

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

**THE EFFECTS OF TRANSLANGUAGING PEDAGOGY ON LISTENING AND
READING COMPREHENSION AND LEARNERS' PERSPECTIVES ON
TRANSLANGUAGING IN AN EFL CONTEXT**

BERK İLHAN

A Ph.D. DISSERTATION

ADANA / 2022

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Ph.D. DISSERTATION

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ETİK BEYANI

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Berk İLHAN

ABSTRACT**THE EFFECTS OF TRANSLANGUAGING PEDAGOGY ON LISTENING AND
READING COMPREHENSION AND LEARNERS' PERSPECTIVES ON
TRANSLANGUAGING IN AN EFL CONTEXT****Berk İLHAN****Ph.D. Thesis, Department of English Language Teaching****Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Yonca ÖZKAN****July 2022, 288 Pages**

Integrating translanguaging pedagogy into language classes to create 'translanguaged language classes' can be possible through adopting one of the 'fluid languaging' or 'fixed language' approaches. Fluid languaging approach encourages the use of all linguistic and semiotic repertoires for effective communication whereas fixed language approach accepts different languages as social realities and suggests that transfers from one language to another is natural for multilingual people. It promotes switches among known languages for communicative and educational purposes. The focus is more on linguistic repertoire in the fixed language approach; therefore, it might be more appropriate approach to use while designing the classes with a translanguaging pedagogy in EFL context. Through using 'fixed language approach, this quasi-experimental study with both quantitative and qualitative data has two main purposes. Firstly, it aims to reveal beliefs for translanguaging in the Turkish EFL context. Secondly, it investigates the effects of translingual pedagogy on language learners' listening and reading comprehension by proposing a translanguaging technique for the EFL contexts. The study is significant because it is one of the few studies investigating the translanguaging beliefs of learners at tertiary level in a Turkish context. It presents a practical technique for designing listening and reading tasks with translingual pedagogy and compares monolingual and translingual perspectives through an intervention. Moreover, it is one of the first studies examining the effect of translingual pedagogy on listening comprehension in the EFL context.

The participants were 56 intermediate-level English preparatory program EFL learners at a Turkish university. There were 30 learners in the control group, whereas 26

were in the experimental group. First, beliefs about translanguaging were examined through a questionnaire, and five reading and five listening tasks were conducted with a monolingual perspective in the control group. The same tasks were conducted with translanguaging pedagogy in the experimental group. Learners answered the same ten comprehension questions in each task. During the tasks, the researcher kept teacher/researcher journals. The listening and reading comprehension of the two groups were compared statistically through the answers to the questions and both groups were compared qualitatively through the data from the journals. The difficulties that the control group had with a monolingual perspective were found with an open-ended questionnaire. Another open-ended questionnaire was conducted with the experimental group to answer whether adopting a translanguaging perspective can overcome difficulties in the listening and reading tasks with a monolingual perspective. An interview with nine voluntary participants from the experimental group was conducted to triangulate the data.

The triangulated data analysis indicated participants' supporting ideas for translanguaging for clarity and efficacy of mostly teaching processes and their frequent translanguaging practices in English classes. The statistical comparison of reading and listening scores indicated a significant difference in one of the listening tasks, suggesting that translanguaging pedagogy might be promising for teaching listening skills. The analysis of the qualitative data demonstrated that some of the difficulties experienced with a monolingual perspective can be overcome with a translanguaging perspective. Learners mostly prefer translanguaging for difficult sentences, vocabulary and sharing background knowledge about the topic. They might lack experience or knowledge on how to use the translanguaging pedagogy for learning, therefore designing listening and reading tasks through translanguaging pedagogy with preview, view, and review steps might be efficient for listening and reading pair work activities. The study indicated some gaps between the ideal and the practice as well. Although learners consider pair or group work activities in listening and reading tasks an opportunity for practice, the experimental group was more active in all phases in their native languages and the target language. Learners' biggest concern was developing a habit of using the native language in the target language class, which might warn planners and teachers to plan allocated time for using the native language in a foreign language class. The final product must always be in the target language, and the time allocated for the native language must be limited, according to the findings.

Keywords: English language teaching, translanguaging, translingual pedagogy, multilingualism, translingual breaks, translingual reading and listening tasks



ÖZET

YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENİMİ BAĞLAMINDA DİLLER ARASI GEÇİŞLİK PEDAGOJİSİNİN DİNLEDİĞİNİ VE OKUDUĞUNU ANLAMAYA ETKİSİ VE ÖĞRENCİLERİN GÖRÜŞLERİ

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Diller arası geçişlik pedagojisinin ‘diller arası geçişli dil sınıfları’ oluşturma amacıyla dil sınıflarına entegre edilmesi ‘değişken dil süreci’ veya ‘sabit dil’ yaklaşımı olmak üzere iki yaklaşım yoluyla olabilmektedir. ‘Değişken dil süreci’ yaklaşımı etkili iletişim için tüm dil bilimsel ve göstergebilimsel birikimin kullanılmasını teşvik ederken ‘sabit dil’ yaklaşımı farklı dilleri sosyal gerçeklikler olarak kabul eder ve bir dilden diğerine geçişlerin çok dilli bireyler için doğal olduğunu savunur. Sabit dil yaklaşımı eğitimsel veya iletişimsel amaçlarla diller arası geçişliği teşvik eder. Odak noktasında daha fazla dilbilimsel özellikler bulunduğu için ‘sabit dil’ yaklaşımı, diller arası geçişlik pedagojisinin yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenimi bağlamında kullanılabilmesi açısından daha uygun bir yaklaşım olabilir. Sabit dil yaklaşımını kullanan hem nitel hem de nicel veriler içeren bu yarı deneysel çalışmanın iki temel amacı vardır. İlk olarak, Türkiye yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretimi bağlamında diller arası geçişlik ile ilgili inançları ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. İkinci olarak, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretimi bağlamları için derste kullanılabilecek bir diller arası geçişlik tekniği önererek, pedagojinin dil öğrenenlerin dinleme ve okuduğunu anlama üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmaktadır. Araştırma, Türkiye bağlamında, üniversite düzeyinde İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin diller arası geçişlik inançlarını ortaya çıkardığı için önemlidir. Diller arası pedagoji ile dinleme ve okuma aktiviteleri tasarlamak için pratik bir teknik sunmakta ve uygulama yoluyla sadece hedef dilin kullanıldığı dinleme ve okuma aktivitelerini ve diller arası geçişlik pedagojisinin kullanıldığı aktiviteleri karşılaştırmaktadır. Ayrıca, diller arası geçişlik pedagojisinin

dinlediğini anlama üzerindeki etkisini EFL bağlamında inceleyen ilk çalışmalardan biridir.

Katılımcılar, bir Türk üniversitesindeki 56 orta seviye İngilizce hazırlık programı öğrencileridir. Kontrol grubunda 30, deney grubunda 26 öğrenci bulunmaktadır. İlk olarak, diller arası geçişlik ile ilgili inançlar bir anket ile incelenmiş ve kontrol grubunda yalnızca İngilizce kullanılabilen beş okuma ve beş dinleme görevi gerçekleştirilmiştir. Deney grubunda diller arası geçişlik pedagojisi ile aynı aktiviteler yapılmıştır. Öğrenciler her bir dinleme ve okuma aktivitesinde, kontrol ve deney gruplarında aynı olan on soruyu yanıtlamışlardır. Aktiviteler sırasında araştırmacı, öğretmen/araştırmacı günlüğü tutmuştur. Sorulara verilen cevaplar üzerinden iki grubun dinleme ve okuduğunu anlama durumları istatistiksel olarak karşılaştırılmış, bunun yansırı araştırmacı tarafından tutulan günlükler sayesinde her iki grup niteliksel olarak karşılaştırılmıştır. Kontrol grubunun tek dilli yapılan aktivitelerde yaşadığı zorluklar açık uçlu bir anket ile ortaya konmuştur. Başka bir açık uçlu anket deney grubuyla yapılmış ve bu anket ile, diller arası geçişlik pedagojisinin, tek dilli bir bakış açısıyla yapılan dinleme ve okuma aktivitelerindeki zorlukların üstesinden gelip gelemeyeceğini ortaya çıkarmak amaçlanmıştır. Bulguları güçlendirmek için deney grubundan dokuz gönüllü katılımcı ile bir görüşme yapılmıştır. Veri analizleri, katılımcıların çoğunlukla öğretim süreçlerinin netliği ve etkililiği için diller arası geçişliğe yönelik destekleyici fikirlerini ve diller arası geçişlik uygulamasından sıklıkla faydalandıklarını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Okuma ve dinleme puanlarının istatistiksel olarak karşılaştırılması, dinleme görevlerinden birinde önemli bir farklılığa işaret etmiş, bu da diller arası pedagojinin dinleme becerilerini öğretmek için faydalı olabileceğini göstermiştir. Nitel verilerin analizi, yalnızca hedef dil kullanılan aktivitelerde yaşanan bazı zorlukların, diller arası geçişli bir bakış açısıyla üstesinden gelinebileceğini göstermiştir. Öğrenciler çoğunlukla zor cümleler, kelime bilgisi ve konuyla ilgili bilgi paylaşımı için diller arası geçişlik uygulamasını tercih etmişlerdir. Analiz, katılımcıların pedagojiyi öğrenme için nasıl kullanacakları konusunda deneyim veya bilgiden yoksun olabileceklerini göstermiştir. Isınma, aktivite ve tekrar adımlarını içeren diller arası geçişlik pedagojisi aracılığıyla dinleme ve okuma görevleri tasarlamının, dinleme ve okuma ikili çalışma etkinlikleri için verimli olabileceği bulunmuştur. Çalışma, ideal ile uygulama arasında da bazı boşluklar olabileceğini göstermiştir. Öğrenciler, dinleme ve okuma görevlerinde ikili veya grup çalışması etkinliklerini hedef dilin pratiği açısından bir fırsat olarak görse de anadile geçişlerin yapıldığı deney grubu hem ana dilde hem de hedef dilde daha aktif

bulunmuştur. Öğrencilerin en büyük endişesi, hedef dil sınıfında ana dili kullanımı alışkanlığı geliştirmek olarak bulunmuş; bu da planlayıcılar ve öğretmenler tarafından yabancı dil sınıfında ana dili kullanmak için ayrılan zamanı planlama konusunun önemini vurgulamıştır. Elde edilen bulgulara göre diller arası geçişlik uygulamasının yabancı dil olarak İngilizce bağlamında başarılı olabilmesi için çıktının her zaman hedef dilde olması ve ana dile ayrılan sürenin sınırlı olması gerekmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İngilizce öğretimi, diller arası geçişlik, diller arası geçişlik pedagojisi, çok dillilik, diller arası geçişlik araları, diller arası geçişli dinleme ve okuma aktiviteleri



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ABBREVIATIONS

CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

CS: Code-switching

CTT: Crosslinguistic Translanguaging Theory

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

L1: Native Language

L2: Target Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TESOL: Teaching English to the Speakers of Other Languages

TLAN: Translanguaging Theory

UTT: Unitary Translanguaging Theory

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Origins of the Study

The globalized twenty-first century has necessitated new perspectives on language learning and teaching. Today many people know more than one language, and the discussions of multilingualism have replaced those of bilingualism (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Garcia, 2009). Some significant studies have shaped multilingualism discussions in recent years. At the beginning of the 1980s, Cummins suggested the 'Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP)' model by asserting that learners' language repertoires are fed from a single area of the brain, which acts as a central engine (1981). According to the CUP model, skills established in the native language will transfer across other language repertoires. The researcher advanced his arguments in a further study by putting forward the 'Interdependence Hypothesis', which suggests that competence in L2 and additional languages is dependent on the competence in the native language (Cummins, 1984). Similarly, Cook asserted the concept of Multicompetence (1991) and suggested that people knowing more than one language should be considered a whole person rather than a deficient monolingual as Grosjean (1989) proposed. Grosjean suggests that bilinguals do not keep their languages separate and alternate between monolingual and bilingual modes (Grosjean, 1992). While using their language repertoires, people use different languages for different purposes, in different contexts, with various people from cultural and linguistic backgrounds. That is why different aspects of life require several uses of languages (Grosjean, 1997). This new situation has brought Grosjean's 'Complementarity Principle' prominence (1997). The definition of the complementarity principle suggests that switching and mixing codes constitute a frequent and natural behaviour of the multilingual, which is commonly observable in daily life in the 2020s.

Affected by the ideas of Grosjean (1989, 1992), translanguaging appeared for the first time in a PhD dissertation by Cen Williams (Williams, 1994). The term was used as '*Trawsieithu*' (original in Welsh), and the researcher studied the effects of using one language for the input and creating output in another language. In his later work, Baker translated the term into English as 'translinguifying' and then as translanguaging (Baker, 2001, 2011). The first pedagogical translanguaging studies appeared with Williams

(1994) and Baker (2001). These studies, conducted in different bilingual contexts, referred to the planned, systematic, and functional uses of two languages in a classroom (Bonacina-Pugh et al., 2021). They emphasized the benefits of using one language for input and the other or others for output, and how using all language repertoires, mixing and switching codes increased learners' comprehension. Baker (2001) lists four potential advantages of the translanguaging pedagogy: it could help learners comprehend the subject matter more fully and deeply, enable them to develop academic competence in all their language repertoires, which could result in full bilingualism, ensure more parent-school cooperation, and it could provide better integration of fluent English speakers with English learners to help each other (p.281).

Translanguaging attracted the most attention with Ofelia Garcia and Li Wei (2009, 2014). Garcia brought a sociolinguistics dimension to the translanguaging discussions with her book "Bilingual Education in the 21st Century: A Global Perspective" (Garcia, 2009). Influenced by Bakhtin's 'Heteroglossia' (1981) and 'Dynamic Model of Multilingualism (DMM)' (Herdina & Jessner, 2002), Garcia proposed 'Dynamic Bilingualism' (Garcia, 2009). Dynamic bilingualism opposes the monoglossic view of bilingualism, which considers new language learning additive. It suggests that as there is only one linguistic system, 'language practices of bilinguals are complex and interrelated, they do not emerge in a linear way or function separately' (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014, p. 14). Language learners move in a multilingual continuum from 'emergent bilinguals' to 'highly proficient bilinguals' (Garcia, 2009). The concept of 'dynamic bilingualism' emphasizes 'the complex and evolving language use of bilinguals in the increasingly globalized world of the twenty-first century (May, 2014, p.84). In later years, Garcia and Li Wei published "Translanguaging: Language, Bilingualism and Education" (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). In dynamic bilingualism, the researchers considered translanguaging a natural 'practice and process' (Wei, 2017, p.6). It is a process in which multilingual speakers can use all their languages as an integrated communication system (Otheguy et al., 2019). Translanguaging is beyond the language hierarchies, and it is a natural act among known languages as a single repertoire (Garcia, 2009; García & Otheguy, 2019). Moreover, it employs semiotic repertoires, gestures, mimicry and other activities for meaningful communication. Translanguaging with Garcia and Li Wei's perspectives challenges language boundaries and suggests that people can communicate with limited linguistic resources thanks to the unitary

meaning-making system and other semiotic resources (Garcia, 2009; Garcia & Li Wei, 2014).

The new sociocultural perspective brought by Garcia attracted the attention of many researchers studying sociolinguistics, sociocultural studies, and mainstream education programs with multilingual learners. Towards the late 2010s, the translanguaging studies were done with two main perspectives: bilingual pedagogical and sociocultural (Li Wei, 2017). The bilingual pedagogical perspective deals with how multilingual learners can learn various subjects using all their language repertoires and how teachers can systematically use these repertoires in class. The sociocultural perspective deals with using different languages in society by multilingual people. These two perspectives created two main groups of researchers studying translanguaging with pedagogical translanguaging and sociocultural perspectives. Sometimes the studies with two different views have been in harmony, whereas, in some studies, there has been a misconception in terms (Bonacina-Pugh et al., 2021). To avoid these misconceptions, Garcia and Lin (2017) distinguish 'strong' and 'weak' forms of translanguaging. According to the distinction, translanguaging is weak when speakers soften the barriers between languages while acknowledging these languages as separate entities. It is strong when speakers acknowledge that they use a single repertoire that consists of various semiotic resources. Many of the first examples of pedagogical translanguaging studies might be referred to as a 'weak' form of translanguaging (Baker, 2001; Lewis et al., 2012; Cummins, 2017; Williams, 1994). They consider languages separate entities and encourage mixing and switching codes and systematic and functional uses of two languages in class (Bonacina-Pugh et al., 2021).

Cummins (in press) criticizes Garcia's description of the 'strong' form of translanguaging as 'beyond named languages'. The researcher suggests that the 'beyond named languages' statement is ungrounded as people use various languages. Instead, the researcher suggests 'Unitary Translanguaging Theory (UTT)' for the strong form of translanguaging, which asserts that 'languages have no linguistic or cognitive reality and the bilingual's linguistic system is unitary and undifferentiated' (Cummins, in press; p.4). For the weak form of translanguaging, the researcher suggests 'Crosslinguistic Translanguaging Theory (CTT)', which asserts that 'bilinguals actually speak languages, involving multiple registers and effective teaching promotes translanguaging involving conceptual and linguistic transfer across languages' (Cummins, in press; p.4). Similarly,

Bonacina-Pugh et al. (2021) conducted a comprehensive literature review on the theoretical background of translanguaging. The researchers suggested two approaches to studying translanguaging: the 'Fixed Languages Approach' and 'Fluid Language Approach'. The fixed languages approach regards languages as separate, bounded entities, whereas the fluid language approach views language as fluid and dynamic with semiotic signs. The fixed language approach accepts different languages as social realities and encourages transfers among them. However, the focus is more on semiotic resources for successful communication in fluid language approach rather than a focus on linguistic aspects. If a researcher chooses the fixed languages approach, the use of languages with transfers between them carefully and in strategically planned ways is significant. The fluid language approach is chosen, the pedagogy must build on bilinguals' languaging by including all semiotic resources to develop new understandings and language practices, including practices for academic purposes. This study uses the fixed languages approach and takes Cummins' crosslinguistic translanguaging theory as the theoretical background (Cummins, in press) and accepts existence of different languages as social realities.

Translanguaging pedagogy's effects have been studied by many researchers in bilingual contexts (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Cummins, 2007; Fu, 2003; Garcia & Kleifgen, 2010; Hornberger, 2005; Kibler, 2010). Many studies have focused on the dynamic interaction between language repertoires in multilingual contexts. There is enough research evidence that translanguaging could build deeper thinking, provide learners with more rigorous content, produce multiple subjectivities and develop language and literacy practices for specific academic tasks (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Fitts, 2009; García, 2009, 2013, 2014, García, Flores & Woodley, 2012; Heller & Martin-Jones, 2001; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012; Li Wei, 2011; Lin, 2013; Otheguy et al., 2019; Palmer & Martínez, 2013; Sayer, 2008, 2013).

The biggest obstacle in applying a translanguaging pedagogy in EFL contexts has been the parallel monolingualism view, by which many teachers considered language teaching non-bilingual (May, 2017). Many researchers studying EFL contexts have agreed that there is an identifiable L1; however, there is no need to investigate its positive effects on the development of L2 (Ortega, 2019). Most of the time, the native language has been studied to reveal crosslinguistic negative influences on L2 development and using L1 in the EFL context has been considered a sign of linguistic or

cognitive deficiency (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). As Li Wei (2017) claims, two main goals of second/foreign/additional language teaching are achieving bilingualism and not replacing L1. Research evidence has revealed that although many teachers and learners are remote to the use of the native language in the EFL context, it is often their frequent practice in reality (Aghai, Sayer & Vercellotti, 2020; Anderson, 2018; Burton & Rajendram, 2019; Caldas, 2019; Cogo, 2016; Flint & Dollar, 2020; Gallego-Balsà & Cots, 2019; Haukås, 2015; Itoi & Michaud, 2021; Kucuk, 2018; Rajendram, 2021; Scopich, 2018; Thomas, Stewart & Wabwoba, 2020; Wang, 2019). Garcia et al. (2017) claim that 'the teaching of English cannot be enacted in total isolation of other language practices because speakers' translanguaging is always with them. Instead, teachers must leverage the learners' existing repertoire and encourage the appropriation of new features into the learners' unitary repertoire' (mentioned in Seltzer & Garcia, 2020, p.26). Besides, holistic views to language teaching approaches and methods such as Stern's Three-Dimensional Framework (1992), the Complexity Theory (Larsen-Freeman, 1997), Ecological Perspective to language learning (Van Lier, 2004), Kumaravadivelu's Macro Strategic Framework (2006) have emphasized the role of L1 on L2 and how it can be used for an efficient foreign language learning. Although there is positive evidence for the translanguaging pedagogy in multilingual ESL contexts, few studies have shown its effects on EFL contexts. Ortega (2019) proposes three main focuses of future studies in EFL contexts, the frequent use of the L2 in language-rich and language demanding situations, active and dynamic uses of L1-L2, and high levels of education (p.433). A need for a 'translanguaged TESOL profession' was emphasized by the work of Tian et al. (2020). In the book, it is stressed that envisioning TESOL through a translanguaging lens could be a promising path to dismantle "English" as a monolithic entity, "native-speakerism" as a pervasive ideology, and "English-only" as a pedagogical orientation (Tian et al., 2020; p.1). The purpose of such a translanguaged EFL class is not acquiring a native-like competence, instead, becoming a competent multilingual user of the language in situations which require fluid, dynamic and complex language practices (Sembianti & Tian, 2020).

1.2. Aims of the Study

This quasi-experimental study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL learners about translanguaging before the treatment?
2. What is the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on listening comprehension?
3. What is the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on reading comprehension?
4. What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL learners about translanguaging after the treatment?

The study was conducted at a Turkish university with fifty-six intermediate-level English preparatory class learners studying engineering. There were thirty learners in the control group and twenty-six learners in the experimental group.

Before the treatment, learners' beliefs about translanguaging practices were collected through a *translanguaging beliefs questionnaire* with five facets: translanguaging for clarity, efficacy, different language skills, psychological factors and translanguaging practices of learners in their language classes. The learners were separated into the control and experimental groups. The control group did five reading and five listening tasks in accordance with the teachers' guide of coursebook materials, with a monolingual perspective and only in English. All the reading and listening tasks were conducted as pair or group activities, and learners could help each other with vocabulary and unclear elements, but only in English. In the experimental group, the same listening and reading tasks were designed with preview-view-review stages and by dividing listening and reading texts into equal sections. In each stage, translingual breaks for a limited time were provided to learners, for discussion in their native languages. The final product was always in English. The experimental and control groups answered the same ten comprehension questions about the texts for each reading and listening task. The scores that the groups obtained were compared statistically. The researcher observed the pair-group activities and kept teacher/researcher journals. After the treatment, an open-ended questionnaire was used for the control group to reveal the difficulties they had in pair-group activities with a monolingual approach. Considering the findings, an open-ended questionnaire was given to the experimental group to reveal whether the translanguaging perspective affected the learners' difficulties with the monolingual view. An interview with nine volunteer learners from the experimental group was conducted. The data collected from quantitative and qualitative methods were compared to reveal whether the translanguaging perspective affects listening and reading comprehension.

1.3. Significance of the Study

The study is significant because it presents a practical strategy for implementing translanguaging pedagogy for listening and reading tasks, in the EFL context. Many studies about translanguaging pedagogy in the EFL context have focused on the beliefs and attitudes of learners (Aghai, Sayer & Vercellotti, 2020; Anderson, 2018; Burton & Rajendram, 2019; Caldas, 2019; Cogo, 2016; Flint & Dollar, 2020; Gallego-Balsà & Cots, 2019; Haukås, 2015; Itoi & Michaud, 2021; Kucuk, 2018; Rajendram, 2021; Scopich, 2018; Thomas, Stewart & Wabwoba, 2020; Wang, 2019). Some studies have revealed that language teachers avoid using translanguaging practices due to a lack of experience or knowledge (Gallego-Balse & Cots, 2019; Wabwoba, 2020; Wang, 2019). Burton and Rajendram (2019) attribute the teachers' adherence to the monolingual perspective to inadequate strategies or methods.

This study might contribute to the field by presenting a translingual technique for listening and reading tasks. Moreover, translanguaging pedagogy for EFL contexts has been studied in respect to four language skills as a whole (Barahona, Delaporte-Raurich, & Ibaceta-Quijanes, 2021; De Los Reyes, 2019; Jain, 2014; Khatib, 2021; Llanes & Cots, 2020; Ramirez, 2019; Seals et al., 2020, Sulaiman & Taqi, 2020; Yuzlu & Dikilitas, 2021), vocabulary knowledge (Galante, 2020; Illman & Pietila, 2018; Rahmawansyah, 2019; Ong & Zhang, 2018), reading comprehension (Bin-Tahir et al., 2018; Chu, 2017; Hungwe, 2019; Moreno, 2018; Nagy, 2018; Pacheco et al., 2019; Parra & Proctor, 2021; Vaish & Subhan, 2015), writing (Ali, 2021; Karabulut, 2019; Kaufhold, 2018; Lee, 2014; Turnbull, 2019) and speaking skills (Aoyama, 2020; Flynn et al., 2019; Moore, 2013; Pierwieniecki & Smith, 2021; Sahib et al., 2021). Nevertheless, these studies do not give practical and strategic techniques for teachers in a 'translanguaged' class (Tian et al., 2020). Furthermore, the comprehensive literature review has revealed no studies for the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on listening comprehension.

To summarize, the study is significant to examine Intermediate level Turkish EFL learners' beliefs about translanguaging, present a practical translingual strategy for reading and listening tasks and demonstrate the effects of translanguaging pedagogy on listening and reading comprehension in the EFL context.

1.4. Overview of the Study

The following literature review contains theoretical background and related studies about translanguaging pedagogy. As translanguaging appeared in multilingual contexts for the first time, the theories and concepts that shape ESL in multilingual contexts are presented with their short histories. The new translanguaging perspective and main theories that affected its emergence are discussed in detail, under a different title. As the terms are often confused, the difference between code-switching, translanguaging, and translation is described. Translanguaging pedagogy is presented under a different title as the study uses strategies for the pedagogy of translanguaging. As the first titles discuss translanguaging in multilingual ESL contexts, the differences between EFL and ESL contexts are discussed in another title to provide a basis for translingual pedagogy in the EFL context. While presenting the EFL context, a review of SLA theories and the use of L1, reading and listening teaching methods in EFL contexts are presented as the study is about reading and listening skills. Considering all the titles above, a rationale for adopting a translanguaging pedagogy for EFL reading and listening tasks is presented under the subsequent title. Under the final title, related, recent studies about translanguaging pedagogy in the EFL contexts are discussed.

The methodology section presents the adopted research paradigm and design. The setting of the study is given with the context of the research and participants. The data collected to answer the four research questions are explained in detail under the two quantitative and qualitative data collection tools. In the quantitative tools, detailed information is provided to present the adaptation of listening and reading tasks with translanguaging pedagogy. Data collection steps are given step by step. Data analysis is designed with two quantitative and qualitative data analysis titles. Validity and reliability checks are provided by referencing various researchers whose ideas are significant for validity and reliability in research. Lastly, ethical considerations in the study are presented.

The findings section presents the findings collected through quantitative and qualitative data collection tools. The section is designed according to their collection order in the study. More detailed tables and samples from open-ended questionnaires and interviews can be found in the appendices section.

In the discussion section, the discussion of the findings follows the same order as the findings section. All the data collected is discussed separately under different titles. The commonalities or differences among the different tools are also discussed.

The conclusion section presents the comparative analysis of all the data collected and their discussions. The findings are discussed with relevant research in the conclusion section, and limitations of the study as well as suggestions for future studies are presented under the last title in the section.



CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Globalization in the 21st century has advanced studies on multilingualism. People's mobility has increased, leading to changes in long-held perspectives in teaching English in English as Second Language (ESL) and English as Foreign Language (EFL) contexts. Although conceptual and contextual differences exist between ESL and EFL contexts, the two fields have fed each other since they first appeared. The last few years have witnessed new multilingual education perspectives for speakers of more than two languages. Most of the new perspectives in multilingual education have sprung up in the ESL context, whereas some new perspectives have just started to be researched in the EFL context in the last few years. Dynamic bilingualism and translanguaging are two of these new perspectives in multilingual education. Many studies have been conducted in the ESL contexts for dynamic bilingualism and translanguaging. However, there were few studies in the EFL context when this study started at the beginning of 2020. In the same year, "*Envisioning TESOL through a Translanguaging Lens*" was published, proving that the perspectives could be promising for the EFL context (Tian et al., 2020).

The literature review is presented by mentioning the following subjects: firstly, language education in the ESL contexts with multilingual learners is given with the theoretical background and a brief history of the theories and concepts. Translanguaging is presented under a different title. The development of translanguaging and dynamic bilingualism and their pedagogical effects are provided. The rest of the literature review focuses on learning and teaching theories in the EFL context. Particular attention is given to teaching and learning receptive skills, listening, and reading, as the study focuses on these two skills. The use of native language in the EFL context is a critical issue: some researchers discourage it, whereas some others encourage the use of L1 in the context. As the translanguaging perspective entails using the native language, L1 in the EFL context is discussed in detail. The following titles discuss the rationale of adopting translanguaging for teaching reading and listening skills. Detailed information for the proposed adaptation for listening and reading tasks with a translanguaging

perspective is presented. At the end of the literature review, translanguaging studies conducted in the EFL and ESL contexts are presented.

2.2. Language Education in Multilingual Contexts

Bilingualism and multilingualism refer to the existence and interaction of different languages at the societal or individual level (Wei, 2013). Bilingualism focuses on the knowledge and use of two languages, while multilingualism studies the knowledge and practice of more than two languages. As globalization and migration have increased in recent years, acquiring a different language has been a concern for research. There have been hot debates in the ESL context since the 1950s on how to teach a second language to circumstantial bilinguals who need a second language to survive (Baker, 2001). The first years of discussion witnessed a monolingual - fractional view of individual bilingualism (Baker, 2001). The *Saussurean* vision of language prevailed in the early studies of bilingualism which considered languages a self-contained system of structures (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). In the fractional view, teaching society's language was done by assessing learners' language proficiency by setting the native-like competence as a target (Grosjean, 1985; 1994). These practices served to the assimilationist viewpoints in language education, which led people to forget their native languages to acquire only the target language (Baker, 2001). The use of the native language was highly discouraged. In the mid-1970s, Cummins put forth the *Thresholds Hypothesis*, which suggested that bilingual learners could get the cognitive benefits of being bilingual when they reach a certain proficiency level in a second language (Cummins, 1976). His work was influential because many of the ESL bilingual programs were being implemented with a fractional viewpoint. The hypothesis meant that if learners could not reach a certain proficiency level in the second language, their education in a second language would be challenging. After the work, more emphasis on second language acquisition and teaching emerged. Two years later, the *Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis* was outlined (Cummins, 1978). The hypothesis suggested that a child's second language competence was partly dependent on the first language competence. At the beginning of the 1980s, two influential studies were published, and *Common Underlying Proficiency* (CUP) and *Separate Underlying Proficiency Model of Bilingualism* were proposed (Cummins, 1980, 1981). While the

former suggests that languages are not separated in the cognitive system and interact, the latter offers two separate systems.

To the extent that instruction in Lx is effective in promoting proficiency in Lx, transfer of this proficiency to Ly will occur provided there is adequate exposure to Ly (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn Ly (Cummins, 1981, p. 29).

The *Iceberg Analogy* was used to represent the concepts claiming that two languages are different on the surface. When heard in a conversation, for example, they sound different. However, they operate through the same processing system beneath the surface, and languages do not function separately. According to the CUP model of bilingualism, no matter which language a speaker uses, the thoughts accompanying four language skills come from the same central engine. People can function in more than two languages with relative ease, making multilingualism possible (Baker, 2001). Educational attainment could be developed by using one or two languages as both languages feed the same system. Learners should be at a particular proficiency in the classroom language to achieve the educational aims. The quality of education might decrease in the opposite case. When the first and second languages do not function fully, cognitive functioning and academic performance might be affected negatively (Baker, 2001). In 1984, Cummins developed the *Interdependence Theory* by suggesting that competence in the native language is a prerequisite for competence in a second language.

Cummins's contribution was a kind of reform in bilingual education for learners of different nationalities. Until the 1980s, English as a second language was taught with a subtractive or additive *monoglossic* view (Garcia, 2007). Learners' native languages were considered as a hindrance to learning a second language. The crosslinguistic influence of the native language on English was an interference. There was '...the erroneous assumption that eliminating the first language as quickly as possible will help promote the learning of the second language when in fact the opposite may be true' (Beardsmore, 2003, p.19). First language acquisition theories mainly shaped the teaching ideas of the time. However, the research verified that 'second-language acquisition cannot, in principle, be a precise replica of mother-tongue learning, for the simple reason of being second' (Edwards, 2003, p.29).

In 1985, Grosjean advanced the argument by proposing two contrasting views of bilingual individuals. *The fractional view* considers a bilingual individual as two

monolinguals in one person and aims for a native-like competence in both languages. The second, *holistic view* of individual bilingualism suggests that the bilingual is not the sum of two complete or incomplete languages, but rather, one has a distinctive linguistic profile (Grosjean, 1985, 1994). He criticized assessing bilinguals by using the same criteria for assessing monolinguals and claimed that bilingual or multilingual assessment should be done using communicativeness criteria rather than form and use. In 1989, Grosjean wrote a critical article as a warning for the linguists. His warnings attracted the attention of many researchers. Three years later, Grosjean proposed the *monolingual mode* and the *bilingual mode* for bilinguals' language uses (Grosjean, 1992). Many bilinguals do not keep their languages separate, and instead, they alternate between the monolingual and bilingual modes. These two modes can be considered as two extremes of a line. When bilinguals are speaking to a monolingual, they use only one of their languages. However, in a bilingual mode, they can mix or switch their languages according to the situation. It was suggested that even in monolingual mode, the bilinguals can mix their languages. They do not use their languages equally in all contexts. According to the situation, they might interact in the medium of the continuum by mixing languages (Grosjean & Li, 2013). In later years, the Complementarity Principle was advocated, which means that 'bilinguals usually acquire and use their languages for different purposes, in different domains of life, with different people. Different aspects of life often require different languages' (Grosjean, 1997, p.12).

Grosjean's ideas were elaborated in Cook's concept of *Multicompetence* (Cook, 1991, 1995, 2007). It refers to the knowledge of the first language, interlanguage, and second language. The concept claims that second language users have a different perspective on the first and second languages than monolinguals, developing a different metalinguistic awareness and processing system (Jessner, 2017). Therefore, multicompetence in more than one language cannot be compared to monolingual competence in each language. Similar to Grosjean, Cook also emphasized a holistic view, which entails a multilingual turn instead of the traditional monolingual norms.

In 2002, *Dynamic Model of Multilingualism* (DMM) was introduced by Herdina and Jessner. The dynamic systems theory was used in applied linguistics for the first time. The DMM argues that more than one language develops the second language and all known languages in an educational context. The overall multilingual system, including the native language, can be developed through different languages.

A multilingual system is an adaptive complex system that possesses the property of *elasticity*, the ability to adapt to temporary changes in the systems environment, and *plasticity*, the ability to develop new systems properties in response to altered conditions. In DMM, perceived communicative needs, which are psychologically and sociologically determined, are identified as the driving force of language learning and use (Jessner, 2017, p. 164-165).

Cummins (2017) suggests that two primary studies contributed to the recent discussions of dynamic bilingualism and translanguaging: the linguistic interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1984) and the dynamic systems view of multilingualism (Herdina & Jessner, 2002). He further synthesizes the concepts mentioned above in the following way:

Dynamic systems theory and the concept of multicompetence are not in any way inconsistent with the notion of a common underlying proficiency. The interdependence hypothesis and common underlying proficiency construct were addressed to the explanation of a different set of issues and clearly do not aim to provide an elaborated cognitive model of bi/multilingualism. What all these constructs share is a recognition that the languages of bi- and multilinguals interact in complex ways that can enhance aspects of overall language and literacy development. They also call into question the pedagogical basis of monolingual instructional approaches that appear dedicated to minimizing and inhibiting the possibility of two-way transfer across languages (Cummins, 2017, p.108).

Until the adaptation of dynamic systems theory into bilingualism, many classifications were proposed for different dimensions of bilingualism. These included balanced and dominant bilinguals (the relationship between language proficiencies), receptive and productive bilinguals (according to the functional ability), simultaneous, sequential and late bilinguals (according to the age of acquisition), compound, coordinate and subordinate bilinguals (organization of linguistic codes), elite/elective, folk/circumstantial bilinguals (according to the language status), additive, subtractive bilinguals (according to the effect of L2 on L1), L1 monocultural, L2 accultural and deculturated bilinguals (cultural identity). These categories were insufficient to reflect the dynamic nature of multilingualism (Butler, 2013). The dynamic nature of interaction among different languages has made researchers question the insistence on using only the target language in multilingual education contexts (Garcia & Lin, 2013). As many learners know more than two languages today, multilingualism and plurilingualism started to be used instead of bilingualism. The Council of Europe (2001) used plurilingualism to refer to ‘the dynamically integrated and intersecting nature of

bilingual and plurilingual individuals' linguistic repertoires, which include unevenly developed competencies in a variety of languages, dialects, and registers' (Cummins, 2017, p.110). Although bilingualism and multilingualism concepts brought fresh viewpoints to bilingual language education, they are additive. They consider language learning as adding whole autonomous languages to the existing ones. If a person is bilingual or multilingual, what is meant is that one can speak two or more languages. Each language is separate and additive in these viewpoints (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). They do not reflect the dynamic interaction between all known languages.

In addition to classifications of additive and subtractive bilingualism, which mainly deals with the effect of L1 on L2, Garcia (2009) proposed a third classification, *Dynamic Bilingualism*. It emphasizes 'the complex and evolving language use of bilinguals in the increasingly globalized world of the twenty-first century' (May, 2014, p.84). The classification goes beyond the arbitrary L1/L2 distinction, which serves a monolingual language learning view. In dynamic bilingualism, the learners/learning are regarded as a multilingual continuum ranging from 'emergent bilinguals' to 'highly proficient bilinguals' (Garcia, 2009). It suggests that 'language practices of bilinguals are complex and interrelated, they do not emerge in a linear way or function separately since there is only one linguistic system' (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014, p.14). It opposes the monoglossic view of bilingualism which considers language learning as merely additive. Instead, language practices are *heteroglossic* (Bakhtin, 1981), containing features that 'interanimate' each other (p.47).

The challenge for schools in the twenty-first century is how to create flexible, dynamic models of bilingual education, where learners' language practices are used not simply as a "scaffold" when learning in a second language but as a transformative practice that puts the power back in the lips of multilingual speakers instead of simply acquiescing to the power of education and state authorities. (Garcia & Lin, 2017, p.17).

It can be seen in the quotation above that dynamic bilingualism can be considered as a political act as well (Li Wei, 2021). It respects all language repertoires of multilingual learners and tries to get the maximum benefit from the repertoires.

Dynamic bilingualism is like an all-terrain vehicle (ATV) with individuals using their entire linguistic repertoire to adapt to both the ridges and craters of communication in uneven (and unequal) interactive terrains and to the confines of language use controlled by societal forces, especially in schools. (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014, p.16)

Translanguaging emerged under the concept of dynamic bilingualism. Different names with slight differences in meaning have been provided for the practice as polylinguaging/polylingual languaging (Jorgensen, 2008), metrolingualism (Otsuji & Pennycook, 2010), translingual practices (Canagarajah, 2013), and translanguaging (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Garcia, 2009a; Garcia & Li Wei, 2014; Otheguy, Garcia, & Reid, 2015). It basically emphasizes the significance of letting multilinguals use all their language repertoires for learning and communication purposes. Although it emerged in the ESL context, it could be promising for the EFL context. Before introducing the new perspective under a new title in detail, reading the following quotation by Cummins (2017) will be helpful to summarize and get a clear definition of the concept.

The essence of the conceptualization of translanguaging proposed by García and Li Wei (2014) can be maintained by acknowledging that: (a) the boundaries between languages/dialects are fluid and socially constructed; (b) as emergent bilinguals gain access to their two languages, these languages become fused into a single system (common underlying proficiency); (c) languages and languaging are socially contested sites and encounters where the legitimacy of cultures and identities are negotiated, and (d) school programs serving plurilingual/multilingual learners should connect with learners' background linguistic and conceptual knowledge and teach for transfer and greater integration across languages (Cummins, 2017, p.112).

There have been three main views in a multilingual society for second language acquisition and learning: the assimilationist, preservationist, and harmony perspectives (Baker, 2001). The assimilationist perspective serves only the target language. Second language teaching with this perspective sets the native-like competence in the second language as the target. The preservationist perspective uses the 'gardening analogy,' which means that it is necessary to maintain colourful language diversity in the world's language garden (Baker, 2001). The emphasis is on the native language of multilingual in this perspective. The third, harmony perspective, emphasizes that all language repertoires of a multilingual should be developed together as there is a dynamic interaction among them. Translanguaging is a concept that belongs to the harmony viewpoint. Both dynamic bilingualism and translanguaging greatly influence the latest perspectives on ESL programs in multilingual contexts today.

2.3. The New Perspective: Translanguaging

The primary studies that contributed to the emergence of translanguaging are:

1. Bakhtin's *Heteroglossia* (1981) asserts that there might be distinct varieties even in a single language. Although it is not related directly to language learning and teaching, it brought new perspectives. It points out that each variety and its distinct features could reflect the speakers' points of view. Bakhtin's idea serves as a base for a dynamic view of bilingualism.
2. *Common Underlying Proficiency* (CUP) by Cummins (1980, 1981) asserts that proficiency in the native language is a prerequisite for proficiency in other languages.
3. Grosjean's *factional* and *holistic* view of bilingualism and *monolingual* and *bilingual modes* of language users (1985, 1989, 1994, 1997). The two modes assert that users of languages move along bilingual and monolingual modes as a communicative situation requires. While talking to the people with same native language, they are in a monolingual mode. However, while talking to multilinguals in a situation in which people share native or target languages, they are in a bilingual mode and transfers among languages are natural in these kinds of situations.
4. The concept of translanguaging appeared for the first time in 1994. Cen Williams (1994) wrote a thesis called "An evaluation of teaching and learning methods in the context of bilingual secondary education." The original study was in Welsh, and the researcher was the first to coin translanguaging as '*trawsieithu*.' The concept was based on François Grosjean's (1989) idea that 'bilinguals are not two monolinguals.' Williams (1994) studied the effects of using both Welsh and English in the same class. The input was in one of the languages, and the output was in the other. The productive and receptive skills were taught by using different languages. For example, a learner would read something in Welsh and write in English about the reading text.
5. Baker (2001) called the perspective 'translinguifying' and 'translanguaging' in the later version of his work (Baker, 2001; 2011).

6. *The Dynamic Multilingualism Model* (DMM) (Herdina & Jessner, 2002) paved the way for dynamic views on bilingual education.

All the studies above could be considered as the theoretical background for the translanguaging view discussed and studied today. At the beginning of the twenty-first century, three publications were influential in the discussions of translanguaging, and they extended the concept beyond the Welsh context and transformed it (Garcia & Lin, 2017). The first one is “Bilingual Education in the 21st Century: A Global Perspective” (Garcia, 2009). The book examines bilingual education programs by referring to pedagogic, assessment practices, and policies. In the first decade, the other influential book was “Multilingualism: A Critical Perspective” (Blackledge & Creese, 2010). The researchers question multilingualism with a critical eye. After the first decade, “Translanguaging; Language, Bilingualism and Education” by Garcia and Li Wei (2014) was published, explaining the concept with educational perspectives in a clear way.

Garcia and Li (2014) suggest three potential meanings for the ‘trans’ prefix:

Trans1 (transcend): The fluid language practices beyond language systems and structures to engage multiple meaning-making systems and subjectivities (p.3).

The first definition suggests that language practices emerge from a single processing system, and they interact. People have different backgrounds, nationalities, and each person is different. Furthermore, people have various meaning-making systems that they utilize to convey or receive messages.

Trans2 (transformative): Translanguaging practices are transformative not only for language systems but also for individuals’ cognition and social structures (p.3).

The second definition emphasizes the political side of translanguaging. It means that it has the potential to improve an individual’s cognition by using one’s entire language repertoire. It could affect social structures as it respects languages of all kinds. Therefore, it also transforms language systems with a new point of view. It considers them as fluid practices.

Trans3 (transdisciplinary): Re-conceptualization of languages, language use, and language learning have transdisciplinary consequences for linguistics, psychology, sociology, and education (p.3).

The last definition mentions the potential influences of translanguaging on various fields. As the concept requires a new perspective for language learning and use, it might alter some views or concepts in the areas mentioned above.

‘Languaging’ is a psycholinguistic notion. It refers to the process of using language to gain knowledge, make sense, articulate one’s thoughts, and communicate about using language (Li Wei, 2011, p.1224). The ‘-ing’ adding carries much weight in the word. The word ‘language’ is a noun, and it might refer to something accomplished by traditional views of bilingualism. Becker (1988) emphasized the ongoing process of learning languages by adding ‘-ing’ to the noun and using it as a verb for the first time. He claims that languages are not only systems of rules or structures. Instead, he uses ‘languaging’ and suggests that it shapes, stores, retrieves and communicates our experiences in an open-ended process (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). It is dependent on the context, and it shapes the context itself. To learn a new ‘languaging’ does not mean learning a new language structurally, it is to understand the history of interactions and cultural aspects in the new way of ‘languaging.’

The concept is not directly related to bilingualism or multilingualism. It is related to language learning. Moreover, it emphasizes ‘the significance of problem-solving, knowledge construction, mobilization, and learning’ (Li Wei, 2017). Languaging can be studied within sociocultural theories as it reflects the language use and learning practices of multilinguals.

When the two words ‘trans’ and ‘languaging’ are combined, a practice-based theory of language, ‘translanguaging,’ comes out. The concept can be studied with two main perspectives: bilingual pedagogical or sociocultural (Li Wei, 2017). The bilingual pedagogical perspective deals with how multilingual learners can learn various subjects using their language sources and how teachers can teach them by including all their languages in the class. The sociocultural perspective deals with the use of different languages in society by multilinguals. It studies the ‘spontaneous translanguaging’ (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p.20), which is the act of using many languages by multilinguals in natural contexts where the boundaries between languages are fluid.

Translanguaging refers to new language practices that make visible the complexity of language exchanges among people with different histories and releases histories and understandings that had been buried within fixed language identities constrained by nation-states (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p.21)

Translanguaging is not a concrete object, nor does it define a structural phenomenon. It is a *practice* and *process* (Wei, 2017). It is a process in which multilingual speakers use all their languages as an integrated communication system. It is beyond the language hierarchies among the known languages, and it considers all of them as a single language repertoire (Garcia, 2009). According to translanguaging, people employ their languages strategically as the situation requires. The single language repertoire serves as a unitary meaning-making system. In this system, there is a cooperation of all language systems (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). It goes beyond languages and employs semiotic repertoires, gestures, mimicry, and other activities to ensure meaningful communication. It concerns effective communication, function, cognitive activity, and language production (Li Wei, 2017). It challenges language boundaries and suggests that people can communicate with limited linguistic resources thanks to the unitary meaning-making system and other semiotic contextual resources.

In the globalized, multilingual world of the twenty-first century, multilinguals contact other multilinguals on many occasions. They sometimes do not share the same linguistic background but must communicate somehow. Li Wei (2011) suggested the concept of a social space as a *translanguaging space*. In this space, multilinguals are free to combine all their meaning-making resources, personal history, experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and ideologies, physical and cognitive capacities to achieve a meaningful communicative performance. According to Li Wei, translanguaging space “breaks down the artificial dichotomies between the macro and the micro, the societal and the individual, and the social and the psycho in studies of bilingualism and multilingualism” (Li Wei, 2011, p. 1234). Multilingual interlocutors create their translanguaging spaces by translanguaging, and ‘translanguaging is going between different linguistic structures and systems and modalities and going beyond them’ (Garcia & Lin, 2017, p.122). In one’s translingual space, each multilingual comes up with new strategies to take advantage of their language knowledge to achieve specific communication effects in their daily lives. When one is comfortable using each language in his repertoire, his creativity develops, and the languages become intertwined in a way that can be understood in the translanguaging space. Similar to the

concept of ‘translanguaging space,’ Canagarajah (2013) uses ‘contact zones’ introduced by Pratt (1991) to refer to the spaces where multilinguals interact. He emphasized that it is paramount for researchers to study how multilinguals communicate efficiently in these contact zones with limited proficiencies. The researcher defines translanguaging in these contact zones as ‘the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system’ (Canagarajah, 2011, p.142). In his later work, Canagarajah (2013) suggested that communication does not have to be in a single language, and multilinguals can use all their languages for efficient communication in contact zones. Translanguaging is significant for a paradigm shift in the new, globalized world for two key concepts. The first is that communication is beyond individual languages, and the second, multilinguals could use various semiotic resources for effective communication (Canagarajah, 2013).

Garcia and Lin (2017) make a distinction between strong and weak forms of translanguaging. According to this distinction, translanguaging is weak when speakers soften the barriers between languages while acknowledging these languages as separate entities. It is strong when the speakers acknowledge that they use a single repertoire that consists of various semiotic resources. The distinction is crucial because it shapes two schools of thought in the studies related to translanguaging. The first study of translanguaging that came out in Wales (Williams, 1994) and many other translanguaging pedagogy studies that were conducted in different bilingual contexts (Baker, 2001) referred to the planned, systematic and functional uses of two languages in the class (Bonacina-Pugh et al., 2021). The fundamental tenet in this approach was the strategic use of two languages. Many translanguaging pedagogy studies take the weak form of translanguaging as a theoretical background because they consider languages separate and distinct entities. The strong view, which views translanguaging as a fluid and dynamic use of linguistic and semiotic resources, emerged after an epistemological turn in sociolinguistics.

Garcia (2009) describes the strong form of translanguaging as ‘beyond named languages’. This description has been criticized by Cummins (in press). The researcher calls ‘beyond named languages’ ungrounded as people with various nationalities use different languages. How can it be possible to move beyond languages? Cummins (in press) proposes the *Unitary Translanguaging Theory (UTT)* instead of the strong form of translanguaging and *Crosslinguistic Translanguaging Theory (CTT)* for the weak

form of translanguaging by Garcia and Lin (2017). Rather than using the term ‘beyond named languages’, the UTT suggests that ‘languages have no linguistic or cognitive reality and the bilingual’s linguistic system is unitary and undifferentiated’ (Cummins, in press: 4). In contrast, CTT claims that ‘bilinguals actually speak languages, involving multiple registers and effective teaching promotes translanguaging involving conceptual and linguistic transfer across languages’ (Cummins, in press: 4). Cummins’ two concepts define translanguaging more concretely than abstract terms as ‘beyond named languages’.

Bonacina-Pugh et al. (2021) conducted a comprehensive literature review on the theoretical background of translanguaging. Like Cummins, the researchers propose two approaches to study bilingualism, the *Fixed Languages Approach* and *Fluid Language Approach* (Bonacina-Pugh et al., 2021). The fixed languages approach considers languages as separate, bounded entities whereas the fluid language approach views language as fluid and dynamic use of semiotic signs. These two suggestions are similar to Cummins’ suggestion of UTT and CTT. Moving between languages through code-switching and translation is possible in the fixed languages approach; however, in the fluid language approach, as the languages are considered undifferentiated, no such transfer occurs. The same difference can be found in spontaneous translanguaging and translanguaging as pedagogy. Spontaneous translanguaging studies people’s use of fluid language practices in multilingual contexts by examining all the semiotic and linguistic resources, while translanguaging as a pedagogy focuses on translanguaging, that is, moving between languages for educational purposes. Bonacina-Pugh et al. (2021) created a conceptual map of translanguaging and the different schools of thought as follows:

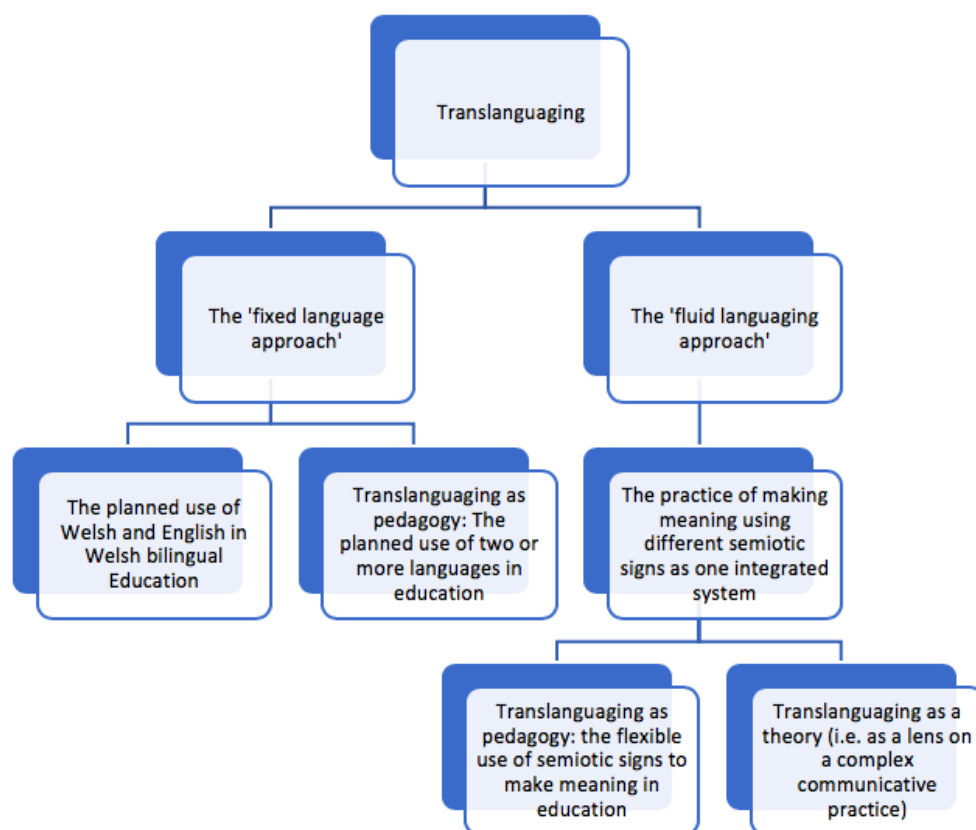


Figure 1. A Conceptual map of translinguaging

Source: Bonacina-Pugh et al., 2021, p.16

A translinguaging study can be conducted by following one of these two approaches. If the researcher chooses the fixed language approach, the use of languages with transfers between them carefully and strategically planned ways becomes significant. If one chooses the fluid languaging approach, the pedagogy must build on bilinguals' languaging by including all semiotic resources to develop new understandings and language practices, including language practices for academic purposes. The fixed language approach was used in this study by acknowledging that the languages are separate entities. It aims to make use of learners' all linguistic sources to comprehend reading and listening texts better.

2.3.1. Differences among Translinguaging, Code-switching, and Translation

As translinguaging refers to the practice and process of using language from a dynamic, single language repertoire, it entails using all semiotic and linguistic resources to ensure successful interaction. Many people mistakenly confuse translinguaging with code-switching and translation and they think the three as a single concept. Although

code-switching and translation are acts that can be frequent in translanguaging, there are conceptual differences. Before presenting pedagogical translanguaging, it could help distinguish these terms because the ‘monoglossic’ view of language education in the EFL context often discourages code-switching and translation.

Ortega (2019) states that ‘...translanguaging may include translation and code-switching practices, not necessarily as a shuttle between two languages, but as elaborated bilingual linguistic practices to make sense by doing various production and comprehension tasks’ (p.159). That means translanguaging is a broader concept with conceptual and theoretical differences. A paragraph in Ortega’s (2019) article defines the differences with examples:

When a person has a document in English and writes the content in Spanish for a Spanish-language audience to understand it, that is translation (Baker, 2001). When two bilingual people are having an informal conversation and they switch languages as a strategy because they cannot find the phrase/word meaning in one of the languages, that is code-switching (Gumperz, 1982). If I read an article in English and then I discuss the content in Spanish with my peers, that is translanguaging (García & Wei, 2014). (As cited in Ortega, 2019, p.158)

From this quotation, it can be understood that translanguaging is a broader concept that is done to improve comprehension or for success in a communicative situation. It is more systematic. However, code-switching and translation might be situational acts. Garcia states that code-switching is different from translanguaging in that it is based on the monoglossic view that bilinguals have separate linguistic systems for languages (Garcia & Lin, 2017). Translanguaging views bilinguals' language repertoire as always being heteroglossic (Bakhtin, 1981), dynamic, and integrated linguistic systems (Garcia & Lin, 2017). Furthermore, code-switching and translation posit language as a linguistic system; however, in translanguaging, semiotic resources and other things that could help individuals achieve successful communication are included. As distinct from code-switching and translation, translanguaging ‘refers to the process by which bilingual learners perform bilingually in the myriad multimodal ways of classrooms’ (Garcia & Lin, 2017, p.121).

