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Doç. Dr. DOĞAN YÜKSEL

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Elif AYTAÇ TANIK

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ÖZET

Bu çalışma görev temelli sınıf çalışmalarında yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrencilerinin diller arası geçişlilik nedenlerini ve stratejilerini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmanın amaçları: (i.) yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrencilerinin diller arası geçişlilik nedenlerini belirlemek, (ii.) diller arası geçişlilik uygulamalarının sınıf ortamındaki faydalarını belirlemek, (iii.) görev türlerine göre diller arası geçişlilik yoğunluğu oluşup oluşmadığını incelemek ve yorumlamak. Bu amaçlara ulaşmak için, gözlem, öğrencilerin görevleri tamamlama süreçleri boyunca ses kayıtları ve öğrencilerle yapılan uyarılmış hatırlama röportajları veri toplama araçları olarak kullanılmıştır. Bu çalışma, 2020-2021 eğitim öğretim yılının ilk döneminde 20 yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrencisinin katılımıyla devlete bağlı bir lisede gerçekleştirilmiştir. Nitel veri tümevarımsal içerik analizi ile incelenmiştir. Öğrencilerin ses kayıtları ve uyarılmış hatırlama oturumları ayrı olarak yazılmış ve öğrencilerin diller arası geçişlilik stratejilerini ve diller arası geçişliliğin pedagojik faydalarını belirlemek için her diller arası geçişlilik anı için kodlar belirlenmiştir. Görev türünün diller arası geçişlilik yoğunluğunu etkileyip etkilemediği bulmak için ses kaydı kopyaları açık uçlu ve kapalı uçlu öğrenme görevleri olarak ikiye ayrılmıştır. Çalışmanın bulguları öğrencilerin diller arası geçişlilik stratejilerini en çok arkadaşlarına yardım etmek, görevi yönetmek, sözcüksel zorluk, ilişki işlevi ve dilbilgisi görüşmeleri için kullandıklarını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, uyarılmış hatırlama röportajları sayesinde, diller arası geçişliliğin pedagojik yararları olarak öğrencilerin görevleri tamamlarken diller arası geçişliliğin onara güvenli bir alan oluşturduğu, onların görevleri tam anlamıyla tamamlamalarını sağladığı ve uzun-süreli öğrenme sağladığı sonucuna varılmıştır. Bulgulara ek olarak, öğrencilerin kapalı uçlu görevlerde açık uçlu görevlere oranla daha yoğun olarak diller arası geçişlilik kullandıkları açık uçlu ve kapalı uçlu görevler arasında diller arası geçişlilik yoğunluğu incelenerek bulunmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: diller arası geçişlilik, tek dillilik, çift dillilik, görev temelli öğretim, açık uçlu görev, kapalı uçlu görev, uyarılmış hatırlama

ABSTRACT

This study aims to investigate translanguaging practices and strategies of EFL students in task-based classroom activities. Research objectives of the study are: (i.) to document the translanguaging reasons of EFL students, (ii.) to determine the benefits of translanguaging practices in the classroom environment, (iii.) to analyze and discuss whether there occurs a difference in the translanguaging frequency of students according to the task type. In order to achieve these objectives, observation, audio recordings of students during task implementation process, and stimulated recall interviews with students were used as data collection instruments. The study was carried out in the first semester of 2020-2021 academic year in a state high school with the participation of 20 EFL students. Qualitative data were analyzed via inductive content analysis method in a qualitative manner. Audio recordings of and the stimulated recall sessions with the students were transcribed separately and codes were generated for each translanguaging instance so as to fulfill translanguaging strategies and practices of students and pedagogical benefits of translanguaging. In order to determine whether the task type affect the frequency of translanguaging, transcriptions were divided into two parts as open task transcriptions and close task transcriptions. The findings of the study showed that students used translanguaging most frequently so as to scaffold their pairs, manage the tasks, to overcome lexical difficulty, phatic function, and grammar deliberations. Besides, with the help of stimulated recall interviews, it was concluded that students used translanguaging to create a safe space while carrying out the tasks, to be able to complete the tasks comprehensively, and to ensure long-term learning as pedagogical benefits of translanguaging. In addition to the results, by examining translanguaging frequency across open and close type tasks, it was found that students were documented to translanguage more frequently while accomplishing close type task activities than open type tasks.

Key Words: translanguaging, monolingualism, bilingualism, task-based teaching, open task, close task, stimulated-recall

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLT : Communicative Language Teaching

CR : Consciousness Raising

EFL : English as Foreign Language

ESL : English as Second Language

IH : Interaction Hypothesis

L1 : First Language

L2 : Second Language

MAGICC : Modularising Multilingual and Multicultural Academic Communication Competence

MT : Mother Tongue

PPP : Presentation-Practice-Production

SLA : Second Language Acquisition

TBLT : Task-based Language Teaching

TL : Target Language

TWDL : Two-way Dual Language

ZPD : Zone of Proximal Development

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CHAPTER I

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter was aimed to provide an introduction to the research area which was supported with the need that arisen in the SLA methodology and the logical basis the study focused on. In conformity, the purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, definitions of terms existent in the study, limitations in the implementation of the study and assumptions as a result of the study are demonstrated in this chapter.

1.1. BACKGROUND STUDY

Historical incidents such as large scales of immigrations, globalization, and incorporation of education posit a stimulus for the rise of second language acquisition field (SLA) and SLA methodology. These fields have undergone novel alterations and have become consequential branches of knowledge supplemented by linguistics, psychology, and language teaching. These modifications over the course of time have disclosed themselves in the objectives of language teaching approaches and procedures which principally center on efficient language teaching.

In view of these changes, English only educational policy and language separation have become prominent as of late. Over the decades, using English only in L2 instruction has gained a dominant position. To exemplify, advocators of direct method had supported that only target language be used in L2 education and L1 use would interfere with L2 development. Similar occurrence was encountered with the supporters of audiolingual method that

depended on speaking and listening skills chiefly. Afterwards, followers of Total Physical Response approach argued that "meaning could be conveyed through action and demonstrations and used commands to elicit a physical response from the learners" (Lasagabaster, 2013, p. 2). By the 1970s, language teaching methodologies that favored communicative practices, which advocated the fact that the most productive way to learn a language is to communicate only in that language, gained popularity.

All these approaches rose as a counteraction to Grammar Translation Method. The authorities promoting monolingual belief principally followed the perspective that language repertoires of bilinguals are stored in discrete systems in the brain and a bilingual person must have two detached language competencies. In line with this perspective, a bilingual is two monolinguals in one and besides, bilingual people are assumed to achieve the exact proficiency as native speakers. Division of languages in this way has caused instructors to separate languages and disallow or keep L1 use at minimum in the class environment. Nevertheless, the dominance of monolingual practices in language teaching has begun to decline with the recent concept of second language acquisition which uncovered that language repertoires of bilingual people are not detachedly stored in the brain and authentic linguistic modes can solely surface in connection with old knowledge and monolingual practices in L2 contexts is unproductive and impractical.

As well, new concepts came out as a reaction to monolistic conventions in language classrooms. One of these constructs; translanguaging stepped forward in 1994 by Cen Williams as a language teaching and learning strategy. This new concept supported systematic and concurrent use of both languages in language learning process. Translanguaging supplies students with a safe space where they can utilize all their linguistic capabilities and allows for improved content comprehension, promotes acquisition, and invests in home-school links (Baker, 2011).

Consequently, language teaching methodology has undergone diverse approaches and strategies in the course of SLA history and this indicates the fact that "the move toward oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension as the goal of language study" (Richards & Rogers, 2001); nonetheless, with the aim of realizing the characteristics of second language acquisition in order to carry a step forward in the way to effective teaching, scholars and instructors have made use of task as an instrument for analysis to develop SLA. In second language acquisition research, tasks have been extensively employed "as vehicles to elicit language production, interaction, negotiation of meaning, processing of input and focus on form, all of which are believed to foster second language acquisition" (Van den Branden 2006, p.3).

All in all, this study aims to reveal in what circumstances EFL students use translanguaging strategies, what pedagogical benefits translanguaging embodies, and which one of the two types of tasks -open and close- produce more translanguaging instances by students.

1.2. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this study is to contribute to the research gap on translanguaging practices and strategies in task-based teaching activities by discussing and examining existing translanguaging practices within EFL educational context with reference to students' perspectives. This study has two different dimensions within its scope. The first dimension is related to translanguaging and the pedagogical benefits it embodies in EFL context. The other dimension is linked to task-based language teaching activities and which task type generates more translanguaging instances by students throughout the task completion process.

1.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The questions this research aims to investigate are:

1. What are the reasons for translanguaging on the part of the students?

2. What are the benefits of translanguaging in the classroom environment?

3. Is there a significant difference in the translanguaging frequency according to the task type?

1.4. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The current research which focuses on presenting a thorough understanding into translanguaging as a teaching and learning instrument in EFL context can be noteworthy in broadening our perspective about the benefits of translanguaging as an effective teaching and learning strategy in task-based classrooms. This study aims to specify an inclusive investigation about translanguaging in EFL context which has not yet been given enough notice both in Turkey and global contexts. The results of the study could be of use in similar foreign language contexts where teachers and students share the same mother tongue and could serve as an awareness-raising perspective, enhancing EFL teachers' and administrators' interpretation in relation to foreign language teaching.

Besides, this study can make a positive contribution into the investigation of which task type produces more translanguaging moments. The related literature requires more studies to come up with sound conjectures. Taking a closer look into the previous studies, it can be pointed that the effectiveness of TBLT in EFL and ESL contexts were addressed. However, the relation between task types and translanguaging frequency in task implementation process has not received enough attention yet.

Taking into account this existing lack of studies on translanguaging in task-based classroom activities, this research intends to contribute to the research gap on this specific topic by examining and analyzing current translanguaging practices and strategies of EFL students in task-based classroom activities.

1.5. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Close task: 'Closed' or 'convergent' tasks refer to those with a more specific purpose and they are extremely structured. The teaching content is very particular and the provided information is highly limited. The utmost aim of a closed task is to find the only possible solution which is pre-determined beforehand (Willis, 1996).

Open task: 'Open' or 'divergent' tasks are those where more than one consequence or correct answer is available for the students; the outcome is not previously determined. From Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) point of view, the information which learners can exchange is unlimited.

Stimulated-recall: "Stimulated recall is an introspective data-collection procedure in which some 'tangible . . . reminder of an event [stimulates] recall of the mental processes in operation during the event itself" (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 17).

Task: Tasks are described by many researchers as activities to be accomplished by using the target language communicatively while focusing on meaning to arrive at an intended outcome (Bygate, Skehan and Swain, 2001; Lee, 2000; Nunan, 1989; Prabhu, 1987; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Skehan 1996).

Task-based language teaching: It can be explained as follows: “An approach to language education in which students are given functional tasks that invite them focus primarily on meaning exchange and to use language for real-world, non-linguistic purposes” (Van den Branden, 2006, p. 11).

Translanguaging: The utilization of more than one language which was coined by Cen Williams in 1994. He defined it as “the planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson” (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012, p.643).

1.6. LIMITATITONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

The current study had specific limitations that emerged from the length of the treatment and the sampling. The continuance of the treatment lasted for only four weeks since immediately after the treatment, schools were closed and courses were being administered via online platforms mostly because of the COVID-19 pandemic. The study was carried out with the participation of 20 students at EFL department of a high school in İzmit. There was only one EFL class at the mentioned school which is an important limitation to the study; also, because of the pandemic, the current study could not be carried out in another school. Therefore, the tasks were merely implemented to the students in that class and the results can be valid for these students. It was assumed that all the participants in the study endeavored all their fulfillment in accomplishing the tasks.

CHAPTER II

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Lately, multilingualism researchers have begun perceiving language as an activity and a process instead of an existence (Wei, 2011). The shift from monolingualism which favor the standard variety of a language (Garcia, 2009) to multilingualism has resulted from the interest of scholars for a number of phenomena which were noticed in multilingual speakers, who display cognitive awareness about how and when to use their languages relying on the social context (Reyes, 2004). One of the recent and salient fields in the academic climate is translanguaging which was originally coined by Welsh educator Cen Williams in 1994. He defined it as "the planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012, p.643). It is also employed to refer to the social space for multilingual speakers "by bringing together different dimensions of their personal history, experience, and environment, their attitudes, beliefs, and performance" (Wei, 2011, p.1223) since translanguaging inholds 'languaging' as a component of its basis. Languaging is viewed as an integrated process via one acquires knowledge, interacts, and shapes their understanding and common sense through language (Swain, Lapkin, Knouzi, Suzuki, & Brooks, 2009).

