient -.40. The removal effect (f^2) of mediating understanding on fear of failure was .08 and R^2 value was also .08. This indicates that mediating understanding had a small effect on fear of failure. However, its effect on fear of failure was larger than its effect on the communication apprehension construct of foreign language classroom anxiety.

The relationship between the writing and planning construct of translanguaging practices and the communication apprehension construct of foreign language classroom anxiety of emergent bilinguals was statistically significant ($p < .05$) with the path coefficient .15. The removal effect (f^2) of writing and planning on communication apprehension was .02 and R^2 value was .04. This indicates that writing and planning had a small effect on communication apprehension.

The relationship between the writing and planning construct of translanguaging practices and the fear of failure construct of foreign language classroom anxiety of emergent bilinguals was statistically insignificant ($p > .05$) with the path coefficient .07. The removal effect (f^2) of writing and planning on fear of failure was .00 and R^2 value was .08. This indicates that writing and planning had no effect on fear of failure.

Q^2 values of the constructs were also analyzed in order to establish the models' predictive relevance for each construct. As for the Q^2 values, it was found out that translanguaging practices had higher predictive relevance for fear of failure ($Q^2 = 0.041$) than for communication apprehension ($Q^2 = 0.025$).

To sum up, the relationship between translanguaging practices and FLCA was found to be statistically significant. The results indicated that translanguaging

practices had stronger effects on communication apprehension than on fear of failure. As for the predictive relevance, however, the model had a stronger relevance for fear of failure.

Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and reconceptualized L2MSS of emergent bilinguals?

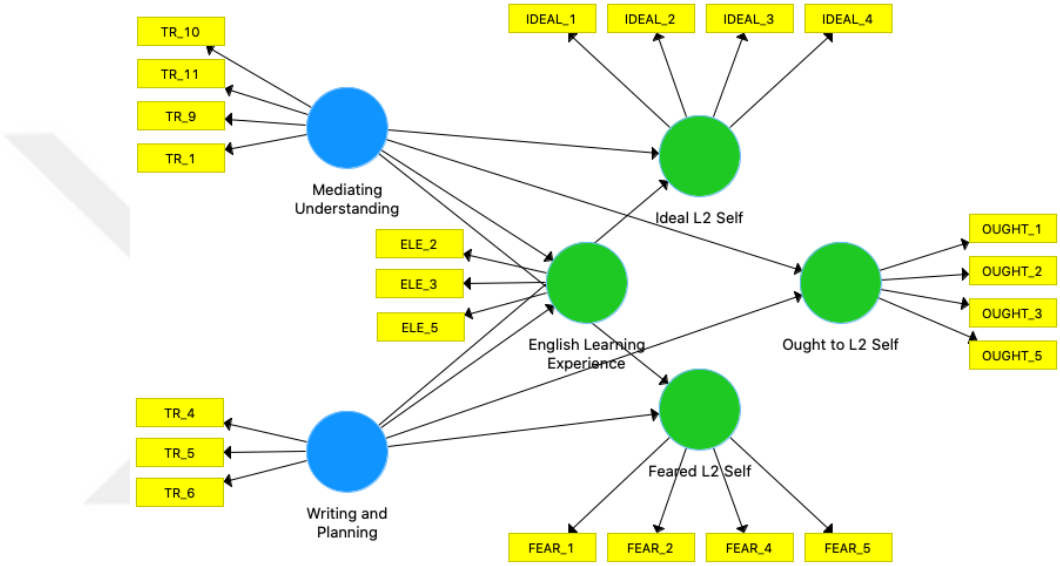

Figure 6. Isolated model of the relationship between translanguaging practices and reconceptualized L2MSS

The relationship between the mediating understanding construct of translanguaging practices and the English learning experience construct of the reconceptualized L2MSS of emergent bilinguals was statistically significant ($p < .05$) with the path coefficient .23. The removal effect (f^2) of mediating understanding on English learning experience was .05 and R^2 value was .12. This indicates that mediating understanding had an effect that was close to the medium effect on English learning experience. With these values, English learning experience emerged as the strongest component of R-L2MSS with regard to translanguaging practices.

The relationship between the mediating understanding construct of translanguaging practices and the ideal L2 self construct of the reconceptualized L2MSS of emergent bilinguals was statistically significant ($p < .05$) with the path coefficient .20. The removal effect (f^2) of mediating understanding on ideal L2 self was .03 and R^2 value was .09. This indicates that mediating understanding had a small effect on ideal L2 self.

The relationship between the mediating understanding construct of translanguaging practices and the ought-to L2 self construct of the reconceptualized L2MSS of emergent bilinguals was statistically significant ($p < .05$) with the path coefficient .17. The removal effect (f^2) of mediating understanding on ought-to L2 self was .02 and R^2 value was .02. This indicates that mediating understanding had a small effect on ought-to L2.

The relationship between the mediating understanding construct of translanguaging practices and the feared L2 self construct of the reconceptualized L2MSS of emergent bilinguals was statistically insignificant ($p > .05$) with the path coefficient .11. The removal effect (f^2) of mediating understanding on feared L2 self was .01 and R^2 value was .01. This indicates that mediating understanding had no effect on feared L2 self of the participants.

The relationship between the writing and planning construct of translanguaging practices and the English learning experience construct of the reconceptualized L2MSS of emergent bilinguals was statistically significant ($p < .05$) with the path coefficient .16. The removal effect (f^2) of mediating understanding on English learning experience was .02 and R^2 value was .12. This indicates that mediating understanding had an effect that was close to medium effect on English learning experience.

The relationship between the writing and planning construct of translanguaging practices and the ideal L2 self construct of the reconceptualized L2MSS of emergent bilinguals was statistically significant ($p < .05$) with the path coefficient .15. The removal effect (f^2) of mediating understanding on ideal L2 self was .02 and R^2 value was .09. This indicates that mediating understanding had a small effect on ideal L2 self.

The relationship between the writing and planning construct of translanguaging practices and the ought-to L2 self construct of the reconceptualized L2MSS of emergent bilinguals was not statistically significant ($p > .05$). Their path coefficient was -.05. The removal effect (f^2) of mediating understanding on ought-to L2 self was .00 and the R^2 value was .02. This indicates that mediating understanding had no effect on ought-to L2.

The relationship between the writing and planning construct of translanguaging practices and the feared L2 self construct of the reconceptualized L2MSS of emergent bilinguals was not statistically significant ($p > .05$) with the path coefficient -.03. The removal effect (f^2) of mediating understanding on feared L2 self was .00 and R^2 value was .01. This indicates that mediating understanding had no effect on feared L2 self.