Li Wei (2017) defines the differences in a presentation that he used in the seminar:

Table 1

The Differences between Code-switching and Translanguaging

Code-switching (CS)	Translanguaging (TLAN) (a theory of language)
• not a theory of language • makes assumptions about language, accepts there are different languages • has implications for theories/concepts of language CS Assumptions about Language • accepts the existence of different languages as discrete structural entities i.e. Grammars • The identification of different languages is the first step of code-switching analysis.	• A paradigm shift: traditional focus on structural constraints and separation of languages / linguistic structures gives way to “integrational” approaches. • Beyond the narrow conceptualization of ‘language.’ • For TLAN, the identity and identification of languages are only relevant when the user deliberately manipulates them (cf. CS where the ID and identification of different languages is the prerequisite). • In TLAN, proficiency in individual languages is almost irrelevant. Instead, it is the knowledge of how to make the best use of all the resources available and question why some resources are not available.

Knowing these differences is significant in planning classes with a translanguaging perspective. Translanguaging has a theoretical background of dynamic bilingualism. However, code-switching and translation have a fractional view of bilingualism (Grosjean, 1985). The pedagogical applications of translanguaging utilize code-switching and translation, but these applications have a new perspective on bilingual cognition.

2.3.2. Translanguaging Pedagogy

Williams (1994) used translanguaging for the first time as a pedagogical practice. Learners received input in one of the languages, and the output was in the other language. The aim was to develop academic competence in both languages and to develop linguistically. Today, translanguaging pedagogy refers to using all languages that learners in a class know to maximize their learning opportunities. As the concept originated in the ESL context, the aim was to develop academic and linguistic skills together.

The development of translanguaging pedagogy can be considered as an ideological shift that views bilingualism or multilingualism as an advantage in learning additional languages rather than a hindrance. Letting learners use all their languages systematically with a metacognitive awareness about their language practices is significant in the pedagogical perspective. Several definitions have been offered by researchers about pedagogical translanguaging: Li Wei (2017) defines translanguaging as a pedagogical practice in which a multilingual receives input in one language and produces an output in a different language. This practice aims to maximize the learners' multilingual abilities in learning. Lewis et al. (2012) clarify translanguaging as using one language to support the other language to increase understanding. According to Garcia (2017), learners' unitary system is considered in a classroom with a translanguaging perspective. In such a classroom, enough opportunities are provided for learners to use their entire linguistic repertoire rather than named languages. Garcia (2009) opposes additive bilingualism by stating that emergent bilinguals do not learn an additive language, instead, they develop and integrate new language practices into the dynamic bilingual repertoire. This view necessitates using all known languages with strategic planning and is based on a fluid languaging approach. Ortega (2019) conceives translanguaging as a pedagogical approach that allows learners to use their native languages in specific tasks, and he chooses the fixed language approach in his views. The main idea of all these definitions is that translanguaging lets learners deploy their language resources for better learning.

Today, particularly in a multilingual society, many people know more than one language or variations of the same languages; therefore, many are plurilingual (Piccardo, 2013). Piccardo (2013) offers the principles of a pedagogy that can move away from language hierarchies by adopting a plurilingual paradigm in the following way:

1. Teaching and learning languages should aim to promote linguistic diversity,
2. There should be a place for cross-curricular approaches in which languages can interact,
3. Transfer of language skills should be encouraged to raise learners' self-esteem and awareness, enhancing learning (p.603-604).

Ortega (2019) claims that a plurilingual approach by translanguaging could reduce learners' fear of language production because they will build the new language practices

on their own linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Emergent bilinguals living in a multilingual society have to learn challenging academic content at schools. The language practices should focus on communication with all learners in the class and let them negotiate and discuss the academic content with their peers and teachers by building on their diverse language practices (Ortega, 2019). Different languages can reinforce one another in such a classroom, and real multilingual societies can be taken as a reference for language teaching (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021).

In a classroom with a translanguaging pedagogy, translanguaging could be done by both teachers and learners (Li Wei, 2017). Translanguaging is beyond acquiring and learning a new language and language structures. If language learning is perceived with a translanguaging view, the integration of new language practices into existing ones becomes fundamental (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). The learners appropriate new languaging that makes up their unique meaning-making resources. The new, integrated language practices do not belong to the school or home, they are individuals,' and they emerge through the social interaction in the class. That new language practice can also extend learners' zone of proximal development, which is essential for learning (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). Learners' translanguaging practices should be observed and studied well to create a taxonomy of pedagogical translanguaging strategies (Canagarajah, 2013). A teacher-directed translanguaging strategy is planned and structured to utilize all linguistic and semiotic resources (Canagarajah, 2013). This pedagogical practice could involve, give voice, clarify, reinforce, manage the classroom, extend and ask questions (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014).

Baker (2001) lists four potential advantages of the translanguaging pedagogy as follows:

1. It could support learners to understand the subject matter more deeply and fully. If learners can understand the content in two languages, that means they have understood it. It is especially important today when information is easily found on the internet. Learners could sometimes copy the information when it is presented in one language. However, if they are asked to reply or prepare a task by finding information in one language and preparing something in the other, they will have to understand the subject matter.
2. Translanguaging could help learners develop academic competence in all their languages, and as a result, they could develop full bilingualism. Otherwise, they could use their stronger languages for complex subjects and choose weaker one(s) for more manageable topics. That could cause improvement in one of their languages.

3. It can ensure parent-school cooperation as families could help their children in their native languages.
4. There could be an efficient integration of fluent English speakers with English learners to help each other (p.281).

The crucial thing there is to decide how to plan the time allocated to use each language. Teachers should strategically plan their translanguaging strategies for their classes (Baker, 2001). For this strategic planning, Garcia, Johnson, and Seltzer (2017) offer three components for translanguaging pedagogy: *stance*, *design*, and *shifts*.

Stance: Teachers should believe that all language practices can promote learning in academic tasks and develop bilingual practices.

Design: Teachers should design teaching and assessment practices that integrate home and school languages.

Shifts: Teachers should respond to learners' languaging with appropriate language shifts in the right moments.

A teacher considering these three components can plan and organize a classroom with a translanguaging pedagogy. The pedagogy can be conducted in multilingual education and second/additional language education programs. It is a designed pedagogy that aims to provide linguistic and academic development for multilinguals or emergent multilinguals with a heteroglossic view. Allocating an equal amount of time for each language is significant when designing a class with translanguaging pedagogy (Cummins, 2014). Garcia (2009) states that it is essential to provide a space (not rigid or static) for learners to use their native languages and the target language together. This is called 'translanguaging spaces' (Garcia, 2009). Before the appearance of translanguaging for the first time in 1994, Fishman (1991) coined 'breathing spaces' in which learners can use their native languages in a bilingual program. Gumperz and Cook-Gumperz (2005) suggest 'interactive spaces' in which learners are free to access all linguistic resources. The concept is the same, but in translanguaging spaces, learners can mix their languages, do translations, and use all the semiotic resources to learn better. Planning where, when, and how much for the translanguaging spaces are significant in the pedagogy. Baker (2001) refers to this planning as 'strategic classroom language planning.'

Many researchers have studied translanguaging pedagogy's effects in recent years as the monolingual views of language teaching have shifted to the multilingual view. The effects of 'flexible languaging' in a classroom with a translanguaging pedagogy

have been questioned (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). Anton and DiCamilla (1998) have demonstrated that using learners' native languages in a foreign language class could promote their second language acquisition. Fu (2003) used an approach in which Chinese learners could use their native languages to write in English. He asserts that thinking and organizing ideas could be more important than language skills in learning to write. He concludes that if learners are allowed to express themselves in their native languages, they can organize their ideas more clearly, leading to better writing in the second language. Cummins (2007) supports translanguaging pedagogy by claiming that it enables learners to engage more confidently with literacy and academic work in both languages. Kibler (2010) studied the effects of translanguaging pedagogy in writing instruction. The results indicated that writing gets robust, and the piece of writing included more details when the ideas in the topic were discussed in learners' home languages. Garcia and Kleifgen (2010) present how educators encourage translanguaging to think, extend and reflect the inner speech while teaching English at the beginning levels for immigrant learners in the US context of bilingual classes. According to Hornberger (2005), the learning of multilinguals is maximized when they are allowed to utilize all their linguistic resources in a class. All these researchers have focused on using the dynamic interaction among languages for better learning. Today there is enough research evidence that translanguaging could build deeper thinking, provide learners with more rigorous content and produce multiple subjectivities. It develops language and literacy practices for specific academic tasks (Blackledge and Creese, 2010; Creese and Blackledge, 2010; Fitts, 2009; García, 2009, 2013, 2014, García, Flores and Woodley, 2012; Heller and Martin-Jones, 2001; Hornberger and Link, 2012; Lewis, Jones and Baker, 2012; Li Wei, 2011; Lin, 2013; Palmer and Martínez, 2013; Sayer, 2008, 2013).

To develop strategies to integrate translanguaging in multilingual ESL contexts, CUNY- New York State Initiative on Emergent Bilinguals (NYSIEB), a collaborative project, started in 2011. The project consists of researchers such as Nelson Flores, Ricardo Otheguy, Ofelia Garcia, Kate Menken, and many others in the project team, who study multilingual education and translanguaging (www.cuny-nysieb.org). The project team has created three guides on how to reshape classes with a translanguaging pedagogy. The first came out in 2013 with the title: "Translanguaging; A CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators" (Celic & Seltzer, 2013). To the researcher's perspective, it might be the most inclusive of the three guides, and it provides definitions and

explanations about the translanguageing concept. It has been the primary guide for the activities with a translanguageing perspective in this study. The second guide was published in 2014 titled “Translanguageing in Curriculum and Instruction; A CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators” (Hesson, Seltzer & Woodley, 2014). Instructional units are divided by school levels, and practical translanguageing strategies are provided in this second guide. The third guide was issued in 2019 with the title “Translanguageing in Dual Language Bilingual Education: A Blueprint for Planning Units of Study” (Solarza et al., 2019). The last guide presents strategies to integrate translanguageing into cross-curricular units. A researcher who wants to study translanguageing strategies must read these three guides to get an idea of the pedagogy's practical techniques. The second and third guides focus more on multilingual education and content teaching in mainstream education. However, the first one, published in 2013, might be valuable for a study in the EFL context.

In the foreword part of the first guide, Garcia summarizes the benefits of translanguageing pedagogy in the following way:

All learners would benefit from the translanguageing instructional contexts and strategies offered in this guide. For learners who speak but one language at home, these translanguageing strategies would “awaken” them to language diversity and build the linguistic tolerance the world needs and the linguistic flexibility that would enable them to learn additional languages throughout their lives. For learners who speak languages other than English, besides English, at home, these translanguageing strategies would validate their home language practices, even when there is no instruction in their home languages. For those who are developing an additional language like English, those we call emergent bilinguals, these translanguageing strategies may be the only way to teach rigorous academic content and develop language (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p.5).

The definition clarifies that translanguageing can be used to teach many learners learning an additional language and academic content. It is stated that teachers in various contexts can use translanguageing strategies: monolingual general education classes, bilingual classes, English as a second language, and even foreign language classrooms (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p.5). This claim supports using translanguageing in the EFL context, which was done through this study.

The curriculum in multilingual mainstream education contexts is in English. Therefore, the teacher must use English to teach. It is claimed in the guide that teachers can help emergent bilinguals better understand and use the English language by making connections between their home languages and English (Celic & Seltzer, 2013). One of

the guide's premises is that creating a multilingual product can give learners an authentic purpose and motivation for language and academic content learning. There are many different forms of multilingual products, and these enable learners present their understandings and abilities in different languages. Three main types of these multilingual products are:

- Learners can create one product in English and a related, different outcome in their home languages with a specific purpose,
- They can translate a product in English to their home languages or vice versa,
- They can create a product for which they use English and their home languages with a particular purpose (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p.15).

The benefits of planning a unit with a product that encourages translanguaging are:

1. It scaffolds learning the academic content, language and developing literacy abilities in English.
2. Learners can understand the content better when they use their home languages as a vehicle for learning.
3. Learners develop academic and literacy abilities in their home languages as well.
4. Learners can present what they know and can do by translanguaging in a better way.
5. Teachers can assess their learners' knowledge and language skills more accurately.
6. Learners can think more critically, and they can use higher-order thinking skills when they create a product by translanguaging for a multilingual audience and with various purposes.
7. Learners can be more engaged with the knowledge they bring from home.
8. Learners can affirm and build their multilingual identities by translanguaging and using their home languages (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p.17).

Considering all these premises, the three guides mentioned above provide sample activities for reading, listening, and content learning. This study's scope is presented and discussed in the 'The rationale of adopting translanguaging pedagogy' title. The origins of translanguaging pedagogy came out in the ESL context with multilingual learners. The research shows that translanguaging can help learners learn academic content better and develop their language skills. Although ESL and EFL contexts are sometimes used interchangeably, there are contextual differences between them. Therefore, it might not be possible to adopt every suggestion for translanguaging pedagogy in the EFL context. Before discussing the rationale for translanguaging in the EFL context, a brief history of theories that shape the EFL context practices is presented under the following title. Differences between the ESL and EFL contexts will be discussed.

2.4. The Differences in the Focus of Research in the ESL/EFL Contexts

Learners learning a second or additional language in an ESL context are more exposed to the language. They are often involved in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) programs where the teaching is English-medium. They have many hours of classes where they can use English, and in the community, they need English to survive. However, learners in an EFL context have limited hours of English classes, and most of the time, their classmates are of the same nationality. Out of the class, they do not have to use English to survive. Many EFL learners do not use the target language outside the class except for homework and using the language for pleasure, such as reading or watching something. Due to the limited time for learning and practising the target language, there might be a belief that learners in the EFL context must only use the target language and get the maximum benefit from the limited time. This belief might have made using the native language an unquestionable topic while teaching English as a foreign language. The 'parallel monolingualism' view (Heller, 1999) has kept the native and target languages separate in the EFL context. In the ESL context, there are weak and strong forms of bilingual programs (May, 2017). In the weak bilingual programs, the learners cannot use their native languages, whereas both the native and target languages are developed in the strong bilingual programs. Because of the parallel monolingualism view, language teaching in the EFL context has been considered non-bilingual by many (May, 2017). Many language teachers, both in the EFL and ESL contexts, have monoglossic language ideologies, and they oppose using

translanguaging pedagogy (Garcia & Lin, 2017). One of the prerequisites of adopting a translanguaging perspective into the EFL context is accepting that learners have a native language and might know more languages.

Despite the contextual differences between EFL and ESL, the purpose is the same: teaching language. Li Wei (2017) proposes two main goals of the second/foreign/additional language education: to achieve bilingualism/multilingualism and not to replace L1. He criticizes setting a norm/standard/target as a 'monolingual' native speaker (imaginary and not very possible). Instead, he suggests using bilingual and multilingual language users as models in language education to achieve the two goals above. SLA theories set the theoretical background of second/foreign/additional language education. As a research field, SLA is narrower scoped than the other disciplines that feed bilingualism/multilingualism. In the SLA theories until today, there has been an assumption that there is an identifiable L1. There is no need to inspect it to answer questions about the development of L2 (Ortega, 2019). The native language has been studied for crosslinguistic influences with a parallel monolingualism view.

Language teaching and pedagogy have always been the central focus in the SLA field. The subjects such as teachers/learners' qualities, age, aptitude, strategies, motivation, and teaching methods have always been at the core of the area. Ortega criticizes this narrow focus of the SLA field by stating:

SLA researchers will continue to investigate age and aptitude, as has traditionally been done in the field. However, they ought to do so under new prisms that are critical of certain premises in the field, particularly premises that reflect biases privileging monolingualism and casting deficit on bilinguals. Perhaps the hardest premise that must be questioned is: can monolinguals provide the golden benchmark for deciding whether bilinguals, including L2 speakers, have reached the finish line in their linguistic development? Other more abstract questions must also be asked: Is there a finish line in language learning? What constitutes success in L2 learning, and who is to tell? (Ortega, 2019, p.433).

The researcher calls for a new perspective in the SLA field, including studies in the EFL context, which might decrease the gap between ESL and EFL contexts. He claims that future SLA studies need to focus on the factors contributing to successful L2 or additional language learning. He suggests three main focuses of future studies: the frequent use of the L2 in language-rich and language demanding situations, active and

dynamic uses of L1-L2, and high levels of education (Ortega, 2019, p.433). His ideas necessitate studying translanguaging practices in the EFL context.

2.4.1. A Review of SLA Theories Regarding the Use of L1

There have been three major views about language acquisition in SLA research, the formal linguistic view, the individual cognitive (psycholinguistic) view, and the socio-contextual view (Butler, 2013). These views have been studied separately, or some features of each view have been combined since the mid-twentieth century, and as a result, different theories/concepts/views have emerged.

The first, formal linguistic view, focused on the form of languages and was heavily influenced by the theoretical frameworks of Chomsky (1965, 1981, 1986, 1995). According to the view, people are born with an unconscious knowledge of grammar (Universal Grammar, UG). There are principles in this universal knowledge, and as people are exposed to language in their environment, parameters specific to their languages are set. According to the view, reshaping the principles by setting new parameters is the basis of language acquisition. Initially being a first language acquisition theory, there are still discussions on UG application to SLA research. One of the scenarios is that the UG constrains second language grammar. Learners start with the parameter settings of their native languages and reset their parameters based on the input in the second language. This view assumes a dynamic interaction between first and second languages, coherent with the dynamic bilingualism perspective. The narrow focus of UG on formal structures of language was not enough to explain language acquisition. Hymes (1972) put forward his notion of communicative competence and took a broader approach to study the language. Chomsky's grammatical knowledge was competence in Hymes' notion. The idea suggested that language knowledge consists of grammatical, sociolinguistic knowledge and the ability to use it (performance in Chomsky's framework). Developing these knowledge types leads to language acquisition. Instead of formal structures of language, the focus shifted to the communicative value of the language with Hymes' notion. The concept was for first language acquisition originally, and the ideas were used for second language acquisition.

In the 1970s and 1980s, advances in psychology brought new perspectives to language acquisition, and as a consequence, the individual-cognitive (psycholinguistic)

view came out. The view suggested that cognitive problem-solving leads to changes in people's mental states, enabling L2 learning. Language acquisition is data-driven and a part of general cognition (Butler, 2013). Some of the studies valuable to consider language acquisition from psycholinguistic view are: information-processing models (Anderson, 1983; Gagné, 1985, Shiffrin & Schneider, 1977), schema theory (Gagné, 1985; Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977), and connectionist modelling (Rumelhart & McClelland, 1986). The view was individualistic and did not study the use of the language in social contexts. It focused on the mental processes that were active in language acquisition (Butler, 2013). The view fell short in explaining language acquisition by total means.

The realization that socio-contextual variables could affect L2 acquisition started with Labov's works on speech variation (Labov, 1972). After his work, many researchers studied contextual variability among L2 learners in terms of linguistic environment (Dickerson, 1975), social norms of L1 variation (Schmidt, 1977), interaction partners (Beebe & Zuengler, 1983), the function of interaction (Tarone, 1983; 1985), discourse topics (Eisenstein & Starbuck 1989; Zuengler, 1989). Many of the SLA theories since the 1990s have emphasized social and contextual aspects of language, which are necessary for people to develop communicative competence (Butler, 2013). The primary studies of the time were: sociocultural theory (Lantolf, 2000), language socialization (Duff, 2007), and applications of conversational analysis in SLA (Gardner & Wagner, 2004). The view suggests that knowing a second language requires using language appropriately in particular socio-contexts, interaction strategies, and understanding many language functions, such as speech acts. With this last view, teaching and assessing communicative competence included grammatical, sociolinguistic, pragmatic knowledge, and the ability to use the language considering these knowledge types.

These three primary schools of thought and many other notions proposed by different researchers have fed each other, but at the same time, focused on different language acquisition aspects. There has not been a single theory that could explain language acquisition. One of the first to explain language acquisition holistically was Larsen-Freeman, who introduced *Complexity Theory* (1997). The researcher adopted *Dynamic Systems Theory* into SLA and claimed that all languages and varieties are compound systems with interrelated components and learner language stages. The researcher states that 'what endures is not a rule-based competence, but a structured

network of dynamic languaging patterns, stored in memory with specific information about instances of use retained in the representation' (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 783–784). Her view considered language as a dynamic system adaptive to the environment, and the ecological approach to language has many similarities with the dynamic bilingualism perspective (van Lier, 2004). Butler (2013) states that taking a holistic view of language acquisition and the new ecological approach to language presents SLA researchers with numerous conceptual and methodological challenges. One way to overcome these challenges might be studying teaching/learning practices through a translanguaging pedagogical perspective, as done in this study.

The same analytical focus rather than a holistic one has been with different approaches, methods, and language teaching techniques. An approach is '...a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning' (Harmer, 2007, p.63). There are two theories in an approach: theory of language and theory of language learning. The three primary views of language acquisition presented above have shaped the approaches of language teaching until today. As a result, there have been methods according to selected approaches and techniques for actual teaching in the classroom. Today, it has been realized that rather than choosing a particular approach or method, designing classes with a principled eclecticism, blending different approaches and methods according to contextual needs can be the most effective. The ecological perspective (van Lier, 2004) and 'the post method pedagogy' (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) have greatly influenced teaching English practices in EFL contexts in recent years.

Kumaravadivelu (2006) created a framework for designing language classes with principled eclecticism. The post-method pedagogy, as he calls this framework, consists of three main theoretical backgrounds: Stern's *Three-dimensional Framework* (1992), Allwright's *Exploratory Practice Framework* (2003), and Kumaravadivelu's *Macro Strategic Framework* (2006). The first, Stern's three-dimensional framework (1992), is made up of three 'strategy concepts', which serve as a basic approach for language teaching/learning:

- the L1-L2 connection, concerning the use of L1
- the code-communication dilemma concerning the structure – message relationship
- the explicit – implicit option, concerning the basic approach to language learning

Concerning the L1-L2 connection, Stern argued that ‘the L1-L2 connection is an indisputable fact of life’ (Stern, 1992, p. 282). He criticized the prohibition of L1 while teaching L2 and asserted that L1 should also be integrated into L2 classes. He suggests an intralingual-cross-lingual continuum to consider while planning language classes. At the first stages of learning, cross-lingual comparisons between languages can be done however, the classes can be more intralingual at later stages. The second strategy, ‘the code-communication dilemma,’ asserts that learners should focus on the forms of the language analytically. At the same time, they must experience it through authentic communication. A language class teaching and practising both code and communication could be the most effective. The last dimension, the explicit-implicit option, claims that the classes should be planned to allow explicit and implicit learning. Activities for both deliberate, conscious learning should be done along with incidental, subconscious acquisition activities. Stern (1992) supports the use of L1 as a reference with a cross-lingual and cross-cultural perspective. He supports compound bilingualism (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

In searching for an alternative to language teaching methods, Allwright (2003) developed *Exploratory Practice (EP)*. In his own words, EP ‘is trying to find out what makes the tried and trusted ideas successful. Because in the long run, it is not enough to know that ideas do work, we also need to know why and how they work’ (Allwright, 2003, p. 196). The notion suggests that teachers should try the methods or create new ways of teaching the language. Including all the learners in the process, they should study the new teaching methods’ effectiveness reflectively. It is done to improve the ‘quality of life’ for both teachers and learners.

Lastly, Kumaravadivelu (2006) puts forth a macro strategic framework, consisting of ten suggestions for planning micro strategies: the teaching techniques in the class. The five suggestions that are mostly related to the scope of this study are:

- Maximize the learning opportunities,
- Facilitate negotiated interaction,
- Minimize perceptual mismatches,
- Foster language awareness,
- Integrate language skills (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p.201).

The macro strategic framework could be used for a translanguaging pedagogy as well. Because it suggests maximizing the learning opportunities, and one of the

premises of translanguaging pedagogy is that using learners' native languages can maximize learning opportunities. By using their native languages, learners might interact more through negotiated interaction in their native and target languages. The use of native language could minimize the perceptual mismatches by enabling more comprehension, and the crosslinguistic comparison of two languages can foster language awareness. The translanguaging pedagogy uses one language for one skill, such as reading or listening and producing something by speaking or writing in the other language. Therefore, it could be an effective way of integrating language skills.

It is clear from the definitions above that the post-method pedagogy, particularly Stern's three-dimensional framework and Kumaravadivelu's macro strategic framework, encourages the use of L1 while teaching L2, promoting translanguaging pedagogy. This post-method condition requires a new perspective on the use of the native language in language classes. The use of native language in EFL and ESL contexts has been considered a linguistic and cognitive deficiency for a long time. Language teachers have often believed that learners are off-task, and they have disruptive or deviant behavior when they use their native languages (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). The resistance of language teachers might be the consequence of the studies that have been done since the mid-twentieth century regarding the use of L1 in teaching contexts.

2.4.2. The Main Studies for the Influence of L1 on SLA

The first hypothesis for the effect of L1 on SLA was the *Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CA)* by Lado (1957). It was based on behaviorism and structuralism. It claimed that learners' errors reflected their L1 therefore, the two languages should be kept separate, and errors must be minimized. In the late 1960s, CA was found inadequate for the SLA due to the behaviorist learning theory, which could not explain the logical problem of language learning. It was realized that many errors made by the learners could not be explained only by L1 influence. With Corder's (1967) article on 'significance of learners' errors', errors started to be considered a transitional competence from L1 to L2. The era of *Error Analysis* started with the study. The theoretical background of the EA was mentalism rather than behaviorism, and it was affected by *Transformational Generative Grammar (TG)* (Chomsky, 1957). The language started to be considered a rule-governed behavior, and the EA aimed to

collect, identify, describe and evaluate language errors. In 1972, Selinker introduced *Interlanguage*, which means that through creative construction, second language learners create a mental grammar that does not belong either to their L1 or L2 but is unique. Since the introduction of the interlanguage, the notion of transfer has not been considered uni-dimensional or uni-directional. Learners learn or acquire a new language under the influence of all known languages. The terms ‘transfer’ and ‘crosslinguistic’ influence have been used interchangeably since the appearance of the interlanguage concept.

Some taxonomies for learner’s errors have been provided since the mid-twentieth century, such as surface strategy taxonomy, language competence taxonomy, error systematicity taxonomy, error gravity taxonomy, and error source taxonomy. The primary purpose of all these taxonomies is to analyse learners' errors and study their effect on SLA. In all the concepts, theories, and ideas above, languages are kept separate. There is always L1 and L2. The dynamic bilingualism perspective opposes that and asserts there is a single central engine for all-known languages. Language acquisition or learning with this perspective does not need separation. It necessitates new perspectives for using all language repertoires with an educational purpose rather than viewing them as hindrances or errors. As errors have always been considered a hindrance in the EFL context, reshaping EFL with a dynamic bilingualism perspective requires new perspectives on cross-linguistic influences.

2.4.3. A Critical View on Methods for Teaching Reading and Listening Skills in EFL Contexts

Reading and listening skills are receptive skills. Listening is critical in first language development as it is the first language skill to be developed by infants. Developing reading leads to more vocabulary and more exposure to language, which could also develop productive skills. Particularly at the beginning levels of learning a language, developing and practising receptive skills is crucial. In an EFL context, teaching and practising reading and listening skills provide input, a prerequisite for the output. The input hypotheses have shaped the methods and techniques for teaching these two skills. Four main hypotheses have been suggested for providing efficient input while teaching a language: the frequency hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), comprehensible input hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), output hypothesis (Swain, 1993), and collaborative discourse (Ellis, 1990) hypothesis.

The frequency hypothesis suggests that the more an item occurs in input, the earlier it appears in learners' output. It signifies that the learners should frequently listen and read the structures that they have learned. The second, the comprehensible input hypothesis, suggests that the input should be comprehensible for language acquisition. That indicates the significance of choosing reading and listening materials that are appropriate for learners' levels. Furthermore, it suggests that the more comprehensible the input, the more acquisition it leads. That might be one reason for adopting a translanguaging approach for reading and listening tasks because one of the premises of the perspective is more comprehension (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). The output hypothesis claims that learners should use the new language forms to internalize the input. That is why many reading and listening activities are followed by productive activities such as writing or speaking. The last hypothesis, the collaborative discourse hypothesis (Ellis, 1990), focuses on discourse features and claims that gradual acquisition of language structures can be done by memorizing the formulaic speech, leading to learning how to participate in conversations. The hypothesis emphasizes the importance of learners' being exposed to formulaic speech and memorizing them through an understanding.

These hypotheses have contributed to the techniques of teaching reading and listening. In many English teacher education programs, the principles of teaching reading and listening skills are taught. In these principles, learners' L1 or other influences are not taken into consideration. Many of the teaching suggestions are given with a bird's-eye view (Ortega, 2019). In practice, things might not be crystal clear for English teachers as many factors affect their teaching and learners' learning. For these reasons, below, there will be a presentation of these principles with a critical eye.

2.4.3.1. Teaching Listening

There are two types of listening: extensive and intensive listening. Extensive is the listening activity that learners do outside the class, intensive is the listening activities done in the classroom. Intensive listening is done by the guidance of teachers. Although extensive listening is crucial for language development, teachers might not go further than encouraging learners to listen extensively. That might be due to the limited time, learners' listening practices in their native languages, and some other factors. There are three sub-skills of listening that learners must learn and practice: to understand paralinguistic cues, listen for specific information, and listen for general

understanding (Harmer, 2007). However, the biggest question here is: are the learners good at these three sub-skills when they listen to something in their native languages? Do they know what the paralinguistic cues are or what is the specific information? How can they get the main idea of a listening text? If learners have not practised these skills in their native languages, they might have problems practising them in the target language with limited proficiency. Those are the main reasons why this study has been conducted. Giving learners translingual breaks to discuss what they have heard with their partners might help them develop these three subskills. Another common recommendation that has been given by many methods' books and research is to use authentic materials. It is excellent but authentic for whom? The learners in this study were learning English as a foreign language, and some knew more than two other languages. They were engineering learners. Their future needs of English will probably be when they need to communicate with people from Asian, Arabic, or European countries. Therefore, their interlocutors will be the people using English as a foreign language as well. These people could be their colleagues, and they could sometimes turn to their native languages in communication. They could discuss the texts, videos, or other engineering materials by translating them and communicating by referring to their native languages. Learners' native language, Turkish, has many common words with French, Persian, and Arabic languages. In some cases, they can use these common words for efficient communication. Therefore, what is the authentic listening material for them? Is it only listening to English people with a British accent talking about the holiday places they have been to? The situation given as an example above necessitates using a translanguaging pedagogy while teaching to learners in this study's context. It might serve their needs better.

Jeremy Harmer is a teacher educator famous for his series "How to Teach...". The book has been used in many English teacher education programs around the world. At the bachelor's degree, the researcher was taught the "Teaching Methods and Approaches" class by referencing his books. In the book "How to Teach English" (2007), Harmer provides six principles for teaching listening as follows:

1. *Encourage learners to listen a lot.* However, what kind of texts should they listen to? What if they do not know the sub-skills of listening or do not listen to podcasts, programs, or other kinds of media even in their native languages?

Even if many teachers encourage learners to listen, many learners do intensive listening only in the classes.

2. *Help learners prepare to listen.* A warm-up is necessary to make learners engaged with the topic and task, and that way, learners might be more willing to listen. However, what if they do not know anything about the topic even to talk in their native languages? There are some topics in which learners cannot say a single word due to a lack of background information. Moreover, if we want to use authentic material for learners' needs, using texts about engineering could serve their needs better. Nevertheless, a warm-up about a complex engineering text only in the target language might not be efficient as learners might have trouble understanding. Therefore, letting learners use their native languages for discussion with their partners might provide a better warm-up. This way, learners could discuss what they would listen to by predicting the subject from the title, photos, etc., and they could discuss them in their native languages and then in the target language.
3. *Once may not be enough.* Learners should listen at least twice, and if they need to listen again, the teacher can re-play by planning the limited time. Harmer (2007) states that 'we may stop the audio track at various points if that would help learners comprehend' (p.135). However, what should teachers do at these stops? One way is to repeat the sentences slowly. The other way might be allowing learners to discuss with their partners in their native languages for a limited time. That could help them focus more on what they need to understand. If they understand the text better, they could perform better in the after-listening discussions only in the target language.
4. *Encourage learners to respond to the content of listening, not just to the language.* If learners must comprehend the content entirely, the translanguaging pedagogy might help learners for more comprehension. As Harmer (2007) states, 'an important part of a listening sequence is for teachers to draw out the meaning of what is being said, discern what is intended and find out what impression it makes on the learners' (p.136). The translingual breaks provided for learners during listening tasks to discuss the content with their partners could help them understand more. After listening finishes, learners could perform better in the discussion in the target language. That might also be more suitable for learners' needs of English in

their future life as they might need to focus on content in listening for some reason, such as an academic lecture.

5. *Different listening stages demand different listening tasks.* This means that it might be better to listen for general information at the first levels of English proficiency, whereas listening for specific information can be done later. However, how can the teachers and the learners in the class understand that someone has understood a listening text's central idea? Is discussing in the native language for a limited time better as feedback for understanding the main idea? After listening to a text, they could summarize the main idea with their partners first in their native language and then in the target language. For listening for specific information, Harmer (2007) states that 'it will be the teachers' job to help learners focus on what they are listening for...' (p.136). Can learners help each other better focus by using their native languages in the translingual breaks?
6. *Good teachers exploit listening texts to the full.* That means that teachers can re-play the listening texts many times to do different activities. That could be a summary, a focus on vocabulary, language structures, or specific information. However, can learners do better when using their native languages with their partners in the translingual breaks? For example, a teacher plays the recording and asks learners to focus on the verbs and make sample sentences with them. Letting learners do the activity with their partners by using only the target language can be too challenging. However, if the teacher asks learners to discuss what verbs and uses they have heard first in their native languages and then in the target language as a whole class, it might be better for learners to focus.

Of course, the comments and questions above are the questions to be answered with this study and other future studies. On the one hand, there are some principles for teaching listening and, on the other, the premises of translanguaging pedagogy. These questions must be considered if a teacher decides to conduct a listening class with a translanguaging pedagogy.

2.4.3.2. Teaching Reading

Reading is an essential skill for learners because they need to read for their careers, for study purposes, or only for pleasure. Texts in reading tasks are good models of English, and learners focus on sentences, vocabulary, and punctuation. Teachers can use texts to present learners the ways sentences, paragraphs, and whole texts are constructed. Similar to the listening tasks, there are two types of reading activities: extensive and intensive. The discussion here is about intensive reading activities as they are the ones done in the classroom. Many methodology and approach books recommend using authentic reading texts to improve three main sub-skills: scanning, skimming, and reading for detailed comprehension. The same question should be asked here; authentic for whom? How can we choose authentic reading texts for engineering learners for their reading skill potential in the future? Harmer (2007) states that ‘good reading texts can introduce interesting topics, stimulate discussion, excite imaginative responses and provide the springboard for well rounded, fascinating lessons’ (p.99). What if learners do not have any background knowledge in the topic? Or what if learners read the text for their study purposes and it is challenging to comprehend? Do they not ever try to translate or discuss the text with their partners to comprehend better?

Harmer (2007) provides six principles for reading tasks in class:

1. *Encourage learners to read a lot*; the effectiveness of this encouragement might be related to learners’ reading habits in their native languages. If they do not read in their native languages, developing a reading habit in the target language would not be possible.
2. *Learners need to be engaged with what they are reading*: can using learners’ native languages for a limited time help them be engaged with the reading task? Harmer (2007) states that ‘during lessons, we will do our best to ensure that learners are engaged with the topic of the reading text and the activities they are asked to do while dealing with it’ (p.101). However, can we do our best only by using the target language?
3. *Encourage learners to respond to the content of a text / and explore their feelings about it, not just concentrate on its construction*: If comprehension of the content is essential, can it be better to use the native language for a limited time?

4. *Prediction is a major factor in reading*; that indicates the significance of warm-up activities. However, could a translingual warm-up activity be better?
5. *Match the task to the topic when using intensive reading texts*.
6. *Good teachers exploit reading texts to the full*: this full exploitation of the text might be done better by using native languages as well? Learners might need to practice translating and translinguaging strategies, which can be done with a translinguaging pedagogy.

It is clear above that many listening and reading tasks can be done by using translinguaging pedagogy. The questions have been asked to make the readers question the long-held monolingual views in teaching English as a foreign language.

2.5. The Rationale for Adopting Translinguaging Pedagogy for Listening and Reading Tasks

There are mainly ten hypotheses and theories that validate adopting a translinguaging pedagogy in language classes. Chronologically, these are:

1. *Interdependence Hypothesis (Cummins, 1984)*. It suggests that competence in the native language is necessary for competence in second or additional languages.
2. *The concept of Multicompetence (Cook, 1991)*. It suggests that different languages known by a person form a single connected system. The multilinguals are unique, and they cannot be considered monolinguals who add new languages to their repertoire separately.
3. *The Three-dimensional Framework (Stern, 1992)*. It suggests that the L1-L2 connection is irrefutable, and it is necessary to integrate L1 to L2 classes.
4. *'Trawsieithu' (Williams, 1994)*. Influenced by Grosjean (1989) and Cook (1991), Cen Williams wrote a PhD dissertation in which he studied the effects of using one language for the input and creating output in another language. It could be the first study for translinguaging pedagogy.
5. *The Complementarity Principle (Grosjean, 1997)*. Grosjean put forth bilingual and monolingual modes as a continuum and suggested that bilinguals move between these two ends as the situation requires. The principle asserts that

different situations require different languages, and people could mix and switch their languages.

6. *The Chaos / Complexity Theory (Larsen-Freeman, 1997)*. It claims that language learning/teaching is a complex process influenced by various factors such as learners, context, and native language. According to the theory, a dynamic view of language and learning/teaching processes is necessary to design effective educational practices.
7. *The Dynamic Model of Multilingualism (Herdina & Jessner, 2002)*. The model suggests that using more than one language in an educational context develops an overall multilingual system: the native language and additional languages.
8. *Post-method Pedagogy (Kumaravadivelu, 2006)*. The view suggests that contextual features should shape teaching and learning processes. Different methods should be tested and used with three dimensions as particularity, practicality, and possibility.
9. *The Ecological Perspective to Language Teaching (van Lier, 2004)*. The view recommends designing teaching/learning practices by considering local realities. It considers all contextual features in a learning or teaching practice. Butler (2013) states that taking a holistic view of language acquisition and the new ecological approach to language presents SLA researchers with numerous conceptual and methodological challenges. One way to overcome these challenges might be studying teaching/learning practices through a translanguaging pedagogical perspective, as done in this study.
10. *Dynamic Bilingualism (Garcia, 2009)*. Translanguaging is an enactment of the view. It asserts that all known languages form a single repertoire, which can be considered a central engine in multilinguals' minds.

By taking all the theories/hypotheses above into consideration, the rationale of the study could be suggested as follows:

The language repertoire of multilinguals is single and fed from the same central engine (Cummins, 1984; Cook, 1991; Garcia, 2009). Therefore, multilinguals move between monolingual and bilingual modes in their daily lives as the situation requires, and they naturally mix their languages (Grosjean, 1997). To design authentic language teaching and learning situations, native language can be integrated (Stern, 1992; Herdina & Jessner, 2002) into L2 teaching programs by considering the post-

methodological particularity, practicality, and possibility dimensions (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Because the native language is an ecological feature of the contexts (Van Lier, 2004) and affects the complex process of language learning/acquisition (Larsen-Freeman, 1997).

In a foreign language class with a translanguaging pedagogy, new language practices interact with the old ones without competition and threat (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Many language teaching programs such as EFL, ESL, and CLIL encourage only the target language. However, as Garcia (2009) asserted, much use of the native language is often made in reality to scaffold the instruction so that the meaning can be made in the target language. Moore concludes in his research that using the native language is a ‘naturally occurring phenomenon in the L2 classroom as in bilingual communication’ (2013: 251). Garcia, Flores, and Spotti (2017) claim that:

The teaching of English cannot be enacted in total isolation of other language practices because speakers’ translanguaging is always with them. Instead, teachers must leverage the learners’ existing repertoire and encourage the appropriation of new features into the learner’s unitary repertoire (mentioned in Seltzer & Garcia, 2020, p.26).

There is rich empirical evidence that both teachers and learners switch and mix their languages naturally to teach and learn (Creese & Martin, 2003; Gajo, 2007; Lin & Martin, 2005; Macaro, 2001; Martin-Jones, 1995). Therefore, in this study, systematic allowance for the use of native language in translingual breaks during listening and reading tasks was provided. In these translanguaging breaks, breathing spaces (Fishman, 1991), in which learners can use their native languages, and translanguaging spaces, in which the native and target languages can be used together, were provided. Lewis et al. (2012) claim that providing flexible and systematic language arrangements such as translanguaging might encourage learners to focus more on the majority language and tasks. Canagarajah (2013) also maintains that learners’ translanguaging practices should be strategically incorporated into classroom activities. For this purpose, this study has examined whether these translingual breaks in listening and reading tasks affect comprehension.

In recent years, many researchers have stated the need to envision TESOL through a translanguaging lens, leading to a ‘translanguaged TESOL profession’ (Tian et al., 2020). Such a view could be a promising path to dismantle “English” as a monolithic entity, “native-speakerism” as a pervasive ideology, and “English-only” as a

pedagogical orientation (Tian et al., 2020, p.1). In a translanguaged language class, English is conceptualized as socially constructed with emergent characteristics in real life. Language learners in such a class are not deficient non-natives but ‘resourceful agents with complete repertoires and abilities (García & Kleifgen, 2018). The purpose of language teaching in a translanguaged context is not acquiring a native-like form of English, instead, becoming a competent multilingual user of the language in situations which require fluid, dynamic, and complex language practices (Tian et al., 2020). This dynamic and fluid nature of new language practices has been emphasized by Sembiante and Tian (2020) with the following lines: ‘we contend that a translanguaging lens represents a paradigm shift away from prioritizing English as a second or foreign language towards recognition of emergent bilinguals’ multilingual repertoires and their fluid language practices’ (p.43). This perspective brings new perspectives to the traditional approaches and methods of language teaching as well. Rather than placing the target language and target language culture or people at the center, a translanguaged language class considers all learners emergent bilinguals. It provides heteroglossic educational spaces to encourage learners to use their entire cultural and linguistic resources in meaning-making and performing academic tasks (García, 2009; García & Li, 2014). Kerr (2016) supports translanguaged language class by referring to the US-based MLA Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages’ (2007) proposal that the anticipated outcomes of language teaching in universities should be ‘educated speakers who have deep translingual and transcultural competence’ (p.521). In this view, language acquisition supports ‘critical language awareness, interpretation and translation, historical and political consciousness, social sensibility, and aesthetic perception’ (ibid, p. 521). The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (i.e., CEFRL; Council of Europe, 2001) supports plurilingual competence, through which learners keep all their language and cultural knowledge as a single repertoire. In the situations to use this competence, all language and cultural repertoires interact according to the situation and interlocutor. Williams (1996) calls for ‘purposeful’ translanguaging by claiming that ‘there is a need to build on and extend good practice’ (p.13). By considering all the suggestions above, this study investigates the effects of purposeful translanguaging by giving translingual breaks in the preview, view, review stages of listening and reading tasks on comprehension. It follows the fixed language approach (Bonacina-Pugh et al., 2021), the weak form of

translanguaging (Garcia and Lin, 2017), and Crosslinguistic Translanguaging Theory (Cummins, In press).

2.6. Related Studies

Two main focuses of the recent research on translanguaging pedagogy studies in the EFL context has been discovered as translanguaging attitudes and beliefs of teachers and learners and the effects of translanguaging pedagogy on different aspects of language as: four skills, vocabulary, reading, writing, speaking, task engagement and class participation. The purposes of the studies have been categorized, and the two main categories have been found. The studies will be presented according to the categories and chronological order.

Many of the studies on translanguaging in the EFL context have investigated learners' and teachers' beliefs and attitudes for using all linguistic resources in language classes (Aghai, Sayer & Vercellotti, 2020; Anderson, 2018; Burton & Rajendram, 2019; Caldas, 2019; Cogo, 2016; Flint & Dollar, 2020; Gallego-Balsà & Cots, 2019; Haukås, 2015; Itoi & Michaud, 2021; Kucuk, 2018; Rajendram, 2021; Scopich, 2018; Thomas, Stewart & Wabwoba, 2020; Wang, 2019). Many followed the fixed language approach, and they considered languages as separate and bounded entities. Haukas (2015) investigated the effect of the multilingual approach in the L3 classroom by collecting qualitative data from 12 language teachers of different languages. Four were French, two were German, and six were Spanish teachers. The study's findings emphasized various aspects of multilingual pedagogies compared to the other beliefs and attitudes studies. The study's first finding was that the participant teachers view multilingualism as a positive asset in L3 learning. Although they think that knowing other languages helped them learn new languages, they do not believe that multilingualism is an automatic asset for learners. The finding indicates that learners must gain a certain level of awareness for multilingualism and learn how to use it as an asset in additional language learning. The study's second finding is that although the teachers use learners' first and second languages while teaching a third language, they believe that learning a third language is different from learning a second language. Therefore, the teachers do not focus on the transfer of learning strategies in their classes. The third finding suggested more collaboration among the teachers of different languages, however, there was not enough collaboration in the study. It can be concluded that translanguaging and

other multilingual pedagogies can be effective if enough awareness-raising can be done for teachers and learners. The awareness-raising could also change long-held beliefs about the monolingual perspective in EFL contexts. Anderson (2018) studied self-identified language use profiles of 116 adult multilingual English learners to investigate the relevance of translinguaging strategy in their education. The findings indicated that 19.8 percent believed they would use English monolingually, whereas 20.7 percent thought they would use it highly translingually. Nearly half of the participants (47.4 percent) thought they would sometimes use English largely monolingually and sometimes more translingually. The findings revealed that 76 percent of the participants believed that they would need translinguaging in the future. Similarly, Cogo (2016) tried to emphasize common theoretical backgrounds of English as Lingua Franca (ELF) perspective and translinguaging by claiming that communication in ELF contexts requires translinguaging. The researcher investigated covert and overt resources in a transnational workplace, and the findings reveal the various translingual strategies constructed by ELF speakers. The results demonstrate that translinguaging is a natural outcome of communicative situations among people of different nationalities. Furthermore, it might be a promising pedagogical practice in ELF contexts. Scopich (2018) studied the beliefs of teachers and learners on translinguaging in the EFL context. The findings indicated that both teachers and learners admit the benefits of translinguaging. Learners often do translinguaging to help their friends, respond to teachers' questions, and discuss content and activities. Whereas teachers often do translinguaging to explain and revise vocabulary and grammar, manage the class, facilitate learners' responses, emphasize important points, and give feedback. The researcher tried to reveal if there were any discrepancies between their beliefs and practice. The findings indicated no discrepancies between beliefs and practice. Kucuk (2018) studied language-related challenges first-year EMI learners face, their attitudes on translinguaging as a learning strategy, and learners' and instructors' translinguaging strategies in the class. The study results indicated that the most occurring challenges were technical English vocabulary, accent, and pronunciation, which might diminish content master and communication in the class. The findings also demonstrated that both learners and teachers use translinguaging. Learners use translinguaging strategies as scaffolding with their peers and lecturers, and they do translations for the bilingual materials and when they take notes. They do translinguaging to clarify and understand the content better. Whereas lecturers do translinguaging to clarify and convey the

meaning to facilitate a better comprehension of the content, explain new words and concepts, and increase learners' participation to encourage and comfort them. The difference of the study is that it was conducted in an EMI context, and it mainly used qualitative data. It does not suggest any methods or approaches for translanguaging strategies. However, the study is significant because it presents the reality of EMI classes in Turkey and learners' and lecturers' beliefs for translanguaging. Caldas (2019) conducted an ethnographic study to investigate pre-service bilingual teachers' translanguaging and code-switching beliefs. The study's findings indicated that the pre-service teachers supported translanguaging and agreed to use the practice in their future classrooms. The participants proposed a different translanguaging strategy for each learner's needs, and more emphasis should be placed on the language that requires more development. Zhou and Mann (2021) studied the translanguaging behavior of teachers in a CLIL context and learners' reactions to their teachers. The findings revealed how translanguaging techniques by teachers might lead to mutually beneficial classroom ecology. The findings also indicated that even advanced EFL learners rejected traditional, monolingual language teaching strategies and preferred translanguaging for better content comprehension. Burton and Rajendram (2019) investigated ESL instructors' attitudes toward translanguaging at the tertiary level in the Canadian context. The findings of the qualitative study with four participant teachers revealed that although they sometimes accommodate the use of translanguaging, their teaching practice was based on a monolingual perspective. The researchers called for practical methods or strategies to integrate translanguaging pedagogy in the ESL context. Gallego-Balse and Cots (2019) investigated how teachers and multilingual learners utilized their plurilingual resources while learning Catalan. The study results demonstrated that learners use their plurilingual resources with their peers, whereas teachers avoid using them. The learners used their native language Spanish primarily to manage understanding and complexity. The researchers conclude that a Catalan language course in which learners can use resources from their native languages in a planned and organized way might be doubly beneficial as it could speed up the acquisition of Catalan. Furthermore, it might be more realistic for learners to practice how to move between Catalan and Spanish in their daily encounters in Catalonia. Wang (2019) explored what learners and teachers think and do regarding translanguaging in beginner-level foreign language classes in China. The data collection tools were varied as questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and observation. The results revealed that

nearly half of the participant learners could draw on their linguistic resources for meaning negotiation, however, the teachers had ambivalent attitudes towards multilingual resources. Some teachers developed a translanguaging pedagogy while others accommodate monolingual perspectives. The class observation revealed that the translanguaging pedagogy made the class more communicative for teachers and learners. It enables the use of a dialogic approach. Wabwoba (2020) investigated the effects of using learners' native languages on learning English. The researcher conducted a large-scale study with twenty-three non-formal primary schools in Kenya and used questionnaires for teachers and a focus group discussion survey. The researcher studied the effects of using the native language without distinguishing between skills or without strategic translanguaging. The findings indicated that using the native language for a limited time helped learners learn English better, whereas teachers were less supportive of using the native language. The researcher calls for further research and policy arrangements for the systematic use of L1 in language classes. Thomas et al. (2020) investigated the effects of translanguaging pedagogy on ESL learners in the American context. The findings revealed positive ideas of teachers and learners' mixed feelings about first language use in their classes. Aghai et al. (2020) observed three language teachers' classes. The findings revealed that teachers could be grouped into three for their attitudes towards translanguaging pedagogy, those who consider translanguaging-as-a-problem, translanguaging-as-a-natural-process, and translanguaging-as-a-resource. Rajendram (2021) studied the affordances and constraints of translanguaging pedagogy in the Malaysian elementary ESL context. The findings revealed that learners used translanguaging to support one another's language learning, build rapport, resolve conflict, assert their cultural identity and draw on knowledge across languages. However, the use of translanguaging was constrained due to teachers' and peers' language policies and practices, parental discourses about linguistic capital, and societal discourses on ethnicity, nationality, and marginalization. Itoi and Michaud (2021) demonstrate supportive ideas of teachers and learners in the Japanese ELT context and emphasize that translanguaging pedagogy can be used for successful foreign language education.

The common finding of the belief studies has been the benefits of using translanguaging by teachers and learners. However, in some studies, teachers and learners are hesitant to use their native language when the purpose is to develop the target language. That might indicate the significance of awareness-raising and practice

in translanguaging skills. Many of the belief studies mentioned above and others that were excluded investigate learners' and teachers' beliefs and attitudes for using their native languages in class without conducting strategic translanguaging as a method. Many resemble traditional L1 in L2 context studies. In this study, learners' beliefs are investigated before the in-class experience of translingual reading and listening tasks. After the experience, changes in their attitudes, if there is any, have been examined by open-ended questionnaires and semi-structured interview.

Apart from the attitude and belief studies, many studies have investigated the effects of using translanguaging pedagogy on different aspects of language skills. The first category in this group of studies is for teaching four language skills (Barahona, Delaporte-Raurich, & Ibaceta-Quijanes, 2021; De Los Reyes, 2019; Jain, 2014; Khatib, 2021; Llanes & Cots, 2020; Ramirez, 2019; Seals et al., 2020, Sulaiman & Taqi, 2020; Yuzlu & Dikilitas, 2021). Many of these studies have followed the fixed language approach and investigated the effects of the systematic integration of L1 into language classes. Barahona et al. (2021) conducted a study to investigate how pre-service teachers used L1 during their practicum. The case study focused on what the participants' purposes in using L1 were. The findings revealed that although all participants used English as the means of instruction, most used Spanish for purposes such as to explain concepts, support, and check comprehension, give instruction, activate previous knowledge, and focus learners' attention on the objective of the lesson. De Los Reyes (2019) investigated the language practices of teachers and learners in third-grade ESL classes in the Philippines. The results demonstrated that through translanguaging, the teachers could present their lessons, conduct classroom discussions, enhance learners' comprehension, and manage learner behavior more efficiently. The learners could participate in classroom discussions and demonstrate their knowledge and understanding. The study concludes that learners and teachers can use linguistic repertoires to enhance meaning. Jain (2014) presents how translingual pedagogy might help learners develop their translingual competence through her practitioner research. The researcher presents the classroom snippets in which the learners had translingual discussions on English variations and different uses of concepts and phrases among these. The reflective practice concludes that the learners can gain a lot from these translingual discussions and develop their translingual competence, which is necessary for today's globalized world. The research does not recommend systematic translanguaging, however it presents snippets in the class that

teachers can employ to develop translingual competence. Khatib (2021) discussed the two opposing views on using L1 in EFL classrooms. The first view opposes the use of L1, whereas the second one suggests that using learners' languages can enhance learning. There are many studies for these opposing views, and it is difficult to conclude whether to use L1 or how to use it. The researcher examined the research from various contexts and presented how to use EFL learners' language repertoires. One of the study's main findings was that the status of English and other languages in the country and education system is significant to design a class with translanguaging pedagogy. There is a link between the status of these languages and the attitudes of learners, teachers, and administrators towards the target language. Therefore, when designing a language class with a translanguaging pedagogy, all contextual cues and the status of the target language and other languages must be well-thought. Llanes & Cots (2019) investigated the language proficiency gains of business English learners through a quasi-experimental study. The control group conducted their English classes with a monolingual perspective, whereas the other had English classes with a translanguaging perspective. The development of the participants was measured in terms of fluency, lexical complexity, grammatical complexity, and accuracy. Moreover, an expert examiner assessed the two groups using a rubric including four scales: language, communicative achievement, content, and organization. The results indicated that both groups had comparable gains, however, few differences supported the translanguaging perspective. In terms of writing and mainly lexical complexity, the translanguaging group scored higher in the post-tests. Furthermore, learners' self-confidence and active participation in the translanguaging group were higher as they used all their language repertoire and might have perceived themselves as competent language users. Ramirez (2019) studied the effects of integrating translanguaging as a pedagogical tool in the EFL context. The researcher designed classes with learners with a communicative language teaching approach and integrated translanguaging pedagogy. He did not focus on specific language skills and not suggested specific methods or strategies for different skills. Instead, the researcher studied the effects of lecturers' translanguaging on learners' learning. The results indicated that integrating translanguaging pedagogy led to statistical improvements in grammar and vocabulary learning. Seals et al. (2020) compared the principles of task-based language learning and translanguaging in their study. The researchers found many commonalities between the two and designed a task-based language class through translanguaging. The class was effective because speakers

used translanguaging for three purposes: task management, giving or seeking assistance, and negotiation of meaning. As they are significant in a task-based language class, the translanguaging pedagogy was efficient. It allowed learners to manage the task, collaborate, and extend their control over the language and forms used. The findings verify that translanguaging pedagogy could be valuable for the EFL context. Sulaiman and Taqi (2020) studied the effects of translanguaging pedagogy on learners' performance and language learning. The study participants were a single group with 34 learners of the English department in Kuwait, and the researchers conducted pre and post-tests to investigate the effect. They obtained learners' ideas through a questionnaire. The findings indicated that although learners did not consider translanguaging as a comfort zone, their higher grades in post-translanguaging indicated that translanguaging enhanced their understanding and helped them achieve a higher level of knowledge processing. The researchers conclude that translanguaging might help learners comprehend the information and the topic in the class better, however, it might not help them improve language proficiency. This finding might support using translanguaging pedagogy while teaching and practising receptive skills, reading, and listening. This way, learners might comprehend the content better and might do better in the follow-up tasks. One of the most similar studies to this study has been conducted by Yuzlu and Dikilitas (2021). The researchers did quasi-experimental research with three groups: one group had English classes with Grammar Translation Method (GTM), the other with a communicative approach, and the last with translanguaging pedagogy. The participants were intermediate and upper-intermediate EFL learners at a high school in Turkey. The researchers designed a translanguaging lesson by following the suggestions by Celic and Seltzer (2013) and applied these suggestions for four-language skills. They used the following activities for teaching and practising the four language skills: collaborative dialogues, bilingual reading texts, bilingual listening / visual resources, project learning, preview-view-review, comparing texts and word walls. Learners' attitudes towards translanguaging practice were also investigated. The results of the study indicated that the translanguaging pedagogy improved learners' four-language skills the most. The learners reported constructive, interactive, and effective benefits for translanguaging pedagogy because they could use all their linguistic resources for meaning-making and negotiation. The study is comprehensive; however, it does not suggest a systematic use of translanguaging pedagogy with a focus. It does not focus on a single skill and gives general suggestions. This study is different from it in that it

presents a systematic use of translanguageing for two receptive skills: reading and listening. Any language teacher can easily use the suggestions for listening and reading tasks.