From the 1990s, with the inception of translanguaging, the focus was shifted to bilingualism and especially on the role of translanguaging to support learners in employing various linguistic features of two languages in order to intercede with complicated cognitive processes (Lewis, Jones, &

Baker, 2012). The roots of translanguaging lie in the pedagogical practices used in bilingual Welsh and English classrooms. Then, students were required to receive input in one language and produce output in the other. These procedures were utilized to augment the learners' bilingual linguistic competences and all semiotic sources of learners were perceived as separate from each other. Translanguaging came into being against the dissociation between Welsh and English by recognizing bilingual learners' linguistic sources as integrated. The method was devised to promote "dual-language processing" (Lewis, Jones, and Baker, 2012, p.644) as a means for bilingual education.

Only recently, the direction has turned towards multilingual environments, and the concurrent use of more than two languages for language teaching and learning (Makalela, 2015). The rise of translanguaging practices in multilingual classrooms caused the idea of a bilingual being two monolinguals in one to lose its prominence (Grosjean, 1989). In the same vein, Garcia proposes that "translanguaging posits that bilinguals have one linguistic repertoire from which they select features strategically to communicate effectively" (Garcia, 2012, p.1).

In brief, translanguaging is related with the intentional pedagogical exchange between languages in spoken and written, receptive and productive modalities (Baker, 2001). It is also a key concept in both bilingual and also multilingual content education in opposition to traditional monolingual education.

2.1.1. The Concept of Translanguaging

The monolingual pedagogic approaches have been the dominant methodology in second language instruction "under the influence of predominant national ideologies and language policies across different countries" (Wang, 2016, p.1). Levine (2011) proposes that the increased amount of monolingual instruction in second language classes is

"undesirable, unrealistic, and untenable" (p.70). Besides, Garcia (2011) argues that language classrooms in the twenty first century are moving from monolingualism towards translingualism, encouraging flexible concurrent language use rather than continuing to keep students' linguistic knowledge separate or treating prior languages as non-existent or purely negative influences. Thus, in order to oppose to monolingual approaches in second language classrooms, new concepts have emerged to be able to explain bilingualism such as "codemeshing" (Canagarajah, 2011), "metrolingualism" (Otsuji & Pennycook, 2010), "continua of biliteracy" (Hornberger, 2003), and "translanguaging" (Garcia & Wei, 2014; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Wang, 2016). Among these terms, translanguaging is the focus of this study. In the related literature, there have been increasing amount of research conducted on translanguaging in bilingual instruction (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Mazak & Herbas- Donoso, 2015).

A recent and emerging term, translanguaging was coined by Cen Williams in his PhD. thesis in 1994 and employed in education as a Welsh word 'trawsieithu' and later translated into English as 'translanguaging' by Colin Baker (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). As stated by Garcia and Lin (2016), Cen Williams utilized the concept to mention "a teaching practice of deliberately changing the language of input and the language of output" (p. 3). He suggests that concurrent use of two languages and deliberate and meaningful changes between them presents advantages in terms of language skills of learners in both languages and also assists them to have a deeper understanding of the content. In summary, translanguaging practices include and provide learners with flexible teaching methodologies. These flexible practices are accomplished by giving the information to the learners in one language and expecting them to produce the output, either written or oral, in another language. By this means, it is supported that learning through meaning could be promoted. To provide an explanation from the literature, Baker (2011) explains the translanguaging practice as "hearing or reading of a lesson, a passage in a book or a section of work in one language and the

development of the work (i.e. by discussion, writing a passage, completing a worksheet, conducting an experiment) in the other language" (p. 281).

A great deal of definitions of the translanguaging have been stated by scholars since the inception of the term into the literature. To illustrate, Martin (2005) specified the term as "the use of local languages alongside the official language of the lesson" (p. 88). Baker (2011) explains the term as "the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages'' (p. 288), which can be translated as when languages are used in combinations, this fosters mental processes. Besides, Garcia and Wei (2014) broadened the term and explained it as:

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

Garcia (2012) put forward another conceptualization as "the discourse practices of the bilinguals, as well as pedagogical strategies that use the entire linguistic repertoire of bilingual students flexibly in order to teach both rigorous content and language for academic use" (p. 2). Examining the etymology of the term 'translanguaging', Li Wei (2011) 'uses the prefix "trans-" to highlight three dimensions of flexible and dynamic multilingual practices' (Li & Zhu, 2013, p. 519). The first dimension is related with going beyond the limits of particular structures and systems to address the linguistic repertoire of bilinguals without favoring any language over the other. The second parameter is transformative which is concerned with blending a learner's social skills, attitudes and beliefs that paves the path for a unified

new identity. The third one proposes that social systems and connections rely on and is associated with the user's creativity and criticality (Li, 2011).

With reference to creativity and criticality dimensions of translanguaging, Garcia and Wei (2014) argued that creativity is a capability to select between complying with or violating the rules and norms of any behavior which involves language use. Criticality pertains to utilizing present evidence to disclose observed cultural, political, social, and linguistic views; and to articulate these views sufficiently through sound responses to situations. These aspects are interwoven: one cannot challenge boundaries of a language without critical dimension; and creativity is frequently an evidence of criticality. As a pedagogical dimension, García and Wei (2014) stressed that as learners react to their past and present conditions critically and creatively, translanguaging provides them to frame and perpetually adjust their sociocultural identities and values as a socio-educational process.

Based upon the different explanations of translanguaging by scholars, translanguaging framework can be summarized as "naturally occurring phenomenon (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 8), and it is employed in order to help learners to make meaning in second language classrooms. Moreover, translanguaging can be employed for assisting learners to have a better understanding of the content, increased flow of communication and a safe teaching environment.

2.1.2. Code-Switching and Translanguaging

It is obvious that there has been much confusion about whether code-switching and translanguaging refer to the same notion or they are completely different strategies employed by bilingual or multilingual learners. The related literature sheds light into the overlap between these notions. Code-

switching is a term from linguistics that analyses the speech of bilinguals (REF); whereas, translanguaging basically has sociolinguistic and ecological aspects and has been referred to as an umbrella term which embraces code-switching and other bilingual strategies such as translation and a range of derivational morphological processes (Makalela, 2013). To exemplify, Garcia (2009) proposes that translanguaging "goes beyond what has been termed code-switching although it includes it, as well as other kinds of bilingual language use and bilingual contact" (p. 45). In the same vein, Mazak and Donoso (2015) proposes a definition of translanguaging as 'the use of multiple 'languages' in discourse, which goes beyond what has been traditionally known in linguistics as 'code- switching,' 'codemixing,' or 'language alteration.' (p.2), which also points that translanguaging and code-switching are separate terms and that translanguaging transcends code-switching.

From a different perspective Garcia (2009) defines translanguaging as "an approach to bilingualism that is centered, not on languages as has often been the case, but on the practices of bilinguals that are readily observable in order to make sense of their multilingual worlds" (p. 44). What makes this definition different from the previous ones is that her use of the term embodies "multilingual practices which have traditionally been described as codeswitching, code-mixing, crossing, creolization, etc." (Wei, 2011, p. 2). On the other side, Garcia (2009) indicates that translanguaging is different from code-switching in some aspects. She points out these differences between the two concepts as:

> "Translanguaging includes code-switching, the shift between languages in context and it also includes translation; however, it differs from these simple practices in that it refers to the process by which bilingual students perform bilingually in the

> myriad ways of classrooms− reading, writing, taking notes, discussing, signing, etc. Translanguaging is not only a way to scaffold instruction, to make sense of learning and language; rather translanguaging is part of the meta-discursive regimes that students in the twenty first century must perform" (p. 147).

With this explanation of the scholar, it is also referred that these notions diverge from each other in some cases and that translanguaging goes beyond code-switching.

Van der Walt (2006) suggests regarding the difference between the notions that translanguaging is "a conscious and intentional switch to paraphrase texts (both oral and written), to elaborate on cognitively challenging content or to simply repeat something in another language" (p. 220). Besides, it is an obvious fact that ideological movements of these terms vary from each other in that code-switching has been associated with language separation while translanguaging accepts and benefits elasticity in language use and transmissivity of learning through two or more languages (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). This aspect of translanguaging sets learners free from dealing with sociolinguistic matters like language power and identity, which influence the performance of speakers of minority languages in conventional monolingual classrooms (Garcia, 2009).

Table 1. The Comparison of terms Translation, Code-switching, and Translanguaging

Translation	Code-switching		Translanguaging
	In Speech	In Writing	
- Product oriented - Observable - Intra- / inter personal	- Shifts in codes - Observable - Product - oriented - Interpersonal	- Shifts in codes - Observable -Product-oriented - Intra- / inter-personal -Transitional	- Entails code-switching, translation, a combination of both -Shifts in modes as well as shifts in codes - Observable / not observable -Process-oriented - Intra- / inter-personal

In Table 1, significant characteristics of four terms are presented. First of all, it is quite obvious that while code-switching comprises of shifts in languages, which are called codes, translanguaging involves both shifts in languages and also changes in modes. That means a person can read a text in a language but produces an output about the text in another language. Besides, apart from being observable as code-switching and translation, translanguaging can be utilized in unobservable cases involving thinking like language-switching. As a result, these unobservable instances can be analyzed with the help of think aloud or stimulated recall procedures. This characteristic of translanguaging also makes plain why it can be performed interpersonally besides intra-personally. Most distinguished characteristics of all can be while code-switching and translation revolves around the product, which in this case is the language produced, translanguaging goes beyond these terms and embodies code-switching, translation, and their conjunction. It also requires a dynamic procedure during which bilingual learners can get through all their linguistic repertoires in order to make meaning.

As can be understood from countless and varied definitions, translanguaging is a more recent term which includes and surpasses code-switching both in terms of its origins and ideology.

2.1.3. Pedagogical Benefits of Translanguaging

In this century, bilingual education has undergone some innovations and liquidity, diversity and elasticity of the century require amendments in the manner languages are taught and also how bilingualism is perceived (Garcia, Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017). In this path, translanguaging seems to be a fine pedagogical strategy to lessen the gap between languages and put stress on their overlapping instead of separation. It inholds the possibility of equality in bilingual education since native speakers are not apprehended as privileged anymore. Alternatively, it puts emphasis on all linguistic repertoire of a learner and in a classroom where translanguaging is welcomed, all languages are equal and present contrary to their isolation.

Translanguaging practices in the classroom provide learners with flexible bilingual pedagogy (Blackledge & Creese, 2010), make educational content available through linguistic sources and communicative repertoires they have while learners concurrently gain new ones. In a study Swain and Lapkin (2000) qualitatively analyzed the differences between and within tasks which required the learners to work collaboratively in pairs to create a story after listening to a recording. L1 use during implementation of tasks was investigated and the researchers found that native language use helped learners to negotiate for meaning and interact successfully in L2. Switching languages as a bilingual resource was also determined in interlocutors' deliberations over changes in their focus on the interaction (Greer, 2008; Mori & Hasegawa, 2009). More specifically, it was observed to create a mutual understanding among the speakers.

Baker (2011) suggests four possible educational advantages of translanguaging. The first advantage he mentions is that translanguaging enhances a broader understanding of the content being studied. He points out that learners can have the opportunity to answer to questions or write about a topic through only replicating or altering instead of fully grasping the content in monolingual pedagogy. Thus, reading and discoursing the topic in one language and producing a work in another enhances deeper comprehension of the subject matter. The second advantage of translanguaging is that it helps learners improve their less proficient language. Also, he states that translanguaging assists them to develop academic language skills in both languages. The third advantage mentioned by the scholar is that translanguaging can "facilitate home–school cooperation and finally, it provides learners develop their second language ability concurrently with content learning with the integration of fluent English speakers and English learners" (p. 282). Finally, he states that translanguaging provides the integration of competent learners with linguistically less proficient ones.

Furthermore, Garcia and Sylvan (2011) has discussed that translanguaging is a "discursive regime" (p. 389) for 21st century learners. This regime might embody knowledge and awareness of existing strategies and help learners select the most influential one; intentional utilization of learnt strategies; observing, assessing and arranging performance during a task; and organizing future performance based on past acts.

2.1.4. Students' Reasons for and Strategies of Translanguaging

Bilingual people apply different procedures like monolingual people with the aim of making meaning and producing a clear and logical message (Pontier & Gort, 2016). Besides, they use these strategies in order to intercede and mediate their communication with other people and establish a better

comprehension along with to make sense of world (Garcia, 2009). They utilize all their linguistic repertoires to develop their comprehension and performance in different contexts and to mold their experiences (Gort & Sembiante, 2015).

