



Republic of Türkiye
Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University
Graduate School of Educational Sciences
English Language Teaching Master's Program

**UNDERSTANDING THE GROUNDS OF TRANSLANGUAGING
IN EFL CLASSROOMS: SCRUTINIZING THE PERCEPTIONS
AND PRACTICES OF ENGLISH TEACHERS**

Yekta ARSLAN
A Master's Thesis

Thesis Supervisor
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ

Burdur, 2025

T.C.
Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Tezli Yüksek Lisans Programı

**İNGİLİZCE SINIFLARINDA DİLLER ARASI GEÇİŞLİLİĞİN
GEREKÇELERİNİN KAVRANMASI: İNGİLİZCE
ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN ALGILARININ VE UYGULAMALARININ
İNCELENMESİ**

Yekta ARSLAN
Yüksek Lisans Tezi

Tez Danışmanı
Doç. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ

Burdur, 2025



**MAKÜ EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ
ENSTİTÜSÜ**

YÜKSEK LİSANS JÜRİ ONAY FORMU

M.A.K.Ü. Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yönetim Kurulu'nun tarih ve sayılı kararıyla oluşturulan jüri tarafından 20.01.2025 tarihinde tez savunma sınavı yapılan 2130461013 öğrenci numaralı Yekta ARSLAN'ın “İngilizce Sınıflarında Diller Arası Geçişliliğin Gerekçelerinin Kavranması: İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Algılarının ve Uygulamalarının İncelenmesi” konulu tez çalışması Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda YÜKSEK LİSANS tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

JÜRİ

ÜYE (TEZ DANIŞMANI): Doç. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ

ÜYE: Prof. Dr. Mustafa ŞEVİK

ÜYE: Doç. Dr. Ahmet ÖNAL

ONAY

M.A.K.Ü Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yönetim Kurulu'nun/...../..... tarih ve/..... sayılı kararı.

İMZA / MÜHÜR

BİLDİRİM

Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu taahhüt edip, tezimin kaynak göstermek koşuluyla aşağıda belirttiğim şekilde fotokopi ile çoğaltılmasına izin veriyorum.

[X] Tezimin/Raporumun tamamı her yerden erişime açılabilir.

[] Tezim/Raporum sadece Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi yerleşkelerinden erişime açılabilir.

[] Tezimin/Raporumun yıl süreyle erişime açılmasını istemiyorum. Bu sürenin sonunda uzatma için başvuruda bulunmadığım takdirde, tezimin/raporumun tamamı her yerden erişime açılabilir.

Yekta ARSLAN

Tarih

İmza

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis would not have been possible without the amazing people who have supported me from beginning to end. The journey of completing this thesis has been very transformative thanks to those who constantly have stood behind me and inspired me along the way.

First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest obligations to my thesis supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ, whose unique blend of infectious enthusiasm and profound knowledge has been instrumental in putting the last touches on this work. I have always felt valued owing to his consistent support and motivation. From the get-go, his genuine appreciation of my studies, and his firm confidence in my abilities have made this tough journey deeply rewarding.

I am certainly thankful to Prof. Dr. Mustafa ŞEVİK for serving on my thesis committee, whose wisdom has profoundly shaped my academic perspective. His remarks taught me one of the most valuable lessons in academia: the importance of approaching research with careful consideration and avoiding bold assertions. Indeed, this fundamental principle has significantly influenced my scholarly approach.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ahmet ÖNAL deserves special recognition for his willingness to serve on my thesis committee as well. His encouragement in my academic potential and emphatic recommendation to pursue doctoral studies have been sincerely motivating. Furthermore, I am grateful for his reassuring words that dissolved my doubts about further academic endeavors, and his appreciation of the clarity and quality of my work has provided me with the faith to envision a future in academia.

I will always be grateful to my very first professor, Assist. Prof. Dr. Şükrü NURAL, whose linguistics classes sparked my interest in academics, and opened my eyes to the fascinating world of the English language. Therefore, I could safely say that my academic foundation was built upon his inspiring teachings.

I am particularly indebted to Assist. Prof. Dr. Jordan DELEV, and I feel very lucky to have a such kind-hearted dormitory mate in my undergraduate years. He became an unexpected mentor and constant advocate of my academic aspirations. His early recognition of my potential and enduring encouragement provided the confidence I needed to pursue this path.

My dear family—my father Cengiz, my mother Esma, and my sister Ahsen—words cannot fully express my appreciation for your support with determination. You have put up with my stress, celebrated my achievements, and never doubted I could come through this alive and well. You have given me everything I needed to succeed, and sustained my motivation even when I doubted myself. Your presence and commitment have been the bedrock of my academic journey.

Finally, I would like to thank my current housemate and colleague, Yiğit, whose prophetic words of encouragement—“You will write that thesis, and you will remember that I told you so”—have proven to be a source of motivation during this period. Your conviction in my ability to complete this work has been reassuring.

This thesis stands as a testament not just to my own efforts, but to the collective support, guidance, and encouragement of each authentic person mentioned here, and I can gently say that they have left their traces on this thesis in ways big or small. I could not have done it without your moral and material support. Thank you so much.

**UNDERSTANDING THE GROUNDS OF TRANSLANGUAGING IN EFL
CLASSROOMS: SCRUTINIZING THE PERCEPTIONS AND PRACTICES
OF ENGLISH TEACHERS
(Master's Thesis)**

Yekta ARSLAN

ABSTRACT

The rise of bilingualism and multilingualism has transformed language teaching approaches from the ground up, and this is a salient factor in EFL contexts in particular. Regardless of the fact that known current pedagogical trends foreground teaching methods that are responsive to assorted contexts, a great deal of EFL classrooms still abide by traditional monolingual practices, which creates a disconnection between theory and classroom reality. In this vein, translanguaging, which enables one to use their full linguistic repertoire, acts as a reinforcer to reach language-related learning outcomes, resulting in better understanding in the target language. However, research on its practical application in EFL classrooms, especially from EFL teachers' perspectives, remains limited and prompted the development of this study as a result. This research, adopting an explanatory sequential mixed methods design, attempted to investigate this issue by scrutinizing the relationship between teachers' perceptions and their self-reported translanguaging practices; in addition to this, it brought forth the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices, including their reasons for employing translanguaging pedagogy. The data were collected from 84 EFL teachers using a 6-point Likert scale questionnaire and analyzed descriptively via SPSS 23. Supplementary inferences came from open-ended questionnaire responses and in-depth interviews with seven participants, both of which were analyzed by way of inductive content analysis. Consequently, the results revealed notable contradictions between teachers' opinions for English-only policy and their actual teaching practices. Namely, it was found that teachers supported the idea of maximizing English use, yet they regularly incorporated their first language for teaching grammar, teaching complex concepts, teaching pronunciation, preparing for tests, and developing metalinguistic awareness. Furthermore, it was also discovered that teachers frequently used translanguaging to create supportive learning environments, reduce anxiety, and address students with varying proficiency levels. Moreover, it was observed that EFL teachers tend to take a utilitarian approach to language use, which means that they adapt their methods based on various classroom contexts, and try to balance different languages in their classrooms according to students' needs. Therefore, the study suggested that maintaining sufficient English language exposure is possible with judicious translanguaging, which can promote student engagement and achievement in EFL settings. Considering these, this research offers many implications and recommendations for EFL teachers, stakeholders, and curriculum designers in relation to the pedagogical merits of translanguaging.

Keywords: Judicious Translanguaging, Bilingualism, Multilingualism, Language Use and Policy, Teacher Cognitions and Practices.

Number of Pages: 172

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ

**İNGİLİZCE SINIFLARINDA DİLLER ARASI GEÇİŞLİLİĞİN
GEREKÇELERİNİN KAVRANMASI: İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN
ALGILARININ VE UYGULAMALARININ İNCELENMESİ
(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)**

Yekta ARSLAN

ÖZ

İki ve çok dilliliğin yükselişi, dil öğretim yaklaşımlarını baştan aşağı değiştirmiş olup bu durum özellikle yabancı dil olarak İngilizce bağlamlarında belirgin bir etkidir. Güncel pedagojik eğilimlerin çeşitli bağlamlara yanıt veren öğretim yöntemlerini ön plana çıkarmasına rağmen, birçok yabancı dil olarak İngilizce sınıfı halen geleneksel tek dilli uygulamaları sürdürmekte, bu da teori ile sınıf gerçekliği arasında bir kopukluk yaratmaktadır. Bu bağlamda, bireyin tam dilsel repertuarını kullanmasına olanak sağlayan diller arası geçişlilik dil ile ilgili öğrenme çıktılarına ulaşmada bir pekiştireç görevi görür ve hedef dilde daha iyi bir anlayış sağlar. Bununla birlikte, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce sınıflarında diller arası geçişliliğin pratik uygulaması hakkındaki araştırmalar, özellikle İngilizce öğretmenlerinin bakış açısından, sınırlı kalmış ve bu çalışmanın geliştirilmesine yol açmıştır. Bu araştırma, açıklayıcı sıralı karma yöntem deseni benimseyerek, öğretmenlerin algıları ile kendilerinin raporladığı diller arası geçişlilik uygulamaları arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemeye çalışmış; ayrıca öğretmenlerin inançları ve sınıf içi uygulamaları arasındaki ilişkiyi, diller arası geçişlilik pedagojisini kullanma nedenlerini de ortaya koymuştur. Veriler, 84 İngilizce öğretmeninden 6'lı Likert ölçeği anketi ile toplanmış ve SPSS 23 aracılığıyla betimsel olarak analiz edilmiştir. Açık uçlu anket yanıtları ve yedi katılımcı ile yapılan derinlemesine görüşmelerden gelen tamamlayıcı nitelikteki çıkarımlar, tümevarımsal içerik analizi yoluyla incelenmiştir. Sonuç olarak, bulgular öğretmenlerin zorunlu İngilizce kullanımı politikası hakkındaki görüşleri ile fiili öğretim uygulamaları arasında dikkate değer çelişkiler ortaya koymuştur. Daha özelden, öğretmenlerin İngilizce kullanımını azami düzeye çıkarma fikrini desteklemelerine rağmen; dilbilgisi öğretimi, karmaşık kavramların açıklanması, telaffuzun öğretilmesi, sınavlara hazırlık ve dilsel farkındalık geliştirme gibi alanlarda ana dillerini düzenli olarak kullandıkları saptanmıştır. Diğer yandan öğretmenlerin destekleyici bir öğrenme ortamı oluşturmak, kaygıyı azaltmak ve farklı yeterlilik düzeyindeki öğrencilere hitap etmek için sıklıkla diller arası geçişkenliği kullandıkları da keşfedilmiştir. Dahası, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretmenlerinin faydacı bir dil kullanımı yaklaşımı benimsedikleri; yani çeşitli sınıf bağlamlarına göre yöntemlerini uyarladıkları ve öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarına göre farklı dilleri dengeledikleri gözlemlenmiştir. Bu nedenle, çalışma yeterli derecede İngilizce maruziyetinin, öğrenci katılımını ve başarısını destekleyecek bilinçli bir diller arası geçişlilik ile mümkün olduğunu önermiştir. Bunları dikkate alarak, bu araştırma; İngilizce öğretmenleri, eğitim paydaşları ve müfredat tasarımcıları için diller arası geçişliliğin pedagojik faydaları hakkında çok sayıda çıkarım ve öneri sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ölçülü Diller Arası Geçişlilik, İki Dillilik, Çok Dillilik, Dil Kullanımı ve Politikası, Öğretmen Algıları ve Uygulamaları.

Sayfa Adedi: 172

Danışman: Doç. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ

TABLE OF CONTENTS

BİLDİRİM	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xi
CHAPTER I	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background of the Study	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem	4
1.3. Purpose of the Study	6
1.4. Significance of the Study	7
1.5. Assumptions	8
1.6. Limitations	8
1.7. Definition of Key Concepts	9
CHAPTER II	11
LITERATURE REVIEW	11
2.1. Origin of Translanguaging	11
2.2. The Monolingual Bias	14
2.3. Code-switching and Translanguaging	17
2.4. Types of Translanguaging	20
2.5. Sociocultural Theory	23
2.5.1. Translanguaging as Scaffolding	26
2.6. Pedagogical Translanguaging	28
2.7. Assets and Possible Liabilities of Translanguaging	29
2.8. Critical Multilingualism	31
2.9. Previous Studies on Translanguaging	32
2.9.1. Previous Studies Conducted Abroad.	32
2.9.2. Previous Studies Conducted in the Turkish Context.	40
CHAPTER III	46

METHODOLOGY	46
3.1. Research Design	46
3.2. Research Questions	48
3.3. Sampling and Participants	48
3.4. Data Collection Tools and Procedure	53
3.5. Data Analysis	58
3.6. Reliability and Validity	60
CHAPTER IV	63
FINDINGS	63
4.1. The Analysis of the Questionnaire Findings	63
4.2. Analysis of Open-ended Statements of EFL Teachers.....	69
4.2.1. EFL Teachers’ Divergent Orientations on Translanguaging.....	70
4.2.1.1 Monolingualism and English-only Policy.	70
4.2.1.2. Contextual Factors and Student Profile.	73
4.2.2. EFL Teachers’ Purposes for Translanguaging in the EFL Classrooms...	76
4.2.2.1. Translanguaging for Teaching Linguistic Concepts.....	77
4.2.2.2. Translanguaging for Engagement in the Classroom.....	79
4.2.2.3. Translanguaging for a Safe Learning Environment.	81
4.2.2.4. Translanguaging and Time Management in the Classroom.	82
4.3. Analysis of Semi-structured Interviews Directed to EFL Teachers.....	83
4.3.1. Diverse Attitudes Towards Translanguaging.	84
4.3.1.1. Translanguaging in Different Classroom Profiles.	84
4.3.1.2. Unfavorable Comments on Translanguaging.	86
4.3.2. Reasons for Translanguaging in the EFL Classrooms.....	87
4.3.2.1. Translanguaging for Teaching Linguistic Concepts.....	88
4.3.2.2. Translanguaging for Engagement in the Classroom.....	92
4.3.2.3. Translanguaging for a Safe Learning Environment.	96
4.3.2.4. Translanguaging and Time Management in the Classroom.	97
4.3.2.5. Initiation or Direction of Translanguaging.....	98
CHAPTER V.....	101
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	101
5.1. Discussion	101
5.1.1. The beliefs and practices of EFL teachers on translanguaging.	102

5.1.2. Functions served by EFL teachers' employment of their native language in their classrooms.	104
5.1.3. EFL teachers' beliefs and self-reported practices regarding translanguaging.	106
5.1.4. Functions served by EFL teachers' employment of their native language in their classrooms.	111
5.2. Conclusion.....	118
5.3. Implications	121
5.4. Recommendations	123
REFERENCES.....	126
APPENDICES	142
APPENDIX 1.....	143
APPENDIX 2.....	144
APPENDIX 3.....	147
APPENDIX 4.....	148
APPENDIX 5.....	155
APPENDIX 6.....	156

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Tables</u>	<u>Page</u>
Table 1. Comparison of Code-switching and Translanguaging.....	19
Table 2. Background Information of the Participants.....	48
Table 3. Background Information of the EFL Teachers Interviewed.....	51
Table 4. Changes Made on the Adapted Questionnaire.....	53
Table 5. Descriptive Statistics of the Questionnaire.....	58
Table 6. Reliability Statistics	61
Table 7. Restriction of Turkish in the Institution.....	63
Table 8. EFL Teachers' Attitudes towards English-only Policy	64
Table 9. EFL Teachers' Attitudes towards Translanguaging	65
Table 10. Translanguaging Practices Employed by EFL Teachers	67
Table 11. Theme, Subtheme, and Code Distribution Table: Set 1	70
Table 12. Theme, Subtheme, and Code Distribution Table: Set 2	76
Table 13. Theme, Subtheme, and Code Distribution Table: Set 3	84
Table 14. Theme, Subtheme, and Code Distribution Table: Set 4	87

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Figures</u>	<u>Page</u>
Figure 1. The Zone of Proximal Development	25
Figure 2. Explanatory Sequential Design	47



LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

L1	: First Language (In the present case, it is Turkish)
L2	: Second Language (In the present case, it is English)
TL	: Target Language
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
FLT	: Foreign Language Teaching
ESL	: English as a Second Language
EMI	: English Medium Instruction
K-12	: Kindergarten through 12th Grade (Primary and Secondary Education)
CLT	: Communicative Language Teaching
GTM	: Grammar Translation Method
ZPD	: Zone of Proximal Development
SLA	: Second Language Acquisition
CPH	: Critical Period Hypothesis
SD	: Standard Deviation
M	: Mean

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into seven parts. Firstly, a thorough explanation of the study's background is provided. Afterward, an exhaustive overview of the problem statement is offered. Next, the aims of the study are clearly outlined. The subsequent section discusses the significance of the study in detail. The assumptions and limitations of the study are addressed followingly. Lastly, key terms are briefly defined to conclude the introduction.

1.1. Background of the Study

The medium of instruction in language classrooms has been a focal point since the advancement of second language teaching approaches and techniques. If inspected closely, it is crystal clear that the English Language Teaching (ELT) field has a diverse and many-sided history (Galante, 2014; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). The historical perspective on ELT could be characterized by continuous efforts to address language teaching challenges and arguments. Indeed, the field has been in a state of constant evolution and change. These changes were predominantly driven by the adoption of new teaching approaches and methods, and to solve these problems in ELT, many solutions have historically sought through the development of novel methods and they have started to surface to meet learners' fluctuating needs across different times (Can, 2009; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The emphasis was upon finding a universally applicable *best method* and the sole goal was to create a method that was generalizable enough throughout various teaching contexts (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). In this manner, as introduced earlier, a great quantity of approaches proliferated over successive years. These examples include, Oral Approach, Audio-lingual Method, Content-Based Teaching, and so forth (Chen, 2014; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). For the sake of a simple example, some approaches, like the Direct Method, prohibit native language use, while others, such as the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), allow or even prioritize it (Cook, 2010).

The rapid birth of approaches and methods brought along limitations to the field because they mainly focused on teaching linguistic features, especially the earlier ones.

They neglected other important aspects of language learning, and this resulted in a lot of issues in the language learning process (Galante, 2014; Kramsch & Zhang, 2018). The most recent and current approach to ELT, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), is perceived as the most successful of all, and those leaning on GTM are often considered as outdated and ineffective. This premise alone reflects a bias towards certain methodologies in contemporary ELT (Can, 2009; Littlewood, 2014). In this particular case, the demand for more holistic approaches to language teaching was in sight, which heightened the evolution of ELT methodologies in due course. The discrepancy between theory and practice led to questioning the efficacy of method-based approaches and raised doubts about the success of methods and approaches (Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Thornbury, 2013).

Galante (2014) indicated the potential gaps in traditional teaching methods that may have led to the post-method era to rise up. The origin of post-method pedagogy is, as a matter of fact, not very newfangled, though it is far-reaching. It was first introduced by Kumaravadivelu in 1994, developed as a response to the need for a more adaptable approach to ELT. It aimed to move beyond the boundaries imposed by method-based teaching (Chen, 2014). The educators and researchers were becoming fully aware of the fact that approaches and methods were not sufficient single-handedly, this in turn led to the shift in their perspectives during the 1990s, and they realized there is no guarantee of success in Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) with the old mindset. Therefore, this understanding contributed to the emergence of post-method thinking (Brown, 2002, as cited in Chen, 2014). During this period, teacher autonomy is considered as a fundamental aspect of post-method pedagogy, as Kumaravadivelu (2001) expressed. According to him, it is so crucial that it can be viewed as the defining feature of this approach. This lays stress on the pivotal role of teacher agency in the post-method framework (Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

The global rise of multilingualism and bilingualism has fundamentally reshaped the understanding of language learning and teaching, particularly in relation to CLT. Against this background, the publication by Wright, Boun and García (2015) named *“The Handbook of Bilingual and Multilingual Education”* elaborately highlights how today’s language learners increasingly represent current multifaceted speaker profiles, who move fluidly between languages depending on context and need. This new

changeover has been conducive to reimagining of CLT principles, as outlined in Littlewood's (2013) article entitled "*Developing a Context-Sensitive Pedagogy for Communication-Oriented Language Teaching*", where traditional native-speaker models are giving way to more reformist approaches that appreciate the significance of multilingual competencies. This concept could be broadened to include translanguaging itself as well.

Breaking down the specifics, in the European context, in her landmark book, Cenoz (2009) inquired into the Basque-Spanish-English multilingual education, which provides concrete evidence on how students take control of multiple languages simultaneously. Further similar work was documented by Wei (2018), which demonstrated this phenomenon in Chinese complementary schools in the UK. In this circumstance, learners were able to develop dynamic bilingual practices that surpassed traditional language borders. This novel progression and the evolution of speaker profiles has elicited the birth of the term *superdiverse*, which was introduced to describe the increasingly multidimensional nature of diversity and multiculturalism in the UK (Vertovec, 2007). Later, Blommaert (2010) contributed to applying the concept to sociolinguistics and language studies, building upon the original concept. As its name suggests in relation to sociolinguistics, it is an indication of the expanded linguistic landscapes in the sphere of FLT.

In conjunction with these, the intersection of CLT with multilingual actualities has given a lift to what Cook (2016) described as *multi-competence* in language education, where learners are viewed not as deficient versions of monolingual speakers but as skilled communicators with unique linguistic profiles. This point of view has caused profound adaptations in CLT methodology, and it has gradually moved away from strict target-language-only policies toward more flexible approaches that acknowledge and leverage learners' full linguistic repertoires.

In broad strokes, the medium of instruction in language education can be divided into two approaches: *monolingualism* and *bilingualism*. Monolingual instruction uses only the target language (TL), promoting immersion and direct engagement, while bilingual instruction incorporates both the native and target languages to facilitate understanding. Furthermore, it is distinct from other language education forms since it

integrates content and language learning all together, and most importantly, it uses two languages as mediums of instruction.

Before moving onto the statement of the problem, prior expositions need to be made. There are a few types of bilingualism and the one that is closely related to this research is called *dynamic bilingualism*, which was coined by García in 2009. It describes this more fluid form of bilingualism, allowing the speaker to utilize their whole linguistic resources in order to make meaning and communicate in assorted scales and spaces (García & Wei, 2015). It encompasses linguistic interrelationships among multilingual speakers. According to Bialystok (2010) on the assets of bilingualism, there is burgeoning evidence suggesting that bilingualism can modify cognitive performance; by the same token, it may also impact brain structure in a positive way. These potential cognitive impacts of bilingualism have a lot to offer. Above all, when compared to monolinguals, it was proven that bilinguals have enhanced functioning of the executive control system, increased performance in tasks involving rapid lexical retrieval and rapid lexical processing (Bialystok, 2010). These assets make bilinguals excel at their cognitive abilities with regard to language.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Monolingualism ideology prefers *native-speaker ability*; this concept excludes bilinguals or multilinguals from being considered as native language users, and it also excludes users of signed languages and other modalities (Manalili, 2023; Ortega, 2019). Regarding the current global assessment practices, monolingual ideologies continue to measure against an idealized educated native speaker, and this practice persists despite the thriving awareness of linguistic diversity (Manalili, 2023).

The classical view of bilingualism, which assumes each language functions as a separate system in bilingual speakers' minds, is not sufficient for avoiding monolingual ideology; henceforth, dynamic bilingualism contradicts with the classical view of bilingualism or double monolingualism (Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015). The double monolingualism approach could be one of the reasons why native language kept being positioned against the TL, which profoundly influenced global bilingual education, and goes counter with the sociolinguistic reality of students who naturally use both languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015).

With dynamic bilingualism, it was evident that this new type did not adhere to established sociopolitical language boundaries, and it dared traditional concepts of language separation in bilingualism (García & Lin, 2017; Wei, 2018). This new outlook on bilingual education directs the study straight to *translanguaging* itself since dynamic bilingualism is enacted through this pedagogy. It could be envisioned that both terms go hand in hand. In this vein, translanguaging involves deep cognitive bilingual engagement (García & Lin, 2017), and it facilitates learning two languages simultaneously. As put forth earlier, translanguaging uses one language to reinforce the other, which aims to increase understanding. Further, it enhances student activity in both languages (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). In short, translanguaging is relevant for maintaining and developing dynamic bilingualism, involving the integration of content that encircles languages (García & Kleyn, 2016).

Supplementarily, EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers often face bothersome hardships when transitioning from their theoretical training to the practical realities of the classroom because they are typically instructed in modern teaching methodologies, essentially communicative approaches (Şevik, 2007). Yet, these teachers frequently encounter difficulties when attempting to apply such methods in actual classroom settings. Ultimately, they discover a troubling disconnect between the pedagogical theories they have studied and the practical demands of teaching (Can, 2009). This mismatch between the idealized training and the practical entanglement of the classroom environment can present substantial obstacles for these aspiring teachers as they navigate the early stages of their professional development. In parallel with this, it is evident that teachers' language beliefs on classroom practices significantly influence their teaching methods. Studying these beliefs remains a contentious area in teacher education literature (Barros et al., 2021). However, complexities in teachers' pedagogical stances, when scrutinized, could be unearthed and witnessed effortlessly. Namely, inconsistencies often can be found in how teachers justify their approaches in the classroom, and these justifications can vary based on classroom conditions and contextual factors (Razfar, 2012, as cited in Barros et al., 2021). Most of the time, EFL teachers are aware of their inconsistent beliefs and practices and this may create a discomfort in them, and translanguaging can be one of the causes for it. Translanguaging is nothing to be abstained from after grasping the modern understanding of what language is for, which is a means for communication.

As a last takeaway value, translanguaging is not a purposeless approach, rather it has its own myriads of pedagogical benefits in EFL classrooms. In particular, the research in the field of ELT has greatly shown that translanguaging is beneficial for supporting language acquisition, understanding content, and increasing metalinguistic awareness (Zhang & Wei, 2021). As studies indicated, translanguaging can enhance students' engagement with interesting materials by allowing them to draw upon both or multiple linguistic resources; which in turn, improves understanding and retention of complex content (García & Wei, 2014). Specifically, against the backdrop of EFL, translanguaging contributes to bridging linguistics gaps and upholds vocabulary learning by connecting new English terms to familiar L1 (native language) concepts, which strengthens learning outcomes (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Additionally, translanguaging promotes emotional and relational dimensions; therefore, it reduces language-caused anxiety and reinforces a more inclusive classroom atmosphere that encourages participation and confidence (García & Lin, 2017). Thus, integrating translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy in EFL classrooms not only addresses linguistic problems but also enriches the learning experience by supporting comprehension and student engagement.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

This mixed methods research aims to deeply examine EFL teachers' perceptions of translanguaging in English classes and how they implement it in practice based on their perceptions. Together with this objective, the research also investigates for what purposes translanguaging is employed by them. In the upcoming review of literature, translanguaging was explained in minute detail. Still, to give a simple definition, translanguaging is a relatively new term, and it is largely used consciously by language teachers in classrooms for pedagogical ends. Canagarajah (2011) defines it as “the shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system” (p. 401). What makes translanguaging important is that it has many pedagogical and specific functions for teaching a TL. With these merits at their disposal, translanguaging is a valuable method for EFL teachers. As a last point, the study was strengthened and supported by a rich literature review and theoretical frameworks.

1.4. Significance of the Study

The other current research on native language (L1) use is viewed as a valuable resource for language learning, which is supported by various researchers (e.g., Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher, 2009; Macaro, 2005; Rivers, 2011; Şevik, 2007; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). Nevertheless, the students' language use still remains controversial, essentially in EFL, ESL (English as a Second Language) or EMI (English Medium Instruction) settings. Native language in the classroom has its own functions in the classroom and most teachers are aware of it and use students' L1 for explaining grammar, classroom management, teaching vocabulary, promoting participation, and leading to more effective task accomplishment (Antón & DiCamilla, 1998), and for many more functions. Conversely, forbidding L1 may have negative effects on students. For example, strict English-only policies may hinder students' bilingual development and create comprehension problems (Yuvayapan, 2019). Translanguaging blends and mitigates strict monolingualism, remodeling it as a bilingual or multilingual system. Besides, translanguaging is closely related to teachers' cognitions and beliefs, but often faces obstacles due to monolingual language policies. Language teachers' cognitions may get confused by these practices, as they must make instructional choices based on their accumulated knowledge (Borg, 2003), such as the dilemma of translanguaging. Judicious L1 use, or more recently termed *judicious translanguaging*, can support learners' developing identities as aspiring bilinguals (Azaz & Abourehab, 2021; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Paudel, 2024; Shabir, 2017; Wang, 2019; Wang, 2022; Zhang & Wei, 2021), and it shapes students' cognitive structures and is considered a transformative pedagogy that fosters bilingual subjectivities (García & Wei, 2014, as cited in Jaspers, 2018).

Aligning with these notions, this study addresses a crucial question that previous research on the use of multiple languages in EFL teaching has not fully resolved, particularly concerning the concept of *translanguaging*. While similar studies were done under terms like *L1 use* or *code-switching*, there is a notable scarcity of research specifically focusing on *EFL teachers* and the term *translanguaging* together. A review of past work showed that most studies centered on university lecturers' perceptions, practices, and reasons for translanguaging in mostly EMI settings, rather

than on EFL teachers in K-12 educational settings (e.g., Branka & Molino, 2022; Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017; Karakaş, 2016; Karakaş, 2023; Kavak, 2021; Kirkgöz et al., 2023; Küçük, 2018; Yuksel & Curle, 2023).

This current study aims to fill this research gap by emphasizing the place of translanguaging in the EFL teaching context. It is expected to shed light upon how EFL teachers perceive and employ translanguaging. The study recognizes the striving capacity for translanguaging to gain an eminent place in English teaching policies, curricula, and educational programs in the future. On account of this, the study could offer helpful guidance for education policymakers and curriculum designers in EFL education, influence future research directions in the field of translanguaging and EFL teaching, and potentially contribute to a change in how translanguaging is perceived and carried out in EFL classrooms.

1.5. Assumptions

The study has some presumptions. First and foremost, the perspectives and practices of EFL teachers whose native language is Turkish are assumed to represent Türkiye, especially public schools. Correspondingly, all of the EFL teachers who participated in the study were assumed to take part in the study voluntarily. It was also assumed the participants did not take this study for granted and responded to the questionnaire, open-ended statement, and interview questions with sincerity and by being truthful in their responses, which are also hoped to reflect their genuine knowledge on the matter.

1.6. Limitations

When it comes to the scope of this study, it could be reckoned that it has a trickle of limitations. Firstly, the study was designed exclusively for EFL teachers and the reason for this is that the researcher chose to focus solely on teachers' perceptions and practices, which clearly displays that the students are not a part of this study. Secondly, this study lacks classroom observations or recordings, which could have yielded much more prosperous data to work with. The omission of this specific data collection tool was due to teachers' unavailability, difficulties in obtaining necessary permissions, and time constraints. To be candid and credible, the use of descriptive analysis in

tandem with an inferential analysis might have caused the researcher to glean more insight into the questionnaire findings, and this absence can be sort of a limitation. In this regard, reliance on snowball sampling method may be another type of limitation. All in all, more detailed explanations were provided in the methodology chapter of the study. And despite these apparent limitations, the study is not considered to have major deficiencies in terms of generalizability or appropriateness; in actuality, the findings could potentially be generalized, specially within the context of public schools in Türkiye.

1.7. Definition of Key Concepts

Monolingualism is the state of knowing and using only one language. In EFL contexts, this often refers to educational policies or practices that prioritize or exclusively use the target language (Ellis, 2008).

Bilingualism is the ability to use two languages in varying degrees of proficiency. In the context of EFL education, it often refers to students who speak their native language and are learning English. Grosjean (2010) characterizes bilinguals as people who regularly use two or more languages (or dialects) in their daily lives.

Dynamic Bilingualism is a view of bilingualism that recognizes language practices as fluid, interconnected, and adaptive rather than as two separate linguistic systems. This concept is integral to translanguaging theory. García and Wei (2014) succinctly describe it as the dynamic and flexible uses of bilingual speakers' linguistic repertoires.

Multilingualism is the ability to use more than two languages. In EFL contexts, this may include students who speak multiple languages in addition to learning English. Cenoz (2013) notes that multilingualism “refers to the ability to use more than two languages” and emphasizes that it is “a complex phenomenon that can be studied from different perspectives” (p. 5).

Linguistic Repertoire is the full range of language varieties, styles, and practices that an individual can draw upon in different contexts. This concept is crucial in understanding translanguaging practices. Busch (2012) defines it as the complete

range of language resources accessible to members of a community for meaningful social interactions.

English-only Policy is an educational approach that mandates the exclusive use of English in EFL classrooms, often with the intention of maximizing target language exposure. Auerbach (1993) critically examines this policy, stating that “the rationale for English only in the classroom is neither conclusive nor pedagogically sound” (p. 9).

Monolingual Bias is the assumption that monolingualism is the norm and that languages should be kept strictly separate in teaching and learning. This bias often influences language policies and teaching practices in EFL contexts. Kachru (1994) discusses this bias in relation to World Englishes, noting that the focus on monolingualism has led to a rather limited perspective on creativity in the English language.

Code-switching is the practice of alternating between two or more languages in a single conversation or utterance. While related to translanguaging, code-switching is often viewed as a shift between separate language systems. Crystal (1987) basically proposes that code-switching happens when two bilingual speakers alternate between two languages during their conversation.