The common finding among these studies is that translanguageing pedagogy can be integrated into teaching any language skill. However, there is a gap in the studies in that they do not propose a systematic integration of translanguageing pedagogy in teaching a specific language skill. This study aims to fill this gap.

The other common aspect of language for which the effects of translanguageing pedagogy have been investigated is vocabulary (Galante, 2020; Illman & Pietila, 2018; Rahmawansyah, 2019; Ong & Zhang, 2018). Galante (2020) studied the effects of translanguageing pedagogy on academic vocabulary learning through a mixed-method study. The researcher compared two groups of learners with translanguageing and monolingual pedagogies and allowed them to use all their language repertoires in the experiment group to learn academic vocabulary. The results indicated that the experiment group with translanguageing pedagogy outperformed the control group with higher academic vocabulary test scores. The learners in the translanguageing group engaged more in meaning-making across languages and took an active role in language learning. Illman and Pietila (2018) investigated how learners and learners with immigrant backgrounds experienced multilingualism in their English classes. The findings indicated that the learners benefitted from using their native languages mainly for vocabulary learning. The participant teachers reported that they had not received any training on integrating multilingualism into their classes. However, they developed some strategies to make use of their learners' native languages. Teachers' answers were compatible with learners' answers in that the participants used translanguageing mainly to compare vocabulary. Rahmawansyah (2019) conducted a qualitative study and investigated the benefits of using translanguageing pedagogy for learners in an EFL classroom in Indonesia. The study's findings suggest that translanguageing could help learners become more active in the class, more efficient communication can be created between teachers and learners, and teachers' translanguageing could help the low-level learners with English vocabulary. Ong and Zhang (2018) studied the effects of code-switching in a high task-based involved reading task on vocabulary retention and retrieval. The experimental group which studied the vocabulary through code-switching got higher scores than the comparison group, which did the task without lexical

glossing. This finding might verify the premises of translanguaging pedagogy for vocabulary learning.

It can be concluded from the findings above and findings of the studies for general language skills that translanguaging pedagogy might be valuable for vocabulary teaching and learning. As vocabulary knowledge is crucial for listening and reading skills, better learning through translanguaging might help learners comprehend listening and reading texts better, which is one of the aims of this study.

Reading and writing skills are two skills for which many translanguaging pedagogy studies have been conducted. Some studies focus on merely reading (Bin-Tahir et al., 2018; Chu, 2017; Hungwe, 2019; Moreno, 2018; Nagy, 2018; Pacheco et al., 2019; Parra & Proctor, 2021; Vaish & Subhan, 2015); whereas some others focus mainly on writing (Ali, 2021; Karabulut, 2019; Kaufhold, 2018; Lee, 2014; Turnbull, 2019). Two studies have studied reading and writing skills together (Abdulaal, 2020; Mbrimi-Hungwe, 2016). Bin-Tahir et al. (2018) used a translanguaging pedagogy for teaching Arabic reading and conducted quasi-experimental research. The findings indicated that the experimental group got much higher scores. However, the researchers do not present what kind of translanguaging strategies they used in the reading class. Chu (2017) investigated the effects of translanguaging on reading comprehension with three levels: literal, inferential, and evaluative comprehension. The researcher designed two versions of the reading assessment. In the first version, the questions and the text were only in the target language, whereas the second version had questions translated into learners' native language. The study results revealed that the translanguaging group performed better in the three levels of comprehension, and all levels showed high practical significance. Especially evaluative comprehension level was better with the questions in L1 and in the answers in which using the native language was allowed. The study's focus was on the assessment rather than the teaching and practice of the reading skill. To improve the reading comprehension of first-year medical learners learning English, Hungwe (2019) combined a paraphrasing strategy with a translingual approach to teaching learners how to read and comprehend the texts. The study used a qualitative design, and learners' writings were the primary data collected. The classroom task was similar to the translingual reading tasks in this study. An English text was given as homework, and after learners read it outside, the next class, they were to discuss the text as pairs and groups. They were to discuss the text's main ideas in any language they were comfortable with, and then they were to paraphrase the main idea and present it to

the class. The participants were different because they were multilingual with various linguistic backgrounds. The findings from learners' paraphrasing of the main idea indicated that adopting a translinguaging approach to infer the main idea increased learners' comprehension. The researcher concludes that '...the use of translinguaging provides a 'haven' for multilingual learners to negotiate the meaning of English texts' (Hungwe, 2019; 7). Moreno's study (2018) investigated the effects of providing spaces to let emergent bilinguals use their multilingual language practices on formative reading assessments. In this kind of translingual assessment, teachers make responsive adaptations. For example, instead of introducing only the target language, teachers can use learners' home languages to connect the new text with their previous experiences or cultural knowledge. Learners are encouraged to discuss what they have understood from the text in their native languages, and feedback for learners' performance is also provided in the target and native languages. The findings indicated supportive ideas of the three participant teachers for formative translingual reading assessment. Nagy (2018) used translinguaging pedagogy in a reading task in an EFL context in her study. The researcher aimed to observe learners' translinguaging strategies in the reading task and reveal their beliefs about using their native languages. The findings indicated that translating the paragraphs into their native language, Hungarian, was a common strategy, and learners could comprehend the whole story through that. The learners were to put the paragraphs in the correct order, and translinguaging helped learners to look for connectives, keywords, and repetitions in the text as the researcher concludes. Through a case study conducted in a language class with elementary level emerging bilingual learners, Pacheco et al. (2019) present how using entextualizing, envoicing, and recontextualizing (Canagarajah, 2011) strategies can support learners' participation in reading tasks. The researchers conducted three reading tasks: small group guided reading, buddy reading, and interactive read-aloud. In all these tasks, three translingual strategies were used. The findings indicated that translingual strategies helped learners clarify misunderstandings and deepen metalinguistic awareness in small-group guided reading tasks. The strategies helped learners engage in extended dialogue, describe the authors' messages, and leverage evidence to support interpretations in buddy reading. In the whole-class interactive read-aloud, translingual strategies supported learners in accessing the background knowledge and engaging in collaborative meaning-making. The study demonstrates how valuable translinguaging might be for reading tasks. The difference between our study and the study above is that the latter was conducted at the

elementary level as a case study. The data is lengthy observations and interviews with the teacher. Parra and Proctor (2021) adopted the translanguaging pedagogy for the English reading curriculum for upper-elementary learners. The researchers' approach was to use bilingual texts to allow flexible language use and bilingual language instruction. In the pilot study they published in 2021, the researchers investigated the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on morphology and syntax instruction. The analyses revealed that learners could establish connections between English and Spanish morphemes, compare English and Spanish morphology and syntax, and explore alternative syntactic structures. A translanguaging pedagogy supported learners' metalinguistic and cognitive engagement in the study. Vaish and Subhan (2015) conducted a study to analyse the teacher's translanguaging strategies in an elementary class in Singapore and its effects on the reading class. A key finding in the study was that the broad goal of translanguaging strategies was to mediate the academic content. Two primary purposes of the teacher's translanguaging were to aid comprehension and translate the vocabulary. The use of learners' native language also enhanced learners' interaction with the teacher and peers. Mgijima (2021) studied the effects of translanguaging on text prediction and comprehension. The findings indicated that translanguaging might have a positive impact on text prediction and comprehension. Nevertheless, learners' familiarity with the content, the context of the reading text, and vocabulary used in the text might hamper the effectiveness of the translanguaging technique.

The common finding among these studies can be summarized as more comprehension through lexical, semantic, morphologic comparisons between languages, more engagement in the task, and more interaction in reading tasks. Many of these studies allow using L1, however, they do not present a specific method or a systematicity for using translanguaging in reading tasks. This study aims to offer a systematic translanguaging reading task.

Writing skill is the other skill that has attracted the attention of many researchers for using translanguaging pedagogy (Ali, 2021; Karabulut, 2019; Kaufhold, 2018; Lee, 2014; Turnbull, 2019). Ali (2021) presents how translanguaging pedagogy might help multilingual learners develop essay writing skills in his reflection study. The researcher claims that translanguaging served as scaffolding in teaching tenses and led to more effective vocabulary learning. In the speaking tasks, when the learners were provided a time for discussion in the native language, the researcher claims that the learners

participated more. The researcher used multilingual collaborative groups and gave learners some time to discuss the content in their native languages. The research is in the form of a reflection and does not focus on a specific skill or has no statistical analyses. Karabulut (2019) studied the effects of using translanguaging pedagogy on writing. In the quasi-experimental, mixed-method study, the researcher conducted a monolingual class with one group and used a translanguaging pedagogy with two other experimental groups. The findings indicated that the learners found translanguaging pedagogy for writing moderately, mostly, and extremely useful. Mainly, the pedagogy helped them improve organization, planning, group work, grammar, vocabulary, and linkers. The researcher also found a statistically significant difference in experimental groups' writing scores. The study is similar to this study in that it is quasi-experimental with qualitative and quantitative data. However, this study focuses on the effects of translanguaging on receptive skills, whereas Karabulut's study was for a productive skill. Kaufhold (2018) investigated how postgraduate learners use their linguistic resources in academic writing. In her qualitative study, the researcher used the interview as a data collection tool and investigated two master's degree learners' theses. The findings indicated that varied language repertoires of learners could enable or restrict their capacities for academic writing. Furthermore, it revealed how multilinguals could use translanguaging spaces efficiently with their colleagues. The researcher concludes that translanguaging spaces can be used as a pedagogical tool for academic writing development. Lee (2014) used Canagarajah's (2011) concept of code-meshing and investigated the effects of using a translanguaging pedagogy in a composition class in an ESL context. The findings indicated how a translanguaging pedagogy could positively change learners' self-perceptions about language use both in and out of the class. In the Japanese EFL context, Turnbull (2019) investigated the effects of strong and weak forms of translanguaging on learners' academic and creative composition writing skills. The findings suggested that with a strong form of translanguaging, the learners performed better at the planning stage. They scored more than the group in which one of the languages was encouraged. The learners could produce more concise, well-formed essays with fewer misused lexical items from a lack of relevant knowledge or experiences.

Writing through translanguaging pedagogy studies have revealed that translanguaging could help learners in planning and organizing their writing, and it ensures more interaction during writing tasks. Apart from studies that focus on only

writing and reading, two studies, which study reading and writing skills together, have been discovered through the literature review (Abdulaal, 2020; Mbrimi-Hungwe, 2016). Abdulaal (2020) investigated the effects of translanguaging pedagogy on IELTS reading and writing scores. He put forth “stego-translanguaging,” which means indirect use of the native language in class. The learners in the researchers’ class were to carry out reading and writing activities, but before doing them, they were asked to read some of the topics in Arabic before doing reading and writing tasks. The purpose was to enhance learners’ knowledgeable backgrounds. The results of the quasi-experimental study indicated that the experimental group learners with the heteroglossic approach performed better in IELTS reading and writing sections than the learners in the control group, which did the same tasks with the monoglossic approach. Mbrim-Hungwe (2016) used translanguaging pedagogy and allowed university-level learners to discuss the main ideas of the texts they covered in the class in their native languages with their partners. The study is similar to this study in that it used translanguaging for reading, however, the researcher also analyzed learners’ written summaries of the main idea. By analyzing the learners’ summaries, the researcher concluded that the translanguaging approach might help learners understand the reading texts better than monolingual approaches. The effect was most on the unknown vocabulary and negotiation of meaning.

Although translanguaging pedagogy might seem inappropriate for teaching speaking skills, some studies have demonstrated the opposite (Aoyama, 2020; Flynn et al., 2019; Moore, 2013; Pierwieniecki & Smith, 2021; Sahib et al., 2021). Aoyama (2020) conducted a case study by collecting both qualitative and quantitative data. The study had two questions: (a) how do Japanese high school learners use their L1 in translanguaging during English communicative activities? (b) what are Japanese high school learners’ attitudes toward L1 use in translanguaging during English communicative activities? The findings indicated that EFL learners at the tertiary level in the Japanese context use their native language to varying degrees. In communicative tasks, there were five primary purposes of using translanguaging: fillers, backchannelling, asking for help, equivalents, and metalanguage. Flynn et al. (2019) investigated the effects of using translanguaging to help an emerging bilingual pre-schooler use her entire linguistic repertoire. The researchers investigated the storytelling progress of the learner over the school year and scaffolded his storytelling through translanguaging. The findings indicated that translanguaging helped the learner

use her entire linguistic repertoire. Towards the end of the year, the child was telling a story wholly in the target language. Moore (2013) investigated what contextual factors might influence learners' use of their native languages in peer interaction tasks. The study was conducted in an EFL context in Japan. The peer interaction tasks led up to oral presentations. The findings indicated that the learners used their native languages at the first stages of their interaction. The factors that may affect the use of the native language might be the differences in proficiency, levels of engagement with the task, the negotiation of task control, and educational roles. The findings indicated how naturally the use of the native language could occur in such a context. Teachers should be aware of these contextual conditions that affect the use of L1 for efficient planning. Pierwieniecki and Smith (2021) investigated whether translanguaging could scaffold discussion tasks in the Japanese EFL context. The findings indicated that although most learners mentioned the benefits of using their native languages, many supported only English. The learners who supported translanguaging suggested that it helped them share their complex ideas. The researchers recommend rethinking the use of L1 in such tasks for both teachers and learners. Sahib et al. (2021) present the reality in an EFL context by investigating how many different types of code-switching the learners use in group discussions. The studies' findings indicate that integrating learners' L1 into speaking tasks might improve learners' performances. Organizing their thoughts in the native language might help them perform better in the target language.

The last category that many translanguaging studies have been conducted for is class participation and task engagement (Daniel et al., 2017; Kwihangana, 2021; Mbrimi-Hungwe & McCabe, 2020; Muguruza et al., 2020; Rabbidge, 2019). Learners' beliefs about the benefits of translanguaging pedagogy are significant. Daniel et al. (2017) conducted a study with elementary teachers in an English-only environment. In this study, the teachers used consistent and well-designed scaffolding to encourage their learners to consider translanguaging as a norm. The teachers used scaffolding by building the new knowledge on learners' previous learning and experiences. The study presents how actively learners can participate in class tasks after teachers' scaffolding of translanguaging activities. Kwihangana (2021) used translanguaging strategies to improve multilingual learners' classroom engagement and their language skills. The learners did group tasks by translanguaging, and the researcher observed and conducted focus-group interviews with the participants. The findings revealed that learners acknowledged the benefits of translanguaging and engaged in translingual discussion

tasks. However, the learners were cautious about having a formal policy on using translanguaging in L2 classes. They preferred to be instructed and do class tasks in the target language. The researcher concluded that learners might consider English to be more relevant professionally and internationally. The context of the study was the same as ours in that the participants were preparatory class learners who were preparing for English-medium engineering departments. Mbrim-Hungwe and McCaba (2020) designed collaborative learning tasks in which they used translanguaging pedagogy to comprehend academic tasks for first-year medical learners. The results suggested that translanguaging pedagogy could enhance multilingual learners' understanding of concepts and their participation. The researchers suggest a 'transcollab' model of teaching for this effective integration. Muguruza et al. (2020) investigated a course teacher's flexible language policy to increase comprehension at an English medium university program in the Basque Country in Spain. The learners were Basque – Spanish bilinguals, and the teacher used these two languages and English in her classes. The researchers aimed to analyze the translanguaging features of the teacher and learners' reactions. The finding indicated differences in the language use of the teacher and learners, and learners supported flexible language use. They benefitted from it mainly due to more content comprehension, and they were more focused on the tasks. Lastly, Rabbidge (2019) employed pedagogic discourse theory in his study and investigated whether learner participation was affected by teachers' translanguaging practices in the South Korean context. In the qualitative study, the researcher used classroom observations and semi-structured interviews as data collection tools. The findings suggested that teachers' translanguaging may encourage learners to participate more by improving learners' comprehension of teacher talk. However, in IRF sequences, translanguaging practices may not provide learners with a space for critical and creative thinking. Therefore, teachers' translanguaging practices must be planned well. In short, a well-planned translanguaging pedagogy might increase learners' participation and task engagement thanks to more teacher and peer talk comprehension. Dryden et al. (2021) investigated the effects of using a translanguaging strategy to provide emotionally safe spaces for migrant adult EFL learners in Australia. The study's findings indicated that using translanguaging might alleviate Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) experienced by many migrant EFL learners. It may allow learners to share their lived experiences, problems, and emotional expressions more easily.

All these studies have indicated that translanguaging pedagogy can be integrated into EFL classes. However, there is still a gap in the field for practical suggestions for this integration. In which kind of activities can teachers integrate translanguaging pedagogy? Many of the presented studies do not focus on specific tasks and do not present practical suggestions. Moreover, to my knowledge, few studies have been conducted to integrate translanguaging pedagogy into listening tasks in the EFL context. To fill the gap, this study presents a systematic and strategic integration of translanguaging pedagogy into specifically receptive skill tasks, reading and listening. Comprehension is essential in reading and listening, and translanguaging is a promising construct to increase comprehension. That is why this study has been conducted. The belief studies have focused on teachers and learners, and some resemble traditional L1 in L2 context studies. This study investigates learners' beliefs only, and after experiencing translanguaging pedagogy, the changes in their beliefs have been studied.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the underlying premises of adopting the research paradigm and design. In-depth information about the participants, the translingual orientation adopted for listening and reading tasks, the data collection and analysis methods, validity and reliability checks, and ethical considerations will be presented.

3.1. Research Paradigm and Design

Every research study starts with shaping researchers' thoughts in the light of a research paradigm. In a good piece of research, making the paradigm or assumptions explicit and being aware of their influence on the inquiry is significant (Creswell, 2007). A paradigm indicates how meaning will be constructed from the data that the researcher collects, based on his individual experiences (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). In the choice of a paradigm, the researcher should be clear about philosophical assumptions. These philosophical assumptions consist of ontological, epistemological, axiological, rhetorical, and methodological assumptions (Creswell, 2003; Bryman, 2012). A researcher should answer the following questions to determine the philosophical assumptions: what the nature of reality is (ontological), what the relationship between the researcher and that being researched is (epistemological), what the role of values is (axiological), what the language of research is (rhetorical) and what the process of research is (methodological) (Creswell, 2007). The answers to these questions shape the worldview; that is, the paradigm of the research. In social studies, there are mainly four different types of paradigms: post-positivism, social constructivism, advocacy/participatory, and pragmatism. A researcher adopting the pragmatism paradigm focuses on the outcomes of the research-the actions, situations, and consequences of inquiry rather than antecedent conditions. The researcher with this worldview uses multiple data collection methods to best answer the research question and focuses on the practical implications of the research. According to Dörnyei (2007), there are three positions regarding the qualitative-quantitative difference: purist, situationist, and pragmatist. Pragmatists use both qualitative and quantitative types of data collection methods as the study requires.

This study adopts a pragmatist paradigm by using quantitative and qualitative data to arrive at a full understanding for the effect of translanguaging. The beliefs of learners are collected through a questionnaire and their answers for comprehension questions are compared statistically. These are the quantitative data, which adopts a positivist paradigm. However, open-ended questionnaires and interview is the qualitative data in the study and with this data constructivist paradigm is adopted. As triangulation was achieved through these two forms of data, pragmatist paradigm is adopted. The study has a relational epistemological stance. According to this, people know something by developing insights with other people and other things in the context (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). The other people and all the factors in the context shape knowledge. The ontological position is a 'non-singular' reality. According to this, reality cannot be explored totally. Each person's knowledge is constructed differently through their relationships with other people and other things in the context (Bryman, 2012). That is why qualitative data through open-ended questionnaires and interview was collected along with the quantitative data. The methodology of the study is a quasi-experiment with mixed-method data collection tools. The rhetoric adopted in the research is both first and third-person singular. While presenting the results of qualitative data collection tools such as teacher/researcher journals, the first-person singular is used, whereas the third-person singular is used to present quantitative results.

According to Bryman (2012), quasi-experiments are "studies that have certain characteristics of experimental designs but that do not fulfil all the internal validity requirements" (p.56). These types of studies are frequently conducted in the education field as it is impossible to fulfil all internal validity requirements. A mixed-method study means the use of both qualitative and quantitative data. In this study, both forms of data are used (questionnaire, teacher/researcher journals, statistical analyses of comprehension scores, open-ended questionnaires, semi-structured interviews) to achieve triangulation and build faith in the results. The axiology of the study is value laden. That means values play a role in interpreting the results; the researcher presents his subjective views in the interpretation; however, he also presents objective views by collecting quantitative data. The subjective and objective views were compared to arrive at an understanding of the results by analysing the quantitative and qualitative data.

3.2. Research Questions

The research was conducted to reveal learners' beliefs for translanguaging in the EFL context before and after the treatment and whether adopting a translingual approach can affect learners' listening and reading comprehension in an EFL context. Qualitative and quantitative data were collected and analysed to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL learners about translanguaging before the treatment?
2. What is the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on listening comprehension?
3. What is the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on reading comprehension?
4. What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL learners about translanguaging after the treatment?

3.3. Setting

The study was conducted at a state university in Turkey, Alanya Alaaddin Keykubat University, in the spring term of the 2019-2020 academic year. It was conducted in two preparatory classes in the School of Foreign Languages. English is taught as a foreign language in the context, and there are two terms in an academic year. The first term starts in September, and a break is given in January. The second term is from February to June. There are fourteen weeks in each term, and learners have twenty-four hours of English classes every week. Twenty of the classes are main-course classes in which four skills are taught and practised, two listening-speaking classes; and two other classes are writing classes. The learners start the academic year with an Elementary level, and the final level is Intermediate. The program aims to prepare learners for the studies in their majors, which are English medium. In the English preparatory program, four language skills are taught and practised with a General English curriculum. Support classes are provided for academic English by lecturers in the departments as two or four hours a week and language related to learners' academic majors are covered in these classes. Elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate level general English coursebooks are used for main course classes, whereas skill-based books are used for the other four classes. At the time of the study, one of the famous British made English coursebook series were used for the main course classes. Learners

are supposed to take four achievement exams, four quizzes, one writing portfolio assessment, and one speaking exam in an academic year. At the end of the year, they are to take a final proficiency exam which is Intermediate level. Fifty percent of all the grades that learners get from the exams, quizzes, portfolio, and speaking exam and fifty percent of the score they get from the final proficiency exam are calculated. If the average score is more than 70 out of 100, learners could have the right to start their departments. If the score is lower than 70, they must study the preparatory class again. Only one language instructor does main course classes in a class, they are not shared. The study was made in main course classes in which listening and reading skills are integrated. The researcher had classes with both the control and experimental groups.

3.3.1. Participants

The selection of participants is significant for the generalizability of the results; therefore, the population and sample should be planned well for the effectiveness of the study (Dörnyei, 2007). The population is “the group of people whom the study is about,”; whereas the sample is “the group of people whom the researcher examines” (Dörnyei, 2007, p.96). The population in the study is Intermediate level English as foreign language learners studying in preparatory classes at Turkish universities. The sample is 56 learners. The sampling method used in the research is convenience sampling which is a non-probability type of sampling method. According to Bryman (2012), “a convenience sample is one that is simply available to the researcher by virtue of its accessibility” (p.201). The researcher had 20 hours of main course classes with both experimental and control groups, and a good, friendly rapport was built with both groups due to being together for many hours a week. To collect qualitative data, particularly teacher journals and observation, the convenience sampling method was appropriate. Furthermore, to collect more qualitative data such as open-ended questionnaires and interviews, the number of participants was to be limited for the practicality of data collection and analysis.

Representativeness of the population by the sample is crucial. That can be guaranteed by choosing probability sampling methods and using large samples, which might not be practical in social research. According to Dörnyei (2007), “No matter how principled a non-probability sample strives to be, the extent of generalizability in this type of sample is often negligible” (p.99). The researcher is aware of these limitations;

however, as the study was conducted using various data collection methods and in a context in which the researcher should participate actively, a non-probability convenience sampling was used.

There were 30 learners in the control group and 26 learners in the experimental group. All the learners were intermediate level after completing the first term in which they studied elementary and pre-intermediate levels and became successful in the exams. All the exams at the institution are prepared with the chosen questions in a large question pool and reliability and validity checks of the questions are made every year by analyzing the learner responses through a statistical program. Validity and reliability checks for each question are done and the ones with highest quality are selected and separated in a different pool for the following years. The questions are prepared by the testing office using coursebook exam packs and every academic year, validity and reliability checks are done and the questions with high scores are included in the question pool. The grade-point averages of both groups were calculated before conducting the study by considering all the grades that learners got from the exams for elementary and pre-intermediate levels in the first term. When they started the intermediate level, the control group had a grade-point average of 67, 67, whereas the experimental group had 69, 57. Moreover, the “Oxford Quick Placement Test” was done with all participants and the results indicated that they were in the intermediate level. The test did not contain listening, writing, and speaking skills. Only structural linguistic knowledge of the learners was assessed. It could be a limitation of using quick placement test, but it was only used to check whether the scores from previous elementary and pre-intermediate levels were reliable. The study was conducted when the learners stated the intermediate level, therefore, it was considered inappropriate to conduct a standardized test as learners did not have knowledge and practice on these exams. To prevent the potential washback effects of international exams on learners, they were not used to evaluate learners’ proficiency levels. Through learners’ grade point averages and results of the placement test, it was concluded that the learners in both groups were at the same level.

Table 2

Gender of Participants

GENDER	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	35	62,5	62,5	62,5
Female	21	37,5	37,5	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

As shown in Table 2, out of 56 participants, 35 were male, and 21 were female.

Table 3

Native Languages of Participants

NATIVE LANGUAGE	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Turkish	54	96,4	96,4	96,4
Arabic	2	3,6	3,6	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Table 3 demonstrates that Turkish was the native language for 54 participants, whereas two learners were international learners whose native language was Arabic. One of these students was from Syria, whereas the other was from Yemen. Many of the learners at Turkish universities are Turkish, and international ones mainly come from Middle East countries. One of the international learners was in the control group, whereas the other was in the experimental group. In translingual listening and reading tasks, Turkish was used as the native language. Normally, it would be more appropriate to group the learners with the same native languages; however, as these Arabic speakers were in different classes, it was impossible to pair them.

Table 4

Foreign Languages of the Participants

FOREIGN LANGUAGE	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid English	56	100,0	100,0	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

It is evident in Table 4 that all the participants used or learned English as a foreign language. Turkish was the second language for foreign learners. Turkish was used in the translingual breaks in listening and reading tasks as all learners were proficient.

3.4. Data Collection

3.4.1. Data Collection Procedure

The study started in January 2020. The spring term at the university started in the first week of February. Planning, conducting the teaching, collecting data, and analysing all data took eight months. The following steps were followed for the study:

1. Five listening and five reading activities with a translingual perspective in the experimental group and a monolingual perspective in the control group were planned. Ten comprehension questions were prepared for each listening and reading task.
2. Authorities at the university were informed about the study, and the necessary formal permissions were obtained.
3. The participants were informed about the study, and they signed informed consent forms.
4. The translanguaging beliefs questionnaire was conducted with 56 learners in the experimental and control groups. The findings were analysed through descriptive statistical analysis.
5. The activities were conducted in both experimental and control groups. In the experimental group, one reading and one listening task in each unit were conducted with a translingual perspective, whereas the same tasks were conducted with a monolingual perspective in the control group. Ten comprehension questions were the same for both groups and in the activities, and the participants were required to answer ten comprehension questions after each task. During the tasks, the teacher-researcher kept field notes, and after each lesson, he organized these notes as lists. The questions were graded by the teacher-researcher and the other colleague researcher. The scores that learners in both groups had were compared through statistical analyses. The tasks lasted for five weeks.

6. An open-ended questionnaire was conducted in the control group. A qualitative analysis was conducted.
7. An open-ended questionnaire for the experimental group was conducted. The questions were formed according to the findings of the questionnaire that was conducted with the control group. A qualitative analysis was conducted for the findings.
8. An interview with nine voluntary learners from the experimental group was conducted. A qualitative analysis was done.
9. The findings of all the analyses for each data collection method were compared to arrive at a complete understanding. Writing the report began.

As Table 5 displays, quantitative and qualitative data were collected to answer the research questions and triangulate data.

Table 5

Data Collection Methods to Answer Research Questions

Research Questions	Data Sources	Data Collection Tools
1. What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL learners about translanguageing before the treatment?	Experimental Group Control Group	- Translanguageing beliefs questionnaire
2. What is the effect of translanguageing pedagogy on listening comprehension?	Experimental Group Control Group	- Comparison of control and experimental groups by analysing the scores for listening comprehension activities in the coursebook. - Teacher/researcher journals - Open-ended questionnaire - Interview
3. What is the effect of translanguageing pedagogy on reading comprehension?	Experimental Group Control Group	- Comparison of control and experimental groups by analysing the scores for reading comprehension activities in the coursebook. -Teacher/researcher journals -Open-ended questionnaire -Interview
4. What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL learners about translanguageing after the treatment?	Experimental Group	-Teacher/researcher journals - Open-ended questionnaire - Interview

3.4.2. Quantitative Data

Nunan (1992) claims that the distinction between quantitative and qualitative research is that both approaches “represent different ways of thinking about and understanding the world around us” (p.76). Quantitative data deals with numbers, and it has the tenets of the positivist paradigm, which aims to provide explanations and make predictions based on measurable outcomes. The strengths of using quantitative data collection are that the findings might be objective, high numbers of participants can be reached with a limited number of questions, the ease of analysis with statistics software, and a quest for generalizability and universal laws (Dörnyei, 2007). The weaknesses of quantitative data are that it fails to distinguish people and nature, and instruments hinder the connection between people and research (Bryman, 2012). Quantitative data collection can be in two ways, either through questionnaires, surveys, or quantified data. Questionnaires might be the most common quantitative data collection method in social studies (Dörnyei, 2007). The other form of quantitative data collection, quantified data, is also utilized in interviews, open-ended questionnaires, and observation. Validity in a quantitative data collection depends on the instrument construction; therefore, the questionnaire to be used in a study must be well designed and analysed for validity and reliability checks.

The study has two forms of quantitative data: the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire and the comprehension scores that learners in both control and experimental groups got for listening and reading tasks.

3.4.2.1. Translanguaging Beliefs Questionnaire

At the beginning of the spring term of 2019-2020, the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire was conducted with 56 learners in the experimental and control groups. The questionnaire aimed to answer the third research question and reveal learners’ translanguaging beliefs before adopting listening and reading tasks with a translanguaging approach. The questionnaire was taken from the study called “Code-Switching Beliefs Scale: A Scale Development Study” (Yaşar & Yıldız, 2018). The original questionnaire was in Turkish, and it was conducted in Turkish in the study to prevent ambiguities. The following minor adaptations were made in line with the study's aims.

The original questionnaire was created to reveal preparatory level university learners’ beliefs about code-switching in their English classes (Yaşar & Yıldız, 2018).

As mentioned in the literature review although code-switching and translanguaging are different concepts, translanguaging could entail code-switching and translation for communicative or educational success. Ortega (2019) states that ‘...translanguaging may include translation and code-switching practices, not necessarily as a shuttle between two languages, but as elaborated bilingual linguistic practices to make sense by doing various production and comprehension tasks’ (p.159). For example, a teacher does code-switch while teaching a concept. First, he teaches the subject in the target language of learners and then switches to the native language. Or he can give explanations about a subject in the native language of learners, encourage them to discuss with their partners in their native languages and then wants a final product in the target language. These can be some examples of translanguaging practice done by teachers. Moreover, the comprehensive literature review conducted in the planning stage of the study indicated that there were not many translanguaging belief studies and most were about code-switching. Especially, in studies with a fixed languages approach, code-switching might be a frequent practice while doing translanguaging. Therefore, the questionnaire by Yaşar and Yıldız (2018) was found most appropriate for the aims of this study. Some adaptations were conducted to match the questionnaire with the aims of the study.

The researchers created the first form of the questionnaire with 55 items, and exploratory factor analysis was conducted with 571 participants. Confirmatory factor analysis was done with 587 other participants studying at preparatory classes in different universities to test the scale's construct validity. As a result of the analysis, a questionnaire was created with 35 items under four dimensions: clarity, efficacy, language skills, and psychological factors. In the original questionnaire, the clarity section consists of 25 items, efficacy, four items, language skills, three items, and psychological factors, three items. The clarity section aims to reveal learners’ beliefs about code-switching to make learning and teaching processes easier to understand and less confusing. Code-switching while teaching-learning difficult subjects, while making explanations about exams, and when the learners need clarification about whether the subject has been understood or not are all in this clarity dimension. The second dimension, efficacy, is about whether code-switching enhances the efficacy of teaching and learning processes and whether it makes learning and teaching processes easier or not. The third dimension is language skills, and it is about learners’ beliefs about whether code-switching affects listening, reading, writing, and speaking skills

negatively or not. Finally, the psychological factors section aims to reveal the affective dimension of code-switching. All the acts in the items can be done as translanguaging in a class with translingual pedagogy with fixed languages approach.

All 25 items are positive in the clarity section. In the efficacy section, two items are positive, whereas two are negative. All the items in language skills and psychological factors are negative items. The questionnaire is 5-point Likert-scale: (1: completely disagree, 5: completely agree).

Table 6

Reliability Analysis of the Original Questionnaire

	All Scale	Clarity	Efficacy	Language Skills	Psychological Factors
Number of items	35	25	4	3	3
Cronbach α	0,94	0,95	0,73	0,80	0,71

It can be concluded from Table 6 that all dimensions in the questionnaire have acceptable internal consistency reliability. Pallant (2010) states that the reliability score of a 5-point Likert-Scale must be close to 1. It can be said that all the dimensions in the questionnaire are reliable.

The original questionnaire asks for the beliefs of learners about code-switching. Translanguaging can be summarized as doing code-switching for better comprehension or another specific reason (Garcia, 2007). Code-switching is a natural outcome of translanguaging ability and the fixed language approach to translanguaging studies. Many of the items in the original questionnaire ask for actions that can be seen in translanguaging. However, some adaptations in line with the aims of the study were made in the questionnaire.

In the language skills section, there were questions only for listening and speaking skills. The researcher added items 32 and 33 without damaging the sentence structure of the previous items.

Item 32: “The use of Turkish affects reading skill negatively.”

Item 33: “The use of Turkish affects writing skill negatively.”

In the study, learners did multilingual collaborative pair-group work activities. Item 34 was added by the researcher to reveal learners' beliefs for translanguageing in these activities.

Item 34: "Using Turkish with my friends in group-pair work activities affects my English negatively."

The written items were checked and approved by another colleague researcher who had expert knowledge.

Section six with six items were added by considering Dykhanova's (2015) and Van der Walt's (2006) studies to reveal learners' translanguageing practices in English classes. The items were directly taken from the studies. Instead of 5-point Likert-Scale, 4-point frequency scale with frequency adverbs (Never-Sometimes-Often-Always) was used in the part (see Appendix A).

The adapted questionnaire was given to 56 learners, and reliability scores in Table 7 were obtained.

Table 7

Reliability Analysis of the Adapted Questionnaire

	All Scale	Clarity	Efficacy	Language Skills	Psychological Factors
Number of Items	38	25	4	6	3
Cronbach α	0.95	0.91	0.86	0.93	0.88

The "translanguageing practices" part was excluded from reliability analysis because it asked for the frequency of learners' translanguageing practices in the class. The other four parts of the questionnaire and the entire questionnaire have a Cronbach Alfa score close to 1, which means that the questionnaire is highly reliable.

3.4.2.2. Listening-Reading Comprehension Scores

The learners' listening and reading comprehension scores in the experimental and control groups are the other quantitative data in the study. In the experimental group, listening and reading tasks were done with a translingual perspective. In the control group, they were done only in the target language, adopting a monolingual perspective. The tasks were taken from the intermediate-level course book that was covered in the

preparatory program. For each listening and reading task, ten comprehension questions were prepared by the researcher. Some of these questions were taken directly from the coursebook, but the researcher created some others. The question types were designed not to allow multiple answers for the reliability of scoring. All the questions were checked and approved by another colleague researcher with expert knowledge. Similarly, giving scores for the comprehension questions was done by the researcher himself and the other researcher. Five listening and five reading tasks were implemented with a translingual perspective in the experimental group. The same number of tasks were conducted with monolingual orientation in the control group. Each of these tasks had ten comprehension questions, and these questions were the same for experimental and control groups. In the statistical analysis of the scores, none of the tasks met normality criteria in the distribution of the scores; therefore, instead of parametric t-Test, non-parametric alternative, Mann-Whitney U test was conducted for each comparison of the scores between control and experimental groups.

3.4.2.3. The Adaptation of Listening and Reading Tasks with a Translanguaging Pedagogy

All adaptations were made by considering the suggestions in the translanguaging guide by Celic and Seltzer (2013). The activities suggested are done frequently in multilingual immigration programs in the U.S., but, to my knowledge, it was one of the first studies to implement them in the EFL context by suggesting a translanguaging pedagogy design for listening and reading tasks in an EFL context. The adaptations were made for the Intermediate level coursebook. One listening and one reading activity in five units were adapted according to the principles of translanguaging pedagogy in Celic and Seltzer (2013).

In the guide, there are three questions to consider while deciding whether it is possible to integrate translingual pedagogy or not as follows.

1. Could emergent bilinguals discuss the topic in their home language as well as English?
2. Could emergent bilinguals read or listen to some texts about the topic in their home language to develop background knowledge?
3. Could emergent bilinguals do some of their reading and listening work in the home language as well as English? (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p.51)

If the answers are positive for these questions, multilingual collaborative work activities could be designed with a translanguaging pedagogy. Two essential questions in such activities are:

1. How can we design collaborative work that encourages learners to use both their home languages and English to make meaning?
2. How can these activities build learners' listening and reading skills? (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p.116)

The answers for these questions shape the translanguaging strategies in reading and listening groups or pairs. In the guide, sample activities and strategies are provided for listening and reading skills as follows:

For a collaborative task in the reading tasks:

Read in English and discuss in any language: you can have a literature circle, book club, or guided reading group read a particular text in English. The discussions about the reading text could be done in learners' home language. Using both languages helps learners negotiate the meaning of the text and express a higher level of critical thinking skills when talking about the text (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p.117).

Listen in English and discuss in any language: in listening, you can begin by having learners listen to a content-area lesson, text, or media in English. They could be listening to you talk about a topic, listening to someone read a text, or watching media about the topic. You may want to have learners individually take notes in class as they listen to the text or media. Depending on the activity, you can indicate which language learners should use for the note-taking or leave it up to them. In discussion, you can then provide time for collaborative groups to discuss what they just listened to. This discussion can take place in English and/or the home language – whatever language will help learners negotiate the meaning of what they heard. If learners took notes while listening, they can compare what they wrote, decide what additional notes they should write down, or decide what they should change (Celic & Seltzer, 2013, p.116).

Four premises of translanguaging pedagogy as multilingual collaborative work were provided in the guide as follows:

Translingual collaborative work will:

- engage bilingual learners in higher-order thinking skills,
- build bilingual learners' content knowledge,
- scaffold bilingual learners' literacy skills in English (When we encourage bilingual learners to use multiple languages to make sense of a text they have read

or heard in English, their comprehension improves. Moreover, when we encourage bilingual learners to use their home languages to discuss how to create a written product in English, the English writing they jointly produce is of a higher quality. This space for making connections between languages is an essential component of developing proficiency in a new language.)

- develop bilingual learners’ home language abilities (Celic & Seltzer, 2013).

By following the suggestions in the guide, multilingual collaborative work was implemented by using cooperative activity design ‘think-pair-share’ (Olsen & Kagan, 1992). The ‘pair’ step in preview, view and review cycles could be done in the native language for a limited time, which has been called a ‘translingual break’ in the study. The translingual breaks in each of the preview, view and review phase was three minutes long. In total, nine minutes were provided to learners to discuss in their native languages in each reading and listening task. The total of the tasks lasted nearly thirty or forth minutes and nine minutes of it was in the native language. In the translanguaging guide, Preview-View-Review (Freeman & Freeman, 2007), K-W-L charts, and anticipation guides were implemented in multilingual classes with a translingual perspective in mainstream education programs and have provided effective results. These were implemented in the EFL course-book in listening and reading sections in the following way.

Preview

It included brainstorming, making connections, and sharing prior knowledge on the topic/text learners were about to cover.

If there was a discussion or a debatable statement:

- learners filled in the following anticipation guide:

Statement	Agree	Disagree	Why?
A debatable statement about the topic learners will learn about in the unit/lesson	Learners check the box that represents their opinion on the statement.		Learners explain why that is their opinion in the home language and/or English.

Learners worked in pairs and did the preview activities together first in their native languages. They could fill in the anticipation guide in Turkish and discuss it with their peers. The whole class discussion was held in the target language.

If there was no debatable statement:

- they filled in K (know) –W (want to know) –L (learned) chart together with their peers by discussing in their native language. They left the “L” section to the review.

What I know (K)	What I want to know (W)	What I Learned (L)

If there was vocabulary:

- they created the following chart with their peers:

	English	Turkish
Meaning		
Sample Sentence		

This way, learners discussed the meanings of new vocabulary both in their native languages and in English. They compared syntactic and semantic features of words in L2 with their repertoires in L1.

After they brainstormed all their ideas in their native languages, they summarized the main points in English to each other and the class. The final product was always in English. The teacher did not use Turkish much while talking to learners not to cause a habit to use native language with their teacher all time. The use of native language was limited to the translingual breaks in preview, view and review phases.

With this preview section, learners’ prior knowledge might have been activated, and they got ready to listen or read in L2.

View the topic/text in English

Learners were presented with the lesson/content topic in English. The content presentation included listening to an audio file or reading a text independently, in partnerships/groups, or aloud as a whole class. In both listening and reading tasks, the

text was divided into equal pauses, and translingual breaks were provided to let learners discuss with their partners in their native languages.

While listening or reading, learners were free to annotate in their native languages. However, if they shared them with the class or their teachers, they would have to translate them into the target language.

In a reading text, learners underlined sentences or vocabulary which were challenging to understand. In the translingual breaks and after listening or reading finished, they were free to discuss these underlined parts with their partners in their native languages. Some sentences were underlined, and numbers were given to them, and in the review part of the class, learners did a translation competition for these underlined parts.

Review

It included discussing, summarizing, and analysing the text/topic in the home language with partners. This step might have helped learners clarify and negotiate what they learned in English, solidifying their understanding of the content. In that way, they might have been more ready for whole-class discussion activities in English.

They filled in the “L” part of the KWL chart. They discussed what they had learned with their peers, first in their native language and then in the target language. They discussed if their opinions changed by considering the anticipation guide. It was done in Turkish first by pairs and then in English as a whole class. They summarized the reading/listening text. They discussed their summaries with peers in their native language, but they had to present them to class in English. If there was enough time, a translation competition was conducted by using online interactive presentation software. The final whole-class discussion was done in English. After preview-view-review sequences, the learners answered the comprehension questions that were handed out on a paper.

The comprehension questions for each task were the same for the experimental and control groups. The papers were checked by the researcher and the other colleague researcher, and scores were given to both groups. These scores were compared statistically to determine whether there were any differences between conducting listening and reading tasks with translingual and monolingual orientation.

3.4.3. Qualitative Data

Qualitative research deals with the depth of information (Bryman, 2012). This in-depth information is collected from a smaller number of people and cases. The instrument is paramount in quantitative research, whereas the researcher is significant in collecting and analysing qualitative data; therefore, the researcher is like the instrument (Morse & Richards, 2002). Creswell (2007) mentions that “qualitative research is an intricate fabric composed of minute threads, many colours, different textures, and various blends of material” (p.35). According to the researcher, a single definition for qualitative research cannot be suggested as it is “like the loom on which fabric is woven, general worldviews and perspectives hold qualitative research together” (p.35). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005), “qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible” (p.3).

The aim of qualitative research can be summarized as to understand human experience and behaviour better. In pure qualitative research, an emergent research design is used to answer research questions in natural research setting with a small sample size. The interpretive analysis is conducted by the researcher, an insider in the research setting (Dörnyei, 2007). Interviewing, observing, keeping journals, collecting, and examining materials or documents are the most common qualitative data collection methods in social research. These data collection methods are advantageous because they provide data collected through first-hand experience as the researcher is an insider. Denzin (1989) also suggests that qualitative data is an alternate data source for cross-checking and triangulation. That is why qualitative data is used to triangulate the quantitative data with a mixed-method research design in this study.

Using only qualitative research design is sometimes criticized by claiming that the data collected through qualitative research is worthless and unreliable. Researchers are like journalists, and studies are full of bias and unscientific (Bryman, 2012). The main cause of criticism for qualitative research is its nature which does not allow for replication. The findings revealed through qualitative research cannot be generalized. Despite the criticism, qualitative research is frequently conducted in social research to arrive at a comprehensive understanding of cases or people. This criticism mainly arises from a lack of transparency. It is significant in qualitative research for the researcher to explain the participants, choice of data collection methods and data analysis methods,

and how conclusions are drawn. The validity and reliability section and data collection tools in the following pages will mention how all of these are done for this study.

Interview, semi-structured open-ended questionnaires, and teacher-researcher journals were the qualitative data collection tools used in the study. They were used as a method for triangulation to answer the first and second research questions; however, they were the primary data to find answers for the fourth research question.

3.4.3.1. Teacher-Researcher Journals

Research journals are diaries kept by the researcher considering the topic of the investigation (Dörnyei, 2007). Silverman (2005) claims that “by research journals, you can show your readers the development of your thinking, help your reflection, improve your time management, provide ideas for the future direction of your work” (In Dörnyei, 2007, p.52). The journals were kept by considering Silverman’s (2005) suggestions for keeping journals. In an efficient research journal, the researcher should write observation notes about experiences, methodological notes about how and what kind of data was collected, theoretical notes describing hunches, hypotheses, and ideas, personal notes containing feeling statements.

The researcher kept teacher-researcher journals for the listening and reading tasks in the experimental and control groups. The observation was done during the activities, notes were taken in a detailed way with the following six questions in mind, and journals were written after each class by the researcher by considering these notes. Mason (1996) states that observation “involves the researcher immersing himself in research setting and systematically observing dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions, and events within it” (p.60). A full-participant, overt, and single (limited duration) observation was conducted (Palton, 1990). The observed participants were partially informed about the purpose of the observation to observe their typical actions. The researcher stated that he would observe them for their group work activities and whether they were performing well enough, which is the regular action of teachers while their learners are doing group work activities. If the participants were fully informed about the role of observation which was mainly done to reveal if learners were performing better in translingual or monolingual group activities, they could have performed differently and been more careful. The tasks in both experimental and control groups were observed with the following questions in mind:

1. Did learners discuss warm-up activities efficiently?
2. Could they participate in efficient pair-group work during listening and reading tasks?
3. After the listening and reading task finished, did the pairs efficiently summarize and talk about the text's main ideas in pairs?
4. What were the differences in these activities between the control and experimental groups?
5. What might be the problems that learners had?
6. What kind of questions did learners ask, and what comments did they make about listening and reading tasks?

By considering these questions, the teacher-researcher observed each task and took jotted notes (Bryman, 2012). Jotted notes are “very brief notes written down on pieces of paper to jog one’s memory about events that should be written up later” (Bryman, 2012, p.450). After each observed class, he kept journals considering the jotted notes.

3.4.3.2. Open-Ended Questionnaires

3.4.3.2.1. Open-Ended Questionnaire for the Control Group

An open-ended questionnaire with six open-ended questions was conducted with the control group (see Appendix D). The purpose of this questionnaire was to reveal whether learners had any difficulties in reading and listening tasks in which they could use only the target language and, if they had, what these difficulties were. The other open-ended questionnaire conducted with the experimental group was prepared by considering the results of this questionnaire. The purpose was to determine if conducting listening and reading tasks with a translingual perspective could overcome learners' difficulties in the tasks in which they could only use the target language.

Bryman (2012) claims that an open-ended questionnaire is very similar to a structured interview and claims the advantages of the former over the latter as follows: It is cheaper and quicker to administer, absence of the interviewer may affect responses positively, there might be no interviewer variability, and it is more convenient for respondents as they can do it in a place, and at a time they are available. Dörnyei (2007) compares the questionnaire in terms of qualitative and quantitative distinction and

suggests that although questionnaires are not a method of genuinely qualitative research, some open-ended questions can still make them qualitative. Cohen gives the following practical suggestions to consider when preparing a questionnaire:

An efficient questionnaire

- is clear on its purposes,
- is clear on what needs to be included or covered to meet its purposes,
- is exhaustive in its coverage of the elements of inclusion,
- asks appropriate kinds of questions,
- elicits most appropriate kind of data,
- asks for empirical data (Cohen, 2000, p.247)

As Cohen (2000) further suggests, “the process of operationalizing a questionnaire is to take a general-purpose or a set of purposes and turn these into concrete, researchable fields about which actual data can be gathered” (p.246). It can be concluded from this statement that the first step in designing a questionnaire is clarifying the general purpose and transforming it into a specific and concrete set of aims. The general purpose of the questionnaire was to reveal learners’ ideas about the difficulties, if there were any, in listening – reading tasks in which they could use only the target language. As these activities were conducted in pairs or groups, their ideas for the efficiency of pair-group work activities for reading and listening tasks were also asked (see Appendix D). The questions in the questionnaire were all attitudinal questions, the purpose of which was to reveal what the participants thought. While writing these questions, special attention was given to the following suggestions by Cohen suggests avoiding:

- leading questions,
- highbrow questions,
- complex questions,
- irritating questions or instructions,
- questions that use negatives or double negatives (Cohen, 2000, p.248-249)

All six questions were written and conducted in Turkish to prevent ambiguity. After they were written, they were checked by the colleague researcher for spelling, clarity, and the criteria above. After necessary changes were made according to the suggestions by the colleague, the questionnaire was piloted with five learners out of the

experimental and control groups. In the piloting, special attention was paid to the following points:

- clarity of instructions, items, and layout was checked,
- ambiguities and difficulties in wording were eliminated,
- feedback was sought on the attractiveness and appearance,
- approximate time to fill in the questionnaire was checked,
- redundant questions which gained ‘yes’ and ‘no’ responses were changed,
- The participants' answers were checked for their appropriateness for content analysis (for coding/classification).

After the piloting process, the questionnaire was given the final shape and conducted with the control group in class.

3.4.3.2.2. Open-Ended Questionnaire for the Experimental Group

After the data gathered from the control group was analysed, an open-ended questionnaire for the experimental group was created to reveal if adopting a translingual approach can overcome the difficulties that the control group had (see Appendix E). There were 19 questions in the questionnaire, and eight of them were about listening tasks, seven were about reading tasks, and four were about translingual preview and review activities. The purpose was to reveal whether a translingual perspective could overcome the difficulties in the control group's activities. The questions were semi-structured rather than entirely open-ended. Cohen states that “between a completely open questionnaire that is akin to an open invitation to write “what one wants” and a closed, completely structured questionnaire, there is a powerful tool of the semi-structured questionnaire” (Cohen, 2000, p.249). In a semi-structured questionnaire, “there is a clear structure, sequence, and focus, but the format is open-ended enabling the respondents to respond in his terms” (Cohen, 2000, p.249). It can be concluded that the semi-structured questionnaire does not presume the nature of the response.

All the criteria above for the open-ended questionnaire for the control group were followed while preparing the questions for the experimental group. The most significant difference is that the questions were more focused for the experimental group as the focus was more limited. The researcher is aware that asking many questions in an open-

ended questionnaire is not practical. However, to cover all the common difficulty factors, 19 questions were asked. This questionnaire was conducted online by using 'Google Forms'. It was conducted at the time of the outbreak of Covid-19, and the school was closed, and it was not possible to conduct the questionnaire in class. The response rate can be low in a questionnaire with many questions. However, the participants were told that their honest responses were significant for the quality of the study, and they were convinced that their answers would be kept secret. The response rate was high because of that.

3.4.3.3. Interview

After the analysis of the open-ended questionnaire for the experimental group finished, an interview with nine volunteer learners was conducted. In the open-ended questionnaire, one section asked whether learners could participate in an interview voluntarily, and nine learners volunteered. The interview was conducted through an online meeting through Zoom® with each interviewee as the school was closed due to the Covid pandemic.

An interview can be described as a conversation with a purpose, and it is obtaining data about people by asking questions rather than observing those behaviours. The purpose of an interview is to obtain research-relevant information. Kvale uses the term 'professional conversation' for the interview and gives its purpose as "to obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee for interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena" (Kvale, 1996, mentioned in Dörnyei, 2007, p.134). There are three kinds of interviews: structured, semi-structured, and qualitative interviews (Bryman, 2012). A structured interview is more like a quantitative data collection tool, and the answers that the interviewees will give are shaped like they are in a structured questionnaire. A qualitative interview gives the researcher the most profound data, but the disadvantage is that it could be challenging to organize and analyse the data. A semi-structured interview is the most frequently used interview type in applied linguistics. Bryman (2012) states that the interviewer has some questions or plans of the topic covered during the interview in a semi-structured interview. This list of questions or planning of the topic to be covered is usually referred to as an interview guide. Still, interviewees have flexibility in how to reply to the questions in a semi-structured interview compared to the structured one. Dörnyei (2007) emphasizes the difference

between semi-structured interviews from the structured interview by stating that “although there is a set of pre-planned guiding questions and prompts in a semi-structured interview, the format is open-ended, and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner” (p.136).

It is widespread in the applied language research field to see an interview as a data collection method with other methods. Kerlinger (1970) claims that interviews help follow up unexpected results, validate other methods, or go deeper into the participants' thoughts (Kerlinger, 1970, mentioned in Cohen, 2000). An interview was conducted after the open-ended questionnaire with the experimental group to validate the findings of the questionnaire. It is also a fact that participants in an interview are more involved, and it has a higher rate of response when it is compared to other collection methods. The interviewer can also ask follow-up questions, allowing him for greater depth in data collection. The most significant disadvantage of using an interview as a data collection tool might be the fact that “it might be prone to subjectivity and bias on the part of the interviewer” (Cohen, 2000, p.269). Preparing an interview guide can lower the risk, and it is necessary for a semi-structured type of interview. According to Dörnyei, an interview guide can help a researcher in the following ways.

- by ensuring that the domain is adequately covered and nothing important is left out by accident,
- by suggesting appropriate question wordings,
- by offering a list of helpful probe questions to be used if needed,
- by offering a template for the opening statement
- by listing some comments to bear in mind (Dörnyei, 2007, p.137)

Bryman (2012) cautions the researchers for the use of interview guides. In order not to distort the nature of the interview as a qualitative data collection tool, he warns that the questions should not be too structured and should allow some flexibility.

The interview guide for the study was prepared considering the findings of the open-ended questionnaire for the experimental group. An interview was used to go deeper into participants' thoughts about using the translingual perspective for reading and listening tasks and to validate the findings of the other data collection tools. Three questions were asked for listening, three for reading tasks, and one for whether learners should have translingual breaks in coursebook listening and reading activities (see Appendix F). The interview was conducted in Turkish to enable learners to express

themselves more clearly. All questions were semi-structured, and they allowed learners to give their answers as well. Two other colleagues checked the prepared questions for wording and clarity, and necessary changes were made. The interview was conducted one-to-one with each participant through the online meeting application Zoom®. Firstly, the participants were told about the interview's purposes and were reminded that the researcher would record only their voices. They were told that every thought was welcomed, and their recordings would not be shared with anyone except the researcher. The atmosphere appeared to be friendly with each participant because they had known the researcher beforehand.

After all the interviews with nine participants were conducted, the voice recordings were transcribed by the researcher. The transcription took nearly a month and a half because they were transcribed three times, and time intervals were given between each transcription not to miss anything in the data.