In a study by Creese & Blackledge (2010), translanguaging strategies were explained as using "whatever signs and forms the participants had at their disposal to connect with one another, indexing disparate allegiances and knowledges and creating new ones" (p. 112). In line with Lewis, Jones, & Baker (2012, p. 665), students employ translanguaging strategies, which were classified as "pupil-directed translanguaging", in order to take part in, to cultivate and develop ideas, and to utter questions. Moreover, Garcia and Kleifgen (2010) put forward that translanguaging patterns involve strategies as (a) shifting between text in one language and discussion in another; (b) moving across texts that feature different languages; (c) discussing in one language but checking comprehension in another; (d) reading in one language and writing in another, discussing in one language and writing in another; (e) integrating students' language resources, and (f) using both languages flexibly in micro alternation, or code-switching (Esquinca, Araujo, & Piedra, 2014, p. 167).

To illustrate from the related literature, Martin-Beltran (2014) examined translanguaging patterns of English and Spanish learners in a high school program. The findings of the study showed that students applied translanguaging as a means to deal with linguistic problems and to consider, make an analogy, and support their word choices. It was put forward by the study that student-directed translanguaging strategies helped them work in harmony and collaboration with their classmates and teachers as the pedagogical benefit of translanguaging safe instructional environment.

Students were most frequently documented to employ translanguaging strategies to participate in and to make meaning during the activities.

Another study by Olmedo (2003) investigated communicative strategies of bilingual learners in a dual language classroom. The results demonstrated that learners used different strategies which were named as "bilingual echoes" (p. 150). These moves involved translation, scaffolding, and representative behaviors to enhance the possibility of being understood and of communication with their classmates. The last strategy by Olmedo (2003) coincides with the term phatic (Jakobson, 1995), which was explained as expressions used to sustain, maintain, or end up a conversation, or check or confirm interaction such as well, wow, really, Ok as well as utterances categorized as small talk. These expressions were observed to "contribute to the creation or maintenance of a feeling of solidarity and well- being between interlocutors, as well as to the establishment of ties of union between them" (Cruz, 2013, p.2).

Likewise, Esquinca, Araujo, and Piedra (2014) conducted a study in order to explore the meaning-making practices in a two-way dual language (TWDL) program on the border of U.S. – Mexico and revealed that emerging bilingual learners utilized translanguaging strategies with the aim of promoting their understanding of the scientific contents. They were identified to employ such patterns as translation, multimodality, paraphrasing, and code- switching.

To stand up for these points, in a study by Adamson and Fujimoto-Adamson (2012), learners were documented to translanguage to their L1 when they were negotiating task related issues and particular lexical and grammar items. However, they were observed to use L2 in initial stages of more complex speech events and consult to L1 when they were unable to cope with lexically difficult items. The researchers concluded as a result of

the study that the selection of which language to draw on is related with the instances in which linguistically less competent learners are in interaction with more proficient learners and with lexical and thematic difficulty. Palmer, Mateus, Martinez, and Henderson (2014) provided sample classroom activities which embrace hybridity and practices of metalinguistic remarks. They proposed that translanguaging strategies create spaces for learners to engage in critical topics and try their chances to voice themselves in their emerging languages.

Thus and so, translanguaging strategies creates a more natural atmosphere for learners and "encourages students to see themselves as true l2 users, at home in both languages. Hence the language classroom becomes a real L2 use situation in which both languages are concurrent, not a pretend L2 monolingual situation" (Cook, 2001).

2.2. TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

2.2.1. Introduction

Task-based language teaching (TBLT hereupon) has gained significance in the second language acquisition field in that it stimulates process-focused syllabi. Before Prabhu's work in 1987, not much was written about tasks. Since that time, effective use of tasks has evolved into a pivotal data collection instrument and a focus of research in and of itself.

Current research indicate three principal characteristics of TBLT in relation to in class use: TBLT is in accordance with an educational philosophy where learners are at the center (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004), it constitutes certain specific concepts such as goal, procedure, outcome (Murphy, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Skehan, 1998), and it reinforces consequential activities instead of linguistic forms (Beglar &

Hunt, 2002; Carless, 2002; Littlewood, 2004). Besides, TBLT originates communicative tasks to promote learners' authentic language use through the rise of the communicative language teaching approach in the early 1980s (Hismanoğlu & Hismanoğlu, 2011).

The purpose of this section is to provide background knowledge about task-based language teaching, present a definition of a task, classify three predominant approaches to task-based language teaching, provide prevalent characteristics of task-based language teaching, emphasize the function of task-based language teaching, define benefits and challenges of task-based language teaching in conjunction with teacher and learner roles in TBLT and set up some suggestions for language teachers related with productive execution of task-based pedagogy.

2.2.2. Background of Task-Based Language Teaching

In the 1970s and 1980s, the term *communicative activity* was prevalently favored by both communicative approaches and second language acquisition researchers (Mitchell & Johnstone, 1986). In the early 1980's, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), a communication based approach, was prevalent. It focused on the rationale that communicative competence in target language is the evidential intention of language learning process (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Hiep (2007) proposes that communicative proficiency necessitates the ability to use the proper language in a social context. He also states that learners are required to make use of the language for real communication occasions rather than learning the grammatical structures of the target language. However, during the 1980s, two notable expansions took place. First, the term communicative activity was substituted by that of 'task'; and second, a task-based path to instruction evolved (Skehan, 2003).

Skehan (2003) proposes that TBLT Approach is a much broader variety of CLT; similarly, Wang (2006) also puts stress on the fact that recent significance of TBLT is largely a consequence of CLT of which the primary aim is communicative language use. Ab initio, Krashen (1985) was very effective in the field by declaring that input is the only necessary and sufficient condition for acquisition. Nevertheless, some studies related with education in immersion schools proved otherwise (Swain & Lapkin, 1982; Harley & Swain, 1984). Initially, this proposition by Krashen was counteracted by Hatch (1978) and Long (1983, 1985) in that input is not sufficient alone but *interaction* is vital, as are the instances it supplies learners to obtain individualized feedback for baffling interlanguage areas (Pica, 1994). For that reason, fostering these kinds of instances where learners can make negotiations for meaning, namely comprehension checks, clarification requests, and confirmation checks, would bolster acquisition.

This suggestion has its roots in the rationale that learning develops out of meaningful language use. Nevertheless, some researchers have foregrounded the crucial necessity on the learners' side to pay attention to form (Long & Robinson, 1998). Long (1991) proposed two versions of attending to form: 'focus on forms', which employs traditional methods to teach forms and 'focus on form', which encourages learners to pay attention to form in the meaningful communication process. Lately, the dominant induction related to negotiation of meaning has been adjusted by Michael Long (Long & Robinson, 1998) in such a way to suggest that while learners carry out tasks, a Focus-on-Form must be taken into more consideration. To better exemplify, in spite of the fact that meaning is primary, learners need to have more concern about producing the correct form while interacting with each other. As a consequence of such an interaction, the ingenuousness of communication is not guaranteed but form which has the possibility for language development gains more superiority. Either methods have been attributed to an umbrella term 'form-focused instruction' (Ellis, 2001) of

which focus on form method has been advocated by many TBLT researchers to a large extent (Skehan, 2003).

Being a broader version of CLT, TBLT Approach signifies the fact that productive learning occurs in circumstances when completely engaged learners use the language to solve tasks. This functions in various ways. Skehan (2003) made the distinction as strong form and weak form. The strong form supports tasks being the center of classroom teaching via putting stress on meaningful language use. The weak form recommends tasks as complementary constituent of a teacher-centered approach. There are also more various approaches to TBLT. To exemplify, supporters, accepting the strong form of TBLT, have suggested 'meaning- focused instruction'.

One of the foremost limitations of form-focused methodologies was that much emphasis was put on the accurate use of the grammatical forms generally taught at the Presentation stage. However, the result at the end of courses was that learners who could communicate sufficiently in English were very few in number (Willis, 1996). The shift from the Negotiation of Meaning to the Focus-on-Form concept in the use of tasks is crucial due to the fact that it created opposing poles in the field. To illustrate, some researchers favored the view that "Task-based teaching need not be seen as an alternative to more traditional, form focused approaches but can be used alongside them …." (Ellis, 2009, pp. 221-225).

On the other side, some researchers perceived this shift as an innovation. According to Willis (1996), with the exhaustion caused by the constraints of form focused language teaching, in the early eighties, research in Task-Based learning has gained importance. The Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP) model was prevalent at the time which in standard language teaching approaches, the teaching process was managed through presentation (grammar), practice (controlled and less controlled practice), and production

stages where behaviorist approach was dominant called Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP) model (Willis, 1996). As the first step, grammar structures are taught in the presentation stage; following this step, exercises are done via controlled and less controlled practice which are all pre-determined; and lastly, learners are assumed to produce the language by imitating the presentation and practice stages as the production. Willis (1996) puts stress on the fact that learners practice the specific language structures in an unnatural way in PPP, which causes the learners to overuse the same language forms and consequently depriving them of meaningful communication opportunities.

What pioneered the research to switch to task-based methodologies was the successful outcome of Prabhu's Communicational Teaching project, in which the primary focus was on meaning instead of form, in Bangalore primary and secondary schools (Prabhu, 1987). Frost (2004) claims that learners have the freedom to control the language they use in all stages in TBLT. According to him, the more they make use of all their previous experiences and knowledge, the better the learning outcome. Evidently, TBLT has the noteworthy interpretation that learning a language is not an outcome interiorized via exercising language items; instead, it is a developmental process in which communication and social interaction are promoted with the help of meaningful task-based activities.

2.2.3. Definition and Characteristics of a Task

There has been many attempts, most of which have taken a context-free approach (Bygate, Skehan, & Swain, 2001) to define a 'task' from various perspectives since the initiation of the term. Providing an explanation for the term 'task' is significant due to the fact that through the tasks presented to

learners, targets to be arrived are made clear. The term has been defined in different ways in language teaching by linguists and researchers in the literature. Kumaravadivelu (1993) claims that every researcher has their own point of view and their definition of task is due to the differences in line with the approach they accept. They provided various definitions for task to make it more comprehendible, and this way illuminated language teachers. To take a little divergent approach, according to Bygate, Skehan, and Swain, it is better to employ the multiple views on tasks to re-present the way tasks are defined throughout the related literature. To exemplify, in the chronological order:

"A task is a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child ... In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between." (Long, 1985, p.89). In line with this definition, Long (1985) implies that tasks should be accepted as activities carried out in real life such as painting a fence, dressing a child, etc. and these kinds of tasks, close to real life circumstances, must be adopted in language teaching. "An activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process was regarded as a 'task'." (Prabhu, 1987, p.17). Prabhu (1987) emphasizes the importance of teacher role in the control of tasks and advocates that there should be an outcome, a production at the end of a task.

"Any structured language learning endeavor which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. 'Task' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of work plans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning - from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and

decision making." (Breen, 1987, p.23). Breen (1987) pays attention to the cognitive processes involved in his definition referring to problem solving, decision making. In another definition, Breen (1989, p.187) states that "…a structured plan for the provision of opportunities for the refinement of knowledge and capabilities entailed in a new language and its use during communication". As clear, the result of a task is seen as the language produced during the communication.

"A piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form." (Nunan, 1989, p.10). Here, Nunan (1989) points out pedagogical tasks and mentions about the meaning in communicative use of the language. Willis (1996, p.53) stresses that task is "a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome". Similar to Prabhu (1987), Willis (1996) suggests that a task should bring about a result at the end. He also argues that a task is a goal-oriented and learner-centered communicative activity which has a clear aim.

Skehan (1998, p.95) lists features of "task" as: (1) meaning is primary; (2) there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities; (3) task completion has some priority; the assessment of tasks is in terms of outcome. In the same vein, Ellis (2003, p.16) proposes a pedagogical definition of 'task as "a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their linguistic resources." Ellis (2003) gives the meaning of task as a "work plan" that requires learners' cognitive processes via the inclusion of Skehan's four criteria. It is obvious that TBLT has been advocated and used in language teaching contexts since 1980s. The review

of the related literature showed that each scholar proposed their own concept of a task in accordance with their stances. Willis (1996) and Skehan (1998) emphasize learner-centered instruction instead of a teacher-controlled one and suggest that language can be taught with the use of tasks. Also, Willis (1996) and Skehan (1998) assert that 'natural' language use which focuses on meaning and tasks assist the real life language use.

In spite of the fact that these definitions seem different by nature, all have some points in common. A task put into practice in a classroom is an activity that has a certain aim, and that aim includes communicative language use during the process (Hismanoğlu & Hismanoğlu, 2011). Besides, it's obvious from the presented definitions that a task has a specific connection with the extra-linguistic items, it transcends the usual classroom use. The kind of conversation arising in the process of executing a task is intended to be comparable to the naturally occurring real world discourse (Ellis, 2000). Besides various definitions of a task presented from the related literature, there are also different views about the characteristics of task-based teaching the reason of which may lie in the fact that each researcher has distinct perspectives to focus on. To illustrate, Nunan (2004, p.14) presents some characteristics of task-based language teaching as:

- "a needs based approach to content selection
- an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language; - the introduction of authentic texts (teaching materials) into the learning situation
- the provision of opportunities for learners to focus not only on language, but also on the learning process itself
- an enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning
- an attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom."