Translanguaging is a pedagogical approach and theory of language that views bilingual individuals’ language practices as one linguistic repertoire rather than as separate languages. It involves the strategic use of students’ full linguistic repertoire for learning and teaching. Otheguy, García and Reid (2015) label it as “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages” (p. 283).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is organized into nine sections and corresponding subsections, offering a thorough review of the literature that establishes a solid framework and background for the key concepts and theoretical foundations of the study. The first section briefly addresses the origins of translanguaging. Following this, the term monolingual bias and the reasoning behind it are discussed. Then, the differences between code-switching and translanguaging are articulated. Sociocultural Theory, which is a part of the theoretical framework, is explained. Alongside this, pedagogical translanguaging is discussed. In relation to this, translanguaging as scaffolding is also addressed. Also, critical multilingualism is concisely overviewed. In the penultimate section, the assets and possible liabilities of translanguaging are examined, and finally, the section on previous studies on translanguaging provides information about earlier research, completing the literature review.

2.1. Origin of Translanguaging

The roots of Translanguaging go back to Welsh bilingual education in the 1980s (Conteh, 2018a). The Welsh term *trawsieithu* was coined by Cen Williams in 1980 and translated to English as *translanguaging*. The prefix *trans* means *across* and *beyond*. In Williams's original concept, translanguaging aligned more with the meaning *across*. However, García and Wei (2014) suggested that it extends *beyond*, as Wei (2018) also stated. It was made as a deliberate strategy for “the planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson” (Conteh, 2018a, p. 445). As acknowledged, the main aim was promoting the use of Welsh and English equally in classrooms (Jaspers, 2018; Nagy, 2018). Code-switching, the practice of switching between languages, was occurring in social situations before it became used and recognized in educational settings. On the other hand, translanguaging initially focused on classroom settings but later extended to everyday communication as well (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021). The key point is that translanguaging is not just code-switching between languages. It involves a bigger linguistic repertory for meaningful engagement across multiple language varieties

(Nagy, 2018). Consequently, translanguaging embraces all languages together and goes beyond barriers.

By purposefully mixing aspects of multiple languages within a single lesson, translanguaging gives assistance to learners in incorporating new ideas into their thought patterns. This permits them to interact with and comprehend the subject matter in connection to the other language. As Creese and Blackledge (2010) clearly noted “this means going beyond acceptance or tolerance of children’s languages, to ‘cultivation’ of languages through their use for teaching and learning.” (p. 103). This method calls for utilizing a variety of mental skills like expressive and receptive capabilities, making for deeper grasping of the subject that is taught. Therefore, translanguaging arises from boundary thinking, rooted in indigenous wisdom and framed from a bilingual perspective, rather than being confined to a single language (García & Sylvan, 2011).

However, language alternation, as originally defined, just means switching between languages, and it does not go into post-structuralist views on language or language learning supported by the multilingual movement (Poza, 2017). In addition to the previously mentioned definitions, other scholars have described translanguaging in terms of heteroglossic perspectives linked to sociocultural learning theories. For example, Baker (2011) stated that “translanguaging is the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through using two languages” (p. 288). This means both languages are used dynamically and effectively to help organize and mediate mental processes like comprehending, speaking, reading, and most importantly, learning. Following this, Lewis, Jones, and Baker (2012a) built on the idea by remarking “translanguaging concerns effective communication, function rather than form, cognitive activity, as well as language production” (p. 641). These ideas were followed up by Celic and Seltzer (2011), critiquing the old-fashioned views:

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

These statements demonstrated translanguaging as part of flourishing novel ideas about language, challenging established linguistic norms and frameworks, especially those about separating languages in education settings (Poza, 2017). To elaborate further, it is argued that equity can be attained within the school system, and pedagogical techniques for balancing languages can also be proposed.

The push for Welsh to become the official language, while English continued to exert a significant influence, justifies the implementation of a translanguaging method within the Welsh educational system (Conteh, 2018b). Thus, researchers have used the concept of translanguaging to clarify language-related phenomena in various educational settings. This practice is widely accepted across educational contexts in an increasingly globalized world (Gatil, 2021). This strategy was created with improving learning comprehension and acquisition as the goal. It is also through the passage of time and the guidance of several educators—specifically Colin Baker (2003, 2006), who initially translated the Welsh phrase as *translanguaging*, and Ofelia García (2009)—that this understanding has developed. Other scholars also contributed their own understandings and perspectives. What Cen Williams (2002) called *trawsieithu* and Baker (2003) and García (2009) referred to as *translanguaging* is known as *codemeshing* by Canagarajah (2011), *metrolingualism* by Otsuji and Pennycook (2010), and *translanguaging space* by Wei (2011).

Among these, translanguaging is a fairly new term and keeps on expanding. It gained prominence mainly from two influential books: Colin Baker's "*Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*" (2001, 2006, 2011) and Ofelia García's "*Bilingual Education in the 21st Century*" (2009) (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). To date, translanguaging in language teaching has been really important for normalizing bilingual practices and inspiring new pedagogical approaches using flexible language use in the classroom (Prilutskaya, 2021). Therefore, it can be seen as a type of bilingual education. With this approach, students do not just get taught in one language like English, but then express their understanding in their second language like Welsh (Beres, 2015). In other words, translanguaging lets students move freely between languages without limits. As a parting thought, it is important to note that these definitions focus only on systematic alternation between languages.

2.2. The Monolingual Bias

The discussion around using students' first language in English classes for students learning English as a new language remains contentious (Sa'd & Qadermazi, 2015). From an external perspective, in foreign language education, blending languages has a bad reputation. This is because many people believe there is only one correct way to learn a new language and to be proficient in two languages. Under this idea, it is thought that growing up with just one language makes someone quite articulate in the language that they are exposed to, and reaching the state of *ideal native speaker* is impossible with techniques pertaining to bilingualism (Fallas Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015). Nonetheless, monolingualism, just like any other term, has its own characteristics. The presumptions of monolingual ideology are as follows (Cummins, 2007):

1. The TL to be studied should be used only for educational purposes without involving students' L1.
2. Translation between L1 and TL has no place in language classes assuredly.
3. Within bilingual programs, the two languages must remain clearly separated.

In this fashion, it can be deduced that these presumptions somewhat agree with the modern understandings of language education on how instruction should be applied. Commonly, how teaching is done closely follows beliefs that only one language should be used for lessons, an approach with minimal factual backing that contradicts current knowledge of how people learn (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000, as cited in Cummins, 2007). The perspective offered is that moving away from methods limited to a single language could reveal various chances for bilingual techniques in teaching—in this case, it is translanguaging—that recognizes and intentionally helps share knowledge between two languages. In this direction, one could easily argue that languages are not separate codes that exist alone; rather, they develop and change through how people use them in different situations (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a). Translanguaging means making boundaries between languages more flexible; thus, teachers and students can draw on multiple language resources in language classes and other subject classes. This goes against older ideas of keeping the TL separate, such as the mentality of monolingualism, and challenges English-only policies at schools. Despite these, even if pedagogical translanguaging were intended to be implemented,

it may fall into danger because it requires involvement and cooperation from the entire school (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a). In other words, strict language policies and translanguaging do not overlap. To resolve this issue, not only teachers but also policymakers need a common ground. Monolingual language beliefs create a lot of problems when translanguaging gets attempted to be put into action in language classes. The traditional view maintains—strongly believed by policymakers, language teachers, and researchers—that English should always be used exclusively in language classes (Liu & Fang, 2022). For instance, Muguruza et al. (2020) point out that international students and staff are drawn to English-only policies, called EMI, at international schools. They believe it helps local students' skills for opening up for the global world. However, even with these benefits, Muguruza et al. (2020) warn that too much focus only on English in education could be harmful to skill development. They also imply that it might threaten the students' language learning process. Additionally, if strict monolingual rules are insistently enforced, it may actually limit how well students can communicate in English, which causes troubling difficulties (Arslan, 2023).

On the flipside of the coin, current research shows using students' L1 in a judicious way can help them learn English (L2) better and feel proud of learning as an aspiring bilingual (McMillan & Rivers, 2011). According to the aforementioned information, it was speculated that the best way to learn a new language is how young developing bilinguals do it, using their skills in one language to aid progress in the other (Cook, 2005), rather than perusing the natural language acquisition process of babies. In the long run, what language teachers choose is best viewed along a continuum. Teachers could set targets considering student proficiency and task difficulty. They may allow selective L1 use in some parts of lessons, following an *English-mainly rule* (McMillan & Rivers, 2009), while keeping other lessons fully in the TL.

In general, teachers switch into students' first language for three main reasons (Fallas Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015):

1. Helping students understand concepts, explain new grammar and words, teaching new ideas.
2. Managing the classroom and giving feedback.
3. Make students feel comfortable and encouraged by using their first language.

One way to do this is by means of translanguaging pedagogy, undoubtedly. It fends off the notion that each language exists separately and distinctly, debunking the strict monolingual policies; and most importantly, it displays that languages can interact in a person's mind in a dynamic way like current research shows about being multilingual (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a). This change relates to today's social situation being more diverse and people moving around more, which influences views on teaching students with different language backgrounds.

Within the scope of learning a foreign or second language, translation is usually tied to the disproven Grammar Translation Method that aimed to primarily instruct languages simply through translating texts and grasping grammar rules. This teaching style affected the perspective that using the first language can negatively impact classes focused on communicative interaction (Sa'd & Qadermazi, 2015).

These judgements paved the way for the negative impression of L1 in language classes. To verify this, Early Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories heavily advocated for monolingual approaches. In other words, they viewed L1 use as plausibly detrimental to second language development. The pioneering research of Selinker (1972) introduced the concept of *interlanguage*, which characterized L1 interference as a major obstacle in second language learning. He claimed that learners' errors stemmed from L1 transfer, leading to fossilized forms of the TL. This monolingual mindset was further reinforced by Krashen's (1985) *Input Hypothesis*, which emphasized the paramount importance of comprehensible input in the TL. He argued that maximum exposure to English was crucial for successful acquisition, and it was thought that L1 was a completely projected source of negative transfer that could impede the natural progression of language acquisition.

As was already evident, the monolingualism principle embodies using only the TL for teaching without any involvement from students' L1. The goal is for students to think in the TL with less interference from their L1. This principle became widely accepted with the emergence of Direct Method over a century ago (Cummins, 2007). Indeed, this influence is still amongst language education. Correspondingly, it was brought up by Cook (2001) that recent methods do not necessarily ban the L1, but instead act as though its presence does not exist by any means. This points to the hesitation in

employing translanguaging techniques, the reason being that it is still seen as nothing but only a translation tool.

2.3. Code-switching and Translanguaging

The distinction between code-switching and translanguaging is a frequently discussed topic in translanguaging research. While code-switching was initially considered part of translanguaging (García, 2009; García & Sylvan, 2011), later work by García and Wei (2014) emphasized the differences between these concepts:

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)

Referring to Jaspers (2018), it was mentioned that there exists some lack of clarity around whether translanguaging could function as a broad label that involves *code-switching*, *code-mixing*, *code-meshing* to encompass the many manifestations of multilingual and multimodal processes used (Tabatadze, 2021). Jaspers (2018) further added to the probable neutral effect of translanguaging, stating that it may not be as dramatically transformative or socially progressive as proposed. On the contrary, many others support the pedagogical aspect of translanguaging. As asserted by Wei (2018), the term translanguaging appears to have intrigued many people. It has been beneficial when discussing teaching practices, casual social exchanges, cross-modal and multimodal contact, and the linguistic landscape.

Vogel and García (2017) elaborate that code-switching cannot be included in translanguaging because they are “*epistemologically at odds*” at heart (p. 6). Specifically, translanguaging implies a single language system, while code-switching shows the existence of two separate language systems. According to García and Wei (2014), this view was echoed in their assertion that translanguaging distinguishes itself from code-switching between languages because it encompasses more than switching or exchanging between two linguistic codes. Rather, translanguaging involves speakers creating original, hybrid discursive practices that interweave complex, interconnected linguistic features. These emergent language practices cannot be

strictly categorized within traditional definitions of individual, separate languages. Instead, they constitute an integral part of the speakers' extensive, integrated linguistic repertoire.

To illuminate further, it could be alleged that translanguaging, in practice, is commonly carried out through code-switching and translation techniques; however, academics emphasize the distinction between these strategies and translanguaging itself. Code-switching and translation methods take a single-language approach to multilingualism, while the view of translanguaging is the comprehensive multilingual outlook on multilingualism (Tabatadze, 2021).

As a matter of fact, translanguaging is closely tied to code-switching in educational settings based on how code-switching has been commonly seen in classrooms historically (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b). In classroom interactions between teachers and students, they may incorporate different languages into one linguistic expression—a practice known as code-switching. To identify the differences between translanguaging and code-switching, their qualities can be examined. Code-switching is viewed by experts familiar with the idea as a creative and fluid way of expression where multilingual people smoothly move past barriers between languages (Otheguy, García & Reid, 2015). This approach promotes smooth language interaction between speakers and gives them a sense of freedom while showing their language skills. It is worthwhile to carefully reconsider the various definitions of code-switching that have been suggested. Here, Levine (2011) provided two widely accepted definitions of code-switching:

1. Code-switching involves the systematic and alternating use of two or more languages in a single statement or discussion.
2. Code-switching involves the systematic use of linguistic aspects from two or more languages in the same sentence or conversation.

While both definitions see code-switching as purposeful, there is an acknowledged difference between them. The first perspective emphasizes the directional aspect, focusing on the speaker actively shifting from one language to another; on the flip side, the second description deals more with employing multiple tongues simultaneously but does not necessarily specify if the speaker switches verbally or mentally from one to the next, as that movement may not be viewed as crucial details within this definition

(Levine, 2011). Translanguaging is sometimes at risk of being confused with the related but distinct notion of code-switching (Ooi & Aziz, 2021; Otheguy et al., 2015). Additionally, code-switching promotes seeing languages as strictly separate, with monolingualism as the norm, a view that translanguaging rejects.

This monoglossic mindset leads to an imbalanced framing of the languages used by multilingual people, bringing up problems like dominance of some languages over others, elitism, or perceived varying levels of ability (Ooi & Aziz, 2021). Goodman and Tastanbek (2021) illustrated key differences between code-switching and translanguaging below:

Table 1.

Comparison of Code-switching and Translanguaging

Code-switching	Translanguaging
• Separation of languages • Monoglossic ideologies • Emphasizes objective observation of language practices • Practices as indicators of language dominance or proficiency	• Holistic view of languages • Heteroglossic ideologies • Emphasizes subjective understandings of language experiences • Practices as paths to meaning making and identity formation

As summarized in Table 1, they conveyed that translanguaging is more than just switching between languages. Moreover, Hasan et al. (2020) discussed how researchers argue that translanguaging represents a move beyond the notion of separating languages in classrooms. Instead, it advocates for cognitive and social interaction throughout the learning process. More than solely code-switching, translanguaging requires students to exchange, combine, and negotiate meaning and understanding through deeper thinking using multiple languages (Lewis et al., 2012b). By adopting this approach to teaching, educators normalize bilingualism without rigidly dividing the functions of each language, unlike in code-switching (Creese & Blackledge, 2015). Additionally, dynamic translanguaging has been defined as the process by which meaning, experiences, and knowledge are formed by strategically drawing on two languages (Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

Within the classroom, translanguaging approaches take advantage of a student's full language repertoire to boost understanding and academic success. That being so, all the languages a learner knows are used dynamically and collaborate to help organize and make sense of listening, speaking, reading, and learning (Lewis et al., 2012a). Over and above, translanguaging refutes the idea that some ways of using language are better than others. It involves employing language in novel, real-life contexts and approaching social, cultural, and political issues from a fresh perspective. Consequently, it allows discourse to flow freely and enables new social realities to be expressed through language (García & Leiva, 2014). Along the same lines, translanguaging transforms the nature of communication; it creates space for the multilingual language user by bringing together different parts of their history, experiences, and surroundings (Wei, 2011). Once for all, translanguaging moves people beyond viewing languages as separate codes to focusing on an individual's ability to use, create, and understand signs for communication (Creese & Blackledge, 2015).

To reiterate in another way, translanguaging expands past just looking at language structures, focusing mainly on the process of creating meaning. This involves people using their wide-ranging language and communication skills strategically and spontaneously, combining them without keeping languages fixed as separate things—unlike the way code-switching functions. Translanguaging changes things naturally, as it sets up a space where multilingual people can bring together different social and cultural parts as valuable resources when figuring out meaning (Wei, 2011).

2.4. Types of Translanguaging

In this section, it is essential to understand the difference *between pedagogical (classroom) translanguaging and spontaneous (unplanned) translanguaging* (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020b; Huang & Chalmers, 2023; Prilutskaya, 2021). The research reveals a separation between the two types, emphasizing their distinct characteristics and applications. Cenoz and Gorter (2020a) further add these are not just two categories, but exist on a continuum by stating that “it is not a dichotomy with two possibilities but a continuum with pedagogical translanguaging at one end and spontaneous translanguaging at the other” (p. 2).

Spontaneous translanguageing is the fluid, dynamic use of languages from one's abilities. Oppositely, pedagogical translanguageing is about teachers deliberately using planned translanguageing strategies in educational settings through systematic use of students' multilingual skills across subjects (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020b; Juvonen & Källkvist, 2021). Pedagogical translanguageing can also be called *official translanguageing*; on the other hand, spontaneous translanguageing is also known as *natural translanguageing*, which mostly occurs outside educational contexts (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021).

It should be pointed out that both kinds can happen in school settings. That is, there is no rule stating spontaneous or natural translanguageing must happen outside of education, which is an indicator that translanguageing can occur in many different ways anytime, anywhere (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017).

As a supplement to these, Cenoz and Gorter (2022) described two kinds of translanguageing: *strong* and *weak*. The strong kind is very flexible and not impacted much by strict language rules. But the weak kind is often limited by those rules. They argue that it serves as a pathway to deepen understanding of academic texts and access more information. This idea was endorsed by Nagy (2018), who suggested that translanguageing provides opportunities for better comprehension of texts. Additionally, she explained that translanguageing can serve as a connecting bridge, helping students master linguistic and cultural differences; it provides scaffolding for students to narrow the gap between their languages.

Translanguageing was found to be convenient both in communicative settings and teaching of a foreign language in the classroom. Regarding the dynamics of a foreign language classroom, translanguageing was also categorized simply into two distinct types: *teacher-directed translanguageing* and *student-directed translanguageing* (Jones, 2017). As their names clearly suggest, in teacher-directed translanguageing, teachers attempt to plan and carry out various classroom activities with the aid of pedagogical translanguageing techniques, so long as the teacher is the one who started the procedure. They choose suitable reading materials, provide a writing structure, design different activities for students and offer proper instructions (Jones, 2017). Student-directed translanguageing is vice-versa since students take the core function of initiating the

procedure of translanguaging, students become those that actively switch between languages in the activities and lead the teacher to employ translanguaging as well.

In a particularly similar way, translanguaging was split into two sets: *pedagogic translanguaging* and *non-pedagogic translanguaging* (Yoxsimer Paulsrud, 2014). Once more, the latter includes both teaching and learning procedures in the class; oppositely, non-pedagogic translanguaging occurs more in social surroundings as well as classrooms. Supplementarily, and as mentioned above, translanguaging was differentiated as *official translanguaging* and *natural translanguaging*, the first one of which is specially designed and conducted by the teacher, yet natural translanguaging is independent and practiced by individuals without the influence of an authority figure (Williams, 2012).

Regarding translanguaging and its logic behind it, using the full language system in pedagogical settings is seen as advantageous, and helps foster creativity and critical thinking in multilingual learners while maximizing their language capabilities (Huang & Chalmers, 2023). In this process, students get input in one language and are expected to use that info when speaking or writing in the other language (Lewis et al., 2012b).

As touched upon, pedagogical translanguaging is intentional and follows a planned approach, with practices designed carefully by the teacher. Cenoz and Gorter (2020a) showed pedagogical translanguaging happens in different forms, but it also has some main characteristics, listed below:

1. The main aim is improving language skills and academic progress.
2. Translanguaging activities are designed with specific purposes.
3. Its approach embraces fluid language borders for better communication and learning.

From the list, it can be seen that pedagogical translanguaging activities are intentionally done by teachers as part of their lesson plans, each with its own objectives. Translanguaging in teaching blurs the boundaries between languages, allowing for a more fluid integration of linguistic elements. These soft boundaries enable elements from multiple languages to coexist, promoting a utilization of resources derived from multilingual competencies (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a). In this way, Cenoz and Gorter (2022) suggested an integrated curriculum, so that languages can complement and consolidate each other, which allows for a coordinated focus on

the communicative functions and linguistic elements of each language. However, Cenoz (2017) pointed out that the balance between languages can be influenced by teaching methods and regulations governing language use, which may lead to significantly greater exposure to one language compared to the other.

2.5. Sociocultural Theory

The ideas underlying sociocultural theory can be traced back to cultural-historical psychology, a branch of the field established by L.S. Vygotsky in his work from 1924 to 1934 (Ohta, 2017). Vygotsky took a deeply developmental view of thinking, grounded in seeing the human brain/mind as formed over an extended period through interaction with society and culture. This theoretical approach has only fairly recently begun to see usage when considering how people learn additional languages (Ohta, 2017). Vygotsky believed that looking at a child's intelligence through a single test score does not show their full potential. He came up with the concept of *The Zone of Proximal Development*, shortened as ZPD, to better understand what a child is capable of learning with guidance. The ZPD looks at how much growth is possible rather than just current skills. It gives educators a framework for recognizing a child's educational potential (Ohta, 2015). The ZPD was defined by Vygotsky (1978) as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86).

As Vygotsky did not focus much on acquiring additional languages, scholars applying sociocultural theory to language education have pioneered new approaches using these concepts in second/foreign language situations (Lantolf & Thorne 2006, as cited in Ohta, 2017). Vygotsky's sociocultural theory from 1978 alludes close ties between language learning and the role language plays as a mediator. As Foley (2016) noted, language learning does not just come from communicating, but from the experience of interacting with others.

Here is a summary of the key ideas behind Vygotsky's framework:

1. Students build up knowledge through social interaction. What teachers highlight for students will impact what ideas the students develop.

2. A person's development cannot be viewed separately from the social environment because that environment shapes how they think, while development is also part of being in a society. For instance, a student whose teacher focuses on understanding and provides explanations will learn to think differently than one whose teacher mainly gives orders and does not talk much with the student.
3. Development can be guided by learning because unlike those who think learning and growing are the same (behaviorists), Vygotsky believed that thinking changes in deeper ways than just acquiring more facts or skills gradually with time. He felt that through education, a person's thinking becomes more organized and purposeful. Maturation is needed for certain intellectual achievements. For instance, logical reasoning cannot be gained without having language abilities first.
4. Communication plays a key part in how the mind grows and changes, meaning students learn or develop ways of thinking by sharing or applying them when communicating with others. Not until going through this time of shared experiences can the learner internalize and use the thinking processes separately on their own.
5. All new learning happens within each student's zone of proximal development. This ZPD idea represents an important concept tied to the situations where studying takes place or can happen. Simply put, it refers to learning only occurring when presented with a slightly challenging task or slightly unfamiliar info/ideas that are just outside a person's current skills or knowledge.

In accordance with this, *scaffolding* is a metaphor for supporting students while teaching them something. It stems from the real exterior structure that surrounds a building under construction, mainly for painting the building. The term was first used by Bruner and Sherwood (1976), whilst examining the interaction between a mother and her child playing peekaboo. In case of need, the mother stepped in and helped her child, hence the term scaffolding originated. In the same year, the term was also evident in another work of Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976), describing the interaction of parents and their children. The timely assistance with the intent of giving support to children during problem-solving tasks was defined as a form of scaffolding, as well. Scaffolding to support student learning can happen through peer interactions set up by

the teacher, responsive support from the teacher based on student input during the lesson, or by using prompts and materials the teacher prepared beforehand (Daniel, Jiménez, Pray & Pacheco, 2019). While guiding students through lessons, teachers think about how each activity lays the foundation for what comes afterward. In the same sense, scaffolding acts as a boost for students. It can be prosecuted by helping the students at the very first steps of teaching, then reducing the help inch by inch until the student becomes autonomous enough to fulfill the specific task (Gonulal & Loewen, 2018). Scaffolding has evolved continuously, starting from the interactions between parent and child and eventually finding its way into the classroom (Hammond & Gibbons, 2001). Although many assume the famous term *scaffolding* with Vygotsky, he was not the one who coined it. As disclosed earlier, Vygotsky, however, introduced what he called *The Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD). The reason why the ZPD and scaffolding are commonly used together is the fact that the two terms, in fact, are very closely related to each other (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976).

Taking this theory and its components into consideration, the ZPD can be illustrated and summarized below with the related figure below:

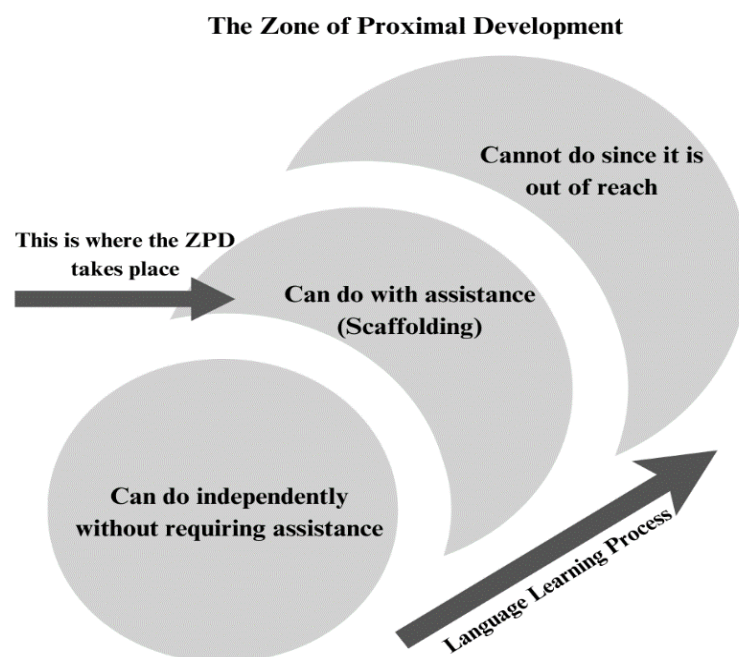


Figure 1. The Zone of Proximal Development

It could be postulated that the assistance part in the ZPD is related to scaffolding, as Figure 1 indicates. As seen above, the ZPD represents three layers: what the learners can do by themselves, what the learners can do with help, what the learners cannot do even with help (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). In other words, and connecting with an important part of Vygotsky's (1987) ideas, the concept of ZPD links to the need for teachers to help students grow in these areas. The ZPD is described as the difference between what someone knows or can do by themselves compared to what they could achieve with some help. Teachers should give step-by-step help to assist learners as they go through their own ZPD (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). Using teaching strategies in this way allows students' individual needs during lessons, making them more independent and autonomous learners than they were before. Nonetheless, the ZPD and scaffolding ought not to be seen as simply the teacher helping students finish an assignment or as any type of teaching or assistance. They happen when students participate together in an activity and build language skills as a group or with their teacher. The ZPD and scaffolding must occur when it is useful and be short-term, meaning that it should happen at the time understanding is required but also end once enough support is provided to allow for more self-reliant learning (Mercer, 2008).

2.5.1. Translanguaging as scaffolding. In bilingual classroom environments, the way languages are used deserves attention. This is because teachers and students intentionally try to derive benefit from their diverse communication abilities and language skills during classroom interactions and teaching activities (Feller & Vaughan, 2018). The idea of translanguaging comes into play when language and communication are viewed interconnectedly along in a continuum since it stresses the relations of languages and linguistic elements, such as multimodality. Teachers and students can draw from various points throughout their linguistic development. This way, constructing meaning and using languages inside and outside the classroom becomes feasible (Feller, 2020). Translanguaging has a pedagogical part in the ZPD. Although it may seem the opposite, as long as language is used meaningfully and contextually appropriate, linguistic features get embedded in students' repository, notwithstanding how the language comes across as unaccustomed (Feller, 2020). Scaffolding is esteemed as an effective technique during this measure. Utilizing two

languages strategically in the classroom may also work as a way to provide appropriate scaffolding for the students through that same process of translanguaging. Giving this type of support is key in classrooms where translanguaging happens because whether working alone or in groups, the students need vocabulary specific to the subject in order to learn that content well. If using two languages skillfully in class is viewed as an effective teaching method, it can significantly enrich comprehension of students and engagement with the class materials (Fennema-Bloom 2009).

Providing that timely scaffolding through translanguaging gives students a better shot at grasping the concepts being taught. Then, teachers may see that purposefully switching between languages can help students learn both the subject material and language skills more effectively. By using translanguaging as a form of scaffolding, it can increase students' ability to understand the lesson through the support given right when they need it most (García & Wei, 2014).

When teachers use translanguaging as a scaffolding technique, it allows students to access the subject content more fully, whether it is the material they are reading, writing about, or discussing verbally. Students absolutely need to build competency with terms and phrasing particular to that subject if they are going to comprehend everything properly (Dalton-Puffer 2007).

Using translanguaging in the classroom is not simply nonstop, word-for-word translation; rather, it is a strategic approach (Fennema-Bloom, 2009). Once students have a solid grasp of specific vocabulary or concepts, the teacher does not need to continue providing scaffolding for that particular language anymore. The translanguaging support can be gradually phased out once it is no longer necessary. Additionally, scaffolding can reinforce students' existing understanding in their native language while also encouraging them to develop their skills in English. The ultimate goal is for students to become equally proficient in both languages. This process can be observed when students themselves use translanguaging, such as seeking clarification on certain terms or switching between languages during group work.

2.6. Pedagogical Translanguaging

The concept of translanguaging, which concerns more than just hybrid language use, can serve as an important communication tool for self-regulation. Scholars such as García and Wei (2014), Canagarajah (2011), and Beres (2015) view translanguaging not just as switching between languages or merging them, but as tapping into a person's complete language skills and knowledge to convey information.

Using translanguaging in teaching aims to strengthen learning by using students' full language skills, rather than ignoring what they know from being multilingual with different language backgrounds and education (García & Wei, 2014). It recognizes languages have boundaries but sees them as flexible. This transforms traditional ideas that languages are totally separate (Canagarajah, 2011). Another difference is it goes beyond just alternating between two languages, as was done in Wales (Lewis et al., 2012b). Teachers can choose from various strategies, incorporating elements from several languages. It is also distinct from the spontaneous translanguaging that students naturally engage in, as pedagogical translanguaging is intentionally planned for language or subject learning. However, spontaneous language practices can still be incorporated into lessons to improve students' understanding of real-world multilingual communication (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a).

The use of translanguaging in language teaching has assisted normalization of bilingual practices and has inspired new teaching methods that promote flexible language use in learning environments (Prilutskaya, 2021). Additionally, translanguaging, being an interactive theory of language and multilingualism, emphasizes practical application. Its integration shifts focus from specific languages to strategic communication practices in both theory and practice (Donley, 2022). This fits well with classrooms aiming for communicative skills. Similarly, translanguaging as a teaching approach can support the goals of a language lesson. By viewing communication practices as processes, rather than treating languages as fixed grammars, multilingualism is recognized as a dynamic and creative method of meaning-making (Donley, 2022). Overall, this process is called *linguaging*. At a foundational social level, language cannot be looked upon as an abstract symbolic system representing group identity, but as a socially situated process focused on real communication (Hall, 2020). Language involves more than straightforward

transmission of meaning; it actively performs actions and signals relationships, shaping social reality through speech acts and expressing social alignment or distinction through identity. Thus, language cardinally shapes social interactions and the practices they entail (Hall, 2020). On the grounds of these, the main role of the teacher is to create *translanguaging spaces* where students negotiate and build academic understanding collaboratively using all their languages (García & Wei, 2014). In these spaces, students and teachers go beyond just classroom language structures, bringing outside topics in as well.

2.7. Assets and Possible Liabilities of Translanguaging

Translanguaging for pedagogical goals has many benefits and is closely linked to educational settings. Its flexible traits can improve all four language skills, while also focusing on different levels like phonetics, pragmatics, and lexis (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022; Nagy, 2018). It also allows using native language to help understanding gaps, build knowledge in specific areas, recasting, and even providing information with no mutuality (Zhang & Wei, 2021). In conformity with these, translanguaging takes a “*multimodal social semiotic view*”, based on how users interpret and use different signs for meaningful interactions in diverse contexts (Wei, 2018).

Although translanguaging has gained popularity in educational contexts, it is not without its cautionary voices. Even with advantages, some scholars are concerned and warn against overusing translanguaging, as it may blur language boundaries hyperbolically, though it is seen as a valuable resource (Cenoz, 2017). Likewise, while discussing translanguaging in the classroom, Jaspers (2018) mentioned that even with the benefits, it is important to always question bringing excessive attention to the practice. Additionally, using students’ first language in language lessons is often viewed as an impediment and detrimental effect rather than beneficial (Cummins, 2007; Lin, 2015, as cited in Liu & Fang, 2022). Hence, fostering equal opportunities requires fully leveraging translanguaging practices to enhance students’ comprehension in educational settings is necessary (Yuan & Yang, 2020). Luckily, more sociolinguistic views are entering modern language teaching methods. However, the multilingual and multicultural nature of translanguaging often conflicts with

policies such as school language policies or EMI policies in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) classrooms (Lin & He, 2017).

During classroom lessons, some students may unintentionally slip into using their first languages, especially when working with others. Liu and Fang (2022) defined this concept as “*interpersonal relations*.” Building such connections allows for expressing true identities and creating sincere atmospheres. The use of any language besides the one being taught is discouraged in these contexts that focus on just one language. These small nuances demonstrate how translanguaging provides an opportunity for scaffolding, despite the monolingual policies. For language instructors, having very little or no flexibility in teaching methods can feel burdensome and it is worth considering occasional uses of translanguaging to meet needs. Therefore, Yuan and Yang (2020) point to the developmental aspect of translanguaging as in how it can shape cognitions of teachers, practices, and professional identities.