The analysis of the Q^2 values also indicated that the strongest predictive relevance of translanguaging practices was for English learning experience ($Q^2 = 0.071$) and ideal L2 self ($Q^2 = 0.052$) of R-L2MSS. On the other hand, predictive relevance for feared L2 self ($Q^2 = -0.000$) and ought-to L2 self ($Q^2 = 0.008$) was weak.

Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and English language achievement scores of emergent bilinguals?

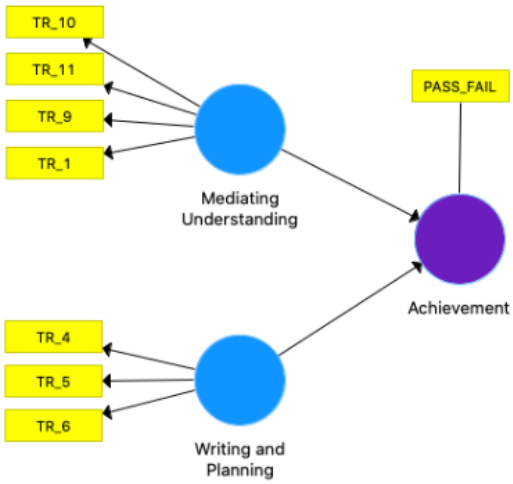

Figure 7. Isolated model of the relationship between translanguaging practices and English language achievement scores

As for the relationship between translanguaging practices and English language achievement scores of emergent bilinguals, the results indicated a statistically insignificant relationship ($p > .05$). The path coefficient between mediating understanding and English language achievement was -.00. The same value was a little higher (.01) yet still insignificant ($p > .05$) for writing and planning construct, too. Removal effects (.00) and R^2 values (.00) also revealed that translanguaging practices had no effect on English language achievement scores of emergent bilinguals. In brief, there was statistically no significant relationship between translanguaging practices and English language achievement scores of the emergent bilinguals participated in the study.

The analysis of Q^2 values for English language achievement scores revealed that the model had almost no predictive relevance for the achievement scores of the

participants (Q^2 = -0.009). In this respect, the predictive relevance and statistical significance for the English language achievement scores were in a similar trend.

Conclusion

This chapter was comprised of empirical data analysis and the presentation of the PLS-SEM results. For the PLS-SEM analysis SmartPLS (v. 3.2.9) was used and for the descriptive statistics and factor analysis SPSS (v. 25) was utilized. The PLS-SEM analysis included the structural model parameters such as path coefficients, R^2, and f^2 values as well as Q^2 values. The following chapter presents the discussion and interpretation of the results obtained in the current chapter with a focus on the significance of the study.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between translanguaging practices carried out by emergent bilinguals with their FLCA, R-L2MSS, and English language achievement scores. In this respect, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and FLCA of emergent bilinguals?
2. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and the R-L2MSS of emergent bilinguals?
3. Is there any statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and English language achievement scores of emergent bilinguals?

In the current study, the relationship between translanguaging practices of 386 emergent bilinguals, their FLCA, R-L2MSS, and English language achievement scores was explored with respect to the research questions above. The quantitative data were gathered through an online survey consisting of 11 sections and 44 items (see Appendix A and B). The first section includes items pertinent to translanguaging practices employed by emergent bilinguals. The collected data were analyzed via statistical software such as SPSS and SmartPLS. SPSS was used for the descriptive analysis of the data. SmartPLS, on the other hand, was utilized for structural equation modeling.

This chapter consists of four main chapters (1) discussion of the findings of the study in light of the relevant literature, (2) pedagogical implications of the study, (3) limitations of the study, and (4) suggestions for further research.

Discussion of the Major Findings

In this section, the findings of the study will be presented and discussed in relation to three research questions. The discussion of the findings will be presented in the same order as the findings of the study were presented in Chapter 4.

Discussion of the Findings Pertinent to the Relationship between Translanguaging Practices and FLCA of Emergent Bilinguals

The results of the study revealed that emergent bilinguals embraced translanguaging practices while they were learning English. These practices were classified as writing and planning and mediating understanding in the current study. Both constructs of the translanguaging practices had relatively high means. In this regard, it can be concluded that most of the participants had a positive attitude toward the use of translanguaging practices. That is, they translanguaged to plan and organize their writing tasks as well as to mediate their understanding. As claimed by García (2009a), translanguaging is a norm in bilingual settings and these results were also in line with this claim. Since the language classroom is a bilingual context, it was not unexpected for the learners to engage in multiple discursive practices.

Upon the comparison of the two constructs, it was found out that emergent bilinguals resorted to translanguaging more for the acquisition of knowledge than for writing and planning purposes. That is, they tended to translanguage to construct knowledge within their bilingual ZPD. The reason for this could be the relative difficulty of translanguaging in literacy than in oral production (Canagarajah, 2011a). Due to its nature, writing is much more structured than speaking and it is a part of

formal education in schools. Hence, in most settings, learners may not be allowed to translanguage while writing.

When evaluated from the perception lens, these results were also consistent with the results of previous studies that revealed learners' positive tendency toward translanguaging (e.g., Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015; Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018; Mazak & Harbas-Donoso, 2015; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Wang, 2019). In the current study, although the perceptions of the participants toward translanguaging were not investigated explicitly, their high level of adoption of translanguaging practices may be interpreted as positive appreciation of them. Additionally, the results were also in line with the other studies that focused on translanguaging practices in foreign language classroom (see Aoyama, 2020; Duarte, 2019; Portolés & Martí, 2017). Similar to the results of these studies, the results of the current study indicated that the participants of the current study engaged in collaborative talk to construct knowledge through translanguaging. In addition to this, the participants also resorted to translanguaging practices to be able plan and execute their written tasks.

When the components of FLCA were analyzed, it was understood that the participants had relatively high levels of anxiety. This was not an unexpected result for a foreign language class and was consistent with the previous research on FLCA (see Horwitz et al., 1986; Sokolov & Šuplatová, 2018; Şener, 2015; Thompson & Khawaja, 2016; Williams & Andrade, 2008). One noteworthy result of the study was that the emergent bilinguals suffered from foreign language anxiety that was aroused by their fear of failure more than by the communicative situations. There could be several reasons for these results. First, as they were learning English in a school environment, they might have been preoccupied with receiving sufficient scores to

pass their classes. Since a possible failure to complete their current level successfully would lead to the repetition of the same level, their fear of failure could have been manifested in their responses. Second, the number of exams that the participants had to take during the academic year was also relatively high. Thus, the participants could have also felt anxious to take a high number of exams to be successful.