Table 2. Comparison of four approaches to TBLT (Ellis, 2003)

Characteristic	**Long (1985; 1991; 2014)**	**Willis (1996)**	**Skehan (1998; 2001)**	**Ellis (2003)**
Natural language use	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Type of task	Real-world production tasks	Real-world production tasks	Pedagogic production tasks	Both real-world and pedagogic Input-based and production tasks
Linguistic focus	Both unfocused and focused tasks	Primarily unfocused tasks	Only unfocused tasks	Both focused and unfocused tasks
Linguistic support	No	Yes	No	Possibly
Focus on form	In the main task phase	In the pre-task and post-task phases but not in the main task phase	Mainly in the pre-task phase	In all phases of a lesson
Learner-centeredness	Yes	Yes	Yes	Not necessarily
Rejection of traditional approaches	Yes	Yes	Yes	No

Comparable to Nunan (2004), Feez and Joyce (1998) proposes some characteristics of TBLT namely as:

- Focused point is the process not the result
- Main elements are purposeful facilities called tasks emphasizing

interaction and the meaning in which students learn the language with tasks in a purposeful interaction

- Tasks can be real life situations to overcome or have a pedagogical aim in the classroom

- A task of a task-based syllabus is ordered according to the degree of difficulty and the difficulty of a task depends on many elements, such as the learner's experience, the complication of the task, the language to achieve it and the degree of support (p.17).

Concerning the characteristics of TBLT, it is shared that TBLT methodology centers on meaning rather than form, provides meaningful communicative tasks presenting real-life like opportunities and through which necessitate learners to interact with each other. This feature of TBLT forms the basis of the methodology since it supplies learners with a natural learning environment surrounded with authentic materials.

2.2.4. Classification of Tasks

Similar to the various definitions provided for the term ‘task’, there are divergent views about the classification of tasks among researchers and pragmatists due to the fact that both sides have measures, principles, and priorities that are different from one another. Thus, same type of tasks can be listed under different classification headings due to different features. The related literature has provided four main parameters or criteria for the categorization of tasks (Willis, 1996; Ellis, 2003; Leaver and Willis, 2004; Mackey, 2012).

2.2.4.1. Parameter one: open and close tasks

'Open' or 'divergent' tasks are those where more than one consequence or correct answer is available for the learners; the outcome is not previously determined. From Loschky and Bley- Vroman (1993) point of view, the information which learners can exchange is unlimited. These kinds of tasks are organized to a lesser extent and have less specific goals compared to closed tasks. To illustrate, most of the opinion-gap tasks that mainly asks for selecting, ordering actions, or making ordinary conversation are open tasks because various answers can be provided by the learners, or learners can use their imagination to create a story from a number of pictures (Ellis, 2003). The degree of 'openness' for a task varies. Depending on their needs and attention, open tasks provide learners with opportunities to use the language at their disposal. Thus, this freedom encourages learners to promote their performance.

'Closed' or 'convergent' tasks refer to those with a more specific purpose and they are extremely structured. The teaching content is very particular and the provided information is highly limited. The utmost aim of a closed task is to find the only possible solution which is pre-determined beforehand (Willis, 1996). These tasks demands learners to attain one correct response or a restricted set of responses (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004). Information- gap tasks are examples for closed task type. This reveals the fact that closed tasks persist learners to the task necessities. According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman's (1993) reflection, closed tasks requires learners to make more negotiations for meaning since learners do not have the option to give up when they have a breakdown, and hence, are expectedly to soothe comprehension. Besides, this kind of tasks promote learners to employ the target language. On the other hand, in open tasks due to freedom in conversation, learners can switch the topic straightforwardly.

So, closed tasks are more encouraging for learners to adopt the target language and better to teach grammar (Willis, 2004).

2.2.4.2.Parameter two: one- way/ two- way tasks

Tasks can be classified in accordance with whether the exchanged information is held by one learner or shared amid all learners (Willis, 2004). So, tasks can be reciprocal or non- reciprocal. Reciprocal tasks are two-way kind of tasks which are shaped by information transfer between two or more people, and every party has their own moment to communicate. As maintained by Nunan (1989), in two-way tasks every one of the participants has some knowledge that is not held by the other participant. Besides, Nunan (1991) proposes that two- way tasks promote more negotiation of meaning compared to one-way tasks.

Non-reciprocal or one-way tasks can be accomplished by one participant, thus, the information exchange is shaped by a single learner (Willis, 2004). To exemplify, learners are provided with a listening activity without any cooperation during listening to directions related with which way pursue and identify it on the map (Ellis, 2003). In a one-way task, the accomplishment of the task is the duty of the participant who holds the information. Other participants recognize the task by listening to their fellow.

Pica et al. (1993) describes five task types that create opportunities for communication at different levels and all of which can be one-way or two-way task. These are jigsaw tasks, information gap, problem solving, decision making, and opinion exchange. Consistent with Nunan (2004), jigsaw tasks promote more negotiation of meaning due to the fact that participants try to accomplish the task by holding the different sections of information. This situation pushes them to work on the task together to reach a convergent result. To illustrate, two or more individuals or groups can be given mixed parts of a story and asked to unify these parts to make up the story.

However, problem-solving tasks have more definite task features. To demonstrate, in problem-solving tasks, participants are supplied with similar information from a reading or a listening sample, and then they are required to relate and come up with a possible answer; that is, they have the control of the language they need to use and they also determine the flow of the task. Dissimilar to problem-solving tasks, jigsaw tasks are more 'closed' and unified since participants do not have the same information and need to negotiate. As for opinion exchange tasks, De la Colina and Garcia Mayo (2007) claim that this type of task would promote the least opportunities for negotiation of meaning because of the fact that each participant holds the same piece of information, and they are not required to arrive at a single goal throughout the task.

2.2.4.3. Parameter three: focused and unfocused tasks

This parameter is represented by Ellis (2012) to determine whether the task has the previously-arranged language focus or not. Focused tasks encourage learners to exercise some specific language structures freely or efficaciously. Focused tasks can be presented in the form of Consciousness-Raising (CR) action. As maintained by Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993), the most successful procedure to synthesize grammar with language teaching is not by using grammar drills, but by CR actions which promote the grammatical knowledge. Skehan (2003) argues that in CR tasks, the main focus is on straightforward and evident learning. This point means that CR tasks encourage learners to know and understand how a specific language structure is employed.

This kind of task is named as "grammatical task" by Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993, p.123) because of the fact that it is used in order to make learners practice a particular grammatical structure. The difference between CR tasks and traditional grammar teaching lies in the feature that in CR tasks

form-focused instruction is seen as a means to accomplish proficiency in grammatical competence and by the way help the acquisition process (Ellis, 1990).

On the other hand, the aim of unfocused tasks is not to rehearse specific language features. By this means, learners can employ any linguistic agency in real conversation to accomplish the task. This kind of tasks are examined in accordance with non-linguistic results (e.g. drawing a picture, solving a problem), a requisite to converse about meanings for the purpose of accomplishing the outcome, and learner command over the verbal or non-verbal resources utilized (Ellis, 2002).

2.2.4.4. Parameter four: real-world and pedagogic tasks

Real-world tasks are those activities that learners do in real life such as: making a phone call, ordering food, meeting new people, etc. Van den Branden (2006) view that this kind of tasks as objectives to be completed, not something to be taught. On the other hand, pedagogical tasks are done for pedagogical aims. They constitute a part of some pedagogical goals frequently with an aim. Therefore, these tasks are classroom-based tasks expected as objectives of an educational course. Besides, they do not mirror real-world tasks automatically like reading a text, listening to a record, and etc.

In line with Chaudron et al (2005) pedagogical tasks suggest learners with directed experience, help learners elaborate their knowledge, and shape interaction. They include communicative language practice which requires learners to focus more on meaning rather than the form. This doesn't imply that form is not paid attention to, instead, form and meaning are interwoven (Nunan, 1988). To illustrate, information-gap activity is one of the most

frequently used pedagogic tasks in which grammar has the key role to assist learners to state various communicative outcomes (Nunan, 2004). As Ellis (2007) states "It emphasizes meaning over form but can also cater for learning form".

2.2.5. Benefits and Challenges of TBLT

In foreign language contexts research on TBLT has proved effective learning outcomes. To demonstrate, Leaver and Kaplan (2004) observed the TBLT language courses foreign languages being Czech, Ukrainian, and Russian in the USA. They stated that TBLT courses had resulted in less rate of attrition and higher competence levels than the courses that did not employ TBLT approach to teaching.

Iwashita and Li (2012) stated that TBLT stimulated learners to take part in classroom interaction because it included learners to provide each other with feedback. This opportunity can guide them to use reform non-target expressions, and besides, to successfully integrate that feedback into modified output production. In line with the conclusion by Storch (2007), pair work promoted more instances for interaction, negotiation, and feedback; thus, more opportunities for second language learning. Furthermore, TBLT promotes shaping and developing learners' communicative skills like fluency, accuracy, comprehension, and vocabulary knowledge (Chacón, 2012); therefore, increases the amount of target language use by learners (Tinker Sachs, 2009), and enriches learners' aptitude to transfer the classroom knowledge to the outside of the classroom (Macias, 2004).

In addition, researchers found that TBLT creates a positive learning environment (McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007), increasing learners'

confidence (Lopes, 2004), and boosting learner motivation (Park, 2012). For instance, Hadi (2013) explored female students' perceptions towards TBLT and found that most of the learners had positive perceptions and they stated being inclined to adapt this methodology since it improved their motivation, turned the class environment into a more interesting atmosphere.

As well as benefits of TBLT methodology, there still exists some challenges in the implementation process. Among these are learner-generated challenges to the implementation of TBLT. According to some studies (Carless, 2008; Lai, Zhao, & Wang, 2011), learners find using systematic and explicit grammar instruction credible and feel that grammar is of vital importance in language learning. This way of thinking is in conflict with TBLT methodology, which stimulates learning language through employing it as a communicative agent instead of perceiving the language as a phenomenon to study by successively introducing grammatical items (Long & Robinson, 1998). To demonstrate this preference of learners, McDonough and Chaikitmongkol (2007) searched learner response to a task-based course in a Thai university and concluded that initially learners had negative reactions towards TBLT since it did not present explicit grammar instruction they anticipated.

Apart from learners' preferred ways of learning, their proficiency level can also cause a challenge in the implementation of TBLT. Some studies (Carless, 2002; Li, 1998) have found that lower proficiency in the target language is also a challenge for TBLT. To exemplify, Bao (2012) specified learners' low proficiency level being one of the consequential difficulties when executing TBLT in a lower secondary beginner CFL class.

Moreover, context can also pose some omnipresent problems in applying specific methodological approaches like TBLT. In fact, a great deal of research has put forward that struggle between TBLT and local contexts. To demonstrate, if standard testing procedures such as grammar-based tests are

still favored (Li, 1998), and educational practices appreciate the role of teachers as transmitters of knowledge and classroom management (Bruton, 2005; Deng & Carless, 2009), implementing a TBLT methodology encounters additional obstacles. In TBLT, learners are promoted to learn through interaction with one another, and conclude grammatical rules via the meaning making process rather than receiving them from the teacher. This controversy forces TBLT to be adjusted in order to be suitable for the local context. For instance, Carless (2008) proposes that TBLT need to be executed in a weak form, with 'tasks' employed as 'an adjunct to structure-based teaching' (Skehan, 2003, p.1), in order to fit the Hong Kong learning context.

Furthermore, a lack of task-based teaching materials (Leaver & Kaplan, 2004), appropriate syllabus schedules (Bao & Kirkebæk, 2013; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007), and the low preference of the TBLT courses both by learners and the administration (Bao, 2012) on the side of educational institutions also poses pervasive challenges for TBLT. As an example, the absence of necessary materials has been found to demotivate teachers to execute TBLT since it necessitated them to devote more time and energy to prepare their own tasks (Li, 1998). The lack of appropriate syllabus schedules has in a similar way been found to affect the implementation of TBLT in negative way as teachers' aim to accomplish the goals of the agenda remained them little time for task related activities (Bao & Kirkebæk, 2013; Carless, 2002). Besides, low prioritization of TBLT courses by students in lower secondary schools has also diminished the effectiveness of TBLT (Bao, 2012).