According to Baker (2006, p. 297), four possible advantages of translanguaging pedagogy could be ascertained, and these are listed below:

1. Translanguaging may help students understand the topic effectively and more fully. Reading and talking about a topic in one language, then writing about it in another language means they have to truly absorb the topic.
2. The translanguaging process may help students improve reading and writing in their weaker language. Without it, students might do a big project in their stronger language and then only do easy tasks in their weaker language. Trying to develop reading and writing skills in both languages through translanguaging could lead to being good at both languages.
3. Using two languages can help the home and schoolwork together. If children can talk to parents in their usual language about schoolwork, parents can help children with schoolwork.
4. Translanguaging can help combine the literacy of less practiced learners with more proficient ones.

In a word, these assets exhibit the potential of translanguaging to create a more inclusive and effective learning environment that strengthens students’ linguistic resources, in spite of the perceived liabilities.

2.8. Critical Multilingualism

Critical approaches to multilingualism are in defiance of traditional conceptions of language learning and use by inspecting how language practices are embedded within more expansive social, political, and power relations. As Pennycook (2010) argued in his book, multilingual practices must be understood within their sociopolitical contexts, where language choices and policies often reflect and reproduce existing power hierarchies. This critical perspective questions the notion of languages as discrete, bounded systems and instead views them as social constructs shaped by historical, political, and economic forces.

The implications of this critical conception manifest concretely in educational settings. For instance, Menken and García (2010) attested how restrictive language policies in schools often marginalize multilingual students' linguistic resources and cultural identities. This marginalization occurs through what Flores and Rosa (2015) term *raciolinguistic ideologies*—the perspectives that conflate certain language practices with racial and cultural deficits. Their work specifically peruses how seemingly neutral language policies can reproduce racial hierarchies in educational contexts.

In classroom practices, critical multilingualism refutes what Creese and Blackledge (2010) describe as *separate bilingualism*, the practice of strictly separating languages in educational spaces. Instead, they endorse flexible bilingual pedagogy that recognizes and validates students' full linguistic repertoires. This approach has been particularly influential in reconceptualizing language education programs. Moreover, the critical multilingual perspective also is in disagreement with *parallel monolingualism*, which is the assumption that multilinguals should develop and maintain separate, bounded competencies in each of their languages (Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

García and Wei (2014) further advance this critical stance by highlighting how traditional approaches to multilingualism often perpetuate linguistic hierarchies and marginalize minority language practices. They argue that the very concept of *named languages* (such as English, Spanish, or Mandarin) is a social construct that serves political rather than linguistic purposes. This understanding has significant implications for language education, chiefly in contexts where certain languages hold more prestige than others. Furthermore, critical multilingualism pays attention to how

language ideologies intersect with issues of identity, power, and inequalities. May (2014) discusses how language policies and practices often reflect societal inequalities and can either perpetuate or disrupt existing power structures. This critical lens reveals how seemingly neutral language education policies can actually reproduce social inequalities by privileging certain linguistic practices while marginalizing others.

2.9. Previous Studies on Translanguaging

The existing research has looked into translanguaging pedagogy among different types of educational settings, teachers' and lecturers' perspectives, students' views, some stakeholder perspectives, and many geographical contexts. Amidst them all, numerous studies have investigated translanguaging practices and perceptions within EMI programs, centering upon students' and lecturers' opinions, and there were also some studies in the ESL context as well. Consequently, the careful search of the literature showed that there appears to be a relatively smaller direct attention to EFL classrooms, particularly from the viewpoint of EFL teachers. Nevertheless, it was salient that the extant literature provided expedient enlightenments on the employment of translanguaging, as well as how it is perceived and put to good use in multilingual and bilingual educational environments. However, as stated, the literature tended to emphasize EMI contexts more than EFL settings. Even if the found studies were to revolve around EFL, they were mostly about students; the studies in which the participants were only EFL teachers had a shortage in numbers. Therefore, this section aimed to synthesize the key findings from prior studies, and highlights the further research areas that target the experiences and perceptions of EFL teachers regarding translanguaging. Finally, the section is divided into two parts: the former presents the studies implemented abroad, and the latter presents the studies implemented in Türkiye. Both of the parts have attempted to follow a logical thematic cohesion for flow and to make comparisons.

2.9.1. Previous studies conducted abroad. It is very important before starting this research to look at past literature on how English language teachers feel about translanguaging and how they use it in their classrooms. Embarking on with the first study that emphasized teacher attitudes and the conflict between institutional policies

and classroom practices, Doiz and Lasagabaster (2017) implemented a qualitative study using focus group discussions with an aspiration to find out the teachers' beliefs about putting translanguaging into practice in an EMI university courses in the Basque Autonomous Community, Spain. Three focus group discussions took place with 13 EMI teachers from different faculties, including teachers from engineering, social sciences, and economics faculties. As an extra, the average of 17.8 years of teaching experience indicate their expertise in EMI. The gathered data was analyzed by virtue of qualitative content analysis. The findings unveiled that their beliefs ranged from non-acceptance to acceptance of mother tongue use, and the majority of whom supported a virtual position of English-only policy. They acknowledged the functions of translanguaging and these were: helping comprehension, scaffolding, increasing interaction and comfort, and managing the time more effectively. But their practices differed slightly, showing occasional L1 use in practice despite beliefs. Thus, contradictions are in clear sight. It could be concluded that there is an urgency for training on the usefulness of translanguaging to break away from persistent monolingual ideologies. Among these things, the practices of a small fraction of teachers from a single university context led to limitations and might decrease the impact of the study. Lastly, awareness of balanced language/content focus can be considered for further implications, and classroom observations with more participants in more contexts could be incorporated for comparison.

In parallel, showing ESL teachers' struggles with English-only policy pressures, Burton and Rajendram (2019) did a qualitative research study using in-depth interviews with semi-structured questions with five ESL teachers at a Canadian college. The language teachers felt constant pressure from administrators, students, and coworkers to only use English in class, even though there was no official English-only policy. Yet, some contradictions happened, but not as much as the previously mentioned study. The results showed these ESL teachers did not see translanguaging as useful in the classroom, instead they thought of it as a barrier to learning English. There was reluctance even among those who saw possible benefits, viewing it more as a temporary solution, especially for less proficient students. The main goal was to provide students as much English exposure as possible to help them become almost native speakers. This position emphasizes the monolingual ideology these educators generally held. Even from the students' side, it was implied that there was a perceived

unwillingness towards L2 use. Notwithstanding, Burton and Rajendram (2019) claimed that this approach ignores the linguistic identities of international students.

On a similar line, to express the contradictions between English language teachers' attitudes and self-reported pedagogical practices, Almayez (2022) performed a study in a Saudi university. Once more, a tension to some extent between English-policy and pedagogical practices could be seen. This mixed methods research, which had a questionnaire for quantitative data, and open-ended questions for qualitative data, was administered to 101 EFL teachers. The findings confirmed that teachers had positive attitudes but reported pedagogical practices were not in agreement with each other because of the institutional English-only policies and lack of guidance on implementation. To boot, the teachers received aid from translanguageing techniques when reinforcing learning, participation, scaffolding, and rapport building. The fact that their reported classroom practices did not correlate with their attitudes can be attributed to harsh language policies. On this account, it could be proposed that inclusive language policies should be put in force to avoid these sorts of conflicts.

Contrasting with the belief and practice gap with the first three studies, Zhang and Wei (2021) did a qualitative longitudinal study where translanguageing was applied in a consistent way with teacher beliefs, and they carefully documented their own teaching methods in the classroom, unlike the previous research described. The authors worked as English teachers at a Chinese university, spending a semester fully embedded in the educational setting which used English as the language of instruction. They video recorded class sessions, closely reviewed the footage, and wrote down the exchanges to identify four key functional ways translanguageing was used. This provided an inside perspective compared to prior studies that interviewed teachers from the outside. The research showed that teachers used the students' first language for recasting, explaining domain-specific and localized knowledge. Additionally, having the first language inserted in the class acted as a supplementary tool for teaching the second language. The research found that teachers really thought translanguageing was advantageous and there was no difference in what they believed and how they taught. The teachers also chose not to follow the school's rule of English-only policy; instead, they moved between languages to help all the students better grasp what was being taught. Rather than only helping kids who knew less, the method aimed to pass on

information by linking to what the class already knew. In other words, the aim was to facilitate the delivery of content with local knowledge. While there were efforts made, the integrity of the study could be uncertain since those who were involved in conducting the research were also the ones taking part in it.

In a similar vein, an EMI study was put forth by Branka and Molino (2022), inspecting classes of an EMI university in five different European countries, which are Croatia, Denmark, Italy, Spain, and Netherlands. In total, 30 EMI lecturers from various disciplines took part in the study. They were interviewed and for good measure, classes were video-recorded, along with jotting down field notes. Quantitative corpus analysis was performed while analyzing the recordings of lectures. Hence, this mixed methods research focused upon lecturers' language policies and classroom practices regarding English and other languages. Both semi-structured interviews and video-recordings had 30 entries separately. Referring to findings, the lecturers reported flexibility in language use depending on context/needs English used for internationalization but other languages for scaffolding. As distinct from studies that contain contradictions, the perceptions of participants in this research correlated with their observed classroom practices. During the time of translanguaging, scaffolding for comprehension, building knowledge, inspiration for participation, expressing identity, and accommodation of student-initiated language were able to be observed. It is almost certain that translanguaging pays dividends to learning, yet careful planning might be needed. Besides, student factors should be considered in language policies. Despite these, small sample size and self-reported data could be linked up with limitations.

Apart from these detailed studies, there were also studies with predominant positive perceptions from both the students' and teachers' end. The study by Fang and Liu (2020) was put forth in an attempt to investigate the translanguaging practices and attitudes of teachers and students at a Chinese university; in particular, to see the translanguaging's role in engagement and comprehension. The focus was on both EFL and EMI classes. The study adopted a mixed methods approach by incorporating classroom observations, interviews and a questionnaire. By the looks of it, it could be deduced that the amount of data was rich enough. In total, five female teachers and 162 university students participated, particularly from an area called Guangdong, China. Thanks to the rich data, it was found that teachers got help from translanguaging

to explain various concepts, to check comprehension, localize content, reinforce the quality of instruction, manage the class, and even to build rapport. On the other hand, the questionnaire, which was directed to students, revealed that the general attitudes were mostly neutral to positive towards translanguaging. Better yet, the students appreciated the benefits of translanguaging for learning. Recognizing the benefits of translanguaging even more, teachers embraced translanguaging based upon interview findings while supporting its functions and contextual advantages such as its use according to student proficiency. As for stakeholders, they concluded that they generally supported translanguaging, especially for scaffolding. But still, monolingual policies and overuse of translanguaging concerned them to some extent. Limitations were present in the study, due to small student samples and lack of multimodal elements. As a consequence, it could be asserted that developing systematic translanguaging pedagogy to evolve beliefs and address pressures between language policies and actual needs can work out.

Along the same line, Okoye and Ambale (2023) did a mixed methods study and researched on the use of translanguaging pedagogy in one Thai EFL secondary school classroom, in which English is used as the medium of instruction. Similarly, the impact of translanguaging on students' content learning and English language development was examined. The quantitative part of the study was carried through questionnaires and it was completed by 36 Thai EFL students. The qualitative section of the study had semi-structured interviews. And thus, to gain deeper understanding, 10 students were chosen to be interviewed later. The results showed that the majority of the students had positive perceptions towards using their L1 and L2 together. The author also found that translanguaging improved students' understanding of class content, motivated them to participate in class, and it added up to their English skills. It is declarable that the findings provide assistance for allowing the strategic use of translanguaging in EFL classrooms in Thailand. Nonetheless, the small sample size and single school setting are highly indicative of limitation. So, generalizing the results might not be possible.

Following these studies, although the author never mentioned the term directly, a mixed methods study by Pinto (2020) was enacted, by applying an online questionnaire, which had quantitative and qualitative sections, to 31 Chinese teachers

teaching Portuguese as a foreign language. The researcher aimed to seek out Chinese university teachers' attitudes towards translanguaging. Teachers had positive feelings for translanguaging and they believed that it improves language learning. Namely, they used students' L1 frequently for various purposes like explaining concepts, classroom management, ensuring understanding and enabling participation of all students. The study had its limitations, particularly for having small sample size and lacking classroom observations or interviews. All in all, teachers were aware of the advantages of translanguaging, yet some discrepancies exist between their beliefs and practices due to traditional teaching approaches. Together with this, based on this study, it could be possible that translanguaging can facilitate learning if used judiciously. This was pointed out by the author, stating that excessive use could be detrimental in perceiving the TL.

To address regional applications of translanguaging, some studies provided comparative understanding about specific educational settings that influence attitudes and practices. Henceforth, Mbrimi-Hungwe (2019) wanted to explore science lecturers' perceptions of translanguaging at Sefako Makgatho University of Health Sciences, a multilingual university in South Africa. Open-ended questionnaires were administered to 11 lecturers (six male, five female) from assorted departments; hence, a qualitative study is in view. The author attained that lecturers; as a matter of fact, recognized the assets of translanguaging but they were concerned about assessment of English. The functions of translanguaging contained helping with comprehension, interaction, comfort, and time management. Another finding was that lecturers permitted the use of translanguaging during group discussions, yet they still insisted on the use of English for teaching. Once again, the author figured out that there was a need for training some lecturers, such as in introducing translanguaging in the language policy. The small sample size and single institutional context limit the generalizability of this research.

In a similar way, with the object of exploring EFL teachers' perspectives of translanguaging, Witari and Sukamto (2023) presided over a qualitative case study by using in-depth interviews. The practices of translanguaging were attempted to be ascertained in Indonesian EFL classrooms across different regions. The study specifically examined how four Indonesian EFL teachers viewed translanguaging

pedagogy, two of whom were from formal education and the rest was from informal settings and their experiences varied from 7 to 17 years. These teachers recognized that translanguaging can be used for supporting learning, increasing interaction and participation in the classroom. Moreover, the research identified four main pedagogical issues from analysis and generally found teachers had positive views of translanguaging, in spite of the varying understanding of the notion. As it can be grasped easily, the limitations of the study are abundantly clear since it has a small sample size and following a single method may hinder generalizability, even regional representation was limited. Regardless, the findings supply support for strategic use of translanguaging depending upon classroom contexts and learner profiles, exclusively in Indonesia. This negativity can be solved with further research with larger and more diverse participants as they can generate deeper understanding of translanguaging.

Likewise, Raja, Suparno and Ngadiso (2022) did a qualitative case study, attempting to investigate Indonesian EFL teachers' attitudes towards translanguaging and how it is practiced in classrooms. As distinct from the previous Indonesian study that lacked rich data collection methods, this one had questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and classroom observations. However, identically, the data was collected from four EFL teachers as well, which is a limitation with regard to the number of participants. As per usual, the teachers had positive attitudes towards translanguaging when used reasonably since they could use it for various purposes such as explanations, instructions, discussions, ensuring understanding, and classroom management.

Moving forward, to dissect the social and cognitive effects of translanguaging on students, a detailed qualitative case study of translanguaging pedagogy was conducted by Constantine (2023), using classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews and semi-structured interviews to collect abundant data. Five multilingual EFL students aged 17 to 18 years from various linguistic backgrounds were chosen as participants, who were also studying at a Swedish upper secondary school. As distinct from mentioned studies, the students reviewed their own classroom interactions via watching video recordings of themselves. The researcher observed that students used translanguaging flexibly, sometimes switching between two to three languages to scaffold understanding and participate in lessons to complete tasks. In addition to these, the students also employed translanguaging for socializing and to level with

others. Granted that the study does not have teachers' perceptions, it highlights the need for teachers to recognize students' linguistic repertoires to facilitate participation and understanding. Once more, these whole situations showed that by recognizing students' whole linguistic repertoires, translanguaging can underpin a more inclusive and engaging learning environment.

In this vein, in his study, Shabir (2017) indicated that student-teachers support judicious L1 use in the classroom, especially for social and cognitive aspects, in an effort to give explanations and instructions, ensuring classroom management, helping with difficult concepts, as well as promoting discussions. However, he suggested not to alternate between languages when teaching vocabulary or translating texts. His goal was to find out EFL student-teachers' beliefs about using mother language in classrooms across different contexts and teaching levels globally. The data was collected from 23 student-teachers in a Master's TESOL program in Australia with varying backgrounds and teaching experience. He came to this conclusion by following a quantitative approach using a closed-ended questionnaire with 4-point Likert scale responses. It was inferred that teachers recognize the benefits of switching between languages and using L1, but disagreements exist due to different teaching contexts; therefore, limited L1 use may be supported. The study also emphasized that students' needs and proficiencies are big factors in translanguaging. Altogether, it may be said that the small sample size weakens the study slightly. As an aside, among the studies touched upon here, this research is only a quantitative study; thus, using mixed methods can yield more data for further research.

Lastly, offering a panoramic perspective on EMI preferences and translanguaging support comparing to the other studies, Chicherina and Strelkova (2023) conducted a comprehensive quantitative study to get a sight of perceptions of EMI and language instruction by deploying the questionnaire to 534 students and 47 teachers from non-linguistic programs across different disciplines at two Russian universities. The fundamental findings include that all groups place a high value on EMI. Plus, even though EMI was favored, a preference for translanguaging over English-only by all groups was also tracked. Having said this, students with more English experience were more supportive of EMI with minimized mother tongue in classes. When asked, it was discovered that the teachers opt for translanguaging at times for scaffolding learning,

building knowledge, and terminology introduction. As a result, translanguaging benefits learning if carefully planned, and while doing so, considering varied student preferences and proficiency while planning policies is essential. As the author noted, allowing translanguaging but minimizing L1 use might help language learning even better, which may be conducive to judicious use as previous studies mentioned several times.

2.9.2. Previous studies conducted in the Turkish context. In recognition of the Turkish context of translanguaging, the Turkish studies were also grouped efficiently. Beginning with the studies that highlight the difficulties teachers face owing to institutional policies and the impact of English-only policy, Yuvayapan (2019) pursued a study to investigate the teachers' perceptions and practices by recruiting 50 EFL teachers from public and private schools to complete questionnaires about using translanguaging and observing five classrooms. They also interviewed 10 teachers to understand their practices and beliefs better and acutely. This research, using a mixed method approach, found translanguaging happened naturally in classrooms even if some teachers were not aware of it. The benefits of translanguaging came up depending on situations; the most prominent one was assisting students with lower proficiencies, but some teachers encountered problems because school administrations want only one language to be used. Therefore, many teachers got mixed up because of the pressure of school administration on being faithful to the English-only policy, while also receiving support from the colleagues who promoted translanguaging, which led to confusion among the teachers. Although the study showed these teachers' ideas about translanguaging often did not match their classroom practices, they recognized prospective gains when done correctly.

Similarly, in her master's thesis, Küçük (2018) inquired about the translanguaging practices within the context of EMI at Adana Science and Technology University, focusing on first-year students' and lecturers' experiences and attitudes. Its objectives were to identify language-related challenges faced by EMI students, understand their attitudes toward translanguaging as a learning strategy, analyze the translanguaging strategies students use, discover lecturers' views on translanguaging as both a teaching and learning tool, and determine the specific purposes for which lecturers implement

translanguaging in content courses. Through a mixed methods approach, the researcher implemented questionnaires, interviews, and observations. The findings unveiled that students most frequently struggle with limited technical vocabulary, accent, and pronunciation, hindering content learning and communication. In spite of language policies, both students and lecturers widely use translanguaging: lecturers adopt an optimal approach, favoring a balanced use of English and the students' L1, while students take a maximal stance, endorsing English use but recognizing translanguaging's benefits concurrently. The central idea of the thesis was that translanguaging aids students in understanding complex content through scaffolding, translation, bilingual materials, and L1 note-taking. Yet, in respect of lecturers, they principally use it to clarify concepts, explain terminology, engage students in the lesson, and provide support by building rapport with the students.

Several studies were undertaken by Karakaş and also his colleagues, starting with the first one in a Turkish EMI setting, Karakaş (2016) probed 13 Turkish lecturers' outlooks on the use of L1 in EMI courses from three Turkish EMI universities, representing a range of disciplines. The main aim was to have a grasp on whether and why Turkish might be used alongside English and how institutional language policies impact lecturers' choices. As distinct from many other studies, this study was a case study, with semi-structured interviews performed via Skype software. As a result of the qualitative content analysis, there were either opposing or supporting voices for translanguaging. For instance, Turkish use was discouraged by some lecturers because of institutional policies, discipline-specific needs (e.g., career relevance of English), and international students' presence. As opposed to this, some lecturers supported translanguaging on condition that it is limitedly employed when trying to enhance comprehension, promoting fairness, and facilitating relevant discussions. The study displayed that there is a need to re-evaluate rigid EMI policies to accommodate a more responsive bilingual approach; and while doing so, it was proposed that lecturers' opinions in language policy-making should also be included as they directly influence classroom practices and student learning experiences at first hand.

Moving on to the studies that examined how translanguaging operates in content-specific and technical contexts, Genc, Yuksel and Curle (2023) carried out a qualitative study researching spontaneous translanguaging practices employed by lecturers in

EMI classes at technical university in Türkiye. The functions of translanguageing were aimed to be discovered in those classes. The functions emerged by means of classroom observations and video recordings. In the study, seven male lecturers from different departments volunteered. A total of 18 hours of EMI lectures was collected, and eight different classes were recorded, then analyzed. The major findings include content transmission functions of translanguageing such as explaining concepts, probing questions, and presenting new and unfamiliar content to students. Additionally, maintaining classroom routines was another commonly used function. The mainly highlighted function and finding were on transmission of content in EMI settings. However, some limitations can be seen in the study. Its sample size was rather small and the inability to record multimodal elements weakens the study, and this was because of recording restrictions. The end takeaway could be that increasing awareness of translanguageing as a tool for teaching among EMI lecturers; in contrast, overly using the first language should be avoided to sustain the main intention of EMI and language teaching.

In parallel, being an exhaustive doctoral thesis, Kavak (2021) conducted a mixed methods research on the translanguageing practices within EMI at Turkish universities, focusing on Engineering and English Literature courses. In the thesis, how translanguageing is used by students and lecturers, its functions, and participants' attitudes were examined. The data were gathered through audio recordings of classroom interactions, semi-structured interviews, Likert-type questionnaires, and non-participant classroom observations. Consequently, the findings showed that translanguageing is common across disciplines but differed by context: in Engineering, it primarily supported comprehension of technical content, with L1 used to clarify complex concepts, explain terminology, and manage classroom dynamics; in English Literature, translanguageing aided discussions, debates, and the analysis of complex literary ideas. To be specific, Engineering lecturers generally maintain an English-only approach for professional alignment, but still acknowledge L1's role in helping understanding; conversely, English Literature lecturers and students embraced a more versatile standpoint, where they regarded translanguageing as essential for language-heavy coursework. In summary, the study proposed that rigorous EMI policies may restrict content mastery. However, a reasonable L1 use could increase student engagement with the subjects and reduce excessive cognitive load. As a last point, the

author stated some limitations, including the study's focus on two institutions and reliance on self-reported data, which may affect generalizability. In brief, spanning both disciplines, it is reasonable to assert that translanguaging is rather advantageous, and can facilitate clarification in content-intensive courses, increase student engagement, develop comprehension and help students excel academically overall.

Proceeding to another similar study based on a master's thesis, Kirkgöz et al. (2023) published an article, examining translanguaging practices in another EMI setting with 10 teachers and 300 students, where she compared practices across two disciplines, one being English Language and Literature (ELL) and the other being Food Sciences (FS). The researcher attempted to find out and assess how translanguaging may vary based on disciplinary needs. The study followed an all-embracing qualitative structure, which involved classroom observations and audio recordings. The compiled data was analyzed using Conversation Analysis (CA), and focused on linguistic practices in context. In total, 44 hours of classes were observed, and 12 hours were audio-recorded. This thick amount of data demonstrated that translanguaging was frequently employed in both disciplines; however, the purposes and frequencies showed an alternation. Both disciplines used translanguaging to clarify content and manage classrooms; at the same time, L2 remained the primary language, with key terminology often taught in L2. Yet, ELL classes contained more student-initiated translanguaging for discussions, whereas FS classes used translanguaging for complex content explanations. Apart from these, translanguaging fulfilled a list of several functions such as scaffolding complex concepts, supporting comprehension, classroom management, and socio-emotional purposes like humor. The study concluded that EMI in Türkiye can derive from adaptable multilingual policies that acknowledge translanguaging as a worthy tool, especially in content-heavy disciplines.

The last two studies were tied with student perspectives more, laying stress on the benefits of translanguaging for engagement and learning outcomes. Firstly, Karabulut (2022) carried out a mixed methods study with a convergent parallel design. The main aim was to implement planned translanguaging pedagogy in writing classes and analyze its impact on developing learners' writing skills in English. The design of the study required three existing groups, two being the experimental and one being the control group. Also, pre-tests and post-tests were administered in the form of writing

tasks, and in total, four in-class writing tasks were collected from the three groups over the semester. As regards to gathering the perceptions of the participants, a questionnaire was used. It is pertinent to mention that the participants were 63 Turkish learners of English enrolled in an English preparation program. The findings uncovered that the translanguaging pedagogy group significantly outperformed the other two groups and the participants viewed translanguaging pedagogy positively and beneficial. The functions of translanguaging in this context was mediating cognition and improving TL skills, writing in particular.

In tandem, Karakaş (2023) explored how translanguaging affects Turkish university students, with the focus being on their practices and what functions they serve. As an extra, the students' orientations toward bilingual practices in monolingual language policies were scrutinized. His qualitative study drew on semi-structured interviews with 15 students from three Turkish universities. Since these participants were purposefully selected to represent different disciplinary backgrounds, the study yielded more generalizable data. The findings showed that students largely support an optimal position of translanguaging, which meant that they valued the inclusion of L1 alongside L2. Not only this, the findings revealed that translanguaging was regarded as beneficial for comprehension and socio-emotional support. It was also noted that L1 can scaffold learning and manage classroom dynamics effectively. On the other hand, some lecturers also delivered a number of opinions, and many lecturers hold a virtual position, enforcing an English-only policy, fundamentally owing to institutional pressures or the presence of international students. A little portion of lecturers adopted a maximal approach, using L1 sparingly for complex explanations. All in all, the study suggested that mandatory English-only policies in EMI may hinder content comprehension and emotional engagement. Furthermore, the study clearly supports multilingualism that allows multipurpose language practices, especially in settings where L1 speakers are in majority.

In summary, the bulk of research indicates that translanguaging is a beneficial pedagogical tool for enhancing comprehension, content learning, and classroom interaction across various contexts. Despite positive attitudes, there is often a gap between beliefs and actual practices, influenced by institutional policies and traditional teaching approaches. The literature was also deprived of investigating and focusing

solely on EFL teachers' perceptions and practices. Under this circumstance, to compensate for this, research revolving around universities, EMI lecturers, beliefs and opinions of students were also needed to be included in this literature review section. Finally, common limitations such as small sample sizes and lack of multimodal data suggest an appeal for larger, more comprehensive studies. To more proficiently understand and implement translanguaging in K-12 educational settings, this thesis will try to fill that gap, and embark on scrutinizing the perceptions and practices of EFL teachers and the classroom functions of translanguaging will be attempted to be unearthed.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the foundational methodology employed in the present study, consisting of six sections. The first section provides an overview of the overall research design. The second section addresses the research questions guiding the study. The third section describes the research setting, sampling and participants who were involved. The fourth section details the data collection procedures and the tools that were utilized. The fifth section presents a full elucidation of the data analysis. The chapter wraps up with a discussion of the reliability and validity procedures.

3.1. Research Design

The goal of this research study is to investigate EFL teachers' thoughts, perceptions and classroom practices on implementing translanguaging pedagogy. To reach this goal, mixed methods design was chosen and considered to be appropriate since it is substantial to collect in-depth data from the participants. Mixed methods research design follows the procedure of blending or combining quantitative and qualitative data to collect and analyze data in a single study or several studies to get an understanding of a research problem, and this is done in one study or group of connected studies (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). This helps comprehend the investigated research problem by utilizing different methods together. The core idea is that using both quantitative and qualitative methods gives a better grasp of research questions or problems. From another perspective, mixed methods give a fuller picture than one method on its own, each kind of data backs the other up. This combined approach to research is also connected with *triangulation*, which means that the researcher could enhance the quality of the study through multiple data sources, and it involves gathering various types of information. This gathered information is synthesized later and this creates a more complete view on the varied data. Not only does the research consolidate, but it helps mitigate inherent biases in single-method approaches.

There are two fundamental categories for surveys: *cross-sectional* and *longitudinal*. Cross-sectional survey design, being one of the most common in educational research

(Mackey & Gass, 2022), was embraced for this research, and this was due to time constraints and availability problems of the teachers. In cross-sectional surveys, data collection occurs at a single point in time, and it provides a snapshot of the current situation, whereas longitudinal surveys extend over a period of time. This means that the researcher could gather the whole data in a single, short period of time (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Nevertheless, both survey methods are valuable depending on the purpose and questions being explored. In this research, the current perspectives of EFL teachers were regarded as necessary.

Additively, mixed methods study is not fixed and it has its own characteristics as well. In this instance, this study adopted an *explanatory sequential mixed methods design*, also known as a *two-phase model*, comprised of gleaning the quantitative data to begin with, then crossing into collecting qualitative data to assist clarifying and dwelling upon the quantitative results with the intention of having fruitful data at length (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). An illustrative conception of the research design was attached below:

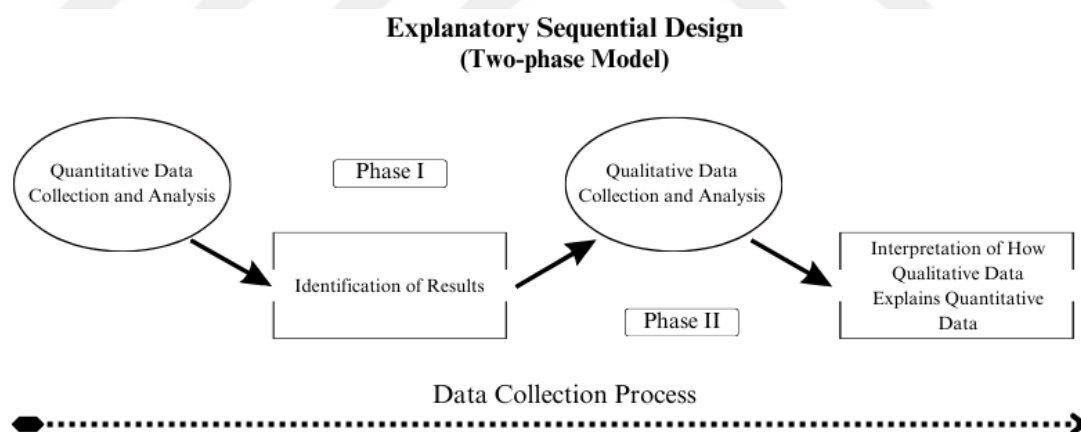


Figure 2. Explanatory Sequential Design (Adapted from Subedi, 2016, p. 573)

As illustrated above in Figure 2, this entire research design was adopted because the nature of translanguaging requires multifaceted exploration; for that matter, the desire for both breadth and depth in data collection came about. Eventually, the quantitative data was analyzed descriptively, and inferences were attempted to be made, and the other end of the scale—the qualitative data—was analyzed by way of inductive content

analysis. Further details on the data collection tools and how the analyses were made will be explained later in this chapter.

3.2. Research Questions

This study aims to cast light on EFL teachers' perceptions towards the rationale behind their translanguaging practices. Hence, it attempts to seek answers for the following research questions:

1. What are the beliefs and self-reported practices of EFL teachers on translanguaging?
2. For what functions/purposes do EFL teachers employ their native language in their classrooms?

3.3. Sampling and Participants

The participants of this study were EFL teachers who preferably worked in primary schools, middle schools, and high schools. The total reached number of participants is precisely 84 EFL teachers via the questionnaire.

Table 2.

Background Information of the Participants

Variables		f	%
Gender	Male	27	32.1
	Female	57	67.9
Age	22-29	15	17.9
	30-39	32	38.1
	40-49	30	35.7
	50-59	7	8.3
	60 or above	0	0
School Grade	Primary School	13	15.5
	Middle School	32	38.1
	High School	39	46.4
Teaching Experience	0-4 years	13	15.5
	5-9 years	7	8.3
	10-14 years	20	23.8
	15-20 years	22	26.2
	21 years or above	22	26.2
Additional Training	Yes	53	63.1
	No	31	36.9

Upon reviewing the Table 2 above, it can be inferred that the gender distribution is not balanced; the majority of the participants are 57 females with the percentage of 67.9%, and 27 males compromise the remaining participants with the percentage of 32.1%. Since it is evident in Türkiye that most language teachers are female, this could be considered quite usual.

As for their ages, it is seen that it varies. The largest age group is 30-39 years with 32 individuals (38.1%), the second largest is 40-49 years with 30 individuals (35.7%), the youngest group, being the third, is 22-29 years with 15 individuals (17.9%), and the oldest group is 50-59 years with 7 individuals (8.3%). There are no participants who are 60 years of age or above.

Among these, high school teachers are predominant. 39 individuals (46.4%) teach at a high school, 32 (38.1%) individuals teach middle schoolers, and the smallest group is primary school teachers with the least number of 13 (15.5%).

The most experienced teachers (15+ years) constitute 52.4% of all participants. Accurately, teachers who have 15-20 years of experience and 21 years of above experience are 44 people in total, 22 people (26.2%) in the former and also 22 people (26.2%) in the latter group. The mid-career teachers (10-14 years) are 20 people (23.8%). The teachers in their early careers are 13 people (15.5%), and lastly the smallest group is 5-9 years of experience, making up seven individuals (8.3%).