Although lower than their fear of failure rates, the communication apprehension scores of the participants were also significantly high. That is, they indicated that they experienced difficulty in communicative acts. This could have been related to their nature that inhibits them from engaging in discussions in general. This kind of general communication apprehension can also be observed in communicative situations in a foreign language classroom, in which the participants have little control of (Horwitz et al., 1986). In such contexts, individuals may think that their communicative performance is monitored at all times; therefore, they might refrain from speaking.

Analysis of the relationship between translanguaging practices and FLCA also yielded statistically significant results. For instance, the relationship mediating understanding construct of the translanguaging practices and communication apprehension was in negative correlation and the relationship was statistically significant. This finding aligns with the findings of previous studies that revealed using a shared L1 or learners' native languages in the L2 classroom was an effective strategy to reduce anxiety levels (Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Collins, 2001; Liao, 2006). The findings of the current study also suggest that when the emergent bilinguals employed translanguaging practices, their level of communication apprehension decreased significantly. One possible interpretation of this finding is that mediating understanding helped the participants feel less anxious in communicative acts. When

the participants knew that they had the opportunity to use their native language for clarification purposes, they might have gotten more willing to communicate.

The relationship between mediating understanding and fear of failure was also statistically significant and these constructs were understood to have correlated negatively. In particular, the level of fear of failure seemed to be have been declining, when the emergent bilinguals opted for translanguaging practices. When both of the constructs of FLCA were compared, it was found out that mediating understanding had a stronger effect on fear of failure than on communication apprehension.

The results for the relationship between writing and planning and the components of FLCA were also statistically significant. However, contrary to expectations, they did not correlate negatively. That is, both writing and planning and the components of FLCA inclined to be in the same trend. Even though the participants indicated they translanguaged to plan their written production, their translanguaging did not help them lower their anxiety level significantly. This could have been related to the productive nature of writing skill. Writing, which is a combination of emotional and cognitive activity, is a skill that requires learners to think and feel at the same time (Cheng, 2002). This complex process itself could have been anxiety provoking among the participants. Therefore, the fact that the participants translanguaged while writing may not have been effective to decrease their anxiety level. In addition to this, as generally "translanguaging is heavily censored in literate contexts", the participants may not have been inclined to employ translanguaging practices for written tasks (Canagarajah, 2011a, p. 402). Nevertheless, in general terms, it can be concluded from these results that the mediating understanding construct of translanguaging practices was more significant

to decrease the level of anxiety of the emergent bilinguals than writing and planning aspect of translanguaging.

In conclusion, the results indicated that the employment of translanguaging practices had a statistically significant effect on the FLCA of the emergent bilinguals. It can be assumed that the translanguaging practices provided scaffolding for the emergent bilinguals to make meaning and engage in collaborative dialogues (Cook, 2001). While engaging in collaborative dialogues, the participants might have negotiated meaning by translanguaging so as to compensate for absence of their linguistic knowledge (Macaro, 2005). Therefore, these collaborative dialogues constructed through the translanguaging practices might have helped the emergent bilinguals to experience less ambiguity while learning a foreign language. In other words, the translanguaging practices might have allowed the emergent bilinguals to resist the cognitive interference of anxiety in the language learning process (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994).

The results were also consistent with the previous studies that focused on the use of native languages of the learners (see Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Macaro, 2001, 2005; Scott & de La Fuente, 2008). Although these studies were not particularly about the concept of translanguaging, since translanguaging embraces the native languages of individuals, the results can still be comparable. However, these results should also be approached and interpreted cautiously because anxiety is a multifaceted issue and several factors can lie behind it. Learners' preconceived beliefs about language learning, their general level of anxiety, and anxiety provoking language learning tasks may trigger learners' foreign language anxiety levels (Dörnyei, 2005; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Scovel, 1978).

Considering these, it would not be possible to expect translanguaging practices to be the sole factor to decrease the FLCA of emergent bilinguals.

Discussion of the Findings Pertinent to the Relationship between Translanguaging Practices and Reconceptualized L2MSS of Emergent Bilinguals

The most remarkable finding of the analysis of the relationship between translanguaging practices and reconceptualized L2MSS of emergent bilinguals was the statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and English learning experience component. As mentioned before, English learning experience comprises of a wide variety of motives pertinent to learner's proximal setting. These motives can be classified as the effect of the way of instruction on learners, curriculum-related issues, and learners' influences on one another's experience of learning the language (Dörnyei, 2005). In his recent article, Dörnyei (2019), having stressed the brevity and undertheorized situation of the component, proposed a new definition that draws on the notion of student engagement. He narrowed down the broad concept of experience and redefined the component as "the perceived quality of the learner's engagement with various aspects of the learning process" (Dörnyei, 2019, p. 20). In terms of instruction styles, interaction patterns used in foreign language classes can be one of these aspects of learners' experiences. To illustrate, as Young (1991) points out, foreign language learners prefer to engage in small group discussions in which they can interact in a collaborative way. Again, in these discussions, they may find the opportunity to do translanguaging to make meaning.

When the results of the study are discussed within the above definition of English learning experience component, it can be postulated that there is a positive

and statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and learners' active participation and involvement in English language-related tasks. When both of the translanguaging practices compared, it is obvious that the mediating understanding construct had a stronger effect on English learning experience than writing and planning. Nevertheless, it must be stated that both of the components yielded positive results that reveal a statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and English learning experience. In this respect, this study can contribute to the further theorization of English learning experience construct by suggesting the components that might better represent the experience and raise awareness of the importance and strength of the neglected component of the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009, 2019).

As the second component of the reconceptualized L2MSS, ideal L2 self was analyzed and the results revealed that it emerged as the strongest component of the system. These results are also in accordance with the previous studies whose focus was L2MSS in various contexts (Islam et al., 2013; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009). Ideal L2 self is made up of "traditional integrative and internalized instrumental motives" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). In other words, it refers to one's personal ambitions and aspirations about L2. As predicted, out of the four components, ideal L2 self had the highest mean score, which indicated that it was a very strong motivator for the emergent bilinguals (Islam et al., 2013). The relationship between ideal L2 self and translanguaging practices was also statistically significant. When analyzed individually, it was found out that mediating understanding had a stronger effect on ideal L2 self compared to writing and planning construct. These results indicate that resorting to translanguaging practices as a scaffolding for meaning-making can predict higher ideal L2 self.