2.2.6. Task-Based Language Teaching and Translanguaging

In the service of theoretical and pedagogical grounds, task-based implementations have drawn attention amid both language teachers and researchers. The premise implicit in research has been fundamentally built on

aforesaid interactionist theory. This theory proposes that completing a task equips a learner possibilities to be familiar with the target language in the course of interactional adjustments such as negotiation for meaning, feedback, and modified input. These adjustments are essential for language acquisition (Pica, 1994; Long, 1996; Mackey & Goo, 2007). Research in this area has primarily concentrated on investigating how the task type and task implementation influence the instances and frequencies of these interactions (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Pica, Kanagy & Falodun, 1993; Adams, 2009). For pedagogical purposes, task-based activities have been implemented owing to their positive effects on improving learners' participation and confidence, and supplying them with more instances to use L2 (Lopes, 2004; Tinker Sachs, 2007; Bao & Du, 2015).

In spite of these theoretical and pedagogical advantages of task-based activities, research has shown that teachers are hesitant to implement them mainly with lower-level proficiency learners because of the fact that these learners demonstrate extensive L1 use and off-task talk in the course of implementing tasks (Li, 1998; Seedhouse, 1999; Bruton, 2005; Carless, 2008). L1 use remains paradoxical taking into consideration that using task-based activities improves L2 practice. For that reason, decreasing or advising against L1 use has been presumed as the most beneficial practice during task implementation, despite the fact that some researchers have supported its authenticity as a productive means in foreign language acquisition (Cook, 2001; Butzkamm, 2003). However, recent research has put forward a new point of view on L1 use, regarding it as a useful tool in L2 acquisition. To provide an example, Swain (1995) analyzed whether learners realized gaps in their linguistic knowledge via output and whether learners' output function as a premise of how to communicate their intended meaning; and whether they employ language to reflect on their own language use. The researcher focused on tasks that will produce this kind of learner interaction in order to prove its connection to second language learning. Research in this field has demonstrated that L1 use renders cognitive reinforcement with the help of

which learners examine the target language, build up a collaborative understanding, and develop ways to complete tasks (Brooks & Donato, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Antón & DiCamilla, 1998).

To exemplify, Antón and DiCamilla (1998) investigated L1 use in collaborative writing tasks by five pairs of adult learners of Spanish as a foreign language whose mother tongue is English. They demonstrated that L1 operated as a pivotal psychological means to afford learners scaffolded assistance, develop and sustain intersubjectivity (Rommetveit, 1985), and externalize inner speech of learners in completing cognitively demanding tasks. They concluded that

> Interpsychologically, the use of L1 enables learners to work effectively in the zone of proximal development (ZPD) by providing scaffolded help (Wood et al., 1976) to each other and by enabling them to construct a shared perspective of the task, that is, to achieve intersubjectivity (Rommetveit, 1985). Intrapsychologically, L1 emerges in collaborative activity in the form of private speech (Vygotsky, 1986) as a cognitive tool in problem resolution. (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998, p. 2).

In consequence, the authors set up a list of classifications for L1 use as

- affording each other help which was presented in conversing metalinguistic knowledge and assessing and comprehending the content of the text;
- starting and sustaining interrelationships, in which learners laid down goals and developed common points of views to succeed these goals; and
- externalizing or articulating their thought processes. They discussed that these roles of L1 use were productive for language acquisition due to the fact

that they assisted learners to build on collaborative talk which enabled them to complete the tasks.

In Swain and Lapkin's study (2000), the outcomes of task type on the amount of L1 use was investigated in eight-grade French immersion classes. In the current study, one of the groups consisting of 12 pairs was handed out a dictogloss task, and the other group consisting of 10 pairs a jigsaw task. Researchers found that the amount of L1 turns was less than 30% of the total turns; however, results demonstrated no statistically significant differences in the L1 frequency across the tasks. On the other hand, researchers remarked that there were noticeable differences in L1 use frequency among the pairs. In similarity with Anton and DiCamilla's study (1998), L1 was discovered to be employed for three main functions. The first function which was labeled as 'moving the task along' consisted of ordering the pictures in a jigsaw task and task management. The second function, termed as 'focusing attention' comprised of moments in which students used their L1 to be able to discuss L2 vocabulary and grammar. The third function of L1 use was found to be related to off-task talk and handling disagreements including interpersonal relationships between the pairs. The most recurrent function of L1 use during the implementation of both tasks was remarked to be for task management. In a subsequent study by the same researchers in 2001, two communicative tasks having similarity in content but difference in format, dictogloss and jigsaw, were used with adult French learners. Their aim was to analyze the data for second language learning moments in the process of task performance, expecting discrepancies because of the format. Particularly, researchers expected that jigsaw task would bring with less attention on form than the dictogloss task; as a consequence, dictogloss creating more opportunities for language learning. In contrast to their expectations, different tasks did not create significant difference in the attention students paid to form and they explained this finding such that students worked collaboratively on the tasks and negotiated about each other's language use and came up with solutions to problems they encountered depending on their mutual linguistic resources.

Research in the field has also been carried out in ESL context extensively. Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) carried out a study to examine whether learners (*n*=6 pairs) made use of their not-shared L1s as a mediating tool in completing a text reconstruction task and a joint composition. In consequence of the study, researchers found that task type affected the functions for which L1 was used. To exemplify, in the joint composition task, L1 served for the purposes of task management and clarification; however, in the reconstruction task, L1 was employed mostly for vocabulary and negotiations of meaning. They reported in line with the interviews with the students that although learners used a very small amount of L1 in task process, they still appreciated L1 use as a beneficial tool. Participant students also stated that using L1 enabled them to negotiate the hints and the text design in a detailed way, and so to accomplish the tasks without much difficulty, especially in activities in which meaning is central.

Carless (2008) explored mother tongue (MT) use in task-based classroom and discussed the question of encouraging and sustaining interaction in the MT and some procedures to stimulate TL use. He expressed that MT use can be perceived as being a learner-centered strategy since it created a safe space for student learning; however, at the same time having the potential to endanger TL practice. In sum, the researcher concluded that a balanced and conformable view in the task-based classrooms was necessary. Carless (2008) also supported that teacher educators had better lead students more concretely related to when they can use MT and in what circumstances this can be for their benefit. According to the data provided in the mentioned study, the researcher claimed that task design and the related methodology demands cautious concern. He supported that some aspects of tasks such as task complexity and difficulty (Robinson, 2001) obviously affect language output by students. Being unfamiliar to the topic, deficiency in planning, or cognitively intricate activities may activate MT use. The researcher put forth analyzing the data in his paper that the more open ended

a task is, the more likely it promotes MT use. Another point made by the researcher is that task- based teaching may also be centered around other modes different from oral activities like reading texts. He explained this point as stating "Another issue is that task-based teaching need not focus predominantly on oral tasks and other modes can also be exploited. For example, jigsaw reading tasks (when students read different parts of a text or receive different input on the same topic) create an information gap and may provide suitable input through the texts to encourage use of the TL, whilst also permitting negotiation of meaning through the MT. Written tasks in pairs or small groups may be useful in promoting both collaborative dialogue in the MT and the creation of text in the TL (Swain and Lapkin: op. cit.)".

Similar to these findings, De la Colina and García Mayo (2009) detailed L1 use and its role in oral interaction performed by twelve pairs of undergraduate EFL learners with low L2 proficiency. Participants were given three collaborative tasks; jigsaw, text reconstruction, and dictogloss. They reported that learners used L1 for three main purposes: metacognitive talk in order for planning the activity, metatalk so as to converse about the form, and off-task talk in which learners argued about issues not related to the task. Their findings indicated that learners employed L1 mainly for metacognitive talk in the dictogloss talk than in the text reconstruction; and for metatalk in the text reconstruction than in two other types of tasks. Besides, the researchers also noted that in the jigsaw task, learners concentrated more on vocabulary searches than in the text reconstruction task. Apart from these, their findings demonstrated off-task talk in L1 being very small in frequency, which was attributed as participants being university students. Overall, the study concluded that the learners used their L1 as a cognitive means which assisted them to have an access to L2 at moments when their proficiency was not sufficient enough to complete the tasks.

Storch and Aldosari (2010) conducted a study on the use of the first language (Arabic) in pair work in EFL setting. EFL learners (n=15 pairs)

were paired according to their proficiency levels as such high-high (H-H), high-low (H-L), and low-low (L-L). They were assigned with three collaborative tasks; jigsaw, composition and text editing. On the whole, the study demonstrated that task type had more notable effect on L1 use frequency than pairing according to proficiency level and that L1 was mostly used for task management and vocabulary deliberations. Tognini and Oliver (2012) demonstrated that French and Italian foreign language learners of Australian elementary and secondary school learners were inclined to use their L1 for task management related issues such as task-sharing; however, preferred to use L2 for form- focused activities. In addition, they showed that meaning-focused tasks like information gap tasks were accomplished with a mixture of L1 and L2.

Alvarez and Perez (2015) carried out a research on the use of task-based multilingual and multicultural scenarios of higher education teachers and learners at BA and MA level. They implemented this study as a part of MAGICC project (Modularising Multilingual and Multicultural Academic Communication Competence for BA and MA level). This project concentrated on the pattern of a theoretical account on present procedures, initiatives, projects, and units from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001). The study principally focused on the applicability of task-based learning for stimulating multilingualism. As a result of analyzing the MAGICC task-based multilingual scenarios, the researchers found affirmative participation experiences by learners and revealed that the tasks contributed positively to the consciousness of both learners and teachers of the opportunities of multilingual interaction.

In a study by Azkarai and Garcia Mayo (2015), whether different task modalities, as such speaking and speaking + writing, have an effect on L1 use in task-based EFL setting was researched. Researchers analyzed 44 EFL Spanish learners' oral interactions in completing four collaborative tasks; two

of which were speaking tasks (picture ordering and picture differences) and the rest were speaking + writing tasks (dictogloss and text editing). Research has showed that there was a significant influence of the task-modality on L1 use, and that L1 functions were dependent on the task which was explained as grammar deliberations being more recurrent in speaking + writing tasks and vocabulary searches in speaking tasks. The current study has also determined similar functions of L1 use to De la Colina and Garcia Mayo (2009) and Storch and Aldosari (2010) presenting a refined list of five categories: off- task, metacognitive talk, grammar talk, vocabulary, and phatics.

Siegel (2016) examined interactions between two L2 English speakers in an English as lingua franca context and found that the participants' identities as experts or novice users of language were significantly apparent in managing linguistic knowledge, particularly, in the self- and other-positioning in word search sequences. Banda (2017) examined multilingual discourse patterns in a Black school in Cape Town, South Africa. The researcher focused on how multilingual learners utilize their linguistic repertoires to achieve academic tasks. He stated as a result of the study that translanguaging practices, using two or more languages as linguistic resource, improved the pace of the courses as learners acquired how to accomplish their tasks.

In a study by Nagy (2018) at Sapientia University in three English classes with first year pre-intermediate students having Hungarian as L1 background focused on to determine what strategies students apply so as to complete the tasks in the classroom environment and how they perceive MT use in the implementation of tasks. She found that although students used MT and perceived it as a beneficial assistance when their proficiency in English limited them in accomplishing the tasks, they tended to apprehend it as a failure because of the prevalent monolingual teaching methods. In conclusion the researcher stated that "Translanguaging practices intend to resolve such

contradictions in that they create a learning space where language skills are viewed primarily as communicative competences and where monolingual linguistic methods are regarded as guidelines and not as the only acceptable norm".

Another study by Duarte (2019) investigated how 15 years old students utilized their linguistic repertoires to accomplish tasks in content-matter mainstream classrooms. The researcher examined speech acts and concluded that translanguaging practices were determined in cognitively complex task-talk activities and that students used translanguaging to demonstrate their ideas in a plain way and to formulate new knowledge. Duran, Kurhila, and Sert (2019) analyzed learners' deliberations over vocabulary through their strategies in switching languages in EMI context. The researchers presented samples of how learners come up with their own solutions for a word search by using L1 as a bilingual resource. This study forwarded the perception of how the learners assigned the roles in their negotiations about word searches in bilingual classroom setting. They concluded that communicational consequences of switching between languages in order to overcome lexical difficulty should be considered again to be able to present a holistic view of classroom realities.

Taking all these findings into consideration, it is clear that translanguaging has been proved to be a cognitive tool which provides learners with a social space where they back up one another in successfully achieving tasks. Empirical research has also showed that switching languages and using all the linguistic repertoire of oneself is beneficial for foreign/second language learning. However, most of this research has been conducted in a controlled setting with high proficiency or non-beginner learners. Thus and so, the scope of research should be broadened to different groups of learners, especially with particular emphasis on observation in a classroom context. Besides, low importance has been given to investigating how exactly translanguaging functions in task completion process in a

classroom setting. The current study was carried out against this backdrop.

2.2.7. Conclusion

Task-based approach has drawn more interest in the foreign language teaching field since the 1980s. Perceiving the language as a tool for communication and placing the learner at the very center, it focuses on providing the learners instances in which they can use language in a natural, practical, and functional way (Lin, 2009). Following CLT, Task-based Language Teaching concentrates on real language use with the help of communicative tasks. It evolved due to the limitations and discontent of form based instruction that revolved around presentation-practice-performance (PPP) model (Ellis, 2003; Long and Crookes, 1992).