Most of these teachers received additional training as an extra to their undergraduate education (53 teachers, 63.1%), and the rest did not receive any additional training (31 teachers, 36.9%) and went into the profession right after.

To sum up, the participants are predominantly female, mid-career to experienced teachers and they are aged mostly between 30-49 years old. Most of them teach at secondary education level, and many of them have got additional training.

Over and beyond, when using surveys in research, a group is chosen to learn about a larger whole. First the entire group being studied needs to be defined, which is the population. Then, the specific section of that population that is available to be selected needs to identify the target population or sampling frame. Finally, a portion of the target population is chosen to collect data from the sample. The results from this

sample group will then provide information about the original, larger population (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Regarding this information, the target population of this study is EFL teachers, and the sampling is concentrated on Turkish EFL teachers working in Türkiye.

For the questionnaire, *simple random sampling* had been picked; however, due to problems finding people to fill it out, the researcher transitioned to *snowball sampling*. In simple random sampling, every population member has equal selection odds, and the selection process is unbiased and impartial; furthermore, each selection is independent, so previous choices do not affect subsequent ones (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). As for snowball sampling or also *chain-referral methods*, which stands out for its name, researchers start with a small group of participants, and these initial participants help identify or connect with additional participants (Cohen et al., 2018). Using this sampling method was ideal because of the difficulty accessing EFL teachers who were willing to participate in the study. The researcher drew on networks of acquaintances and even their extended wider circles. Although it may limit the study to some extent due to reliance on social networks and create some sort of sample bias, the unexpected issue that arose was a justification for this method; otherwise, it could have been much more difficult to find participants, and this study would have been at stake.

Distinctively, *convenience sampling*, known also as *opportunity sampling*, was opted for conducting semi-structured interviews. The process of convenience sampling is about selecting readily available participants. More particularly, the nearest, convenient and available individuals were chosen as respondents (Cohen et al., 2018). The rationale for going for this sampling method was because of the fact that it was not time consuming and allowed for quick data collection for the researcher. However, some limitations such as negligibility of generalization might cause issues. In spite of this, the remaining data collection tools and methods were envisioned as to atone this specific adversity.

To provide an efficient understanding about the EFL teachers who were interviewed, their overview background knowledge was presented in the table below:

Table 3.

Background Information of the EFL Teachers Interviewed

Teacher	Age	Gender	Experience	Current School	Professional Development	Notable Characteristics
Teacher A	37	Female	12+ years	State high school	Participated in an Erasmus program abroad during university; no additional certifications, training, or advanced degrees	N/A
Teacher B	36	Female	16 years	State high school	Holds only a bachelor's degree in ELT, with no further qualifications	Reserved demeanor compared to other interviewees
Teacher C	43	Female	21+ years	State high school	Holds a master's degree in ELT; actively attends training courses, conferences, and has multiple certifications	Highly confident; holds an English Language & Literature degree instead of ELT
Teacher D	35	Female	17 years	State high school (language department)	Recently completed a master's thesis in Curriculum and Instruction; participates in seminars and webinars regularly	Self-confident; continuous self-improvement through PD activities
Teacher E	25	Male	9 months	State middle school in a rural village	Bachelor's degree in ELT; Erasmus experience during university; practices English daily and uses it actively in class settings	Considers himself bilingual, as he learned English at age 6
Teacher F	27	Male	3 years	State primary and middle schools (two schools)	Bachelor's degree in ELT; second degree in Translation and Interpreting; prior experience in private language schools focused on exam prep	Extensive private sector experience in English teaching and exam prep
Teacher G	49	Male	25 years	State science high school	No additional studies, certifications, or training pursued for professional development	Oldest in group; self-assured and prefers not to engage in extra PD activities

On closer inspection of Table 3, it can be seen that 7 EFL teachers working in Türkiye volunteered for semi-structured interviews, four of whom were female and three of whom were male. The first teacher (Teacher A) who was interviewed was 37 years old

and had over 12 years of teaching experience in the field. Right now, she teaches at a state high school. For her professional development, she participated in an Erasmus program abroad as a university student. Other than that, she does not hold additional certifications, training, or advanced degrees. The second teacher (Teacher B) could be described as the most reserved among the interviewees. She is 36, she has 16 years of experience in the field, and she is a state high school teacher. She also does not hold any additional qualifications beyond her bachelor's degree. The third teacher (Teacher C) could be considered highly confident among the interviewees, which made her stand out. She is also a state high school teacher with over 21 years of experience and she is 43 years old. As for her professional development, she has a master's degree in English Language Teaching, she attends teacher training courses and conferences regularly, and she holds various certifications. Another notable difference that makes her distinguishable is that she is actually a graduate of English Language and Literature, as opposed to English Language Teaching. The fourth teacher (Teacher D) is also fairly experienced with 17 years of experience in the field. She is a 35-year-old state high school teacher and teaches a language department class. She also has improved herself over the years, which might be the cause of her self-confidence and reliance. For instance, she has recently completed a master's thesis in the subject of Curriculum and Instruction. Just as the previous teacher, she actively participates in seminars and webinars for ongoing professional development.

In comparison with the first four teachers who were interviewed, Teacher E and F are the youngest ones among the interviewees. Starting with Teacher E, who is 25 years old with only 9 months of English teaching experience, works at a state middle school located in a village. This is his first teaching job after graduation. He has a bachelor's degree in English Language Teaching and for his additional professional development, he went abroad via an Erasmus program in his university years. Teacher E has a distinct characteristic, he considers himself as bilingual because he acquired English at the age of 6. For personal practice, he makes a special effort to use English in daily life and in language classes when appropriate. The second relatively young teacher (Teacher F) is a 27-year-old with quite some experience in the field of teaching. He has a bachelor's degree in English Language Teaching, plus he has a second university degree in Translation and Interpreting. His professional experiences include working in private institutions such as language schools and private tutoring centers, which

primarily focused on English exam preparation. He approximately has 3 years of teaching experience, and teaching diligently since the year of 2019. At the moment, his current position is teaching at both primary and middle school levels at two different state schools.

The last teacher (Teacher G), who was interviewed, was also quite self-assured compared with the whole group, and he has been teaching English for almost 25 years. At 49 years old, he is the oldest in the group as well. At the moment, he works at a successful science high school in a small district; for good measure, he has been working there for a long time. Despite being self-assured and confident and having years of experience in the teaching field, he has never considered doing extra work or studies on his own account. When asked why, he stated that he felt no need for additional efforts, and he was comfortable about his decisions. As a last note, none of the schools where the interviewed teachers work openly restrict or prohibit the use of Turkish.

3.4. Data Collection Tools and Procedure

Before anything else, the permission to collect data from Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University Ethical Committee was obtained (See Appendix 1). Since all of the documents were prepared thoroughly, the request for data collection was allowed and approved in a single application. Right after getting the ethical approval, the procedure of data collection began promptly. First of all, the adapted questionnaire needed to be conducted (See Appendix 4). It was adapted from the master's thesis of Küçük (2018). The necessary permissions were taken beforehand by contacting her via email and a private message (See Appendix 3). The adaptation process was carried out by asking for advice from an expert. The whole process can be inspected below:

Table 4.

Changes Made on the Adapted Questionnaire

Original Question/Item	Adapted/Changed Into	Explanation/Reason for Change
Original questionnaire directed to students	Adapted to measure EFL teachers' perceptions and practices	To measure teachers' perceptions and practices
5-point Likert scale	Changed to 6-point Likert scale	To increase reliability and discourage neutral responses
4-point Likert scale (fourth section)	Remained as 4-point Likert scale	No change, maintained original structure for consistency
Headings: <i>EMI Students</i> or <i>EMI Classrooms</i>	Headings: <i>EFL Teachers</i> and <i>EFL Classrooms</i>	To reflect the new target audience
6 demographic questions	7 demographic questions	To gather relevant teacher information
Questions about native language and second language knowledge	Removed	Considered unnecessary
"What is your department?"	"What grade do you teach?"	To better suit teachers' context
N/A	New question about additional English education or training after graduation	Added to gather relevant information
Question about speaking English outside of school	Removed	Not relevant for teacher perceptions
"What is the language of your department?"	"Does your school restrict the use of Turkish?"	To focus on language policy
N/A	Questions about age, public/private school employment, and teaching experience	Added to gather relevant demographic information
22 total questions	Total of 32 items: 7 demographic questions, 24 questionnaire questions, 1 open-ended question	To gather more comprehensive data
Second section: 8 questions	Not changed with regard to number of questions	No change
Third section: 8 questions	Third section: 7 questions (measuring perceptions of translinguaging)	Reduced by one question
Fourth section: 6 questions	Fourth section: 9 questions (measuring teachers' translinguaging practices)	Added three additional questions
"It confuses me when the lecturer switches..."	"Switching from English to Turkish (or vice versa) might confuse students."	To reflect teacher perspective
"English content class"	"English classes"	To suit EFL context better
"Course tasks"	"Course requirements"	Terminology change
"My classmates"	"My students"	To reflect teacher perspective
Questions 16 to 24	Completely rewritten and adapted	To align with research objectives more effectively
Terms <i>lecturer</i> and <i>student</i> in questions 13, 14, and 15	Updated to reflect EFL teachers' perspective	To converge with new target audience
N/A	Open-ended question about personal thoughts on translinguaging in EFL classrooms.	Added to gain deeper reflections, allow personal expression, yield unexpected details, and provide more detailed data

Principally, as Table 4 explained at great length, the original questionnaire was directed to students, so it was modified to measure teachers' perceptions and practices, rather than students' perceptions. Another immediate change was changing the 5-point Likert scale to a 6-point Likert scale, which aimed for increasing reliability and discouraging neutral responses from teachers. However, the last section of the questionnaire, which is the fourth section, remained as a 4-point Likert scale as it was. To interpret and justify the reasons for these further, it could be stated that the 6-point Likert scale was specifically chosen to avoid *central tendency bias* (Crosetto et al., 2020) since the respondents might have resorted to neutral responses if the change had not been made in advance; on the other hand, the 4-point Likert scale was retained for the final section because it measured more concrete, practice-based items rather than attitudinal or perceptual responses.

The questionnaire had four sections in total, including the demographic information section. Respectively, the first section was related to demographic information with seven questions, the second section measured attitudes towards English-only policy, the third section measured perceptions of translanguaging, and the fourth section measured teachers' translanguaging practices. All of the headings were updated to "EFL Teachers" and "EFL Classrooms." Before that, they were either "EMI Students" or "EMI Classrooms." The demographic information section had also a set of modifications. The original questionnaire had questions about native language and second language knowledge, these were removed. The question "What is your department?" was turned into "What grade do you teach?" Additionally, the question regarding English proficiency level was considered unnecessary and removed. Instead, a new question about additional English education or training was added. Also, the question about whether or not speaking English outside of school was removed. The question that goes "What is the language of your department?" was changed into "Does your school restrict the use of Turkish?" As an alternative to removed questions, questions about age, public/private school employment, and teaching experience were attached into the section.

Proceeding with the details of the adapted questionnaire, total items were 32, seven of which were about demographics, and 24 of which were the actual questionnaire questions. The final item was an open-ended question about personal thoughts on

translanguaging in the EFL classrooms, which was appended to procure profound answers and to delve deeper into the cognitions of EFL teachers, and it has plenty of advantages such as allowing for personal expression, yielding unanticipated insights, and providing more detailed data (Mackey & Gass, 2022).

Some other modifications include reducing eight questions to seven questions in the third section. Overall, the total number was 22 and this was increased to 24 by adding two additional questions. With respect to specific question modifications, question seven was changed from “It confuses me when the lecturer switches...” to “Switching from English to Turkish (or vice versa) might confuse students.” A statement in question nine from the third section was changed from “English content class” to “English classes.” Again, “course tasks” was replaced with “course requirements” in question 10. Once more, the phrase “my classmates” was changed to “my students.” Question 12 was reworded from “It helps me when the lecturer uses...” to “It is helpful to use English and my first language simultaneously in classes.” One by one, the terms “lecturer” and “student” were updated to reflect EFL teachers’ perspective in questions 13, 14, and 15. In essence, the questions from 16 to 24 were completely rewritten and adapted anew to comply with the research objectives more precisely. After these changes, the second section had eight questions, the third section had seven, and the fourth section had nine questions. The questionnaire was made ready for use with these adaptation and modification processes.

In a favorable view, since the questionnaire was designed and conducted online, gathering extensive data was fairly feasible. The data collection period was between March 2024 and June 2024. It was challenging to gather responses for the researcher, although initial recruitment strategies were thought to be enough. As planned earlier, the questionnaire was shared with English teacher groups and social media groups. Yet, the response rate from these methods turned out to be very low. To make amends, the researcher visited schools in the district, close to the perimeter, but the response success was still limited. To resolve this persisting issue, the sampling method for the questionnaire had to be changed. Simple random sampling was switched to snowball sampling. To do this, personal connections were worked in and they were leveraged to increase participation. As a good result, 84 participants were recruited, which was deemed sufficient for the study.

To strengthen the qualitative part of the study, a series of semi-structured interviews were conducted in a face-to-face manner and they were all in Turkish, so that the interviewees could express themselves more easily (See Appendix 5). The questions were adapted and inspired from Küçük's (2018) master's thesis. To clarify this data collection method, semi-structured interviews utilize a flexible interview guide to follow, which is composed of many questions, prompts, and probes (Cohen et al., 2018). What this allows for the researcher is adaptability during the interview. In detail, content order can be adjusted, it permits exploration of new topics as they arise, and enables in-depth probing of responses. The advantages of this method were numerous for this research study because it was smooth to collect information, beliefs, feelings, opinions, actions et cetera. These interviews took place in schools and participants' residences. Before the interviews, proper permissions and information were provided to them, and voluntary participation was ensured. Since the interview was designed as being semi-structured, it allowed for flexible communication and conversation. The interview questions were prepared to gauge teachers' translanguaging perceptions and practices, and the questions were associated with the research questions plenarily. As for the questions, there were a total of 10 questions, excluding the demographics information questions; but with them, there were a total of 15 questions. To elucidate the interview form, it is structured in three sections. The first section focuses on demographic information, with five questions about gender, age, teaching experience, additional training, and years working in Ministry of National Education schools. The second section, comprising six questions, explores teachers' translanguaging practices, including language use in class, frequency and reasons for translanguaging, and strategies employed. The final section, with four questions, probes teachers' views on translanguaging, its promising benefits for student comprehension and language skills, and how their perceptions may have changed after a certain time of working as a teacher. At last, the interview had codes of conduct; namely, the researcher avoided leading questions or hints. However, additional explanations were provided when necessary or when the interviewees were stuck. These and many other efforts were made to minimize bias effects through a non-directive approach.

3.5. Data Analysis

The questionnaire platform was online, it was conducted via Google Forms, and it was completely anonymous. The consent form was at the very beginning page; thus, voluntary participation was ensured (See Appendix 2). Posterior to the data collection, the data analysis process began as usual. The questionnaire data was converted to Microsoft Excel format. This was done to quantify all of the responses. After quantifying the responses, it was ready for statistical analysis. The software program called SPSS version 23 was used for it. A collection of statistical analyses was performed such as descriptive statistics and some inferential interpretations based on these descriptive statistics, mean and standard deviation scores were presented for questions, a well-known reliability test (Cronbach's alpha, it is presented under the subheading validity and reliability below), and a comprehensive descriptive statistics of questionnaire table. In lieu of purely stating the descriptive statistics, the researcher tried to interpret and understand the logic and reasons between the answers and reported them. Everything was brought forward as bare facts, and the indispensable comments were made and expounded on.

The data were presented in tables, and these were interpreted and commented on necessarily. Along with this, the researcher attempted to interpret logical connections and reasons behind responses to the questionnaire. Below, the descriptive statistics of the questionnaire can be found in detail:

Table 5.

Descriptive Statistics of the Questionnaire

Statistic	Value	Std. Error
Mean	3.3562	0.05327
95% Confidence Interval for Mean		
Lower Bound	3.2502	
Upper Bound	3.4621	
5% Trimmed Mean	3.3881	
Median	3.3750	
Variance	0.238	
Standard Deviation	0.48825	
Minimum	1.54	
Maximum	4.67	
Range	3.13	
Interquartile Range	0.46	

The analysis of the questionnaire responses showed some interesting patterns displayed in Table 5. Broadly checked, the participants leaned slightly towards agreeing with the statements since the mean was 3.3562. The 95% confidence interval from 3.2502 to 3.4621 was narrow, meaning one can be precise in their estimate of what the overall attitudes of participants were.

The 5% trimmed mean of 3.3881 was close to the regular mean, suggesting any answers at the extremes did not greatly impact the results. The median of 3.3750 lined up with the mean too, showing answers tended to be spread symmetrically rather than piled at one end.

There was some diversity in opinions, but responses clustered reasonably close to the mean as the standard deviation was a moderate 0.48825. The interquartile range of 0.46 supported this, with a good deal of answers falling in the middle half.

While most answers leaned positive, the wide range from 1.54 to 4.67 on the whole questionnaire shows very different views at both ends. The low variance of 0.238 and small standard error of 0.05327 indicate consistency and these statistical findings allow for a reliable estimation of the overall attitudes within this group. The data suggest that the general sentiment among participants leans slightly towards the positive end of the questionnaire. All in all, the patterns reveal useful information about how participants felt about the research topic.

In the direction of analyzing open-ended statements, *inductive qualitative content analysis* was harnessed. It is the systematic examination of textual data that involves assigning codes to specific textual elements (Dawson, 2009). This coding process can either be numeric or verbal, and this is applied to determine characteristics within the text. Predetermined categories may be used, in this case, the process becomes deductive. On the contrary, categories can emerge from data during analysis, and makes the analysis inductive. As Dawson (2009) stated already, this methodology is highly inductive. The responses were compiled in a Microsoft Word document. Rather than using a specialized software, a simplistic and manual coding process took place. Among the responses, some of them were irrelevant or insufficient; therefore, among 84 total statements, 17 of them were removed. By this way, 67 valid open-ended responses were analyzed. The analysis started off with initial coding of key sentences

and main ideas. These key statements were highlighted in green, purple, and turquoise, all of which had different meanings for the researcher. For instance, the color purple was used for attention-grabbing codes, whereas green was used for ordinary codes, and turquoise was used for labeling the responses according to the themes and subthemes. Concurrently, brief notes were jotted down to facilitate the coding procedure. Afterwards, the numerous codes were grouped into broader themes and these themes were banded together with the research objectives and questions. For good measure, the prevalence of codes was determined.

Last but not least, the analysis procedure of the interviews was quite rigorously handled. To record the audio, the interviews were recorded using a high-quality mobile phone. As a substitute for manually transcribing the audio, speech-to-text feature of Google Docs was brought into service. Despite the feature, the transcriptions were not perfect, they still needed fine touches, so this issue was tackled as well. Then, the transcriptions were carefully read as often as not. In the same manner, the further analysis followed the same logic as open-ended responses. This means that they were analyzed by way of *inductive qualitative content analysis*. Just like them, frequently occurring codes and broader themes were discovered, then they were translated from Turkish to English. To secure the quality of the data, the whole processes were completed thoroughly and in an organized manner.

3.6. Reliability and Validity

In the sense of reliability, the *triangulation* method was employed and this encompasses *between methods* approaches (Cohen et al., 2018). There are quite a few elements for triangulation that could potentially enhance research reliability. These were listed according to Cohen et al. (2018):

1. Research instruments
2. Types of data
3. Multiple researchers
4. Different time points
5. Various participants
6. Diverse perspectives (objective and subjective)
7. Contrasting approaches (inductive and deductive)

On the line, there are also additional triangulation factors such as theories, methodologies, study designs, research paradigms, and axiological considerations. Taking these into account, the fact that this study adopted a mixed study design is an example indicator of triangulation. By benefiting from both qualitative and quantitative data, different perspectives of rich data were tried to be explained and clarified fully (Cohen et al., 2018). Coupled with this, triangulation of multiple data sources strengthens the validity of the findings. Besides, combining two data types can make the researcher stronger in terms of validity and help draw better conclusions. This enables the observation of both broad patterns and small details of the study under investigation and helps balance out weaknesses of each method alone.

In the Table 6 below, the result of the reliability statistics was presented:

Table 6.

Reliability Statistics

Number of Questions	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Participants
24	,745	84

In order to assess the reliability of the questionnaire, a Cronbach's Alpha test was implemented by the researcher. Cronbach's Alpha measures the internal consistency or reliability of the questionnaire and its value ranges from 0 to 1. The higher the value is better, which indicates higher *reliability* and *internal consistency*. A value of ,745 indicates an acceptable reliability score and it suggests that the questions were reasonably consistent in measuring the same concept.

Moving onto the topic of *trustworthiness*, a critical term for the qualitative part of this research exclusively. To ensure trustworthiness, in addition to the triangulation method, several measures were implemented following Lincoln and Guba's (1985) foundational criteria for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research. For the open-ended responses and semi-structured interviews, *credibility* was enhanced through prolonged engagement with participants and member checking of interview audios by listening to them again and unpacking the topic in detail. *Transferability* was addressed

by virtue of a thick description of the research context and participant backgrounds (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019).



CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This chapter presents both quantitative and qualitative findings from the study. The quantitative results encompass descriptive statistics and straightforward analyses, while the qualitative findings illuminate the themes that arose during the examination. The data are presented in their original form, with analyses corresponding to the research questions. Initially, the quantitative section is discussed in detail, breaking down the results step by step. Following this, the analysis of the open-ended questions is presented. Finally, the findings from the semi-structured interviews are shared, advancing further information into the research.

4.1. The Analysis of the Questionnaire Findings

Below, the findings obtained from the questionnaire are presented in detail along with descriptive statistical analyses.

Table 7.

Restriction of Turkish in the Institution

Variables	f	%
No	70	83.3
Yes	14	16.7

Table 7 illustrates whether or not the institution they are working at restricts the use of Turkish in language classes, hence English-only policy. Briefly checked, it could be deduced that Turkish is not restricted (83.3%), and the ones who reported otherwise are in minority (16.7%).

In light of the findings the questionnaire provided, the mean and standard deviation scores of the items are listed and it could be reviewed below. These descriptive statistics serve some information of 84 EFL teachers who participated in the study. The following section is dissected into three categories, the first two measuring the attitudes on English-only policy and translanguaging. Yet, the third part evaluated

translanguaging practices of EFL teachers rather than their perceptions. All of them were analyzed and interpretations were made, and a general comment on the results was written down. It should be committed to one's memory that the third part was interpreted in accordance with the 4-point Likert scale, instead of 6-point Likert scale, since the original questionnaire had this already embedded in its last part.

Table 8.

EFL Teachers' Attitudes towards English-only Policy

English-only Policy	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. I think my English class should have an "English-only Policy." (This means only English is allowed in the classroom.)	4.21	1,506
2. I believe the more English students use in the classroom the more their English will improve.	5.18	1,253
3. I believe that in order to master English, students must use English a great deal in the classroom.	5.12	1,312
4. I believe that there are no situations in which the first language should be used in the classroom.	3.39	1,362
5. I believe that the students should use only English when working together on a task in the classroom.	4.02	1,650
6. It wastes a lot of time when the teacher switches from one language to another.	3.51	1,711
7. Switching from English to Turkish (or vice versa) might confuse students.	3.30	1,535
8. Using more than one language (translanguaging) in the classroom leads to the weakness of my English.	3.49	1,661

The first section of the questionnaire, excluding the demographics part, had to do with the first research question, which aims at ascertaining the attitudes of EFL teachers towards English-only policy. As it could be inferred from the Table 8 above, the items that have the highest mean scores are Item 2 ($M=5.18$), Item 3 ($M=5.12$), Item 1 ($M=4.21$), and Item 5 ($M=4.02$). As a whole, these items suggested that the more English students use, the better their proficiency becomes. Hence, these high means indicate strong agreement with maximizing English use in the EFL classroom,

disregarding translanguaging to a certain degree. When it comes to standard deviations, Item 2 and Item 3 ($SD2=1.253$, $SD3=1.312$) have lower values. This means more consistent agreement on benefits of extensive English use, whereas Item 1 has a higher value ($SD1=1.506$), suggesting more variation in opinions about strict English-only policy. In contrast to highest mean scores, the items that have the lowest mean scores are Item 7 ($M=3.30$), Item 4 ($M=3.39$), and Item 8 ($M=3.49$). According to the premises of these items, language switching confuses the students, there are no situations where first language should be used, and translanguaging leads to weakness in English. These scores fall between slight disagreement and slight agreement, which proves that there is an ambivalence in these responses. With relevance to high standard deviations for items 4, 7, 5, and 8 ($SD4=1.362$, $SD7=1.535$, $SD5=1.650$, $SD8=1.661$), it may be proclaimed that there is a considerable variation in teachers' opinions on these matters. This also matches with the general trend of favoring English use but shows uncertainty when it comes to specific classroom situations. The final item, Item 6, has a moderate mean ($M=3.51$), and it has the highest standard deviation ($SD6=1.711$), which signifies highly diverse opinions on wasting time when switching between languages. Altogether, it could be affirmed that EFL teachers generally favor an English-centric approach, believing that extensive English use for language improvement yields the best output. Moreover, there is less consensus on likely negative impacts of using the first language or translanguaging. Most importantly, varied standard deviations mark diverse individual opinions on implementing English-only policy and its impacts.

Table 9.

EFL Teachers' Attitudes towards Translanguaging

Translanguaging Perceptions	Mean	Std. Deviation
9. I want to be able to use my first language in English classes when I feel I need to.	4.12	1,321
10. It is not important to use only English in class as long as I am completing the course requirements.	3.08	1,515
11. Speaking my first language with my students between and during class activities should be okay.	3.70	1,429
12. It is helpful to use English and my first language	4.05	1,455

simultaneously in classes.		
13. The students can derive more benefit from classes if I provide a bilingual subject glossary (both in Turkish and English) beforehand.	3.89	1,489
14. Using more than one language in the classroom (translanguaging) increases students' understanding of class content.	3.93	1,454
15. Using more than one language in the classrooms strengthens students' English.	3.57	1,491

This section is also connected with the first research question, and it gathers information on the attitudes of EFL teachers towards translanguaging. As delineated above in Table 9, items with the highest mean scores, which are Item 9 ($M=4.12$), Item 12 ($M=4.05$), Item 13 ($M=3.89$), and Item 14 ($M=3.93$). As evident from Item 14, translanguaging, according to EFL teachers, can increase the students' comprehension of class subjects. This relatively high mean suggests that teachers tend to agree with this statement, acknowledging the prospect of translanguaging to aid comprehension. In addition to this, EFL teachers believe that providing a bilingual subject glossary can benefit students and this is clear in Item 13 ($M=3.89$). This suggests that they see value in using both languages to support vocabulary development and, by extension, comprehension of subject matter. These items are directly about employing translanguaging in the classroom and these can connote a general agreement with selective translanguaging practices among EFL teachers. Pertaining to the standard deviations for high-scoring items, Item 9 has a lower value ($SD_9=1.321$), which shows consistent agreement on using first language when needed. On the contrary, Items 12 and 13 have higher values ($SD_{12}=1.455$, $SD_{13}=1.489$), and it suggests more wide-ranging opinions on simultaneous language switching and using bilingual glossaries. Notwithstanding the high values of means, the items with the lowest mean scores are Item 10 ($M=3.08$), Item 11 ($M=3.70$), and Item 15 ($M=3.57$). Respectively, Item 10 states that it is not important to use only English in class, Item 11 states speaking first language during class activities should be okay, Item 15 expounds that using more than one language strengthens students' English, all of which hover around slightly agree. Furthermore, standard deviations for low-scoring items on this basis are: Item 10 and 15, both have high values ($SD_{10}=1.515$, $SD_{15}=1.491$). This is an indication of

considerable variation in opinions on English-only instruction and positive effects of translanguaging. Essentially, it could be perceived that EFL teachers have a positive attitude towards translanguaging, and most of whom are supportive of using the first language when necessary and they see no problem in simultaneous language use and switching. There is less consensus on the widespread impacts of translanguaging on English proficiency. Along with the rest, varied standard deviations (1.321 to 1.515) denote fairly diverse individual opinions. This diversity may reflect differences in teaching contexts, student needs, or teaching philosophies. Following this, the part below, as stated earlier, did not have a 6-point Likert scale, but a 4-point Likert scale. It is important to mention this because the interpretations and analysis were done in agreement with this verity.

Table 10.

Translanguaging Practices Employed by EFL Teachers

Translanguaging Practices	Mean	Std. Deviation
16. I use Turkish in the classroom because it can increase test scores.	2.68	,714
17. It is appropriate to use Turkish to explain difficult concepts.	2.31	,776
18. Native language use brings an opportunity for students to see the differences and similarities between Turkish and English.	2.14	,933
19. I use Turkish to introduce new vocabulary items.	2.43	,826
20. I use Turkish to increase student motivation and confidence.	2.40	,852
21. I give instructions and explanations in Turkish.	2.73	,782
22. Turkish use is more effective to develop rapport/relationship between student and teacher.	2.65	,898
23. Idioms and expressions can be explained in Turkish.	2.35	,898
24. The amount of switching between languages depends on the context of different classes.	2.29	,858

As demonstrated in Table 10 above, the translanguaging practices of EFL teachers are laid out, and it is peculiar to the second research question. The items that have the

highest mean scores are Item 21, giving instructions and explanations in Turkish, ($M=2.73$), Item 16, using Turkish to increase test scores, ($M=2.68$), and Item 22 ($M=2.65$), believing Turkish use develops teacher-student rapport. The frequency of answers to these statements falls between *sometimes* and *often*, but closer to *sometimes*. As for the standard deviations for high-scoring items per usual, Item 16 had the lowest standard deviation ($SD16=0.714$), attesting more consistent responses on using Turkish to increase test scores. Differently, Items 21 and 22 have slightly higher values ($SD21=0.782$, $SD22=0.898$), signaling more manifold opinions on Turkish for instructions and rapport-building. Additionally, the items with the lowest mean scores are Item 18 ($M=2.14$), Item 17 ($M=2.31$), and Item 24 ($M=2.29$). These practices fall closer to *sometimes* on the questionnaire.

EFL teachers use Turkish to introduce new vocabulary, this is visible in Item 19 ($M=2.43$). This lower mean suggests teachers use this practice occasionally, but not frequently. The low standard deviation ($SD19=0.826$) indicates more consistency in this practice among teachers. Similarly, Item 20 ($M=2.40$) shows similar results, which means EFL teachers use Turkish to increase student motivation and confidence. The low standard deviation, just like Item 19, is an indicator that this practice is used sometimes and the responses are consistent among teachers. Differently, as obvious from Item 23 ($M=2.35$), EFL teachers are less inclined to explain idioms and expressions in Turkish compared to other translanguaging practices. This item has one of the lower means in this section, with a moderate standard deviation score ($SD23=8.98$), which points out some variation in responses.

Going on with the standard deviations for low-scoring items, Item 18 is the highest ($SD18=0.933$), showing more diversified opinions on native language use for comparing languages. Items 17 and 24 are moderate when compared with the previous item ($SD17=0.776$, $SD24=0.858$), and it is clear that there are some divergences in these responses, but less than Item 18. With everything taken into consideration, it could be inferred that EFL teachers engage in translanguaging practices with moderate frequency. The highest frequency is for practical purposes such as giving instructions and increasing test scores. As distinct from this, comparing languages to see the differences between Turkish and English is less common. It was found that varied standard deviations across responses indicated differing opinions on the

appropriateness and effectiveness of translanguaging practices. Finally, it was revealed that there was more consensus on some practices (e.g., using Turkish for test scores) than others (e.g., language comparison).

To sum up the overall findings, it was found that EFL teachers are siding with an English-centric approach in the classroom, meaning using as much English as possible whenever and whatever occasion arises. They utterly believe in the benefits of using the TL exclusively in the EFL classroom for improvement of English proficiency; this was backed up by the mean scores of Items 2 ($M=5.18$) and Item 3 ($M=5.12$). However, contradictions started to appear. There is a notable inconsistency between teachers' rigorous support for English-only policies and their actual translanguaging practices. While they are persuaded by the idea of maximizing English use, they also report using Turkish for various purposes and functions such as giving instructions and explanations. On the other hand, teachers are less convinced about the probable negative impacts of translanguaging, such as confusion or weakening of English skills (mean scores for items 7 and 8 were 3.30 and 3.49 respectively). Unexpectedly, it was also found out that there was considerable variation in opinions among most items, as it could be comprehended from relatively high standard deviations. This may suggest that contextual factors, student needs, and personal teaching philosophies or cognitions play a big role in shaping attitudes and practices in the EFL classroom. Under these circumstances, teachers seem to take a utilitarian approach to language use, and they support translanguaging for particular goals like increasing test scores or developing rapport, while at the same time maintaining a belief in the prominence of maximizing English use. Regardless of these struggles between mindsets and practices, it could be put forward that a language policy that acknowledges the projected advantages of judicious translanguaging, yet still promotes sufficient English exposure, might be of assistance in the EFL classroom.

4.2. Analysis of Open-ended Statements of EFL Teachers

The section below will present the open-ended statements of EFL teachers. A lot of different opinions were expressed and discussed. While doing so, no changes were made that would alter the meaning of the open-ended responses. Only minor adjustments were made based on grammar or sentence structure issues. Thanks to the

valuable thoughts and answers of EFL teachers, a great many ideas can be found below.

4.2.1. EFL teachers' divergent orientations on translanguaging. Under this main theme, *Monolingualism and English-only policy* and *Contextual Factors and Student Profile* will be presented as subthemes. This section is related to the first research question. Below, Table 11 shows the detailed distribution of themes, subthemes, and codes for clarity:

Table 11.