The relationship between ought-to L2 self and translanguaging practices yielded both statistically significant and insignificant results for this study. Similar to the relationship between mediating understanding and ideal L2 self, the relationship between mediating understanding and ought-to L2 self was statistically significant, too. However, the relationship between writing and planning and ought-to L2 self was not significant. These results indicate that mediating understanding, in particular, and core components of L2MSS positively correlated. There were instances that writing and planning also positively correlated yet it was not the case for all the components.

Lastly, the analysis of the relationship between translanguaging practices and the new component of L2MSS (feared L2 self) indicated that none of the components of translanguaging practices significantly correlated with feared L2 self. Additionally, feared L2 self had the lowest mean score among the components of reconceptualized L2MSS. The current study was the first study that investigated the reconceptualized L2MSS after Peker, who conducted her quantitative study in the United States (2016). As the context of the current study substantially differed from the previous one, the results were also different. For example, contrary to the previous study, the participants had a lower mean score of feared L2 self. This might have stemmed from the fact that the participants live in a different context where they had rarely been bullied or mocked because of their level of English.

To sum up, the relationship between the translanguaging practices and R-L2MSS was statistically significant. Although no other studies were conducted specifically focusing on these constructs, it may be inferred that translanguaging might increase learner motivation and confidence (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Wei, 2014; Lin, 1999). The results of the current study, similarly,

demonstrate a modest but statistically significant impact of translanguaging practices on motivation.

Discussion of the Findings Pertinent to the Relationship between Translanguaging Practices and English Language Achievement Scores of Emergent Bilinguals

As predicted before, the relationship between translanguaging practices and English language achievement scores of emergent bilinguals was not statistically significant. The reason for this could be related to the numerous other factors that affect the achievement scores of the participants. First, the number of tests that must be taken by the participants might have had an impact on their success. That is, their test anxiety could have interfered with their achievement. The current study explored only two aspects of the FLCA. Second, the socioeconomic background of the participants could have played a significant role in their academic achievement. The city they grew up before they got admitted to the university, their family's economic status, and their parents' academic background could have influenced their performance. Lastly, their admission scores to university should also be investigated with regard to their performance in the English language.

These results could also be interpreted as focusing on the dynamic and formative assessment aspects of translanguaging. Assessment of emergent bilinguals should also conform to their bilingual nature rather than ignoring their native languages (Grosjean, 1989). Translanguaging, inarguably, challenges the traditional testing assumptions that merely document student performance and it recommends dynamic assessment of individuals (García & Wei, 2014). Based on Vygotskian (1978) view of social interaction, the dynamic assessment does not focus on the

summative performance of individuals. Nevertheless, most institutions, including the one mentioned in the current study, tend to evaluate their students summatively.

Summary of the Major Findings

Findings of the present study revealed that there is a statistically significant relationship between translanguaging practices and affective factors involved in the language learning process. In particular, the relationship between translanguaging practices, FLCA, and English learning experience of emergent bilinguals stands out as a noteworthy finding of the study. It can be concluded that when learners engage in translanguaging practices, their anxiety levels decrease and their motivation increases. Nevertheless, it must not be forgotten that learners' anxiety and motivation are multifaceted notions that could be affected by a large number of variables (Dörnyei, 2005; Scovel, 1978). Characteristics, socioeconomic status, teaching styles, assessment types, curriculum designs, and personal relationships could be some of these factors. Therefore, solely translanguaging practices should not be expected to account for the affective variables totally.

Pedagogical Implications of the Study

The findings of the present study may have significant pedagogical implications that can transform the nature of foreign language teaching. As the findings suggested, the relationship between translanguaging practices and affective factors involved in the foreign language learning process was statistically significant. In this respect, reconceptualizing foreign language teaching in consideration with the implications of adopting a translanguaging lens can "liberate bilingualism, multilingualism, and plurilingualism from the societal constraints in which it has been held by monolingual and monoglossic ideologies" (García & Wei, 2014, p.138). Nevertheless, a reconceptualization of foreign language teaching, in general, would

require a great deal of effort and changes in educational policies yet teachers can still employ their transformative power at the classroom level paying attention to several pedagogical implications about translanguaging.

Teachers can be more attentive to meaning-making by encouraging learners to translanguage when they sense it is appropriate. This can be achieved through the systematic use of the native language of the learners. Rather than letting learners rely on their native languages in class without any interference by the teacher, learners should be instructed when and how to resort to their L1 and/or other languages they know throughout their language learning process. To this end, tasks that can facilitate peer interaction and collaborative dialogue should be exploited and learners ought to be encouraged to make use of their full linguistic repertoires while doing these tasks. In particular, learners could be assigned to complete projects that require them to refer to their native languages. Such projects will encourage learners to "translanguage as they find new information" (García & Wei, 2014, p. 122).

Another strategy could be creating language-inquiry tasks that allow learners to make cross-linguistic comparisons and raise their metalinguistic awareness (García & Wei, 2014). These tasks should enable learners to identify cognates, find similarities and differences between their native languages and English, and translate definitions of lexical items from and into their native languages. For example, learners could be encouraged to keep a vocabulary journal in which they write down their native language equivalents of certain fixed expressions, phrasal verbs, collocations, and sentence frames.

Additionally, teachers can create a multilingual ecology in which "all students' language practices are present and visible" (García et al., 2017, p. 63). To establish such an environment, classes must be designed in a way that they allow all

learners to tap into their full linguistic repertoires by making use of peripheral learning materials (i.e., posters and signs) and having bilingual dictionaries and/or books on bookshelves, etc. In this way, the linguistic space of a classroom can be shaped in accordance with the linguistic needs of learners.

English teachers can also benefit from multimedia resources to create a translanguaging space in which learners can use both English and their native languages. Videos with subtitles in English and learners' native languages can easily be adapted as educational activities. Alternatively, teachers can have their learners watch a video or listen to a podcast in their native language and answer several comprehension questions in English following them. This process could also be carried out first using English for comprehension and native languages of learners for answering.

In addition to the abovementioned strategies, English teachers should also be able to differentiate between the activities that are considered translanguaging and not translanguaging. To illustrate, although translanguaging embraces translation, it should not be assumed that every single word or sentence is to be translated from and into English by the teacher. Instead, learners should be scaffolded through their bilingual zone of proximal development with the help of their native languages.

Limitations of the Study

The findings of this study should be approached and interpreted cautiously due to several limitations that constrain its generalizability. First, learner motivation and anxiety could be affected by various factors impossible to mention in one study. Translanguaging practices, in this respect, referred to only one factor out of many. Therefore, it must not be forgotten that there are several other factors involved in the language learning process.

Second, the survey items in the translanguaging scale should be tested and validated in different contexts. Although the scale was reliable and valid according to the calculations in SmartPLS and SPSS, as the items were developed by the researcher, its further assessment is necessary. Depending on the different contexts, the items could be reorganized with the removal of existing items or the addition of new ones.