3.5. Data Analysis

3.5.1. Analysis of the Quantitative Data

3.5.1.1. Analysis of Translanguaging Beliefs Questionnaire

Using descriptive statistics, it is possible to summarize findings by describing general tendencies in the data and the overall spread of scores (Dörnyei, 2007). Descriptive statistics was conducted through SPSS 22 for the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire. After the questionnaire was conducted, the researcher entered the data into the program, and all the data was checked for missing data. The first two parts of the questionnaire collected demographic information about the participants. These parts were analysed for the frequencies. The data was analysed for central tendencies in the other parts in which Likert-Scale and frequency adverbs were used.

In Dörnyei's words, "measures of central tendency describe the data set with a single numerical value" (Dörnyei, 2007, p.213). It provides the researcher and readers 'an average for distribution' (Bryman, 2012, p.338). Three measures that are commonly used and used in the study for central tendencies are:

Mean: Mean is the average of all the scores. As it calculates all the scores, it is the most common descriptive measure. The mean scores for the questionnaire items in the findings section demonstrate how much the participants agree or disagree. For the frequencies, it describes how frequently they do the activities by presenting the overall

mean score. One disadvantage of the mean score is that it is vulnerable to extreme scores (outliers).

Median: is “the mid-point in a distribution of values” (Bryman, 2012, p.338). When each participant's scores are put into a rank order, the score in the middle is the median score. Opposite to the mean score, it is not vulnerable to outliers. Presenting the median in the study gives an impression of the distribution of the scores that participants got.

Standard deviation: is a measure of variability, and it presents how dispersed the scores in the dataset are. It indicates “the average distance of the scores from the mean” (Dörnyei, 2007, p.214). If there are extreme scores and the group is heterogeneous, the standard deviation will be high, whereas if the group is homogenous and the scores are clustered around the mean, the score will be low. The study's standard deviation scores present the participants' different or similar thoughts and different or similar frequencies for translingual activities in the study.

To summarize, two measures of tendency (mean, median) and one measure of variability (standard deviation) were used to analyse the data obtained through the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire.

3.5.1.2. Analysis of the Comprehension Scores

Before the analysis, the papers of learners were graded by the researcher and re-checked by another colleague with expert knowledge at the university. The scores that each learner got were saved on a spreadsheet file for each task. The data were analysed by using SPSS 22. As Dörnyei (2007) states, comparing people or groups of people is one of the most common statistical procedures in applied linguistics research. The comprehension scores of the experimental and control groups for each task were compared in the study.

First, the data for each task was checked for normality. Using the parametric analysis technique requires a normally distributed population (Pallant, 2016). If the data were normally distributed, an independent samples t-test, which can be used to compare the mean scores of two different groups, was used. As Pallant states, “you are comparing the values on some continuous variable for two groups or on two occasions” (Pallant, 2016, p. 263). If a statistically significant difference was found between the two groups, the effect size of this difference was calculated manually by using ‘*Cohen's d*’. Calculating the effect size is a way to assess the importance of the finding. It is a

post-hoc analysis for statistically significant differences as a result of the parametric analysis. Cohen (1988) suggests three effect sizes as small-medium- large effect for a statistically significant difference, and the post-hoc analysis in the study was conducted accordingly.

If the data was not normally distributed, the non-parametric alternative of t-tests, the Mann-Whitney U test, was used to compare the two groups. The test compares medians of both groups. “Mann-Whitney-U test converts the scores on the continuous variable to rank across the two groups, it then evaluates whether the ranks for the two groups differ significantly” (Pallant, 2016, p.250). If a statistically significant difference was found through the analysis, Cohen’s d effect size was also calculated for non-parametric analysis.

All quantitative data entry to SPSS 22 was done by the researcher. All the quantitative analyses mentioned above were done twice not to miss any data and to avoid mistakes.

3.5.2. Analysis of the Qualitative Data

Qualitative data in the study consists of teacher journals, open-ended questionnaires for control and experimental groups, and an interview with the experimental group. Firstly, all the data was organized, transcribed, and conventional qualitative content analysis was conducted.

Qualitative data analysis might be overwhelming for many researchers; however, taking some precautions and following some basic steps make the analysis process more manageable. A researcher must have some knowledge about qualitative data analysis and its main differences from quantitative analysis before conducting it. Dörnyei (2007) suggests, “The thing at the heart of qualitative data analysis is to develop and follow certain principled analytical sequences without being tied by the constraints of the procedures and sacrificing the researcher’s creative liberty of interpretation” (p.242). This definition makes it clear that following strict rules might not work for efficient qualitative analysis. The researcher should have the liberty of interpretation but in a systematic way. Characteristics of language as communication with attention to the content lie at the heart of qualitative analysis. That is why qualitative content analysis is conducted frequently in applied linguistics research (Creswell, 2007).

Through content analysis, specified characteristics of messages are identified systematically and objectively to make inferences (Bryman, 2012). Content analysis can be used as a quantitative analysis method as well if “the aim is to produce quantitative accounts of the raw material in terms of the categories specified by the rules” (Bryman, 2012, p.333). Dörnyei (2007) makes discrimination between content analysis in quantitative and qualitative research by claiming that “the qualitative categories used in the content analysis are not predetermined but are derived inductively from the data analyzed” (p. 245). He summarizes qualitative content analysis as a second-level, interpretive analysis. Hsieh and Shannon (2014) propose three approaches for qualitative content analysis: conventional, directed, and summative approaches. In conventional content analysis, coding categories are derived directly from the text data. In directed analysis, there are pre-determined categories according to the relevant literature, and the analysis is done by considering them. In the summative content analysis, keywords and content are predetermined, and the analysis is done by counting these keywords or the content in the qualitative data. It contains counting and comparisons (Hsieh & Shannon, 2014). The approach used in the study is conventional qualitative analysis because there are no predetermined codes or keywords, and the coding was done after analysing the qualitative data.

There are some basic steps in qualitative content analysis in the qualitative research field, and most of them are similar in practice. In this study, the analysis was conducted following the suggestions by Dörnyei (2007) and Creswell (2007). Dörnyei (2007) suggests that genetic analytical moves, coding and memoing lie at the heart of qualitative content analysis and proposes the following steps:

1. Transcribing the data,
2. Pre-coding-coding
3. Growing ideas-memos, vignettes, profiles, and other forms of data display
4. Interpreting the data and concluding. (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 246)

The suggestions mentioned were followed for the study. First, the data collected through qualitative methods (teacher journals, observation, open-ended questionnaires, and the interview) was all transcribed. A partial transcription was used for open-ended questionnaires and the interview. In partial transcription, the researcher should not transcribe the intonation and participants' emotions while collecting the data. Dörnyei (2007) mentions the practicality of partial transcription as follows:

In certain types of mixed methods research where the qualitative component is of secondary importance and is mainly intended to provide additional illustration and clarification, it may not be essential to transcribe every interview. Instead, we can carry out a tape analysis (Dörnyei, 2007, p.248).

In the interview with the experimental group, the interviews were voice-recorded, and every sentence that the participants uttered was transcribed. However, there were warm-up talks and some interactions about the classes they had in some parts and were not related to the research. These parts were left out.

After the transcriptions were done, a pre-coding step started. Pre-coding is checking and going over the transcriptions repeatedly and reflecting on the first impressions about the data collected (Dörnyei, 2007). A researcher can note down the first impressions about the data in journal entries or memos. This pre-coding is the first step of the coding process. The coding process starts with these ‘analytic memos’ that the researcher in the pre-coding step wrote down. Coding is done by developing themes and, finally, categories out of the qualitative data. The final step of the analysis is that from these themes and categories, an interpretation is done by the researcher and reported. Dörnyei (2007) gives the following definition for the interpretation step:

In qualitative research, the main themes grow organically out of the foundations that were laid during the analytical process, and therefore the process of concluding involves taking stock of what we have got, appraising the generated patterns and insights, and finally selecting a limited number of central themes or storylines to elaborate on (Dörnyei, 2007, p.257).

Creswell (2007) summarizes qualitative data analysis with the following definition:

Data analysis in qualitative research consists of preparing and organizing the data for analysis, reducing the data into themes through coding and condensing the codes, and finally representing the data in figures, tables, or a discussion (Creswell, 2007, p.148).

He further provides the following data analysis spiral for qualitative content analysis:

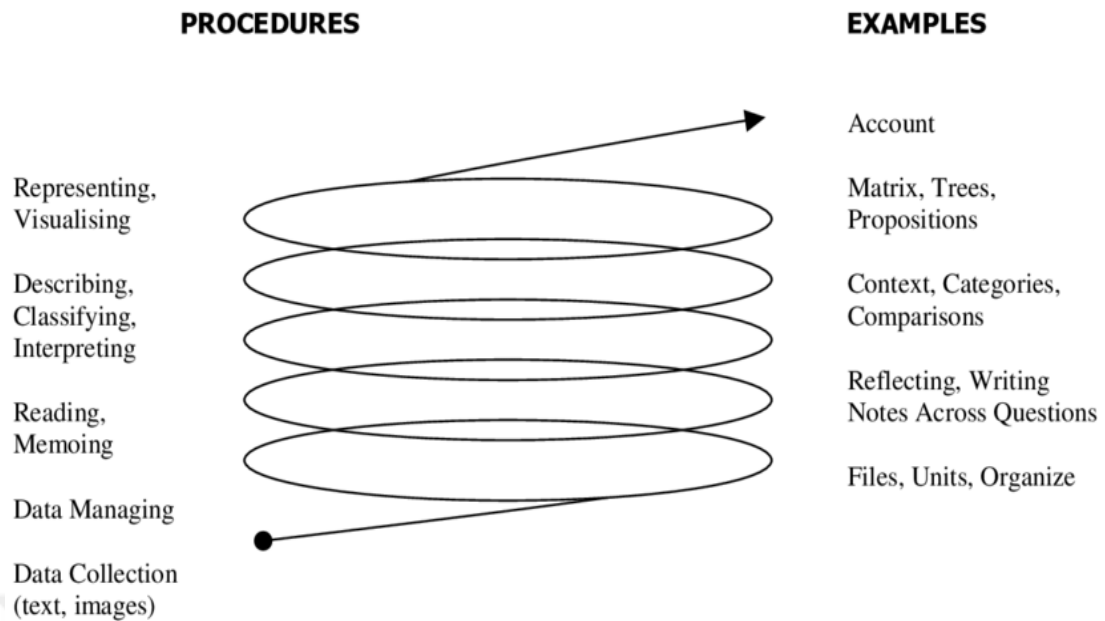


Figure 2. Qualitative data analysis spiral

Source: Creswell, 2007

The two suggested steps are similar to each other, and the following framework was created as a guide for the qualitative analysis of each qualitative data collection method in the study.

Step 1: Read the transcript.

- Go over the transcript,
- Write down the first impressions,
- Reread the transcript with impressions,

Step 2: Code the parts that are related to each other.

- Code similar words, sentences, and parts (These codes can be related to anything). The following principles can determine the similarity.
 - It might be repeated in some parts,
 - It might be surprising,
 - The participant might emphasize it,
 - It might be related to the concepts that you have read about in the literature,
 - It might remind you of a concept or theory.
- Have another researcher or colleague check the codes.

Step 3: decide which codes are the most critical and building categories by gathering these codes.

- Revise all the codes that were prepared in the previous step (you can create new codes by combining some of the codes, and you do not have to use all the codes),
- Keep the codes that you think are important and group them as you like,
- Build new categories,
- Have another researcher or colleague check these new categories.

Step 4: Code the categories, decide the categories which are related to each other and how they are related.

- Code the categories,
- Define the relationships between categories,
- These categories and their connections to each other are the main findings of the study. They are new information about the world from your participants' perspectives.

Step 5: Write the findings.

- In the findings section, write categories and how they are connected. Use natural language and do not include your comments.
- In the discussion section, write your findings, comments, and conclusions. Make your comments considering the following resources.
 - The findings of similar studies in the field,
 - Theories and concepts in the field or similar points of view.

The qualitative analysis was conducted by following these steps. Transcription was done for the interview with the experimental group, whereas the other forms of qualitative data collection were written; therefore, they were not transcribed. Instead, the steps were conducted on the papers of participants and the teacher journals.

3.6. Validity and Reliability

From the beginning of the study, particular attention to the reliability and validity issues was paid. Reliability and validity checks were done on both methodology and data collection instruments. Before presenting these checks, some information about validity and reliability will be provided in the following paragraphs.

Dörnyei (2007) claims that reliability and validity are the quality criteria in quantitative research, and they are significant concepts within the positivist paradigm of research. For instance, experimental studies must have strict reliability and validity provisions, whereas, achieving total reliability and validity in social studies might not be possible (Bryman, 2012). It does not mean that a social study must be free of any reliability and validity criteria. There are some checks that a social researcher must be aware of to produce a piece of social research that can be called scientific. To be aware of these checks, the researcher should have basic knowledge about quality criteria in qualitative and quantitative research.

Reliability is concerned with if the results of the research are repeatable or not (Bryman, 2012). In quantitative research, the data collection instruments are the determiner of reliability. They must be stable. Nunnan (1992) separates reliability as ‘internal’ and ‘external’ reliability and defines the former as “the consistency of data collection, analysis and interpretation” and the latter as ‘the extent to which independent researchers can reproduce a study and obtain similar results’ (Nunnan, 1992, p.14). He proposes the following two questions to check internal and external reliability.

1. Would an independent researcher on reanalysing the data come to the same conclusion? (Internal reliability)
2. Would an independent researcher on replicating the study come to the same conclusion? (External reliability) (Nunnan, 1992, p.17).

The study used two quantitative data collection methods: the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire and the comprehension questions for reading and listening tasks. Reliability checks for the instruments were done in the following way:

The questionnaire was adopted from a scale-development study, and validity and reliability checks had been conducted by the original scale development study. The researcher added some items without distorting the nature of the questionnaire, and a reliability check was conducted by Cronbach-alfa analysis, as was mentioned before. The score indicated that it was a reliable questionnaire.

The second quantitative data collection instrument was ten comprehension questions for each listening and reading task in experimental and control groups. Firstly, the listening and reading tasks were chosen from the coursebook covered in the main course classes. That way, the research can be repeated with the same tasks in the Language Leader Intermediate level coursebook of Pearson Publishing. For each task,

ten comprehension questions were prepared by the researcher. While preparing them, the question types in international English exams, TOEFL and IELTS, were examined, and questions were prepared by considering inter-scorer reliability. They were matching, short answers, multiple-choice, true-false types of questions so that the grading would be reliable. Some questions were taken directly from the coursebook, only the question types were changed. After the questions were prepared, they were checked by another researcher with expert knowledge at the same institution. Piloting with three learners from another class was done for each task to avoid mistakes in wording and ambiguity. After the piloting, the listening and reading tasks were conducted in the control and experimental groups, and learners answered the questions. The researcher himself did the grading after each task. Although the answers were not open to subjectivity, the other researcher did the grading as well.

Validity is concerned with “the integrity of the conclusions that are generated from research” (Bryman, 2012, p.421). There are five aspects of validity.

1. **Construct validity:** whether an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure,
 2. **Internal validity:** whether a conclusion that incorporates a relationship between variables is consistent or not,
 3. **External validity,** whether the results are generalizable out of the context of the study,
 4. **Ecological validity,** whether the results of the study are applicable.
- (Bryman, 2012)

Nunan (1992) proposes the following two questions to check the internal and external validity of a study.

1. Is the research design such that we can confidently claim that the outcomes result from the experimental treatment? (Internal validity)
2. Is the research design such that we can generalize beyond the subjects under investigation to a wider population? (External validity) (Nunan, 1992, p.68)

The study asked these two questions for the quantitative data collection methods: translanguaging beliefs questionnaire and comprehension questions for reading and listening tasks. First, a valid and reliable beliefs questionnaire, for which validity and

reliability checks were conducted, was used instead of preparing a new questionnaire. The study is quasi-experimental; therefore, the researcher was always aware that a total manipulation of variables was impossible. For internal validity, the factors that can distort the validity were minimized by taking the following steps.

1. The control and experimental groups were chosen with convenience sampling. However, both groups had learners starting intermediate-level classes after completing elementary and pre-intermediate levels in the first term. Their grade-point averages for the exams that they had taken in the first term were very close. That could indicate that the learners had similar levels of English proficiency.
2. The same tasks were conducted in both groups, and the same comprehension questions were asked. Both groups did the tasks in their coursebooks, and they were not aware that the tasks were done for the study. The comprehension questions were prepared by choosing the question types in the international English exams, and they were the types that require objective answers for inter-scorer reliability.

The context of the study was preparatory classes at one of the Turkish universities in which learners were learning English as a foreign language at the intermediate level. For external validity, the features of the research context and participants were presented in detail in the previous pages. The results of the study might be generalizable for intermediate-level EFL learners whose native language is Turkish. The ecological validity of the study can be said to be high because it proposes a practical methodological practice for reading and listening tasks that language teachers might use by considering the positive and negative results of the practice.

In addition to the validity types above, ‘design validity’ for mixed-method research has been proposed by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003). It refers to a quality criterion in mixed-method research. It is the extent to which quantitative and qualitative components are combined or integrated so that each method can complement the strengths or weaknesses of other data collection tools. This validity type has been considered the most significant in the study, and this has been achieved through triangulation. Triangulation uses two or more data collection methods to observe human behaviour or to answer a research question (Bryman, 2012). Especially in qualitative

research, it is a powerful way of showing concurrent validity (Bryman, 2012). Methodological triangulation, which can be referred to as using different methods on the same objects of the study, was used.

Reliability and validity are essential for quantitative research, as mentioned earlier. In qualitative research, different qualitative criteria have been proposed by different researchers. Dörnyei (2007) has proposed the following concepts for quality in qualitative research: trustworthiness, authenticity, credibility, rigour, and veracity. The term ‘trustworthiness’ was originally suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985) and has been frequently used as quality criteria in qualitative research. The researchers propose the following criteria in substitution for their quantitative counterparts.

Credibility (for internal validity in QUAN): how believable are the findings?

Transferability (for external validity in QUAN): do the findings apply to other contexts?

Dependability (for reliability in QUAN): are the findings likely to apply at other times?

Confirmability (for objectivity in QUAN): has the investigator allowed his values to intrude to a high degree? (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.300)

Creswell (2007) gives the following practical suggestions to consider the quality of a qualitative study, and his suggestions have been considered in the study.

To establish credibility, “prolonged engagement in the field, triangulation of data of sources, methods, and investigators should be ensured” (Creswell, 2007, p.204). The researcher in the study had prolonged engagement in the field because the classes in which the study was conducted were the researcher’s class and the researcher conducted the tasks. Methodological triangulation was done by collecting quantitative and qualitative data as translanguaging beliefs questionnaire, scores of comprehension questions, teacher/researcher journals, open-ended questionnaires for both experimental and control groups, and interviews with the experimental group. The researcher prepared these data collection tools, but another researcher checked each tool with expert knowledge at the same university and re-analysed the findings. This way, investigator triangulation was also achieved.

To ensure that the findings are transferable, “a thick description is necessary” (Creswell, 2007, p.204). For the analysis and design of each data collection method, a thick description was provided for the reader. While keeping teacher-researcher journals, every thought was written on memos without considering whether it is

subjective or objective. However, while finding commonalities between these journals, the researcher was objective, and the other researcher checked the analysis for whether the themes can be developed with the data in hand.

Rather than reliability, one seeks dependability that the results will be subject to change and instability. The naturalistic researcher looks for confirmability rather than objectivity in establishing the value of the data. Both dependability and confirmability are established by auditing the research process (Creswell, 2007, p.204).

The researcher and the other researcher audited each data collection and analysis process. This auditing process and triangulation for answering every research question helped the researcher build faith in the data collection methods, analyses, and results.

3.7. Ethical Considerations

Firstly, necessary permissions were obtained from the university where the study was conducted (see Appendix G). Four ethical principles of Diener and Crandall (1978) for social research were answered, and all research design, data collection, and analysis was done with these principles in mind.

Whether there is harm to the participants, there was no harm for the participants in the study. They had 20 hours of main course classes, and they did the listening and reading tasks with minor changes for the study for a maximum of two hours. Only one listening and one reading task was chosen in every unit, and the others were conducted according to the curriculum. Particularly in the control group, the learners did these activities as they always do them in their main course classes. In the experimental group, translingual breaks were added, and this caused no harm to learners' learning because they listened to and read the texts and used their native languages for a limited time. As the end product was always in English, practising the target language was also provided.

Whether there is a lack of informed consent, at the beginning of the study, all participants in the experimental and control groups were informed by the researcher that one reading and one listening task in each unit would be done with some changes and with some differences when they were compared with the tasks they always did. The aim of the research was told them. As the researcher was also the teacher of both

groups, learners were willing to experience the tasks in the study. The learners were informed that they would not get any scores for these tasks, and their performance would not affect their overall English scores. All the information was also written on an informed consent form, and all participants in both control and experimental groups read and signed these forms in class. They were told that they could ask the researcher if they had any questions (see Appendix G).

Whether there is an invasion of privacy, particular attention was paid not to invade the participants' privacy. The participants did not write their names in any of the data collection tools. Only in the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire, a section asked whether learners could volunteer for the interview after the study was conducted. If they volunteered, they were required to write their names, phone numbers, and email addresses. They were told that the questionnaire analysis would be done through SPSS, and their names would not be used in any part of the analysis process. The researcher did not mention the participants with their names in teacher journals, instead, he used 'learner(s)'. The names were on only the interviews as they were conducted with only voluntary learners. The researcher knew the names, but while writing the report, none of these names was used. All analyses were checked by another researcher, and this researcher did not see the learners' names as well. The interviews were done online, and they were voice-recorded. The recordings and transcriptions are kept on the researcher's computer, and they have not been and will not be shared with anyone.

Whether deception is involved, deception is not involved in any part of the research, data collection, and analysis steps. In the beginning, learners were informed about the study's aims, and they were told to act naturally as they usually did in their English classes. In the listening and reading tasks that were done for the study, they were not reminded of the purposes of the research for the fear that the participants could change their manners or act differently. In reporting the findings and the discussion, no deception is involved. Subjectivity has been minimized by triangulation through different data collection methods, and the researcher adopted honesty and openness.

3.8. Researcher's Role

The researcher of the study was the instructor of both experimental and control groups that participated in the study. Therefore, instead of being an outsider, the researcher participated in all phases of the study. It is a fact that the research was conducted after doing a comprehensive literature review on the positive effects of

translanguaging pedagogy; therefore, the researcher was curious if the translingual orientation might work in an EFL context or not. The study started with a curiosity on the potential effects of the pedagogical approach. There could be some bias in the beginning of the study but during the planning stage, precautions were planned and taken in data collection, data analysis and reporting processes. Furthermore, the study was conducted with a pragmatist paradigm through quantitative and qualitative data. Therefore, particularly in the collection and analysis of the qualitative data, there can be some bias which was kept minimum through the following measures.

There were four qualitative data collection tools in the study. Teacher/researcher journals, open-ended questionnaire for the control group, open-ended questionnaire for the experimental group and interview with nine voluntary learners from the experimental group. The questions for the experimental group were created after analyzing the data of the control group. The listening and reading tasks were first conducted in the control group monolingually. Teacher/researcher journals were kept and the difficulties that the participants in the control group might have had were analyzed and an open-ended questionnaire was created with six questions for the control group. Teacher/researcher journals were also kept by considering six questions that were created after observing the tasks that were done with a monolingual orientation. These questions can be found in the qualitative data title in the previous pages. Jotted notes were taken during each task by the researcher, the six questions were answered, and a report was written after all the analysis were checked by another researcher with expert knowledge working at the same institution as the researcher. After the analysis of the teacher/researcher journals and five reading and five listening tasks were conducted, the findings of the journals were analyzed first by the researcher and checked by the other researcher with the expert knowledge. Then, six questions for the control group were prepared to find out the difficulties that they had in listening and reading tasks with monolingual orientation. The questionnaire was given to the control group after five listening and reading tasks were done. The findings of the questionnaire were analyzed by the researcher with qualitative content analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) with time interval for three weeks. The first analysis was done, time interval for three weeks was given, and the second analysis was done. All the analysis was done by the other researcher with expert knowledge to increase the reliability. As the experimental group was more active in some phases, and as a new technique was conducted with this group, there was more data in the journals for experimental group. In the tasks with

monolingual orientation, the control group did the tasks as guided by the teachers' guide of the coursebook and they did most of the tasks individually. Therefore, the analysis of the journals with the experimental group and the reporting of the findings took longer than the control group.

The open-ended questionnaire for the experimental group was created after the analysis of the open-ended questionnaire for the control group was completed. The difficulties that the control group had were found out by the questionnaire, the journals were analyzed and the learners' beliefs for translanguaging were discovered. The open-ended questionnaire for the experimental group was created after all these analyses were completed. In order not to miss any detail in the data, there were more questions in the questionnaire for the experimental group. Moreover, as the tasks were designed with translanguaging pedagogy in the experimental group, there was more data in the teacher/researcher journals. For that reason, there were more questions in the open-ended questionnaire for the experimental group, and the reporting of the teacher/researcher journals was longer for the experimental group.

There was a lot of data in the open-ended questionnaire for the experimental group as there were a lot of questions. The analysis was done by the researcher with time intervals, and it was re-checked by the other researcher with expert knowledge. However, to triangulate all the data, an interview with voluntary learners from the experimental group was considered necessary. The open-ended questionnaire, teacher/researcher journals and translanguaging perception questionnaire revealed enough data in the control group to determine the difficulties that the group had with monolingual orientation. However, as the data was much more in the experimental group, it was considered necessary to conduct an interview with nine voluntary learners in the experimental group. That is the reason why an interview was done only with the experimental group. The analysis of the interview was done with the qualitative content analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006), time interval for four weeks was given between the first and second analysis and all the analysis was done by the other researcher and the two analyses were compared.

With all these measures, the researcher tried to have a neutral stance to the research and to have no bias during data collection and analysis phases.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study. The findings are presented under a separate title for each data collection method. The findings will be presented in the following order: findings from the translanguaging perception questionnaire, findings gathered from listening and reading course tasks and teacher journals for the courses, findings from open-ended questionnaires, and finally, interviews.

4.2. Translanguaging Perception Questionnaire

As mentioned under the data collection title in chapter three, the questionnaire has six sections. The first part aims to gather demographic information regarding the purpose of the study. The second part aims to gather participants' beliefs for translanguaging to ensure the “clarity” of the learning-teaching process. All twenty-five items in part are positive items. The third part reveals participants' ideas on using translanguaging for the “efficacy” of the teaching-learning processes. Two items are positive, whereas two items represent negative items in the section. In the fourth part, beliefs for using translanguaging for different language skills were asked—all six items in this part function as negative items. In the fifth part, participants' perceptions regarding psychological factors for using translanguaging were revealed. All three items function as negative items in this part. The sixth section of the questionnaire asks participants how frequently they do the translanguaging practices in their classes. In this part, the Likert scale consists of four frequency adverbs from “never” to “always.”

Reliability analysis for the questionnaire was conducted by using SPSS 22, and the following scores in Table 8 were obtained.

Table 8

Cronbach Alfa Reliability Analysis of the Questionnaire

	All Scale	Clarity	Efficacy	Language Skills	Psychological Factors
Number of Items	38	25	4	6	3
Cronbach α	0.95	0.91	0.86	0.93	0.88

The sixth part of the questionnaire asks how frequently learners use translanguaging practices in class; therefore, it was excluded from the reliability analysis. The findings will be presented with only frequencies according to the participants' answers. The other four parts of the questionnaire and the entire questionnaire have a Cronbach Alfa score close to one, which means that the questionnaire is highly reliable.

The findings of the questionnaire will be presented in the following pages with central tendencies. The frequencies for each item in each section can be found in Appendix A.

4.2.1. Translanguaging for Clarity of Teaching-Learning Processes

Table 9

Central Tendency of the Clarity Section

<i>M</i>	3,69
<i>N</i>	56
<i>SD</i>	0,59
<i>Mdn</i>	3,76

The mean score for all 25 items in the “translanguaging regarding the clarity of teaching-learning processes was “3, 69”. A low standard deviation (0, 59) indicates similarity in learners' ideas. The finding appears to suggest that learners favour translanguaging for the clarity of teaching and learning processes.

Table 10

Central Tendency for Each Item in the Clarity Section

Translanguaging regarding clarity of learning-teaching process	<i>M</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Teachers can use Turkish when they emphasize significant points.	4,28	4	0,70
2. Teachers can use Turkish when we are distracted.	3,92	4	0,93
3. Teachers can use Turkish when we are reluctant for the lesson.	3,08	3	1,14
4. The use of Turkish is necessary to clarify whether a subject has been understood or not.	4,08	4	1,03
5. Teachers should use Turkish when they teach subjects that are difficult to understand.	4,05	4	1,01
6. Teachers should use both English and Turkish to motivate us.	3,87	4	1,07
7. Teachers' use of Turkish can be efficient to explain the differences between Turkish and English.	4,26	4	0,75
8. We can use Turkish to make sure that we have understood the things the teacher has taught.	4,03	4	0,88
9. The use of both English and Turkish is a problem-solving strategy.	3,82	4	0,95
10. Turkish can be used when describing a term or a subject (meta-language) of a particular field.	4,03	4	0,80
11. Teachers should use Turkish when they make explanations about exams.	4,07	4	1,10
12. If the subject covers culture and history topics, Turkish can be used.	3,32	3	1,10
13. Teachers should use Turkish when they cover a subject in writing classes.	3,23	3	1,26
14. We keep up with the class more easily when both English and Turkish are used.	3,67	4	1,17
15. Teacher should tell the Turkish equivalents of the keywords, not all of what they say.	4,19	4	0,99
16. Teachers can use Turkish when they discipline the class.	3,35	4	1,10
17. The use of both English and Turkish when teaching grammar makes learning English easier.	3,69	4	1,11
18. The use of Turkish allows us to explain each other for educational purposes.	3,55	4	1,00
19. Teachers should use Turkish while making jokes in the lesson.	2,98	3	1,16
20. The use of both English and Turkish helps us enjoy the classes.	3,64	4	0,99
21. Teachers should use both English and Turkish to explain what is to be done in activities.	3,60	4	1,13
22. The use of Turkish by the teachers can be efficient in explaining the similarities between Turkish and English.	3,85	4	0,90
23. Turkish should be used in teaching abstract words.	3,73	4	0,94
24. Teachers should use Turkish to attract our attention to the subject.	2,98	3	1,10
25. The use of both English and Turkish saves time.	3,10	3	1,23

As Table 10 indicates, the biggest mean score ($M= 4, 28$), which means most of the learners agree or totally agree, is with the first item, “*Teachers can use Turkish when they emphasize significant points*”. The lowest standard deviation score of all the items in the clarity section ($SD= 0, 70$) demonstrates that learners do not have conflicting ideas about the item. Most of them gave similar answers. It seems reasonable to suggest that almost all learners prefer their teachers’ use of Turkish when they emphasize significant points. The seventh item, “*Teachers' use of Turkish can be efficient to explain the differences between Turkish and English*” has the second-highest mean score ($M= 4, 26$). A standard deviation of “0, 75” indicates that the participants have similar ideas for the item. Learners probably prefer their teachers to compare and

explain the differences between their native languages and the target language by using their native languages. *“Teacher should tell the Turkish equivalents of the keywords, not all of what they say”* which is item 15, has the third-highest mean score ($M = 4, 19$). The standard deviation ($SD = 0, 99$) means more conflicting ideas when compared with the items with high mean scores. A high agreement level seems to indicate that teachers should tell the Turkish meanings of the key vocabulary. Another item with a high mean score is item 4, *“The use of Turkish is necessary to clarify whether a subject has been understood or not”*. While the mean ($M = 4, 08$) and median ($Mdn = 4$) demonstrate that learners mostly agree or totally agree with the item, the standard deviation ($SD = 1, 03$) indicates some conflicting ideas. Neutral learners are higher for this item compared to the other items with high mean scores; nevertheless, most learners appear to think that it is necessary to use native languages to check if a subject has been understood or not. Another item for which the participants have similar positive ideas is item 11, *“Teachers should use Turkish when they make explanations about exams”*. The mean score of the item is “4, 07” whereas the standard deviation is “1, 10”. Even though the mean score is high, a high standard deviation score means that some learners have different ideas about the item. From the finding, it seems reasonable to claim that teachers can use Turkish to ensure clarity of instructions or explanations about exams. Item 5 has another high mean score ($M = 4, 05$). This high mean score might indicate that learners think that their teachers should use Turkish when they teach subjects that are difficult to understand. The use of native language could function as scaffolding here. Even if the standard deviation ($SD = 1, 01$) demonstrates some differentiating answers, 44 out of 56 participants either agree or totally agree with this item. Item 8 is about the use of the native language by learners themselves. The mean score of the item ($M = 4, 03$) is high, and the standard deviation ($SD = 0, 88$) is low compared with many other items. That means learners have similar ideas, and it looks probable that learners can use their native language in class to ensure they have understood everything. That can be with their teachers or with their partners. The other item with a similar mean score ($M = 4, 03$) is item 10, *“Turkish can be used when describing a term or a subject (metalinguage) of a particular field”*. The standard deviation ($SD = 0, 80$) for the item is one of the lowest, which means learners have similar answers. It can be concluded that learners and teachers can use Turkish when they talk about, teach, or discuss a subject for a particular field. EFL classes have various subjects from different fields to

practice four language skills, and the finding indicates that native language can be used to describe new terms.

The findings of the items with the highest mean scores were presented in the previous paragraphs. Here, the findings for the items with medium mean scores will be presented. The frequencies can be found in the appendices section, as mentioned earlier. The analysis of item 2, *“Teachers can use Turkish when we are distracted”* indicates that learners agree with their teachers’ use of their native languages when they are lost ($M= 3, 92$). Low standard deviation ($SD= 0, 93$) means unity in learners’ answers. Many learners believe that *“Teachers should use both English and Turkish to motivate us”* ($M= 3, 87$). Comparatively low standard deviation ($SD= 1, 07$) demonstrates the fact that many learners think similarly. Item 22 is similar to item 7; however, it asks about teachers’ use of native language to explain similarities between Turkish and English. Item 7 was for explaining differences. The mean score ($M= 3, 85$) and low standard deviation ($SD= 0, 90$) indicate learners’ positive ideas for *“The use of Turkish by the teachers can be efficient in explaining the similarities between Turkish and English”*. Most of the learners think that *“The use of both English and Turkish is a problem-solving strategy”* (Item 9; $M= 3, 82$), and a low standard deviation ($SD= 0, 95$) demonstrates similar ideas. Nonetheless, the number of neutral learners is getting higher with this item, and it is 16. Even if the number of learners who think negatively about the item is low ($N= 3$), the number of neutral learners ($N=16$) might indicate that learners do not have clear ideas for whether to see translanguaging as a problem-solving strategy. For item 23, *“Turkish should be used in teaching abstract words”*, 34 learners either totally agree or agree with the item, whereas six disagree, and 16 learners are neutral ($M= 3, 73$, $SD= 0, 94$, $Mdn= 4$). Learners appear to think that using the native language can help teach only keywords; however, some learners are not sure that using the native language could help in teaching abstract words. More than half of the participants agree with item 17, *“The use of both English and Turkish when teaching grammar makes learning English easier”* ($M= 3, 69$, $SD= 1, 11$, $Mdn=4$). When the findings for the item are compared with findings for the items about vocabulary learning, the mean score and the frequency of positive ideas are lower. It seems plausible to suggest that learners believe translanguaging is more efficient for learning vocabulary than learning grammar. Another item (14) reveals learners’ ideas on whether translanguaging helps them keep up with the class more easily. Although the number of learners who think positively ($N= 35$) about the help of translanguaging for them to

keep up with the class outnumbers the number of learners who think negatively ($N=10$), a proportionally higher standard deviation ($SD=1, 17$) reveals differentiating ideas. An equal distribution of frequencies has been found who think negatively ($N=10$) and who are neutral ($N=10$) about the item. More than half of the learners ($N=36$) think that *“The use of both English and Turkish helps us enjoy the classes”* (Item 20). Although the mean for the item is not very high ($M=3, 64$), the low standard deviation ($SD=0, 99$) indicates a similarity of ideas among learners. The presence of neutral learners is remarkable for item 18, *“The use of Turkish allows us to explain each other for educational purposes”*. In this item, participants share their ideas for translanguaging with their friends. As the study has multilingual collaborative group work activities, learners' ideas for the item are significant. Even though the mean score is not very low ($M=3, 55$), the standard deviation ($SD=1, 00$) shows differentiating ideas. The number of positive learners for the item is 32, negative learners 8, whereas neutral learners are 16. These 16 learners might think it is neither useful nor useless to use native languages when talking with their friends for educational purposes. For item 21, *“Teachers should use both English and Turkish to explain what is to be done in activities”*, the frequency of learners ($N=35$) who agree with the item outnumbers the ones who do not agree ($N=12$). However, the number of learners who think negatively is much higher than the previously analysed and presented items. ($M=3, 60$, $SD=1, 13$, $Mdn=4$). For item 11, in which learners' ideas for translanguaging in teachers' instructions for the exams are asked, the mean ($M=4, 07$) was higher as presented earlier, and the standard deviation ($SD=1, 10$) was lower than item 21. That could mean learners prefer their teachers' translanguaging for instructions about exams, which could mean more important to them; however, some of them do not consider translanguaging as significant for classroom tasks.

After presenting the findings with high and medium mean scores and deviations, this paragraph will present the findings with lower mean scores. What is salient in items with low mean scores is that standard deviations are higher than the other items with higher mean scores. It looks probable that learners could have conflicting ideas about the items presented here. The findings for item 19, *“Teachers should use Turkish while making jokes in the lesson”* indicate that most learners are either neutral or disagree with teachers' use of their native languages while making jokes ($M=2, 98$, $SD=1, 16$, $Mdn=3$). They might prefer hearing jokes in the target language. Similarly, the mean score for item 24 ($M=2, 98$), *“Teachers should use Turkish to attract our attention to*

the subject” is lower than the other items with a higher standard deviation score than most of the other items ($M= 1, 10$). The number of learners who either totally disagree or disagree is the most for this item ($N= 22$). The number of neutral learners is also high ($N=16$). The finding might suggest that teachers should be careful in using translanguaging to attract learners’ attention to the subject. Item 3, “*Teachers can use Turkish when we are reluctant for the lesson,*” has the third-lowest mean score ($M= 3, 08, SD= 1, 14, Mdn=3$). The item has a similar purpose of using translanguaging with item 22. The finding asserts that learners are neutral about using translanguaging to attract their attention to the class. Even though there are differentiating ideas for item 25 ($SD= 1, 23$); “*The use of both English and Turkish saves time*”, most of the participants are either neutral or totally disagree or disagree with the item ($M= 3, 10$). It might be possible to claim that the finding warns planners to be careful in planning the time available for translanguaging tasks. The biggest variation in learners’ ideas has been found in item 13 ($SD= 1, 26$), “*Teachers should use Turkish when they cover a subject in writing classes*”. The mean score for the item is not low ($M= 3, 23, Mdn= 3$); however, 26 participants out of 55 think positively; 14 are neutral, and 15 are negative about using the native language for a subject in writing classes. The finding might be significant in that many other studies on translanguaging for EFL were done to study the effect of translanguaging on writing. A promise of using translanguaging in language classes is to build background knowledge for cultural, and historical topics. However, for item 12, “*If the subject covers culture and history topics, Turkish can be used,*” the mean score reveals neutral ideas for using the native language ($M= 3, 32, SD=1, 10, Mdn= 3$). It appears logical to suggest that finding a balance between using the native or target language in these kinds of topics can be significant. The last item is 16, and it asks learners’ ideas for teachers’ translanguaging to discipline the class. The number of learners who agree ($N= 30$) outnumbers those who think negatively ($N= 14$); however, there are differentiating ideas again. ($M=3, 35, SD= 1, 10, Mdn= 4$). That could mean a balanced use of native language to discipline the class can be helpful.

4.2.2. Translanguaging for the Efficacy of Teaching-Learning Processes

Table 11

Central Tendency for Efficacy Section

<i>M</i>	3,72
<i>N</i>	56
<i>SD</i>	0,94
<i>Mdn</i>	3,75

The mean score ($M = 3,72$) for the efficacy section is the highest mean score of all the sections in the questionnaire. That could mean the learners are optimistic about translanguaging for the efficacy of teaching and learning processes. The standard deviation ($SD = 0,94$) is close to 1, which means learners might have differentiating ideas.

Table 12

Central Tendency of Each Item in the Efficacy Section

Translanguaging regarding the efficacy of learning-teaching	<i>M</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>SD</i>
26. Teachers' use of both English and Turkish increases the efficacy of teaching.	3,73	4	1,05
27. Teachers' use of both English and Turkish makes the English learning process easy.	3,57	4	1,23
28. Teachers' use of both English and Turkish confuses us.	2,03	2	0,99
29. Transitions to Turkish hinder foreign language learning.	2,37	2	1,21

Items 26 and 27 are positive, whereas items 28 and 29 are negative. This part of the questionnaire asks for learners' ideas on whether translanguaging enhances the efficacy of the learning and teaching processes. It can be concluded from the average mean score of the efficacy part ($M = 3,72$) that learners might think that translanguaging has a positive effect on teaching-learning processes. Item 28 has the lowest mean score ($M = 2,03$) and the lowest standard deviation ($SD = 0,99$). As the item is negative, the meaning of the low mean score might indicate that most learners think similarly in that teachers' use of both English and Turkish does not confuse them. Item 26 is the opposite of item 28, and as it can be seen from Table 12, it has the highest mean score ($M = 3,73$) and the second-lowest standard deviation ($SD = 1,05$). The findings of the two opposite items reveal that learners favour using both target and native languages by their teachers at times. Items 27 and 29 are opposite items for getting learners' ideas on whether translanguaging eases the learning process. Lower mean scores and higher standard deviation scores might mean that learners prefer their teachers'

translanguaging rather than their own translanguaging practices for learning. The negative item, which is the 29th item, has a lower mean score ($M= 2, 37$) with a lower standard deviation ($SD= 1, 21$). These scores could mean that most learners could think that transitions to Turkish do not hinder foreign language learning. A high deviation score means conflicting ideas, and although most learners think positively, there are negative and neutral learners as well (see. Appendix A). Item 27 has the second-highest mean score ($M= 3, 57$) with the highest standard deviation ($SD=1, 23$). The findings indicate that although many learners agree that translanguaging makes the learning process more accessible, there are more negative or neutral learners when compared to the other items in the other sections.

4.2.3. Translanguaging for Language Skills

Table 13

Central Tendency of Language Skills Section

<i>M</i>	2,91
<i>N</i>	56
<i>SD</i>	1,07
<i>Mdn</i>	2,83

This section asks for learners' ideas on translanguaging for different language skills. The mean score of all six items ($M= 2, 91$) is close to 3, neutral. That could mean that learners might not have clear ideas on whether translanguaging is efficient for learning language skills or not. A higher standard deviation ($SD= 1, 07$) verifies that.

Table 14

Central Tendency of Each Item in the Language Skills Section

Translanguaging regarding the use of language skills	<i>M</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>SD</i>
30. The use of Turkish negatively affects our listening skills.	2,82	3	1,11
31. The use of Turkish negatively affects our speaking skills.	3,14	3	1,25
32. The use of Turkish negatively affects our reading skills.	2,81	3	1,24
33. The use of Turkish negatively affects our writing skills.	2,80	3	1,29
34. The use of Turkish in group activities negatively affects English.	3,14	3	1,28
35. Our use of Turkish can become a habit over time.	3,75	4	1,25

All items in this part of the questionnaire are negative. The items ask for participants' ideas on the effects of translanguaging in different language skills of learners. It is evident in the standard deviation scores on the table that there are

differentiating ideas for each item in the part. The lowest mean score, which is positive for translanguaging as the items are negative, is for using translanguaging for writing skill ($M= 2, 80$). It could mean that the skill for which learners think that translanguaging could be more helpful is the writing skill. The standard deviation of item 33 ($SD=1, 29$) is the highest. The mean score is close to neutral, and learners have conflicting ideas about the item. It seems plausible to claim that learners do not have clear ideas for translanguaging to learn writing skill. Item 32 has a similar mean score ($M= 2, 81$) with a lower standard deviation ($SD= 1, 24$). The finding demonstrates that most learners consider reading skill the second most suitable skill for which translanguaging could be efficient. There are differentiating ideas for translanguaging for learning the reading skill, as well. Even though the number of learners who think that translanguaging can be efficient for reading is more than the learners who think negatively, there is not much difference, which could be due to their lack of practice in translanguaging or their habits to consider foreign language classrooms as monolingual classes only in the target language. Learners consider listening skill the third most suitable skill for translanguaging ($M= 2, 82$). There is a lower standard deviation ($SD= 1, 11$) for listening compared with other language skills; however, the number of neutral learners ($N= 16$) is remarkable. The number of neutral learners who do not think that translanguaging affects the listening skill negatively outnumbers the number of learners who think that translanguaging can be used for the listening skill. There is an equal distribution in participants' answers, which means they might not have an experience or cannot imagine how to use translanguaging for the listening skill. Most learners think negatively about translanguaging for the speaking skill, or they are neutral (item 31). A significant increase in the mean score ($M= 3, 14$) can be seen for the speaking skill in the table. There are differentiating ideas ($SD= 1, 25$). Although many learners favour translanguaging for their speaking skill, the number of neutral learners and learners who think negatively outnumbers the learners who think positively. According to the findings, it can be concluded that speaking skill could be the least suitable skill for translanguaging. A similar mean score has been obtained for item 34 ($M= 3, 14$). Although there is a high standard deviation ($SD= 1, 28$), most learners think that using Turkish with their partners in group/pair work activities affects their English in a negative way ($N= 27$). It can be concluded from the finding that learners prefer to use the target language during pair or group activities with their partners. The least

differentiating ideas were obtained for item 35 ($M= 2, 24$). Thirty-seven learners out of 54 think that the use of Turkish can become a habit over time.

4.2.4. Translanguaging Regarding Psychological Factors

In this part of the questionnaire, all three items are negative. This part reveals the affective dimension of translanguaging in language classes.

Table 15

Central Tendency of Translanguaging Regarding Psychological Factors

<i>M</i>	3,15
<i>N</i>	55
<i>SD</i>	1,12
<i>Mdn</i>	3,33

The three items in the section are against translanguaging, and they promote monolingual orientation. The table shows that the mean score and the median are in the middle, and the standard deviation demonstrates different ideas among learners. It is possible to conclude from the table that learners are somewhere in the middle for language classes with a monolingual and translingual approach.

Table 16

Central Tendency of Each Item in the Psychological Factors Section

Translanguaging regarding psychological factors	<i>M</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>SD</i>
36. Teachers' use of only English demonstrates their trust in our ability.	3,49	4	1,18
37. The significance of English should be indicated to us by using merely English.	3,00	3	1,26
38. The use of only English gives us a sense of success.	2,96	3	1,29

As the items are against translanguaging, it is clear from Table 16 that item 36 has the highest mean score. Most learners might think that teachers' use of only English is due to their trust in learners' language abilities. Although the item has a high standard deviation, it is the lowest for the section ($SD= 1, 18$). That means unity in learners' answers. The finding is against translanguaging, but the number of neutral learners ($N= 14$) and learners who think negatively ($N= 10$) is not ignorable. The mean and median score for item 37 is "3". The high standard deviation score ($SD= 1, 26$) indicates different ideas. Perhaps the most equal distribution in learners' answers has been found for this item, as seen in the appendices section. The high number of neutral learners

indicates that learners are unsure whether only the target language should be used. With a monolingual perspective for a foreign language class, learners' use of only the target language could be expected to raise their sense of success; however, the findings for item 38 indicate the opposite. The lowest mean score of all the three items ($M= 2, 96$) indicates that nearly half of the class agree while the other half disagree or are neutral. The high standard deviation also indicates conflicting ideas ($SD= 1, 29$). When the participants are proportioned into three as agree, disagree, and neutral, their numbers are close to each other (see. Appendix A).

4.2.5. Translanguaging Practices of Learners in the Class

In this last part of the questionnaire, learners' translanguaging practices in their English classes were asked. Four frequency adverbs were used in answers, and learners were asked to choose one from “Never-Sometimes-Often-Always”. Therefore, a maximum score of four means ‘always,’ and the least is ‘never’.

Table 17

Central Tendency for Translanguaging Practices of Learners Section

<i>M</i>	2,72
<i>N</i>	55
<i>SD</i>	0,32
<i>Mdn</i>	2,83

As it is clear from the table, the mean score ($M= 2, 72$) is between “sometimes” and “often”, which means that learners do the six translanguaging practices in their classes. The lowest standard deviation was found in this section, and that means many learners gave similar answers.

Table 18

Central Tendency for Each Item in the Translanguaging Practices of Learners Section

Translanguaging practices	<i>M</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>SD</i>
39. I take notes in Turkish regardless of the language used by the instructor or used in activities.	2,07	2	0,69
40. I take notes in the language used by the instructor in the classes.	2,67	3	0,79
41. While taking notes in the class, I realize that I switch from English to Turkish (or vice versa) without notice.	2,00	2	0,88
42. I use my native language with my friends when I explain a new concept in class.	3,14	3	0,70
43. I use my native language with my friends when I need to ask a concept in class.	3,29	3	0,68
44. I use my native language when it is necessary to check the meaning of a concept or a word in class.	3,18	3	0,79

The findings demonstrate that most learners do translanguaging at least sometimes. The low standard deviation scores for all items indicate that learners do translanguaging for similar tasks. Learners' most frequent translanguaging activity is using their native language with friends when they need to ask about a concept in the class (item 43). The item has the highest mean score ($M=3,29$) and the lowest standard deviation ($SD=0,68$). The answers mostly range from 'often' to 'always' (see. Appendix A). The finding supports the use of multilingual collaborative groups by translanguaging. The second translanguaging task that learners perform most frequently is item 44. The high mean score ($M=3,18$) and a low standard deviation ($SD=0,79$) indicate that most learners use their native languages to check the meaning of a concept or a word in the class. This item means more individual use of translanguaging, which could mean learners need translations in native languages when they check the meaning of new concepts or words in class. Learners' third most frequent use of translanguaging is when they explain a new concept to their friends in class ($M=3,14$, $SD=0,70$). The findings of items 42 and 43 reveal that translanguaging might be used in group-pair work with friends because learners do translanguaging when they ask and explain new concepts or words. The other items are about note-taking for which translanguaging might be effective. However, the mean score for item 40 ($M=2,67$) and the low standard deviation ($SD=0,79$) indicate that learners prefer to take notes in the language used by the instructor in the class. Thirty learners answer that they often or always take notes in the language used by the instructor, whereas 23 learners sometimes do it. Item 39 is the opposite of item 40. It asks for learners' use of their native languages in taking notes regardless of the language used by the instructor or used in the activities in class. The mean score ($M=2,07$) and the median ($Mdn=2$) are lower than item 40 but, a lower

standard deviation score ($SD=0,69$) means more similar ideas. Thirty-five learners choose “sometimes” for item 39. The number of learners who often or always take notes in their native languages is 11 in total. The number of learners who never do that is more than item 40, which might mean learners prefer to take notes in the language used by the instructor or the language used in the activities more. Item 41 has the lowest mean ($M=2$, $Mdn=2$), and the standard deviation is “0,88”. The numbers indicate that learners do not switch from the target language to their native languages (or vice versa) while taking notes as frequently as taking notes in the language used by the instructor and activities. The findings are not negative; some learners switch codes while taking notes; however, learners do not switch codes as frequently as they perform the tasks in items 39 and 40.

4.3. Findings of the Comprehension Scores and Teacher/Researcher Journals

In this part, the findings obtained from reading and listening tasks conducted in the control and experimental groups will be presented. Firstly, the classes for which teacher/researcher journals were kept will be presented in detail. The findings of learners’ answers to comprehension questions in both groups will be compared statistically. First, teacher/researcher journals and statistical analyses of the listening tasks will be presented, and then the same findings will be presented for reading tasks. The extracts from teacher/researcher journals are presented indented and discussion of the extracts are presented as unindented.

4.3.1. Listening Task 1

4.3.1.1. Findings from Teacher Journal for Control Group Listening Task

There were 20 learners in the class when the listening task was done. The learners were told to study in pairs, and there were ten pairs in total. The listening task was conducted in the coursebook with a monolingual approach. The use of the native language was forbidden. The learners would listen to the text and collaborate with their peers only in English. They could discuss the parts they did not understand and unknown vocabulary. They listened to the text three times as instructed in the teacher’s guide of the coursebook. After each listening, two minutes were provided to learners to share their ideas with their friends or give help to or get help from their peers. All these interactions were done only in English.

Ten comprehension questions for the text had been prepared, and the questions were given to each learner on a piece of paper. It was thought to be the best way to collect data for the study, and the papers were all collected with learners' names on them after the listening was completed. The same or at least similar questions were on the learners' coursebooks. Learners were informed that it was not a quiz or a listening exam, and they were told to relax and concentrate on the listening. However,

The learners were engaged in the listening because they felt it was like a quiz. Learners felt like they were in an exam. Some of them said that it was nice because it was like practicing listening parts in the exams.

Giving comprehension questions on a separate paper might have caused learners to concentrate on listening more when the task is compared to the tasks that are on the coursebooks.

The learners were told that they were free to discuss everything with their partners after listening on the condition that they interacted in English.

In each listening phrase, I waited for a few minutes for learners to answer the questions. I told them they could discuss and compare their answers with friends sitting next to them only in English. However, there was a big silence, and everybody focused on answering the comprehension questions on the sheet.

It can be concluded that there was not much collaboration among learners. The questions were mostly answered individually. That might be due to the feeling of having an exam despite the warnings by the teacher.

Compared with the experimental group, the class was too silent, and the learners were too passive because they did not talk with their friends. I heard two pairs talking in their native languages silently.

Even if the learners had been warned before the task, two pairs discussed listening in their native language. It is remarkable because learners should use the target language as much as possible with a monolingual approach for more practice. But, here, even if it was forbidden, two pairs used their native languages, and they were warned.

After the learners listened to the text three times, some additional time was provided to check their answers and discuss them. They were told to summarize what

they understood from listening to their peers. Most peers summarized with basic sentences in English.

As a teacher, as they discussed the summaries, I walked around the class, listened to the learners, and warned them if I heard them using their native languages. I collected the papers and gave the answers to the learners. The whole activity took 15 minutes.

To sum up, there was not much collaboration among learners. Most of them studied individually. As a teacher, I felt like I was conducting an exam and warned learners to relax. Only two pairs interacted in the native language between listening phrases, and they were warned to use English. Typically, teachers might not track each learner for their answers to comprehension questions during listening activities; however, as learners knew that I would collect all their answers, they might have focused on listening more and tried to answer all the questions.

4.3.1.2. Findings from Teacher Journal for Experimental Group Listening Task

There were 22 learners in the class when the listening task was done. The class was arranged as 11 pairs.

Preview

Firstly, in the preview phase of the listening task, an anticipation guide chart was created on the board with the item, “Travel broadens the mind!”. The learners were told that we would have a class discussion. Still, before, they could organize their ideas using the “think-pair-share” cooperative activity design, and they could use their native languages with their partners. When they shared their ideas with the class, they had to use English. Five minutes were given to learners to interact with their partners, and then the class discussion in English started. Eight pairs out of eleven pairs participated in the discussion, and most of them agreed with the item and explained their reasons.

Secondly, there was a vocabulary part in the listening task, and learners were to fill in the blanks of seven questions with these words. The teacher wrote a translingual vocabulary chart on the board for each word, and learners were asked to tell the Turkish equivalents. They were asked to make a sample sentence in both Turkish and English. There were some differences in vocabulary for travel in Turkish and English, and these differences were discussed.

While talking about the differences between “travel” and “journey”, there was a discussion among us because, in Turkish, we use different structures as “seyahate çıkmak” or “yolculuk yapmak”. In English, the verb “travel” does not need a helping verb, whereas, in Turkish, it does.

The learners filled in the blanks in the questions with these words, and they were asked to ask the questions to each other and answer them. This activity was done only in English.

After the learners finished asking and answering the questions, the worksheets with comprehension questions for the listening and annotation parts for the “view” phase were given to the learners (see. Appendix B).

View

I handed out the papers and told learners about the translanguaging work we were going to do. The learners were a little bit surprised when I told them that they could use their native languages if they felt more comfortable in the annotation and summary sections. Because many classes were English-oriented, they had difficulty understanding the logic of the activity and asked what they would do a few times.

As a teacher/researcher, I spent some time telling learners what we would do by giving them some samples. I emphasized that they could use their native languages while interacting with their partners; however, to share their ideas with the whole class or with me, they were to use English; that is, the target language again. After everything was clear, the learners were told to read ten comprehension questions with their partners and translate them if that was necessary to understand better.