Theme, Subtheme, and Code Distribution Table: Set 1

Theme	Subthemes	Codes
Divergent Orientations on Translanguaging	Monolingualism and English-only Policy	Hindering factor Exclusive use of English Minimizing native language Maximizing target language Maximum exposure Native speakerism Target language development Language improvement Acquisition of language
	Contextual Factors and Student Profile	Motivation Interest Student level Emotional bonds Different geographical regions Adapting language use to student proficiency Judicious use Balanced use Affective filter Paralinguistics

4.2.1.1 Monolingualism and English-only policy. *Monolingualism and English-only policy* was mentioned in many instances. The ones that were thought to be more insightful were included here.

Teacher 16 advocates for an English-only policy for higher-level students because it is an enjoyable activity for them. They further comment on and emphasize the comfort in teaching using the target language, solely due to the fact that they are an English teacher and there is no need to include their mother tongue. They think that

incorporating mother tongue accounts for casual translation in the students' mind. In this sense, they see it as a *hindering factor* for assimilating English and being fluent. The statement can be read below:

Teacher 16 (High School): I believe that the classroom language should be English with higher levels of the students. They enjoy it a lot. Moreover, I feel more comfortable because I am not teaching the mother tongue; however, I am teaching the foreign language. There is no point in knowing Turkish meanings. It leads to translation in their mind while speaking, so it is not good for fluency.

Similarly, Teacher 12 plainly states that they support *exclusive use of English* in EFL classrooms as well, banishing translanguaging practices. They believe monolingual approach is the best for foreign language development, the opinion can be found below:

Teacher 12 (High School): In my opinion, only using English in language classrooms can improve students' understanding and develop their language abilities perfectly.

Again, Teacher 22 encourages effective English use, and *minimizing native language* in the EFL classroom:

Teacher 22 (High School): Teachers should use English more effectively and try not to use native language while teaching foreign languages.

That being said, a controversial topic was touched upon by Teacher 19, they potentially reinforce *native speakerism*, and this notion could put linguistic diversity in peril. Translanguaging, on the other hand, upholds linguistic diversity and sees the languages as a whole and acknowledges their values; thus, their view goes against it. This begs the question, are natives better? The statement is placed below:

Teacher 19 (High School): Using foreign language in class is very useful to introduce students to how to think as a native.

Proceeding with this, Teacher 32 recognizes unintentional translanguaging, but discourages it. In short, they favor monolingual or English-only approach for *target language development*:

Teacher 32 (Middle School): Translanguaging can sometimes be done without noticing. It is related to teachers' or students' minds. Yet, I believe that switching should not be used for developing target language.

An interesting idea was put forth by Teacher 67. They distinguish between language improvement and easing up the communication process. They allow translanguaging for *facilitating communication*, yet prefer English-only for *language improvement and acquisition of language*:

Teacher 67 (High School): If the matter is to improve English, only English can be used. If the matter is to make the communication easy or to have a better understanding, translanguaging can be used. Learning (improving) English or understanding English (communication) are different tasks.

Ultimately, Teacher 33 aimed for at least 80% of target language use, but they struggled with putting it into practice; furthermore, they openly articulated that they feel shame for not being able to actualize their perception into reality. This distinct expression of *inadequacy, shame or guilt* leads this statement to Macaro's (2009) *maximal position* to translanguaging, where an English teacher does not approve of translanguaging, but the various conditions push them to incorporate translanguaging into the class. Their expression is provided below:

Teacher 33 (Middle School): I believe the target language should be spoken 80% of the time in a class but I am afraid I am unable to do that, and I do not know how to guide my students to use English more. This makes me feel inadequate.

Following the statements above, Teacher 57 promotes *maximum target language exposure*; however, admits practical hardships of English-only policy or monolingualism in the EFL classroom:

Teacher 57 (High School): It can be used when needed. But since the natural way of learning a language is through hearing, the teacher should expose the pupils to the target language as much as possible. In order to expose pupils to the target language, using their mother tongue should be restricted, even when students come across with the teacher during break times etc. But this is of course the ideal one. In practice, we use our mother tongue mostly during the lessons due to some reasons, which are because of the environment of the classroom etc.

4.2.1.2. Contextual factors and student profile. *Contextual Factors and Student Profile* is one of the most recurring subthemes of all. Most of the teachers were aware of its severe impact on EFL classrooms, and many comments were made about it since it poses a great challenge for the teachers. For example, Teacher 60 simply acknowledged the necessity of using English in classes but noted implementation struggles. Teacher 65 further expounded on this subject, they correlated English use with students' basic proficiency and highlighted the importance of student profile while employing translanguaging practices. Their statements are listed below:

Teacher 60 (High School): It is necessary to use English in the classroom, but it is hard to apply in all classes.

Teacher 65 (High School): If we have the chance to have students who know basic level English, we can speak in English in the class comfortably.

In the context of *student profile and classroom context*, Teachers 76 and 77 were clearly frustrated with the *lack of motivation and interest* in students when they are learning a new language. Teacher 76 prefers an English-only policy, but is not able to carry it out since student disinterest is a big issue for them. Then, they identified student motivation as a key contextual factor. Likewise, Teacher 77 stands by English as first choice, with native language as backup. It is safe to say that they adapt language use and translanguaging based on *student level* and *motivation*. Their thoughts could be found below:

Teacher 76 (High School): It is better not to use Turkish in the classrooms, but the students, especially in high schools, are not interested in learning a second language.

Teacher 77 (Middle School): The first choice of course should be English. But according to the level of students, not grades, you sometimes have to use native language. Especially when they do not mind learning.

Among these thoughts, Teacher 4 mentioned the *hindrance of exposure* and warns against *overuse of L1*, though they accepted it and felt fine with it:

Teacher 4 (Primary School): Using L1 is totally OK in classes, though it might slow the learning if the whole class is in L1 only, like in many state schools.

As a side note, Teacher 73 pointed out another debatable theory coined as *Critical Period Hypothesis*, where they believed there is a certain period of time for acquiring language and when that period is passed, it is quite impossible to acquire a language. Yet, it is not universally accepted. This topic was further expounded upon in the forthcoming discussion section. Teacher 73 places emphasis on this topic and backs it up with *emotional bonds*, *interest* and *motivation* owing to the fact these are crucial elements for children learning or acquiring a new language. Their statement can be read below:

Teacher 73 (Primary School): At the primary level, it is enough to hear and try to express the English language in a certain context. Because students need to be exposed to a second language at the critical age to improve it later. But students should be enthusiastic. Emotional ties, interest, motivation are crucial at an early age. Gradually but permanently.

Since Türkiye is a large country, education in *different geographical regions* may vary, just as Teacher 46 responded. They definitely discerned this phenomenon and its influence on language education throughout the country, which leads the statement below to differing *contextual factors and student profiles*:

Teacher 46 (Middle School): Of course, it is vital to explain a subject in the target language, but it is difficult to carry out in Türkiye since there are huge numbers of differences among students from east to west.

It is fairly normal that the amount or degree of translanguaging may diverge in EFL classrooms. As Teacher 63 stated, *adapting language use to student proficiency* is crucial and they suggested a flexible approach regarding translanguaging:

Teacher 63 (High School): Depending on the student's knowledge of language, English can be used in the classroom continuously or for a limited time. The situation should be adapted according to the student's level.

Quite the reverse, a positive approach to translanguaging is presented under this section. Starting with Teacher 29, who provided a broad outlook on translanguaging,

they propounded the balanced translanguageing approach, also called *judicious* or *sensible translanguageing*. Moreover, the famous term *affective filter* is recognized by this teacher, in an effort to dismiss discomfort and puzzlement in students. In addition, *paralinguistics* is also mentioned to be a helpful technique in the classroom while employing translanguageing. Above all, they saw translanguageing as a *scaffolding technique* in assorted contexts such as teaching abstract vocabulary:

Teacher 29 (Primary School): The complete usage of English seems a little surreal for me at the moment considering the level and capacity of students yet of course this is not an excuse for us not to use it as much as possible. I believe the lesson can be carried out in English with the help of body language, facial expressions and drilling technique but besides from these I use translanguageing incredibly often because, without the feeling of being lost and confused, I think it is the best way for students to get used to the language and for them to realize how the words are pronounced and how the sentences are emphasized. I have observed that the complete usage of English causes students to complain and feel clueless during the whole process and give up at the end. They cannot guess the true meanings of English words, especially the abstract ones, so translanguageing comes in quite handy.

By the same token, it can be presumed that Teacher 29, by and large, identified the value of translanguageing for *facilitating comprehension of difficult concepts*. Moreover, they recognized the troubles of an English-only approach, given student proficiency levels and acknowledged the gap between ideal and practical classroom realities. However, they still support *maximizing English use* despite challenges. But again, it could be inferred that Teacher 29 observed the negative effects of English-only approach on *student motivation* and noted the anticipated learner disengagement in monolingual classrooms.

Lastly, Teacher 30 supports *judicious use* of translanguageing by stating the phrase “*should not be too much*.” They perceived the effectiveness of a bilingual approach to language teaching when used strategically. This balanced approach ensures that students are not deprived of essential L2 exposure while still benefiting from strategic use of their native language to support comprehension and learning. The expression is described in the following lines:

Teacher 30 (High School): Sometimes the students cannot match the given information in their first language and the teachers need to explain it in Turkish. I think it is much

more effective to use both English and Turkish in the classes. But it should not be too much. When it is used as translanguaging technique, it would be efficient.

4.2.2. EFL teachers' purposes for translanguaging in the EFL classrooms.

In the previous section, divergent orientations of EFL teachers about translanguaging were discussed. Now, the reasons and purposes behind the teachers' translanguaging practices, which are related to the second research question, will be explained. Based on these, four subthemes were identified: *Translanguaging for Teaching Linguistic Concepts*, *Translanguaging for Engagement in the Classroom*, *Translanguaging for a Safe Learning Environment*, and *Translanguaging and Time Management in the Classroom*. Below, Table 12 explains these in great detail:

Table 12.

Theme, Subtheme, and Code Distribution Table: Set 2

Theme	Subthemes	Codes
Purposes for Translanguaging	Translanguaging for Teaching Linguistic Concepts	Explaining complex structures Teaching grammar Interconnectedness of language skills Scaffolded approach Complex and difficult concepts Novel vocabulary Deeper content comprehension Clarification of content Facilitating comprehension Reducing confusion Enhancing understanding
	Translanguaging for Engagement in the Classroom	Giving instructions Increasing motivation Classroom management Grabbing attention Boosting creativity Peer translation Comprehensive understanding of instructions Comparative understanding of two languages Instruction clarity Maintaining and increasing student interest Creating intrigue and boosting engagement Boosting imaginative thinking
	Translanguaging for a Safe Learning Environment	Affective filter Avoiding confusion Avoiding timidity Reducing learner anxiety Student comfort Student security

Translanguaging and Time Management in the Classroom	Time restrictions Trying to keep up with the curriculum Curriculum constraints Time pressure Workload Exams Delivering content swiftly
---	--

4.2.2.1. Translanguaging for teaching linguistic concepts. It is known that translanguaging can aid students to ascertain *difficult linguistic concepts*. That is why, Teacher 5 indicated that they use it actively in their EFL classroom, supports target language use in primary/secondary school, but endorses native language for *explaining complex structures* in high school. They recognized the need for L1 in *teaching grammar*, especially for central examinations such as YDT (Foreign Language Test):

Teacher 5 (High School): In my opinion English lessons in Primary and Secondary Schools should be taught using the target language. Thus, the students can use English for effective communication. When I think about English lessons in High Schools, a more effective learning environment will be created by explaining complex structures in the native language. That is the reason for which I use the native language a lot when teaching grammar with my YDT students. Without their first language, it would be too hard for them to get the necessary information and the strategies as well. They have to answer 80 multiple choice questions, some of which include translation.

Equally, Teacher 39 specified their positive look on using L1 for *grammar teaching* as well, they reckoned translanguaging as more effective than L2-only approach, which is added below:

Teacher 39 (Middle School): We have to use our L1 while teaching grammar and I support it. Sometimes using L1 can be more effective than L2. I do not see any problem with translanguaging in the classroom.

More than that, Teacher 29 came up with a very detailed paragraph and listed a lot of valuable opinions. First of all, they were conscious of the *interconnectedness of language skills* across English and Turkish. In parallel with this, they support the initial comprehension in L1 before transitioning to L2 and, for this, suggested a *scaffolded approach* to language learning. Apart from everything, they heavily supported

translanguaging, particularly for *complex concepts* and *novel vocabulary*. Theoretically, stronger L1 skills were believed to correlate with better L2 acquisition, according to their view, and this matches with the *Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis*. Lastly, this teacher based their perspective on personal experiences and saw translanguaging as a tool for *deeper content comprehension*. The participants in this regard are as follows:

Teacher 28 (High School): As an English teacher, I hold the perspective that students who lack proficiency in their native language, such as Turkish, including aspects of grammar, vocabulary and proper language usage, may encounter challenges in acquiring a completely foreign language with distinct syntax and vocabulary. Even when explaining concepts in Turkish, understanding can be elusive. Thus, it appears more logical to facilitate students in comprehending the material in their mother tongue first, and then internalizing the subjects in the second language. It is paramount to consider the students' proficiency levels; I am of the opinion that the more adept they are in their mother tongue, the more adept they are expected to be in the foreign language. In relation to "translanguaging", I advocate for the utilization of students' mother tongue as a valuable asset in the language acquisition process, particularly in comprehending intricate concepts and assimilating novel vocabulary and structures. This tactic not only nurtures a deeper comprehension of the content but also bolsters students' linguistic skills by drawing upon their existing language proficiencies and knowledge. The viewpoint I mentioned above is especially relevant for students who do not have a strong foundation in English, but if they are in primary school, I believe that foreign language usage should be emphasized more. My observations from working in both levels have led me to this conclusion.

Meanwhile, Teacher 81 endorsed limited L1 use for *clarification of content*, defended translanguaging for *difficult concepts* and *vocabulary*:

Teacher 81 (Middle School): As far as I am concerned, students and the teachers need a bit of Turkish in language classes. When they have difficulties understanding a concept or a word, we should use the first language to make them understand better.

In the EFL classroom, a common ground for understanding the class content should be one of the end goals, as Teachers 9, 11, 50, 55 remarked. All of them supported translanguaging for *facilitating comprehension* and attested to the role of

translanguaging in *reducing confusion* and *enhancing understanding*. The statements are detailed in the subsequent paragraphs:

Teacher 9 (Primary School): For students to comprehend the requirements of the lesson, translanguaging is okay to apply.

Teacher 11 (High School): I think we sometimes need to use our mother tongue, and it helps students to understand some topics better.

Teacher 50 (Middle School): I think it is necessary to use native language while teaching English because students feel confused if I only use English in the lessons.

Teacher 55 (High School): We need to use Turkish in the class because the students cannot understand what we are talking about.

4.2.2.2. Translanguaging for engagement in the classroom. Another subtheme of functions of translanguaging that was determined was *translanguaging for engagement*. In succession, *giving instructions*, *motivation*, *classroom management*, *grabbing attention*, and *boosting creativity* emerged evidently.

Primarily, Teacher 70 used *peer translation* for *giving instructions*, they also implied carrying out translanguaging to ensure *comprehensive understanding of instructions*. The viewpoint is presented below:

Teacher 70 (Middle School): I generally speak English in class. But I make my students translate my words into Turkish, especially instructions, so that every student can understand the instructions.

Sustaining this, Teacher 7 posited translanguaging for *comparative understanding of two languages* and *instruction clarity*. It may be said that translanguaging can maintain *student interest* and, as a result, facilitate understanding. The expression is described in the lines below:

Teacher 7 (Middle School): Translanguaging helps students to understand the differences and similarities between the two languages. They should be given the instructions in their native language; it makes the context more understandable. Using only English is not an effective way to keep the students' interest alive.

Without the urge to learn a language, the whole process gets very difficult for both teachers and students. Teachers 18 and 68 viewed translanguaging as a *motivational tool*, recognizing the balance between English use for *motivation* and strategic L1 use. Their opinions are shown in the passages below:

Teacher 18 (High School): Other tongues should be used in case of necessity. Most of the time, English must be used more to motivate the learners. If you use your mother tongue more than English, the learners cannot be motivated effectively and appropriately.

Teacher 68 (High School): Sometimes it gets useful to switch languages to make the school and class environment more effective and motivative.

With respect to *classroom management*, translanguaging also can play a central role in language classes. Teachers 23, 27, and 52 were supportive of translanguaging for classroom management. They put the spotlight on L1's part in ensuring class order and efficiency, especially under time constraints. The arguments are included in the following texts:

Teacher 23 (High School): Using L1 is easier for the teacher for classroom management and some grammar topics.

Teacher 27 (Primary School): I believe that speaking more English is necessary in teaching the course content, but speaking the native language will be useful in situations such as giving instructions or providing classroom management.

Teacher 52 (Middle School): Because of the unwillingness of students towards English courses, I always have to use my first language to make them keep silent and to finish the content as soon as possible.

Teacher 3 suggested that target language exposure can create *intrigue* and *engagement* in the EFL classroom. They also further suggested that translanguaging can foster *deeper cognitive engagement* and student focus on the content. They observed increased attention through translanguaging, shown below:

Teacher 3 (Middle School): ...I am often met by a deep curious silence when I read a paragraph in English, to the point where I might even say they are amazed by it. When I use the interactive board to do listening exercises; instead of playing the audio track all the way to the end, I pause at the end of each sentence and translate it in their first/second language. During this rather extensive period of intellectual conversation, my classes'

attention is rarely away; thereby allowing me to even dare to say that translanguaging keeps their attention level quite high.

Contrasting with the other views, Teacher 43 proposed an English-only policy can, as a matter of fact, *boost engagement*, promoting English use to *increase student interest*. This view is explored in the following text:

Teacher 43 (Middle School): I think we should speak English about the contexts in the class because of the increasing amount of interest of the students.

Translanguaging highly has a bearing on *creativity* and *linguistic diversity*. In this instance, Teacher 20 preferred translanguaging as a way of *enhancing creativity* and appreciated the worthiness of translanguaging to *boost imaginative thinking* and linguistic diversity. During this occasion, this can help and allow students to draw on all of their linguistic resources too. This is addressed in the ensuing line below:

Teacher 20 (High School): Translanguaging in the EFL classroom should be used as part of education to enrich students' imagination.

4.2.2.3. Translanguaging for a safe learning environment. It was discovered that translanguaging can be used to create a *safe learning environment* for students. The psychological filter, known as *affective filter*, could either *reinforce learning* or *create an obstacle* against it. With the affective filter being high, the students experience high amounts of distress, so it should be the teacher's goal to decrease high levels to low levels. To describe this briefly, an excerpt of Teacher 29's statement was added below, they expressed that excessive use of English may cause students to feel *dazed* and *confused*, making the process for students quite hard; thus, they cave in:

Teacher 29 (Primary School): ...I have observed that the complete usage of English causes students to complain and feel clueless during the whole process and give up at the end.

Teacher 37 shares the opinion that they thought translanguaging as a bridge between languages and this bridge could *reduce learner anxiety* and act as a solution, the lines are presented below:

Teacher 37 (Primary School): I think translanguaging is a vehicle between L1 and other languages. It makes students feel more comfortable when learning a new language.

Along the same lines, Teacher 62 and 64 prioritized translanguaging for *student comfort and security*. They underpinned the emotional benefits of translanguaging in language learning. Addedly, Teacher 64 articulated that direct translation can expedite learning of new words. Their reasonings were expanded upon in the texts below:

Teacher 62 (High School): It is sometimes necessary for students to feel secure in the learning process.

Teacher 64 (High School): It will help them to feel more comfortable knowing that a teacher has knowledge of their mother language. It can help them acquire new vocabulary more quickly by directly giving the translation into their first language. Their teacher will be able to support and scaffold their English using the learners' first language.

4.2.2.4. Translanguaging and time management in the classroom. The time spared for actively teaching in the classroom is 40 minutes in Türkiye, and the weekly hours for English instruction vary from school types to grades, but more often than not, it is not sufficient. What is more, the curriculum is also over-loaded and over-ambitious. Therefore, the teachers feel overburdened facing these problems. *Time restrictions* and *trying to keep up with the curriculum* is a common problem for most English teachers, especially those who are working at state schools. Regarding these problems, Teacher 44 confided that translanguaging is a necessity due to *curriculum constraints and time restrictions*. They highlighted the *time pressure* and *workload* as factors necessitating L1 use:

Teacher 44 (High School): The essential vocabulary for instructions should be given and if enough time is given, they can sort out any difficulty. In the national curriculum, the workload is too much and we do not have time to give feedback and to allow students to assess themselves. Thus, the use of mother tongue becomes inevitable to accelerate the process of the tasks. Besides, we need more time and level classes as well in order to increase our understanding.

Indeed, it is blatant that the issues that were mentioned put extra weight on the teacher's shoulders. By the same token, Teachers 45, 51, and 66 were heedful of *time restrictions* affecting language policies, and they knew the practical challenges in implementing English-only approach under these harsh situations. Yet, on an individual basis, Teacher 66 also referred to LGS (High School Entrance Exam) exam's influence on teaching the subjects on time. Their expressions were listed subsequently below:

Teacher 45 (High School): I think, only the target language (English) should be used in English classes but it cannot be possible all the time in Türkiye because of the limitation of time, number of English classes in general and pressure about finishing the curriculum.

Teacher 51 (Middle School): English teaching is very difficult in middle school because of the LGS exam.

Teacher 66 (Primary School): I think using English in the classroom is needed but it will take time.

As distinct from above, an excerpt of Teacher 52's statement was added below. They used L1 for efficient classroom management and *delivering content swiftly*. This proclamation illustrates how time constraints can necessitate translanguaging:

Teacher 52 (Middle School): ...I always have to use my first language to make them keep silent and to finish the content as soon as possible.

4.3. Analysis of Semi-structured Interviews Directed to EFL Teachers

In addition to the open-ended statements, semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven EFL teachers. Before starting the interviews, background information about the teachers was gathered. Comments were made based on their backgrounds, and some topics were interpreted and analyzed with reference to their backgrounds. For starters, the first research question was taken into consideration for the perceptions of teachers and the subthemes were analyzed accordingly. Predictably, the reasons of the teachers were compiled under successive subthemes as well. For those, the second research question was accounted for. Before proceeding into these findings, it is better

to explain that interviewed teachers were not coded with numbers like it was done for the open-ended statements responses, but with alphabetical letters.

4.3.1. Diverse attitudes towards translanguaging. Under this main theme, *Translanguaging in Different Classroom Profiles* and *Contextual Factors* and *Unfavorable Comments on Translanguaging* will be displayed as subthemes. As stated earlier, this section is related to the first research question. Below, Table 13 exhibits the detailed distribution of themes, subthemes, and codes for transparency:

Table 13.

Theme, Subtheme, and Code Distribution Table: Set 3

Theme	Subthemes	Codes
Diverse Attitudes towards Translanguaging	Translanguaging in Different Classroom Profiles	Positive approach Consistent approach Theoretical training and classroom reality External pressures Curriculum-proficiency mismatch Variation in language choice Flexibility in language choices Evolution of student perceptions towards translanguaging
	Unfavorable Comments on Translanguaging	Divergence between maximizing target language exposure and realities Compulsion to maintain target language use Compromise between target language input and ensuring comprehension Language exposure Reduced target language exposure

4.3.1.1. Translanguaging in different classroom profiles. As stated earlier, *contextual factors and various student or school profiles*, indeed, have a great impact on the degree of translanguaging and medium of instruction in the EFL classrooms all over Türkiye. Many of the teachers who were interviewed expressed their sentiments on this specific topic. To begin with, Teacher A said that her approach to translanguaging stayed *positive* and *consistent* over time, yet with reasonable factors, she practiced a lot of English-speaking activities for students. She further mentioned for a necessity for adaptability in EFL classrooms; the statement is outlined below:

Teacher A: My approach has remained consistent over time. When I began teaching at a primary school, I conducted numerous speaking activities due to the students' enthusiasm for learning. The approach depended on the students.

Just like Teacher A, Teacher G also has consistent practices and beliefs on translanguaging, which might suggest a stability in teaching philosophy regarding translanguaging. His viewpoint is indicated below:

Teacher G: My perceptions of translanguaging have not changed much; they continue in the same way.

Additionally, Teacher B revealed the gap between *theoretical training* and *classroom reality*, betraying the harsh truth of different classroom profiles:

Teacher B: After graduation, I believed I had to use English exclusively in class, but the reality is quite different.

Other than that, Teacher B experienced *external pressures* when she first started teaching. She revealed unexpected challenges in implementing an English-only approach. Her statement is presented below:

Teacher B: I started teaching at a primary school, I consistently used English. However, parents complained to the principal, stating their children could not understand my lessons. I was actually reported for using English in my class.

Teacher C, on the other hand, suggests translanguaging as a practical solution to *curriculum-proficiency mismatch* in the language classrooms. She noted that translanguaging becomes a vital factor in the classroom with low-proficiency students; as specified below:

Teacher C: If you are a recent graduate, you might assume students will easily understand you, but the curriculum and the actual student proficiency levels often do not align. Translanguaging becomes a necessity, whether you prefer it or not.

Very similar to Teacher A's report, Teacher D also noted the *variation in language choice*, indicating *flexibility in language choices* on class dynamics:

Teacher D: My language choice has varied depending on the classes I have taught throughout my career.

With a quite distinct proclamation, Teacher E asserted that he observed a positive change in students' attitudes on translanguaging, though the initial student resistance to language switching was rough for him. He also suggested the importance of explaining the rationale behind translanguaging to students. Then, he implied the increased acceptance of translanguaging with consistent use. In short, this demonstrated *the evolution of student perceptions towards translanguaging*. His observation is as laid out below:

Teacher E: When I first started language switching, they showed me this attitude: "Teacher, you switch to another language because you do not want to talk to us. So, we will speak our mother tongue (Kurdish) to you." And they really did that in the first few months. After a while, they saw that I was doing this out of necessity, their attitudes changed. Now, students are much more open to this language switching. Because of this, they are learning a lot.

4.3.1.2. Unfavorable comments on translanguaging. Not all of the methods and approaches are solely positive in language teaching, including translanguaging. In spite of these teachers' unfavorable comments, they still acknowledged the value of translanguaging and on a number of occasions where it became a requirement to carry it out. To bolster this notion, Teacher A clearly uncovered and admitted the divergence between *maximizing target language exposure* and *classroom realities*, and some things do not always go as planned. Her response is as showcased below:

Teacher A: It is crucial to encourage students to learn English by exposing them to the language. However, I do not strictly adhere to this principle in class, although ideally, we should.

In a similar fashion, Teacher B begins her lessons speaking in English, although no matter how hard she tries, the classroom language always switches to Turkish. What came forward from this response is that it is *compelling to maintain target language use* all of the time:

Teacher B: I begin by using English to provide language exposure, but eventually switch to Turkish because I cannot really help it.

Moving on, Teacher D, sort of gave an alike speech as Teacher B, suggested a *compromise between target language input and ensuring comprehension*. She also recognized the disconnect between ideal and actual language use in class, as provided below:

Teacher D: I aim to promote the idea that increased exposure leads to better learning. However, despite my efforts to encourage English use, students tend to rely more on Turkish since they do not need to use English in our country.

While maintaining the positive sides of translanguaging, Teacher G brought up the a priori negative sides of translanguaging. He acknowledged the impact of *reduced target language exposure*; likewise, raised concerns about possible long-term consequences of reduced target language use. His perspective could be read below:

Teacher G: ...but the negative side is that when they are less exposed to the target language, language development slows down. When they realize it is easier to speak in their native language, they avoid using the target language.

4.3.2. Reasons for translanguaging in the EFL classrooms. Under this main theme, the teachers' stated purposes for translanguaging are explained under various subheadings or subthemes. To see in detail, Table 14 can be analyzed down below:

Table 14.

Theme, Subtheme, and Code Distribution Table: Set 4

Theme	Subthemes	Codes
Reasons for Translanguaging	Translanguaging for Teaching	Grammar structures
	Linguistic	Adapting translanguaging degree
	Concepts	Lack of grammatical knowledge
		Grasping pronunciation features
		L1 grammar as a prerequisite
		Exam preparation of students
		Exam success over immersive language learning
		Enhancing comprehension
		Facilitating understanding
		Peer translation
		Meta-language
		Giving similar examples in L1
		Cognates
		Teaching in diverse linguistic environments

	Explicit pronunciation instruction
Translanguaging for Engagement in the Classroom	Emotional engagement Building rapport Overcoming resistance to L2 use Reduced motivation Disengaging proficient students Escalated motivation Overcoming communication issues Increased student effort Giving instructions Bilingual instructions Classroom management Language and paralinguistics Stimulant effect of L1 Non-verbal communication
Translanguaging for a Safe Learning Environment	L1 for eliminating discomfort and uneasiness Prejudices against English Affective filters Psychological barriers Student anxiety Building confidence Test-oriented mindset of Turkish students
Translanguaging and Time Management in the Classroom	Time-related issues Time constraints Increased time for classroom management More allocated time for English instruction Balance between time efficiency and language exposure
Initiation or Direction of Translanguaging	Proactive approach The evolution of translanguaging practices Adapting language use based on student feedback Encouraging peer interaction Negotiation of meaning

4.3.2.1. Translanguaging for teaching linguistic concepts. As mentioned, *facilitating comprehension or understanding* was the most common subthemes that emerged during the semi-structured interviews. The teachers made use of that strategy especially when *conveying grammar structures* to students. To illustrate teachers' points, multiple teachers (Teachers A, B, C, D, and G) emphasized using L1 for grammar explanations.

Firstly, Teacher A adapts her language use and translanguaging degree based on *students' proficiency* and teaches grammar, which directs the point to the impact of contextual factors. This flexible approach shows the requirement to tailor teaching methods to students' needs. The statement of her can be read below:

Teacher A: I find it necessary to incorporate Turkish when teaching English, particularly when explaining grammar. This is often due to students' English proficiency. I adapt my language use based on the class and situation, especially if their English level is low.

Likewise, Teacher B spoke briefly of a fundamental issue, which is students' *lack of grammatical knowledge* in L1 and its detrimental effect for L2 learning. Yet, she still accepted the fact that the students need exposure to L2, in order to *grasp the target language and its pronunciation features*, the remarks could be found below:

Teacher B: Students often lack understanding of basic grammatical concepts like adjectives in their native language, making it difficult to teach these concepts in English. Speaking English does not necessarily contribute to their learning, although they do need exposure to the language and pronunciation.

Having a similar opinion, Teacher C stated that she teaches L1 grammar before L2 grammar, and added that Turkish grammar may act as a *prerequisite* for learning the target language's grammar subjects:

Teacher C: I spend 15 minutes teaching Turkish grammar before delving into English grammar. It is essential for them to grasp grammatical concepts in Turkish first.

Teacher B uses L1 for *exam preparation* and asserts that *teaching grammar* is important for that matter. Thus, L1 becomes a part of this activity. This approach prioritizes *exam success over immersive language learning*. Her statement is as follows:

Teacher B: When preparing for exams, you cannot really teach English lessons. You are teaching grammar, etc., so I explained the lessons to the students in Turkish.

For facilitating understanding, several teachers (Teachers A, C, D, F, and G) use L1 to *enhance comprehension*. Specifically, Teacher A finds L1 use more efficient than simplifying English. Also, she defines subjects in Turkish after transposing them in English. At times, to avoid using Turkish herself, she gets students to *supply explanations in Turkish for the other students*. The subsequent responses were added below:

Teacher A: It can enhance students' comprehension of the material. While I could simplify the English used, switching to Turkish is often more efficient.

Teacher A: When necessary, I clarify topics in Turkish after explaining them in English. Alternatively, I sometimes have students provide explanations in Turkish instead of doing so myself.

Analogously, Teacher C aims for *thorough comprehension of linguistic rules* and subjects. She cares for students' understanding and making sense of linguistic rules, so that they will know why they are learning them:

Teacher C: My goal is to help students thoroughly comprehend the subject matter. I want them to understand the reasoning behind using certain linguistic rules.

On the same wavelength, Teacher D defended the idea that a strong L1 foundation can support L2 learning, potentially bridging gaps in students' linguistic knowledge. If the former is missing, the students have difficulties in *meta-language*:

Teacher D: Students often do not understand terms like 'relative clause' in English, nor do they know its Turkish equivalent. Unfortunately, they struggle to transfer their knowledge.

Caring for students' struggles, Teacher D resorts to L1 when she senses students have a *hard time understanding*. She does not want her students to get confused; hence, she gives detailed clarifications in the native language. Once again, she confessed that she encourages English use more than Turkish use, but things do not turn out as contemplated. The following answers were added below:

Teacher D: For instance, when explaining a grammar structure on the board, I will provide English sentences and then switch to Turkish if I notice confusion among students. I provide more detailed explanations in the native language. Although I try to encourage English use, it does not always prove effective.

Teacher D: When I sense that students are struggling to understand, I may resort to Turkish. I feel compelled to use it.

Coming from the same direction, Teacher G made a simple comment saying that native language helps students comprehend subjects better and makes it easier to grasp grammatical structures:

Teacher G: Providing explanations in the native language helps students better understand the subject. It also helps them grasp grammatical structures better.

Later, Teacher G expounded on this topic and said that he gives *similar examples in L1* for explaining word meanings. This method may involve contrastive analysis to demonstrate the differences between the native and the target language:

Teacher G: When switching between languages, we give similar examples in the native language while explaining the meanings of words and expressions, ensuring students understand better.