Other limitations were about the sample size and the participant characteristics of the study. Although the accessible population of the study (N = 386) was within the acceptable minimum sample size for applying PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2017), data obtained from a larger sample could have given a more accurate estimate of the model. Subject characteristics as a threat to internal validity might have affected the generalizability of the study, too (Fraenkel et al., 2012). The current study was carried out at a foundation university in Ankara. Conducting the study at state university could have yielded different results, as the participants might have been from different social backgrounds.

Another limitation of the current study is the lack of qualitative data collection methods. Due to its nature, the quantitative data of the current study were collected through a survey. However, along with quantitative data, qualitative data can be a more proper way to elaborate discursive practices of human participants. Therefore, expanding the data with the means of qualitative data collection methods could have yielded more explicit examples of learners' translanguaging practices.

Last, collecting data about linguistic practices and affective variables through surveys was another limitation of the study. For the items of FLCA and R-L2MSS scales, the respondents were asked to express the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements. On the other hand, for the translanguaging practices,

the respondents ranked their answers from always to never. Although surveys are practical in terms of population and time, that is they can be distributed to a high number of participants in a limited time, they may not always "probe deeply into respondents' beliefs, attitude and inner experience" (Gall et al., 2007, p. 222). In the same vein, for the current study, some of the items may have been insufficient to elicit participants' genuine experiences.

Suggestions for Further Research

Certain suggestions for further research could be considered based on the findings and limitations of the current study. First, an experimental study could be carried out to investigate the causal relationships between the same variables. A properly applied experimental research could "enable researchers to go beyond description and prediction" (Fraenkel et al., 2012, p. 266) as well as providing them with a more "rigorous test of causal hypothesis" (Gall et al., 2007, p. 366).

The second suggestion could be obtaining data from a greater number of participants in a different context with different data collection tools. To illustrate, further research could be conducted through tape-recording or video-recording participants while they translanguage in an educational context. This would allow researchers to access more precise data of interactions and can reveal how translanguaging occurs in practice.

The current study focused on only two aspects of FLCA: communication apprehension and fear of failure. However, the test anxiety of the learners was not included in the study. Therefore, further research could involve investigating test anxiety as another dimension of FLCA.

Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between translanguaging practices carried out by emergent bilinguals with their FLCA, R-L2MSS, and English language achievement scores. The findings indicated that translanguaging practices were highly adopted by the emergent bilinguals as a classroom strategy. The participants' responses also revealed that although their anxiety levels were significantly high, they were motivated to learn English. In particular, the relationship between translanguaging practices, FLCA, R-L2MSS of the emergent bilinguals was statistically significant. However, the relationship between translanguaging practices and English language achievement scores was not statistically significant.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

English Version of the Survey

Informed Consent

Dear Participant,

My name is Onur Özkaynak. I am an MA TEFL student at Bilkent University. Currently, I am in the process of collecting data for my thesis research. The main purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data about your translanguaging practices, foreign language learning anxiety, and L2 motivational self system.

Your careful completion of the questionnaire will contribute to obtaining real data, which is crucial for more accurate findings. Please be informed that you can discontinue your participation at any time.

The researcher guarantees that all the responses and the information you provide will be strictly confidential and will not be shared with others in ways that your individual responses could be identified. Additionally, in all presented and published data resulting from this research, no personal information about you will be shared.

Thank you for your participation.

Onur Özkaynak

onur.ozkaynak@bilkent.edu.tr

Please read the statements below and click on only one option for each statement. **The expression "all the languages I know and I am currently learning" refers to your native language, or any other language you know and English.**	**Always.**	**Most of the time.**	**About half the time.**	**Sometimes.**	**Never.**
1.When I summarize the topic of the lesson to my classmates, I use all the languages I know and I am currently learning.					
2. When I watch videos that explain some grammar topics of the English language, I prefer all the languages I know and I am currently learning.					
3. When I take notes in English classes, I use all the languages I know and I am currently learning.					
4. To brainstorm and plan (making an outline) my writing task in English classes, I use all the languages I know and I am currently learning.					
5. I keep a vocabulary journal in which I write the equivalents of English words and phrases in all the languages I know and I am currently learning.					
7. For English classes, when I research a speaking or writing topic on the Internet, I use all the languages I know and I am currently learning.					
7. I compare and contrast the grammar of all the languages I know and I am currently learning to identify similarities and differences between them.					
8. To brainstorm and plan (making an outline) my speaking task in English classes, I use all the languages I know and I am currently learning.					
9. I use all the languages I know and I am currently learning while working on a task with my classmates.					
10. To find out about a topic, I read texts in all the languages I know and I am currently learning.					
11. To find out about a topic, I listen to audio recordings in all the languages I know and I am currently learning.					

Please read the statements and click on only one option for each statement.	**Strongly agree.**	**Somewhat agree.**	**Neither agree nor disagree.**	**Somewhat disagree.**	**Strongly disagree.**
12. I worry about making mistakes in my English language class.					
13. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English language class.					
14. It embarrasses me to volunteer to answer questions in my English class.					
15. I get nervous and confused when I'm speaking in my English language class.					
16. I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak English.					
Please read the statements and click on only one option for each statement.	**Strongly agree.**	**Somewhat agree.**	**Neither agree nor disagree.**	**Somewhat disagree.**	**Strongly disagree.**
17. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.					
18. I worry about the consequences of failing my English language class.					
19. I get nervous when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting in my English language class.					
20. English language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.					
21. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.					
Please read the statements and click on only one option for each statement.	**Strongly agree.**	**Somewhat agree.**	**Neither agree nor disagree.**	**Somewhat disagree.**	**Strongly disagree.**
22. I find learning English really interesting.					
23. I think time passes faster while practicing (speaking and/or writing) English.					
24. I always look forward to English classes or any time that I can practice English.					
25. I would like to have more English lessons.					
26. I really enjoy learning and practicing (writing and/or speaking) English.					