The learners started listening. The text was in total 4.48 minutes long, and it was divided into three pauses for the first phase of listening. While listening, the learners were told to take notes or annotate in either their native languages or in English. In each pause, three minutes were given to learners to annotate and discuss what they heard with their peers and answer the comprehension questions related to the part they listened to.

The learners participated in the activity, and the freedom to use their native languages might have affected their participation positively. In each of the three pauses, they were also asked to answer the comprehension questions about the part they listened to.

All pairs participated in the activity, and they discussed it with their partners. While they were doing the activity, I walked around the class. After the learners listened to the whole text with pauses and three minutes for each pause were provided, the first listening phase finished. Learners answered the questions individually; however, they discussed with their partners, too. They could ask me questions in English.

Learners listened to the whole text once more; however, this time without any pause.

They were into the text. Nearly all learners listened willingly.

The class was more silent for second listening, and they were focused. After the listening finished, learners checked their answers to the comprehension questions again.

Review

There were two questions on the worksheet: what you learned new in the listening and summarize the listening with your partner. In the summary section, the learners were told to summarize first in their native languages and then collaboratively write their summaries in English. It would have been much better to ask learners only to present their summaries to each other orally in the target language because writing summaries took ten minutes. It might be better to summarize first in the native language by speaking and then explaining each other in the target language without writing.

After the review phase finished, the worksheets were collected, and answers to the comprehension questions were given to the learners to check their answers.

After I collected papers from learners, I heard three learners saying, ‘Teacher, this listening was much better than the others we had done’.

The learners were satisfied with the translingual approach to listening, and they were engaged with the task. They tried to annotate the listening parts, answered the questions, and summarized the main ideas collaboratively. Native language might have been like scaffolding in all stages.

4.3.1.3. Statistical Comparison of the Scores in the 1st Listening Task

As the scores could not meet the normality criteria, they were compared by using the Mann-Whitney-U Test in SPSS 22.

Table 19

Mann-Whitney U Test Analysis of the 1st Listening Task

Mann-Whitney U	163,000
Wilcoxon W	373,000
Z	-2,193
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,028

a. Grouping Variable: 1st Listening Task

As it is clear from Table 19, a statistically significant difference was found between the control and experimental groups.

Table 20

*Central Tendency of the 1st Listening Task***Listening Task1**

Group	M	N	SD	Mdn
Experimental	5,88	26	1,21	6
Control	4,90	20	1,65	4,50
Total	5,45	46	1,48	5

Table 20 indicates that the experimental group had higher scores than the control group. The median is six in the experimental group, whereas it is 4.5 in the control group. The mean score of the experimental group ($M=5,88$) is higher than the mean score of the control group ($M=4,90$) and the deviation of the score is lower in the experimental group with a lower standard deviation ($SD=1,21$). That could mean that there was more collaboration among learners in the experimental group. The subject of the text could be interesting for learners as it was 'travelling abroad'. Most of the pairs interacted particularly in the experimental group. The difficulty of the task can be inferred as medium. Because the mean scores of both groups are close to 5. However, the median of the experimental group is higher than the control group, which could mean that the experimental group was more successful.

The effect size of the statistically significant difference was calculated manually. Cohen (1998) proposes following numbers for calculating the effect size: .1=small / .3=medium / .5= large effect sizes. The calculation result was 0.32. It indicated that the experimental group showed a statistically significant difference from the control group in their scores for comprehension questions with a medium effect size.

4.3.2. Listening Task 2

4.3.2.1. Findings from Teacher/Researcher Journal for Control Group Listening Task

On the day when the second listening task was conducted with the control group, there were 28 learners in the class. Eight learners studied in pairs while the others studied as four groups with three learners. Learners wanted to work in groups of three, and I accepted.

Firstly, warm-up activities were done as they were in the coursebook without any changes. Only English was used. In total, five learners participated in the discussion on the topic of the listening text.

The worksheets on which there were ten comprehension questions were handed out. The learners were told to read all the questions, and as they were in pairs and groups, they could discuss the meanings of the questions or the difficulties they had with their partners. They were to do all these discussions in English for more practice. Most of the learners read the questions themselves without getting help from or giving help to their partners. That might be because the questions were not difficult for their levels.

The listening text was three minutes long, and learners listened to it twice. There were not any pauses; however, after each listening, three minutes were provided to learners to discuss what they heard with their partners. During that time, I walked around the class to observe their interactions.

The learners were informed that they could discuss what they heard with their partners after listening; however, that discussion must be done only in English. I walked around the class and warned learners trying to speak Turkish. Two pairs whispered in Turkish, but most learners did the activity alone.

As is clear from the extract from the journal, many learners did the activity alone without interaction with their partners. Although they were encouraged not to use their native languages for more practice in the target language, two pairs whispered in Turkish to talk about the listening text, which was observed in the first listening activity.

After listening, learners did not ask their partners or me any questions. The class was not much interactive. However, they focused on answering the questions.

The listening task was similar to the first task in that it was not much interactive again. The learners focused on answering the questions on the worksheets individually, even if I warned them to clarify what they understood from the listening by discussing with their partners and checking their answers. Nevertheless, they just answered the questions and handed in the worksheets. The whole listening activity lasted for 20 minutes.

4.3.2.2. Findings from Teacher/Researcher Journal for Experimental Group

Listening Task

In the class, there were 26 learners, and they studied in 13 pairs. The listening was about work placements.

Preview

Firstly, an anticipation guide was written on the board with the statement, “Work placement in a foreign country is better than work placement in Turkey”. The learners were asked whether they agree or disagree with the statement and what their reasons were. They were reminded that they could use their native languages with their partners to organize their ideas and build background knowledge, but the whole class discussion would be in English. After giving three minutes to learners for their discussion, we did a whole class discussion in English. The learners were interested in the subject, and 12 participants told their reasons for agreement or disagreement. The activity went on for 13 minutes.

View

Papers with comprehension questions were handed out. Three minutes were given to learners to discuss the meanings of the questions with their partners and use their native languages to translate if necessary for better comprehension of the questions.

The listening started. While listening, the learners were reminded to take notes and annotate in their native languages. The whole listening was three minutes; however, it was divided into two pauses for the first listening. In each pause, three minutes were given to learners to discuss what they understood and share their notes or annotations with their partners, firstly in their native languages and then in English. I walked around the class and observed learners.

All the pairs were active, and they had discussions about the differences in their comprehension.

There were some comprehension differences between learners, and they discussed them with their partners in their native languages. The learners took notes down about the listening, too; however, as their worksheets were analysed, it was clear that they did not annotate in their native languages. They only note down some details in the text with one or two words in English.

All learners listened for a second time without pause. After listening again, three minutes were provided to learners to answer the questions and to discuss and compare their answers with their partners.

Review

There was a summary section on the worksheet, and the learners were to write summaries of what they had understood with a few sentences. Firstly, they would discuss with their partners in their native languages and write the summaries in English.

Most of the learners answered the questions and wrote their summaries alone, but still, some pairs spoke about their different answers for comprehension questions. I told them they could answer the questions differently and did not have to give the same answers.

I reminded the nature of multilingual collaborative groups again. Because the learners were answering the questions alone and they did not share their summaries with their partners. Despite my warnings, they kept on answering the questions and writing the summaries individually. Some learners were still discussing the differences in their answers for the comprehension questions, and I told them that they did not have to give the same answers on their worksheets. They could answer the questions differently. Writing summaries took too much time (at least 15 minutes). It was not a good idea to ask learners to write summaries, instead, I could have told them to summarize what they had heard with a few sentences in their native languages and then translate their sentences into English only orally.

The following main differences between the control and the experimental groups have been observed.

- The experimental group seemed more active and engaged with the topic, particularly during the breaks between listening for the first and second times.
- More learners discussed listening with their partners in the experimental group.
- Both groups were focused. I felt like I was conducting an exam, which was annoying. The learners probably felt that I would give them scores for their performances even if I warned them that I would not.
- The activity for the experimental group took 15 minutes longer.

4.3.2.3. Statistical Comparison of the Scores in the 2nd Listening Task

As the comprehension scores of both groups did not meet the normality criteria, a non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was conducted in SPSS 22 to compare the scores.

Table 21

Mann-Whitney U Test Analysis of the 2nd Listening Task

Listening Task 2	
Mann-Whitney U	324,500
Wilcoxon W	675,500
Z	-,694
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,488
a. Grouping Variable: Group	

As Table 21 indicates, there is no statistically significant difference in the experimental and control groups' scores for their answers.

Table 22

Central Tendency of the 2nd Listening Task

Listening Task 2				
Group	<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mdn</i>
Experimental	5,92	26	2,115	6
Control	6,39	28	1,93	7
Total	6,16	54	2,01	6

Table 22 demonstrates that the control group had a higher mean score for the comprehension questions, which means that the control group was more successful in comprehending the text. However, it is not a statistically significant difference. The

median is higher in the control group ($Mdn= 7$), and the standard deviation is lower ($SD=1, 93$). It can be said that there was not an efficient collaboration among learners in both groups because the standard deviation scores are high. Both groups were focused on answering the questions, but the experimental group interacted more. The text's difficulty can be inferred as between as medium to easy as mean scores of both groups are close to 6. Many of the learners heard the topic 'Work placements' for the first time in this activity. Therefore, they might not have had necessary background knowledge to discuss with their partners. As a result, individual work might have been more effective as the control group had higher mean score.

4.3.3. Listening Task 3

4.3.3.1. Findings from Teacher/Researcher Journal for Control Group Listening Task

There were 28 learners on the day when the listening task was done. The learners formed 14 pairs. The topic of the listening task was "avoiding online mistakes". A warm-up discussion activity was done with the class in English to learn whether the learners had any ideas for online mistakes. As they did not have many ideas about the topic, there was not much participation. Two learners only guessed what they might be.

The worksheets with the comprehension questions were handed out, and three minutes were provided for learners to read the questions and discuss them with their partners in English. They read the questions and two pairs discussed them in English.

Despite my warnings not to use their native languages, three pairs were still trying to discuss the questions in Turkish.

Like the previous listening tasks with the control group, three pairs were trying to interact in their native languages.

The listening began. The learners listened to the text twice without pauses, but after listening for the first time, three minutes were given to learners to let them discuss what they understood with their partners. In total, three pairs discussed in English. I walked around the class and observed that except for the three pairs, all the others were checking the comprehension questions and trying to give answers individually.

One learner commented in Turkish about the listening as the person spoke too fast and did not understand anything.

I could realize that some learners had difficulties in understanding. I did not make any comments and just told learners to focus more; however, in some parts, the man in the listening was speaking too fast for learners to understand.

The learners listened for the second time. After listening, they tried to answer the questions on the worksheet. There was not much interaction. Only one pair discussed something in English silently. The learners handed in their papers, and I gave them the answers to comprehension questions. The whole activity went on for 15 minutes.

4.3.3.2. Findings from Teacher/Researcher Journal for Experimental Group

Listening Task

There were 25 learners in the class and 22 learners studied in pairs, and one group with three learners.

Preview

KWL chart was created on the board for the statement “the rules of online communication”. The learners were to think about what they knew and what they wanted to know. “L” part; that is, what they learned was planned to be done in the review phase. The learners were told that they could discuss the chart with their partners in their native languages first, and to share with the class, they should use English.

KWL chart did not work well for the learners. They were told to discuss what they know and want to know in their native languages, but many learners did not discuss, and I realized that the topic was not suitable for this chart.

The main problem might be the subject’s being specific. The learners did not seem to have the necessary background knowledge; therefore, they could not discuss even in their native languages. With this in-class experience, it can be concluded that for efficient multilingual collaborative group work, the choice of the subject could be significant.

View

The listening text was an interview. It had three parts, so the listening was not done with pauses; instead, breaks were provided between the interview parts.

The learners listened to each interview, and three-four minutes were provided for them to discuss what they understood from the text with their partners, first in their native languages and then in English.

I thought that it would raise their curiosity about the subject and comprehension.

Giving breaks for learners to let them discuss in their native languages might have increased their curiosity and comprehension. However, for this listening, most of the learners did not discuss anything with their partners, and instead, they only focused on their worksheets to answer the comprehension questions. I asked learners why they were not collaborating with their partners, and they stated that they could not hear some parts because the man spoke silently. I then realized that they were right, and some parts were silent for learners to catch. Some of the learners stated that the listening text was difficult.

The order of the comprehension questions was different in this worksheet. After each interview, the related comprehension questions were asked for the part of the text that they listened to. That should have made answering the questions easier because learners would listen to the parts, and during the breaks, they could discuss with their partners and answer the questions. Arranging the questions that way seemed to make learners more focused on listening.

The learners listened to all three interviews for a second time without any breaks. They checked their answers to the comprehension questions. However, there was not much collaboration with their partners, even in their native languages. All learners tried to answer the questions on the worksheet individually.

As the class time ended, summarizing the main points and the “L” part of the KWL chart could not be done.

In this listening task, the quality of the recording, audibility, and the listening subject might have negatively affected multilingual collaborative work. The learners said that the text was difficult, and instead of getting help from and giving help to their partners, they only tried to answer the questions. I sensed that the subject was not much interesting for the learners. The whole activity went on for 30 minutes.

4.3.3.3. Statistical Comparison of the Scores in the 3rd Listening Task

The non-parametric alternative of the t-Test, the Mann-Whitney U test, was conducted again to analyse the differences as the data did not meet the criteria of normality.

Table 23

Mann Whitney U Test Analysis of the 3rd Listening Task

3rd Listening Task	
Mann-Whitney U	246,500
Wilcoxon W	597,500
Z	-1,492
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,136

a. Grouping Variable: Group

As Table 23 indicates, the test revealed no statistically significant difference for both groups.

Table 24

Central Tendency of the 3rd Listening Task

Listening Task 3				
Group	<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mdn</i>
Experimental	6,12	25	2,72	7
Control	5,34	26	1,76	5
Total	5,72	51	2,29	6

It is clear from the table that even if the mean score of the experimental group ($M=6,12$) for the answers to comprehension questions is higher than the control group ($M=5,34$), there is not a statistically significant difference. It can be concluded from the mean scores that the experimental group was more successful in listening. The median of the experimental group ($Mdn=7$) is much higher than the median of the control group ($Mdn=5$). The standard deviation of the learners' scores is high in both groups, indicating a lack of collaboration among learners. In the experimental group, the deviation is much higher, as seen in the table ($SD=2,72$). That might be the reason why a statistically significant difference could not be found between two groups. The text difficulty can be inferred as medium to easy only by judging from the mean scores of both groups. The learners did pair work activity; however, each learner had his own paper to answer the comprehension questions. They discussed with their partners, but they were free to give any answer they thought as correct. A high standard deviation

score in the task might indicate that learners gave different answers although they discussed with their partners. ‘Online mistakes’ was a topic that learners did not have much knowledge about. Because although the experimental group was active in preview phase, the participation was not high compared to the other listening tasks. Some parts of the text were not very clear for learners to catch. That might have increased the difficulty of the text and caused learners to give different answers from their partners.

4.3.4. Listening Task 4

4.3.4.1. Findings from Teacher Journal for Control Group Listening Task

There were 28 learners in class, and they did the activity in 14 pairs. Firstly, warm-up activities were conducted as they were in the coursebook. The learners were told that they could discuss, give help to or get help from their friends in the breaks if they speak in English; otherwise, they would have to answer the questions individually. I told them that getting help would increase their listening comprehension, and it would be good for them to discuss the new vocabulary or the sentences they did not understand. The activity worksheets were handed out as one for each learner. In the worksheet, there were three parts with seven information identification questions and three matching questions about the listening text. Due to these three parts, the learners listened to the text three times to answer all the parts.

After the worksheets were handed out, three minutes were given to the learners to let them read and discuss the comprehension questions. There was not a single discussion, instead, everybody read the questions by themselves. After reading the questions, they started listening. They listened to the text three times without any pauses during listening. Between each listening, three minutes were given to learners to discuss with their partners again, but there was no discussion in English. I walked around the class to check whether the learners were answering the comprehension questions.

After they listened, there were some comments from some learners that listening was fast and they could not understand well. After listening for the first and second time, they could not answer most of the questions.

The listening might be a little faster than the previous listening tasks. I told learners to try to focus more and to take some notes. When I walked around the class, I

saw almost most of the worksheets as empty. The learners were not taking any notes, and they did not discuss what they missed or could not understand with their partners.

The learners were passive, and they listened individually without taking notes.

All class listened to and answered the questions individually. After the listening finished, I collected the worksheets and opened the listening script, and all the class listened again by reading the script. The learners checked their answers.

Even though the learners thought that the listening was fast and demanding, they did not discuss anything with their friends. They tried to answer all the questions individually, although I told them to get help from their partners in case of incomprehension. Nearly all learners did not take a single word down on their worksheets or notebooks. The listening text was two minutes long, and the whole listening activity lasted for 12 minutes.

4.3.4.2. Findings from Teacher/Researcher Journal for Experimental Group

Listening Task

There were 25 learners in the class, and 11 pairs studied together, whereas three learners studied as a group.

Preview

Firstly, the worksheets were handed out. The listening subject was not appropriate either to create a KWL chart or an anticipation guide; therefore, there was a question as, “Think that you are a web designer. How would you design a photographer’s web page?” The listening text was an interview between a web designer and a photographer who had the designer design a website for him. The learners discussed their answers in pairs with their partners, they were allowed to think in Turkish and discuss in Turkish first, and then they shared their ideas with the class in English.

There were discussions between nearly all the pairs.

The learners discussed first in Turkish, and then many of these groups discussed in English as well. For the whole-class discussion, which was done only in English, eight pairs out of 11 participated, and they gave their answers and reasons.

View

After the warm-up activity ended, three minutes were given to learners to let them discuss the meanings of questions in their native languages with their friends. There

were three parts and, in total, ten comprehension questions as usual. The learners read the questions and discussed them with their partners. During that time, I walked around the class and observed them. Many of them translated the questions into their native languages.

The listening text was two minutes long. The learners listened for the first time with one pause and the text was divided into two parts as one minute for each. During the pause, they discussed their notes and annotations with their friends in their native languages. I reminded them that they were free to take notes or annotate in their native languages. In the pause, three minutes were provided, and I walked around the class to check whether learners were discussing.

The learners had different answers for some questions, and they claimed their answers were the right ones. There was a curiosity between partners, and I felt that they listened more willingly to get the correct answer. It was like a competition for them.

All the pairs discussed willingly, but two of the 11 pairs discussed in English without using their native languages. There were some harsh discussions for the correct answers to comprehension questions between some pairs.

In the second listening phase, the learners listened to the whole text without any pauses. Another three minutes were provided for them to discuss what they heard.

In the third one, they listened to the whole text again, and some time was provided at the end to discuss the questions and what they heard. The learners answered all comprehension questions and compared them with their partners actively.

Review

The learners summarized what they had understood from the listening text to their partners. They summarized in their native languages with their partners first and shared their summaries with the class in English. Two pairs summarized to the whole class in English because we ran out of time. The whole activity lasted for 30 minutes.

It could be like competition by using “Mentimeter”, too.

If we had had more time, it could have been better if all the pairs shared their summaries by interactive presentation application “Mentimeter”. That would have been like a competition for the best summary of the listening text. Approximately it would take 20-30 minutes, which was a lot for the class time.

Overall, the learners were active during the listening, and they listened attentively. Some of them stated that the time was a little short for answering all the questions on the worksheet. I answered that all the questions were mentioned in the text. I realized in some groups that only one of the learners was keeping notes and answering the questions on the worksheet. I warned them by stating that everyone is to keep notes by using their notebooks and collaborate in the discussions to answer the comprehension questions.

As seen in the extract from the teacher/researcher journal, some learners might not collaborate in pair or group work activities, as with some pairs in the listening task. Necessary precautions should be taken to make all the learners collaborate during these activities for efficient multilingual collaborative work.

After I got the papers, I opened the script, and we listened once more by reading the script. The learners checked their answers.

The experimental group seemed to focus more on listening. They were active in their discussions in their native language and the whole-class discussion as the warm-up activity. There was some criticism for the listening text being too short to answer ten comprehension questions, and in the control group, the learners had criticized the text for being too fast to answer the questions. Asking ten questions as two parts with two different question formats could have been more appropriate. It was one of the pitfalls of this task. In the control group, the task lasted for 12 minutes whereas, in the experimental group, it lasted for half an hour, which could be too much for a class time of 45 minutes. That was due to listening to the text three times as the comprehension questions were in three different parts.

4.3.4.3. Statistical Comparison of the Scores in the 4th Listening Task

The scores were not normally distributed; therefore, the non-parametric test, the Mann-Whitney U test, was conducted through SPSS22.

Table 25

Mann Whitney U Test Analysis of the 4th Listening Task

Listening Task 4	
Mann-Whitney U	315,000
Wilcoxon W	615,000
Z	-,397
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,692

a. Grouping Variable: Group

As Table 25 indicates, there was not a statistically significant difference between the scores of both groups.

Table 26

Central Tendency of the 4th Listening Task

Listening Task 4				
Group	<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mdn</i>
Experimental	3,91	24	0,88	4
Control	3,89	28	1,68	4
Total	3,90	52	1,36	4

The mean scores of both groups indicate very close results. The medians are the same in both groups. A lower standard deviation in the experimental group might indicate an efficient collaboration among learners. But overall comprehension showed no statistically significant difference. The mean scores and the median of both groups are low, indicating that the listening task might have been difficult for learners. In the preview phase, a translingual role-play activity was conducted in the experimental group but as the mean score indicated it did not help learners comprehend the text more. Some learners stated that the time was not enough to answer the ten comprehension questions and the text was fast. That might indicate that the efficacy of translingual pedagogy can decrease in listening tasks with difficult text or questions.

4.3.5. Listening Task 5

4.3.5.1. Findings from Teacher Journal for Control Group Listening Task

There were 25 learners in the class during the day when the activity was conducted, and learners did the task in 11 pairs and one group with three learners. In the listening, four learners were talking about their university education. The listening was two minutes 54 seconds long. The warm-up activities were conducted in English as they were in the course book. The learners seemed interested in the subject.

The worksheets with comprehension questions were handed out, and some time was provided to read and discuss the questions with partners. When the learners were ready, the listening started.

The learners listened to the text twice. Between the first and the second time, three minutes were provided again to let learners discuss what they had understood in English with their partners.

Only three pairs discussed their answers with their partners in English in the pause and at the end. The others worked individually, and they were passive without any speech.

At the end of the listening, three minutes were given to learners again to check and compare their answers to comprehension questions with their partners. However, as the extract demonstrates, many learners were passive, and they only answered the questions individually.

At the end of the listening, the answers were given to the learners to check their comprehension.

The text and the questions were not very difficult, as many of the learners gave answers without leaving any questions blank. The whole listening task went on for 15 minutes.

4.3.5.2. Findings from Teacher/Researcher Journal for Experimental Group Listening Task

There were 28 learners in total, and 14 pairs were formed.

Preview

Firstly, an anticipation guide was drawn on the board for the statement, “University is a waste of time for some people.” Learners were told to discuss their ideas first with their friends in Turkish, and then they would share their ideas with the whole class in English. While they were discussing in pairs, I walked around the class to observe their discussions. Three groups were discussing in English, and the others were discussing in Turkish. I started the whole-class discussion, which would be in English.

There was not much participation in the whole class discussion. Three pairs shared their ideas no matter how much I tried to encourage them to discuss their ideas.

Only one learner from three pairs shared their ideas, and the others were silent. Although they had discussed with their partners actively in either Turkish or English, they did not participate in the whole-class discussion. That might have been either because the subject was not very interesting, or learners did not have different ideas.

View

The worksheets were handed out, and three minutes were provided for learners to read the questions. Then the listening started. In listening, four different people were talking about their university education. The learners listened to the first two people, and they had a break for two minutes to discuss their notes and what they understood with their partners. They also answered the comprehension questions about the part that they had listened to. Then they listened to the last two people, and they had another two minutes for discussion. Nearly all pairs discussed what they understood firstly in their native languages and then in English. For the second time, the learners listened to the whole text without pauses, answered the questions or checked their answers, and compared their answers with their friends.

Review

After the learners completed the worksheet, instead of summarizing, they had a whole-class discussion. The learners discussed the advantages and disadvantages of studying at university with a translingual approach; therefore, first, they organized their ideas by discussing in their native languages with their partners and then in English with the whole class. The learners were not very active even when they discussed in their native languages with their partners. And for the whole-class discussion, only two learners shared their ideas. Some learners stated that the subject was too specific to find different ideas, and they thought the same with the learners who shared their ideas with the class.

All listening activity was 30 minutes. When compared to the other listening tasks, the experimental group was not very enthusiastic about the subject. They stated that the listening and the questions were easy. They might have only focused on answering the questions, and when they answered, they might not have felt like speaking on the subject further.

4.3.5.3. Statistical Comparison of the Scores in the 5th Listening Task

The scores were not normally distributed; therefore, the non-parametric test, the Mann-Whitney U test, was conducted through SPSS22.

Table 27

Mann-Whitney U Test Analysis of the 5th Listening Task

Listening Task 5	
Mann-Whitney U	316,000
Wilcoxon W	641,000
Z	-,624
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,533

a. Grouping Variable: Group

As the analysis indicates, there was not a statistically significant difference between the scores of both groups.

Table 28

Central Tendency of the 5th Listening Task

Listening Task 5				
Group	<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mdn</i>
Experimental	6,71	28	0,89	7
Control	6,32	25	1,77	7
Total	6,52	53	1,38	7

The analysis results revealed no statistically significant difference between the comprehension scores of both groups. However, the mean score of the experimental group (6, 71) is higher than the control group's mean score (6, 32). The median scores are the same (7). The lower standard deviation of the experimental group (= 0, 89) might demonstrate an efficient collaboration. The high mean scores of both groups could demonstrate that the listening and comprehension questions might have been easy for learners in both groups, which might indicate that translanguaging pedagogy might not cause a significant difference in listening tasks with easy texts because the interaction of learners could reduce.

4.3.6. Reading Task 1**4.3.6.1. Findings from Teacher/Researcher Journal for Control Group Reading Task**

There were 20 learners in the class on the day when the first reading task was conducted. The learners formed ten pairs. After discussing the warm-up activities on the coursebook, the worksheets with comprehension questions about the reading text were handed out.

I told learners that there is nothing to worry about. It was not an exam, but they would only have to answer the questions about the reading text in these worksheets.

As the learners are panicked in the exams, the rules of the reading task were explained. The different thing that the learners would do was to work with their partners to understand the text more and to answer the questions on the worksheets to share them with the teacher.

The learners might have been more engaged because they knew that I would check all their answers.

I asked learners to write their names on the worksheet, which could be considered a limitation; however, if I had not done that, some of the learners would not have answered the questions. I gave learners three minutes to read all ten comprehension questions and discuss their meanings with their partners in English. All learners read the questions on their own.

I chose volunteer learners to read aloud the text for the whole class. Three learners read the whole text, and I did not comment on the reading, such as difficult sentences or vocabulary. I told learners to talk with their friends about complex sentences or words but only in English. Nobody spoke with each other except some mutters in native languages. This discussion was done after the reading aloud finished. I walked around the class to observe learners' discussions. Most learners were reading the text individually and checking vocabulary from online dictionaries on their smartphones.

I gave learners five minutes to answer the questions. I reminded them to work with their partners again; however, most answered the questions individually. After they finished answering the questions, I told them to write a summary of the text's main idea or what they understood with a few sentences. Everybody tried to do that individually.

The learners were free to talk with their friends in English, but the class was silent, and everyone answered the questions as if they were taking a reading exam.

Asking learners to write their summaries was not a good idea. A discussion in English with their partners might have been better.

The learners were engaged in all phases of the activity individually without any noise. After they finished, I collected the papers and gave them the answers.

Learners did not seem willing to discuss, get help from or give help to their partners in English. They might have felt like they were taking a reading exam which was a little annoying. The whole reading activity lasted for 30 minutes.

4.3.6.2. Findings from Teacher Journal for Experimental Group Reading Task

There were 23 learners in the class; therefore, learners formed ten pairs and one group with three learners.

Preview

An anticipation guide was drawn on board for the sentence, “You should travel abroad if you want to have a good travel experience.” Learners were told to talk with their partners about their answers in their native languages first. The learners were surprised when I told them that because normally, we would do all these kinds of activities in English. After they talked with their friends in Turkish, I told them to share their ideas with the whole class in English. The learners discussed with their partners in Turkish. Three pairs were trying to use English. In the whole-class discussion, all the pairs participated, and four pairs disagreed while the other six and one group agreed with the statement. They explained their reasons in English well enough. The reading text was about travelling abroad.

Worksheets were handed out. Learners were told about the activity they were going to do.

View

There were three paragraphs in the reading text. Learners were told that they were supposed to read each paragraph with their partners. They were free to use their native languages to discuss unknown words, sentences, or just for annotations.

The learners were surprised that they were free to use their native languages.

Normally in these kinds of activities, they would speak only in English most of the time. I tried to explain the rationale behind the translingual approach and why we

would use our native languages for discussion. The learners were asked to summarize the entire paragraph that they had read with a few sentences, and they could prepare the summaries with their partners. They could discuss in their native languages, but the summaries were to be written in English. There was discussion among learners both in their native languages and in English here.

All learners participated; however, I warned some groups that they should all contribute to annotations.

In some pairs, I observed that only one learner was taking notes and annotating the paragraph. Ensuring real collaboration can be difficult. Most of the learners participated actively after my warnings, but the summarizing activity took a long time (nearly 25 minutes). For next time, it could be better if learners only summarize the paragraph by discussing it.

After they discussed all three paragraphs and wrote their summaries, five minutes were provided to answer the comprehension questions with their partners. They answered the questions.

Review

Here, the learners were asked to summarize the whole text with a few sentences. They could mention what they had learned and written the main idea of the text. They could discuss with their partners in their native languages; however, writing the summary should be done in English. Learners did the activity. If we had more time, it would have been better to design an interactive “the best summary” competition using interactive presentation software. The class time finished.

After the activities finished, I gave the answers to comprehension questions. The whole activity went on for 30 minutes.

Learners were more active than the control group. I warned them for real collaboration, and this was one of the biggest challenges of the class. Some learners did not contribute to the activity and were interested in something else.

4.3.6.3. Statistical Comparison of the Scores in the 1st Reading Task

The scores were not normally distributed; therefore, the non-parametric test Mann-Whitney U test was conducted through SPSS22.

Table 29

Mann-Whitney U Test Analysis of the 1st Reading Task

ReadingTask1	
Mann-Whitney U	182,000
Wilcoxon W	392,000
Z	-,980
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,327
a. Grouping Variable: Group	

As Table 29 indicates, there was not a statistically significant difference in scores of both control and experimental groups.

Table 30

Central Tendency of the 1st Reading Task

Reading Task 1				
Group	M.	N.	SD.	Mdn.
Experimental	6,63	22	1,46	7
Control	6,20	20	1,70	6
Total	6,42	42	1,57	6

Although the experimental group has a higher mean score (6, 63) with a higher median score (7) compared to the control group (6, 20), there is not a statistically significant difference between both groups. The standard deviation is lower in the experimental group (1, 46), which might mean that collaboration among learners was better as their scores are more similar to each other. It is possible to conclude from the high mean scores of both groups that the reading text and the comprehension questions might have been easy for learners. As the interaction was more in the experimental group, it can be concluded that translingual pair work activity could have helped learners collaborate and got higher mean scores.

4.3.7. Reading Task 2

4.3.7.1 Findings from Teacher/Researcher Journal for Control Group Reading Task

There were 26 learners in the class, and the learners formed 13 pairs. Before the reading started, the discussion and warm-up activities were conducted in English as in the coursebook. The worksheets were handed out, and learners were assigned into pairs. The whole text was read aloud by volunteer learners while the others listened.

After reading aloud, five minutes were given to learners to answer the comprehension questions.

The learners were warned that they had two options: talk with their partners to help or get help from them only in English or answer the questions alone.

I walked around the class and observed learners. Only three groups spoke in English with each other, and they shared information about the text. However, the other ten pairs were silent, and they answered the comprehension questions alone without any interaction.

When they finished answering the questions, I asked them to summarize what they understood to their partners in English. Most of the pairs did that, and they spoke in English.

There was an international learner from Yemen, and at the end of the class, he came and told me that there were many words and sentences that he could not understand. I told him that he could have discussed them with his partner, but he stated that his partner was unwilling to speak in English and his Turkish was not enough to discuss the text. Even if his English was enough to discuss unclear parts of the text with Basic English, his partner was unwilling.

The whole reading task lasted 30 minutes.

4.3.7.2. Findings from Teacher/Researcher Journal for Experimental Group

Reading Task

There were 23 learners in the class, and they formed ten pairs and one group with three learners studying together. The reading text was an informative article from a magazine, and it was about working home-office.

Preview

Anticipation guide was done with the following quotation: “Working home office is the best option for a person.” The learners thought individually for three-five minutes and then shared their ideas with their partners. They could take their notes in their native languages to develop their ideas. There was a discussion among many learners in the class. Nine pairs were discussing in Turkish while one pair and one group were trying to discuss in English. After discussing with partners, a whole-class discussion

was conducted. Seven pairs shared their ideas for the statement with their reasons in English.

After the anticipation guide was done, the worksheets with comprehension questions were handed out.

View

There were six paragraphs in the text, and the whole text was divided into three parts as reading two paragraphs at a time. Volunteer learners read two paragraphs, and a break for three minutes for discussion was provided. There were blank tables on the worksheet (see. appendices), and learners were to take notes and annotate there. I had designed the worksheets to make learners' tasks easier.

The learners felt they had an exam, and everyone tried to summarize and annotate on their own. I informed them, again and again, to work together and stated that they could use their native languages as well. However, they just went on writing long summaries.

Designing the worksheet with blank tables on which learners could take notes and annotate might have been a bad idea. It might have been better to let learners only talk about what they learned, write down keywords to develop their ideas, translate each sentence with their partners and write a summary with only one or two sentences for the related paragraphs. The learners might have felt freer for an efficient multilingual collaborative work that way.

The class was not interactive, and I felt like I was assessing learners for their reading performance. It was a bit disappointing. However, next time it might be better to let them translate each sentence with their partners and talk about the keywords and main ideas of the related paragraphs.

The learners answered comprehension questions. There was more interaction at this point. Most of the learners asked their partners about the vocabulary and the sentences they did not understand. I walked around the class and observed the learners' discussions.

Review

The learners summarized the text's main idea with their partners, firstly in their native languages and then in English with the whole class. Summarizing in the native language was done by most pairs; however, due to the limited time, only two pairs shared the main idea of the text with the class in English.

The activity went on for nearly 60 minutes. It was very long.

When the learners' worksheets were analysed, it was realized that unnecessary long sentences had been annotated from the reading. Learners might have problems with annotating and summarizing the key points in paragraphs.

4.3.7.3. Statistical Comparison of the Scores in the 2nd Reading Task

The scores were not normally distributed; therefore, the non-parametric test Mann-Whitney U test was conducted through SPSS22.

Table 31

Mann Whitney-U Test Analysis of the 2nd Reading Task

Reading Task 2	
Mann-Whitney U	285,000
Wilcoxon W	561,000
Z	-,284
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,776
a. Grouping Variable: Group	

Mann-Whitney U test revealed no statistically significant difference for comprehension scores of both groups in reading task 2.

Table 32

Central Tendency of the 2nd Reading Task

Reading Task 2				
Group	<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mdn</i>
Experimental	6,04	23	2,22	6
Control	6,34	26	1,54	6
Total	6,20	49	1,88	6

The control group had a higher mean score (6, 34) than the experimental group (6, 04). A higher standard deviation for the experimental group might indicate the distribution of scores with a wide range, which could mean weak collaborative work among learners. The total mean score is high (6, 20), demonstrating that the reading text

and questions might have been easy for learners. Giving blank spaces in the paper that was handed out in the experimental group might have affected the success of the translingual pedagogy because all learners focused on completing these blanks with summaries and annotations; therefore, they did the task alone despite the encouragement of the researcher. An oral discussion might have been more effective.

4.3.8. Reading Task 3

4.3.8.1. Findings from Teacher/Researcher Journal for Control Group Reading Task

There were 28 learners in the class, and 14 pairs were formed. The reading subject was the same as the subject of listening “how to avoid mistakes online”.

The worksheet with comprehension questions was handed out. Three minutes were given for reading the questions. There were two parts with six matching questions in the first and four matching questions in the second part. In the first part, there were six tips as different paragraphs, and the title for each paragraph was blank. The learners were to skim the text and match the correct titles with the related tips. The learners were informed that they could do all the tasks with their partners by discussing them in English. Five minutes were given for skimming, and I walked around the class to check whether learners were collaborating. Learners read the tips individually and matched the titles with the tips. It seemed not to be a difficult task for most of them.

For the second part, the learners matched the statements with correct paragraphs. Two pairs were discussing in English; however, the others were doing the activity by themselves. After the learners answered the questions, I told them to summarize what they understood to their partners in English or to talk about any new things they learned by reading. Many of the learners discussed in English. After my warnings not to use their native languages, I heard not a single word in Turkish. They summarized and talked about the main points. Nearly all pairs shared their summaries with the class in English.

Overall, the comprehension questions and the reading text was clear to understand. The learners seemed not to have much difficulty in the task. The whole reading activity lasted for 23 minutes.

4.3.8.2. Findings from Teacher Journal for Experimental Group Reading Task

There were 25 learners in the class, and 11 pairs and one group with three learners was formed. There was no anticipation guide or KWL chart for the reading because the subject was the same as the listening subject done in the previous class.

The worksheets were handed out. The comprehension questions were the same as the questions of the control group; however, the design of the worksheet was different (see. Appendix C). There were six paragraphs with different tips about how to avoid mistakes online. There were three blank tables titled “first/second paragraphs-third/fourth paragraphs-fifth/sixth paragraphs,” on the worksheet. Learners read every two paragraphs with their partners. They took down notes or annotated in their native languages to these blank tables. I gave them three minutes to let them discuss in their native languages the paragraphs they read with their partners after reading every two paragraphs. They could share their annotations, notes or talk about incomprehensible sentences or vocabulary in the paragraphs. I gave learners four minutes to read every two paragraphs and gave another three minutes for discussion. I opened the stopwatch software on the board. In these three minutes of discussion breaks, I walked around the class to check how the pairs were doing. I observed that there were not many interactions. Most learners were reading again and again silently and were trying to answer the questions on the next page. I warned learners to discuss each sentence if necessary. I told them to understand each sentence and word in the reading text; however, nothing changed. The class was passive without discussion, even in their native languages.

The learners were not working together. They told me that the text was easy and tried to ask me some words. I told them to discuss these with their partners, and if needed, they could also check the words in their dictionaries.

Despite my warning to discuss with their partners, the learners kept asking me some of the words in their native languages. I told them in English that they could only use their native languages with their partners and ask them if they needed to. However, they preferred to look at the meaning of words on the dictionaries on their smartphones.

The comprehension questions were the same as the questions of the control group. There were in total ten questions, which were all matching questions. I gave learners

five minutes to answer the questions, and they answered all of them individually without discussions with partners.

There was not much time for summarizing and discussing what was learned in the experimental group. Instead of summarizing, the presentation software of the coursebook was opened, and the reading text was reflected on the board. I underlined some sentences. I told some learners' names from the attendance list and wanted them to translate the parts I had underlined for them. These learners tried to translate different parts of the text, but most were not very successful. This revealed that although they thought the text was easy and there was no need to discuss the sentences with their partners, most of them could not make the right translations of the sentences, and some of them even misunderstood the information in the text. I told them that we would do the same kind of activities in the following weeks. This after-translation activity can be helpful in that learners might feel a need to discuss the meanings of the sentences and words with their partners. If there is enough time, this after-translation activity can be designed as a competition of the pairs in interactive presentation software.

4.3.8.3. Statistical Comparison of the Scores in the 3rd Reading Task

The scores were not normally distributed; therefore, the non-parametric test Mann-Whitney U test was conducted through SPSS22.

Table 33

Mann-Whitney U Test Analysis of the 3rd Reading Task

Reading Task 3	
Mann-Whitney U	312,000
Wilcoxon W	718,000
Z	-,707
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,480
a. Grouping Variable: Group	

As Table 33 indicates, no statistically significant difference was found between the comprehension scores of the experimental and control groups.

Table 34

Central Tendency of the 3rd Reading Task

Reading Task 3				
Group	<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mdn</i>
Experimental	7,24	25	2,25	8
Control	7,32	28	1,24	7
Total	7,28	53	1,77	7

Table 34 demonstrates that the control group has a higher mean score (7, 32) than the experimental group (7, 24). The median is higher in the experimental group (8); however, the high standard deviation score in the experimental group might indicate that the pairs did not collaborate efficiently, and there is a variation in the scores. Although real collaboration was not observed in the control group, the variation of the scores is lower. The total mean score of both groups is high, indicating that the questions that were all matching questions were easy for learners. There was not much interaction between learners in the experimental group, and they told me that the text and questions were easy. It can be said that they did not feel the need to interact with their partners; however, some learners gave the wrong answers. From these findings, it can be concluded that in very easy listening tasks, translanguaging orientation might not provide better results than the monolingual orientation.

4.3.9. Reading Task 4

4.3.9.1. Findings from Teacher Journal for Control Group Reading Task

There were 23 learners in the class; therefore, ten pairs and one group with three learners were formed. The reading text was a magazine article titled “Advertisers targeting young people”. There were eight paragraphs, and it was a long text with some complex sentences.

The worksheet with ten comprehension questions was handed out. Three minutes were given to learners to read the questions before reading the text. They were reminded that they were free to discuss with their partners the questions in English. Learners preferred to read the questions individually without discussions.

The text was read aloud by different learners. I did not comment on any words or sentences during the read-aloud activity.

After reading aloud, I gave time to learners to answer the questions. I reminded them that they could get help from each other only in English.

Many learners were communicating with their partners in Turkish. Therefore, I just walked around and approached the ones that were speaking. They were trying to speak silently in Turkish, and when I approached, they switched to English.

After 20 minutes, I collected the papers and gave the answers. During the activities, the class was silent and not very active. However, all the learners seemed to be engaged in the task individually. The whole reading task went on for 25 minutes.

4.3.9.2. Findings from Teacher Journal for Experimental Group Reading Task

There were 30 learners in the class. Two of the learners said they were not feeling very well that day and were not included in a pair. So, there were 14 pairs in the class.

Preview

Before handing out the worksheet, an anticipation guide was written on board “Advertisements can be bad for children.” Learners were given time to discuss with their partners in their native languages, and they shared their ideas back with the class in English. From my observations, it was clear that except for two pairs, the others were discussing in their native languages. These two pairs were discussing in English. 11 pairs participated in the whole class discussion in English.

View

The worksheets were handed out for each pair. In the worksheet, there were not any blank tables for annotation or note-taking. There were only comprehension questions. I just wrote a note on the top of the page as:

Read each paragraph and underline the incomprehensible sentences or words, share them with your partner in your native language. Translate each paragraph in general terms without going into much detail.

Three minutes were given to let learners read the questions on the paper. All pairs discussed the meanings of the questions in their native languages.

Five minutes were provided to read the first two paragraphs individually and silently. The learners were reminded that they should underline the sentences and words they did not know the meanings of. After five minutes, three other minutes were given to learners to discuss what they understood in their native languages. The learners were

reminded that they should understand each sentence well because, in the following minutes, I would ask each pair some sentences from the text to translate. The same process was repeated in the following two paragraphs. The learners were reminded to answer the questions on the worksheet as well. All the groups were interacting and talking about the meanings of sentences or words. The class was loud, and they all discussed what they understood in their native languages. The same process was repeated in the last two paragraphs. The learners were told to answer the questions, and with their partners, they answered all the comprehension questions on the paper.

I collected the worksheets, and the class had a break for 30 minutes.

After the break, I gave the answers.

Review

I told learners to summarize what they read to their partners in their native languages. I listened to the summaries of three pairs. They summarized in their native language with partners, but they switched to English while sharing with the class and me.

I referred to the anticipation guide again and asked learners if there were any changes in their ideas. Many of the learners said they thought the same; however, three learners changed their ideas for why they agreed or disagreed. One learner said that she was surprised due to the new information she learned while reading the text. This was not done as translanguaging group activity. It was done as a whole class. But class participation was quite high.

Lastly, I underlined three sentences in the text and asked learners to translate them. As they had done the same with their partners while reading the paragraphs in the previous class, it was easy for them to translate the sentences. Nearly all pairs were willing to do the translation, but I listened to the translations of four pairs due to limited time.

4.3.9.3. Statistical Comparison of the Scores in the 4th Reading Task

The comprehension scores of the experimental and control groups did not have normal distribution; therefore, the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was conducted through SPSS22.

Table 35

Mann-Whitney U Test Analysis of the 4th Reading Task

Reading Task 4	
Mann-Whitney U	239,000
Wilcoxon W	515,000
Z	-1,626
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,104

a. Grouping Variable: Group

As Table 35 indicates, there was not a statistically significant difference in the reading comprehension scores of the control and experimental groups for the 4th reading task.

Table 36

Central Tendency of the 4th Reading Task

Reading Task 4				
Group	<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mdn</i>
Experimental	6	28	1,27	6
Control	5,30	23	1,29	5
Total	5,68	51	1,31	6

The experimental group had a higher mean score (6) than the control group (5,30); however, it was not statistically significant. The median for the experimental group (6) was higher. The standard deviation scores of both groups were very close to each other, and the experimental group had a lower deviation score (1,27). A mean score in the middle (5,68) could indicate that the text and the comprehension questions had medium difficulty. During the view phase in the experimental group, some sentences in the reading text was underlined and a ‘best-translation’ competition was done among pairs. The underlined sentences were chosen by the researcher, and they were the ones that were most difficult for learners to comprehend. The learners were very active in this game-like activity, and they stated it was fun. This activity might have helped learners comprehend the text more as the experimental group got a higher mean score. It might have helped learners summarize the text as well because the summaries learners shared through interactive presentation software were good. In conclusion, designing best summary or best translated sentence activities through translingual dialogues might be efficient for more comprehension and more collaboration among learners.

4.3.10. Reading Task 5

4.3.10.1. Findings from Teacher Journal for Control Group Reading Task

There were 24 learners in the class and 12 pairs were formed. The reading text was an opinion article with five paragraphs titled “Free university education”. There were three warm-up discussion questions in the coursebook, and before learners started reading, they answered the questions with their partners in English.

The worksheet was handed out. There were three parts in the worksheet and a total of ten comprehension questions. The rules were reminded again. They were to answer questions about the text. They can help and get help from their partners only in English. Some time was provided for learners to read the questions.

The learners read the questions individually, and they did not help or get help from their friends in English. I walked around the class to check if they help each other in English, but everybody studied individually.

The text was read aloud by five different learners, paragraph by paragraph. There were no pauses or breaks, and I did not comment on any sentences or words.

I gave learners five minutes to answer the questions. I walked around the class. Three pairs were helping each other in English by discussing how they answered the questions and referencing the parts in the text. All the other learners were studying individually. I saw five learners using a translator to translate the words that they could not understand from English to Turkish. Three learners tried to ask me some questions in Turkish, but I refused them and encouraged them to ask in English. They did not.

All the pairs handed in the papers after they finished answering the questions. The class was silent, and learners were focused on reading and answering the questions. They stated that the questions and the reading were simple.

4.3.10.2. Findings from Teacher Journal for Experimental Group Reading Task

There were 28 learners in the class, and 14 pairs were formed.

Preview

An anticipation guide was done for “universities should be free”. Learners first discussed with their partners in their native languages. Two pairs insisted on discussing

in English while others discussed in their native languages. The pairs shared their ideas with the class in English. Three pairs participated actively, whereas the others did not participate in the whole class discussion.

The worksheets were handed out. There were not any tables for taking notes or annotating. The learners were told to annotate and take notes on their notebooks or the back page of the worksheet. Three minutes were given to let learners read the questions and discuss them with their partners. The learners read the questions individually.

View

I read aloud the text myself. The learners followed the lines. There were five paragraphs, and after two paragraphs, I gave a break for five minutes to let learners discuss with their partners what they understood. I reminded them that they could use their native languages; however, most groups were silent. (Only four-five pairs were interacting in Turkish).

Some learners tried to ask me some words instead of discussing them with their partners, but I told them to guess the meaning from the context with their friends, or if that did not work, they could check the meaning in their dictionaries. While reading, I told learners to underline a sentence from each paragraph and give ordinal numbers to it.

I went on reading and read the whole text. After I read the whole text, I gave learners five minutes to discuss what they understood in their native languages with their friends. I reminded them that they could also talk about the parts or words they could not understand with their partners. Many of the learners interacted well. I reminded them to answer the questions in the worksheet. I told them to understand the underlined sentences well enough by translating them into their native languages.

Review

After the learners discussed and answered the questions, I told them to summarize the text to their partners in their native languages, and then they would share their summaries with the rest of the class in English. All pairs summarized the text in Turkish with their partners; however, only three pairs shared their summaries with the class in English. I waited and encouraged learners to share the summaries; however, there were not any responses. They stated that the text was simple, and these three pairs summarized all details about the text; there was nothing else to add.

I asked learners if there were any changes in their ideas for the statement in the anticipation guide, “Universities should be free”. The text favoured universities being free, so they said that there were no changes. While creating statements for anticipation guides, it could be better to choose sentences for which learners’ ideas can change after reading the texts.

There were five sentences that we had underlined while reading the text. I asked some pairs randomly to translate each sentence for the whole class. All the pairs translated the sentences well. That indicated that they had collaborated with their partners efficiently and had done the translations.

4.3.10.3. Statistical Comparison of the Scores in the 5th Reading Task

The scores were not normally distributed; therefore, the non-parametric test Mann-Whitney U test was conducted through SPSS22.

Table 37

Mann Whitney-U Test Analysis of the 5th Reading Task

Reading Task 5	
Mann-Whitney U	275,000
Wilcoxon W	681,000
Z	-1,139
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,255
a. Grouping Variable: Group	

As Table 37 indicates, the analysis revealed no statistically significant difference.

Table 38

Central Tendency of the 5th Reading Task

Reading Task 5				
Group	<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mdn</i>
Experimental	6,07	28	1,82	6
Control	6,58	24	1,74	7
Total	6,30	52	1,78	7

Table 38 indicates that the control group had a slightly higher mean score (6, 58) than the experimental group (6, 07). The standard deviation scores of both groups were close to each other. The deviation score was higher in the experimental group, but there were more learners in the group. The median was higher in the control group (7). The

total score was high in both groups; therefore, it can be concluded that the reading task had medium-easy difficulty for the learners. The learners in the experimental group did not collaborate compared to the other tasks and when asked they responded that the text was easy, and they did not need to collaborate. Furthermore, the learners were passive in review phase. Because, they did not have different ideas from their friends. That might indicate the significance of designing efficient anticipation guide or KWL charts both for preview and review phases. If these are appropriate for both preview and review, translingual discussions during them might help for more comprehension. This could also emphasize the significance of topic or subject of the text as some topics might not be appropriate to design efficient preview and review activities.

4.4. Findings of the Open-ended Questionnaire for the Control Group

An open-ended questionnaire with six questions was conducted with the control group to reveal the difficulties in reading and listening tasks with a monolingual approach (see. Appendix D). A thorough qualitative data analysis was conducted to analyse the data with pre-coding, coding, categorization stages. The categories were quantified, and they will be presented in the following tables. Learners' extracts will be provided for the most frequent factors that might increase listening and reading task difficulty and for the factors related to the study's variables.

Table 39

Frequent Categories for the 1st Question in the Control Group

1. What difficulties did you have in the listening tasks?	N.
Fast speech-pace of the listening	13
Pronunciation of the speakers	8
Sound quality	5
Problems focusing	4
Lack of vocabulary	3
The cognitive load of the sentences	2
Uninteresting listening texts	1

As Table 39 indicates, the most frequent answer in the questionnaire was the fast speech-pace of the listening. That might mean that most learners think that speakers in the listening tasks spoke fast, and they had difficulty understanding them due to this fast speech.

“...in the listening activities, the speakers used British accent, and they spoke too fast; therefore, I had difficulty understanding...” (Learner 9)

Many of the participants stated the two factors together: fast speech-pace and accent of the speakers. That might be a difficulty that cannot be solved by adopting a translingual orientation. However, forming pairs to let learners help each other might ideally overcome incomprehension.

The second most frequent difficulty was stated as the speakers' pronunciation, which is close to the first most frequent factor. Learners might think the speakers speak fast because they might not understand their pronunciation.

“...sometimes, I do not even understand the word that I know when it is pronounced in the listening...” (Learner 5)

Sound quality can be related to the classroom equipment and the recordings provided by the coursebook. Some learners stated that they had problems focusing, which might be due to individual factors and psychological conditions in classes.

“...when I cannot catch a part of the text while listening, I cannot focus for the rest, and I am lost...” (Learner 17)

Particularly in long listening texts, the learners might be lost. Choosing shorter texts or giving breaks by dividing the text into equal pieces might help learners focus more.

The learners' responses indicate that the vocabulary in listening texts might be another factor that causes difficulty. The presence of difficult sentences is another factor, which can be due to a lack of vocabulary.

“...I can catch only one or two words that I know in the listening, and I have difficulty because I try to understand the whole text with these few words...” (Learner 7)

Having difficulty due to uninteresting listening texts occurred only once in the learners' answers.

Table 40

Frequent Categories for the 2nd Question in the Control Group

2. What difficulties did you have in the reading tasks?	N.
Lack of vocabulary knowledge	11
No difficulties	7
Focusing on pronunciation rather than meaning in reading-aloud activities.	4
Reading aloud anxiety	2
Need for translation	1
Prejudice for text to be difficult	1
Limited time for reading	1

In the reading tasks, the factor that most learners stated as a cause of the difficulty was the lack of vocabulary knowledge, as Table 40 indicates. As the study was conducted at the intermediate level, the vocabulary in the reading texts might be difficult for learners, and they think that this difficulty makes the reading task difficult.

“...I had difficulty in reading if there were words that I did not know the meanings of; otherwise, the texts were easy...” (Learner 4)

“...some sentences were complicated for me, but generally, I think I could not understand the texts due to a lack of vocabulary knowledge...” (Learner 6)

Seven of the learners’ answers stated that they did not have difficulty in the reading tasks. For the listening tasks, they claimed more factors that could cause difficulty, and for reading tasks, more learners think that the tasks were not difficult. Two other most common factors obtained from the learners’ answers were related to reading aloud, which is out of the scope of the study. When learners read aloud the texts, they stated that they do not focus on meaning, but pronunciation, which causes difficulty in understanding the text. Reading aloud anxiety is also related to the same factor, and it was encountered twice in learners’ answers. These findings might mean that in the class, rather than making learners read aloud the texts, it could be better to let them read silently or follow the teacher who reads aloud.

“...not being able to translate all the text makes the reading task difficult...” (Learner 19)

A need for translation was identified once in learners’ answers. That could mean that providing translated versions of reading texts might help learners understand better, which is a premise of translanguaging pedagogy.

In the intermediate level reading texts on coursebooks, the texts might be considered difficult with long sentences and vocabulary. When learners see the texts for

the first time, they might get the impression that the text would be difficult to understand, which was found once in the analysis. Preview or warm-up activities should be designed well to help learners break this prejudice for the text to be difficult.

“...when I see the text for the first time, I think that the text will be difficult...”
(Learner 19)

Limited time for reading was stated once, and they might warn planners and teachers to be careful about allocating enough time for learners to read the texts and comprehend.

Table 41

Frequent Categories for the 3rd Question in the Control Group

3. What do you think about doing the listening and reading tasks as pair-group work?	N.
Getting/giving help for unclear points	7
Sharing background knowledge	7
More English practice	5
Easier communication with partners	4
More fun	1
More consciousness and focusing	1
No need for group/pair work for listening/reading (individual skills)	2
No need- Only stronger learners help the poorer ones.	1

In this question, the learners' ideas on whether doing pair-group work activities for reading and listening tasks with a monolingual approach is efficient or not. As it is clear in Table 41, the frequency was most for getting or giving help for unclear points. That might mean that learners think doing pair-group work for reading and listening tasks is effective for giving and getting help.

“...I think pair-group work activities were efficient because we helped each other for unclear parts...” (Learner 9)

“...first I answered comprehension questions individually and then when we compared our answers with my partner, we realized our mistakes more efficiently, so pair-group work was nice...” (Learner 15)

Sharing background information about the subject of the reading text is the second most frequent factor for considering pair or group work as efficient for reading tasks.

“... I think it was beneficial because we benefitted from each other’s knowledge about the subject...” (Learner 6)

The third most common factor was found as more English practice. That might indicate that learners consider pair-group work activities for reading tasks as an opportunity for practising their target language-speaking skills.