Harmoniously, Teacher F noted the usefulness of L1 for teaching *cognates*, which can leverage similarities between languages to build vocabulary, which provides students with an easy entry point into L2 vocabulary acquisition:

Teacher F: In the first unit of second grade, there is also a unit called ‘words.’ In this unit, it teaches words that are the same in English and Turkish, like zebra, panda, cinema, or similar words. So, in this case, translanguaging is appropriate.

To continue, Teacher F offered a delicate view of translanguaging, and he views that L1 use might come in handy and be quite complementary. His perspective gives priority to student confidence and clear understanding over strict adherence to L2-only policies. What is more, he acknowledged the negative impacts of confusion on language learning:

Teacher F: ...but the children can still tend to mix these up again. Then you can implement a little translanguaging. There is no major harm in this, honestly, and I think it is healthier to do this rather than confusing the students.

Moreover, Teacher F addressed the struggles of multilingual classrooms, particularly in eastern provinces with Kurdish speakers. This puts the spotlight on the complexity

of language teaching in *diverse linguistic environments*, and might suggest context-sensitive approaches to translanguaging. The expression was added below:

Teacher F: In the eastern provinces, there is Kurdish, but apart from that, there are also people who are just starting to learn Turkish when they come to school. Therefore, because it is difficult for the child to learn three languages at the same time, you can explain things in Turkish to this child. At least this way, the child can learn the word or the structure.

Pronunciation might be overlooked by English teachers and it may create even harder comprehension problems in the classroom. Two teachers in particular, Teacher E and F mentioned and addressed pronunciation-related challenges. At the outset, Teacher E brought attention to this common issue and stressed the predicament of overcoming L1 phonetic patterns in L2 learning, soliciting a need for *explicit pronunciation instruction*. On the side, Teacher F mentioned that his students tend to get things mixed up because of their pronunciation. The following answers were laid out below:

Teacher E: Another issue is pronunciation. Students who think that Turkish is read as it is written encounter problems because they believe English is read as it is written.

Teacher F: When I use English, the children try to understand me, but sometimes they do not. They can mix up some things in terms of their pronunciation.

4.3.2.2. Translanguaging for engagement in the classroom. Teacher B and E touched upon the subtheme of *building rapport*. For instance, Teacher B expressed the struggle of having strong emotional bonds with students while teaching English. This proposes that exclusive use of L2 may create barriers to *emotional engagement*, and impact the overall language learning experience of students. The following expressions are as follows:

Teacher B: I believe emotional connections are crucial. When teaching in English, I struggle to get adequate feedback and feel something is lacking.

Teacher B: ...I find it challenging to form a connection with students when speaking English.

In contrast, Teacher E revealed that insisting on translanguaging in spite of negative perceptions can yield positive results. This implies that a balanced approach might be more effective for *building rapport* and *overcoming initial resistance to L2 use*, his statement is as follows:

Teacher E: At first, students might perceive translanguaging to English as a distancing, cold, or anti-communicative method by teachers. However, I believe that by persistently increasing translanguaging despite these negative perceptions, there is a high probability of transitioning from negative to positive outcomes.

Another subtheme was the case of *motivation*. Teacher C tackled this issue by stating that simplifying the target language may *disengage proficient students* in the classroom, reducing motivation as a result. Therefore, she hinted that balancing both languages is key to maintaining interest, and judicious translanguaging is necessary to benefit the whole class:

Teacher C: ...and when I simplify the language, more proficient students become disengaged. This leads to a loss of interest in the class. It is important to strike a balance between both languages.

Teacher A also observed that increased comprehension of the subject matter leads to *escalated motivation*. This might propose a direct link between understanding and engagement, and it indicates the motivational benefits of translanguaging:

Teacher A: Students' motivation tends to increase as their comprehension improves.

Teacher B realized the same incident in students, yet in her case, the use of Turkish increased the amount of motivation in them. Moreover, she admitted to not being supportive of using the native language, yet she still uses it. Her statement transpired a contradiction and a little bit of regret. Similarly, Teacher C had the chance to observe discernable increased motivation in students by way of translanguaging. The statements are described below:

Teacher B: I have noticed that students' motivation increases when I use Turkish. Although I do not fully support this approach, we continue to use it.

Teacher C: I certainly observed that there is a noticeable increase in their motivation.

On top of these, Teacher E expressed his feelings towards translanguaging and its role in increasing *motivation* and *interest*. He elaborated on the fact that translanguaging can have advantages beyond just language learning; furthermore, broadening students' worldviews:

Teacher E: What comes to mind is that translanguaging sparks interest among students. Since they are middle school students, they might think that the language of communication is only Kurdish and Turkish. However, seeing that they can also speak in English motivates them. They start to take more interest in the English language and realize that the world they live in is actually a place with broader, bigger mountains and more colors.

In conjunction, Teacher E sees translanguaging as an effective way of *overcoming communication issues*. His positive reinforcement in English improves students' behaviors towards it. Thus, he gets to monitor *increased student effort* and motivation to speak English owing to rational translanguaging. Being pleased with the progress, his explanations were referenced below:

Teacher E: I believe switching to English, even if they do not know it, is a method that solves communication problems. When I employ translanguaging and say 'well done' to them, I see more positive changes in their attitudes and behaviors. Now, I notice more of my students trying to speak English with me and being more open to English. This makes me happy because it means I have sparked their interest.

However, Teacher F offered a contrasting opinion, saying that switching to Turkish might have students reckon that they cannot properly learn English, and that is the reason why teachers use L1 in the first place. This firmly puts emphasis on the complicated side of motivation in language learning and the negative perceptions of L1 use, the statement can be seen below:

Teacher F: Actually, when we switch to Turkish, the student might think, 'I probably cannot learn this', so they perceive it as the teacher switching to Turkish because they cannot understand. I have encountered this a lot. That is why I think it is better to start in English and finish in English. In this situation, the child's motivation can increase or decrease, but I have mostly seen that children's motivation drops.

Giving instructions is the key aspect of ensuring understanding of class content. For this reason, Teacher C, F, and G made reference to this specific subtheme. Stating the difficulty of giving instructions, Teacher C alluded that owing to low student proficiencies, translanguaging is necessary:

Teacher C: Some 9th-grade students do not even know colors in English, making it challenging to provide instructions in the language.

While Teacher C pointed out the issue of low proficiency, Teacher F and Teacher G saw *bilingual instructions* as useful for comprehension. Primarily, Teacher F supported the use of Turkish for giving instructions, and stated that it is much more beneficial and complies with what the textbook presents. In addition, Teacher G agreed that using both languages helps students fully comprehend the lesson flow and class activities. Their subsequent statements are as follows:

Teacher F: Well, if even the textbook sometimes gives Turkish instructions or after saying something, saying its Turkish version or saying half in Turkish and half in English, of course, is much more beneficial.

Teacher G: I believe it also helps students fully understand what they need to do when explaining the flow of the lesson and how activities will be carried out.

Classroom management was also apparent as a subtheme. The native language is known to be very effective for warning the students and ensuring an ideal learning environment. In this particular instance, Teacher F concentrated upon the role of both *language and paralinguistics* in managing the classroom. He uses familiar cues to maintain student behavior. In his second statement, Teacher F signified the importance of gestures and facial expressions in managing the classroom behavior efficiently. Besides, the power and *the stimulant of native language* is evident in his responses. Both of the statements could be found below:

Teacher F: When they are learning a new language and seeing a new teacher, they misbehave and do not listen. For this reason, I sometimes think that switching to Turkish is important.

Teacher F: When warning the child, you use the same gestures and facial expressions as other teachers of other subjects. For instance, when you say ‘be quiet!’, you do it with

gestures that are actually used in Turkish. The child thinks: “I saw this from the science teacher.” Then, they can understand that I want them to be quiet.

Lastly, Teacher E approved the use of Turkish, yet took cognizance of *non-verbal communication*, just like Teacher F, such as body language and eye contact as main tools for classroom management and maintaining student behavior. He values paralinguistics to the point where he enjoys its subtlety in managing the classroom. His expression can be seen below:

Teacher E: Of course, I may use Turkish to solve communication problems. Besides that, we know that communication does not only happen through language. This directs me towards communicating in a different way such as body language, eye contact, or unseen cues. I enjoy communicating using forms that are not in the forefront.

4.3.2.3. Translanguaging for a safe learning environment. It became apparent that using only English or making it the major language in the classroom may cause *uneasiness and discomfort* among students. According to Teacher A, this causes students to have *prejudices* against English. Furthermore, she mentioned abstract mental barriers, which again suggests *affective filters*, were one of the problems she had to deal with in her classes. The statement is noted below:

Teacher A: Students often have preconceived notions about English, which can create mental barriers. This is a common issue I face.

Unlike Teacher A, Teacher C touched upon the *test-oriented mindset* of Turkish students, which makes students see English as a worthless subject and this reasoning blocks students from seeing English as a language. Then, she linked the test-oriented approach to *increased anxiety* towards English:

Teacher C: From the beginning of their education, students are test-oriented and view English as an exam subject rather than a language. This causes anxiety when they encounter English. We need to address the preconceptions about English, with the main goal being to enhance understanding.

She also went on to say that even simple phrases in English may trigger students' discomfort and anxiety, as described below:

Teacher C: ...because students are apprehensive and struggle to understand. Even a simple "good morning!" can make them nervous.

To offer a remedy for increased anxiety of students, Teacher D uses *L1 to reduce and eliminate discomfort* in students and to encourage participation. Accompanied by this, this strategy caused increased comfort in students, inhibiting affective filters as a result. Her remarks are enumerated below:

Teacher D: To create a comfortable and safe environment, I allow students to answer in Turkish, asking them: "How would you express this in Turkish?"

Teacher D: I have observed that using Turkish as the communication language puts students at ease, making them feel more comfortable.

Having said this, Teacher C approved the feature of translanguaging to reduce discomfort and viewed translanguaging as a tool to *build confidence*, and she implicated the need to address *psychological barriers* in language learning:

Teacher C: Translanguaging leads to reduced fear of English and improved confidence. Consequently, we are able to overcome preconceptions.

4.3.2.4. Translanguaging and time management in the classroom. As discussed earlier in the section of open-ended statements, translanguaging may be used as a solution to surmount *time-related issues*, which are mostly caused by lack of comprehension. Teacher F repeatedly addressed this subject, and highlighted time constraints when using English-only instruction, which is stated below:

Teacher F: If this child has never heard English spoken by their previous teachers and the lesson was always explained in Turkish, when you usually teach the lesson in English, it takes 3 or 4 lessons to finish instead of 1 lesson hour.

Furthermore, Teacher F noted *increased time for classroom management* in an English-only approach, which in return wastes a lot of active teaching time. In

addition to this, he indicated the relationship between class size and ability to use English exclusively, the statements are as summarized below:

Teacher F: When I speak English to fourth-grade children, some of them misbehave. You have to warn them extra. Something that should take 10 seconds or that message can take 5 minutes because the children really do not understand.

Teacher F: In classes with few students, we have time, so we conduct the lessons entirely in English. It goes more smoothly that way, but if I do the same with 12 students, we cannot finish the lesson on time.

On top of these issues that were expressed clearly, Teacher G suggested the need for *more allocated time for English instruction* and raises questions about *optimal balance* between time efficiency and language exposure, his expression can be found below:

Teacher G: I think the time allocated for language learning is also insufficient; English class hours should be more intensive.

4.3.2.5. Initiation or direction of translanguaging. The *initiation or direction of translanguaging* is another topic that is worth mentioning. It indicates the starting point of translanguaging and how the series of events will be shaped in relation to language teaching and learning. Each teacher was asked individually who initiates translanguaging. The prevalent results were slanted towards teacher-initiated translanguaging. Namely, Teachers A, B, C, and D primarily initiate translanguaging themselves. Particularly, Teacher A takes a *proactive approach* in employing translanguaging:

Teacher A: Students do not request English to be spoken; I initiate the process.

Teacher B also initiates translanguaging practices, and she conveyed the evolution of translanguaging practices over a span of time. Besides, she adapts language use based on *feedback of students*, as specified below:

Teacher B: I begin with English, but after a while, students express difficulty understanding, leading me to switch to Turkish.

On the other hand, Teacher C uses English to encourage *peer interaction*. She stated that she mostly initiated translanguaging herself, then it leads to students' interacting with each other on *negotiation of meaning*:

Teacher C: Naturally, we initiate translanguaging. I begin by speaking English, which prompts students to ask each other questions about what I am saying.

Likewise, Teacher D initiates translanguaging *in times of need*, although she noted the challenge in maintaining English use once Turkish is introduced, the statement was added below:

Teacher D: I always initiate conversations in English. However, students often respond in Turkish. Still, I enjoy teaching in English, but once we transition to Turkish, it tends to dominate the class.

Teacher E touched upon a lot of factors. He stated that he initiates translanguaging due to his own way of communication and lifestyle. His act of translanguaging may happen either *unintentionally* or *intentionally*. These parameters influenced his classroom and he got to observe a redirection from teacher-initiated to student-initiated translanguaging over time. His remarks can be found below:

Teacher E: Because of my own way of life and my way of communicating, of course, I start it. I do this unintentionally, but at times I also knew I was starting it intentionally in the first few months. But now, for example, even when I do not say anything, when I take attendance, their answers in English are their own "translanguaging." So, I have started to see that they are pushing me to switch to the target language as the months go by.

Moving forward, Teachers F and G signified that initiation of translanguaging *depends on the context* or is equally shared, showing a spectrum of approaches. Starting with Teacher F, he highlighted variation in translanguaging initiation across educational levels and implied student autonomy in language choice as proficiency increases. The statement is as follows:

Teacher F: In elementary schools, I initiate translanguaging; in middle schools, the students initiate it, and with adults, they initiate it 99% of the time.

In addition to this, Teacher G raised questions about optimal balance of teacher-initiated and student-initiated translanguaging. Further, it could be figured out that he was in agreement with shared responsibility in the initiation process. The expression is as follows:

Teacher G: I can say that both sides initiate translanguaging equally.

To summarize the qualitative findings, some points should be reiterated. In the interest of brevity, these findings revealed an array of perceptions and practices in EFL teachers' use of translanguaging. Two sides emerged during the procedure, while some teachers maintained cautious attitudes due to English-only policies and concerns about TL exposure, others recognized its value based upon contextual factors including student motivation, emotional bonds, and varying proficiency levels. As for their practices, it was seen that teachers employ translanguaging for multiple purposes such as explaining complex linguistic concepts and grammar structures, facilitating classroom engagement through peer translation and creative activities, creating a safe learning environment that reduces anxiety and builds confidence, and managing time constraints within curriculum demands. Furthermore, the research highlighted how teachers navigate between theoretical training and classroom realities, developing adaptable approaches that transform with regard to student feedback and needs. Distinctly, translanguaging offers a pathway for meta-linguistic awareness, exam preparation, and building rapport; not to mention the fact that it also accommodates diverse linguistic environments. In the end, it was revealed that teachers adopt a proactive approach to translanguaging that balances the competing demands of maximizing TL exposure with ensuring comprehensive understanding, ultimately fostering both emotional engagement and academic success through bilingual instruction and paralinguistic support.

Having encapsulated aforementioned details, in the following chapter, all the data presented here will be analyzed, recapped, interpreted, and discussed in detail from every single aspect possible.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter analyzes the findings of the study with respect to the literature reviewed in Chapter I and Chapter II. As a mixed method study, this research also includes a qualitative component, and as new areas of research emerged, additional references were required beyond those covered in the literature review chapter. Moreover, the discussion emphasizes the similarities and differences between this research and previous studies, focusing on the purposes and perceptions of EFL teachers using translanguaging strategies in their classrooms. The results are organized and discussed based on the quantitative and qualitative data, in connection with the research questions, while also drawing comparisons and providing explanations from both the current study and related literature.

5.1. Discussion

This discussion section encompasses both the quantitative and qualitative findings gathered, providing an in-depth examination and a general summary. The findings have been interpreted overall, and comparisons were made with the relevant literature. Similarities and differences were identified, and new insights that emerged were explained. The primary aim of this research is to examine EFL teachers' perceptions towards translanguaging in the classroom and investigate the reasons behind translanguaging practices. The study was conducted among Turkish English teachers working at the K-12 level. Through a questionnaire, an open-ended question section, and semi-structured interviews, the research aimed to shed light on the role and pedagogical value of the term translanguaging in the EFL context. Additionally, inferences were made, and recommendations were provided after the discussion. A total of 84 participants were reached for the questionnaire and open-ended questions, and interviews were planned with 7 of them. The research was actively conducted during the 2023-2024 academic year. Finally, the analysis and synthesis were conducted with the goal of answering the research questions and the research was brought to a conclusion.

The detailed and sectioned discussion below has been divided into two main parts: the discussion of quantitative findings, followed by the analysis and discussion of the two research questions; and the discussion of qualitative findings, followed by the analysis and discussion of the same two research questions. In total, four main subsections have been established. The aim here is to provide a clearer view of the data obtained from the two different research methods and to assess whether the data from the questionnaire conform to the qualitative evaluations from the open-ended questions and semi-structured interviews. The goal is to ensure that the two types of data complement each other's gaps, ultimately leading to clearer conclusions. In pursuit of justifying this approach, further comments can be made. Quantitative findings provide broad, measurable trends, while qualitative data uncovers the more detailed individual experiences. Addressing them separately ensures that each method is fully explored on its own terms, enhancing the clarity and depth of the analysis. This structure also helps highlight where the findings align or differ, leading to a more balanced and exhaustive understanding of the study's results.

5.1.1. The beliefs and practices of EFL teachers on translanguaging. In this specific section, the findings gathered from the questionnaire will be discussed and interpreted. This part is associated with the first research question, which aimed to ascertain the perceptions and practices of EFL teachers on translanguaging. The questionnaire findings unveiled that there is solid support and a preference for English-centric classrooms, which was proven by Items 2 and 3 (mean scores >5). This implies a strong belief in the importance of maximizing TL exposure in the classroom. In connection with this, the findings also revealed the belief that extensive use of English develops proficiency, and positive attitudes towards selective translanguaging practices were in sight. These results echo those findings found in Doiz and Lasagabaster (2017) and Karakaş (2016), as their findings, which revealed a variety of beliefs ranging from non-acceptance to acceptance of mother tongue use, coincide with the diverse perspectives identified in this study. What is more, they could be interpreted as the variation in attitudes towards translanguaging is a common phenomenon in EFL or other foreign language related settings.

Similarly, the results of the study conducted by Chicherina and Strelkova (2023) demonstrate and advocate the idea that, even in EMI contexts, English-centric classrooms are more favorable. Yet, translanguaging was still accepted and not seen as majorly detrimental; furthermore, it could be stated that there is still a strong belief in maximizing TL exposure, even if translanguaging is being acknowledged. This is in contrast with the study of Burton and Rajendram (2019), where they found negative attitudes towards employing translanguaging. The contrast between the study's findings and theirs stresses the fact that attitudes on translanguaging can vary considerably across different contexts and time periods. This may also be explained by progressive pedagogical trends, cultural factors, or specific institutional policies. This indicates a mild orientation to English-only policy, and suggests that teachers are aware of the value of immersive English practices while still acknowledging its potential benefits in occasional L1 use.

Following these, it was found that there was less consensus on the likely negative impacts of using the first language or translanguaging. Based on this, it seems the teachers may have had mixed feelings or differing opinions about the possible downsides to incorporating the students' L1. In conjunction, the findings gathered from the questionnaire also revealed an ambivalence among teachers regarding the potential for language switching to cause confusion, as evidenced by the assorted responses to Items 4, 7, and 8, which addressed concerns about the impact of translanguaging on students' language development and comprehension. However, teachers were in agreement with the fact that translanguaging can increase students' comprehension (Item 14, $M=3.93$). These findings are largely consistent with the studies of Fang and Liu (2020) and Okoye and Ambale (2023), which reinforce the idea that translanguaging is widely recognized and accepted as a tool for explanation and enhancing content comprehension; additionally, the broadening acceptance of translanguaging in different studies in assorted contexts might suggest that this pedagogy will likely be accepted even more in the future.

On a similar note, it was revealed that bilingual subject glossaries could also assist comprehension (Item 13, $M=3.89$). The shared viewpoint on how this can boost understanding implies that teachers contemplate carefully when blending languages, which may serve as a helpful technique for deepening how students grasp novel

information. Despite her study focused solely on students, Karabulut (2022) provided positive student views of translanguaging pedagogy as well. It was also discovered that there were varied opinions on carrying out English-only policy and its impact on language teaching since the related items had high standard deviations. The collection of opinions helps comprehend why following a rigid rule for using English could be difficult for implementation since teachers do not fully agree on its effectiveness.

Last but not least, the inconsistency between being supportive of English-only policies and actual translanguaging practices were discerned; in addition, diverse individual opinions were blatant, presumably reflecting the differences in teaching contexts or teacher philosophies. Some similar inconsistencies can be found in the studies of Almayez (2022) and Yuvayapan (2019), where the authors insinuate that this might stem from the conflict between theoretical ideals and practical classroom realities. The gap between stated opinions and real practices hinted that the teachers may be adapting their approaches based on classroom realities, even when those adaptations do not fully accord with their professed ideals about language teaching.

5.1.2. Functions served by EFL teachers' employment of their native language in their classrooms. This part is in association with the second research question, which intended to find out for what functions translanguaging is employed by EFL teachers. The findings from the questionnaire revealed a moderate frequency of translanguaging practices among the EFL teachers, with certain applications emerging as more prevalent than others. Another thing worth taking into consideration is that these oncoming items were on a 4-point Likert scale, as opposed to 6-point Likert scale like the previous ones. Other than that, it is essentially worth noting that translanguaging most often happens for practical reasons. Specifically, the teachers were found to give instructions and provide explanations using Turkish more (Item 21, $M=2.73$). They also tended to use Turkish to help boost test scores (Item 21, $M=2.68$). In addition, they frequently spoke Turkish to build good relationships with the students (Item 22, $M=2.65$), which mirrors the studies of Karakaş (2023) and Witari and Sukanto (2023), where they identified translanguaging for building relationships, and this highlights the social-emotional aspect of language teaching. From these results, it appeared that the teachers see translanguaging as an important teaching method; to

dilate upon details, they employed it to assist students in their understanding of language and content, improve academic performance, and create a positive learning environment in the classroom. With references to Genc, Yuksel and Curle (2023) and Shabir (2017), their findings on using L1 for explanations, instructions, and difficult concepts directly reflect the findings of this study. This leads to the conclusion that these are some main functions of translanguaging in EFL settings, and EFL teachers designate common pedagogical approaches throughout different contexts.

On the other hand, less common translanguaging practices were discovered. These included comparing the two languages (Item 18, $M=2.14$), introducing new vocabulary, (Item 19, $M=2.43$), and increasing student motivation and confidence (Item 20, $M=2.40$). The lesser use of these techniques may indicate that the teachers perceive them as less crucial or effective in achieving immediate learning objectives. Yet, unexpectedly, some open-ended responses of teachers are incompatible with these findings, as it can be read later on. The incompatible responses exhibit that teachers can open up and express themselves in more detail when posed with open-ended questions by thinking deeply on the subject matter. Significantly, there was also a lower inclination to explain idioms and expressions using Turkish (Item 23, $M=2.35$), which likely stems from wanting to keep the authenticity of learning the language or a belief that such phrases are best grasped within their original linguistic context. These findings are at odds with the research of Zhang and Wei (2021). They found out four main functions and one of them included clarification of idioms, which does not match with this study. This indicates not every application of translanguaging remains the same in different contexts or curriculum content and this could be the reason for this mismatch.

The wide-ranging opinions on the degree of appropriateness and effectiveness of translanguaging draw attention to the layered complexities of language teaching in multilingual settings. For instance, according to the aforementioned issue of test scores, it is remarkable that there appears to be more conformity among teachers regarding the use of Turkish for improving test scores compared to its implementation in language comparison. These findings align with those in Constantine (2023), though centered on students' perspectives, their findings on flexible use for scaffolding understanding could explain why teachers in this research embrace translanguaging

for comprehension and test score improvement. This clear contradiction may reflect a utilitarian (pragmatic) approach to translanguaging despite the fact that teachers favor its use for specific goals. Yet, at the same time, they target for sustaining a belief in maximized English use in the classroom.

In the same vein, this pragmatic stance points that educators are navigating a delicate balance between leveraging students' native language as a resource and adhering to principles of TL immersion. As reaffirmed, these findings harmonize with the research of Raja, Suparno and Ngadiso (2022), as their findings on positive attitudes towards reasonable translanguaging for various purposes directly reflect the findings found in this study. The questionnaire data imply that EFL teachers are selectively employing translanguaging strategies and prioritize those that yield tangible benefits in terms of academic achievement and classroom management. Likewise, Yuvayapan (2019) uncovered that translanguaging occurred in a natural way in classrooms, hinting at spontaneous translanguaging, which came about even when teachers were unaware. This supports the findings of this research in terms of translanguaging practices and it signals that translanguaging may be an intuitive strategy rather than always being a conscious choice. Moreover, the moderate frequency of translanguaging indicates that these practices are not global per se, perhaps due to ongoing debates about optimal language teaching methodologies or institutional policies favoring monolingual instruction.

5.1.3. EFL teachers' beliefs and self-reported practices regarding translanguaging. In this particular section, the findings gleaned from the open-ended statements and semi-structured interviews will be discussed and interpreted. It discusses the perceptions and practices of EFL teachers regarding translanguaging, which revolves around the first research question of this study. It was found out that teachers that had negative attitudes frequently were in favor of an English-only policy, geared toward higher-level students with good proficiency. These teachers backed up their statement by citing reasons such as improved fluency, better language development, and the enjoyment students derive from immersing in English fully. With relevance to this perspective, their opinions could be attributed to the traditional SLA theories, asserting and emphasizing immersion in the foreign language (Krashen,

1982). As touched upon, some highlighted preponderance of an English-only environment for advanced students. Such thoughts reflect a belief that translanguaging may pose a threat to assimilation of English and fluency. Appealingly, it was also seen that some teachers' views mentioned more controversial aspects of language teaching. To give an example, the concept of "native speakerism" was salient in some of the teachers' responses, and arguably reinforced by them. This notion could put linguistic diversity in peril and goes against the principles of translanguaging, which upholds linguistic diversity and sees languages as a whole. Along with this, many teachers acknowledged the critical influence of contextual factors and student profiles on their ability to maintain an English-only environment, as it was determined from the findings. A number of issues such as student motivation, proficiency levels, and regional differences in education quality from one end to the other of Türkiye are proclaimed as substantial barriers to a monolingual approach, making it rather unlikely to accomplish in the EFL classroom.

Having knowledge about the existence of the challenges that have been reported has led some teachers to adopt a more adaptable disposition. In other words, a few of the teachers distinguished between language improvement and facilitating communication in the classroom. This subtle view implies that teachers are grappling with balancing ideal pedagogical approaches and the practical needs of their students. Some others provided a thorough outlook on translanguaging, advocating for a balanced approach, as indicated in the study of Kavak (2021). This implies that being supportive of judicious use of translanguaging was salient in the current study.

To further elaborate upon another topic that came up consistently in the findings, anxiety was particularly flamboyant, which is among the main affective factors in SLA. Anxiety in the context of SLA is defined by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) as the uneasiness that is experienced when using a second language with limited proficiency. It is characterized by negative self-cognitions, apprehension, and physiological responses, and has been found to correlate with language performance, despite how competent the speaker is. One specific type of foreign language classroom anxiety portrayed in their study is the fear of negative evaluation. This manifests as being overly concerned with others' opinions, attempting to hide from bothersome impressions, avoiding prospective evaluation situations, and expecting others to have

low opinions. This fear of negative evaluation is considered a strong source of language anxiety, conceivably impeding the learning process by raising the affective filter. Henceforth, the extensive responses regarding students' fear, as remarked by teachers, could be accredited to this term. The upholding of translanguaging as a tool to reduce students' anxiety by lowering affective filters and improving engagement could be inferred from this study. It turned out that their stress was, indeed, because of their low self-perception of themselves as language speakers.

The diverse attitudes observed in this study could be explained by several factors, including differences in teacher training programs, institutional policies, student profiles, and cultural factors such as the emphasis on English proficiency in Türkiye's education system and employment market. These multi-layered influences contribute to the emergent field of translanguaging practices in Turkish EFL classrooms. In light of this, the findings both concur with and deviate from previous research in multiple ways. Although a broad set of attitudes similar to those observed by Doiz and Lasagabaster (2017) are present, this research also seems to exhibit a greater general embracement for translanguaging. This difference may be linked to changing attitudes over an extended period or specific contextual factors related to the setting of this study. In addition, the awareness of the benefits of translanguaging, along with the concerns about English assessment in the study, echoes the findings of Mbrimi-Hungwe (2019). Both studies unearthed the fact that teachers supported translanguaging; at the same time, maintained a belief in maximizing English use, probably due to assessment considerations. This lays stress on the continuous struggle of reconciling pedagogical beliefs with institutional requirements and assessment practices.

Moreover, the study uncovered that the semi-structured interviews with EFL teachers in Türkiye illuminated a detailed and distinct set of attitudes towards translanguaging in the classroom. By and large, teachers demonstrated a generally positive standpoint on translanguaging practices, discerning their practical benefits while wrestling over the ideal of maximizing TL exposure. However, even among those who prefer an English-only approach, there is a clear acknowledgment of the practical obstacles in implementing such a policy. This strain between idealized teaching methodologies and classroom realities is evident in the findings and signifies the findings from multiple

studies across various contexts (e.g., Almayez, 2022; Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017; Yuvayapan, 2019).

Peculiarly, some teachers reported external pressures influencing their language choices, including parental complaints about English-only instruction. This underlines the complicated interaction between stakeholder expectations and instructional practices in EFL environments, which is a phenomenon also documented by Menken and García (2010) in their study of language policy negotiations in educational settings. Such pressures may explain the discrepancy between teachers' beliefs in the importance of English exposure and their actual classroom practices. Equally, this mirrors Pinto's (2020) evaluative remarks on the impact of traditional teaching approaches and institutional constraints.

Above and beyond, the study unraveled that, despite the general acceptance of translanguaging, certain teachers expressed concerns about the *Critical Period Hypothesis* (CPH), which was initially formulated by Lenneberg in 1967. For the purpose of clarification, it is a significant concept in language acquisition research, and proposes that there is an optimal period for language acquisition, which is believed to end at puberty. Strikingly, the original evidence for this hypothesis was not based on typical second language learning scenarios. Instead, it was derived from studies that examined the relearning of impaired first language skills. This context is important to consider when evaluating the applicability of the CPH to various language learning situations. This theory also reflects an enduring debate in the field of language teaching about the optimal balance between L1 use and TL input, a conflict commonly documented in the literature (e.g., Burton & Rajendram, 2019; Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher, 2009; Macaro, 2009).

Another thought-provoking finding was the reported change of student attitudes towards translanguaging as time progressed. One teacher noted initial resistance from students, which gradually shifted to acceptance as they understood the rationale behind language switching. This suggests that explicit explanation of translanguaging practices to students may be beneficial, in harmony with recommendations from researchers like García and Kleyn (2016), who promote metalinguistic awareness in multilingual education. It also indicates that attitudes of students towards translanguaging may be more accepting and uncomplaining than previously

anticipated, contrasting to some extent with Burton and Rajendram's (2019), and Küçük's (2018) reports of more negative student sentiments.

Advancing to another topic, it is pertinent that almost none of the schools in which the interviewed teachers actively work openly restrict or prohibit the use of Turkish. This institutional flexibility may contribute to the generally positive attitudes towards translanguaging monitored in this study. It was probably caused by the fact that the majority of the participants work in state schools. Nonetheless, this matter also points to a possible avenue for future research: investigating how explicit language policies at the school level might influence teacher attitudes and practices regarding translanguaging, a topic explored by Menken and García (2010) in other contexts.

Above all, the diversity of teacher backgrounds and experiences represented in the study sample, especially observed in the semi-structured interviews, provides a rich context for understanding the varying perspectives on translanguaging. The extent of teaching experience, from novice to highly experienced educators, allows for novel perspectives on how attitudes towards translanguaging may evolve over a teacher's career. It is a factor also highlighted in their work related to multilingual education by Conteh and Meier (2014). It was established that the inclusion of teachers with different educational backgrounds provides an opportunity to explore how initial teacher training might influence translanguaging practices and beliefs, as well as how these practices develop during the time of language teaching.

Within the framework of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, especially in reference to his concept of the ZPD, the findings of this study can be understood better. Additionally, it can be confidently stated that the deliberate use of translanguaging observed in this study functions as scaffolding. Some teachers expressed that they provide temporary linguistic support that enables learners to bridge their ZPD. This tactical scaffolding by means of translanguaging is consistent with what Van Lier (2004) termed "*ecological perspectives*" in language learning, where all available linguistic resources are deemed as possible mediational tools for learning. Moreover, the data from this study demonstrated how teachers' judicious use of translanguaging serves as what Lantolf and Poehner (2014) described as "*mediated learning experiences*", which means that learners' full linguistic repertoires are activated to support their development within the ZPD.

Lastly, and of significant importance, sociocultural theory further emphasizes the social nature of learning, and the fact that knowledge is co-constructed by the agency of interaction. As Swain and Lapkin (2013) argued, language learning is not merely about input processing but involves active meaning-making through social interaction. This was evident in the findings where teachers reported using translanguaging strategically during discussions in the lesson and peer interactions. For example, when students were allowed to discuss complex concepts in their L1 before presenting in English, they demonstrated higher levels of engagement and deeper conceptual understanding. This approach not only promotes a positive learning environment but also affirms the importance of students' language abilities, and perfects their educational learning outcomes as a result.