Task-based language teaching is based on the constructivist theory of learning and communicative language teaching methodology. In the eighties this language learning view brought about the growth of different task-based approaches (Breen, 1987; Candling & Murphy, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Prabhu, 1987). Besides, in the nineties, it evolved into a thorough design for the communicative classroom in which learners carried out task-based activities (Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996). As a consequence of the growth in task-based language teaching and research, there has been an ample divergence in the contexts, methods, and theories in the way to perception of tasks and learning. Task-based language teaching has its origins in a wide diversity of learning theories, including information processing theory (Levelt, 1989), input processing (VanPatten, 1996), Vygotskian socio-cultural theory (Lantolf, 2000), interaction theory (Mackey & Gass, 2006).

This chapter provided the detailed information regarding the theoretical background lying under translanguaging and Task-based teaching and some studies conducted in the same area of the study. The next chapter will cover the methodology followed in the current study.

CHAPTER III

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter will present information about the design of the study, participants in the study, data collection instruments, and data analysis methods.

3.2. THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Research questions and methodological approaches of the study will be presented in detail in this chapter.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Research Questions	***Data Collection Instruments***
1. What are the reasons for translanguaging on the part of the students?	Audio Recordings
2. What are the benefits of translanguaging in the classroom environment?	Stimulated Recall Interviews
3. Is there a significant difference in the translanguaging frequency according to the task type?	Open and Close Task Activities

3.3. PARTICIPANTS AND SETTING

Participants in the study were 20 EFL students selected with convenience sampling from a state high school in İzmit. Participant students' ages were ranging from 16 to 18. Three of the participants were male and the rest of them were female. They had similar backgrounds in terms of their exposure to English. They were documented to start learning English in fourth grade at primary school. None of the participants declared having lived in an English- speaking country before. At the time of the study, they were getting prepared for the university entrance exam and language component of the university entrance exam. The students were given information about the aim, duration and procedure of the current study. Taking into account that this practice will help them improve their English proficiency, all students admitted to participate in this study on a volunteer basis.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Male	3	16,00	18,00	17,3	1,15
Female	17	16,00	18,00	16,8	,80
Valid N (listwise)		3			

3.4. PROCEDURE

The present study's design was structured primarily in line with qualitative approach. First of all the speaking courses of both classes were observed and voice recordings of the lessons were taken. Participant students were assigned both open and closed tasks which were attached in the ensuing lines. All the tasks were presented by the teacher within the scope of regular instruction. The participant teacher was requested to behave ordinarily as

they would in implementing similar kinds of activities. As the first step of implementation, the teacher made brief instructions such as directions about the tasks and the duration of the activities. The teacher was asked not to mention the students any points related to and also not to interfere with their language choice.

First two tasks included both open and close type activities. One of the remaining two tasks was solely open and the other was wholly close type activity. As the second step, the recordings were fully transcribed and cross checked by a colleague. No discrepancies were found in the transcriptions. After the transcription process was completed, all the moments where students translanguaged between L1 and L2 were determined. A stimulated recall research methodology was used to gather information about the nature of translanguaging phenomenon. Stimulated recall is an introspective research instrument utilized to obtain information on participants' thinking processes about an action they took part in (Gass & Mackey, 2000). These thought processes are generally questioned by providing the participants with an audio or visual recording of their own at the time of the task, which then supplies a hint to assist them recall their thoughts during the task (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Based on transcriptions and stimulated recall interviews with the students, most frequent uses of translanguaging were determined and each instance was coded under different headings. Besides, the difference in the frequency of translanguaging moments in the course of open and close task activities was also analyzed. In order to determine whether the task type affect translanguaging behavior, open and close task activity transcriptions were prepared separately.

Table 4. Key to reading the transcripts

Symbol	Meaning
T	Teacher turns
S1, S2, S3, S4	Student turns
[ ]	Extra information
(+)	Pause ("+" indicates the number of seconds)
[ ]	Overlapping speech
[Tr.]	Utterances in Turkish
[?]	Unclear or unidentified transcription

3.5. DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

In the current study, data were gathered with the utilization of multiple forms of data collection tools in order to obtain a comprehensive insight into the research questions. As data collection instruments, audio recordings, interviews in accordance with stimulated recall methodology, and open and close task activities were implemented. More detailed information about the data collection tools is given below.

3.5.1. Stimulated Recall Protocols

In addition to observations, the study also included stimulated recall sessions with six volunteer students immediately after the recordings were completed and transcribed. Stimulated recall was chosen as the research methodology to clearly examine the nature of translanguaging in classroom setting. Stimulated recall is an introspective kind of method that involves the articulation of knowledge retrospectively rather than simultaneously. The purpose of the stimulated recall was to investigate the participants' particular reasons for using specific instances of translanguaging at particular moments during the course. The interviews were carried out in participant students' L1 which is Turkish to be able to create a comfortable atmosphere.

For the stimulated recall sessions, the instances at which the students translanguaged were selected and presented to the participants for comment. Two factors were taken into account while choosing the episodes. First, since one's ability to recall details becomes harder and less dependable as time passes (Gass & Mackey, 2000), it was crucial to keep the elapsed time between the recordings and the stimulated recall sessions minimum. For this reason, sessions were conducted immediately after the recordings were analyzed. Second, the episodes were chosen from those that evidently portrayed translanguaging instances were chosen.

In accordance with stimulated recall methodology, the students listened to the segments where they translanguaged and they were asked the reason why they chose either language. Their reasons were gathered in the light of their answers and codes were generated for each translanguaging explanation. With the help of these codes, the most frequent translanguaging rationales were documented. A table demonstrating all the codes generated in relation to participants' answers was presented at the findings section.

3.5.2. Open and Close Tasks

In order to gather reliable and authentic data for translanguaging moments of students, they were assigned four task-based activities. Two of the tasks included both open and close type activities and one of the remaining was entirely open and the last task was a close type. In sum, students were implemented three open and three close task activities in total. The distribution of tasks were kept equal so as to determine which type of task generates more translanguaging instances by students. Students were divided into pairs of two for the activities during task implementation.

Task Activity 1:

First task included an information gap activity under close task type title and also an opinion gap question under open task category. One of the students was given the Part A of the activity and the other had Part B with missing information about two people in the activity. To be able to complete the open task part, pairs were given 15 minutes for each section and required to fill in the missing information about four people in the task by asking questions to each other. Having finished the first section in about 30 minutes, both students were required to ask and answer the same opinion gap question at the bottom of their handouts in the remaining ten minutes of the course.

EXCHANGING INFORMATION PAIRWORK

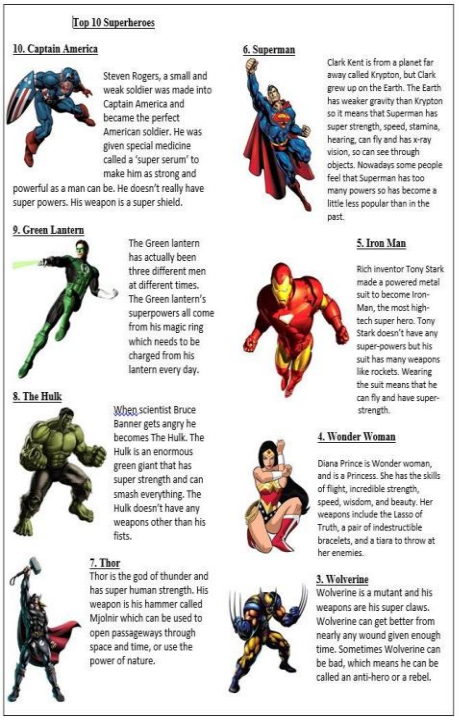
A	 Mary	 John	 Ann	 Michael
age	24			53
job	flight attendant			engineer
place of work	plane			in a factory
hometown	Berlin			Birmingham
nationality	German			English
family	single			married, 2 children
leisure activities	listening to music			hiking

B	 Mary	 John	 Anne	 Michael
age		62	34	
job		mechanic	secretary	
place of work		garage	bank	
hometown		Rome	Paris	
nationality		Italian	French	
family		widow, 3 children	divorced, no children	
leisure activities		playing cards	reading	

WHAT IS YOUR DREAM JOB? WHAT DO YOU WANT TO BE IN THE FUTURE? Ask your partner and explain your future job.

Task Activity 2:

Pairs were attributed a reading text about super heroes. They were asked to read the text and answer comprehension questions related to the text. This section was a close task type activity since it required the students to find the missing information directly from the text. To be able to complete this section, they were given 25 minutes. Afterwards in the remaining 15 minutes, they were expected to draw and describe their own superhero which was under the opinion gap category of the open task types.



Top 10 Superheroes

10. Captain America

Steven Rogers, a small and weak soldier was made into Captain America and became the perfect American soldier. He was given special medicine called a 'super serum' to make him as strong and powerful as a man can be. He doesn't really have super powers. His weapon is a super shield.

9. Green Lantern

The Green lantern has actually been three different men at different times. The Green lantern's superpowers all come from his magic ring which needs to be charged from his lantern every day.

8. The Hulk

When scientist Bruce Banner gets angry he becomes The Hulk. The Hulk is an enormous green giant that has super strength and can smash everything. The Hulk doesn't have any weapons other than his fists.

7. Thor

Thor is the god of thunder and has super human strength. His weapon is his hammer called Mjolnir which can be used to open passageways through space and time, or use the power of nature.

6. Superman

Clark Kent is from a planet far away called Krypton, but Clark grew up on the Earth. The Earth has weaker gravity than Krypton so it means that Superman has super strength, speed, stamina, hearing, can fly and has x-ray vision, so can see through objects. Nowadays some people feel that Superman has too many powers so has become a little less popular than in the past.

5. Iron Man

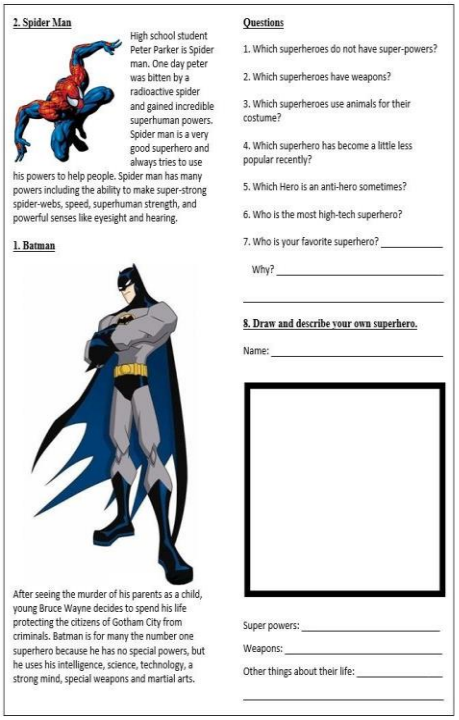
Rich inventor Tony Stark made a powered metal suit to become Iron-Man, the most high-tech super hero. Tony Stark doesn't have any super-powers but his suit has many weapons like rockets. Wearing the suit means that he can fly and have super-strength.

4. Wonder Woman

Diana Prince is Wonder woman, and is a Princess. She has the skills of flight, incredible strength, speed, wisdom, and beauty. Her weapons include the Lasso of Truth, a pair of indestructible bracelets, and a tiara to throw at her enemies.

3. Wolverine

Wolverine is a mutant and his weapons are his super claws. Wolverine can get better from nearly any wound given enough time. Sometimes Wolverine can be bad, which means he can be called an anti-hero or a rebel.



2. Spider Man

High school student Peter Parker is Spider man. One day peter was bitten by a radioactive spider and gained incredible superhuman powers. Spider man is a very good superhero and always tries to use his powers to help people. Spider man has many powers including the ability to make super-strong spider-webs, speed, superhuman strength, and powerful senses like eyesight and hearing.

1. Batman

After seeing the murder of his parents as a child, young Bruce Wayne decides to spend his life protecting the citizens of Gotham City from criminals. Batman is for many the number one superhero because he has no special powers, but he uses his intelligence, science, technology, a strong mind, special weapons and martial arts.