“...they were useful. I think our accent and pronunciation improved...” (Learner 2)

“...doing reading tasks as pair-work was useful for me. Because I think I practised more...” (Learner 8)

The other reason why learners think that pair-group work is efficient for reading tasks is that they communicate more easily with their partners and friends. That could mean that learners prefer asking incomprehensible sentences and vocabulary to their partners instead of teachers. In one of the learners’ answers, pair-group work activities for reading tasks were claimed to be more fun, whereas in another, pair-group work was considered efficient for reading tasks because it enables learners to focus more and be more conscious. That might mean that when learners do the activity with a partner, they might be more engaged in the task.

“...it was useful. We were more awake. It was fun. If we feel stress-free with our friends, we can improve our English...” (Learner 1)

As it is clear from the table, many learners are positive about doing pair-group work for reading tasks; however, there are negative answers. In two of the learners’ answers, it was stated that there is no need to do pair-group work for reading and listening because they are individual skills, and in the exams, everybody answers the questions on their own.

“...I think they should be done individually. In exams, we read and answer the questions individually...” (Learner 20)

In one of the learners’ answers, pair-group work was considered inefficient due to a lack of collaboration. It was stated that only the learner with lower proficiency in English gets help through these pair-group work activities, and they are not good for more proficient learners. That might emphasize the significance of ensuring an efficient collaboration among learners in these activities.

“...I do not think they are useful. By doing reading tasks together, proficient learners hide the weaknesses of weaker partners, and this is a temporary solution to save time for weak learners...” (Learner 13)

Forming new pairs or groups for each reading and listening task might overcome this problem. That way, learners can be pairs with weaker or more proficient learners in each task.

Table 42

Categories for the 4th Question in the Control Group

4. What kind of effects do you think the English-only conversations with your friends in the listening tasks had on listening comprehension?	N.
Positive short answers	10
More focusing	3
Necessity for comprehension	3
Information exchange	2
Negative Effect- Not being able to express ourselves	1
Negative Effect- Listening/speaking different skills / no need to tell what I understand in English	1
Negative Effect- The task deviates from the aim	1

After getting learners' positive ideas for the efficiency of pair-group work activities for reading and listening tasks, the fourth question reveals learners' ideas on what effects English conversations in pair-group work activities have on their listening comprehension. The number of short answers is noticeable in the table. Many learners' answers were only “beneficial”, “effective”, “nice”. That might mean that learners do not have clear ideas on the efficiency of English conversations with their partners in the reading and listening tasks. Although there are positive ideas that support English conversations with partners during listening activities, there are some negative ideas. One of the most frequent positive ideas is that these English conversations help learners focus more on listening. The second most frequent positive answer is a need for comprehension, and these answers might be related to each other in that when learners must share or discuss something with their partners, they are more focused and try to comprehend the text more.

“...useful because we force ourselves to understand the text more...” (Learner 3)

“...it has many effects. We listen better because we focus more, and we are more interested in the listening...” (Learner 11)

In two of the learners' answers, information exchange was claimed to make English-only conversations efficient for listening tasks. That could mean learners share information about the text they listen through these conversations.

In three of the learners' answers, learners had negative ideas for English-only conversations during listening activities. One of the learners stated that English conversation did not help his listening because he or his partner could not express the intended message efficiently enough.

“...we had difficulty in explaining something about the text in English...”
(Learner 6)

That might be a supporting idea for the translanguaging approach. In another learner's answer, it was stated that speaking and listening are different skills, and there is no need to discuss listening text in English with the partner. According to the learner's response, there is no need for learners to tell what they understand from the text in English. That might indicate that learners could prefer translanguaging for discussing what they understand from the listening texts.

“...I do not think pair-work activities affect listening. I think listening and speaking are different. Explaining what I listened to in English to my friend does not improve my listening...” (Learner 15)

The other negative learner answer is related to the last-mentioned idea. The learners who gave this answer might think that when they discuss what they understand in English, as listening and speaking are two different skills, the task deviates from the aim. That could mean that some learners might prefer only listening and answering questions individually for listening tasks.

“...I think these kinds of activities are for speaking skills rather than listening. Because we speak with Basic English and without accent with our friends, but in listening texts, this is just the opposite...” (Learner 10)

This category may be related to “not being able to express ourselves”. Because the learner stated that they spoke basic English, but the text was difficult. That could mean that their proficiency might not be enough to talk about the things in the text in English.

Table 43

Categories for the 5th Question in the Control Group

5. What kind of effects do you think English-only conversations with your friends in the reading tasks had on reading comprehension?	N.
Short answers	14
Learning vocabulary	3
Necessity for comprehension	1
The texts are more fun and clearer	1
Negative Effect- Translation into Turkish is necessary- no need to translate it back to English.	2

The frequency of short answers is noticeable for the fifth question. These short answers were positive such as “good”, “beneficial”, “nice”. However, it can be concluded that learners might not have clear ideas for the benefits of English conversations in reading activities. The same question was asked for the listening tasks; however, the number of short answers was less. In three of the learners’ answers, learning vocabulary was suggested to make English conversations in reading activities useful. That might mean that learners get help from and give help to their partners by using English to discuss vocabulary.

“...these conversations helped us learn new vocabulary by discussing the text with partners...” (Learner 1)

The necessity for comprehension was suggested once again, just like it was suggested for conversations in the listening activities. In one of the learners’ answers, it was claimed that through these English conversations, reading activities were more fun and clear, which might mean that some learners might enjoy reading activities with English conversations. In two of the learners’ answers, the learners were against using English conversations by stating that while reading, translation to Turkish is necessary. They said that they translate sentences individually while reading, but to discuss in English, they must translate their ideas back into English, which they claimed unnecessary. These negative answers reveal that some learners might tend to do translanguaging while reading.

“...I do not think they are useful. I translate when I read texts and translating my ideas back into English to discuss with my partner causes difficulty for me...” (Learner 15)

Table 44

Categories for the 6th Question in the Control Group

6. What can be done for more efficient reading-listening activities?	N.
Easier- more clear texts	7
No problems	7
More interesting texts	5
Translations should be provided	4
More reading/listening practice out of the class	3
Reading/listening repetition until comprehension	2
Providing keywords in advance	1

The sixth question was a general question that tries to find out learners' ideas for more efficient reading and listening tasks in the class. In seven of the learners' answers, learners stated that they do not have any problems with reading and listening activities. In seven other learners' answers, learners preferred easier – clearer texts, which might indicate that the listening and reading texts might be difficult for some learners. The third most frequent answer was more interesting texts, indicating that some reading and listening texts might be boring for learners. In four of the learners' answers, learners want to read Turkish translations of the reading texts. That is a finding that supports the translanguaging approach.

“...the best comprehension can be ensured by explaining first in English than in Turkish...” (Learner 13)

“...when we have difficulty in understanding in reading texts, we should translate...” (Learner 14)

In another answer, a learner stated that translating keywords into Turkish can be valuable, which supports translanguaging.

“...keywords with Turkish translations should be provided before reading and listening ...” (Learner 1)

Some learners stated that more practice should be done outside the class, which is out of the study's scope, and in two learner answers, it was stated that learners need to listen or read the texts until they comprehend fully. That might caution planners and teachers to plan the time and repetition of reading and listening activities. Furthermore, giving translingual breaks might provide time for learners to comprehend fully.

4.5. Findings of the Open-ended Questionnaire for the Experimental Group

Considering the control group's difficulties in listening and reading tasks, a semi-structured open-ended questionnaire with eight questions for translanguaging for listening tasks, seven open-ended questions for translanguaging for reading tasks, and four open-ended questions for preview and review activities was conducted with the experimental group (see Appendix E). The purpose was to reveal whether the translanguaging approach can overcome the difficulties the learners encountered with a monolingual approach. Firstly, the findings of the questions, which are about the problems that have been explicitly encountered in the listening and reading tasks, will be presented. Then, the findings of the common problems of listening and reading tasks will be presented, respectively.

4.5.1. Findings of the Questions for Translanguaging for Listening and Reading Tasks

Table 45

Categories for Translingual Note-taking, Annotating for Listening Tasks

<i>What do you think about taking notes / annotating in your native language while listening to texts in English?</i>	<i>N</i>
Faster notetaking	7
“Good” without a specific reason	6
“Bad” without a specific reason	6
Better remembering the main points/subject	4
Better comprehension	3
Translation practice	2
Negative- using English is challenging and improves learners more	1

Taking notes in the native language after receiving input in the target language is frequent in the translanguaging approach. Twenty-two answers that support taking notes/annotating in the native language were detected in learners' responses, whereas seven answers were against translanguaging. The most frequent positive answer was “faster note-taking, ” indicating that some learners might take faster notes in their native languages ($N=7$).

“...yes, in fact, it was easier and faster to keep notes in my native language and then share them in English while revising them...” (Learner 24)

“...I cannot catch up with the listening text when I take notes in English...” (Learner 14)

Six answers without specific reasons that support translanguageing while taking notes were identified. That might indicate that learners may believe taking notes by translanguageing may be beneficial; however, they have not experienced it themselves. Typically, in classes with a monolingual approach, learners are encouraged to take notes in the target language. In four of the learners' answers, "better remembering the main points/subject" was given as the reason to support translanguageing for taking notes. Three other answers suggested that taking notes by translanguageing enables "better comprehension."

"Yes, it made the piece we listened to be more memorable." (Learner 9)

Two other answers revealed that taking notes by translanguageing is a translation practice for some learners.

The analysis revealed six answers against translingual note-taking; however, there were no specific reasons for the opposition. Many of these negative answers were "better to write in the target language," or "it is bad". In one of these negative answers, the reason was:

"...I think taking notes in the target language is more challenging and improves us more..." (Learner 24)

As it is clear from the findings, learners provided some reasons for positive answers, but there are no specific reasons for the negative ones. That might indicate that the learners against taking notes in the native language might not have clear ideas for this opposition or they might lack experience.

Table 46

Categories for Translingual Summarizing/Annotating for Reading Tasks

<i>What do you think about the effect of summarizing/annotating in your native language after reading something in English?</i>	<i>N</i>
"Good" without reason	10
"Bad" without reason	6
Better comprehension by translanguageing	5
Remembering details more	2
Translating keywords for better comprehension	1
Internalizing difficult points	1
Negative- Taking notes in English better for easy-medium texts	1

In the reading tasks with a translingual approach, after reading, learners were to summarize the part they had read to their partners in their native languages first and then in the target language with the whole class. There were nineteen positive and seven negative responses for the ninth question. What is salient in Table 46 is that the frequency of positive answers without specific reason is relatively high ($N=10$). That might indicate that although learners have positive ideas, they cannot give specific reasons for its benefits. The second highest frequency for positive answers was for “better comprehension by translinguaging” ($N=5$). The finding indicates that learners might comprehend the text better when summarizing or annotating in their native languages.

“Of course, taking small notes in native language ensures better comprehension of the text without translating the whole text.” (Learner 7)

Two of the learners’ responses suggested that translingual summarizing/annotation helps learners remember details more, which can also be related to better comprehension. In one of the answers, “translating keywords” was a factor that makes translinguaging valuable for better understanding. In another learner's response, translingual annotating and summarizing were supported because it helps learners understand difficult points.

“Generally, I did not prefer to use my native language; but, for difficult parts, it was useful to internalize the text.” (Learner 24)

This answer could reveal that for difficult parts or texts, learners might prefer to do translinguaging. The negative response emphasized the same point:

“No. I understand easy or medium-difficulty reading texts better when I take notes in English.” (Learner 12)

It might mean that for difficult reading texts, learners might take notes in their native languages. Six other learner responses were against translingual annotating and summarizing; however, there were not any specific reasons. The number of learners who support translingual summarizing and annotating outnumbers the number of negative ones; nevertheless, the answers without explanations exist. That might indicate that some learners do not have clear ideas on the benefits or drawbacks of using the translingual approach.

Table 47

Categories for 2nd Research Question for Translingual Listening Tasks

<i>What do you think about doing translingual pair-work in listening activities in which speakers speak fast?</i>	<i>N</i>
Better inductive reasoning	9
Better/easier information sharing for unclear points	7
“Good” without a specific reason	6
Better focusing/more understanding in the second repetition	3
“Bad” without a specific reason	3
Negative- Better to discuss with basic English	1

Listening to the texts in which speakers speak fast was one factor that caused difficulty in the open-ended questionnaire with the control group. The questionnaire with the experimental group revealed that many learners are optimistic about using the translingual approach for the listening tasks in which people speak fast. “Better inductive reasoning” was the most frequent factor for learners to be positive. That might indicate that learners share the parts they understand with their partners by translanguaging, and they combine the pieces and effectively understand the whole.

“It helps. Translanguaging helps me understand sentences I cannot figure out and helps to link meaning from the parts to the whole.” (Learner 14)

Many learners state that they share the parts they understand more easily with their partners by translanguaging, ensuring a whole comprehension. The second most frequent factor is also related to this, and learners think that they share information better for unclear points in their native languages first.

“It helped. We could talk more easily about the parts we missed.” (Learner 5)

In the listening tasks, learners listened to the text at least twice. For the first listening, translingual breaks were given, whereas they were to listen individually without any breaks for the second one. In three of the learners’ answers, it was stated that they understood the listening text better for the second individual listening. Here translanguaging might have served as scaffolding.

“This is very good. For example, if you understand the first two sentences, your partner may understand the other two sentences. You two may understand more when you speak, or when you listen in English for the second time, and your ear can choose sentences and words better.” (Learner 6)

Six of the learners' answers were positive without any specific reasons, whereas three were negative. One of the learners' responses stated that it is better to discuss the listening text with Basic English. That might indicate that some learners might be worried about using their native languages as scaffolding and might see the language they use during listening activities as an opportunity for practice.

“There was not much difference because we were trying to explain it with simple English sentences, which contributed to us in improving our English.”
(Learner 8)

Table 48

Categories for the Effect of Translanguaging on the Vocabulary in the Listening and Reading Tasks

<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on the vocabulary <u>in listening texts</u>?</i>	<i>N</i>
“Good” without a specific reason	17
“Bad” without a specific reason	4
Better discussion for the meanings of vocabulary	3
More focus on words and whole text	2
Faster search for meanings (Time-saving)	1
<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on the vocabulary <u>in reading texts</u>?</i>	<i>N</i>
“Good” without reason	16
Better discussion for the meanings of vocabulary	3
Longer-lasting vocabulary learning	2
Learning words better by translating sentences	2
“Bad” without reason	2
Better helping each other in the native language	1
Faster search for meanings (Time-saving)	1

The vocabulary was given as a factor that causes difficulty in the control group's listening and reading tasks. The two open-ended questions in Table 48 were asked to the experimental group to discover whether designing reading and listening tasks with a translingual approach using multilingual collaborative groups had any effect on the vocabulary in reading and listening tasks. What is salient about the two questions is the existence of positive answers without reasons. That indicates that learners might be affirmative about using the translingual approach to learn vocabulary in listening and reading texts; however, they cannot give specific reasons for their ideas. The negative answers are low in frequency for both kinds of tasks.

The most frequent answer for both reading and listening tasks was “better discussion for the meanings of the vocabulary” by translanguaging. That indicates

learners might find it easier to discuss the vocabulary by translanguaging, that is, by using their native languages. One of the answers for translanguaging on the reading tasks' vocabulary was that learners help each other better in their native languages.

“... I learned the words I missed by discussing with my friend...” (Learner 15)

“...we were able to ask each other words we did not know the meanings, so we did our task...” (Learner 28)

Two of the learners' answers for translingual listening tasks mentioned that translanguaging helped them focus more on words and the whole text. That indicates that a compelling discussion on vocabulary might help learners focus more on the listening task.

“...For example, when I say the meaning of a word in my language, my partner asks which part the word is in the text, he focuses and learns the word.” (Learner 6)

Two of the learners' answers revealed that translingual pair-work might lead to longer-lasting vocabulary learning for the reading tasks.

“Discussing the meanings of words in the mother tongue makes learning words more memorable.” (Learner 3)

Two other answers revealed that learners might need to translate sentences in the reading texts to learn new vocabulary.

“...because, in my opinion, translation is one of the best ways to understand English and to get used to the language...” (Learner 24)

For both listening and reading tasks, one response revealed that using a translingual approach might take a shorter time; thus, it can be a time-saver. Learners mentioned that when discussing vocabulary meanings with their partners in their native languages, they do not have to look up to the words, which saves time.

In short, translingual pair work activities might be valuable for learning vocabulary according to the learners' answers. The negative responses are low in frequency. The number of affirmative responses without specific reasons is relatively

high; nevertheless, some learners provided detailed explanations for their ideas as presented.

Table 49

The Effect of Translanguaging on Concentration on the Listening and Reading

<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on your concentration on listening activities?</i>	<i>N</i>
“Good” without reason	7
Harmful- Distraction	5
A necessity for sharing information with partners	4
More focus due to better comprehension	4
“Bad” without reason	4
A brake for resting	3
<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on your concentration on the reading activities?</i>	<i>N</i>
“Good” without reason	7
More focus due to more comprehension	5
Harmful- A distraction for text integrity (focusing on details)	4
Time provided to check the meanings of sentences/vocabulary	3
“Bad” without reason	3
The necessity to look up the vocabulary to share with a partner	2
Competition with a partner leads to more focus	1
Understanding in shorter time-more focused	1
Only with difficult reading texts	1

Table 49 shows that the frequency of positive answers for both reading and listening tasks outnumbers the negative ones. The most frequent positive answers are short answers without any reasons for both tasks. The most frequent positive cause supporting translanguaging for reading and listening tasks was “more focus due to better comprehension.” That indicates that many learners might think that translanguaging helps them understand the listening and reading tasks better, resulting in more focus on the task.

“...it helped us understand the listening text wholly without any distraction so that we could focus.” (Learner 7)

“...I was not distracted in the reading tasks because I understood.” (Learner 15)

The other most frequent answer for the effect of translingual pair-work activities on listening tasks was “a necessity for sharing information with partners.” That indicates that learners might need to focus on the listening task to share information with their partners.

“...we focused more because we wanted to share more information with our partners.” (Learner 21)

For reading tasks, these translingual breaks could function as a stimulus to check the meanings of words in the reading text because learners are to discuss the reading with their partners. Two of the learners’ answers indicated that learners might be more focused on the reading tasks because they want to share the meanings of new words with their partners. The learners’ responses also demonstrate that translingual breaks in reading and listening tasks could serve as a break to rest and revise what has been listened to or read. One of the learners stated that the translingual breaks create competition; therefore, they are more focused.

“...because while we were doing the translations, we focused much better because we created a slight competition between my partner and me.” (Learner 18)

Translingual pair-work activities might help learners understand the texts in a shorter time as it is clear from one response for reading tasks. Another learner stated that the translingual approach could be valuable for difficult reading texts they have trouble understanding. This response can be considered as a positive answer that supports translanguaging.

Some learners gave negative answers without reasons for both listening and reading tasks; however, the most frequent negative response was a distraction. It was found that some learners might consider translingual breaks that are provided while listening or reading the texts as a cause of distraction. They have not mentioned using their native languages during these breaks, but they stated that pausing while listening and reading blocked their concentration.

“...generally, listening something wholly without any pauses helps me focus more.” (Learner 12)

“...on the contrary, it distracts me from focusing on the text integrity and whole text while I try to explain the meaning of the sentences separately to my partner.” (Learner 6)

These responses indicate that a thorough planning should be done not to cause learners to become distracted. The learners’ ideas on whether to conduct the tasks

through translanguaging or not might be gathered before starting the class, and the planning can be done accordingly.

Table 50

Categories for the Effect of Translanguaging on the Complicated Sentences

<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on complicated sentences in listening texts?</i>	<i>N</i>
"Good" without reason	12
Two partial interpretations make the whole	6
"Bad" without reason	6
Getting help from a partner	3
Not useful- Lack of translation skill	1
<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on complicated sentences in reading texts?</i>	<i>N</i>
"Good" without reason	13
Better translating by discussing with a partner	5
Not useful- Takes too much time	4
Getting help from a partner	3
"Bad" without reason	2
Helpful with teacher's help for translation	1

The presence of positive answers without reasons is high in frequency for both tasks. That might mean that learners liked the experience; however, they cannot develop specific reasons that support translanguaging. That might be the result of their habits of monolingual approach because they are generally not allowed to use their native languages in language classes, and here, the native language is used systematically. Difficult or complex sentences with complex grammar and vocabulary were given as a source of difficulty for learners' reading and listening tasks. As it is clear from Table 50, many learners support translanguaging to understand complicated sentences better.

The most frequent finding for the effect of translanguaging on complicated sentences in listening texts was "two partial interpretations make the whole." The second most frequent factor is "getting help from a partner," which might be related to the first factor. This finding is common for both listening and reading tasks. It could indicate that by translanguaging, learners can discuss the parts they have understood in their native languages and achieve a full understanding of the text together.

"...we make more sense of the text or try to infer more by thinking together instead of thinking individually." (Learner 10)

The number of negative answers for the listening tasks outnumbers the ones for the reading tasks; however, most responses do not have specific reasons, as seen from

the table. One learner's answer revealed that he does not have the necessary translation skills to do the task for listening, indicating that difference between translanguaging and translating should be demonstrated to learners.

“... sometimes you understand what a sentence means in English, but you cannot translate it into Turkish, you have difficulty, but you know the meaning, you can explain it in English. When I am to explain in Turkish, sometimes I have difficulty explaining to my partner.” (Learner 16)

Another answer for reading tasks revealed that translanguaging could be useful with the teacher's help. That might indicate that the purpose of translanguaging should be explained to learners in detail.

The most frequent answer for reading tasks that opposes translanguaging was that the activities take too much time, which might cause learners to be bored. The planning of time and time provided for translingual breaks is significant, according to this finding.

Table 51

Categories for the Effect of Translanguaging on Sharing Background Knowledge about Listening and Reading Texts

<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on sharing background information about listening texts?</i>	<i>N</i>
“Useful” without reason	9
A better discussion of the subject of the listening	6
Complementing each other with background knowledge	3
Getting the main idea more easily	3
“Not useful” without reason	3
More focused as a result of more background knowledge shared	1
<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on sharing background information about reading texts?</i>	<i>N</i>
“Useful” without reason	18
Getting the main idea better by discussing in the native language in different subjects	3
More comfortable share of ideas for background knowledge	2
“Not useful” without reason	2
Getting the main idea by providing text integrity in long reading texts	1
Getting help to get the main idea more easily	1

One of the tenets of the translingual perspective is helping learners share background information about different subjects in their native languages better. The question asked for learners' ideas on whether this premise was useful for the EFL class or not. As Table 51 indicates, the answers which support translanguaging outnumber the

answers which oppose it. The presence of responses without reasons is salient. The negative answers were all without any reason. The findings for both tasks were coherent. Better discussion about the subject, getting the main idea more easily through translingual discussions, and easier communication with a partner were the positive factors for translanguageing.

“...as I mentioned earlier, discussing the difficult subjects and the parts that we did not understand with our partner in our native language made us focus more on the task.” (Learner 5)

“We can have a more effective discussion about the subject when we use our native language first.” (Learner 13)

“Sometimes there are such topics that you read, but you never understand, you cannot grasp the main subject, and this makes it easier to understand by discussing with your friends in your native languages.” (Learner 17)

These responses might indicate that a reading and listening task with a translingual perspective could help learners share background knowledge more efficiently.

Table 52

Categories for the Effect of Translanguageing on Answering Questions about Reading and Listening Tasks

<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on answering the questions about listening texts?</i>	<i>N</i>
“Good” without reason	8
Discussing the questions in native language- more correct answers	7
Helping each other for unclear points-more correct answers	5
To Synthesize notes in the native language- more correct answers	3
“Bad” without reason	2
A better comprehension of the content-more correct answers	1
More comfortable discussion in native language-more correct answers	1
Answering questions with more complicated sentences	1
<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on answering questions about reading texts?</i>	<i>N</i>
“Good” without reason	13
A better comprehension of questions by translating-easier to answer	6
Discussion with partners in native language- more comprehension-easier to answer	5
“Bad” without reason	2
Negative- Easy to find answers in a reading text	1

Learners could discuss the texts and questions with their partners in their native languages in translingual collaborative groups. The questions revealed whether this collaborative work helped learners answer the questions about listening and reading

texts. Most learners supported the use of translingual collaborative tasks to answer questions about texts. More reasons were given for its effect on listening tasks

compared to the ones for reading tasks. The most frequent answer was that when learners translated the questions with their partners and discussed them in their native languages, they could understand them better. This finding is valid for reading texts, as well. The answers revealed that learners might help each other by translanguaging better, which could help learners answer questions about listening texts.

“...I learned the points I missed or the parts I did not understand thanks to my partner.” (Learner 14)

Learners might understand the questions and answer them quickly by synthesizing their notes and discussing them in their native languages, as the table indicates.

“Those breaks are essential to share and discuss our notes.” (Learner 9)

These translingual breaks helped learners comprehend the questions better and might have helped them understand the content more. Another learner’s answer demonstrated that translingual collaborative groups might help learners answer the questions with more complex sentences. That might be because when learners first think about the answers and discuss them in their native languages, they might organize their ideas in a better way.

“...it was useful in producing more varied sentences while producing the answers.” (Learner 14)

The findings for reading tasks were the same as the answers for listening tasks. Learners emphasized their need for translations as follows:

“...the translations made it easier for me to understand, so it was easier for me to answer.” (Learner 8)

“...translating means understanding the questions; therefore, it will be easier to answer.” (Learner 3)

One learner stated that the translingual collaborative activities were unnecessary for reading tasks because learners can easily find the answers in reading texts. This finding might indicate that some learners with high proficiency levels might not consider these breaks useful.

Table 53

Categories for the Effect of Translingual Activities on Listening Comprehension

<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on listening comprehension? Please specify shortly.</i>	<i>N</i>
Positive Answers	
Complementing each other for unclear points	6
Translating difficult sentences for better comprehension	1
Learning vocabulary by translating	1
Covering all the text repetitively	1
Helping partner with summaries in the native language	1
Positive Answers with a condition	
Helpful only with collaborative partners	2
Helpful only until being proficient enough	3
Negative Answers	
Moving away from English / Causing habit formation	6

The question was to discover learners' ideas for translanguaging in listening tasks. As an answer, the learners could share all their positive or opposing opinions. Learners gave more positive responses than negative ones. Five of the learners presented some conditions.

The most frequent positive answer was "complementing each other for unclear points." That might indicate that learners might get help from or support their partners in a better way by translanguaging. Translating has been given as a positive factor for listening comprehension. That means learners translate the texts they listen to with their partners and might benefit from it. Furthermore, discussing vocabulary by translating was given as a positive aspect of translingual pair work activities. Another learner's answer states that learners can cover the listening text repetitively through translingual pair work activities, which could enhance comprehension. Moreover, summarizing the text listened to in the native language was a positive factor for translingual pair work activities.

"Translingual breaks were useful, especially for difficult conversations, because we were completing each other and giving answers." (Learner 2)

"...the breaks were useful for me for difficult sentences..." (Learner 5)

"I think it was great to go over and over again. I loved it." (Learner 11)

The analysis revealed that five of the learners' answers have some conditions. Some learners stated that using the native language in listening activities can function as scaffolding for lower proficiency levels; however, adopting a monolingual perspective using only English might be better with higher levels.

“It was advantageous to use our native language during breaks in the listening activities until we learn English fully.” (Learner 3)

“The breaks are generally useful for beginner and elementary levels. But discussions at higher levels need to be in English.” (Learner 19)

Two of the learners’ answers revealed that the partners’ unwillingness to collaborate might negatively affect translingual collaborative activities.

“It is a useful activity; there is no problem with the system. The problem is with people you study with.” (Learner 6)

“Yes, it was beneficial in general, but it is much more important for your friend to have a command of the subject and to help you in this situation if your friend does not understand and distracts you, it is very useless.” (Learner 11)

The learners against the translingual collaborative activities stated that the native language used in these activities could lead to a habit formation, which is not desirable to learn English.

“It is easier to continue to interact in the language you start speaking. We speak Turkish in the breaks with our friends, but when the teacher asks us to discuss in English and answer the questions, it is difficult to turn back to English again.” (Learner 16)

“I think it is useless because we move away from English.” (Learner 20)

These responses show that planning the amount of time the learners practice the target language is crucial.

Table 54

Categories for the Effect of Translingual Activities on Reading Comprehension

<i>What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on reading comprehension? Please specify shortly.</i>	<i>N</i>
Positive Answers	
More comprehension by translingual discussions	6
Class-time saver	2
Translating key parts- more comprehension	2
Translating improves English - enjoyable	1
Positive Answers with a Condition	
Only for difficult parts	2
Helpful with collaborative partners	1
Negative Answers	
Only English for more practice	1
Habit formation to use native language all the time	2
Better to paraphrase with simpler vocabulary in the target language in breaks	2

The positive answers for the effect of translingual collaborative work activities on reading comprehension revealed that learners might comprehend better by translanguageing. The translingual breaks and helps from the partners for reading tasks take a shorter time than monolingual orientation activities; therefore, learners stated they could save class time. There was an emphasis on translating, and learners might believe that when they translate critical parts in a text, they could understand the text better. According to one learner's response, the least frequent positive answer might demonstrate that translating is a skill that needs to be developed.

“It is beneficial. I understand the text I read better.” (Learner 3)

“Translanguageing is helpful for sentences and the words we do not understand.” (Learner 12)

“It was useful because trying to translate naturally from English into my language is very developing and enjoyable.” (Learner 18)

The conditions for positive answers revealed that learners might consider translanguageing for complicated parts in the reading text useful with collaborative partners, which was found for the listening tasks as well. That could indicate that reluctant partners might be an obstacle to an efficient translingual activity.

“Only the breaks for the translation of difficult sentences were useful for me.” (Learner 5)

Almost all negative answers were for more English practice. Some learners stated that only English should be used for more practice, and the native language can lead to habit formation. Some other learners indicated that it might be better to discuss the text with simple sentences and basic vocabulary.

“In my opinion, speaking in the native language and translating is not useful because it causes us to keep thinking in Turkish all the time. If we explain the same text with different words in the language we learn, our vocabulary knowledge can also improve.” (Learner 20)

“It is better to continue to discuss in the language we are learning. If the purpose is to learn English, everything should be in English. Many friends in our class know grammar and vocabulary; however, they do not force themselves to speak, and their speaking skill does not improve.” (Learner 14)

These responses might show how some learners are used to having English classes in a monolingual orientation. These kinds of learners might react negatively to

adopting a translingual perspective. A teacher adopting translingual orientation could inform learners about the logic of translanguaging and present some examples from real situations.

Table 55

Categories for the Effect of Translingual Preview Activities on Listening-Reading Comprehension

<i>What do you think about the translingual discussion activities before reading/listening to a text?</i>	<i>N</i>
“Good” without reason	10
Sharing background information in a better way	5
A better comprehension of unclear topics when discussed in the native language	5
More focused	4
Forcing the mind to speak	1
Awakens curiosity	1
More willing to read and listen	1
“Bad” without reason	1
Negative- Paraphrasing vocabulary with basic English better	1

Warm-up activities for the listening and reading tasks were conducted by translanguaging as preview activities. The learners were to fill in KWL charts, anticipation guides, or translingual vocabulary charts. They were to discuss with their partners first in their native languages and then in the target language. Most learners were affirmative about the experience. The most frequent positive answer was positive expressions such as “good,” “efficient,” “perfect”. It is clear from the table that the learners might share background information about listening or reading text when they first use their native languages.

“...we share ideas on the subject better, our knowledge increases.” (Learner 10)

Table 55 indicates that when learners have comprehension difficulties and challenging parts to understand, they might prefer to discuss these unclear parts with their partners in their native languages.

“...because it fits better when we explain the points we do not understand in our language.” (Learner 14)

Another common finding was “more focus.” It might indicate that when learners discuss a subject as a warm-up in their native languages, this might increase their focus on the task.

“...you get better background information about the subject, and it helps you focus more on the task.” (Learner 7)

The other reasons for positive answers are related to these most frequent findings; however, as seen in Table 55, there might be slight differences in focus. According to the results, learners might think that they can discuss unclear points in their native languages in a better way. They know what to focus on better through these translingual preview activities, and they force themselves to be more active because they are to share information with their partners. Discussing the listening or reading text before the task in the native language might increase learners’ curiosity, and they might be more willing to read or listen, as seen on the table. There were only two negative answers. One of them does not have a specific reason, the other emphasizes that it might be better to discuss the vocabulary with simple English for more practice, particularly for vocabulary learning and more practice.

Table 56

Categories for the Effect of Translingual Review Activities on Listening-Reading Comprehension

<i>What do you think about the summarizing / what you learned activities that were as translingual pair-work?</i>	<i>N</i>
“Good” without reason	15
“Bad” without reason	5
Synthesizing in an efficient way to write summaries	3
To find the correct vocabulary to express oneself in summaries	1
More comprehension is required to write summaries	1
Better process of information	1

For translingual review activities after listening and reading tasks, the positive answers outnumber the negative responses. The most frequent reason for positive responses was “synthesizing in an efficient way to write summaries.” That might indicate that learners analyse the text they listened to or read with their partners and discuss it in their native languages. As a result, they arrive at a full understanding to synthesize and summarize the entire text.

“Writing summaries in both Turkish and English reinforces the vocabulary I learned, I could check how well I understood the subject, and I rewrote the subject with my expressions in summaries.” (Learner 11)

Summarizing by translanguaging might also enhance vocabulary learning, as evident in Table 56. Learners might practise the vocabulary they learned better by summarizing first in the native language and then in the target language. Summarizing might also help learners process information in the text better, and learners need to understand better to create summaries. In 15 of the learners’ responses, there were not any specific reasons why they supported translanguaging. That might indicate that learners may not have clear ideas due to a lack of experience.

Table 57

Categories for the Learners’ Translingual Perceptions

<i>Do you think the pair-group work activities for listening/reading tasks should be only in English or translingual?</i>	<i>N</i>
<i>For Translanguaging (x12)</i>	
Translanguaging when having difficulty to understand	5
Inability to express oneself in some situations	4
Translanguaging to cover main points	2
For better practice translanguaging from native language to the target language	1
<i>Against Translanguaging (Only English) (x9)</i>	
For more English practice	8
Due to uncollaborative partners	1

Table 57 demonstrates that more learners support translanguaging for reading and listening tasks. The most frequent answer was that when learners have difficulty understanding the text, they can do translanguaging because they cannot express themselves well enough, as another frequent finding demonstrates. Covering main points by translanguaging is also supported by learners. One learner’s answer revealed that, for better practice, translanguaging should be from native language to target language. That might indicate that learners might need these breaks to share and organize their ideas with their partners.

“...it is complementary to translanguage to our native language when we cannot understand.” (Learner 4)

“...we should use the native and target language together; otherwise, we might not be able to express ourselves...” (Learner 9)

“It must be from English to our native language to understand key points.” (Learner 12)

The opposing answer emphasized that for more English practice, English should be used as much as possible.

“...it should be only in English so that we can have an opportunity to practice the language...” (Learner 18)

“...while learning English we should be exposed to only English, and we should force ourselves to express everything about our lives, about school in English. Because learning English is not translating from Turkish to English but learning to think in English...” (Learner 20)

Table 58

Categories for the Learners' Further Translingual Perceptions

<i>Please mention if you want to add anything about the reading/listening tasks that were as translingual pair-work activity</i>	<i>N</i>
Translanguaging is efficient only if done for a short time	4
Translanguaging for learning vocabulary	2
Translanguaging for only difficult parts/texts	2
Translation of each sentence for reading would be better for comprehension	1
Only English should be used	1

The purpose of the question was to see whether learners have other ideas for translingual reading and listening tasks or not. Some learners think that translanguaging might be useful if done for a short time. That indicates that teachers or planners should be careful about the time provided for translingual breaks. The learners also emphasized that translanguaging can help learn new vocabulary or discuss the parts of challenging texts.

“As long as the texts are too difficult, I am against translanguaging.” (Learner 5)

“It is logical to translate every sentence in reading texts so that learners' interest increases.” (Learner 9)

One of the learners' answers stated that there should be more translation activities for reading tasks. That could indicate that sometimes learners might need to see the translated version of the texts and translate, which are the premises of the translanguaging approach. Another learner's response emphasized the need to use only English for as much English practice as possible.

4.6. Findings of the Interview with the Experimental Group

Nine voluntary learners from the experimental group were interviewed to answer the first, second, and fourth research questions and triangulate the data collected through teacher journals and open-ended questionnaires. In the questionnaire, seven semi-structured questions were asked (see. Appendix F). This section will present the learners' answers to each interview question with extracts from learners' responses.

What do you think about translingual discussion activities with your partners before listening tasks?

The positive answers emphasized the translingual approach's benefits for the situations when learners had comprehension difficulty, for vocabulary learning, and sharing background information about the subject of the listening text. The negative responses highlighted that the learners did not have the necessary background knowledge in some topics to discuss in the native language. Translingual discussions might be valuable for listening skill; however, it does not improve English in general. Translingual pre-view discussions might not prevent the difficulties encountered during listening. The discussions in the target language might be valuable for more practice and to learn new vocabulary.

One of the benefits of translingual pre-discussion might be that learners may think about the vocabulary for the subject of the listening in their native languages, and that might help learners understand the text better when they listen.

“...when I discuss in Turkish before listening, I think about the English equivalents of some vocabulary related to the text, and I can catch the words while listening; therefore, it helps me.” (Learner 8)

Translingual pair-work activities might help learners discuss background knowledge about the subject of the listening text in a better way as one of the learners claimed.

“... first discussing the background knowledge in the native language and then translating into English is better in terms of vocabulary. Because although I have a lot of background knowledge about a subject, my vocabulary might not be enough to discuss in the target language. My background knowledge and vocabulary knowledge can be at the same levels when I discuss in native language...” (Learner 3)

When the subject is difficult for learners to discuss or when they have difficulty in discussing, they might need translingual discussions as suggested by two learners' answers.

(Dialogue with Learner 5)

S5: "Preview activities were beneficial to see what we would listen about."

R: "Would you prefer doing these activities in the target language only, or is it better to use native language?"

S5: "It is beneficial for us to do in the target language in the parts we do not have difficulty with. However, in the parts that we have difficulty due to vocabulary or in difficult texts for us to understand, it is more logical to use our native language."

"..., for some time, I insisted on discussing only in English; however, as you told us when we discussed some difficult subjects in Turkish, I realized that I could understand better when we continued in English afterwards..." (Learner 2)

After presenting the findings for the positive ideas of learners, the opposing views is be presented. The subject of the listening text can be significant for the efficiency of translingual pair-work activities. In some topics, learners might not have the necessary background knowledge even to discuss in their native language as stated by one of the learners.

"I do not think they are helpful. In some subjects, we had to learn by listening because my partner nor I had any ideas for the subject of the listening text." (Learner 1)

Discussing first in the native language might help listen to and comprehend a particular text. However, it may not help learners improve their English in general as claimed by a response.

"Of course, they contribute, but I do not think they contribute to us for learning English...because, here, it is not important to understand the listening or the subject of the listening but rather, to learn English. Therefore, I consider discussing in our native language as pointless, groundless. It can be beneficial for listening, but it is not for learning English in general..." (Learner 9)

Even though the answer opposes the translingual discussion activities as a preview, they can be helpful for listening activities. The learners might prefer to discuss in the target language to practice it. Another negative answer is similar to the extract in

that it emphasized the importance of using the target language to practice the language and to learn new vocabulary.

“... my partner was --- (the name of an international student), and we always discussed in the target language with him. We used Turkish most of the time with other learners, but I benefitted more from our discussions with ---. Because there were some words and while we were trying to discuss, I also learned the new words...” (Learner 7)

“We discuss in Turkish, and then we listen in English. It does not have any benefits for me... Listening texts are very different from one another. Sometimes, one person speaks, sometimes, they speak in dialogues, there are some parts where they speak fast, and I also feel that I have a lack of vocabulary knowledge...” (Learner 4)

As the extract reveals, translingual preview activities might not prevent the difficulties encountered during listening.

What do you think about translingual discussion activities with your partners before reading tasks?

After asking learners about the translingual preview discussions before listening tasks, this question reveals their ideas on reading tasks. Some learners emphasized the importance of preview activities for reading without mentioning the translingual perspective's advantages.

“...It is like mentioning what is going to be written about in the introduction paragraph of an essay.” (Learner 3)

“It does not matter in which language we do these preview activities. You say the similar things in both Turkish and English. Discussing the subject and sharing background knowledge is effective and nice...” (Learner 1)

Two learners claimed that translingual pair-work activities might overcome the difficulties that learners have in understanding the text. Similar findings were in the open-ended questionnaire.

“For reading, especially for difficult subjects, they are helpful. But for easy reading texts, they can be done in the target language.” (Learner 5)

“...as the listening texts were more difficult, we could sometimes use our native language, but in reading tasks, we tried not to use native language, and I think it was better.” (Learner 2)

The extract (learner 2) reveals that learners might prefer to use only the target language if they do not have difficulty reading and understanding texts. However, if they have difficulties, they might start using their native languages.

“I think they were good because it is a preparation, we see what will come up, and it also allows us to focus more. I prefer these to be in English. I always did in English with --- (the name of the international student), but I never used English with the other friends because they did not speak.” (Learner 4)

It is evident in the extract that when learners do the tasks with their Turkish partners, they might use their native languages.

The positive answers indicated the importance of preview activities without discriminating monolingual or translingual orientation. Some learners' responses revealed that they might use the translingual approach with their partners when they have difficulty. However, in the tasks where they do not have much problem, they might prefer to use the target language. When learners do the tasks with the learners of the same nationalities, one pair might choose to use the native language, which can be an obstacle for learning English.

What do you think about the effect of translingual listening breaks on listening comprehension?

First, many learners supported giving breaks in the listening tasks. The most frequent positive finding for the question was “giving breaks.”

“It was beneficial because it was challenging to comprehend the ten-minute text at once, but when we did in pauses..., because it is not our mother tongue, so when it is in pauses, the brain absorbs it, and I think we comprehend it better.” (Learner 3)

“...for example, when we listen to a ten-minute text as a whole, I only start to understand something in my third listening, but when you divided it, I comprehended the whole text much better because it was much easier to comprehend those parts we listened to...” (Learner 6)

One of the advantages of translingual pair work activities was that it helps learners with low proficiency comprehend listening texts more by discussing with their partners. Three learners stated this in the interview.

(Dialogue with Learner 7)

R: “If I had told you to use only the target language in that translingual breaks, would it have been better for you?”

S7: "...it is difficult for learners with low proficiency. In my opinion, in that case, discussing in Turkish can be beneficial too."

"...using native language can be helpful for friends with beginner-level English proficiency, but for me, it is not good." (Learner 2)

(Dialogue with Learner 4)

R: "Do you think the breaks would have been better if we had done them only in English?"

S4: "For my level, it would have been difficult. I could not have explained what I wanted to."

These findings might indicate that when learners have low levels of English proficiency or consider themselves inadequate, they might prefer translanguaging. Some learners supported translingual breaks because they helped them to discuss unclear points in the listening text with their partners.

"...we discussed the parts that we understood differently with my friend, and this helped us focus more on the listening..." (Learner 1)

"...it was constructive because it was good to correct the parts that we understood differently or wrongly with my partner by discussing in the native language. Because the parts you miss at the beginning block understanding the following parts in the text." (Learner 5)

"For example, we listen to the part for one or two minutes, then I discuss with my partner. I sometimes do not catch and do not understand some points, and my friend tells me in Turkish that this was here or there, which helps me understand the text." (Learner 8)

One learner stated that when he was a pair with another learner who had higher proficiency in English, translingual breaks helped him to get help from the learner with higher English proficiency:

"...when I did the task with my friend, and as you know I always sat with (partner's name), as her English is better than mine, she helped me..." (Learner 6)

For learners with high proficiency, using the native language might be boring and useless.

"...when I try to say something to my partner in Turkish, I forget the English and cannot create English sentences." (Learner 9)

Translingual breaks might be more helpful for difficult listening texts, according to one of the learners.

(Dialogue with learner 5)

R: “Would it have been better if we had used only English during these listening breaks?”

S5: “The last listening texts were challenging, and I think the use of the native language was more advantageous.”

One of the learners opposed the use of translanguaging in these breaks by claiming that translanguaging is like choosing the easier path.

“I think these discussions should be in English because when learning a new language, everything should be in the target language. The more we force ourselves, the better we learn, using native language is choosing the easier way...” (Learner 8)

The same learner also stated that when he did the task with an international learner, they always used the target language, which improved him. However, when he was a pair with Turkish learners, they mainly spoke in the native language, which hindered learning English. This statement emphasizes the significance of allocating limited time for the use of the native language. After using the native language as scaffolding, completing the task by producing something in the target language is crucial.

What do you think about the effect of translingual reading breaks on reading comprehension?

Out of the nine learners who participated in the interview, the number of learners who support translingual pair-work activity in reading tasks is more than those who oppose. The most frequent emphasis for positive ideas was on the effect of translingual breaks on the vocabulary in the texts. According to learners’ answers, the translingual breaks were efficient for discussing unknown vocabulary in the text, and they are faster and more practical means of discussing vocabulary.

“There is something like this in reading, you do not know the meaning of the word, how can you explain it to your friend? Maybe you can explain this in English, but the shortest and most practical way is to use Turkish here; our mother tongue gives us much more practicality.” (Learner 5)

The learner’s answer indicates that discussing the unknown vocabulary in the target language can be difficult.

“... comprehension of the whole text is not possible if you do not know the meanings of some keywords in the text. It was beneficial. Although we did not know the meanings of some vocabulary in the sentences in the texts, we could find the meanings by discussing in the native language and discussing the context they were in...” (Learner 3)

“... in the last units, we had a more difficult and various vocabulary. Translingual breaks were helpful for that. Even if I could understand sentences, there were many words meanings of which I did not know. Discussing them with a partner by translanguaging was faster and easier.” (Learner 6)

Two of the learners’ answers claimed similar advantages of translingual breaks on the vocabulary in the reading tasks. These findings might indicate that learners can discuss the vocabulary by translanguaging better, supporting the findings of the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire.

Some learners’ answers emphasized the necessity of translation activities for reading texts. In the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire, the learners claimed that they needed translations of reading texts at times, and the findings in the interview supported these findings.

“The breaks were helpful in terms of translation. When we could not understand some parts, we translated them into Turkish. I think the translations with our partners were efficient as we do not know how to do it efficiently ourselves.” (Learner 4)

As the extract demonstrates, translingual discussions and translation activities in the reading tasks with partners might lead to more comprehension.

“...in reading texts, I read part by part through translating sentences, and when I cannot translate, I try to guess the meaning from the context; therefore, it is very helpful. Particularly, discussing vocabulary helps me comprehend the text better...” (Learner 2)

The extract verifies the questionnaire's findings in that learners already do translanguaging and translating for reading texts. One of the learners supported translingual summarizing activities in these breaks by claiming that when the texts are read and discussed without breaks, it is not easy to get a full understanding of the text.

“... as I told before for listening texts, in long reading texts, we can be distracted if we read the whole text and discuss it. Therefore, dividing the text into parts and giving breaks were useful, especially for summarizing and telling our partners what we had understood in our native language...” (Learner 1)

Translanguaging can be described as getting input in the target language and switching to the native language to understand better. The learner extract above shows that summarizing in the native language after reading the English text could help learners understand texts better.

One of the participants claimed that these translingual breaks might help learners with low proficiency. However, for learners with high proficiency, they might not give positive results.

“... I think we should use Turkish in these breaks for learners with low proficiency or learners with the same English levels should be partners. Discussing in English improves learners with higher levels more whereas discussing in native language disrupts English development for higher-level learners...” (Learner 7)

The extract indicates the significance of using the native language as scaffolding and organizing ideas before producing something in the target language. Otherwise, learners with lower proficiency might use the native language all the time, which can be a problem for those with higher proficiency.

“...when building sentences, thinking in English contributes me; that is, beginning thinking in English is more helpful and good. When we use native language, we are distracted.” (Learner 9)

The participant's answer above indicates that learners might be used to the monolingual orientation and react negatively to the translingual approaches. Because until that study, they had heard about something as “thinking only in the target language,” a phenomenon frequently discussed. Foreign language learners might not think critically about whether a multilingual can think only in the target language. This finding might indicate that learners need practice and explanations about the translingual orientation before getting used to it.

What do you think about translingual summarizing in the breaks and at the end of listening activities?

Nearly all participants support summarizing in the breaks and at the end of listening activities because they think summaries might be the best indicator of comprehension.

“...of course. Because if I can summarize, that means I have understood the text...” (Learner 4)

“... by summarizing we process information, and we talk about the text in our language...” (Learner 7)

“It is beneficial. I think the most important part of the worksheet that you gave to us was summarizing activities. Because we answer the questions, but the real important thing is whether we have understood the text and we did this with summaries.” (Learner 9)

As it is clear from the extracts, learners think summarizing activities in view and review parts of a translingual approach is helpful. However, except for learner seven, they do not give specific answers for using the native language in the extracts above. In this extract, the participant states that by summarizing, they process the information and talk about it in their language, so he is positive for the experience.

“... it is better to do it first in Turkish because..., for example, while writing an essay, we cannot write directly in English. We are not proficient enough. First, thinking in Turkish and then writing in English is better. It is the same in summaries...” (Learner 3)

The extract above indicates that learners might do translanguaging and discussion in writing or summarizing activities might be by translanguaging. The learners might organize their ideas in a better way by planning first in their native languages.

“... it does not matter if we summarize in Turkish or English, but in my native language, I can summarize a topic from various angles. In only English, these summaries are too simple. In English, I can summarize with limited angles.” (Learner 6)

The extract reveals that using the native language enables more detailed discussion and summaries; however, creating an end-product in the target language is significant after the native language.

The use of the native language can serve as a lifesaver in summarizing activities as well. Some participants stated that when they had difficulties in summarizing, they switched to their native language, but for the rest of the activity, they preferred the target language.

“We summarized the text generally in English. Only for some details, we discussed in Turkish.” (Learner 8)

“I preferred to use English in those activities if I could explain myself. Otherwise, I used Turkish.” (Learner 2)

Three participants in the interview opposed translingual summarizing activity for listening tasks. Two of them stated that only the target language is better for practice, and one claimed that translanguaging is difficult.

“For summaries, I think using only the target language would be better. The things we summarize is not different from the things we listen about; therefore, summarizing what I heard is more efficient.” (Learner 5)

The teacher journals for the control group revealed that learners were unwilling to summarize what they heard in the target language. However, here, the participant states that summarizing the text listened to is more straightforward. The participant might be a learner with high English proficiency, who considers summarizing activities as an opportunity for practice.

“It is challenging to think in Turkish first and then switching to English, and I think it is more logical to do it in English. Translanguaging is difficult.” (Learner 1)

That might indicate that some learners might need an experience and practice in translanguaging.

“We always used English. I only take notes in Turkish when I write about grammar, collocations, and idioms.” (Learner 9)

The participant might support monolingual orientation more and considers the pair-work activities in listening tasks as practice opportunities. The topics which might be different in native and target languages, he prefers to take notes in Turkish because conceptually, it might be easier to understand these in the native language.

What do you think about translingual summarizing in the breaks and at the end of the reading activities?

Similar findings were found for translingual summarizing in the reading tasks. The participants claimed that summarizing is the best indicator of comprehension and discussing summaries with partners increases comprehension. One participant supported the translingual approach for learners with low English proficiency. The number of learners who support translingual summarizing is more than the number of participants who oppose it. However, there are negative answers, emphasizing the necessity of using only the target language for practice.

“It was helpful. It was beneficial to comprehend the text better. I realized that sometimes, my partner understands something different from the text, and I understand different things. We could understand better when we discussed and summarized the text. I am not sure about the effect of the activity on English development, but it increases our interest in the class.” (Learner 3)

The extract indicates that the translingual summary activity might be efficient for reading comprehension and help learners keep motivated in the class. The learner is neutral about the effect of the translingual approach in general English development. It might be because one might consider the discussion activities as target language-speaking practice with no native language.

“I think it is effective. For example, when your friend gives you a text in English in a newspaper, he asks you what it mentions there...it can be a message or an article... If you read and understand a text which consists of 10 sentences, you can summarize it with two or three Turkish sentences. It was the same in our activities.” (Learner 5)

The participant mentioned the nature of translanguaging: getting input in the target language and switching to the native language for more comprehension or a specific purpose. The translanguaging is supported for better understanding.

One participant supported translanguaging only if there is a difficult part that the learners cannot summarize. For more manageable parts, the use of the target language for more practice might be preferred.

“We tried to do them in English. We switched to Turkish if we had difficulty. In terms of practice, I think we should use the target language.” (Learner 4)

Although the learner supports a monolingual approach, he does not oppose translanguaging in case of difficulties. Three other participants endorsed the use of only the target language for practice. This finding verifies the findings of open-ended questionnaires and translanguaging beliefs questionnaire. In the beliefs questionnaire, the learners were worried that the native language might become a habit. The open-ended questionnaires revealed that they consider these pair-work activities as an opportunity for practice. The same findings were also in the interview.

What do you think about having translingual breaks in listening-reading activities in English coursebooks?

The question was to determine if the participants wanted to add anything to the translingual approach on reading and listening tasks. It was a general question, and the findings indicated six points that learners suggested for the advantages of translanguaging. At the same time, learners presented six reasons for their opposition. There is equality in positive and negative responses to the question.

Firstly, the negative responses will be presented below. Most of these answers support monolingual orientation for more practice and more exposure to the target language.

(Dialogue with learner 7)

S: "The activities should be only in English. We should use the target language for more practice; therefore, the activities should be only in English."

R: "That means before these activities that we conducted in class, you used only English in reading and listening tasks with your friends, right?"

S: "No, we usually used Turkish."

The extract indicates that there might be a gap between the ideal and the reality. As teacher journals also revealed, although learners want to use only the target language in the tasks, they frequently switched to their native languages.

"I think using native language is not good because we switch to native language when we have a slight difficulty. We cannot focus on English on that occasion. For years we have been taught that way, and we have not learned the language. So, I do not know..., but I think native language should not be used." (Learner 8)

Although the participant opposes the translingual approach, he is indecisive, as we can understand from "*I do not know.*" He supports monolingual orientation for more practice in the target language.

"...the purpose is to learn English so using native language... I do not know, really... If we want to learn a language, we should forget our native language and concentrate on only the target language. Therefore, I think it would not be very useful. It is not necessary." (Learner 9)

The participant is indecisive again, and he defends the use of only the target language for practice and exposure at the expense of forgetting the native language. Although reading and listening are receptive skills and translingual activities in the

study were done only for better comprehension, and the target language was used after using the native language, the participant insists on monolingual orientation.

“...I think it does not make sense. If we use only the target language, we gain awareness, and we can understand better next time, but when we use native language, we choose the easier way, and it averts English development.” (Learner 6)

The participant opposes using the native language for fear that it can become a habit and prefers only the target language for more practice and exposure.

The positive answers emphasized similar reasons with the previous questions in the interview. Some participants claimed that translanguaging could be for complicated parts in the tasks, and it is ideal for learners with low English proficiency. Two participants suggested that translanguaging can be used for individual studies outside the class by taking notes in the native language and for mainly grammar subjects. One participant indicated that translanguaging could increase the motivation of unwilling learners in the class, related to their low proficiency. That might suggest that as they might understand listening and reading texts better by translanguaging, they might be more focused and motivated.

“The activities might be helpful to attract the attention of unmotivated learners to the class.” (Learner 4)

“Not in terms of reading and listening, but I think more native language should be used for teaching grammar topics...” (Learner 2)

“It might be helpful in difficult points to contribute to comprehension. In some subjects, even if the teacher tells us in detail, there are unclear parts.” (Learner 3)

“...for learners with low proficiency, the native language can be used in some breaks for better comprehension.” (Learner 5)

The last question's findings indicate that there is no total support and opposition for the translanguaging and monolingual approaches. The translanguaging approach might be preferred for challenging parts, for learners with low English proficiency, for grammar subjects, whereas the monolingual approach provides more practice and exposure to the target language.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In this section, the discussion of findings from each data collection tool is presented under separate titles. The findings are discussed with relevant literature and by considering the contextual factors of the study. The findings collected from each data collection tool are compared and discussed to achieve triangulation.

5.1. Translanguaging Beliefs Questionnaire

5.1.1. Translanguaging for the Clarity of Teaching-Learning Processes

According to the findings, it seems that learners favour translanguaging for the clarity of teaching-learning processes. The highest three mean scores were for teacher's translanguaging. It seems plausible to claim from the findings that when teachers emphasize a significant point, they can speak in learners' native languages. It might indicate that learners want to comprehend significant points fully and do not want to miss crucial points. The findings verify the findings of Berlianti and Pradita's (2021) study because the main advantage of using translanguaging was that it could create an engaging dialogue for learners and teachers. The learners want their teachers to explain the differences between the target and native language in their native languages. The findings might indicate the learners' need to compare the two languages for better learning, as revealed by Parra and Proctor's (2021) study. The researchers used the translanguaging technique in a reading class. Through bilingual texts, learners could compare native and target languages, and the findings of the study indicated better syntax and morphology learning and metalinguistic and cognitive engagement in the class.