5.1.4. Functions served by EFL teachers' employment of their native language in their classrooms. This section addresses the purposes of EFL teachers in using translanguaging concerning open-ended statements and semi-structured interviews, which relates to the study's second research question. The study uncovers a detailed and sophisticated overview of EFL teachers' purposes for translanguaging in their classrooms, showing both concurrence and divergence from earlier research in the area. Teachers generally view translanguaging as a valuable pedagogical tool, albeit with certain reservations and contextual considerations that showcase the active dispute in language education circles.

A pivotal theme that emerged from the teachers' responses was the use of translanguaging for teaching and facilitating linguistic concepts, chiefly for complex grammatical structures. By way of an example, this matches closely with Zhang and Wei's (2021) identification of key functional ways of translanguaging. Their findings emphasize the contribution of translanguaging in content transmission. It also struck a chord with Creese and Blackledge's (2010) findings on the strategic use of translanguaging to make meaning and improve understanding in bilingual classrooms. However, it came to light that the findings of this current study propose a greater application in EFL settings compared to the more specialized EMI contexts studied by Genc, Yuksel, and Curle (2023). This contrast may be due to the distinct pedagogical

goals of EFL versus content-based instruction, with EFL teachers possibly feeling more pressure to ensure grammatical accuracy alongside communicative competence.

Following this, several teachers supported the idea of increased L1 use with older students or for more complicated topics, while expressing the need for limited L1 use for younger learners. This perspective concurs with Cummins' (1979) *Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis*, which asserts that stronger L1 skills can support L2 acquisition. This approach reflects a refined understanding of language acquisition processes. It could be taken into account that cognitive maturity and existing linguistic knowledge can influence the effectiveness of translanguageing strategies. It is also in line with the argument of Swain and Lapkin (2000), where they put forward that L1 use can be a powerful cognitive resource in second language learning for more advanced linguistic tasks.

The use of translanguageing for engagement in the classroom emerged as another significant theme, encompassing purposes such as giving instructions, motivating students, managing the classroom, and boosting creativity. It dovetails with García and Wei's (2014) concept of translanguageing as a pedagogical strategy that goes beyond code-switching to include the full range of linguistic practices of multilingual or bilingual speakers. The different applications imply that teachers are instinctively aware of the cognitive and emotional benefits of using language flexibly, adjusting their methods to cater to diverse student needs and cultivate a more interactive learning environment.

However, this adaptable approach often contrasts with institutional expectations, as already featured by Almayez (2022). The current study announced inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and actual translanguageing practices and it corresponds to the contradictions that were found in the just noted study due to institutional standards or concerns about one's image. Such issues illustrate the continuous distress teachers encounter in reconciling their teaching instincts with what they believe are best practices or institutional standards. This dilemma is reminiscent of what Macaro (2001) termed the *virtual position* (exclusive L2 use) versus the *maximal position* (predominantly L2 use with judicious L1 use). This manifests the complicated side of language choices in the classroom. On the other hand, the *optimal position* recognizes some pedagogical benefits of L1 use, indicating that it could improve specific aspects

of learning, and calls for further investigation into when and how L1 use is warranted. However, the author cautions about potential issues, noting that the virtual position is likely unattainable; by contrast, adhering to the maximal position may lead to feelings of guilt and inadequacy among teachers, as it was plainly observed in the findings.

Aside from that, it was disclosed that time management emerged as a practical consideration driving translanguaging practices, which demonstrated the realities of overloaded curricula and limited instructional time in many EFL contexts. Owing to workload and time constraints reiterates the findings of Branka and Molino (2022) on the flexibility of language use depending on context and needs. While having been mentioned briefly earlier, this practical approach suggests that translanguaging is not just a pedagogical choice but also a coping strategy for managing curricular demands within tight time frames. It ties to Canagarajah's (2011) idea of translanguaging as an inherent part of multilingual classrooms, affected by the actual conditions of teaching and learning in the classroom.

A point worth mentioning is about examinations. The exam-oriented nature of the Turkish education system, as evidenced by several teachers' comments on using L1 for exam preparation, shows wider systemic effects on translanguaging practices. This influence of high-stakes exams on translanguaging practices was quite evident, specifically in references to the YDT (Foreign Language Test) and LGS (High School Entrance Exam) exams. Some teachers' justification for L1 use in grammar instruction depicts the *washback effect* of standardized testing on classroom practices. This is in parallel with the findings of Mbrimi-Hungwe (2019). They recognized the advantages of translanguaging alongside concerns about English assessment; thus, drawing attention to how external factors can shape language policies in the classroom. As a supplementary element, not only does this resemble Shohamy's (2011) appraisals on the powerful influence of language tests on educational practices and policies, but also indicates prioritizing exam success over immersive language learning, which also reveals the *washback effect* of testing on language teaching practices and point out the need for coordination between assessment practices and multilingual pedagogies. To specify the term, it refers to how exams or tests influence teaching and learning; basically, it means that the way teachers teach and students learn can change based on what is tested in exams (Alderson & Wall, 1993).

To reiterate the point for clarity, the dichotomy of realizing the benefits of translanguaging and the commitment to maximizing TL use illustrates deeper discussions about the best language practices in second language classrooms (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). It was unveiled that teachers acknowledge the advantages of using L1 while also emphasizing the importance of TL exposure. This came up numerous times in the findings. As a result, this balancing act coincides with the findings of Raja, Suparno, and Ngadiso (2022), which spotlighted positive attitudes toward reasonable translanguaging for explanations, instructions, and ensuring understanding.

Turning to some certain distinct functions, it transpired that the teachers' translanguaging practices extended beyond grammar instruction to vocabulary teaching and pronunciation. The use of L1 in teaching cognates exemplifies the strategic use of cross-linguistic similarities, which is a technique supported by Ringbom's (2007) work on *cross-linguistic similarity* in foreign language learning. This approach could provide students with an accessible entry point into L2 vocabulary acquisition. Furthermore, the attention to pronunciation challenges highlights an angle that is often overlooked in language teaching in which translanguaging can play a crucial role. This emphasis points to the necessity for more integrated methods in pronunciation instruction within multilingual or bilingual settings. Regardless, the support for translanguaging in vocabulary teaching contrasts somewhat with Shabir's (2017) findings. This difference could indicate changing attitudes towards translanguaging in vocabulary instruction or could be specific to the Turkish EFL context. It may also reflect expanding evidence of the benefits of cross-linguistic connections in vocabulary acquisition (Schmitt, 2008).

Among all of the themes that emerged, the use of translanguaging for building rapport and emotional connections with students could be regarded as a distinguished theme. To clarify deeply, a number of teachers expressed difficulty in forming strong emotional bonds when using English exclusively; namely, this could propose that translanguaging can help bridge this emotional gap. Showcasing the use of translanguaging for rapport building, this function is consistent with Fang and Liu's (2020) findings of their study. However, surfaced as a quite unanticipated instance, it was observed initial resistance to translanguaging was broken by being persistent in

employing translanguaging, which led to positive outcomes. This elaborate point of view adds depth to the understanding of how translanguaging affects teacher-student relationships and connotes that the benefits may not be immediate, but rather develop in due course. Additionally, as brought up before, the importance of emotional connections in language learning is further supported by Witari and Sukamto (2023), who emphasize the role of positive emotions in facilitating second language teaching.

Being a significant area of interest in learning a TL, motivation emerged as another crucial purpose for translanguaging. As would be predicted, teachers noted increased student motivation when incorporating the L1, particularly in terms of improved comprehension. This finding resonates with Okoye and Ambale's (2023) study, which found that translanguaging improved content understanding and motivated participation. On top of that, the link between comprehension and motivation highly corresponds to the *L2 Motivational Self System* of Dörnyei (2009), which posits that students' perceived competence dramatically affects their motivation to learn a language. However, contrasting views were also offered, alluding to the idea that switching to Turkish might negatively impact students' confidence in their ability to learn English. This divergence in frames of references reveal the detailed component of motivation in language learning and suggests that the impact of translanguaging on motivation may depend upon various factors, including the points of how it is implemented by teachers and perceived by students.

Effective instruction from teachers, along with students receiving and understanding it positively, can be considered a prerequisite for initiating the teaching-learning process in the classroom. Therefore, giving instructions was identified as a key area where translanguaging proved to be beneficial, particularly relevant to the students with lower proficiency levels. To support this perception, it was seen that the majority of the teachers emphasized the utility of bilingual instructions for ensuring comprehension thoroughly. Yet again, this tightly correlates with the findings of Raja, Suparno, and Ngadiso (2022), who reported positive attitudes towards translanguaging for explanations and instructions. The prevalence of this theme extended through multiple teachers and its consistency with previous research placed emphasis on the practical value of translanguaging in facilitating basic classroom functions. Moreover, this use of translanguaging for instructional purposes is in agreement with Cummins'

(2007) concept of *cross-linguistic transfer*, which indicates that skills and knowledge acquired in one language can support learning in another.

Upon careful analysis, classroom management was identified as another crucial function for translanguaging, as also found out by Kirkgöz et al. (2023). Its usefulness in maintaining discipline and student behavior was highlighted several times. It stood out that a few of the teachers drew attention to the importance of paralinguistic features such as gestures and facial expressions in conjunction with translanguaging. This finding introduces a new dimension to the existing literature; indeed, it is important to acknowledge that translanguaging in classroom management encompasses not only language use but also non-verbal communication strategies. As a similar field of inquiry, pedagogical gestures were also the subject of discussion. These gestures are used in classroom settings and are often made with conscious awareness and serve multiple functions in the teaching process; in this context, some teachers blended translanguaging and pedagogical gestures in an attempt to ensure classroom management. In other words, this special occasion was raised repeatedly by some of the teachers that were interviewed, and it was associated with translanguaging functions. In connection with these, this multimodal approach to translanguaging in classroom management could be especially effective in EFL contexts where students' language proficiency varies widely. Besides, the importance of non-verbal communication in language teaching is supported by Sime (2006), who found that gestures play a crucial role in scaffolding language learning and managing classroom interactions.

Among other things, the study also shed light on the fact that teachers' attitudes towards translanguaging were influenced by their personal experiences and professional backgrounds. To exemplify, after examining the background information of the teachers who participated in the semi-structured interviews, it was concluded that, Teacher C, with over 21 years of experience and a master's degree, demonstrated a more confident and tactful approach to translanguaging. In contrast, younger ones like Teacher E and F, while being open to translanguaging, showed more concern about potential negative impacts on student learning. This dissimilarity establishes the idea that teacher training programs and professional development opportunities might play a crucial role in shaping attitudes towards translanguaging. In this regard, the

impact of teacher education on classroom practices is well-documented in the literature, with Borg (2011) stressing the need for teacher education programs to address teachers' beliefs and prior experiences explicitly.

Although it was touched upon very briefly in the findings compared to other interpretations, initiation or direction of translanguaging was also a field of interest of this study. Thus, the findings demonstrated that the initiation of translanguaging in EFL classrooms is for the most part teacher-led, with some variation throughout different classroom contexts. This result is in accordance with some previous studies while contrasting others, reflecting the changeable nature of translanguaging in practice.

The majority of interviewed teachers (A, B, C, and D) reported initiating translanguaging themselves, and stated that they employ it as a deliberate pedagogical strategy. For commentating on this new perspective, this contrasts in some measure with Yuvayapan's (2019) findings of more unconscious translanguaging occurrences, which was mentioned earlier. This likely indicates increased awareness of the prospective benefits of translanguaging among teachers. Notably, teachers reported adapting their translanguaging practices based on student needs and feedback. For instance, Teacher B starts in English but switches to Turkish when students express difficulty understanding. Her responsiveness according to students' needs aligns with the harmony with the premise of using translanguaging for explanation and comprehension checking, which could be a valid interpretation.

Furthermore, Teacher C's approach of using English to stimulate peer interaction, which then leads to student-to-student translanguaging, offers a bridge between teacher and student-initiated practices. This strategy can be affiliated with sociocultural theories of language learning, where peer interaction plays a crucial role in language development (Vygotsky, 1978). It also conforms to Zhang and Wei's (2021) identification of translanguaging as a tool for facilitating interaction and knowledge construction among students.

Remarkably, an intriguing finding from Teacher E suggested a possible change from teacher-initiated to student-initiated translanguaging as time progresses. This development indicates that as students become more comfortable with transitional language practices, they may take more initiative in employing them, resonating with

Karabulut's (2022) investigation of positive student attitudes towards translanguaging pedagogy. In addition, as it was mentioned earlier in this section, Teachers F and G laid stress on the context-dependent side of initiating translanguaging. This difference in educational settings, as outlined before, concurs with the findings of Branka and Molino (2022), where they laid emphasis on adapting language use to specific contexts and needs. In brief, according to the findings, while principally teacher-led, translanguaging practices can adapt to student needs and become student-led as well.

Finally, the collectively favorable attitudes towards selective translanguaging found in this study contributes to the rising volume of research supporting judicious L1 use in EFL contexts (e.g., Azaz & Abourehab, 2021; Paudel, 2024, Wang, 2019, Wang, 2022). However, the complexities and potential contradictions in implementing translanguaging practices unveil the need for meticulous approaches to language policy and teacher training.

5.2. Conclusion

The aim of this study was to grasp and provide justifications for understanding the grounds of translanguaging practices among EFL teachers in their classrooms, while also paying attention to their perceptions of this valuable approach. After thorough scrutinization, the findings unearthed a medley of views, one of which gathered attention cardinally: EFL teachers generally supported English-centric classrooms; notwithstanding, they employed translanguaging strategies with a pragmatist mindset. This finding can be associated with García and Wei's (2014) assertion, in which they believe translanguaging is not merely a pedagogical strategy, but a way of empowering students' full linguistic repertoire for meaning-making.

As for their perceptions and attitudes, EFL teachers highly demonstrated a variance in their attitudes, which could be stated that the research assisted uncovering diverse attitudes towards English-only policies and translanguaging practices scattered among them. Namely, it was reckoned that there were both support for and resistance against the use of translanguaging in the EFL classroom. These teachers capitalized upon the advantages of translanguaging and saw it as a means to enhance comprehension, facilitate deeper engagement with complex concepts like grammar, give instructions, and create a more inclusive learning environment by building rapport, and even for

managing the classroom. Precisely, these practices reflect Canagarajah's (2011) well-known view that translanguaging can serve both cognitive and social functions in language learning environments. Noticeably, the study highlighted the significant influence of contextual factors such as student proficiency, age, and the complexity of topics on translanguaging decisions. Indeed, the teachers reported adapting their use of L1 and L2 based on students' language abilities, denoting a demand for non-rigid and responsive approaches to language teaching. For instance, younger learners or those with lower proficiency levels often benefited more from L1 support; as opposed to this, older or more advanced students thrived under a more English-focused approach. In this direction, it could be remarked that Cenoz and Gorter (2020) emphasize the context-dependence of translanguaging practices, which is similar to this study. However, this positive attitude was often tempered by concerns about the potential overreliance on L1, which some teachers feared that it might impede students' English language development.

Regarding the various attitudes, the research revealed a notable dichotomy between teachers' stated beliefs and their actual classroom practices. Except for the fact that many teachers articulated support for English-only policies in principle, reciting the importance of maximizing TL exposure, their reported practices still included strategic use of translanguaging repeatedly. This disconnect highlights the realistic aspects of teaching, where theoretical ideals are often adjusted to meet the practical demands of the classroom. Furthermore, teachers' attitudes towards translanguaging were found to be influenced by factors such as their own education they received, years of teaching experience, and the institutional policies under which they operate. For instance, the study brought to light that teacher experience significantly impacts translanguaging practices. More experienced teachers demonstrated greater flexibility and comfort in integrating L1, while less experienced teachers tended to abide more strictly by English-only policies. Consequently, greater experience leads to increased tolerance for using translanguaging. This is due to the fact that experienced teachers have witnessed the benefits of translanguaging first hand over the years. Besides, translanguaging practices, in short, are not fixated, and they show an alteration in response to various personal and professional factors.

What is more, as per the findings, it was determined that teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging vary considerably depending on the educational context as well. In particular, in primary schools, teachers were bound to view translanguaging more favorably, seeing it as a crucial tool for building foundational understanding. In contrast, secondary school teachers often provided more cautious responses, as they were concerned about exam preparation and the necessity for immersive English environments.

Beyond its use for cognitive support, the research revealed translanguaging's multifaceted utility in EFL classrooms. It was found to boost creativity, manage time pressures in the face of curricular demands, address pronunciation issues, and motivate students, though views on its motivational efficacy were mixed. Translanguaging proved especially valuable in addressing pronunciation issues. By comparing phonological differences between L1 and English, teachers provided clearer explanations, helping students overcome pronunciation barriers and boost their speaking confidence. Additionally, it allowed students to express complex ideas more fully, enhancing creativity, and helped teachers manage time pressures in the face of curricular demands. This is consistent with Wei's (2018) conceptualization of translanguaging as a holistic approach to language and education.

Lastly, the study found that translanguaging was mostly teacher-initiated; by this means, calling for further exploration of student-initiated translanguaging opportunities. This finding not only highlights foreseeable areas for developing more student-centered approaches in EFL classrooms but also places emphasis upon the importance of fostering student agency in language use. Moreover, this top-down approach to language instruction presents a significant opportunity for additional research into promoting and understanding student-initiated translanguaging. Such investigations could eventually lead to the creation of more effective student-centered learning environments, enhancing engagement and participation among learners.

In conclusion, this study highlights the burdens involved in applying translanguaging in EFL contexts and showcases the subtle balance between ideal pedagogical approaches and practical classroom requirements. It points out the necessity of versatile, context-sensitive strategies that acknowledge both the benefits of judicious translanguaging and the constraints imposed by institutional policies and exam-

focused curricula. Translanguaging is recognized as a powerful tool that can enhance creativity, address specific language hardships, and foster positive classroom dynamics when used effectively, all while contributing to improved student outcomes and supporting the broader goals of TL proficiency.

5.3. Implications

The findings of this study have a collection of implications for various aspects of EFL education. Teacher training programs should consider including translanguaging strategies in both pre-service and in-service training, focusing on developing teachers' ability to balance L1 and L2 use effectively. This complements the argument for a transformational change in how bilingualism is conceptualized in foreign language education (Otheguy et al., 2015). The implications also include aiding teachers in recognizing the impact of their personal experiences on their translanguaging practices. It could be stated that this demonstrates the importance of reflective practice in teacher education.

In light of the findings, the study featured the necessity for a context-sensitive approach in EFL classrooms, which was presented earlier in this section. Teachers should adapt their use of translanguaging based on student proficiency, age, and subject complexity. For instance, younger students and those with lower English proficiency often benefit more from judicious use of their L1 to grasp complex concepts and build confidence. This adjustability in language use can create a more inclusive and effective learning environment, resonating with the findings on the influence of contextual factors on translanguaging decisions.

Apart from this, the study has more crucial implications for language policies in educational institutions or schools. It recommends a reconsideration of strict English-only policies and the development of guidelines for appropriate translanguaging practices. This is compatible with the recent changes in language policy research that advocate for more multilingual and versatile approaches (Hornberger & Link, 2012). Policymakers should also consider the impact of high-stakes exams on classroom language practices when formulating language policies, as the study identified a disagreement between exam preparation and beneficial translanguaging practices.

In terms of classroom management, the findings support the integration of translanguaging as a tool for building rapport and managing behavior. The study also implies that teachers should integrate non-verbal communication and paralinguistic features alongside translanguaging to enhance overall communication effectiveness in the classroom. This multi-modal approach to translanguaging can further support student comprehension and engagement, especially when explaining complex concepts or managing classroom dynamics. Furthermore, the strategic or pedagogical use of translanguaging can have long-term positive effects on student motivation, emotional well-being, and teacher-student relationships. By incorporating students' L1, teachers signal that students' linguistic identities are cherished, potentially leading to stronger rapport and a more supportive learning environment. This implication transcends cognitive benefits, contending that translanguaging plays a vital role in the socio-emotional aspects of language learning, which can significantly impact students' overall educational experience and outcomes. This reasonably reflects Creese and Blackledge's (2010) observations on the social functions of translanguaging in multilingual classrooms. In a nutshell, the implications stretch to the notion that translanguaging can play a role in creating more supportive learning environments; hence, gaining great accomplishments in language teaching.

In addition, the study brought to light important aspects regarding assessment practices, especially in relation to the scope of translanguaging in exam preparation and its influence on teaching methodologies. This emphasizes the necessity for alignment among language policies, pedagogical strategies, and assessment methods, as outlined by Shohamy (2011). Furthermore, it points that there may be a need to reevaluate current assessment practices to effectively incorporate the advantages of translanguaging, all while upholding rigorous standards of English proficiency.

Finally, pertaining to curriculum development, the study suggests a necessity for materials that facilitate the selective use of L1 in EFL contexts and offer clear guidance on translanguaging within teachers' manuals. This signifies the importance for curriculum designers to thoughtfully integrate translanguaging strategies into textbooks and other teaching resources; therefore, ensuring that teachers are equipped with effective tools to enhance language instruction and support diverse learning needs.

5.4. Recommendations

Based on the findings that were presented and the conclusions that were reached, a good number of recommendations can be offered. For EFL teachers, it is advisable to develop a repertoire of translanguageing strategies for various purposes such as grammar explanation, vocabulary teaching, and pronunciation instruction. It could be confidently stated that teachers should use translanguageing judiciously, considering student needs and lesson objectives, and incorporate paralinguistic features alongside translanguageing for effective communication. In this process, teachers should aim to strike a fine balance between providing L1 support and encouraging English immersion. The goal is to ensure that students remain challenged in their language learning journey but not overwhelmed. This balanced approach requires teachers to continuously assess student comprehension and adjust their language use accordingly, promoting a supportive yet progressive learning environment. They should also endeavor to find the middle ground in the utilization of translanguageing for both younger and older learners.

As discussed above, curriculum developers should design materials that support selective use of L1 in EFL contexts and include guidance on translanguageing in teacher's manuals. Moreover, curriculum developers should consider including activities that develop creativity through the medium of translanguageing, allowing students to use their full linguistic repertoire to engage with more complex and meaningful tasks. This could involve designing projects or assignments that explicitly encourage students to draw on their L1 knowledge to reinforce their English expression, which could promote deeper cognitive engagement and more sophisticated language output. This calls for more plurilingual approaches in language teaching materials (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015). These materials should be designed to facilitate creative language use, address time management concerns, and support pronunciation instruction through translanguageing strategies.

Teacher education programs should also focus on developing teachers' ability to use translanguageing in the classroom effectively, such as for teaching of difficult concepts, rapport-building, and other related matters. To support this, educational institutions should offer workshops and seminars that help teachers develop the skills and confidence to integrate L1 into their teaching when appropriate. These professional

development programs should include practical training on when and how to use translanguaging effectively, as well as opportunities for teachers to reflect on and refine their translanguaging practices. Such programs could include peer observation, mentoring, and action research components to encourage ongoing refinement of translanguaging strategies.

Alongside, policymakers and curriculum designers should reconsider strict English-only policies and develop guidelines for appropriate translanguaging practices. They should also examine the impact of high-stakes exams on classroom language practices and explore ways to line up assessment methods with beneficial translanguaging practices to avoid washback.

For future research, it is recommended to investigate the long-term effects of translanguaging on language acquisition, evaluate student perspectives on translanguaging practices, and examine the impact of teacher experience and training on translanguaging attitudes and practices. Research on the impact of translanguaging on students' emotional well-being, confidence, and long-term teacher-student relationships would also be valuable contributions to the field. In the same vein, researchers should consider investigating the relationship between translanguaging and non-verbal communication in EFL contexts, as well as exploring the development of translanguaging practices over the course of a teacher's career. In investigating the relationship between translanguaging and non-verbal communication, researchers should identify how paralinguistic cues such as gestures, facial expressions, and tone of voice can enhance the effectiveness of translanguaging strategies. As is typically the case, longitudinal studies investigating the progression of teachers' translanguaging practices throughout their careers could yield revelations regarding the development of expertise in this field. Such research could inform that teachers in all career phases can effectively implement translanguaging strategies.

Eventually, it is recommended that EFL programs develop strategies to encourage more student-initiated translanguaging, shifting away from mainly teacher-led practices. This could involve creating classroom activities that explicitly invite students to draw on their full linguistic repertoires.

In closing, these recommendations aim to create more inclusive, effective, and linguistically rich learning environments in EFL contexts. By implementing these

suggestions, stakeholders in EFL education can collaborate to achieve a profound and effective integration of translanguaging practices to guarantee a balance between the benefits of translanguaging and the objectives of reaching TL proficiency.



REFERENCES

- Alderson, J. C., & Wall, D. (1993). Does washback exist? *Applied Linguistics*, 14(2), 115-129. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/14.2.115>
- Almayez, M. (2022). Translanguaging at a Saudi University: Discrepancy between English language teachers' attitudes and self-reported pedagogical practices. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, 7(1), Article 20. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40862-022-00146-5>
- Antón, M., & DiCamilla, F. (1998). Socio-cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 54(3), 314-342. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.54.3.314>
- Arslan, Y. (2023). High School Teachers' Beliefs and Practices on Translanguaging. *Contemporary Research in Language and Linguistics*, 1(1), 21-34. <https://doi.org/10.62601/crll.v1i1.8>
- Auerbach, E. R. (1993). Reexamining English only in the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(1), 9-32. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586949>
- Azaz, M., & Abourehab, Y. (2021). Should Standard Arabic have “the lion’s share?”: Teacher ideologies in L2 Arabic through the lens of pedagogical translanguaging. *Intercultural Communication Education*, 4(1), 90-105. <https://doi.org/10.29140/ice.v4n1.442>
- Baker, C. (2003). Biliteracy and transliteracy in Wales: Language planning and the Welsh national curriculum. In N. H. Hornberger (Ed.), *Continua of biliteracy: An ecological framework for educational policy, research, and practice in multilingual settings* (pp. 71-90). Multilingual Matters.
- Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th ed.). Multilingual Matters.
- Barros, S., Domke, L. M., Symons, C., & Ponzio, C. (2021). Challenging monolingual ways of looking at multilingualism: Insights for curriculum development in teacher preparation. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 20(4), 239-254. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2020.1753196>

- Beres, A. M. (2015). An overview of translanguaging: 20 years of 'giving voice to those who do not speak'. *Translation and Translanguaging in Multilingual Contexts*, 1(1), 103-118. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ttmc.1.1.05ber>
- Bialystok, E. (2010). Bilingualism. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Cognitive Science*, 1(4), 559-572. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wcs.43>
- Blommaert, J., & Rampton, B. (2011). Language and superdiversity. *Diversities*, 13(2), 1-21.
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36(2), 81-109. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903>
- Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System*, 39(3), 370-380. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.009>
- Branka, D. M., & Molino, A. (2022). Translanguaging in EMI: Lecturers' perspectives and practices. *Ricognizioni*, 9(17), 29-47.
- Bransford, J. D., Brown, A. L., & Cocking, R. R. (Eds.). (2000). *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience, and school: Expanded edition*. National Academy Press.
- Brown, H. D. (2002). English language teaching in the "Post-Method" era: Towards better diagnosis, treatment, and assessment. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice* (pp. 9-18). Cambridge University Press.
- Bruner, J., & Sherwood, V. (1976). Peekaboo and the learning of rule structures. In J. Bruner, A. Jolly, & K. Sylva (Eds.), *Play: Its role in development and evolution* (pp. 277-287). Penguin Books.
- Burton, J., & Rajendram, S. (2019). Translanguaging-as-resource: University ESL instructors' language orientations and attitudes toward translanguaging. *TESL Canada Journal*, 36(1), 21-47. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v36i1.1301>
- Busch, B. (2012). The linguistic repertoire revisited. *Applied Linguistics*, 33(5), 503-523. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ams056>

- Butzkamm, W. (2009). *The bilingual reform: A paradigm shift in foreign language teaching*. Narr Francke Attempto Verlag.
- Can, N. (2009). *Post-method pedagogy: Teacher growth behind walls* [Conference presentation]. 10th METU ELT Convention, Ankara, Turkey. <http://dbe.metu.edu.tr/convention/proceedingsweb/Pedagogy.pdf>
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 401-417. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01207.x>
- Celic, C., & Seltzer, K. (2011). Translanguaging: A CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators. CUNY-NYS Initiative on Emergent Bilinguals, 1–184.
- Cenoz, J. (2009). *Towards multilingual education: Basque educational research from an international perspective*. Multilingual Matters.
- Cenoz, J. (2013). Defining multilingualism. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 33, 3-18. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S026719051300007X>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2017). Minority languages and sustainable translanguaging: Threat or opportunity? *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 38(10), 901-912. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2017.1284855>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2020a). Pedagogical translanguaging: An introduction. *System*, 92, Article 102269. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102269>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2020b). Teaching English through pedagogical translanguaging. *World Englishes*, 39(2), 300-311. <https://doi.org/10.1111/weng.12462>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2021). *Pedagogical translanguaging*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.21153/tesol2023vol31no2art1799>
- Chen, M. (2014). Postmethod pedagogy and its influence on EFL teaching strategies. *English Language Teaching*, 7(5), 17-25. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v7n5p17>
- Chicherina, N. V., & Strelkova, S. Y. (2023). Translanguaging in English language teaching: Perceptions of teachers and students. *Education Sciences*, 13(1), Article 86. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci13010086>

- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research methods in education* (8th ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315456539>
- Constantine, M. B. (2023). *Teachers' perspectives on translanguaging in EFL classrooms: Discourses around its use in Swedish upper secondary schools* [Master's thesis, Stockholm University].
- Conteh, J. (2018a). Translanguaging. *ELT Journal*, 72(4), 445-447. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccy034>
- Conteh, J. (2018b). Translanguaging as pedagogy - a critical review. In A. Creese & A. Blackledge (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of language and superdiversity* (pp. 473-487). Routledge.
- Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57(3), 402-423. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.57.3.402>
- Cook, V. J. (2010). The relationship between first and second language acquisition revisited. In E. Macaro (Ed.), *The Continuum companion to second language acquisition* (pp. 137-157). Continuum.
- Cook, V. (2016). Premises of multicompetence. In V. Cook & L. Wei (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of linguistic multicompetence* (pp. 1-25). Cambridge University Press.
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(1), 103-115. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x>
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2015). Translanguaging and identity in educational settings. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 35, 20-35. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000233>
- Creswell, J. W., & Guetterman, T. C. (2019). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (6th ed.). Pearson Education.
- Crosetto, P., Filippin, A., Katuščák, P., & Smith, J. (2020). Central tendency bias in belief elicitation. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 78, 1-55. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joep.2020.102273>

- Crystal, D. (1987). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of language*. Cambridge University Press.
- Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, 49(2), 222-251. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543049002222>
- Cummins, J. (2007). Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 10(2), 221-240.
- Dailey-O'Cain, J., & Liebscher, G. (2009). Teacher and student use of the first language in foreign language classroom interaction: Functions and applications. In M. Turnbull & J. Dailey-O'Cain (Eds.), *First language use in second and foreign language learning* (pp. 131-144). Multilingual Matters.
- Daniel, S. M., Jiménez, R. T., Pray, L., & Pacheco, M. B. (2019). Scaffolding to make translanguaging a classroom norm. *TESOL Journal*, 10(1), Article e00361. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.361>
- Dawson, C. (2009). *Introduction to research methods: A practical guide for anyone undertaking a research project* (4th ed.). How to Books.
- Doiz, A., & Lasagabaster, D. (2017). Teachers' beliefs about translanguaging practices. In C. M. Mazak & K. S. Carroll (Eds.), *Translanguaging in higher education: Beyond monolingual ideologies* (pp. 157-176). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783096657-011>
- Donley, K. (2022). Translanguaging as a theory, pedagogy, and qualitative research methodology. *NABE Journal of Research and Practice*, 12(3-4), 105-120.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self system. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9-42). Multilingual Matters.
- Ellis, E. M. (2008). Defining and investigating monolingualism. *Sociolinguistic Studies*, 2(3), 311-330.
- Escobar, C. F., & Paltrineri, E. D. (2015). Professors' and students' conflicting beliefs about translanguaging in the EFL classroom: Dismantling the monolingual

- bias. *Revista de Linguas Modernas*, 23, 301-328.
<https://doi.org/10.15517/rlm.v0i23.22355>
- Fang, F., & Liu, Y. (2020). 'Using all English is not always meaningful': Stakeholders' perspectives on the use of and attitudes towards translanguaging at a Chinese university. *Lingua*, 247, Article 102959.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2020.102959>
- Feller, N. P. (2020). *Translanguaging and scaffolding strategies: A case study in a primary bilingual classroom* [Unpublished post-doctoral report]. University of Porto.
- Feller, N. P., & Vaughan, J. (2018). Language practices of Mbya Guaraní children in a community-based bilingual school. In S. Henn-Reinke & A. Chesarek (Eds.), *Language practices of indigenous children and youth: The transition from home to school* (pp. 173-204). Palgrave Macmillan.
https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-60120-9_8
- Flores, N., & Rosa, J. (2015). Undoing appropriateness: Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education. *Harvard educational review*, 85(2), 149-171.
- Foley, J. A. (2016). EFL classroom and translanguaging. In *Pedagogical and cultural approaches in Western languages* (pp. 97-117). Department of Western Languages, Faculty of Humanities, Srinakharinwirot University.
<http://west.hu.swu.ac.th/Portals/13/files/Proceedings2016.pdf>
- Galante, A. (2014). English language teaching in the post-method era. *Contact Magazine*, 40(4), 57-62.
- García, O. (2010). Linguaging and ethnifying. In J. A. Fishman & O. García (Eds.), *Handbook of language and ethnic identity: Disciplinary and regional perspectives* (Vol. 1, pp. 519-534). Oxford University Press.
- García, O., & Kleyn, T. (Eds.). (2016). *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments*. Routledge.
- García, O., & Leiva, C. (2014). Theorizing and enacting translanguaging for social justice. In A. Blackledge & A. Creese (Eds.), *Heteroglossia as practice and pedagogy* (pp. 199-218). Springer.