Questions

1. Which superheroes do not have super-powers?
2. Which superheroes have weapons?
3. Which superheroes use animals for their costume?
4. Which superhero has become a little less popular recently?
5. Which Hero is an anti-hero sometimes?
6. Who is the most high-tech superhero?
7. Who is your favorite superhero? _____

Why? _____

_____

8. Draw and describe your own superhero.

Name: _____

Super powers: _____

Weapons: _____

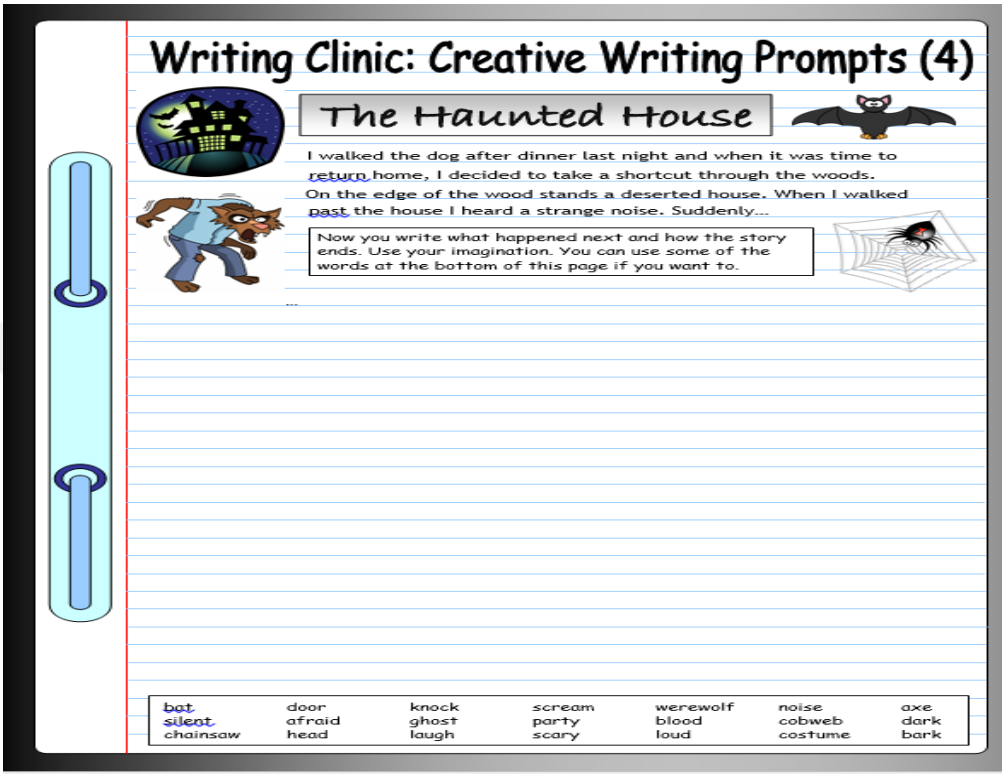
Other things about their life: _____

_____

Task Activity 3:

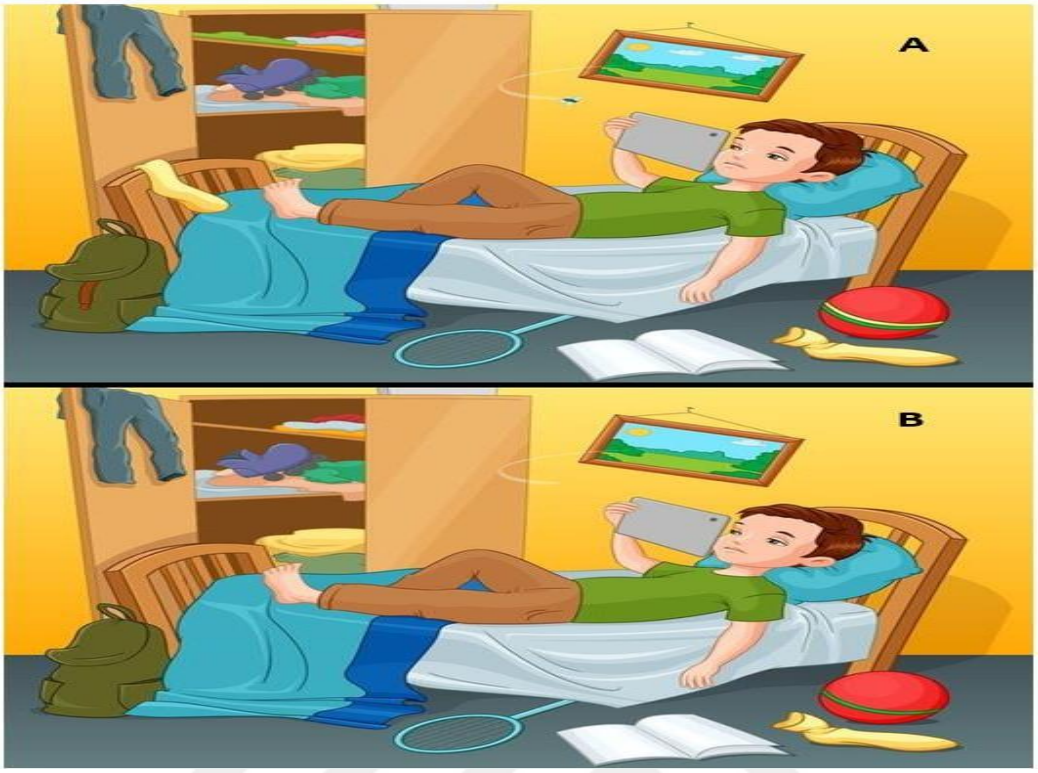
The third task was a writing activity which required the students to complete an unfinished story using some words at the bottom of the handout if necessary. This task was designed solely as an open task activity since it required the students use their imagination in order to complete the story.

For this very reason, students were provided with a total class hour in order to complete the task. Written tasks in pairs or small groups may be useful in promoting both collaborative dialogue in the MT and the creation of text in the TL (Swain and Lapkin: op. cit.)".



Task Activity 4:

The last task was wholly a close type activity which demanded the pairs to spot six differences between the pictures. Spot the difference task was chosen as a tool for data collection in line with studies from the related literature (e.g., Crookes & Rulon, 1988; Long, 1981) has widely used this type of tasks in order to gather authentic data. Students were asked to work in pairs collaboratively and find six differences between Picture A and Picture B in 20 minutes.



3.6. DATA ANALYSIS

As for analyzing the qualitative data obtained from observation and interviews, inductive content analysis was used. Data obtained from observations and stimulated recall interviews were transcribed separately. Several codes were appointed to correspond for participants such as ‘T (Teacher) and S1 (Student 1)’. While implementing this step, descriptive notes were taken and general reflections were documented.

In accordance with stimulated recall methodology, the students and the teacher listened to the segments where they translanguaged and they were asked the reason why they chose either language. Their reasons were gathered in the light of their answers and content analysis was carried out in the light

of procedures defined by Creswell (2014, pp.197-200). He summarizes the content analysis procedure as follows:

1. Organize and prepare the data for analysis
2. Read or look at all the data
3. Start coding all of the data
4. Use the coding process to generate a description of the setting or people as well as categories or themes for analysis.
5. Advance how the description and themes will be represented in the qualitative narrative
6. Make an interpretation in qualitative research of the findings or results.

After content analysis, codes were generated for each translanguaging explanation. The findings were categorized under themes derived from gathered data according to the research questions and literature review. With the help of these codes, the most frequent translanguaging rationales were documented. A table demonstrating all the codes generated in relation to participants' answers was presented at the end of findings section.

This chapter has given information regarding the methodology of the present study. It was about the design of the study, participants and context of the study, data collection instruments, and data analysis methods. The next chapter covers findings obtained from students via audio recordings, interviews, and task implementation.

CHAPTER IV

4. RESULTS

The recordings were analyzed in the light of research questions and translanguaging instances were identified. These instances were presented under three subheadings in parallel to the questions.

4.1. FINDINGS RELATED TO RESEARCH QUESTION 1

4.1.1. Reasons for Student Translanguaging

Regarding the related literature and the data, five codes were generated for students' translanguaging reasons. These codes were termed as scaffolding, task management, lexical difficulty, phatics, and grammar deliberations and sample excerpts which depicted each code were presented in the ensuing lines.

Table 5. Codes Generated for Translanguaging Instances

Codes for Translanguaging Instances	Total Turns
Scaffolding	184
Task Management	147
Lexical Difficulty	98
Phatics	89
Grammar Deliberations	17

The most observed reason why the students translanguaged was to help each other in coping with a number of difficulties such as coming up with the correct written form a word and finding the exact word to express a situation or feeling in the target language. When they noticed that a peer experienced such difficulty, the other pair was noted to use L1 for their pairs. When the translanguaging students were asked about the reason for these translations in the stimulated recall sessions, they stated that they wanted to scaffold their peers in order to accomplish the tasks.

Scaffolding

Excerpt 1.

06	S2	He is mechanic.
07	S1	Tamam [Tr. Ok]. Mechanic nasıl yazılıyor [Tr. how is mechanic written]?
08	S2	Bak burda var [Tr. look here it is].
09	S1	Tamam yazdım [Tr. Ok. I wrote].

Excerpt 2.

14	S2	He is Italian.
15	S1	Bu da zor yazılıyor [Tr. It is also hard to write]. Bakabilir miyim [Tr. May I have a look]?
16	S2	Tamam [Tr. Ok].

In the excerpts 1 and 2, students were reported to use L1 assisting one another which is collaborative scaffolding that is created by members of a group. Excerpt 1 belonged to Task 1 which was a part of the close type activity requiring the students to fill in the missing information by asking each other questions. S1 was observed to have difficulty in writing the word

mechanic in the Line 06 and expressed his need of help by translanguaging. S2 was also noted to translanguage in order to afford assistance to her pair. Excerpt 2 was also taken from the same section of the same task. Here, S1 was seen having difficulty in spelling the word *Italian* in the Line 15. The student was noticed to translanguage to ask for help from his pair. Besides, the other student was noticed to provide scaffolding by translanguaging similar to his pair. In sum, both excerpts present instances where one of the pairs had difficulty in spelling. These students were identified to translanguage in order to ask for help related to how to write the words they had confusion about; and the other pair was observed to provide the necessary assistance by translanguaging, too.

Excerpt 3.

90	S1	My superhero has special costumes. He wears a dark costume. He has a sword like a ninja. He is good at fighting.
91	S2	Fighting değil de passage'da Batman kısmında vardı bir kelime [Tr. there was a word in the Batman part of the passage, not fighting.]
92	S1	Martial arts doğru diyosun [Tr. Martial arts, you're right]. He is good at martial arts.

In the excerpt 3, students were accomplishing the open type task activity of the Task 2, which was a writing activity requiring them to describe their own superhero. S1 was seen to tell their imaginary superhero. However, S2 provides a different expression based on the text in order to help their pair to be able to complete the part in the Line 91 and they were seen to negotiate about their search over a better expression. In summary, students were found to translanguage in order to afford assistance to each other which showed itself in negotiating knowledge and comprehension of the text. Overall, it is concluded that students were detected to assist each other by translanguaging mostly to discuss punctuation, spelling and pronunciation.

Excerpt 4.

141	S2	When I yaklaşmak neydi ya [Tr. What is 'yaklaşmak'?].
142	S1	Dur yazmıştım ben onu. [Tr. Wait, I had written it]. Bir dakika, bir dakika, dur. Yazmıştım ben [Tr. Just a minute, just a minute. I had written it]. Dur bakalım doğru okuyacak mıyım approach [wrong pronunciation] [Tr. Let's see if I can pronounce it correctly].
143	S2	Approach [correction]. Approach yaklaşmak.
144	S1	Hatırladın değil mi? [Tr. You remembered, right?].
145	S2	Evet. [Tr. Yes].

Student in the Excerpt 4 were noted to translanguage in order to scaffold each other because of a lexical problem by one of the pairs. In the line 141 S1 was seen to have difficulty in finding the word 'approach' in TL and S2 chose to translanguage in order to help her pair. Despite the fact that she provided the exact word with wrong pronunciation, scaffolding by translanguaging helped the other student in recalling the word and continuing the task as seen in the line 143.

The students were also recorded to translanguage to ascertain the flow of the task where they negotiated about the planning and organization of the tasks. They were documented to benefit from translanguaging in order to direct and monitor the tasks.

Task Management Excerpt 5.

37	S2	Şimdi Part A bitti [Tr. Now, Part A is over]. Sıra Part B deki Table'ı tamamlamada [Tr. It's time to complete the Table in Part B].
38	S1	Ok. O zaman let's start [Tr. Then let's start.]

Excerpt 6.

01	S2	Tamam başlıyoruz. John'dan başlıyoruz. Sen 1. kişisin; ben 2. kişiyim. [Tr. Ok. We start with John. You're the first person and I'm the second].
02	S1	Tamam. [Tr. Ok.].
03	S2	Tamam başla o zaman. [Tr. Ok. Then, start].

These excerpts presents monitoring function of translanguaging in the task implementation process. In the Excerpt 5, students were seen to accomplish the first part of the activity and one pair gives directions to the other for moving along to the next part in the Line 37 and the other pair was observed to accept to proceed by translanguaging. The Excerpt 6 presents an instance where pairs conversed about how to organize the flow of the task. They were seen task sharing in the Line 01 about who is going to be responsible for which part at the very beginning of Task 1 which was an information gap task.