The answers in the clarity section reveal that learners want to hear Turkish equivalents of keywords in order to learn them better. The learners appear to think that for learning abstract vocabulary, using their native languages could be beneficial. This finding is in line with other related studies on the effect of translanguaging on vocabulary learning and teaching (Galante, 2020; Illman & Pietila, 2018; Rahmawansyah, 2019; Ong & Zhang, 2018). We may infer from the findings that if the class contains a complex subject for learners to comprehend, many learners might prefer

their teachers to explain the topic in their native languages (Berlianti & Pradita, 2021). Another item verifies the finding in the questionnaire, and if the subject or the term belongs to a specific field, translanguaging might be effective. It seems reasonable to conclude from the findings that teachers can also do translanguaging for class management. Although the number of learners having neutral responses for teachers' translanguaging for classroom management is higher than the number of the ones with positive responses, mean scores indicate that learners are neutral or have supportive ideas. The learners tend to support translanguaging in their interaction with their classmates as well. They suggest that using the native language is useful to ensure that they have understood the teacher's instructions; therefore, translanguaging allows them to interact with each other for educational purposes. A better meaning negotiation among learners could be achieved through translanguaging (Wang, 2019). Through the participants' answers, it is possible to claim that translanguaging is a problem-solving strategy; however, many participants are neutral about whether translanguaging saves time or not. They appear uncertain about using translanguaging to save time. That could be significant because while planning tasks with the translingual approach, the time allocated for the native and target languages, strategic classroom language planning must be planned properly (Baker, 2001).

The clarity section's findings suggest that translanguaging in an EFL context for the clarity of the learning-teaching process might be valuable. The EFL learners support translanguaging, translanguaging as a problem-solving strategy, teachers' translanguaging for unclear points, and learners' translanguaging with their friends to discuss the class subjects. This finding has been supported by other beliefs and attitudes studies (Aghai, Sayer & Vercellotti, 2020; Anderson, 2018; Burton & Rajendram, 2019; Caldas, 2019; Cogo, 2016; Flint & Dollar, 2020; Gallego-Balsà & Cots, 2019; Haukås, 2015; Itoi & Michaud, 2021; Kucuk, 2018; Rajendram, 2021; Scopich, 2018; Thomas, Stewart & Wabwoba, 2020; Wang, 2019). One of the tenets of translanguaging pedagogy is helping learners compare their native languages and the target language to see the differences and similarities and learn the target language better in addition to achieving communicative success. The potential was supported in an EFL context with the participants' answers in the study. For learning vocabulary, particularly for learning keywords in a text and abstract words, translanguaging might be valued in English classes (Galante, 2020; Illman & Pietila, 2018; Ong & Zhang, 2018; Rahmawansyah, 2019). The participants support the idea that translanguaging might be beneficial in

learning terms or subjects of a particular field. That is one of the main reasons translanguaging is used in mainstream education programs with learners from different backgrounds. It seems reasonable to suggest that in the EFL context, it can offer some valuable benefits as well. Learners support translanguaging when they have difficulty understanding the subjects, grammar subjects or vocabulary. The finding supports language teachers' translanguaging, namely that the learners seem to enjoy English classes with translanguaging. They keep up with the class more easily when both their native languages and target language are used. They support teachers' translanguaging which would indicate that they may not know how to perform translanguaging with their partners in an English class. They may be defensive or apologetic about their codeswitching and attribute it to laziness or sloppy language habits (Baker, 2001). Learners might need explicit teaching for translanguaging pedagogy and its advantages or disadvantages (Haukas, 2015).

5.1.2. Translanguaging for the Efficacy of Teaching-Learning Processes

Translanguaging for the efficacy of learning-teaching processes has the highest mean score of all other sections in the questionnaire; therefore, it might be suggested that translanguaging enhances the efficiency of teaching and learning processes. The learners do not believe that their teachers' use of both their native languages and target language confuses them. It appears that translanguaging helps learners understand better (Arthur & Martin, 2006). Furthermore, the learners do not consider that transitions to Turkish hinder English language learning. The focus was on learning in the negative items within the section of the questionnaire. It is possible to conclude that the shifts to Turkish might help learners learn a target language better (Yuzlu & Dikilitas, 2021). There were two positive items in the section. One of them asked for learners' ideas on the effect of translanguaging on teaching efficacy, and the other asked for its impact on learning effectiveness. Both items had high mean scores, which might indicate that many learners agree that translanguaging could increase the efficacy; however, they agreed more on the positive effect of translanguaging on teaching efficacy. Learners expressed their tendency to hear class teachers explain something in their native languages; however, the learners had more versatile ideas regarding the effect of translanguaging on learning efficacy. Based on the data, teachers' translanguaging might be helpful for efficient teaching, whereas other factors might be considered for the

effect of translanguaging on the learners' learning processes. The finding might emphasize the need for awareness-raising activities for translingual competence and performance (Haukas, 2015).

5.1.3. Translanguaging for Learning Language Skills

There has been an increase in studies investigating the effects of translanguaging pedagogy on different language skills in recent years. The main areas of interest have been its effects on four language skills (Barahona et al., 2021; De Los Reyes, 2019; Jain, 2014; Khatib, 2021; Llanes & Cots, 2019; Ramirez, 2019; Seals et al., 2020; Sulaiman & Taqi, 2020; Yuzlu & Dikilitas, 2021), reading (Bin-Tahir et al., 2018; Chu, 2017; Hungwe, 2019; Moreno, 2018; Nagy, 2018; Pacheco et al., 2019; Parra & Proctor, 2021; Vaish & Subhan, 2015; Mgijima, 2021), writing (Ali, 2021; Karabulut, 2019; Kaufhold, 2018; Turnbull, 2019) and speaking (Aoyama, 2020; Flynn et al., 2019; Moore, 2013; Pierwieniecki & Smith, 2021; Sahib et al., 2021). Most of these studies emphasized the positive effects of translanguaging pedagogy. However, only a few presents a technique to integrate the pedagogy into the EFL context. Furthermore, very few studies investigate learners' beliefs about translanguaging in Turkish context. In recent years, the effect of translanguaging on different language skills has attracted attention. Hence, the translanguaging for different language skills section in the questionnaire tries to reveal learners' perceptions on whether translanguaging helps them learn different language skills or not.

The findings of the section indicate uncertain ideas of participants on using translanguaging for four language skills. This may be because the questionnaire was conducted before learners experienced translanguaging pedagogy, and they might not have any experience on how to use it efficiently. Furthermore, high standard deviation scores of all items in the section might demonstrate learners' diverse ideas.

Participants' responses in the section indicate that writing skill might be the most suitable skill for translanguaging. This could be a significant finding as many studies for translanguaging in the EFL context have been conducted for teaching writing skills with a translingual approach (Ali, 2021; Karabulut, 2019; Kaufhold, 2018; Lee, 2014; Turnbull, 2019). The common finding among these studies is better organizing the piece of writing and better performance. The second skill on which translanguaging has a positive effect is reading, followed by listening with a close mean score. That might

indicate a necessity to implement translanguaging pedagogy in listening classes, although there are few studies in the field. This study aims to fill this gap. Translanguaging for reading studies have indicated the positive effects of the pedagogy in terms of text prediction and comprehension (Mgijima, 2021), mediating the academic content (Vaish & Subhan, 2015), the effects of bilingual texts on metalinguistic and cognitive engagement (Parra & Proctor, 2015), learners' translanguaging practices with their peers while reading (Nagy, 2018), reading assessment (Moreno, 2018), the comprehension of main idea (Hungwe, 2019). Most studies have indicated positive results. However, learners' responses in this study might indicate their lack of knowledge or experience for translanguaging pedagogy in Turkish context.

Some studies have investigated the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on teaching and practising speaking skill (Aoyama, 2020; Flynn et al., 2019; Moore, 2013; Pierwieniecki & Smith, 2021; Sahib et al., 2021). The common finding among these studies is frequent translanguaging practices of learners with their peers and teachers in discussion tasks. Aoyama's study (2021) indicated that learners in the Japanese EFL context did translanguaging for five primary purposes in speaking tasks: fillers, backchannelling, asking for help, finding equivalent meanings between target and native languages as a metalanguage. Sahib et al. (2021) concluded from their research that letting learners organize their thoughts in their native languages before speaking tasks in the target language, might increase learners' performances.

In this study, speaking skill is the least suitable skill for translanguaging pedagogy according to the learners' responses. Most learners prefer not to talk in their native languages when working with their partners in pair/group activities. Learners might consider these pair-group work activities with their friends as an opportunity to practice the target language. This finding is similar to the findings of Pierwieniecki and Smith's study (2021). The researchers revealed that although many learners supported translanguaging before speaking tasks mainly for complex subjects, others preferred only English. The findings of this study and Pierwieniecki and Smith's study warn teachers and planners to plan the time allocated for native and target languages in the EFL context.

In conclusion, the participants' responses seem unsure for translanguaging for different language skills. They are mostly positive for translanguaging for writing skills, neutral for listening and reading skills, and least favourable for translanguaging for speaking skills. High standard deviation scores in all the items in the section might

indicate that learners have different perspectives for the part possibly due to a lack of experience or they might not have clear ideas on how to do translanguaging for different language skills, which might be something positive to try doing the listening and reading tasks with a translingual approach.

Most of the learners worry that the use of the native language can become a habit over time. The finding is significant because it emphasizes finding the right balance between using native and target language. Most learners hesitate about developing a habit of using their native language rather than practising the target language as much as possible. English teachers frequently emphasize the importance of practising the target language. The monolingual approach insists on using the target language in language classes all the time. These factors might cause learners to consider the issue on the surface by repeating what they have heard all the time, only in English. They might not think about the advantages of using their native languages as scaffolding and then turning back to the target language. They might also be concerned with revealing their identities by using their native languages in the language class. In addition, they may consider that the two languages are different, and they should not be mixed, which is, in fact, against the translingual approach. To elicit learners' objective views about the translingual experience, they should experience it first, which is accomplished by listening and reading tasks with a translingual approach in the current study.

5.1.4. Translanguaging regarding Psychological Factors

Teachers' use of only English might demonstrate their trust in learners' L2 proficiency. In monolingual orientation, teachers should use the target language as much as possible to encourage learners to practise the newly learned language. Most learners agree with that item in the questionnaire; therefore, it might be said that if teachers trust their learners' proficiency in L2, they might always use the target language. That is for the teacher's use of the language. The mean for the item was not high, and a high standard deviation indicates conflicting ideas. Other conflicting opinions among learners were found with the other two views, showing the significance of English through using merely English and using merely English to increase learners' sense of success. Many learners are versatile for using *only English* in language classes. That might be because, in English classes, many teachers favour using merely English and forbid using the native language. On the other hand, the other questionnaire sections

also indicate that learners need to use their native languages. The finding suggests that there can be a place for translanguaging in EFL classes. The findings in the questionnaire indicated that learners support their teachers' translanguaging; however, they are dubious for translanguaging with their partners and whether the use of only English by learners increases their sense of success. Many learners have neutral views, which is coherent with the other findings in the section, and they do not agree or disagree that the use of only English gives them a sense of success.

The learners' unsettled views for using a monolingual and/or translingual approach in language classes could mean that they might be ready psychologically to try the translingual approach in language classes. The other studies about the effect of translanguaging pedagogy have focused on mainly three categories: learners' self-perception about language use (Lee, 2014), class participation, and task engagement (Daniel et al., 2017; Kwihangana, 2021; Muguruza et al., 2020; Rabbidge, 2019) and foreign language anxiety (Dryden et al., 2021). Lee's study (2014) revealed how positively using translanguaging pedagogy could affect learners' self-perceptions of language use in and out of the class. Kwihanga (2021) used translanguaging strategies to improve learners' classroom engagement and their language skills. The findings revealed that learners participated and acknowledged the benefits of translingual discussion tasks; however, they were cautious about having a formal policy on using translanguaging in L2 classes. The context of the study was the same as this study, and participants were engineering learners studying English preparatory classes. Many preferred to be instructed in only the target language, and the researcher concluded that learners might consider the target language more relevant professionally and internationally. Rabbidge's (2019) study indicated that the participants participated more in the English class as translanguaging helped learners comprehend the teacher's talk more. In a recent study, Dryden et al. (2021) investigated the effects of translanguaging strategies on foreign language anxiety. The findings demonstrated that translanguaging strategies provided emotionally safe spaces for migrant adult EFL learners. Such strategies also alleviated foreign language anxiety experienced by many migrant EFL learners as they could share their lived experiences, problems, and emotional expressions more easily. Despite the positive psychological effects of translanguaging revealed by many studies, the participants in this study's context have neutral views. The context is similar to Kwihanga's (2021) study. The participants

might consider English professionally and internationally more relevant and are cautious about using the native language.

5.1.5. Translanguaging Practices of the Learners in Class

This section is significant because to develop a teaching model for listening and reading tasks with a translingual perspective, it is necessary to reveal what kind of translanguaging learners perform in their classes. There is much research evidence that mixing and switching their languages is natural to learn new languages for many language learners (Creese & Martin, 2003; Gajo, 2007; Lin & Martin, 2005; Macaro, 2001; Martin-Jones, 1995). Seltzer and Garcia (2020) claim that the teaching of English cannot be done effectively in total isolation of other language practices of learners because translanguaging is always with them. Therefore, teachers should ‘leverage learners’ existing repertoires and encourage the appropriation of new features into the learner’s unitary repertoire’ (Seltzer & Garcia, 2020, p.26).

The analysis of the section revealed that nearly all the learners sometimes or often do translanguaging, which also supports the findings of the research mentioned. The most frequent translanguaging practice is using native languages when they need to ask their partners a new concept (Baker, 2001). That finding supports the rationale behind reading and listening tasks with a translingual approach. Moreover, it is possible to conclude that when learners want to explain a new concept to their partners, they prefer their native language. When learning or discussing the meanings of unknown words or concepts, the learners' responses reveal that they do translanguaging. Note-taking in the native language after receiving input in the target language is a practice of translanguaging. The analysis revealed that while taking notes, the learners do not prefer to switch to their native languages, and instead, they take their notes in the language used by the teacher. Some learners switch from the target language to the native language (or vice versa) while taking notes, however, their number is few.

The findings revealed some discrepancies between the beliefs and practice. In the efficacy and clarity sections, learners supported translanguaging. However, in the language skills section, learners discussed their views neutrally about the effect of translanguaging on learning language skills. Similarly, in the psychological factors section, learners had neutral views for using only the target language. Learners were mainly negative for using translanguaging to learn speaking skills in group-pair work

activities with peers. However, this section reveals how frequently they do translanguaging with their peers when they need to ask or explain a concept or word to their friends. The section's analysis clarifies that designing listening and reading tasks with a translingual orientation might have positive results. The learners already do translanguaging unconsciously or consciously, and the designed activities build on their current translanguaging practices. For instance, the most frequent practice was using the native language with friends when asking for a concept. This was done by multilingual collaborative group work activities in the current study (Garcia & Wei, 2014). The learners also checked the meanings of new concepts and words in their native languages, and they explained new concepts to their partners in their native languages. These practices were present in the multilingual collaborative group work activities integrated into reading and listening tasks.

5.2. Teacher/Researcher Journals and Translingual Reading and Listening Tasks

Five listening tasks and five reading tasks were conducted with a translingual perspective in the experimental group. The same tasks were conducted with a monolingual approach in the control group. In three listening tasks, the experimental group had higher mean scores than the control group, and in one of the listening tasks, the difference was statistically significant. In the listening task for which a statistically significant difference was found, both groups' total mean scores were close to five, indicating a medium difficulty of the listening task. In one of the listening tasks, the control group had a higher mean score, and in another, both groups had the same mean score. In the listening task for which both groups had the same mean score, the mean was 3, 91, which might indicate the difficulty of the listening text or comprehension questions. From these statistical findings, it can be concluded that the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on listening comprehension might be positive.

In reading tasks, the comparatively high total mean scores might indicate easy reading tasks. In three tasks, the control group had a higher mean score than the experimental group, whereas, in the two tasks, the experimental group had higher mean scores. No statistically significant difference was found between the two groups. There were no big differences between groups in terms of comprehension, and the biggest difference was with a score of 0, 70 in the fourth reading task, in which the experimental group had a higher mean score. The other mean differences were, in the

order of the activities: "0, 43", "0, 30", "0, 08" and "0, 51". On the contrary to many studies on the effects of translanguaging on reading comprehension (Bin-Tahir et al., 2018; Chu, 2017; Hungwe, 2019; Moreno, 2018; Nagy, 2018; Pacheco et al., 2019; Parra & Proctor, 2021; Vaish & Subhan, 2015; Mgijima, 2021), it is plausible to claim that reading tasks with a translanguaging approach might have the same results when compared to the tasks with monolingual orientation. The statistical comparison of comprehension scores revealed no advantage of conducting reading tasks with a translanguaging approach in the context the study was conducted. However, teacher/researcher journals and observations indicated verifying data for learners' ideas, supporting translanguaging in the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire.

Firstly, starting listening and reading tasks with translanguaging anticipation guides, K-W-L charts, and translanguaging vocabulary charts as warm-up might efficiently build background knowledge about the subject of listening and reading (Baker, 2001; Celic & Seltzer, 2013; Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). The participation of learners in warm-up discussion activities was much higher in the experimental group, which might also support the findings of other studies on the translanguaging effect on participation and engagement (Daniel et al., 2017; Kwihangana, 2021; Mbrim-Hungwe & McCaba, 2020; Muguruza et al., 2020; Rabbidge, 2019). The learners seemed to discuss their background knowledge in their native languages efficiently, and in the whole-class discussions, which were only in English, their participation was high. The same finding was found in Hungwe's (2019) study, in which learners were to read texts at home, discuss the main idea in their language class in the language they were comfortable with and then present the main ideas to the class in the target language. The study revealed that the participation was high due to the translanguaging pedagogy. The participation was low in the control group, who performed the tasks only in English.

In two listening and two reading tasks, translanguaging vocabulary charts were conducted, and learners compared newly learned vocabulary with the words in their native languages. It provided some positive results for learning the keywords in the listening and reading texts. There was a class discussion about the differences and similarities in using the native and target language keywords, and learners enjoyed and participated in this task. In the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire, the learners' answers revealed that they want to see the similarities and differences between native and target languages in their native languages. This finding verified the finding of the beliefs questionnaire in this study and the positive effects of translanguaging strategies

on vocabulary learning (Galante, 2020; Illman & Pietila, 2018; Rahmawansyah, 2019; Ong & Zhang, 2018).

One of the negative things about the class experience was that the listening and reading texts' subject could be significant for planning efficient K-W-L charts or anticipation guides as a warm-up activity. If learners do not have any ideas for the issue or the topic is not very interesting, anticipation guides and K-W-L charts might not provide positive results, no matter which language the teachers use. In one of the tasks, the subject was not appropriate to create an anticipation guide or K-W-L chart. Therefore, a situation was given to learners in the experimental group. Learners first discussed the problem with their partners in their native language and shared their ideas with the class in the target language. The learners actively participated in this task. It is possible to claim that designing an appropriate K-W-L chart or anticipation guide for the subject and planning a translingual vocabulary chart for the listening and reading texts, might provide positive results for learners. If the text contains information and some surprising facts for learners, in the review section, teachers could ask if there are any changes in their ideas that they told for the anticipation guide and what they learned if they have conducted a K-W-L chart. If the subject is appropriate for these activities, it provides positive results for the warm-up and the review section. However, if we suppose learners are uninterested or do not have any background knowledge to discuss even in their native languages, then translingual warm-up might be inefficient, no matter which language teachers use. The same finding has been found in a recent study by Mgijima (2021). The researcher studied the effects of translanguaging on text prediction and comprehension. The findings indicated that translanguaging might have a positive impact on text prediction and comprehension. Nevertheless, learners' familiarity with the content, the context of the reading text and vocabulary used in the text, might hamper the effectiveness of the translanguaging technique. These findings emphasize the significance of topic choice for the reading and listening texts.

While reading or listening to the texts, the control group with the monolingual approach was passive as they did the activity individually. The experimental group interacted more, both in their native languages and in the target language. Reading and listening tasks in both groups were conducted by pair-group work, and in the control group, the learners were to interact only in the target language, in this case, English, whereas in the experimental group, they first interacted in their native languages with their partners and then with the whole class in English. Pauses were provided during

listening and reading tasks to let learners discuss incomprehensible parts or words with their partners. The experimental group was much more active in these breaks, while the learners did the task individually most of the time in the control group. Even if the learners were warned not to use their native languages in the control group, some groups or pairs tended to use their native languages in many tasks. This could demonstrate that whichever approach teachers use, learners can use their native languages on some occasions. The finding is contradictory to the finding in the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire. In the questionnaire, learners' answers revealed that they consider speaking skill the least suitable skill for the translanguaging pedagogy. They prefer to use the target language with their partners in group or pair work activities and are worried that using the native language can become a habit. However, the finding here in the teacher journal suggests that although teachers encourage using only the target language, learners can still use their native languages with their partners. It can be concluded from the finding that translanguaging is always with learners (Seltzer & Garcia, 2020), and it is natural for learners to use their all languages for better learning (Creese & Martin, 2003; Gajo, 2007; Lin & Martin, 2005; Macaro, 2001; Martin-Jones, 1995). The most crucial thing for teachers to do here might be planning where, when and how much use of the native language should be allowed. This is what Baker (2001) refers to as 'strategic classroom language planning'. Particularly, language teachers in the EFL contexts should be careful about that planning because the primary purpose of the class is teaching and practising the foreign language. Similarly, Caldas (2019) conducted an ethnographic study to investigate the translanguaging beliefs of pre-service teachers, and the findings indicated that teachers would use translanguaging in their future careers. However, they believed that more emphasis should be put on the language that is necessary to develop. An effective strategic classroom language planning might increase the efficacy of translanguaging pedagogy in the EFL context.

In the experimental group, using the native language first for discussion might have helped learners organize their ideas in a better way (Aoyama, 2020; Flynn et al., 2019; Moore, 2013; Pierwieniecki & Smith, 2021; Sahib et al., 2021). This supports the possibility of inserting the translingual approach to reading and listening tasks in classes; however, when the comprehension is judged with scores, as the statistical comparison of scores revealed, there was not much difference between conducting the tasks with translingual or monolingual approaches. Using a translingual approach for

listening might provide better results as it can be deduced from the statistical analysis of the comprehension scores. Using the appropriate approach for the learners might increase their motivation or interest in classes, as claimed by many studies on the emotional effects of translanguaging strategies (Daniel et al., 2017; Dryden et al., 2021; Kwihangana, 2021; Lee, 2014; Mbrim-Hungwe & McCaba, 2020; Muguruza et al., 2020; Rabbidge, 2019). Learners' supporting ideas for translanguaging in the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire, and the data collected through open-ended questionnaires and interviews, presented in detail in the following pages, could help planners and teachers choose the most appropriate approach for their classes.

One of the biggest challenges in the listening and reading tasks as group or pair work was ensuring an efficient collaboration between learners. In the control group, many learners did the activities individually. They did not interact in the target language, and in the experimental group, there was not much difference in terms of collaboration. The teacher/researcher journals revealed that the teacher/researcher requested some learners to collaborate on many occasions because one of the learners in pairs was doing all the work and the other was copying the answers or notes. When the listening or reading texts were difficult, the learners tended to focus on the text individually. When it was easy, they did not need to collaborate with their partners because they could answer all the questions. When learners could not understand some sentences or words, they used their mobile applications or asked the teacher in their native languages, rather than discuss it with their partners. Particularly in summarizing activities, one of the learners in the pair or the group, most of the time the one with higher English proficiency, was summarizing the text. The other was only getting help and not contributing to the task. This was not the case with all the learners in the control and experimental groups. However, two or three pairs/groups in some tasks were counselled by the teacher to collaborate. To overcome this problem and provide an efficient collaboration, the sitting arrangement could be changed for every task so that the learners would be paired with a new learner for each task. This was not done for the study because of the limited class time. The other thing that can be done might be to plan the best summary competition for which learners are to tell or write summaries of the text with two or three sentences in the target language, after discussing first in their native languages. Some sentences can be underlined, and the best translation competition can be done for the underlined sentences for reading texts. The best summaries or translations can be shared with the whole class using interactive

presentation software. This type of competition was done in two reading tasks, and the learners participated and were more focused on the text. These findings might also indicate that Turkish learners might not be good at collaboration in classes because of the competitive nature of the education system or individual teaching/learning in EFL classes. The same can also be said for taking notes and annotating. Taking notes in the target language after receiving input in the native language (or vice versa) is one of the tenets of translanguaging. However, as the researcher reviewed the notes and annotations on learners' papers, it was clear that learners did not take any notes or annotated for unnecessary details. In the beliefs questionnaire, learners' answers revealed that they prefer taking notes in the language used by the teacher or the material. However, the papers revealed that they took notes neither in their native languages nor in the target language. These findings might indicate that learner and contextual differences might affect the efficacy of translanguaging pedagogy. In the experimental group, two pairs of learners insisted on using the target language throughout all the tasks, although they could use their native languages. That might indicate that learners' preference for the monolingual perspective might also affect the outcome of translanguaging pedagogy (Wang, 2019).

Learners in both experimental and control groups were more concentrated on the tasks when the tasks are compared with reading and listening activities that are done on the course books. The reason might be that to collect learners' answers for comprehension questions as data, the questions for reading and listening tasks were given on a piece of paper for each learner. They were to collaborate with their partners, but they could give their answers individually after discussion. They were to write their names on the paper as well. Normally, teachers cannot track their learners' responses in listening and reading exercises on the coursebooks. As learners knew that the teacher/researcher would check their answers, they might have been more concentrated on the task. On many occasions, the learners were reminded that these activities were not exams or quizzes. They did not differ from the listening or reading activities they had done on their courses before. They were informed that the teacher/researcher would not give any grades for their performance for answering the comprehension questions; nevertheless, the learners might have felt like they were taking an exam, which could be considered as a limitation. There were blank charts on the paper for the first three reading and listening tasks to allow learners to take notes, annotate and summarize for preview, view and review activities in the experimental group. However, learners might

have felt obliged to fill in those charts because they knew that the researcher would review them. Even if they were informed several times that these blanks were only spaces for them to take notes if needed, they tried to write lengthy summaries on these blank charts, particularly in summarizing activities in the review section. No blank charts were added to the paper in the last two reading and listening activities: there were only comprehension questions. The learners summarized only orally. According to the teacher/researcher journal, they participated more in the discussions precisely and in listening and reading tasks generally when they did not have any charts to fill in. One possibility is that they may have felt less constrained, and this can be considered as a limitation with the introductory reading and listening tasks.

In conclusion, based on the findings of the study, a translingual approach can be used for reading and listening tasks in an EFL context not for a significant quantitative difference in comprehension scores but for helping learners discuss unclear points, vocabulary and sharing background knowledge about the subject of the texts. One statistically significant difference was found in a listening task with a higher mean score in the experimental group. The subject was "travelling," which is general and interesting for many learners in this task. An anticipation guide for "travelling broadens the mind," and a translingual vocabulary chart was conducted. The learners interacted well, and in the end, they commented that the listening task was much more interesting than the other listening tasks they had done with a monolingual approach. Another significant difference was found for one reading task in which the experimental group had a higher mean score, although the difference was not statistically significant. In this reading task, the subject was "advertisement for children," and learners read an informative article with interesting facts. The anticipation guide was done for the statement "adverts can be bad for children". The learners were interested in the subject. After reading about surprising facts, the learners discussed the changes in their ideas in the review section, which they shared with the class in the preview section. The experimental group was much more active in these tasks. In some other listening and reading tasks, the experimental group had higher scores whereas in others, the control group had higher scores, but the mean scores were slightly different. The experimental group seemed to enjoy most tasks and they were more active. Using native language first as scaffolding to organize or develop ideas and express them in the target language was regarded as effective strategy in listening and reading tasks, in the context of the study (Aoyama, 2020; Flynn et al., 2019; Moore, 2013; Pierwieniecki & Smith, 2021; Sahib et al.,

2021); however, it should be added that using the translingual approach in listening and reading tasks takes longer when compared to using the monolingual approach.

The subject might also determine the success of using the translingual approach (Mgijima, 2021). Learners might not have any ideas in some topics where the choice of language is not the main concern. It is also essential to plan efficient anticipation guides or K-W-L charts. Learners' interest in the subject could be significant, too. The learners could not concentrate on reading or listening tasks in some tasks because the topic was not very interesting for them. The difficulty might also affect the task with a translingual approach. If the text is too difficult, learners might tend to do the task individually; on the other hand, if it is too easy, they might not need to interact with their partners. The texts and tasks with medium difficulty might provide positive results for the translingual approach.

In some tasks, ensuring efficient collaboration was a problem. The learners should be encouraged to work together in multilingual collaborative work activities. The partners can be changed for every class so that the learners can work with different classmates. The best summary or translation competition can be planned, as mentioned earlier. Some sentences were underlined in the reading task, for which the experimental group had the second highest mean score. The learners were encouraged to translate them with their partners and share them with the class using online presentation software. The best summary was chosen, the learners were focused, and they enjoyed the reading task. Learners must take notes or annotate essential parts in their native languages in a multilingual collaborative work for efficient collaboration. However, in the study, the learners did not take efficient notes or annotate, and this can be a problem with Turkish learners, which could be studied through further research.

5.3. Open-ended Questionnaire for the Control Group

The purpose of the questionnaire given to the control group was to reveal learners' ideas on difficulties in the listening and reading tasks with a monolingual orientation. Considering the findings, another open-ended questionnaire and interview were conducted in the experimental group. All the listening and reading tasks were conducted with the monolingual orientation in the control group. Learners had to use only the target language. The learners formed pairs or groups, and they performed the tasks collaboratively.

The learners' responses on the open-ended questionnaire revealed that the most frequent factor that caused difficulty for the listening tasks was fast speech and pronunciation of the speakers in the texts. Many learners in the control group also stated that they had trouble understanding fast speech and pronunciation. This might be a factor that cannot be solved using a translingual approach because it is related to the learners' receptive capabilities. However, providing translingual breaks might serve as 'breathing spaces' (Fishman, 1991) in which learners could relax and discuss the parts they miss with their partners. The third most frequent factor was focusing difficulties, and some learners stated that they could not concentrate on particularly long listening texts. This can be again solved by working collaboratively with partners, as learners might get help from or support their friends for incomprehensible points in listening texts. However, the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire revealed that learners prefer translanguaging while getting help from or providing support to their partners. Therefore, rather than a monolingual orientation, a translingual approach might be better in such a collaboration: while they work collaboratively, they might be more focused on the task. The fourth difficulty factor is the lack of vocabulary. Arranging listening tasks as collaborative work might solve the problem. Learners might discuss the vocabulary that they hear in the listening texts with their partners. When we compare this finding with the findings of the beliefs questionnaire, it seems possible that learners might prefer to see Turkish equivalents of keywords or Turkish meanings of abstract vocabulary. That is, they might choose translanguaging for learning vocabulary (Galante, 2020; Illman & Pietila, 2018; Rahmawansyah, 2019; Ong & Zhang, 2018). The other factor that causes difficulty is difficult or complex sentences in the text, and through collaboration, learners can discuss and comprehend these complicated sentences better with their partners. If the purpose is full listening comprehension, conducting pair-group work for listening tasks can help learners focus more, discuss and learn about vocabulary and comprehend complicated sentences better (Baker, 2001; Cummins, 2007; Garcia, 2009). Learners can discuss the parts in translingual breaks, and after listening two or three times, they could comprehend the text better.

The second question was about the learners' difficulties in the reading tasks conducted with a monolingual orientation. Lack of vocabulary knowledge was the most frequent answer according to the learners' responses. Overcoming this difficulty might be possible by using collaboration; however, as learners stated in the questionnaire, they

might prefer learning vocabulary by translanguaging. Another problem in reading tasks was a need for translation, and that also supports translanguaging. Some learners might prefer seeing translations of reading texts to comprehend better. In short, the difficulties the learners have in reading tasks might be overcome through collaboration. However, as the beliefs questionnaire's findings are considered, a translanguaging approach might be better to overcome these difficulties.

The third question tries to reveal learners' ideas on the effectiveness of pair-group work activities for the reading and listening tasks. The most frequent answer was that pair-group activities were useful for reading and listening tasks because learners could discuss unclear points with their partners. However, there were some conflicting findings in the open-ended questionnaire and teacher/researcher journals. The pair-group work activities were to be done only in English in the control group. However, the findings from teacher/researcher journals revealed that the control group was much more passive during pair-group work activities with a monolingual orientation than the experimental group. Even if the control group learners were advised to use only the target language in these activities, some learners insisted on using their native languages. The same frequency was obtained for sharing background information. This suggests that learners consider these pair-group work activities useful because they can share background information about the texts with their partners. Another frequent answer was more English practice, and this could indicate that learners consider collaborative activities during reading-listening tasks as an opportunity to practice their L2 skills. This finding was verified by the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire in which learners preferred using English with their partners in collaborative activities. Nevertheless, in reality, the teacher/researcher journals revealed that even if the learners were encouraged to use the target language and were reminded many times not to use their native languages, they were silent and did the activity individually, or spoke in their native languages with their partners. Another frequent category was that the learners consider the pair-group work activities useful because they can communicate with their partners more easily. That communication might be in learners' native languages because they were passive and did not interact in the control group during the activities. A less frequent reason for the efficiency of collaboration was more consciousness and being focused on the text. Some learners might think they focus more on the tasks because they need to share information with their partners. In short, the learners consider pair-group work activities in reading-listening tasks as useful for

getting or giving help, sharing information, for more English practice, easier communication with friends, and because these activities help them focus on the task more, which supports the findings of other studies (Daniel et al., 2017; Kwihangana, 2021; Mbrimi-Hungwe & McCabe, 2020; Muguruza et al., 2020; Rabbidge, 2019). However, teacher/researcher journals revealed that learners did not interact much when they used only English. This can validate some of the findings in the beliefs questionnaire. In the questionnaire, the learners support translanguaging while talking to their partners, and they are neutral for using only English in classes. In pair-group work activities, they prefer using the target language more; however, that might be because they do these activities frequently for speaking skills. For reading and listening tasks, they might not be used to doing pair-work. When they form pairs or groups for reading and listening tasks, they might prefer translanguaging rather than a monolingual approach. The presence of short answers such as "good," "nice," "it was beneficial" for the fourth question on the learners' ideas on the effect of English-only conversations on listening comprehension, might verify this finding. The learners might not be sure of the positive effect of English-only conversations on listening comprehension, as many could not give specific reasons for this positive effect. They stated that these English-only conversations in pair-group work activities during listening tasks help them focus more on the task. There is a necessity for comprehension because they must share something with their partners. However, the frequency was not high, and many other learners only gave short positive answers. One learner stated that he could not express himself well enough in the target language to discuss the text. That could mean that some learners might benefit more from the translingual approach. Another learner stated that listening is a different skill, and there is no need to tell what is understood in English again, and the task deviates from the aim, and it becomes a speaking task. That finding might also indicate that learners might not be used to doing collaborative work for reading and listening tasks. Their target language proficiency might not be enough to discuss each detail about the text. The same findings were obtained for the fifth question, which asked about the efficiency of English-only conversations in reading tasks. Many positive short answers could indicate that learners do not have clear ideas about these conversations' effect on reading comprehension. The other most frequent response was the positive effect of such conversations on reading comprehension because they enabled learners to learn vocabulary. However, in the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire, it was found that learners prefer translanguaging for learning

vocabulary. One of the participants' responses was that while reading a text in English, the learners translate the text into their native languages, and there is no need to translate their ideas back into the target language to discuss with a partner. It is clear from this answer that translanguaging is preferred by the participant.

In conclusion, learners could not give specific reasons for the efficiency of English-only conversations for listening-reading tasks. For the reasons they provided, they prefer translingual orientation, as the findings of the translingual beliefs questionnaire revealed. Furthermore, in the beliefs questionnaire, learners were mostly neutral for using the target language only. Learners might not have enough experience for efficient pair-group work activities for listening and reading tasks. These activities are frequently conducted to practice speaking skills, and therefore, learners might consider them an opportunity to practice the target language. A translingual approach in pair-group work activities might provide positive results in which learners can use their native languages as scaffolding to discuss texts.

The sixth research question revealed learners' ideas on what can be done for more efficient listening and reading tasks. One of the most frequent responses was providing translations of reading texts. Another common finding was providing keywords in listening and reading texts in advance. These findings might be an indicator of the fact that learners might need translanguaging. Another answer was providing enough time and repetition for a full comprehension of listening and reading texts. This might indicate that learners are keen to comprehend the texts fully, and multilingual collaborative groups could accomplish that.

5.4. Open-ended Questionnaire for the Experimental Group

The questionnaire for the experimental group was formulated by taking the findings of the questionnaire conducted with the control group into consideration. The purpose was to reveal whether adopting a translingual approach can overcome learners' difficulties with a monolingual approach. The discussion of the findings follows the same order as the questions in the findings section.

Two questions were asked to reveal learners' ideas for translingual note-taking and annotating in reading and listening tasks. The beliefs questionnaire revealed that learners "sometimes" take notes or annotate by translanguaging even if they tend to take notes in the language used by the instructor or materials more. The findings of the

question revealed that more learners preferred translanguaging than those against it while taking notes. The learners' answers showed that they take faster notes by translanguaging, they remember the main points and comprehend the text better when taking notes in their native languages. Translingual note-taking is like a translation practice for them. The negative answers did not have specific reasons, indicating that learners do not have clear ideas about the negative effect of translingual note-taking and annotating. That might be due to their habits in using the target language in tasks or a lack of translingual experience. One learner stated that taking notes and annotating in the target language while listening to the texts is better because it is more challenging and improves English. That might reveal that some learners consider note-taking and annotating as a target language skill to be improved. The findings of the translingual note-taking and annotating for reading tasks indicated that the number of learners who support translingual note-taking and annotating is more than the number of learners against it. However, most of the positive answers included single words, and they did not have specific reasons. Except for the learners who did not provide reasons, the other positive learners claimed that the activity was excellent because it helped them understand the reading text better. They remembered the details more, and they internalized difficult points. One of the participants against translanguaging asserted that taking notes in the target language is better for easy or medium-difficult texts. In one of the positive responses, translingual note-taking and annotating was supported for difficult reading texts. That might indicate that when learners take notes or annotate difficult reading texts, they might sometimes need to use their native languages. The common finding for translingual note-taking and annotating for listening and reading tasks were better comprehension and remembering more details about the text. "Faster note-taking" was suggested as a positive factor for listening tasks, whereas "internalizing difficult points" was indicated for reading tasks. The findings suggest that translingual note-taking and annotating can be utilized in EFL setting, particularly for difficult reading and listening texts. Nevertheless, there are some contradictory findings among the data collected in this study. In the beliefs questionnaire, the learners mostly stated that they preferred to take notes in the language used by the instructor. The journals and classroom experience demonstrated that learners did not take sufficient notes and did not annotate the main points of the texts. Moreover, here, most learners suggest that translingual note-taking can be effective for difficult texts. Reaching a scientific conclusion about the effectiveness of translingual note-taking cannot be

accomplished with these findings. Note-taking skills might require further research as there might exist other factors.

The findings of the second research question revealed that translingual pair work activities might help learners comprehend the listening texts in which speakers speak fast. Most learners supported the use of translingual pair work activities to overcome the difficulty in the control group. The learners suggested that translingual pair work activities helped them for better inductive reasoning because they could talk with their partners about the parts that they do not understand, and they arrive at a full understanding by combining the parts they understood and the parts that their partners comprehended (Garcia & Wei, 2014). They claimed they shared information with their partners better, which helped them focus on the listening text more for the second listening, without breaks. This result verified the findings of the beliefs questionnaire. It also supports the findings of other studies on better class participation and focus and better comprehension (Berlianti & Pradita, 2021; Daniel et al., 2017; Kwihangana, 2021; Mbrim-Hungwe & McCaba, 2020; Muguruza et al., 2020; Rabbidge, 2019; Yuzlu & Dikilitas, 2021). In the translanguaging practices section, the learners stated that they do translanguaging when they ask about a subject or term or explain something to their partners. Some learners might think it is better to discuss the listening text with Basic English, as indicated by one of the learners' responses. This finding might suggest that some learners consider pair work activities in listening texts as an opportunity for practice. However, in the study, the learners were to discuss first in their native languages and then in the target language so that the native language could serve as scaffolding (Daniel et al., 2017). Therefore, this opportunity of practice was provided with the translingual approach. The negative answer might indicate that some learners might tend to the monolingual approach. They might be against using their native language in their classes without thinking critically about the translingual activity. Explaining the logic behind translanguaging and providing opportunities for learners to practise could be significant in adopting a translingual approach (Haukas, 2015).

The questionnaire conducted with the control group revealed that vocabulary could be a factor that can cause difficulty in reading and listening tasks. There were questions about learning and teaching vocabulary in the beliefs questionnaire. Learners' responses revealed that they might sometimes prefer a translingual orientation rather than a monolingual one to learn new words. Encouraging learners to work in groups or pairs can help them discuss and learn new vocabulary with their partners through

interaction; however, the teacher journals for the control group indicated that learners might not interact to discuss and learn new words. Even if they were encouraged to talk to their partners about new vocabulary meanings in reading and listening texts in the target language, they were not enthusiastic. They preferred to look up the definitions on their smartphone applications. They sometimes asked the teacher in their native or target languages, which might mean that translanguaging is a natural practice and process in language classes (Garcia & Seltzer, 2020). In the experimental group, the learners were more active in discussing new vocabulary. As a result, it can be inferred from the findings from three data collection tools, the questionnaire, the teacher journals, and the open-ended questionnaire that the translingual approach can be better for learners to discuss and learn new vocabulary collaboratively. The first common reason for the positive effect of the translingual approach on listening and reading tasks was "better discussion of the meanings of vocabulary by translanguaging." That might indicate that learners can discuss meanings in both listening and reading tasks using their native languages. The second reason was that translanguaging could be a time-saver. Learners might think that if they do not have enough time to check and learn all new vocabulary, it might be better to discuss the meanings by using their native languages. The listening tasks' answers indicated that learners might focus more on the new vocabulary in the listening text and on the comprehension of the whole text. That might suggest that when learners can discuss the meanings in their native languages, they need to share something with their partners and focus more on the task. For reading tasks, translanguaging can provide longer-lasting vocabulary learning. Some learners stated that learning words by translating them and translating the sentences they are in enables long-lasting vocabulary learning. Moreover, through this activity, they can help each other in a better way. This might indicate that some learners might need to translate the reading texts to learn new vocabulary (Galante, 2020; Illman & Pietila, 2018; Ong & Zhang, 2018; Rahmawansyah, 2019).

Concentration on listening and reading tasks was difficult for reading and listening tasks in the control group. The learners' responses for the effect of translingual pair work activities on the concentration revealed that the number of learners who support this approach for more engagement outnumbers the number of learners against it. However, particularly for listening tasks, an unignorable number of learners were negative, and they claimed that these translingual breaks distracted them. This finding may constitute a warning to teachers and planners that some learners might prefer using

only English in listening tasks. On the other hand, the teacher journals in the control group revealed that learners might prefer doing the task individually rather than discussing the text with their partners in the target language. The same negative response was found for reading tasks. It suggested that when the learners had translingual breaks with their partners, they focused on details rather than the whole text, and they had difficulty understanding the text's integrity. These findings might indicate that translanguaging might cause concentration problems for some learners. A typical positive response for the effect of translingual pair work activities on concentration on listening and reading tasks was "more focused due to better comprehension" (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Fitts, 2009; García, 2009, 2013, 2014, García, Flores & Woodley, 2012; Heller & Martin-Jones, 2001; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012; Li Wei, 2011; Lin, 2013; Palmer & Martínez, 2013; Sayer, 2008, 2013). It could indicate that some learners benefitted from the experience by comprehending the text more, which resulted in more focus. One of the most frequent responses in listening tasks revealed that learners might be more focused because they share something with their partners. This might be the advantage of collaboration rather than choosing a translingual or monolingual orientation. For reading tasks, many positive learners' answers mentioned vocabulary learning. Some learners suggested that the translingual breaks were excellent because learners had to share something with their partners. Therefore, they focused more on the words and discussed them more. Another one was that the translingual breaks were beneficial because they provided the time to check the meanings of words and sentences to focus more on the task. These findings might indicate that learners might benefit from using a translingual approach in learning vocabulary, which verified the translingual beliefs questionnaire's findings. They might also suggest that the translation activities for reading texts might help learners comprehend a reading text more, and as a result, they can be more focused on the task.

Complicated sentences were a factor that caused difficulty in both reading and listening tasks in the control group. Some findings that supported the translingual approach to overcome this problem were found. The number of learners who supported translanguaging was higher than the number of learners against translanguaging to overcome this problem. The common reason for the efficiency of the translingual approach for both reading and listening tasks was "getting help from a partner." This could indicate that learners might get help more easily through the translingual

perspective than the monolingual one (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Garcia, 2009; Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). Learners stated that they could translate complicated sentences more easily in the reading tasks by discussing them with their partners in their native languages. As a result, they could understand complicated sentences in a better way (Otheguy, Garcia, & Reid, 2015). The learners stated that they discussed the parts they understood in the listening texts with their partners in their native languages. These partial interpretations of the texts helped them understand the text fully. Some learners against using the translingual approach, particularly for reading tasks, claimed that the approach was not very useful for complicated sentences because it took longer to do the task. That might indicate that planning the tasks with a translingual approach and allocating the ideal class-time is significant (Baker, 2001).

The subjects of listening and reading texts are from various fields in EFL classes. That means learners should have some background knowledge. If they have a good deal of background information about the subject, they might be more engaged in reading and listening tasks. However, if they do not have enough knowledge, as stated by the learners in the control group, the lack of background information makes reading or listening tasks difficult. Many learners were affirmative for the effect of translingual pair work activities on sharing background information for reading and listening texts (Cummins, 2017; Pacheco et al., 2019). The most common finding pointed out that learners might get main ideas more efficiently in listening and reading tasks when working as translingual pairs. They stated that they could discuss the subject better by using their native languages. They could easily share ideas about the topic, which could be more problematic when done only in the target language. This finding verifies one of the findings of the translanguaging questionnaire. In the clarity section, one of the statements was, "Turkish can be used when describing a term or a subject (metalanguage) of a particular field." Many learners agreed with it. During the control group's reading and listening activities, the learners were encouraged to discuss listening and reading texts by using only the target language. However, many learners preferred to do the task individually, as the journals revealed. These findings might indicate that sharing background information can be done efficiently by letting learners use their native languages with their partners. This could serve as scaffolding for the parts that are to be done only in the target language.

In translingual collaborative pairs and groups, the learners could discuss the comprehension questions in the reading and listening tasks in their native languages.

The question's findings that reveal whether translanguaging helps learners answer comprehension questions indicated that learners might have benefitted from the approach. Many learners claimed that discussing the questions in their native languages and translating them enabled them to answer more correctly, for reading and listening questions. However, this finding might be doubtful. The statistical comparison of the scores that learners in both experimental and control groups got did not significantly differ in most tasks. In the questionnaire, the learners preferred to see translations of essential points, and here they claim that these discussions in their native language help them answer questions more correctly. Nevertheless, the class performance showed no supporting evidence. This question was asked in the interview to triangulate the data, and the results will be presented later. For reading tasks, another finding indicated that the translingual pair work activities could help learners comprehend and answer questions more correctly through discussion of the reading text in the native language. One negative response for the effect of translingual pair work on answering the questions suggested that there is no need to discuss the questions and the content in native language because in reading tasks, it is easy to answer questions by finding the answers in the text. This might indicate that some learners might not need to discuss the questions because they can find answers easily by skimming and scanning the text. Similar findings were found for listening tasks. Many learners stated that helping each other and synthesizing their notes in their native languages helped them answer the questions more correctly. A learner's answer revealed that they could answer the questions with more complicated sentences by translingual pair work activities. This finding might be significant because when learners think and discuss their answers in their native languages, they might better organize their ideas and give more complicated answers (Aoyama, 2020; Flynn et al., 2019; Moore, 2013; Pierwieniecki & Smith, 2021; Sahib et al., 2021).

The findings of two open-ended questions to reveal learners' ideas on the effect of translingual pair-group work activities on listening and reading comprehension, in general, verified some findings of the translanguaging questionnaire and the teacher journals. The most frequent answer supporting translingual work for both reading and listening tasks was that translingual activities helped learners complement each other for unclear points in the listening tasks. In the reading tasks, more comprehension was achieved through translingual discussions. The most frequent answer that opposed translingual pair work activities for reading and listening tasks was that using the native

language might cause a habit formation. Particularly for reading tasks, learners claimed that using only English is better for more practice. Even if the English level is not enough for some discussions, these discussion activities should be done with Basic English and by paraphrasing if necessary. These findings might indicate that learners consider these collaborative activities in reading and listening tasks an opportunity to improve their speaking skills. However, as revealed in the findings of the teacher journals of the control group, no matter how hard the teacher/researcher tried to encourage learners to interact in the target language, many learners did the task individually. The experimental group learners were more active in both translingual breaks and while using the target language. Besides, a limited time was provided for translingual breaks in the experimental group not to cause a habit formation for using only the native language.

An emphasis on translating activities was found for both reading and listening tasks. For listening tasks, translating complicated sentences with partners and learning new vocabulary helped learners understand listening texts more. For reading tasks, translating the critical parts in the reading text enabled more comprehension. One learner's response for reading tasks suggested that translating improves English and it is enjoyable. That emphasis on translating might indicate that learners need to translate in listening and reading tasks (Baker, 2001; Cummins; 2007; Cummins, 2017; Garcia, 2009; Garcia & Wei, 2014). Some learners were confirmatory for the use of translingual activities for reading and listening tasks with some conditions. One of the most frequent conditions suggested was that translanguaging is beneficial only when done with collaborative partners. This might indicate that some learners might not be used to work collaboratively. This finding was also found in teacher/researcher journals. To overcome this problem, the partners could be changed for each collaborative reading or listening task. Another condition provided was that translingual activities are beneficial only until being proficient enough. That might indicate that learners may need translanguaging at lower levels, and when they become proficient, they prefer to use the target language all the time. Another condition was that translanguaging is beneficial for only difficult parts in reading and listening tasks. This might be related to the previous finding. Learners might have more difficulties in reading and listening tasks if they have a low proficiency and might need translanguaging more. In the translanguaging questionnaire, it was mentioned as well. For complicated parts, the learners prefer to

hear the translation in their native languages. The finding in the open-ended questionnaire verified the finding.

In teacher journals, it was found out that translingual preview activities through anticipation guides, KWL charts, and translingual vocabulary charts were useful. The findings of the questionnaire supported these findings. Many learners supported translingual preview activities because they shared background information about texts better, and better comprehension might have been achieved by discussing unclear parts with partners. As learners shared something with their partners in translingual pair work activities, they claimed they were more focused on the tasks and forced themselves to speak. The translanguaging perception questionnaire revealed that learners might prefer to use their native languages to discuss background information on various topics. In the teacher journals, the experimental group was more active than the control group. These findings supported the findings in the open-ended questionnaire. These translingual discussions might also increase learners' curiosity, and they might be more willing to read and listen according to learners' answers in the questionnaire. A negative reason given by a learner who opposed the translingual discussions was that these discussions could be better if done with Basic English. This might indicate that some learners might not consider themselves proficient in the target language to discuss everything; however, as they consider the discussions during listening and reading activities as an opportunity to practice speaking skills, they might prefer to use the target language. As teacher journals revealed, the problem might be that at some points, Basic English might not be enough to discuss the content of reading and listening texts; therefore, learners might need to turn to their native languages. Similar to the findings for preview activities, translingual review activities were credited by many learners. The most common reason for this support was that the translingual discussions to make summaries are an excellent way to synthesize what has been read or listened to (Abdulaal, 2020; Mbrimi-Hungwe, 2016). There is a better process of information. The number of learners who opposed translingual review activities is more than the negative learners for translingual preview activities; however, no specific reason for the learners' opposition was provided. They might have opposed the activities since it takes more time than the monolingual orientation. As it was mentioned in teacher journals, learners spent too much time writing summaries collaboratively. Therefore, it might be better to let learners only discuss their summaries by translanguaging orally.

Learners were also asked whether they think listening and reading activities should be only in English or translingual. Although more learners supported translingual orientation, some learners opposed by claiming that all activities should be only in the target language for more English practice. This might be because learners consider these activities an opportunity to practice their speaking skills or do not have enough experience for the translingual approach. In the translingual activities, the learners were to do the tasks in their native languages to organize their ideas with a limited time, and then they were to speak in the target language. The learners' ideas also warn teachers and planners that the time provided for using the native language is significant. Too much use of the native language might get criticism. The learners who supported translingual orientation claimed that it helped them comprehend the texts better when they had difficulty understanding. Their proficiency was not enough to express themselves in some situations, and they switched to their native languages. That might have helped them cover the main points of the reading and listening texts as learners' responses revealed.

The open-ended questionnaire's last question was to reveal learners' ideas for the translingual approach in general. Learners stated that translanguaging could be efficient if done for a short time. This finding verifies that the planning time limit for the use of the native language is crucial. They further stated that translanguaging is beneficial for learning vocabulary and discussing difficult parts in listening and reading text. These ideas are coherent with the findings of the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire.

5.5. Interview for the Experimental Group

The purpose of the interview was to reveal learners' ideas for preview, view, and review activities after they experienced listening and reading tasks with a translingual approach. The questions were asked separately for listening and reading tasks to find differences, if there was any, between teaching these two skills with a translingual approach.

The participants claimed similar advantages to those found in the open-ended questionnaires and translanguaging beliefs questionnaire. The discussion of background knowledge by translanguaging before a listening task was supported. In the preview part, the participants mainly seemed to have benefitted from translingual vocabulary charts because they stated that a useful discussion about vocabulary could be achieved

through translanguaging (Galante, 2020; Illman & Pietila, 2018). Some topics can be challenging to discuss, and in these kinds of texts, translanguaging might help learners discuss the subject using their native languages (Rahmawansyah, 2019; Ong & Zhang, 2018). Some topics might be difficult for learners to discuss even in their native languages, which demonstrates the significance of topic choice for listening texts (Mgijima, 2021). If learners do not have any background knowledge about the topic, they might not discuss it both in their native languages and in the target language. For reading tasks, translanguaging might provide an effective warm-up for difficult reading topics. Learners supported preview activities before reading tasks; however, they did not discriminate translingual or monolingual orientation. They only stated that it is a useful introduction for the subject by sharing background knowledge about the text.

In the translingual pair-work activities conducted, the learners discussed with their partners in their native languages for a limited time. They could discuss in the target language together, and finally, a whole class discussion was conducted only in the target language. The negative answers supported the use of only the target language for more practice. It can be concluded that learners considered the pair-work activities during listening and speaking tasks as opportunities for practice. A final output should always be in the target language as the translingual approach suggest; however, when the learners start using their native languages, they might continue to use it in the tasks in which they are to use only the target language. According to this finding, allocating enough time for using the native language and ensuring only the target language for the rest of the activity is significant (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). Learners mainly stated that translingual preview activities might be good for listening skills. Still, they do not improve English in general and do not prevent listening difficulties. Some learners stated that translanguaging could be done for difficult texts for the reading texts, but the tasks for easy texts should only be in the target language. These negative answers reveal that some learners might prefer monolingual orientation and react negatively to translanguaging in listening and reading tasks, indicating that learner and contextual differences might affect the efficiency of translanguaging strategies.

The contrast here is that in the beliefs questionnaire, the learners' answers revealed that they prefer to use their native languages for difficult subjects. The teacher journals also revealed that the control group, which could only do these discussions in the target language, was more passive in the preview activities than the experimental group, which did these activities translingually. Considering the positive answers that

supported translanguaging in the open-ended questionnaire, the interview's negative responses for translanguaging activities might belong to a minority of learners. These learners might have high-proficiency levels in English, and they can discuss everything by using the target language. Of course, the teachers and planners should consider their ideas because, in an EFL setting, they have classes with learners with different proficiencies in the target language.