Please read the statements and click on only one option for each statement.	**Strongly agree.**	**Somewhat agree.**	**Neither agree nor disagree.**	**Somewhat disagree.**	**Strongly disagree.**
27. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.					
28. I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends or colleagues.					
29. I can imagine myself using English effectively for communicating with native speakers.					
30. I can imagine myself writing emails/letters fluently in English.					
Please read the statements and click on only one option for each statement.	**Strongly agree.**	**Somewhat agree.**	**Neither agree nor disagree.**	**Somewhat disagree.**	**Strongly disagree.**
31. Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.					
32. Learning English is important because the people I respect think that I should do it.					
33. If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people (e.g. my family members) down.					
34. Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.					
35. Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I know English.					
Please read the statements and click on only one option for each statement.	**Strongly agree.**	**Somewhat agree.**	**Neither agree nor disagree.**	**Somewhat disagree.**	**Strongly disagree.**
36. I am afraid of being humiliated/teased in the future due to my limited use of English.					
37. I am afraid of not using English accurately because somebody teased me about my English before.					
38. I have to improve my English because I do not want to be criticized or harassed by others about my English level in the future.					

39. I worry that people might pick on me if I can't speak English properly.					
40. I am afraid of writing or speaking in English because I fear that I will be corrected in a teasing/humiliating way.					

41. Please type your student ID number. _____

42. What is your native language? *Turkish. Kurdish. Arabic. Persian. Other.*

43. How long have you been learning English? *Less than 1 year. 1-3. 3-5. 5-7. 7-9. 9 +.*

44. I am a *Female. Male.*

45. How old are you? *18-24. 25-34. 35-45.*

Appendix B

Turkish Version of the Survey

Bilgilendirilmiş Onam

Sayın Katılımcı,

Adım Onur Özkaynak. Bilkent Üniversitesi, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi Yüksek Lisans Programı kapsamında hazırladığım tez çalışmam için veri toplama sürecinde bulunuyorum.

Bu amaçla hazırlanan bu anketin temel amacı, sizlerin diller arası geçişlilik uygulamalarınız, yabancı dil öğrenme motivasyonunuz, yabancı dil öğrenme kaygınız ve başarı notunuz hakkında bilgi toplamaktır.

Ankete verdiğiniz yanıtlar, öğrenci kimlik numaranız, adınız ve soyadınız ve başarı notlarınız kesinlikle kimseyle paylaşılmayacak ve yalnızca araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Ankete katılımınızı istediğiniz zaman durdurabilirsiniz.

Katılımınız için çok teşekkür ederim.

Onur Özkaynak

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Aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuduktan sonra sizin için uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz lütfen. "Bildiğim ve öğrenmekte olduğum bütün diller" ifadesiyle, ana diliniz, veya bildiğiniz herhangi bir dil ve öğrenmekte olduğunuz İngilizce kastedilmektedir.	**Kesinlikle katılıyorum.**	**Kısmen katılıyorum.**	**Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum.**	**Kısmen katılmıyorum.**	**Kesinlikle katılmıyorum.**
1. Arkadaşlarıma dersin konusunu anlattığımda bildiğim ve öğrenmekte olduğum bütün dilleri kullanırım.					
2. İngilizce bazı dil bilgisi konularını anlatan videoları izlediğimde bildiğim ve öğrenmekte olduğum bütün dilleri tercih ederim.					
3. İngilizce derslerinde not alırken bildiğim ve öğrenmekte olduğum bütün dilleri kullanırım.					
4. İngilizce yazma derslerinde yazacağım şeyi düşünmek ve yazımı planlamak için bildiğim ve öğrenmekte olduğum bütün dilleri kullanırım.					
5. Kelimelerin ya da kalıpların bildiğim ve öğrenmekte olduğum bütün dillerdeki karşılıklarını yazdığım bir kelime defteri tutarım.					
6. İngilizce dersi için, bir konuşma ya da yazma konusunu İnternette araştırırken, bildiğim ve öğrenmekte olduğum bütün dilleri kullanırım.					
7. Bildiğim ve öğrenmekte olduğum bütün dillerin dilbilgisi kurallarını kıyaslarım ve aralarındaki benzerlikleri ve farklılıkları bulurum.					
8. Konuşma aktivitelerinde konuşacağım şeyi düşünmek ve planlamak (taslağını çıkarmak) için bildiğim bütün dilleri kullanırım.					
9. Sınıf arkadaşlarımla bir konu üzerinde beraber çalışırken bildiğim ve öğrenmekte olduğum bütün dilleri kullanırım.					
10. Herhangi bir konu hakkında bilgi sahibi olmak için bildiğim ve öğrenmekte olduğum bütün dillerdeki metinleri okurum.					

11.Herhangi bir konu hakkında bilgi sahibi olmak için bildiğim ve öğrenmekte olduğum bütün dillerdeki sesli kaynakları dinlerim.					
İfadeleri okuduktan sonra sizin için uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz lütfen.	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılıyorum.**	**Ne Katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılmıyorum.**	**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum.**
12. İngilizce dersinde hata yapmaktan endişeleniyorum.					
13.İngilizce dersinde konuşurken asla kendimden emin olamıyorum.					
14.İngilizce dersindeki sorulara gönüllü olarak cevap vermeye çekiniyorum.					
15.İngilizce dersinde konuşurken endişeleniyorum ve kafam karışıyor.					
16.İngilizce konuştuğumda diğer öğrencilerin bana gülmesinden çekiniyorum.					
İfadeleri okuduktan sonra sizin için uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz lütfen.	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılıyorum.**	**Ne Katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılmıyorum.**	**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum.**
17.İngilizce dersinde öğretmenin söylediği şeyi anlamamak beni korkutuyor.					
18.İngilizce dersinde başarısız olmanın sonuçları beni endişelendiriyor.					
19.İngilizce dersinde öğretmenin hangi hatamı düzelttiğini anlamadığım zaman endişeleniyorum.					
20.İngilizce dersi o kadar hızlı ilerliyor ki geride kalmaktan endişeleniyorum.					
21.İngilizce konuşmak için öğrenmem gereken kuralların fazlalığı beni boğuyor.					
İfadeleri okuduktan sonra sizin için uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz lütfen.	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılıyorum.**	**Ne Katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılmıyorum.**	**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum.**
22.İngilizce öğrenmeyi oldukça ilgi çekici buluyorum.					
23.İngilizce pratik yaptığımda (konuşma, yazma gibi) zaman daha hızlı geçiyor.					