- García, O., & Lin, A. M. (2017). Translanguaging in bilingual education. In O. García, A. M. Lin, & S. May (Eds.), *Bilingual and multilingual education* (pp. 117-130). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02258-1_9
- García, O., & Sylvan, C. E. (2011). Pedagogies and practices in multilingual classrooms: Singularities in pluralities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 385-400. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01208.x>
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). Translanguaging in education: Principles, implications and challenges. In O. García & L. Wei, *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education* (pp. 119-135). Palgrave Macmillan.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2015). Translanguaging, bilingualism, and bilingual education. In W. E. Wright, S. Boun, & O. García (Eds.), *The handbook of bilingual and multilingual education* (pp. 223-240). Wiley-Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118533406.ch13>
- Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). On the measurement of affective variables in second language learning. *Language Learning*, 43(2), 157-194. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1992.tb00714.x>
- Gatil, T. B. (2021). Translanguaging in multilingual English language teaching in the Philippines: A systematic literature review. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation*, 4(1), 52-57.
- Genc, E., Yuksel, D., & Curle, S. (2023). Lecturers' translanguaging practices in English-taught lectures in Turkey. *Journal of Multilingual Theories and Practices*, 4(1), 8-31.
- Gonulal, T., & Loewen, S. (2018). Scaffolding technique. In J. I. Lontas (Ed.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching* (pp. 1-5). Wiley. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0180>
- Goodman, B., & Tastanbek, S. (2021). Making the shift from a codeswitching to a translanguaging lens in English language teacher education. *Tesol Quarterly*, 55(1), 29-53. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.571>
- Grosjean, F. (2010). *Bilingual: Life and reality*. Harvard University Press.

- Hall, C. (2020). An ontological framework for English. In C. Hall & R. Wicaksono (Eds.), *Ontologies of English: Conceptualising the language for learning, teaching and assessment* (pp. 13–36). Cambridge University Press.
- Hammond, J. (Ed.). (2001). *Scaffolding: Teaching and learning in language and literacy education*. Primary English Teaching Association.
- Hammond, J., & Gibbons, P. (2005). Putting scaffolding to work: The contribution of scaffolding in articulating ESL education. *Prospect*, 20(1), 6-30.
- Hasan, M., Islam, A., & Shuchi, I. J. (2020). Translanguaging as an instructional strategy in adult ESL classroom. *ELT Echo: The Journal of English Language Teaching in Foreign Language Context*, 5(2), 93-105.
- Huang, X., & Chalmers, H. (2023). Implementation and effects of pedagogical translanguaging in EFL classrooms: A systematic review. *Languages*, 8(3), Article 194. <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages8030194>
- Jaspers, J. (2018). The transformative limits of translanguaging. *Language & Communication*, 58, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langcom.2017.12.001>
- Jones, B. (2017). Translanguaging in bilingual schools in Wales. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 16(4), 199-215. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2017.1328282>
- Juvonen, P., & Källkvist, M. (2021). Pedagogical translanguaging: Theoretical, methodological and empirical perspectives. An introduction. In P. Juvonen & M. Källkvist (Eds.), *Pedagogical translanguaging: Theoretical, methodological and empirical perspectives* (pp. 1-6). Multilingual Matters.
- Kachru, B. B. (1994). Englishization and contact linguistics. *World Englishes*, 13(2), 135-154. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-971X.1994.tb00303.x>
- Karabulut, A., & Dollar, Y. K. (2022). The use of translanguaging pedagogy in writing classes of Turkish EFL learners. *Participatory Educational Research*, 9(6), 41-65. <https://doi.org/10.17275/per.22.131.9.6>
- Karakaş, A. (2016). Turkish lecturers' views on the place of mother tongue in the teaching of content courses through English medium. *Asian Englishes*, 18(3), 242–257.

- Karakaş, A. (2023). Translanguaging in content-based EMI classes through the lens of Turkish students: Self-reported practices, functions and orientations. *Linguistics and Education*, 77, 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2023.101221>
- Kavak, V. İ. (2021). *A functional analysis of translanguaging practices in engineering and literature courses in an English medium higher education context in Turkey* (Publication No. 662268) [Master's thesis, Çukurova University]. Council of Higher Education National Thesis Center.
- Kırkgöz, Y., Inci-Kavak, V., Karakaş, A., & Panero, S. M. (2023). Translanguaging practices in Turkish EMI classrooms: Commonalities and differences across two academic disciplines. *System*, 113, 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2023.102982>
- Kramsch, C., & Zhang, L. (2018). *The multilingual instructor*. Oxford University Press.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. Longman.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). The postmethod condition: (E)merging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28 (1), 27-47. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587197>
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a postmethod pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(4), 537-560. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588427>
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Küçük, C. (2018). *Investigating translanguaging as a teaching and learning practice in an English medium higher education context in Turkey* (Publication No. 531272) [Master's thesis, Çukurova University]. Council of Higher Education National Thesis Center.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford University Press.

- Lantolf, J., Thorne, S. L., & Poehner, M. (2015). Sociocultural theory and second language development. In B. van Patten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition* (pp. 207–226). Routledge.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Anderson, M. (2011). *Techniques and principles in language teaching* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Lenneberg, E. H. (1967). *Biological foundations of language*. Wiley.
- Levine, G. S. (2011). *Code choice in the language classroom*. Multilingual Matters.
- Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012a). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 641-654. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718488>
- Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012b). Translanguaging: Developing its conceptualisation and contextualisation. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 655-670. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718490>
- Lin, A. M. (2015). Conceptualising the potential role of L1 in CLIL. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 28(1), 74-89. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2014.1000926>
- Lin, A. M., & He, P. (2017). Translanguaging as dynamic activity flows in CLIL classrooms. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 16(4), 228-244. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2017.1328283>
- Liu, Y., & Fang, F. (2022). Translanguaging theory and practice: How stakeholders perceive translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *RELC journal*, 53(2), 391-399.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Sage.
- Littlewood, W., & Yu, B. (2011). First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language Teaching*, 44(1), 64-77. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444809990310>
- Littlewood, W. (2013). Developing a context-sensitive pedagogy for communication-oriented language teaching. *ENGLISH TEACHING (영어교육)*, 68(3), 3-25.

- Littlewood, W. (2014). Communication-oriented language teaching: Where are we now? Where do we go from here? *Language Teaching*, 47(3), 349-362. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000134>
- Macaro, E. (2001). Analysing student teachers' codeswitching in foreign language classrooms: Theories and decision making. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85(4), 531-548. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0026-7902.00124>
- Macaro, E. (2005). Codeswitching in the L2 classroom: A communication and learning strategy. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (pp. 63-84). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/0-387-24565-0_5
- Macaro, E. (2009). Teacher use of codeswitching in the second language classroom: Exploring 'optimal' use. In M. Turnbull & J. Dailey-O'Cain (Eds.), *First language use in second and foreign language learning* (pp. 35-49). Multilingual Matters.
- Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2022). *Second language research: Methodology and design* (3rd ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003188414>
- Manalili, M. A. R. (2021). *Epistemology of monolingual bias* [Preprint]. PsyArXiv.
- May, S. (2014). Justifying educational language rights. *Review of Research in Education*, 38(1), 215-241.
- Mbrimi-Hungwe, V. (2019). Stepping beyond linguistic boundaries in multilingual science education: Lecturer's perceptions of the use of translanguaging. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 37(1), 15-26.
- McMillan, B. A., & Rivers, D. J. (2011). The practice of policy: Teacher attitudes toward "English only". *System*, 39(2), 251-263. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.04.011>
- Meier, G., & Conteh, J. (2014). Conclusion: The multilingual turn in language education. In J. Conteh & G. Meier (Eds.), *The multilingual turn in languages education: Opportunities and challenges* (pp. 292-299). Multilingual Matters.
- Menken, K., & García, O. (Eds.). (2010). *Negotiating language policies in schools: Educators as policymakers*. Routledge.

- Mercer, N. (2008). The seeds of time: Why classroom dialogue needs a temporal analysis. *Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 17(1), 33-59. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10508400701793182>
- Ohta, A. S. (2005). Interlanguage pragmatics in the zone of proximal development. *System*, 33(3), 503-517. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2005.06.001>
- Ohta, A. S. (2017). Sociocultural theory and second/foreign language education. In N. Van Deusen-Scholl & S. May (Eds.), *Second and foreign language education. Encyclopedia of language and education* (3rd ed., pp. 57-68). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02246-8_6
- Okoye, C. R., & Ambele, E. A. (2023). Classroom translanguaging as a learning strategy: Thai secondary school EFL students' perceptions. *European Journal of Open Education and E-learning Studies*, 8(2), 20-39.
- Ooi, W. Z., & Aziz, A. A. (2021). Translanguaging pedagogy in the ESL classroom: A systematic review. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 10(3), 676-709. <https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARPED/v10-i3/10816>
- Ortega, L. (2019). SLA and the study of equitable multilingualism. *The Modern Language Journal*, 103(S1), 23-38. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12525>
- Otheguy, R., García, O., & Reid, W. (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 6(3), 281-307. <https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2015-0014>
- Otsuji, E., & Pennycook, A. (2010). Metrolingualism: Fixity, fluidity and language in flux. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 7(3), 240-254. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790710903414331>
- Paudel, K. (2024). Role of Translanguaging in Second Language Education. *English Language Teaching Perspectives*, 9(1-2), 131-138. <https://doi.org/10.3126/eltp.v9i1-2.68727>
- Pinto, J. (2020). Chinese teachers' attitudes towards translanguaging and its uses in Portuguese foreign language classrooms. *Theory and Practice of Second Language Acquisition*, 6(1), 11-30.

- Poza, L. (2017). Translanguaging: Definitions, implications, and further needs in burgeoning inquiry. *Berkeley Review of Education*, 6(2), 101-128. <https://doi.org/10.5070/B86110060>
- Prilutskaya, M. (2021). Examining pedagogical translanguaging: A systematic review of the literature. *Languages*, 6(4), Article 180. <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages6040180>
- Raja, F. D., Suparno, S., & Ngadiso, N. (2022). Teachers' attitude towards translanguaging practice and its implication in Indonesian EFL classroom. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 11(3), 567-576.
- Razfar, A. (2012). Narrating beliefs: A language ideologies approach to teacher beliefs. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, 43(1), 61-81. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1548-1492.2011.01157.x>
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Ringbom, H. (2007). *Cross-linguistic similarity in foreign language learning*. Multilingual Matters.
- Rivers, D. J. (2011). Politics without pedagogy: Questioning linguistic exclusion. *ELT Journal*, 65(2), 103-113. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccq044>
- Sa'd, S. H. T., & Qadermazi, Z. (2015). L1 use in EFL classes with English-only policy: Insights from triangulated data. *Center for Educational Policy Studies Journal*, 5(2), 159-175.
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 10, 209-233. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209>
- Şevik, M. (2007). The place of mother tongue in foreign language classes. *Ankara University Journal of Faculty of Educational Sciences (JFES)*, 40(1), 99-119. https://doi.org/10.1501/Egifak_00000000167
- Schmitt, N. (2008). Instructed second language vocabulary learning. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(3), 329-363. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168808089921>

- Shabir, M. (2017). Student-teachers' beliefs on the use of L1 in EFL classroom: A global perspective. *English Language Teaching*, 10(4), 45-52. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v10n4p45>
- Shohamy, E. (2011). Assessing multilingual competencies: Adopting construct valid assessment policies. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 418-429. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01210.x>
- Sime, D. (2006). What do learners make of teachers' gestures in the language classroom? *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 44(2), 211-230. <https://doi.org/10.1515/IRAL.2006.009>
- Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2003). Is there a role for the use of the L1 in an L2 setting? *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(4), 760-770. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588224>
- Subedi, D. (2016). Explanatory sequential mixed method design as the third research community of knowledge claim. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 4(7), 570-577.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: The uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 251-274. <https://doi.org/10.1177/136216880000400303>
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2013). A Vygotskian sociocultural perspective on immersion education: The L1/L2 debate. *Journal of immersion and content-based language education*, 1(1), 101-129.
- Tabatadze, S. (2021). Reconsidering Monolingual Strategies of Bilingual Education through Translanguaging and Plurilingual Educational Approaches: Are We Moving Back or Forward? *International Journal of Multilingual Education*, 17, 47-63.
- Thornbury, S. (2013). The learning body. In J. Arnold & T. Murphey (Eds.), *Meaningful action: Earl Stevick's influence on language teaching* (pp. 62-78). Cambridge University Press.
- Van Lier, L. (2004). *The ecology and semiotics of language learning: A sociocultural perspective*. Kluwer Academic Publishers.

- Vertovec, S. (2007). Super-diversity and its implications. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 30(6), 1024-1054. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01419870701599465>
- Vogel, S. & Garcia, O. (2017). Translanguaging. In G. Noblit & L. Moll, eds., Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). *The collected works of L.S. Vygotsky: The fundamentals of defectology* (Vol. 2). Springer Science & Business Media.
- Wang, D. (2019). Translanguaging in Chinese foreign language classrooms: Students and teachers' attitudes and practices. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(2), 138–49. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1231773>
- Wang, P. (2022). Relooking at the roles of translanguaging in English as a foreign language classes for multilingual learners: Practices and implications. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.850649>
- Wei, L. (2011). Moment analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(5), 1222-1235. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.07.035>
- Wei, L. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics*, 39(1), 9-30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx039>
- Williams, C. (2002). *Extending bilingualism in the education system*. Education and Lifelong Learning Committee, National Assembly for Wales.
- Williams, C. (2012). *The national immersion scheme guidance for teachers on subject language threshold: Accelerating the process of reaching the threshold*. The Welsh Language Board.
- Witari, P. S., & Sukanto, K. E. (2023). Pedagogical issues of translanguaging practice in Indonesia: The voice of four EFL teachers. *IJIET (International Journal of Indonesian Education and Teaching)*, 7(2), 204-220.

- Wood, D., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 17(2), 89-100. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.1976.tb00381.x>
- Wright, W. E., Boun, S., & García, O. (Eds.). (2015). *The handbook of bilingual and multilingual education*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Yoxsimer Paulsrud, B. (2014). *English-medium instruction in Sweden: Perspectives on practices in two upper secondary schools* [Doctoral dissertation, Stockholm University]. DiVA.
- Yuan, R., & Yang, M. (2020). Towards an understanding of translanguaging in EMI teacher education classrooms. *Language Teaching Research*, 27(4), 1-23. Sage. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820964123>
- Yuvayapan, F. (2019). Translanguaging in EFL classrooms: Teachers' perceptions and practices. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 15(2), 678-694. <https://doi.org/10.17263/jlls.586811>
- Zhang, Y., & Wei, R. (2021). Strategic use of L1 in Chinese EMI classrooms: A translanguaging perspective. In H. Lee & B. Hassall (Eds.), *English-medium instruction translanguaging practices in Asia: Theories, frameworks and implementation in higher education* (pp. 101-118). Springer.



APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Approval from MAKU Research Ethics Committee



ARAŞTIRMA PROJESİ DEĞERLENDİRME RAPORU

Toplantı Tarihi: 07.02.2024 Çarşamba
Toplantı No:2024/02
Karar No: GO 2024/71

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Tezli Yüksek Lisans Programı Öğrencisi Yekta ARSLAN'ın, Doç. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ'ın danışmanlığında yürüteceği *"İngilizce Sınıflarında Diller Arası Geçişliliğin Gereçeklerinin Kavranması: İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Algılarının ve Uygulamalarının İrdelenmesi/Understanding the Grounds of Translanguaging in EFL Classrooms: Scrutinizing the Perceptions and Practices of English Teachers "* başlıklı proje önerisi araştırmanın gerekçe, amaç, yaklaşım ve yöntemleri dikkate alınarak incelenmiş olup, çalışmanın fikri, hukuki ve telif hakları bakımından sorumluluğu araştırma ekibine ait olması koşulu ile etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

APPENDIX 2

Informed Consent Form

	BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ GÖNÜLLÜ OLUR FORMU
---	--

Değerli Katılımcı,

KONU: Bu çalışma, Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümü öğrencisi Yekta Arslan tarafından yürütülmekte olup, Doç. Dr. Ali Karakaş'ın rehberliğinde bir yüksek lisans tezi araştırması kapsamında gerçekleştirilmektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, İngilizce öğretimi sınıflarında İngilizce öğretmenlerinin diller arası geçiş stratejilerinin (Türkçe ve İngilizce arasında stratejik geçiş) uygulanmasına yönelik tutumlarınızı ve bakış açılarınızı araştırmaktır.

ÖNEM VE AMAÇ: Türkiye'de, dil arası geçişlilik kavramı oldukça yeni ve bu konuda yazılmış tezlerin sayısı sınırlıdır. Bu terimin mantığına bakıldığında, dil arası geçişlilik, tek dilli dil ideolojilerine bir tepki olarak değerlendirilebilir. Bu yaklaşım, ana dilin ve yabancı dilin ayrı sistemler olarak algılanmasına karşı çıkar. Eğitimsel bir kaynak olarak doğru bir şekilde kullanıldığında, dil arası geçişlilik, iki dil arasında bir bağ olarak işlev görebilir, ancak bu geçişin uygun bir şekilde yapılabilmesi için ana dilin dengeli bir şekilde kullanılması önemlidir. Ayrıca, dil arası geçişlilik, doğal dilin benimsenmesine bir engel gibi görülebilir, ancak aslında ikinci dil öğrenme sürecinde bir araç olarak değerlendirilmelidir (Inal & Turhanlı, 2019). Başka bir deyişle, sınıf içi iletişimde bir hedef değil, bir araç olarak kullanılmalıdır. Bu yöntemin temel felsefesini anlamak önemlidir, çünkü sınıflarda işlevsel dil açık bir şekilde kullanılır.

YÖNTEM: Bu çalışma, katılımcılardan yeterli veri toplamak amacıyla karma yöntemi benimseyecektir. Yani hem nicel hem de nitel veri toplanacaktır. Ayrıca, zaman kısıtlamaları ve öğretmenlerin uygunluk sorunları nedeniyle kesitsel bir araştırma yöntemi tercih edilecektir. Bu tasarım, araştırmacının verileri bir kez ve kısa bir süre içinde toplamasına olanak tanıyacaktır (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Ek olarak, açıklayıcı sıralı bir desen benimsenecektir, yani nicel verilerin toplandıktan sonra nitel verilerin daha özenli ve detaylı bir şekilde elde edilmesi amaçlanacaktır (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019).

VERİ TOPLAMA SÜRECİ: Nicel kısmı kapsayan anket formu 32 sorudan oluşmaktadır ve bir açık uçlu soru/ifade içermektedir. Nitel kısım için ise 15 yarı yapılandırılmış mülakat sorusu içeren 4 bölümden oluşan bir form kullanılacaktır. Anketteki ve mülakat formundaki bir bölüm, demografik bilgilerin elde edilmesi amacıyla ayrılmıştır. Araştırmaya öncelikle anket çalışması ile başlanacaktır. Kullanılacak olan anket ile devlet okullarında İngilizce derslerine giren İngilizce öğretmenlerinin diller arası geçiş hakkında görüşleri ve tutumları araştırılacaktır. Bunun ardından maddeler analiz edilecek ve bu maddeler hakkında olan yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme yöntemi kullanılarak görüşlerin derinlemesine gerekçeleri gün yüzüne çıkarılacaktır. Görüşmeler ses kaydına alınacaktır.

Verdiğiniz cevaplar, benim ve diğer eğitimcilerin sizin ihtiyaçlarınızı daha iyi anlamamıza yardımcı olacaktır. Diller arası geçişin sınıftaki değeri açısından katkılarınız önemlidir. Bahsedilenlere ilave olarak:

- Gönüllünün kimliğini ortaya çıkaracak kayıtların gizli tutulacak, kamuoyuna açıklanmayacak; araştırma sonuçlarının yayımlanması halinde dahi gönüllünün kimliğinin gizli kalacaktır,
- Araştırma konusuyla ilgili ve gönüllünün araştırmaya katılmaya devam etme isteğini etkileyebilecek yeni bilgiler elde edildiğinde gönüllünün veya yasal temsilcisinin zamanında bilgilendirilecek,
- Araştırmanın devam etmesi, görüşmelerin tamamlanması ve anketin doldurulması için öngörülen süre 4 haftadır,
- Araştırmaya katılması beklenen tahmini gönüllü sayısı 100'dür

Bu proje zorunlu katılıma dayanmamaktadır. Tam aksine, gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Katılımcılar, çalışmadan herhangi bir aşamada çekilme hakkına sahiptir. Çalışmanın herhangi bir aşamasında, herhangi bir ceza veya yaptırıma maruz kalmadan, çalışmadan çekilme hakkına sahipsiniz. Araştırmada yer almanız nedeniyle size herhangi bir ödeme yapılmayacak ve sizden hiçbir ücret talep edilmeyecektir. Anketi yanıtlamanız, araştırmaya katılım için onam verdiğiniz anlamına gelir.

☐ Bilgilendirilmiş Gönüllü Olur Formundaki tüm açıklamaları okudum. Yukarıda belirtilen araştırmanın konusu ve amacıyla ilgili olarak, adı aşağıda belirtilen araştırmacı tarafından yazılı ve sözlü olarak yapılan açıklama tarafıma iletildi. Araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katıldığımı ve istediğim zaman gerekçeli veya gerekçesiz olarak araştırmadan çekilebileceğimi biliyorum.

☐ Söz konusu araştırmaya, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın kendi rızamla katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Elde edilen verilerimin;

☐ Sadece yukarıda bahsi geçen araştırmada kullanılmasına izin veriyorum.

☐ İleride yapılması planlanan tüm araştırmalarda kullanılmasına izin veriyorum.

☐ Hiçbir koşulda kullanılmasına izin vermiyorum.

Gönüllünün Adı-Soyadı

Tarih:

İmzası

Eğer bu formda açıklanan proje detayları ile ilgili herhangi bir sorunuz, problem veya öneriniz varsa, lütfen araştırmacı ile iletişime geçiniz:

Araştırma hakkında yukarıda belirtilen ve istenen diğer bilgiler katılımcıya tarafınca açıklanmış ve yazılı onamı alınmıştır.

Araştırmacı

İmzası

Tarih:

Yekta ARSLAN

Danışman

İmzası

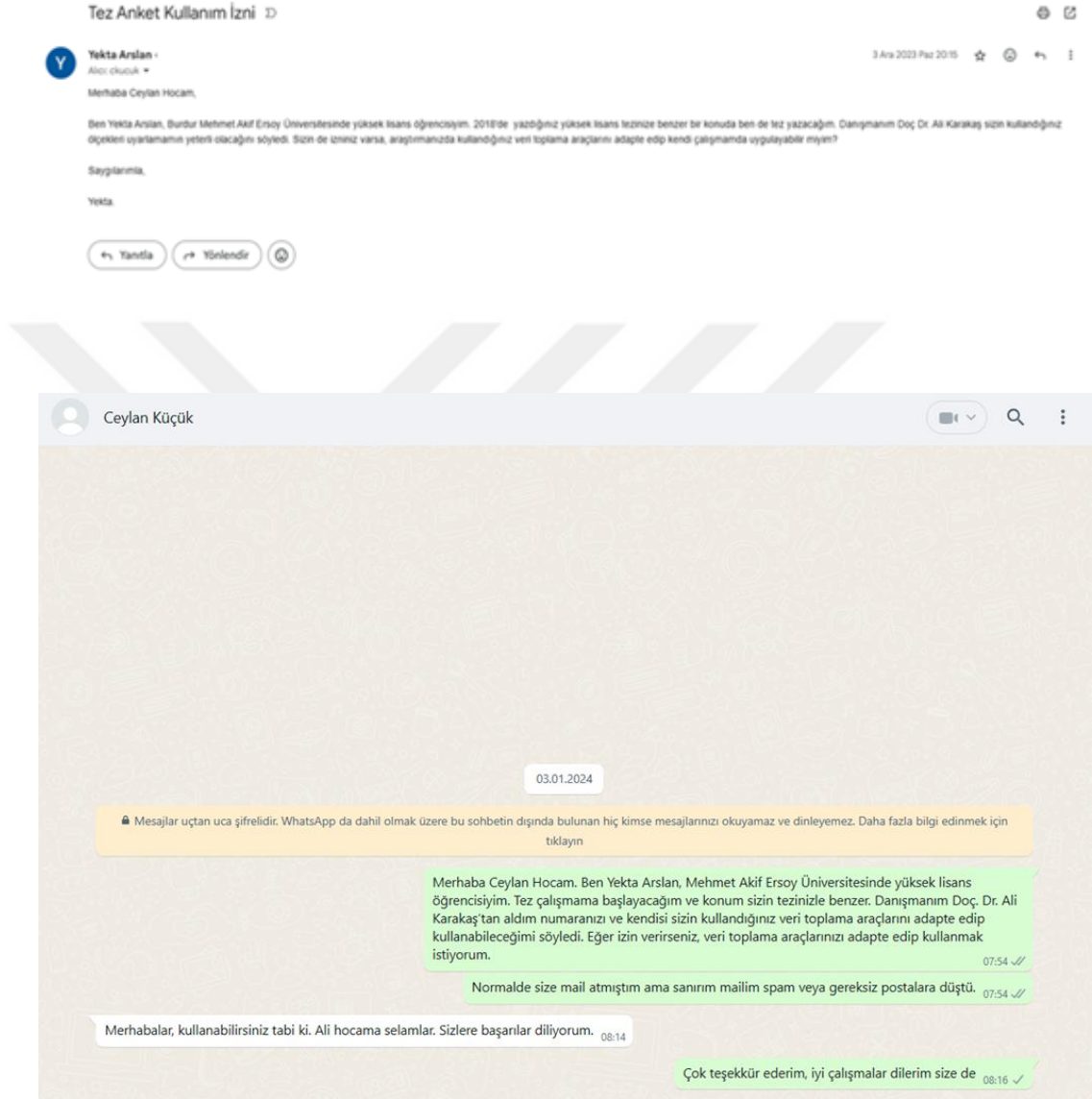
Tarih:

Doç. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ



APPENDIX 3

Permission to Use the Adapted Questionnaire



APPENDIX 4

The Adapted Questionnaire Directed to EFL Teachers

Understanding the Grounds of Translanguaging in EFL Classrooms: Scrutinizing the Perceptions and Practices of English Teachers

Dear English Teachers,

This study is conducted by Mehmet Akif Ersoy University English Language Education department student Yekta Arslan and under the guidance of Assoc. Prof. Ali Karakaş, within the scope of a master's thesis research. The aim of this survey is to investigate your attitudes and perspectives towards implementing translanguaging strategies (strategic switch between L1 and L2) in your EFL classrooms. You are asked to answer 32 questions in total; among these, 7 of which will collect basic demographic information, and the last part will ask you to briefly write your final words and thoughts on translanguaging. Please, be informed that all the collected data is confidential and will only be used for research purposes. So, we will be grateful if you respond to the following sentences honestly as your answers will help me and other educators to better understand your needs. Your input is very important for researchers and teachers to better understand the practice and value of translanguaging in EFL classrooms.

Thank you.

(Filling out the whole survey probably will take about 5 to 10 minutes of your time)

This project is not based on mandatory participation. Rather, it is based on voluntariness. The participants will have the right to refuse to participate, or withdraw from the study in any phase. Upon refusing or withdrawing, you will not be harmed by means of any personal way.

If you have any enquiries, problems or suggestions regarding to ethical aspects and/or project details that are explained in this form, please contact with Mehmet Akif Ersoy University Human Researches Ethics Committee from

Researcher: Yekta Arslan
Contact E-Mail:

İlerleme durumunu kaydetmek için [Google'da oturum açın](#) [Daha fazla bilgi](#)

* Zorunlu soruyu belirtir

I have read the details of this research project and all of my questions about the project are answered. I participate in this research voluntarily. *

☐ I accept to participate.

Section 1: Demographic Information

This part aims to gather basic information about you.

What's your gender? *

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

How old are you? *

- ☐ 22 - 29
- ☐ 30 - 39
- ☐ 40 - 49
- ☐ 50 - 59
- ☐ 60 or above

Which sector are you working at? *

- ☐ State School
- ☐ Private School

Does your school restrict the use of Turkish? *

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

What grade do you teach? *

- ☐ Primary School
- ☐ Middle School
- ☐ High School

How long have you been teaching? *

- ☐ 0 - 4 years
- ☐ 5 - 9 years
- ☐ 10 - 14 years
- ☐ 15 - 20 years
- ☐ 21 years or above

Have you received any other education besides the university you graduated from *
in Turkey? (e.g courses, certificates, masters degree, going abroad)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Section 2: Teachers' attitudes towards English Only Policy in the EFL classroom *

Please fill in the survey precisely. If you are using a mobile phone, you can swipe sideways to see all the options. If you are using a computer, you can use the scroll bar at the bottom of the survey.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Agree Strongly Agree

1. I think my English class should have an "English Only Policy." (This means only English is allowed in the classroom.).

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2. I believe the more English students use in the classroom the more their English will improve

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3. I believe that in order to master English, students must use English a great deal in the classroom

☐☐☐☐☐☐

4. I believe that there are no situations in which the first language should be used in the classroom

☐☐☐☐☐☐

5. I believe that the students should use only English when working together on a task in the classroom.

☐☐☐☐☐☐

6. It wastes a lot of time when the teacher switches from one language to another

☐☐☐☐☐☐

7. Switching from English to Turkish (or vice versa) might confuse students.

☐☐☐☐☐☐

8. Using more than one language (translanguaging) in the classroom leads to the weakness of my English.

☐☐☐☐☐☐

15. Using more than one language in the classrooms strengthens students' English.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Section 4: Translanguaging Practices used by EFL Teachers *

Always

Often

Sometimes

Never

16. I use Turkish in the classroom because it can increase test scores.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

17. It is appropriate to use Turkish to explain difficult concepts.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

18. Native language use brings an opportunity for students to see the differences and similarities between Turkish and English.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

19. I use Turkish to introduce new vocabulary items.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

20. I use Turkish to increase student motivation and confidence.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

21. I give instructions and explanations in Turkish.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

22. Turkish use is more effective to develop rapport/relationship between student and teacher.

☐☐☐☐

23. Idioms and expressions can be explained in Turkish.

☐☐☐☐

24. The amount of switching between languages depends on the context of different classes.

☐☐☐☐

Please briefly describe your personal thoughts and feelings about translanguageing in the EFL classroom.

*

Yanıtınız

APPENDIX 5

Semi-structured Interview Questions for EFL Teachers

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİ İÇİN GÖRÜŞME SORULARI

Bölüm 1: Demografik Bilgiler

1. Cinsiyet: Erkek ☐ Kadın ☐
2. Yaşınızı söyler misiniz?
3. Ne zamandan beri İngilizce öğretmenliği yapıyorsunuz?
4. Mezuniyetinize ek olarak yaptığınız çalışmalar veya almış olduğunuz bir eğitim var mı?
5. Kaç senedir MEB'e bağlı okullarda çalışıyorsunuz?

Bölüm 2: İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Diller arası Geçişlilik Uygulamaları

1. Derslerinizde hangi dili kullanıyorsunuz?
2. Dersiniz sırasında birden fazla dil (diller arası geçişlilik) kullanıyor musunuz? Nedenlerini belirtiniz.
3. Bu ne sıklıkta oluyor?
4. Dersler sırasında diller arası geçişliliği (birden fazla dilde kullanılması) ne zaman ve hangi amaçlarla kullanırsınız?
5. Diller arası geçişliliği başlatan taraf siz mi olursunuz yoksa öğrencileriniz mi?
6. Sınıflarınızdaki iletişim sorunlarını aşmak için hangi diller arası geçişlilik stratejilerini kullanıyorsunuz? Bunun sebebi nedir?

Bölüm 3: İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Diller arası Geçişlilik ile ilgili Görüşleri

1. Sizce, derslerde diller arası geçişliliğin kullanılması (birden fazla dili kullanma), öğrencilerin konu içeriğini daha iyi anlamasını sağlayabilir mi?
2. Lütfen hangi durumlarda öğrencilerin ana dillerini kullanmanın yararlı olduğunu ve hangi durumlarda olumsuz olduğunu açıklayınız.
3. Öğretmenlik kariyeriniz boyunca diller arası geçişlilik ile ilgili algılarınız değişti mi? Eğer öyleyse, bunun nedeni ne olabilir?
4. Sizce, derslerde diller arası geçişliliğin kullanılması (birden fazla dili kullanma), öğrencilerin İngilizce dil becerilerini geliştirebilir mi?

Görüşmenin sonu, zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim!

APPENDIX 6

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name Surname: Yekta ARSLAN

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

Master's Degree: Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University

Institute of Educational Sciences, Department of Foreign Language Education

Master's Program with Thesis in English Language Teaching (2025)

Bachelor's Degree: MEF University

Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Languages Education

Program of English Language Teaching (2021)

WORK EXPERIENCE

Ministry of National Education, English Language Teacher (2023 - present)

PUBLICATIONS

Arslan, Y. (2021, May). *The perceptions of English teachers on using L1 in the classroom*. Paper presented at the MEF University International Conference on Educational Sciences (MISCES 2021), Istanbul, Turkey. Abstract retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/379033412>

Arslan, Y. (2023). High School Teachers' Beliefs and Practices on Translanguaging. *Contemporary Research in Language and Linguistics*, 1(1), 21-34. <https://doi.org/10.62601/crll.v1i1.8>