For translanguaging "view" activities in the listening tasks, which consisted of translanguaging pair-work activities during the breaks while listening to the text, more learners supported translanguaging by claiming that it enables a useful discussion for unclear points. The activities were an easier way to get help from partners and an efficient way to comprehend difficult texts better. Most learners supported giving breaks during listening because it helped them discuss the text better. Most learners suggested that learners with lower English proficiency could get the most benefit from translanguaging; however, learners with higher proficiencies tended to prefer only target language use. This finding has supported the findings of the other studies conducted with beginner-level English learners (Garcia & Kleifgen; 2010; Pacheco et al., 2019; Rahmawansyah, 2019; Wang, 2019). These learners also supported giving breaks during listening, but all the discussions should be in English according to their responses. They stated that translanguaging is choosing the more comfortable way; however, they should force themselves to use the target language to improve their skills.

For the listening tasks, learners did not have any experience of translanguaging before the study. They always did these listening tasks with a monolingual approach. However, the answers that supported translanguaging for reading tasks revealed that they frequently did translanguaging while reading. They claimed that the translanguaging breaks were efficient in staying focused on the task, it helped better comprehension. As they usually do translanguaging while reading something in English, it was effective for discussing unclear points and unknown vocabulary. Many answers emphasized the importance of translanguaging for vocabulary learning in the reading tasks. The negative responses for translanguaging in reading tasks emphasized using only the target language for more practice. One learner's response notably demonstrates how learners might be used to monolingual orientation in that he claims that the learners should start thinking in the target language and forget all about the native language. Using the native language might extend the time required to master the target language, and translanguaging could cause a distraction. The participants who opposed

translanguaging preferred to use only the target language, even with Basic English. They might be a minority, and they might have a higher level of English proficiency.

Similar findings were found for the translingual review activities. More learners supported translanguaging; however, some learners opposed the translingual approach by stating that it did not provide enough practice of the target language. In the review part of the model studied, learners had to summarize what they read and listened to with a few sentences in the translingual breaks and at the end of reading or listening. First, they were to do that in their native languages and then in the target language. The logic behind the translingual approach is that learners can organize their ideas in their native language. They can discuss the text with their partners in their native language, but at the end, they should present or discuss the topic in the target language. Therefore, they can use their native language as scaffolding. However, the findings revealed that the learners might not have understood the logic of translanguaging because, for English practice, some of them opposed the perspective. Most learners agreed that summarizing is one of the best indicators of comprehension; therefore, they supported the summarizing activities without mentioning which language to be used. The participants who supported the translingual approach claimed that they could explain themselves with various sentences in their native language for listening tasks. In contrast, in the target language, it might be a limited language. They suggested that using the native language helped them comprehend the text better by summarizing and discussing it with partners in reading tasks. Therefore, particularly for learners with low proficiency in the target language, they supported translanguaging. They stated that when they have difficulty understanding the text or explaining themselves, they do translanguaging. The priority is to use the target language for them; however, they switch to their native languages in case of difficulties. Some participants opposed translanguaging by claiming that summarizing activities should be done with Basic English, and the native language should not be allowed for more practice of the target language. That might indicate that these learners might have a higher proficiency than their friends, and they might be bored using the native language in reading and listening tasks.

Another question was asked in the interview to reveal learners' ideas for having translingual breaks in English coursebooks' listening and reading tasks. The same amount of positive and negative thoughts was obtained through the analysis. The difficulty of the texts might determine the use of translanguaging according to the participants' responses. They stated that for difficult points in the texts and when

learners have difficulty, translanguaging could be helpful. That might be why it was suggested as an ideal approach for learners with low English proficiency by learners. Another participant claimed that translanguaging is particularly useful for learning grammar and the individual studies for grammar subjects outside the class. These findings verified the findings of the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire. Translanguaging can also help attract learners' attention to the course, which might be related to learners' proficiency levels. It might mean that when learners have low proficiency, they might be lost when the target language is used all the time, and the use of the native language can attract their attention. The negative answers emphasized the necessity of using only the target language for more practice and exposure. Translanguaging is comparable to choosing the easier way, and it can be a bad habit formation according to the participants' answers. These findings verify the findings of the translanguaging beliefs questionnaire. According to one of the participants, learners should set aside their native languages and start thinking in the target language. This demonstrates how some learners might be used to the monolingual approach in the EFL context. This might be the ideal for an English class, but another answer from one of the participants revealed that the ideal might not correlate to practice. It was stated that only the target language should be used for practice; however, with Turkish partners, Turkish was always used in reading and listening pair-work tasks. Therefore, translanguaging might be a concept that might find a place in the EFL context with caution and a necessary time limit. The amount of native language use must be lower than the target language use (Caldas, 2019).

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

The following answers to the research questions were obtained.

1. What is the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on reading comprehension?

The comparison of the reading comprehension scores that the experimental and control groups got revealed that adopting a translingual approach might not lead to much difference in reading comprehension. However, the findings from the beliefs questionnaire, teacher/researcher journals, open-ended questionnaires, and interview indicated some benefits of adopting the translingual orientation over the monolingual one.

Firstly, the translingual beliefs questionnaire's findings demonstrated that learners might prefer translanguaging with their partners to clarify that the things taught have been understood (Baker, 2001; Garcia & Wei, 2014). That is why learners might start using their native languages in pair-work activities in reading tasks (Bin-Tahir et al., 2018; Chu, 2017; Hungwe, 2019; Moreno, 2018; Nagy, 2018; Pacheco et al., 2019; Parra & Proctor, 2021; Vaish & Subhan, 2015). The language practices section also revealed that they often or sometimes do translanguaging when they want to ask or explain something to their partners. The reading texts have various topics from different fields. The questionnaire responses made it clear that when the learners learn a term or concept belonging to a specific field, they preferred translanguaging (Aghai, Sayer & Vercellotti, 2020; Anderson, 2018; Burton & Rajendram, 2019; Caldas, 2019; Cogo, 2016; Flint & Dollar, 2020; Gallego-Balsà & Cots, 2019; Haukås, 2015; Itoi & Michaud, 2021; Kucuk, 2018; Rajendram, 2021; Scopich, 2018; Thomas, Stewart & Wabwoba, 2020; Wang, 2019). For learning unknown vocabulary, the participants claimed that translanguaging might be better (Galante, 2020; Illman & Pietila, 2018; Ong & Zhang, 2018; Rahmawansyah, 2019). A lack of vocabulary knowledge was one of the difficulties in reading texts for the control group, which could mean that they want to learn the new words through translanguaging as shown by the findings of the beliefs questionnaire and other studies (Galante, 2020; Illman & Pietila, 2018; Ong & Zhang, 2018; Rahmawansyah, 2019). These findings might indicate how learners are

familiar with translanguaging in reading tasks. Their biggest concern in the tasks with a translingual orientation is that using the native language can become a habit. This concern might indicate that learners consider the interaction in pair-work activities an opportunity to practice. They may not know how to do translanguaging in the tasks systematically. That emphasizes the need for an explicit teaching for translanguaging and a necessity of practice (Haukas, 2015). That warns planners and teachers to limit the time allowed for using the native language, which was three minutes for each task in the study. The ‘strategic classroom language planning’ is also significant for the effectiveness of translanguaging pedagogy (Baker, 2001). It must not be forgotten that the purpose of an EFL class is teaching the target language. Therefore, more emphasis should be put on teaching and practising the target language (Caldas, 2019).

The teacher/researcher journals indicated that the experimental group participated more in the preview, view and review activities. They participated both in their native and target languages. That might be the first difference in learners' thoughts for translanguaging and the actual practice. On the one hand, they worried that using their native language could become a habit; on the other, they did not interact with their partners when the task was only in the target language in the control group. Some pairs in the group were advised not to use their native language; nevertheless, they used their mother tongue. That might indicate how frequent translanguaging in a language class is and why learners might need strategic translingual breaks (Cogo, 2016; Gallego-Balse & Cots, 2019; Garcia & Seltzer, 2020; Wang, 2019). Conducting a translingual vocabulary chart, K-W-L chart, or an anticipation guide in the preview phase was efficient as the findings of the journals, open-ended questionnaires and the interview revealed. If learners had some knowledge of the text's subject, they could participate actively in these activities. However, if it was a topic about which the participants did not know anything, it did not matter which language was used, and learners did not participate. Choosing a topic that is interesting for learners and for which they have some background knowledge is significant.

The same finding was found in Mgijima's study (2021). The researcher studied the effects of translanguaging pedagogy on text prediction and comprehension. The findings revealed that learners' familiarity with the content, the context of the reading text, and vocabulary might affect the effectiveness of the translanguaging pedagogy. The most effectiveness was observed in the tasks, the topics of which were appropriate to create preview and review tasks. If the same anticipation guide or KWL chart can be

done in the preview and review phases, it might improve reading comprehension results. The experimental group supported translanguaging for reading tasks mostly because they preferred translingual discussions for better comprehension. Some learners favoured translating because it ensured better comprehension, and it was enjoyable. The biggest support was sharing background knowledge about the reading text and vocabulary (Abdulaal, 2020; Berlianti & Pradita, 2021; Pacheco et al., 2019). Some learners suggested that the translingual discussions also helped them understand complicated sentences better. Learners in the control group claimed that they needed more time to read and comprehend and needed the translated versions of the texts for more efficient reading tasks. These were done through translanguaging in the study.

The data collected through all data collection tools clarified that translanguaging could be used for difficult parts in reading texts and to discuss the unclear parts better (Baker, 2001; Cummins; 2007; Cummins; 2017; Garcia, 2009; Garcia & Wei, 2014). Learning and discussing vocabulary can be achieved through translingual discussions with partners. Sharing background knowledge about the text's subject can be done better by translanguaging. As the analysis of open-ended questionnaires and the interview revealed, learners might not have the necessary target language skills to discuss their limited knowledge in some topics. It might be particularly good for learners with low English proficiency (Rahmawansyah, 2019). However, learners are afraid that the use of the native language can become a habit; therefore, the limit for using the native language should be planned well, and a final language output must always be in the target language. Teacher/researcher journals indicated that creating a competitive atmosphere such as the best translation of underlined sentences or the best main idea can improve the success of translanguaged language classes. The studies on the effectiveness of translanguaging pedagogy on reading comprehension and getting the main idea have suggested positive findings (Hungwe, 2019; Moreno, 2018). The success of the class might also depend on the content and the difficulty of the text. Because the findings from teacher/researcher journals, open-ended questionnaires, and the interview suggested that when the text is too difficult or uninteresting for learners, learners do not greatly interact. Similarly, if the text is too easy, they might do the task individually rather than collaboratively.

Learner differences might also affect success. As observed in the class, some learners were more tied to a monolingual orientation and resisted translanguaging strategies. Therefore, explicit teaching of translanguaging strategies and their necessity

in the modern world must be presented to learners (Haukas, 2015). Another learner difference that might affect the success might be learners' preference to work collaboratively or individually. Ensuring an effective collaboration can be done through changing learners in pairs for each multilingual collaborative work, which could not be done in the study due to class time limitations.

2. What is the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on listening comprehension?

In three of the listening tasks, the experimental group's scores were higher than the control group, and in one of these tasks, the difference was statistically significant. That might indicate that adopting a translingual approach might lead to better listening comprehension.

The speakers' fast speech and accent in the listening texts were the most frequent difficulty in listening tasks for the control group. The learners in the experimental group supported having translingual breaks to discuss the things they understood from the part they listened to. Their open-ended questionnaire and interview responses indicated that the translingual discussions might have helped complement each other for unclear points in the text (Ali, 2021) by providing them a 'breathing space' (Fishman, 1991). The journals revealed that the experimental group learners interacted more in their native and target languages in these breaks. The learners in the control group were warned not to use their native languages; nevertheless, some pairs used the native languages silently. The beliefs questionnaire indicated that they might need translanguaging to understand difficult points, clarify that they have understood the things they listened to, discuss the topic in various fields, and learn new vocabulary. The learners' responses revealed they often do translanguaging when they want to ask or explain something to their partners. These might be the reasons why adopting a translingual orientation could result in more comprehension.

The second difficulty was vocabulary in the listening texts. The beliefs questionnaire revealed learners' preference for translanguaging to learn and discuss vocabulary. The experimental group was active in translingual breaks, and they discussed the vocabulary they heard. Some learners in the control group stated that they did not have the necessary proficiency for discussing the things they heard in a listening task with their partners in only the target language, which might support translanguaging (Baker, 2001, Cummins, 2017). Some learners stated that repeatedly

listening until a full comprehension might be better for efficient listening tasks in the control group. That can be done through translingual breaks. Learners can discuss the text in both native and target languages, and for listening for a second time, they can focus more on the text as suggested by participants' answers.

For the preview activities, teacher/researcher journals revealed that translingual anticipation guides, vocabulary charts, and K-W-L charts might provide positive results (Celic & Seltzer, 2013) with the condition that the subject is interesting and appropriate for learners' levels. If they know something about the topic, using their native languages firstly might serve as scaffolding (Kucuk, 2018). However, if the subject is too complicated and the learners do not have any ideas on the topic, which language is used may not matter. Designing anticipation guides for which learners can change their views after reading or listening to the text might provide more positive results. Similarly, the texts in which learners can learn new information can be better for more efficient K-W-L charts. A translingual situation or role-play activity can be done if the topic is inappropriate to design these translingual tasks. Learners could organize and plan their ideas with their partners in this activity, firstly in their native languages and then in the target language. These findings emphasize the significance of choosing appropriate listening and reading texts to apply a translingual approach.

In the view activities, the journals revealed that the control group learners with a monolingual orientation were more passive during pair-work activities in the listening tasks than the learners in the experimental group with the translingual approach. Although it was forbidden to use the native language in the control group, some pairs insisted on using their native languages to discuss the text. In some texts that were difficult to comprehend for learners, they did not collaborate, and similarly, for easy texts, they did not collaborate because they could understand. The choice of medium-level difficulty texts might provide more positive results for the translingual approach. Some learners did not collaborate efficiently with their partners, which could be overcome by assigning different partners for each listening and reading task.

Another problem was taking notes. The learners could take notes in their native languages to discuss later with their partners in the experimental group. In the control group, they could take notes only in the target language. In both groups, the learners focused on unnecessary details and could not take efficient notes. Although many studies have emphasized that translingual note-taking might be efficient for better comprehension (Garcia, 2007; Garcia & Li Wei, 2014), this has not been supported in

this study. There might be other factors affecting translingual note-taking, which require further research.

In the review activities, translingual summarizing and translingual discussing, anticipation guides and K-W-L charts could provide positive results if the subject of the listening or reading text is appropriate. To save class time, summarizing activities could be done orally because otherwise, it takes too much time to write. "Best summary competition" can be organized, and learners can share their summaries with their partners in the target language using interactive presentation software. For reading texts, underlining some sentences, and doing the best summary competition can also be efficient. The teacher journals revealed that this provided positive results and increased learners' curiosity and engagement.

In conclusion, the experimental group suggested that translanguaging might help comprehend the text better by discussions with the partner, by translating sentences and vocabulary. Some learners also claimed that translanguaging for listening might be good until reaching a certain proficiency level. Some learners felt negative about the experience as they thought that using the native language can become a habit. Therefore, translanguaging orientation can be adopted to discuss unclear parts, vocabulary, and background knowledge about the topic. Learners might need translanguaging when they have difficulty expressing themselves. It is significant to do translanguaging for a limited time, and most of the class time should be in the target language (Mgijima, 2021). Learners with low English proficiency might get the maximum benefit of the translingual orientation (Kleifgen, 2010; Pacheco et al., 2019; Rahmawansyah, 2019; Wang, 2019); however, there is a need for further research on the issue.

3. What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL learners about translanguaging before the treatment?

The participants support translanguaging for the clarity and efficacy of teaching and learning processes. Even though they feel doubtful for translanguaging to learn four target language skills, they frequently use it in language classes. They do not support the monolingual orientation; however, they might be cautious for translanguaging because they worry that the native language can become a habit.

The learners seem to support translanguaging for the clarity of teaching-learning processes. The learners' responses in the beliefs questionnaire revealed that they mainly support teachers' translanguaging to emphasize significant points, explain the

differences between Turkish and English, and explain the meanings of essential vocabulary. To ensure clarity, the learners can do translanguaging with their partners and teachers to clarify whether a subject has been understood and talk about or describe a term or subject of a particular field. For the efficacy of the teaching and learning process, learners support translanguaging. Their answers reveal that teachers' use of both their native and target languages increase teaching efficacy and makes learning easy. Transitions to the native language do not hinder learning English, and these transitions do not confuse the learners. The learners' responses for translanguaging for four language skills indicated that they are neutral, suggesting that they are more used to the monolingual approach in English classes. They might not have enough experience of translanguaging to learn target language skills. The skills for which the participants support translanguaging are writing, reading, and listening skills respectively. The mean scores are very similar in these skills. The learners think that translanguaging might negatively affect their speaking skill development, and in collaborative activities with their partners, they do not support translanguaging. That might indicate that they consider collaborative activities as an opportunity to practice only the target language.

The biggest worry of participants for translanguaging in the EFL setting is that the native language can become a habit over time. This signifies the importance of the systematic use of translanguaging in the EFL context. The learners seem to support the idea that teachers' use of the target language demonstrates that they trust their learners' English proficiency. However, learners are uncertain for the idea that only English should be used in the classes, and the use of only English gives them a sense of success. That might indicate that learners do not entirely support monolingual or translingual orientation, and they might not have clear ideas. The translanguaging practices section of the questionnaire revealed that many learners do translanguaging in the EFL context. The learners particularly do translanguaging when they want to ask or explain a concept to their partners and when they want to check the meaning of a new concept. Although translingual note-taking is common in the translingual approach, the participants' responses revealed they do not frequently do it.

4. What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL learners about translanguaging after the treatment?

The analysis of the data collected through the teacher journals, open-ended questionnaires, and the interview revealed that translanguaging is a frequent activity done by learners in the EFL context (Aghai et al.,2020; Anderson, 2018; Burton &

Rajendram, 2019; Caldas, 2019; Gallego-Balse & Cots, 2019; Kucuk, 2018; Rajendram, 2021; Scopich, 2018; Wabwoba, 2020; Zhou & Mann, 2021). The translingual approach could overcome some of the problems learners face with an orientation of parallel bilingualism. Triangulated data indicated that translanguaging could help learners share background knowledge about reading and listening in a better way, it can help them discuss and learn vocabulary collaboratively, and unclear or incomprehensible sentences or parts can be comprehended better by translingual discussions on condition that time allocated for the use of native language is limited. Translanguaging helps the learners with low English proficiency and for difficult, unclear parts in listening and reading texts. As learners frequently do it, even if teachers encourage the use of only the target language, systematic translanguaging in translingual breaks might help learners comprehend listening and reading texts better.

In the open-ended questionnaire analysis for the experimental group, the number of positive answers with single words such as "Nice, effective, good." was noticeable. It was the case with nearly all questionnaire questions, indicating that the learners liked and benefitted from the experience. Still, as they could not give specific reasons for their ideas, they might need further practice and explicit teaching for translanguaging (Haukas, 2015).

In the preview activities, sharing background knowledge about the text might be done better by translanguaging as findings of the beliefs questionnaire, open-ended questionnaire, and interview revealed. According to the data, as listening and reading texts are from various fields, learners can better discuss background knowledge by translanguaging (Berlianti & Pradita, 2021). They can explain themselves by using more varied vocabulary in their native language to get more detailed information. As a result, they might be more focused on the task. They could discuss the vocabulary by translingual vocabulary charts, which were efficient to learn vocabulary. To sum up, translingual preview activities were supported by learners for their help in sharing background knowledge and vocabulary.

In the view and review activities, learners supported giving breaks when reading or listening to the texts. The teacher journals, open-ended questionnaires, and the interview indicated that these translingual breaks might help discuss unclear parts, discuss vocabulary, and discuss background information about the subject of the text. The learners stated that taking notes in their native language after listening is faster, it helped them remember the main points and comprehend the text better. The beliefs

questionnaire found out that learners "sometimes" take notes in their native languages. However, when the worksheets for reading and listening tasks were examined, it was realized that the learners took notes for unnecessary details, and many of the papers were empty. Many learners did not take notes in either English or Turkish. That might indicate another problem with the note-taking skills of learners. Although learners support translanguaging for taking notes, their note-taking practice was not much efficient. They only took notes in their native languages for vocabulary. After learners read some parts of the text, they summarized what they had understood first in their native languages and then in the target language. The answers in the open-ended questionnaire and the interview revealed that summarizing is one of the best ways of checking comprehension. The learners comprehended the reading text better when they first summarized and discussed their annotations in their native languages (Abdulaal, 2020; Mbrimi-Hungwe, 2016). This finding was verified by the beliefs questionnaire and the teacher journals. In the beliefs questionnaire, the learners stated that when they want to talk about a specific subject about the text, they prefer to use their native languages. The teacher journals revealed that the experimental group was more active than the control group with the monolingual approach in the translingual summarizing activities. Learners' answers in the interview indicated that better comprehension could be ensured by translingual summarizing and annotating. It is particularly ideal for learners with low proficiency in English and difficult texts. The text's difficulty was claimed to be a factor to be considered for the use of translingual summarizing. The learners suggested that they summarized in the target language for easy texts and texts with medium difficulty, whereas for difficult parts and texts, they did translanguaging. A minority of participants in the interview suggested that discussions with Basic English and forcing themselves to speak only in the target language is better for summarizing activities. However, as the teacher journals for the control group demonstrated, the learners were not very active when using only the target language. In listening to texts in which speakers speak fast, the learners' answers revealed they discussed the unclear parts better by translanguaging. For the second listening, without pauses, they could understand the text better. Teacher journals verified this finding. During the breaks in the listening tasks, the experimental group learners were more active and participated more than the learners in the control group. For vocabulary in listening and reading tasks, learners' answers supported translanguaging. They discussed vocabulary meanings better by translanguaging, and they focused more on the words

with partners. This finding is the same as the findings of the beliefs questionnaire and the interview. Learners in the control group mentioned focusing and concentration problems as difficulty factor. The open-ended questionnaire with the experimental group revealed that some learners were more concentrated on the task because they had to share some information with their partners. However, the number of negative answers in both the open-ended questionnaire and the interview was not ignorable. Some learners stated that translanguaging caused distraction and they could be lost in reading and listening tasks. This finding might indicate that adopting a translanguaging approach might not increase some learners' concentration on the task, and learner differences might be effective. Neither the control nor experimental groups had a concentration problem, according to the teacher journals. All learners were engaged in the tasks. Therefore, as this data could not be triangulated, the effect of translanguaging on learners' concentration is doubtful. Learners support translanguaging according to the beliefs questionnaire, open-ended questionnaire, and interview findings for difficult sentences. Learners claimed that they could get help from and help their partners better by translanguaging, and they could comprehend the text better when they translated difficult sentences with their partners. The answers that oppose translanguaging for difficult texts only suggested that translanguaging takes too much time. As the teacher journals also revealed, doing tasks with a translanguaging approach takes more time than a monolingual approach, and that can cause boredom for learners. It should also be emphasized that learners did not collaborate with their partners in tasks they had difficulty understanding. Therefore, it can be concluded that in too difficult texts in which neither of the learners can understand anything in a pair, they stop collaborating instead of discussing the part and guessing the meaning from the context.

The open-ended questionnaire and interview findings indicated that translanguaging pair work activities could provide a better discussion of unclear parts in a listening text. However, the answers emphasized that translanguaging should be done until being proficient enough. That suggests that when learners consider themselves proficient enough, they want to use only the target language. They are sceptical of translanguaging because the use of the native language can become a habit. That indicates that allocating a limited time for translanguaging is significant. Similar findings were for the effect of translanguaging on reading comprehension. The findings indicated that learners needed translations in some texts, particularly for difficult texts. The translanguaging pair work activities and discussions in the native language helped learners translate and

comprehend the reading text better. Some responses suggested that translanguaging should be done only for challenging parts. That indicates that learners prefer to use only the target language for more practice for easy reading texts.

Considering all findings, it is possible to reach the following conclusions. Translanguaging pedagogy can be effective in reading tasks in the EFL context, which supports the findings of many other studies (Bin-Tahir et al., 2018; Chu, 2017; Hungwe, 2019; Mgijima, 2021; Moreno, 2018; Nagy, 2018; Pacheco et al., 2019; Parra & Proctor, 2021; Vaish & Subhan, 2015). On the contrary to the mentioned studies, no statistically significant differences were found in this study in terms of comprehension scores that the control group with monolingual reading tasks and the experimental group with translingual reading tasks got. However, for listening tasks, a statistically significant difference was found in a translingual listening task with a medium effect size (Cohen, 1998). The experimental group got higher scores on the comprehension questions than the control group, which might attract the attention of many researchers and teachers to translingual listening tasks by giving translingual breaks as breathing spaces (Fishman, 1991). There are only a few studies on the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on listening comprehension, and reaching a conclusion requires new studies on the subject. The translanguaging questionnaire and many other translanguaging beliefs and attitude studies have revealed how frequent translanguaging strategies are in a language class (Aghai et al., 2020; Anderson, 2018; Burton & Rajendram, 2019; Caldas, 2019; Cogo, 2016; Gallego-Balse & Cots, 2019; Haukas, 2015; Kucuk, 2018; Rajendram, 2021; Scopich, 2018; Wabwoba, 2020; Wang, 2019; Zhou & Mann, 2021). These studies have emphasized that translanguaging is a natural ‘practice and process’ (Li Wei, 2011) in language classes (Garcia & Seltzer, 2020). The questionnaire in the study has questioned the translanguaging beliefs with five dimensions: clarity, efficacy, psychological factors, the use of translanguaging for different language skills and translanguaging practices of learners. Similar to the findings of the other studies, the analysis of the questionnaire revealed that learners support translanguaging for the efficacy and clarity of teaching and learning processes. They mainly support teachers’ translanguaging. Language skills and psychological factors that affect translanguaging sections revealed learners’ neutral stance. The findings of the language skills section and learners’ supporting answers for translingual strategies without mentioning a specific reason in open-ended questionnaires indicate that learners might not know how to use translanguaging strategies for efficient learning. That signifies the importance of

explicit teaching and awareness-raising for translanguaging strategies (Haukas, 2015). This awareness-raising and explicit teaching must also be done through teacher-training programs for efficient translanguaging pedagogy because teachers might have different beliefs and attitudes for translanguaging pedagogy. Aghai et al. (2020) have classified teachers as those who consider translanguaging-as-a-problem, translanguaging-as-a-natural-process, and translanguaging-as-a-resource. Similarly, many language teachers avoid using translanguaging practices due to a lack of experience or knowledge (Gallego-Balse & Cots, 2019; Wabwoba, 2020; Wang, 2019). Burton and Rajendram (2019) attribute the teachers' adherence to the monolingual perspective to inadequate strategies or methods. They call for practical techniques or methods for translanguaging pedagogy in a language class, which has been done through this study.

Translanguaging practices section revealed how frequently learners do translanguaging in language classes, and the psychological section demonstrated learners' neutral stances towards using only the target language. These findings necessitate using translanguaging pedagogy in language classes (Anderson, 2018). The teacher/researcher journals kept in experimental and control groups revealed that the experimental group was more active in preview-view and review translingual breaks for listening and reading tasks. The same tasks were conducted in only English in the control group, and no matter how much the learners were required to use the target language, some pairs used their native languages. The experimental group participated more and engaged with the task even when only the target language was used as a whole class activity. As the teacher journals revealed, creating the best translation or main idea competition through an interactive program such as 'Mentimeter' in the review section might increase learners' participation. This finding might support studies investigating translingual main idea extraction and summarizing (Hungwe, 2019; Mbrim-Hungwe, 2016). The open-ended for the control group revealed the difficulties that learners have with a monolingual perspective listening and reading tasks. In listening tasks, it was speakers' pronunciation and fast speech, vocabulary, and problem focusing, whereas in the reading tasks, the greatest difficulty was with vocabulary. When the efficiency of group/pair activities in which learners could help each other by using only the target language, many learners gave positive answers without a specific reason. Their answers revealed that they consider pair activities as helpful in helping each other and more speaking practice. However, the class observation revealed that most learners in the control group did the tasks individually, and some used their native

languages. Furthermore, learners' suggestions for better listening and reading tasks suggested that they might need more translations of the listening and reading texts or vocabulary in the text. These findings might indicate the necessity of translanguaged language classes (Aghai et al., 2020).

The open-ended questionnaire and interview for the experimental group revealed that many difficulties in the control group could be overcome through translanguaging. According to learners' answers, translanguaging might help them help each other more efficiently with vocabulary, complex sentences and background information about the text. The learners supported translanguaging for difficult texts and vocabulary mainly. Both open-ended questionnaires and interview analysis revealed some supportive ideas of learners without mentioning a specific reason, which might indicate a lack of knowledge regarding the strategy. Most of the negative ideas asserted that learners need more English practice; therefore, translanguaging is ineffective. However, when asked if they use English with their Turkish partners all the time, they said no. Moreover, the control group was much more passive in pair activities in the target language. That might necessitate a strategic use of the native language. Some participants asserted that, especially in low levels of learning English, translanguaging might be valuable. However, due to a lack of research, it is not certain if translanguaging can be more effective in certain English levels. A study conducted by Zhou and Mann (2021) revealed that even advanced EFL learners might prefer translanguaging rather than traditional, monolingual perspectives. More studies are needed on the topic.

The data collected revealed some factors that might affect the success of translanguaging pedagogy in the EFL context. First, as teacher/researcher journals revealed, when the learners have no background knowledge about the subjects of listening or reading tasks, they do not interact with their partners no matter which language is used (Mgijima, 2021). Similarly, when the text is too difficult, as they do not understand anything about it, they do not interact. Therefore, medium-difficult, interesting topics for learners might provide more effective results. Some pairs did not collaborate efficiently with their partners, and it might be a problem to ensure a real collaboration. Pairs can be changed for each task. The positive effects of translanguaging pedagogy on different emotional traits have been indicated by various research, on self-perceptions about language use (Lee, 2014), class participation, and task engagement (Daniel et al., 2017; Kwihangana, 2021; Mbrim-Hungwe & McCaba, 2020; Muguruza et al., 2020; Rabbidge, 2019) and foreign language anxiety (Dryden et

al., 2021). There might be other learner differences that might affect the success of the pedagogy. For example, the journals revealed that some pairs insisted on using the target language in the experimental group, and some others insisted on using the native language in the control group. What kind of learner differences or thoughts these learners have might be studied through further research.

Learners might resist using their native languages in an English class due to their long-held beliefs and experiences of monolingual perspective. Teachers should always keep in mind that the purpose of an EFL setting is to improve the target language. Therefore, every act in the class must aim to develop it. All the findings in the data collection tools indicated that translanguaging is a reality of many learners in language classes. Therefore, planners and teachers should find efficient ways to employ the native language for better target language learning. Baker's suggestions for 'strategic classroom language planning' can be considered (Baker, 2001). Native language should be allowed in translingual breaks with a limited time, and the rest should be in the target language. If the native language is used more, the success of the language class might be damaged, as suggested by Rabbidge (2019). The researcher found out that learners' participation might increase thanks to translanguaging pedagogy, but, in IRF sequences, translanguaging practices may not provide learners with a space for critical and creative thinking. The researcher calls for good planning for translanguaging in class. When Baker's (2001) ideas are considered for the efficiency of translanguaging pedagogy, it could be said that translanguaging pedagogy might be better for critical and creative thinking today. Assume that a teacher gives a writing homework and gives the English text to summarize. Learners can search on the internet, find similar texts, and prepare the homework through copy or paste. However, suppose a text in learners' native language is given, and the homework must be in the target language. In that case, learners need to understand the text fully to produce something in the target language. This example might also support the idea that translanguaging might enhance comprehension (Sulaiman & Taqi, 2020).

As a final word, it can be concluded that translanguaging can be used in reading and listening tasks in the EFL context on the condition that the text is interesting and has appropriate difficulty for learners' proficiency levels. A successful translanguaged class can be created if an efficient collaboration among learners is achieved, and the time allocated for using the native language is never more than the time allotted for using the target language. An efficient final product, exclusively in the target language,

must be ensured. Through translanguaging, native language can serve as scaffolding for comprehension, and learners can discuss unclear parts, vocabulary and background knowledge in reading and listening more efficiently and systematically. With a deeper and better comprehension, they could perform better in the target language.

6.1. Implications of the Study

The study has implications for curriculum planners, and language teachers. First, it presents translanguaging beliefs of intermediate level preparatory class English learners in a Turkish EFL context. Discovering the beliefs of learners and the translanguaging practices they use in language classes could be the first thing to consider before integrating translanguaging pedagogy into EFL classes. As there were not many studies on the issue in Turkish context at the time of the study, the research is significant. The study is one of the first studies to integrate translanguaging pedagogy into listening tasks in an EFL context. Therefore, for language teachers and curriculum planners, the study presents the advantages and disadvantages of using the pedagogy for listening comprehension. It is also one of the few studies in Turkish context to integrate translanguaging pedagogy into reading tasks. It investigates the affects of the pedagogy on receptive skills and comprehension. To the researcher's knowledge, during the time of the study there were no other studies that focused on the effects of the pedagogy particularly on two receptive language skills together.

The biggest implication of the study might be presenting a practical strategy for integrating translanguaging pedagogy for listening and reading tasks. The integration of the pedagogy was done by following the suggestions by Celic and Seltzer (2013) and their suggestions was adapted for EFL contexts. The ideas can be found in Appendix D so that teachers can implement similar tasks in their language classes. Implementation of similar tasks and investigating the effects might contribute to the field and verify or contradict the findings of this study, which is necessary for scientific knowledge.

6.2. Limitations of the Study

Like most other studies, this study might have some limitations. The study was conducted in the spring term of the 2019-2020 academic year from February to March. According to the research plans, the study would be longitudinal, starting in February until June for fourteen weeks. Ten reading and ten listening tasks would be done. The

learners' reading and listening comprehension scores from their quizzes, achievement exams, final exam, and proficiency exam would be compared statistically. However, due to the outbreak of the Covid-19 pandemic, face-to-face education stopped in March in Turkey. The university where the research was conducted went on asynchronous teaching. Therefore, five listening and five reading tasks could be done, and learners' scores in their achievement, final, proficiency exams, and quizzes could not be included in the study. This could be one and the most significant limitation of the study.

Most of the translingual reading and listening tasks were done as planned. However, during the study, additional tasks were considered beneficial, such as a translation or the best main idea competition by using interactive presentation software. Some of these could be done for a short time due to the time constraints of the syllabus followed by the program. The activities that could be beneficial according to the findings are presented in the findings and discussion section, additional studies should be conducted to reveal their effects. Learners' answers to the comprehension questions were collected through separate papers. This could have encouraged learners to be more focused or careful because they knew that the teacher would check their answers. However, there was no other way to collect their answers and collecting answers on papers might be considered a limitation as well.

At the time of the study, there were no other questionnaires to reveal the beliefs of learners on translanguaging. Preparing a questionnaire for the study and reliability and validity checks would have required a lot of effort and time. Therefore, code-switching beliefs questionnaire by Yaşar and Yildiz (2018) was the most appropriate for the purposes of this study. As mentioned in the literature review and methodology, although translanguaging and code-switching are different concepts, translanguaging could entail code-switching (Ortega, 2019). To fit the aims of the study, some adaptations were done in the questionnaire, and it was used to reveal learners' translanguaging beliefs. Moreover, in the translanguaging studies that are done with fixed language approach, switches and transfers among language repertoires are natural and many of these studies encourage code-switching while doing translanguaging. A separate section to find out learners frequent translanguaging practices in their language classes was also created. Although necessary adaptations were done in the questionnaire, asking learners' beliefs through a questionnaire the title of which was 'code-switching' might be considered a limitation.

Due to the potential negative washback effect of international examinations, English proficiency levels of the control and experimental groups were determined by their scores in the previous elementary and pre-intermediate levels and a quick placement test. All the exams at the institution were checked for validity and reliability issues and the exams were highly valid and reliable. It could have been better to compare both groups' proficiency by using international standardized examinations if they had necessary practice and knowledge on these exams. This could be considered as a limitation.

The integration of translanguaging pedagogy was done for listening and reading tasks. However, the effect of pedagogy on the subskills of listening and reading were not analyzed separately in the study. The comprehension of learners was found out only with their answers to the comprehension questions. This might be considered as a limitation.

6.3. Suggestions for Further Research

A longitudinal study on the same topic might be needed. Integrating the pedagogy into listening and reading tasks with various subjects and at different difficulty levels might provide different results. Future studies can focus on the factors that might affect notetaking and collaboration of learners and the success of multilingual collaborative pair or group activities, because notetaking and collaboration of learners were a problem that might affect the success of translanguaging pedagogy. Translanguaging pedagogy and learners' English proficiency levels might be studied. Some answers in the open-ended questionnaire and the interview revealed that English learners' proficiency levels might affect translanguaging pedagogy. Learners asserted that they needed translanguaging for difficult texts. How this difficulty level can be determined could be studied along with the criteria that affect this difficulty, as well as how to decide difficulty in a class with learners with various English levels. This study studied the effects of translanguaging pedagogy on receptive skills, listening, and reading. More studies could study the effects of the pedagogy on productive skills, speaking, and writing. Sembiente and Tian (2020) give three significant suggestions to different stakeholders for the future studies of translanguaging pedagogy in TESOL: '(a) theoretical paradigm that shifts foundational assumptions and perspectives in the field, (b) pedagogy informing TESOL teacher education and professional development, and

(c) organic languaging practices occurring naturally and authentically in TESOL classrooms' (p.60). Sayer (2020) also emphasizes the need for studies on the translanguaging pedagogy within the current state of TESOL (post)methods.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Frequencies of Translanguaging Beliefs Questionnaire

Teachers can use Turkish when they emphasize significant points.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Neutral	8	14,3	14,3	14,3
	Agree	24	42,9	42,9	57,1
	Totally Agree	24	42,9	42,9	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers can use Turkish when learners are distracted.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	6	10,7	10,7	10,7
	Neutral	8	14,3	14,3	25,0
	Agree	26	46,4	46,4	71,4
	Totally Agree	16	28,6	28,6	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers can use Turkish when learners are reluctant for the lesson.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	4	7,1	7,1	7,1
	Disagree	14	25,0	25,0	32,1
	Neutral	19	33,9	33,9	66,1
	Agree	11	19,6	19,6	85,7
	Totally Agree	8	14,3	14,3	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

The use of Turkish is necessary in order to clarify whether a subject has been understood or not.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	1	1,8	1,8	1,8
	Disagree	5	8,9	8,9	10,7
	Neutral	6	10,7	10,7	21,4
	Agree	20	35,7	35,7	57,1
	Totally Agree	24	42,9	42,9	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers should use Turkish when they teach the subjects that are difficult to understand.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	1	1,8	1,8	1,8
	Disagree	5	8,9	8,9	10,7
	Neutral	6	10,7	10,7	21,4
	Agree	22	39,3	39,3	60,7
	Totally Agree	22	39,3	39,3	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers should use both English and Turkish in order to motivate learners.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Totally Disagree	1	1,8	1,8	1,8
Disagree	7	12,5	12,5	14,3
Neutral	9	16,1	16,1	30,4
Agree	20	35,7	35,7	66,1
Totally Agree	19	33,9	33,9	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers' use of Turkish can be efficient in order to explain the differences between Turkish and English

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Disagree	2	3,6	3,6	3,6
Neutral	4	7,1	7,1	10,7
Agree	27	48,2	48,2	58,9
Totally Agree	23	41,1	41,1	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Learners can use Turkish to make sure that they have understood the things the teacher has taught.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Totally Disagree	1	1,8	1,8	1,8
Disagree	2	3,6	3,6	5,5
Neutral	8	14,3	14,5	20,0
Agree	27	48,2	49,1	69,1
Totally Agree	17	30,4	30,9	100,0
Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing System	1	1,8		
Total	56	100,0		

The use of both English and Turkish is a problem solving strategy.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Totally Disagree	2	3,6	3,6	3,6
Disagree	1	1,8	1,8	5,4
Neutral	16	28,6	28,6	33,9
Agree	23	41,1	41,1	75,0
Totally Agree	14	25,0	25,0	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Turkish can be used when describing a term or a subject (metalanguage) of a particular field.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Disagree	3	5,4	5,4	5,4
Neutral	8	14,3	14,3	19,6
Agree	29	51,8	51,8	71,4
Totally Agree	16	28,6	28,6	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers should use Turkish when they make explanations about exams.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
Totally Disagree	2	3,6	3,6	3,6
Disagree	4	7,1	7,1	10,7
Neutral	8	14,3	14,3	25,0
Agree	16	28,6	28,6	53,6
Totally Agree	26	46,4	46,4	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

If the subject covers culture and history topics, Turkish can be used.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
Totally Disagree	4	7,1	7,3	7,3
Disagree	8	14,3	14,5	21,8
Neutral	16	28,6	29,1	50,9
Agree	20	35,7	36,4	87,3
Totally Agree	7	12,5	12,7	100,0
Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing				
System	1	1,8		
Total	56	100,0		

Teachers should use Turkish when they cover a subject in writing classes.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
Totally Disagree	7	12,5	12,7	12,7
Disagree	8	14,3	14,5	27,3
Neutral	14	25,0	25,5	52,7
Agree	17	30,4	30,9	83,6
Totally Agree	9	16,1	16,4	100,0
Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing				
System	1	1,8		
Total	56	100,0		

Learners keep up with the class more easily when both English and Turkish are used.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
Totally Disagree	3	5,4	5,5	5,5
Disagree	7	12,5	12,7	18,2
Neutral	10	17,9	18,2	36,4
Agree	20	35,7	36,4	72,7
Totally Agree	15	26,8	27,3	100,0
Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing				
System	1	1,8		
Total	56	100,0		

Teacher should tell the Turkish equivalents of the key words; not all of what they say.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Totally Disagree	1	1,8	1,8	1,8
Disagree	4	7,1	7,1	8,9
Neutral	5	8,9	8,9	17,9
Agree	19	33,9	33,9	51,8
Totally Agree	27	48,2	48,2	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teacher can use Turkish when they discipline the class.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Totally Disagree	3	5,4	5,4	5,4
Disagree	11	19,6	19,6	25,0
Neutral	12	21,4	21,4	46,4
Agree	23	41,1	41,1	87,5
Totally Agree	7	12,5	12,5	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

The use of both English and Turkish when teaching grammar makes learning English easier.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Totally Disagree	2	3,6	3,6	3,6
Disagree	7	12,5	12,5	16,1
Neutral	12	21,4	21,4	37,5
Agree	20	35,7	35,7	73,2
Totally Agree	15	26,8	26,8	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

The use of Turkish allows learners to explain each other for educational purposes.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Totally Disagree	2	3,6	3,6	3,6
Disagree	6	10,7	10,7	14,3
Neutral	16	28,6	28,6	42,9
Agree	23	41,1	41,1	83,9
Totally Agree	9	16,1	16,1	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers should use Turkish while making jokes in the lesson.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Totally Disagree	7	12,5	12,5	12,5
Disagree	12	21,4	21,4	33,9
Neutral	17	30,4	30,4	64,3
Agree	15	26,8	26,8	91,1
Totally Agree	5	8,9	8,9	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

The use of both English and Turkish helps learners enjoy the classes.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	3	5,4	5,4	5,4
	Disagree	3	5,4	5,4	10,7
	Neutral	14	25,0	25,0	35,7
	Agree	27	48,2	48,2	83,9
	Totally Agree	9	16,1	16,1	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers should use both English and Turkish in order to explain what is to be done in activities.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	2	3,6	3,6	3,6
	Disagree	10	17,9	17,9	21,4
	Neutral	9	16,1	16,1	37,5
	Agree	22	39,3	39,3	76,8
	Totally Agree	13	23,2	23,2	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

The use of Turkish by the teachers can be efficient in explaining the similarities between Turkish and English.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	1	1,8	1,8	1,8
	Disagree	3	5,4	5,4	7,1
	Neutral	12	21,4	21,4	28,6
	Agree	27	48,2	48,2	76,8
	Totally Agree	13	23,2	23,2	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Turkish should be used in teaching abstract words

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	6	10,7	10,7	10,7
	Neutral	16	28,6	28,6	39,3
	Agree	21	37,5	37,5	76,8
	Totally Agree	13	23,2	23,2	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers should use Turkish in order to attract learners' attention to the subject.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	3	5,4	5,4	5,4
	Disagree	19	33,9	33,9	39,3
	Neutral	16	28,6	28,6	67,9
	Agree	12	21,4	21,4	89,3
	Totally Agree	6	10,7	10,7	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

The use of both English and Turkish saves time.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	7	12,5	12,5	12,5
	Disagree	10	17,9	17,9	30,4
	Neutral	17	30,4	30,4	60,7
	Agree	14	25,0	25,0	85,7
	Totally Agree	8	14,3	14,3	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers' use of both English and Turkish increases the efficacy of teaching.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	2	3,6	3,6	3,6
	Disagree	5	8,9	8,9	12,5
	Neutral	13	23,2	23,2	35,7
	Agree	22	39,3	39,3	75,0
	Totally Agree	14	25,0	25,0	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers' use of both English and Turkish makes English learning process easy.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	4	7,1	7,1	7,1
	Disagree	8	14,3	14,3	21,4
	Neutral	11	19,6	19,6	41,1
	Agree	18	32,1	32,1	73,2
	Totally Agree	15	26,8	26,8	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Teachers' use of both English and Turkish confuses learners.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	19	33,9	33,9	33,9
	Disagree	22	39,3	39,3	73,2
	Neutral	10	17,9	17,9	91,1
	Agree	4	7,1	7,1	98,2
	Totally Agree	1	1,8	1,8	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

Transitions to Turkish hinder foreign language learning.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	17	30,4	30,4	30,4
	Disagree	15	26,8	26,8	57,1
	Neutral	13	23,2	23,2	80,4
	Agree	8	14,3	14,3	94,6
	Totally Agree	3	5,4	5,4	100,0
	Total	56	100,0	100,0	

The use of Turkish effects learners' listening skills in a negative way.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
Totally Disagree	6	10,7	10,7	10,7
Disagree	18	32,1	32,1	42,9
Neutral	16	28,6	28,6	71,4
Agree	12	21,4	21,4	92,9
Totally Agree	4	7,1	7,1	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

The use of Turkish effects learners' speaking skills in a negative way.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
Totally Disagree	7	12,5	12,5	12,5
Disagree	11	19,6	19,6	32,1
Neutral	13	23,2	23,2	55,4
Agree	17	30,4	30,4	85,7
Totally Agree	8	14,3	14,3	100,0
Total	56	100,0	100,0	

The use of Turkish effects learners' reading skills in a negative way.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
Totally Disagree	9	16,1	16,4	16,4
Disagree	16	28,6	29,1	45,5
Neutral	11	19,6	20,0	65,5
Agree	14	25,0	25,5	90,9
Totally Agree	5	8,9	9,1	100,0
Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing				
System	1	1,8		
Total	56	100,0		

The use of Turkish effects learners' writing skills in a negative way.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
Totally Disagree	10	17,9	18,2	18,2
Disagree	16	28,6	29,1	47,3
Neutral	10	17,9	18,2	65,5
Agree	13	23,2	23,6	89,1
Totally Agree	6	10,7	10,9	100,0
Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing				
System	1	1,8		
Total	56	100,0		

The use of Turkish in group activities with my friends effects my English in a negative way.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	8	14,3	14,5	14,5
	Disagree	10	17,9	18,2	32,7
	Neutral	10	17,9	18,2	50,9
	Agree	20	35,7	36,4	87,3
	Totally Agree	7	12,5	12,7	100,0
	Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing	System	1	1,8		
Total		56	100,0		

The use of Turkish by learners can become a habit over time.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	5	8,9	9,3	9,3
	Disagree	4	7,1	7,4	16,7
	Neutral	8	14,3	14,8	31,5
	Agree	19	33,9	35,2	66,7
	Totally Agree	18	32,1	33,3	100,0
	Total	54	96,4	100,0	
Missing	System	2	3,6		
Total		56	100,0		

Teachers' use of only English demonstrates their trust in their learners' ability.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	5	8,9	9,1	9,1
	Disagree	5	8,9	9,1	18,2
	Neutral	14	25,0	25,5	43,6
	Agree	20	35,7	36,4	80,0
	Totally Agree	11	19,6	20,0	100,0
	Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing	System	1	1,8		
Total		56	100,0		

The significance of English should be indicated to learners by using merely English.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	9	16,1	16,4	16,4
	Disagree	8	14,3	14,5	30,9
	Neutral	20	35,7	36,4	67,3
	Agree	10	17,9	18,2	85,5
	Totally Agree	8	14,3	14,5	100,0
	Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing	System	1	1,8		
Total		56	100,0		

The use of only English gives learners a sense of success.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Disagree	10	17,9	18,2	18,2
	Disagree	9	16,1	16,4	34,5
	Neutral	16	28,6	29,1	63,6
	Agree	13	23,2	23,6	87,3
	Totally Agree	7	12,5	12,7	100,0
	Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing	System	1	1,8		
Total		56	100,0		

I take notes in Turkish regardless of the language used by the instructor or used in activities.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	9	16,1	16,4	16,4
	Sometimes	35	62,5	63,6	80,0
	Often	9	16,1	16,4	96,4
	Always	2	3,6	3,6	100,0
	Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing	System	1	1,8		
Total		56	100,0		

I take notes in the language used by the instructor in the classes.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	2	3,6	3,6	3,6
	Sometimes	23	41,1	41,8	45,5
	Often	21	37,5	38,2	83,6
	Always	9	16,1	16,4	100,0
	Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing	System	1	1,8		
Total		56	100,0		

While taking notes in the class I realize that I switch from English to Turkish (or vice versa) without noticing.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	17	30,4	30,9	30,9
	Sometimes	25	44,6	45,5	76,4
	Often	9	16,1	16,4	92,7
	Always	4	7,1	7,3	100,0
	Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing	System	1	1,8		
Total		56	100,0		

I use my native language with my friends when I explain a new concept in the class.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sometimes	10	17,9	18,2	18,2
	Often	27	48,2	49,1	67,3
	Always	18	32,1	32,7	100,0
	Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing	System	1	1,8		
Total		56	100,0		

I use my native language with my friends when I feel the need to ask a concept in the class.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sometimes	7	12,5	12,7	12,7
	Often	25	44,6	45,5	58,2
	Always	23	41,1	41,8	100,0
	Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing	System	1	1,8		
Total		56	100,0		

I use my native language when it is necessary to check the meaning of a concept or a word in the class.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	1	1,8	1,8	1,8
	Sometimes	10	17,9	18,2	20,0
	Often	22	39,3	40,0	60,0
	Always	22	39,3	40,0	100,0
	Total	55	98,2	100,0	
Missing	System	1	1,8		
Total		56	100,0		

APPENDIX B: Sample for Translingual Listening Activities

Work placement in a foreign country is better than work placement in Turkey.		
Agree	Disagree	Why

PHASE 1. Listen with pauses, write your notes, annotations, summaries below

1st Part
2nd Part
3rd Part

PHASE 2. Listen again, match the people with statements below

Jan (J)	Zhang Li (Z)	Sylvie (S)

- _____ is working at the Marriott Beach Resort.
- _____ thinks that being a trainee concierge is important if you want to be a manager.
- _____ has worked in different parts of the hotel.
- _____ is trying to be a chef.
- _____ is multilingual.

PHASE 3. Choose True/False/Doesn't Say for the statements below

1. Jan liked the hotels in Seville. T / F / DS
2. Sylvie started to work as a trainee three months ago. T / F / DS
3. Sylvie has had a good relationship with her tutor. T / F / DS
4. Jan has lost his self-confidence because of the work placement. T / F / DS
5. Some work placements organized by the university are unpaid. T / F / DS

Review.

1. What did you learn new in the listening?
2. Please summarize the listening with your peer.



APPENDIX C: Sample for Translingual Reading Activities

Work placement in a foreign country is better than work placement in Turkey.		
Agree	Disagree	Why

PHASE 1. Read the text, discuss the paragraphs with your peers and annotate- summarize with a few sentences below.

1st / 2nd Paragraphs
3rd / 4th Paragraphs
5th / 6th Paragraphs

PHASE 2. Read the whole text again and answer the questions below.

1. The number of people working home office is increasing.
T / F / DS
2. People who work home office are happier than the people working in an office.
T / F / DS
3. Homeworking has some advantages for workers but not for companies.
T / F / DS

PHASE 3. Read the whole text again and list advantages and disadvantages of homeworking.

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES

D. Now, summarize the text with your partner with a few sentences.



APPENDIX D: A Sample Plan for Translingual Reading and Listening Tasks

Preview (Warm-up)

1. Design an anticipation guide, K-W-L chart, or a role-play activity for the subject of the listening or reading task. Choose one that could be the most appropriate for the subject. Write it on board.
2. Create multilingual pairs or groups. Tell students that the pair work activity will be translingual and for a limited time, they can use their native languages or a language that they feel themselves comfortable using during this limited time (a translingual break).
3. Open stopwatch on board and give three minutes to learners to discuss with their partners in the language they want in pairs or as a group.
4. When three minutes is over, hold a class discussion in English.
5. For the keywords in the reading or listening texts, translingual vocabulary charts can be done either on board or by the students in their notebooks.

View (Activity)

1. Look at the length of the listening text in minutes. For example, if it is a text for 3 minutes, divide it into two parts (1.5 minutes in each). After the learners listen the first 1.5 minutes, provide them a translingual break for three minutes to summarize what they hear orally and to discuss unclear parts. Set the stopwatch again and when three minutes is over, go on to the listening. If it is reading, divide the text into equal paragraphs and give translingual breaks for three minutes in each pause. Read the text yourself and ask learners to follow.
2. In reading, underline important sentences in each part and ask students to give numbers for each of these underlined sentences. In the translingual breaks, ask learners to summarize the part and tell each other what they understand in their native languages or any other language they want. They could also discuss unclear parts or vocabulary in the translingual breaks.

Review (Revision)

1. If an anticipation guide is used in the preview phase, ask students if there is any change in their ideas after reading or listening. Ask students to discuss first in their native languages with their partners then in the target language as whole class. If K-W-L chart was done, ask students what they learnt in the view phase and give three minutes break to discuss with their partners and then in the target language as whole class.

2. Give learners a translingual break for three minutes to summarize the listening or reading text with their partners. Then, open the interactive presentation software and ask pairs or groups to share their summaries on the software in the target language. Hold a class discussion in the target language and choose the best summary.
3. If it is a reading task, ask learners to translate each of the underlined sentences with their partners first and encourage learners to share them with the class through presentation software. Choose the best translated version of the underlined sentences.



APPENDIX E: Open-Ended Questionnaire Questions for the Control Group

1. What difficulties did you have in the listening tasks?
2. What difficulties did you have in the reading tasks?
3. What do you think about doing listening and reading activities as pair-group work?
4. What kind of effects do you think the conversations (only in English) with your friends in the listening activities had on listening comprehension?
5. What kind of effects do you think the conversations (only in English) with your friends in the reading activities had on reading comprehension?
6. What can be done for more efficient reading-listening activities?

APPENDIX F: Open-Ended Questionnaire Questions for the Experimental Group

For Translingual Listening Tasks

1. What do you think about taking notes / annotating in your native language while listening to texts in English?
2. What do you think about doing translingual pair-work in listening activities in which speakers speak fast?
3. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on the vocabulary in listening texts?
4. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on your concentration on listening activities?
5. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on difficult sentences in listening texts?
6. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on sharing background information about listening texts?
7. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on answering the questions about listening texts?
8. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on listening comprehension? Please specify shortly.

For Translingual Reading Tasks

1. What do you think about the effect of summarizing / annotating in your native language after reading something in English?

2. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on the vocabulary in reading texts?
3. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on your concentration on the reading activities?
4. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on difficult sentences in reading texts?
5. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on sharing background information about reading texts?
6. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on answering questions about reading texts?
7. What do you think about the effect of translingual pair-work on reading comprehension? Please specify shortly.

About Preview-Review Activities in Listening and Reading Tasks

1. What do you think about the translingual discussion activities before reading/listening a text?
2. What do you think about the summarizing / what you learned activities that were done as translingual pair-work?
3. Do you think that the pair-group work activities for listening/reading tasks should be only in English or translingual?
4. Please mention if you want to add anything about the reading/listening tasks that were done as translingual pair-work activity.

APPENDIX G: Interview Questions for the Experimental Group

Listening Tasks

1. What do you think about translingual discussion activities with your partners before listening tasks?
2. What do you think about the effect of translingual listening breaks on listening comprehension?
3. What do you think about translingual summarizing in the breaks and at the end of listening activities?

Reading Tasks

4. What do you think about translingual discussion activities with your partners before reading tasks?
5. What do you think about the effect of translingual reading breaks on reading comprehension?
6. What do you think about translingual summarizing in the breaks and at the end of the reading activities?

Reading-Listening Tasks

7. What do you think about having translingual breaks in listening-reading activities in English course-books?