24. İngilizce derslerimi ya da İngilizce pratik yapabileceğim fırsatları iple çekiyorum.					
25.Daha fazla İngilizce dersim olmasını istiyorum.					
26.İngilizce öğrenmeyi ve pratik yapmayı (konuşma, yazma gibi) çok seviyorum.					
İfadeleri okuduktan sonra sizin için uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz lütfen.	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılıyorum.**	**Ne Katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılmıyorum.**	**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum.**
27.Gelecekteki iş hayatımı ne zaman düşünsem kendimi İngilizce konuşurken hayal ediyorum.					
28.Kendimi yabancı arkadaşlar ya da iş arkadaşlarımla İngilizce konuşurken hayal ediyorum.					
29.Kendimi ana dili İngilizce olan kişilerle etkin bir şekilde İngilizce konuşurken hayal ediyorum.					
30. Kendimi akıcı bir şekilde İngilizce eposta/mektup yazarken hayal ediyorum.					
İfadeleri okuduktan sonra sizin için uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz lütfen.	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılıyorum.**	**Ne Katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılmıyorum.**	**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum.**
31.İngilizce öğrenmek gereklidir çünkü etrafımdaki insanlar benden bunu bekliyor.					
32.İngilizce öğrenmek önemlidir çünkü saygı duyduğum kişiler İngilizce öğrenmem gerektiğini düşünüyor.					
33. İngilizce öğrenemezsem bazı insanları (aile bireyleri gibi) hayal kırıklığına uğratırım.					
34.İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemlidir çünkü eğitimli birinin İngilizce bilmesi gerekir.					
35.İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemlidir çünkü İngilizce öğrenirsem insanlar bana daha fazla saygı duyar.					

İfadeleri okuduktan sonra sizin için uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz lütfen.	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılıyorum.**	**Ne Katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum.**	**Kısmen Katılmıyorum.**	**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum.**
36. Sınırlı İngilizce bilgim yüzünden insanların gelecekte benimle dalga geçmesinden korkuyorum.					
37. Daha önce birileri İngilizcemle dalga geçtiği için İngilizceyi doğru düzgün kullanamamaktan korkuyorum.					
38. İngilizcemi geliştirmem lazım çünkü gelecekte İngilizce seviyem yüzünden başkaları tarafından eleştirilmek ya da rahatsız edilmek istemiyorum.					
39. Gelecekte doğru düzgün İngilizce konuşamazsam insanların benimle dalga geçeceğinden korkuyorum.					
40. Hatalarımın dalga geçer bir şekilde düzeltileceğinden korktuğumdan İngilizce yazmak ve konuşmaktan çekiniyorum.					

41. Lütfen öğrenci kimlik numaranızı yazınız _____

42. Ana diliniz nedir? *Türkçe, Kürtçe, Arapça, Farsça, Diğer.*

43. Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz? *1 yıldan az. 1-3. 3-5. 5-7. 7-9. 9 +.*

44. Cinsiyetiniz nedir? *Kadın. Erkek.*

45. Kaç yaşındasınız? *18-24. 25-34. 35-45.*

Appendix C

Latent Variables Correlation Table

Note: Underlined values indicate unexpected correlation between constructs.

	Achievement	Communication Apprehension	English Learning Experience	Fear of Failure	Feared L2 Self	Ideal L2 Self	Mediating Understanding	Ought to L2 Self	Writing and Planning
Achievement	1.000	-0.034	-0.013	0.048	-0.003	0.067	0.024	0.063	0.006
Communication Apprehension	-0.034	1.000	-0.176	0.621	0.474	-0.097	-0.161	0.208	-0.020
English Learning Experience	-0.013	-0.176	1.000	-0.136	-0.065	0.351	0.347	0.100	0.269
Fear of Failure	0.048	0.621	-0.136	1.000	0.400	-0.060	-0.283	0.300	-0.117
Feared L2 Self	-0.003	0.474	-0.065	0.400	1.000	-0.037	0.028	0.296	-0.096
Ideal L2 Self	0.067	-0.097	0.351	-0.060	-0.037	1.000	0.258	0.114	0.235
Mediating Understanding	0.024	-0.161	0.347	-0.283	0.028	0.258	1.000	0.139	0.588
Ought to L2 Self	0.063	0.208	0.100	0.300	0.296	0.114	0.139	1.000	-0.009
Writing and Planning	0.006	-0.020	0.269	-0.117	-0.096	0.235	0.588	-0.009	1.000

Appendix D

Discriminant Validity: Cross Loadings Criterion

Note: Underlined values correspond to the same constructs.

	Achievement	Communication Apprehension	English Learning Experience	Fear of Failure	Feared L2 Self	Ideal L2 Self	Mediating Understanding	Ought to L2 Self	Writing and Planning
COM_1	-0.020	0.802	-0.123	0.572	0.403	-0.050	-0.102	0.226	0.015
COM_2	-0.066	0.886	-0.164	0.517	0.364	-0.099	-0.187	0.149	-0.049
COM_3	-0.041	0.791	-0.211	0.427	0.408	-0.150	-0.125	0.137	-0.050
COM_4	0.018	0.861	-0.103	0.557	0.397	-0.029	-0.118	0.178	0.025
COM_5	-0.012	0.624	-0.106	0.445	0.557	-0.087	-0.036	0.246	-0.034
ELE_1	-0.042	-0.086	0.586	-0.042	-0.140	0.247	0.172	0.060	0.194
ELE_2	0.007	-0.049	0.695	-0.034	0.018	0.216	0.210	0.037	0.169
ELE_3	0.002	-0.174	0.809	-0.110	-0.081	0.289	0.283	0.068	0.237
ELE_4	-0.019	-0.035	0.632	-0.073	0.086	0.199	0.266	0.167	0.139
ELE_5	-0.003	-0.244	0.801	-0.193	-0.116	0.290	0.279	0.025	0.212
FAIL_1	0.014	0.549	-0.112	0.752	0.447	0.024	-0.200	0.248	-0.115
FAIL_2	0.093	0.465	-0.027	0.752	0.252	0.043	-0.176	0.240	-0.001
FAIL_3	0.003	0.485	-0.033	0.647	0.341	-0.023	-0.086	0.259	-0.005
FAIL_4	0.032	0.467	-0.067	0.774	0.386	-0.047	-0.192	0.217	-0.112
FAIL_5	0.029	0.435	-0.192	0.808	0.190	-0.154	-0.307	0.208	-0.143
FEAR_1	0.020	0.484	-0.000	0.447	0.719	0.066	0.048	0.366	0.020
FEAR_2	-0.005	0.400	-0.090	0.364	0.840	-0.071	0.034	0.236	-0.050
FEAR_3	-0.006	0.286	-0.020	0.315	0.202	0.075	0.028	0.326	0.091
FEAR_4	-0.009	0.400	-0.012	0.369	0.795	0.056	0.083	0.389	-0.010
FEAR_5	-0.004	0.550	-0.079	0.465	0.833	-0.013	-0.044	0.345	-0.093

IDEAL_1	0.035	-0.018	0.271	-0.018	0.061	0.805	0.224	0.112	0.138
IDEAL_2	0.085	-0.087	0.298	-0.036	-0.020	0.841	0.206	0.050	0.168
IDEAL_3	0.092	-0.160	0.266	-0.090	-0.099	0.800	0.157	0.078	0.189
IDEAL_4	0.018	-0.062	0.298	-0.054	-0.061	0.801	0.238	0.122	0.251
OUGHT_1	0.081	0.174	0.021	0.242	0.129	0.036	0.039	0.711	-0.009
OUGHT_2	0.042	0.123	0.120	0.206	0.141	0.156	0.155	0.896	0.001
OUGHT_3	0.038	0.272	0.009	0.376	0.355	0.057	0.077	0.766	-0.005
OUGHT_4	0.066	0.007	0.064	0.092	-0.098	0.226	0.038	0.081	0.132
OUGHT_5	0.095	0.128	0.135	0.195	0.282	0.149	0.111	0.659	0.050
PASS_FAIL	1.000	-0.034	-0.013	0.048	-0.003	0.067	0.024	0.063	0.006
TR_10	0.000	-0.075	0.247	-0.187	0.029	0.250	0.712	0.034	0.447
TR_11	0.017	-0.111	0.290	-0.153	0.052	0.208	0.675	0.143	0.390
TR_2	0.044	-0.099	0.207	-0.150	-0.026	0.111	0.617	0.098	0.450
TR_3	-0.004	-0.027	0.129	-0.091	-0.065	0.157	0.389	-0.036	0.659
TR_4	0.017	0.001	0.074	-0.028	-0.085	0.139	0.389	0.032	0.715
TR_5	-0.010	0.099	0.291	0.003	0.030	0.221	0.350	0.056	0.696
TR_6	0.028	-0.046	0.217	-0.134	-0.106	0.170	0.475	-0.039	0.756
TR_7	0.053	-0.097	0.171	-0.205	0.037	0.120	0.542	0.028	0.295
TR_8	-0.009	-0.112	0.155	-0.152	-0.131	0.116	0.455	-0.041	0.682
TR_9	-0.035	-0.080	0.200	-0.154	0.042	0.173	0.685	0.109	0.421
TR_1	0.023	-0.162	0.221	-0.256	-0.027	0.127	0.666	0.120	0.309

Appendix E

Discriminant Validity: Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	Achievement	Communication Apprehension	English Learning Experience	Fear of Failure	Feared L2 Self	Ideal L2 Self	Mediating Understanding	Ought to L2 Self	Writing and Planning
Achievement	1.000								
Communication Apprehension	-0.034	0.798							
English Learning Experience	-0.013	-0.176	0.710						
Fear of Failure	0.048	0.621	-0.136	0.748					
Feared L2 Self	-0.003	0.474	-0.065	0.400	0.720				
Ideal L2 Self	0.067	-0.097	0.351	-0.060	-0.037	0.812			
Mediating Understanding	0.024	-0.161	0.347	-0.283	0.028	0.258	0.652		
Ought to L2 Self	0.063	0.208	0.100	0.300	0.296	0.114	0.139	0.683	
Writing and Planning	0.006	-0.020	0.269	-0.117	-0.096	0.235	0.588	-0.009	0.702

Appendix F

Discriminant Validity: HTMT Criterion

	Achievement	Communication Apprehension	English Learning Experience	Fear of Failure	Feared L2 Self	Ideal L2 Self	Mediating Understanding	Ought to L2 Self	Writing and Planning
Achievement									
Communication Apprehension	0.042								
English Learning Experience	0.024	0.221							
Fear of Failure	0.050	0.764	0.172						
Feared L2 Self	0.011	0.651	0.158	0.606					
Ideal L2 Self	0.078	0.130	0.443	0.112	0.102				
Mediating Understanding	0.051	0.182	0.457	0.330	0.097	0.320			

Appendix G

Collinearity Assessment (VIF): Inner

COM_1	1.824
COM_2	2.222
COM_3	1.820
COM_4	2.193
ELE_2	1.426
ELE_3	1.519
ELE_5	1.523
FAIL_1	1.639
FAIL_2	1.543
FAIL_4	1.695
FAIL_5	1.546
FEAR_1	2.610
FEAR_2	2.164
FEAR_4	2.445
FEAR_5	2.405
IDEAL_1	2.074
IDEAL_2	2.414
IDEAL_3	1.867
IDEAL_4	1.573
OUGHT_1	1.760

Appendix H

Cross Validated Redundancy Q2 Values

	SSO	SSE	Q^2 (=1-SSE/SSO)
Achievement	386.000	389.574	-0.009
Communication Apprehension	1.544.000	1.505.646	0.025
English Learning Experience	1.158.000	1.075.730	0.071
Fear of Failure	1.544.000	1.481.250	0.041
Feared L2 Self	1.544.000	1.544.556	-0.000
Ideal L2 Self	1.544.000	1.463.504	0.052
Mediating Understanding	1.544.000	1.544.000	
Ought to L2 Self	1.544.000	1.532.376	0.008
Writing and Planning	1.158.000	1.158.000	

Appendix I

PLSpredict Values

Note: The underlined values show no predictive power.

	PLS		LM	
	RMSE	**Q²_predict**	**RMSE**	**Q²_predict**
PASS_FAIL	0.463	-0.011	0.469	-0.036
IDEAL_3	0.933	0.025	1.367	0.022
IDEAL_2	0.968	0.041	1.395	-0.006
ELE_2	0.979	0.048	1.355	0.013
ELE_5	0.991	0.076	1.422	-0.019
IDEAL_1	1.010	0.036	0.983	0.091
IDEAL_4	1.036	0.072	0.983	0.040
ELE_3	1.042	0.081	1.046	0.074
FAIL_5	1.299	0.067	1.342	0.019
OUGHT_1	1.323	-0.009	1.356	0.017
OUGHT_2	1.331	0.019	1.308	0.053
FAIL_2	1.336	0.028	1.390	0.048
COM_4	1.350	0.021	1.394	-0.020
FEAR_5	1.355	-0.013	1.357	-0.017
FAIL_4	1.355	0.018	1.396	0.002
COM_2	1.365	0.025	1.409	0.004
COM_1	1.380	0.016	1.019	0.018
FEAR_2	1.383	-0.004	1.046	0.053
FEAR_4	1.395	0.003	0.975	0.027
FAIL_1	1.400	0.035	0.941	0.008
COM_3	1.404	0.007	1.429	0.020
FEAR_1	1.415	-0.005	1.334	-0.026
OUGHT_5	1.439	0.006	1.338	0.008
OUGHT_3	1.492	0.002	1.517	-0.033