Excerpt 7.

121	S1	Bunda napacaktık şimdi? Bunda hikayeyi tamalıyorduk değil mi [Tr. What are we going to do here? We would complete the story, right]?
122	S2	Evet. Ben bi okuyayım mı [Tr. Ok. Shall I read]?
123	S1	Hadi oku. Sen oku [Tr. Ok. Read].
124	S2	Diyor ki burda "Now…[reading the direction] [Tr. It says...]
125	S1	O zaman başlayayım mı? Ben başlayayım mı? [Tr. Then, shall I start?]
126	S2	Evet, evet. [Tr. Yes.]
127	S1	Bu kelimeleri kullanarak devam ettireceğim. [Tr. I will complete by using these words.]
128	S2	Bu aşağıdaki kelimeleri kullanarak hikayeyi biz tamamlayacağız. [Tr. We are going to complete the story by using the words below.]
129	S1	Tamam. Hadi bakalım. O zaman ben başlıyorum. [Tr. Ok. Then, I start.]

Excerpt 7 provided student translanguaging turns with the aim of sharing task duties and organizing the flow of the task. Students were noted to have passed to the Task 3 which was an open task requiring text completion. S1 was observed to ask how to deal with the task to her pair in MT and he, then, was coded to explain the task requirements by translanguaging, too. The only moment where students used TL was when S2 was reading the directions of the task. Apart from that moment, the pair was determined to organize the task and do the task- sharing by translanguaging.

Students were identified to translanguage frequently when they encountered lexical difficulty. In accomplishing the task, if they could not

recall the equivalence of a word in the TL, they were found to switch to their L1. During the stimulated recall sessions, they stated that this switch was an automatic move for them when they come across with such lexical difficulties. These difficulties were documented mostly while they were trying to find the equivalence of a number, which was continually necessary in Task 1, in the target language.

Lexical Difficulty

Excerpt 8.

04	S2	How old is John?
05	S1	He is (+++) şeyyy altmış neydi [Tr. what was 'altmış']?
06	S2	Hımmm (++). Sanki sixty gibi bişeydi. [Tr. I think it was something like sixty].

Excerpt 9.

86	S2	My favorite is Spider Man because he is very (+++) zeki neydi [Tr. What is 'zeki']?
87	S1	Smart ya da intelligent olur sanki [Tr. I think smart or intelligent will be fine].

Excerpt 10.

99	S2	When I (++) yaklaşmak neydi ya [Tr. what was 'yaklaşmak']?
100	S1	Dur yazmıştım ben [Tr. wait. I had written it]. (++++) Hıh buldum approach. [Tr. Ok. I found approach].

Excerpt 11.

104	S1	There is a fermuar neydi [Tr. what is 'fermuar']?
105	S2	Zip olması lazım [Tr. It must be zip].

In the excerpts presented, students were documented to employ their shared L1 for word searches and choice. All the students in the excerpts were noticed to translanguage to ask for help and offer help to their pairs when they encounter lexical difficulty. When one of the pairs could not come up with the necessary corresponding word in the TL, they were observed to ask for and provide assistance via translanguaging. In the Excerpt 8, S2 had difficulty in recalling the number sixty and expressed this by translanguaging in the line 05. Her pair alike provided the answer via translanguaging. In the Excerpt 9, 10, and 11 the same difficulty was shared by all the students, which was finding the exact word to complete the related part of the task. All these students were observed to articulate the obstacle translanguaging. In the same way, it was clearly remarked that the other pairs translanguaged to overcome these obstacles. To conclude, translanguaging aided students with their confusions or impasses related to word searches or choices and students were seen to benefit from translanguaging for the benefit of completing the task and ensuring long-term learning.

Phatics is another determined use of translanguaging where students used expressions to build and maintain interaction such as 'Ok', 'well', 'yes', or 'all right'.

Phatics

Excerpt 12.

35	S2	Where is she from?
36	S1	Paris.
37	S2	Tamaaam [Tr. Ok]. What is her nationality?

Excerpt 13.

04	S1	How old is John?
05	S2	He is şeyyy altmış neydi [Tr. what is 60]?
06	S1	Hımmm. (+++) Sanki sixty gibi bişeydi [Tr.I think it is sixty].
07	S2	Tamam o zaman [Tr. All right]. He is sixty-two.

It was noticed that when one of the pairs used such expressions by resorting to translanguaging, they both continued to accomplish the task. In the Excerpt 11, S1 received this kind of an expression and was noted to pass on asking the next question to her pair in the line 37. In the Excerpt 12, S2 was seen to have a lexical difficulty and asked for help by translanguaging. Her pair was also observed to translanguage to afford assistance to his pair. S2 was witnessed to have built up her answer upon getting such an expression in the line 07. Therefore, these expressions were recognized to contribute to the flow of the tasks' implementation process and provide feedback for the pairs. Having received such an utterance, pairs were observed to carry on the task.

Excerpt 14.

150	S1	Tamam güzel. Bunu da yaptık. Şimdi iki resim arasındaki farkı bulacaktık değil mi burda? [Tr. Ok, fine. We have completed it, too. Now, we were supposed to find the differences between the two pictures, right?].
151	S2	Evet. Spot the differences. [Tr. Yes.].

In the excerpt 14, students were identified to have completed the Task 3 and one of the pairs signaled this by using phatic function in the line 150. In line 151, the other pair was seen to translanguage similar to his pair when employing a phatic expression and was noticed to pass on the next task.

A different moment at which students translanguaged was documented in their negotiations related to grammar deliberations. Most of the students used the TL while they were in interaction with each other through the task implementation process. However, they were noted to resort to Turkish while in discourse with each other at the moments especially when they commented about the grammar structures.

Grammar Deliberations

Excerpt 15.

26	S2	She is a secretary. Aaa bak az önce mechanic dedim. A mechanic demeliydim [Tr. I said mechanic before. I should have said a mechanic]
27	S1	Evet aynen (+) neyse [Tr. Yes, anyway.]

In this excerpt, S2 was noted to realize a grammar mistake she had done in the previous section of the same task activity and to discuss about that mistake with her pair by translanguaging.

Excerpt 16.

51	S2	What does she likes?
52	S1	Listening to music. Likes olmaz ama, (+) like. [Tr. not ‘likes’, ‘like’.]

Excerpt 17.

62	S1	He is from English.
63	S2	He is English, from olmaz. [Tr. not with 'from'.]

Excerpts 16 and 17 exhibit moments where students negotiated about the form. In these conversations, one of the pairs were seen to use a grammar structure incorrectly and the other pair was remarked to provide their pairs with the correct form of that structure by using translanguaging. To summarize, translanguaging was documented to help students in their interactions about grammar forms and overcoming difficulties related to form in order to carry out the task without making grammar mistakes and assisting their pairs with long-term learning.

4.2. FINDINGS RELATED TO RESEARCH QUESTION 2

4.2.1. Benefits of Translanguaging in the Classroom Environment

The necessary data was obtained with the help of stimulated recall interviews with six volunteer students. Students listened to the segments where they translanguaged and they were asked why they preferred to switch another language which was related to the first research question of the study and what benefit they attained by translanguaging in the classroom environment in search for the second research question of the study. Stimulated Recall protocols were carried out in their L1 to be able to create a peaceful atmosphere.

Table 6. Benefits of Translanguaging

Benefits of Translanguaging
• Translanguaging helped them to better understand and complete the tasks
• It assisted long term learning with dual-language processing
• Translanguaging provided them a safe space where they could use flexible language strategies

The most frequent claim by students as a result of the interviews was found to be that translanguaging helped them to better understand and complete the tasks. They pointed that they could not finish some of the activities if they were demanded to use English only. Besides, they stated that using translanguaging pedagogy provided them with assistance in accomplishing the tasks.

Translanguaging helped them to better understand and complete the tasks

Excerpt 18.

03	T	Neden burda Türkçe kullanma gereği hissettin? [Tr. Why did you use Turkish here?].
04	S3	Yaniii, hocam verdiğiniz kağıdı bitirebilmek için [Tr. Well, teacher, to be able to finish the task we were given]. Böyle daha hızlı bitti [Tr. We finished it faster this way]. Sadece İngilizce kullanmaya çalışsak, hem çok zorlanacaktık hem de daha geç bitecekti [Tr. If we tried to use English only, we would not only struggle more, but also finish it later].

Excerpt 19.

03	T	Neden burda Türkçe kullanma gereği hissettin? [Tr. Why did you use Turkish here?].
04	S1	Yani hep İngilizce kullanmak için kassak, bitmezdi ki [Tr. Well, if we were forced to use English only, we could not finish it]. Arada zorlanınca Türkçe kullanarak bitirebildik. Ama zorla olunca olmazdı bence [Tr. We could finish by using Turkish when we had difficulty. But if we were compelled, I think we could not finish it].

What's more, another aspect related to benefits of translanguaging in the classroom was documented to be that it assisted long term learning with dual-language processing. Students explained this aspect such that they were able to comprehend content knowledge adequately enough to finish the tasks and also to develop their L2 knowledge, especially in complex task- talk activities.

Translanguaging assisted long term learning with dual-language processing

Excerpt 20.

03	T	Neden burda Türkçe kullanma gereği hissettin? [Tr. Why did you use Turkish here?].
04	S2	Genelde hikayeyi tamamlarken gerekli kelimelerde tıkandık. Ama kelimeyi bulunca yine İngilizce'ye döndük. [Tr. We were stuck with the necessary words while completing the story but we switched to English when we found them.]
05	T	Peki bunu neden Türkçe söyledin? [Tr. Well, why did you say it in Turkish?]
06	S2	İngilizcesini bilmiyordum çünkü [Tr. because I did not know it in English]. Ama arkadaş söyleyince öğrendim artık unutmam [Tr. but my friend told it to me; I won't forget it anymore].

Excerpt 21.

03	T	Neden burda Türkçe kullanma gereği hissettin? [Tr. Why did you use Turkish here?]
04	S6	Daha önce mesleği söylerken ‘a’ kullanmadığımı farkettim onun için [Tr. because I realized I did not use ‘a’ when telling the occupation previously].
05	T	Peki bunu neden Türkçe söyledin? [Tr. Well, why did you say it in Turkish?]
06	S6	İngilizce söyleyemezdim ki [Tr. I could not tell it in English]. Hem kuralı ikimiz de daha iyi hatırladık böylece [Tr. Besides, both of us could recall the rule better this way].

Excerpt 22.

03	T	Neden burda Türkçe kullanma gereği hissettin? [Tr. Why did you use Turkish here?]
04	S5	Şeyyy, burda kelimeyi bulamadım; arkadaşa sordum [Tr.Well, I could not remember the exact word here and asked to my friend]. O da biliyordu böylece ben de öğrendim onun sayesinde [Tr. He knew it; so, I learnt thanks to him]. Kendim açıp baksam unuturdum bence böyle daha kalıcı da oldu nerde kullandığımı bildim sonuçta [Tr. If I looked it up on my own, I think I would forget it. This way it also became more permanent. I learnt where to use it consequently].

Moreover, some of the students demanded that translanguaging provided them a safe space where they could use flexible language strategies. They continued that this granted them the production of social and pedagogic values and goals since their identity and culture were welcomed in the classroom environment. They stressed the fact that translanguaging created a comfortable atmosphere in classroom context.

Translanguaging provided them a safe space where they could use flexible language strategies

Excerpt 23.

03	T	Neden burda Türkçe kullanma gereği hissettin? [Tr. Why did you use Turkish here?]
04	S4	Neden Türkçe kullandım? [Tr. Why did I use Turkish?] Yani, daha rahat hissettim kendimi. [Tr. Well, I felt more comfortable]. Bir de hoca da sadece İngilizce kullanın; işte ne biliyim, Türkçe yasak demedi ki [Tr. Besides, the teacher did not say just to use English; I mean, not to use Turkish]. O sorun yapmıyor Türkçe kullanmamızı ne yaptığımızı anlayalım yeter bence [Tr. He doesn't mind that we use Turkish. I think it is fine as long as we comprehend what we are dealing with].

4.3. FINDINGS RELATED TO RESEARCH QUESTION 3

4.3.1. Difference between Open and Close Task Activities In Terms of Translanguaging Frequency

Students were handed out four tasks during the treatment. Two of the tasks included both open and close task type activities; and the rest two activities were either solely open or close type. Therefore, the students were given three open and three close type activities. As stated before, in result of the transcriptions, codes were generated for translanguaging instances. All pairs in the study were recorded to have produced 1227 turns in total of which 664 turns were coded as turns in TL and the rest as translanguaging turns (45.88%). Table 7 presents the number of turns which include translanguaging instances across all four tasks in such a comprehensive way that also emphasizes dual type tasks in separation.

Table 7. Differences Across Open and Close Task Activities in terms of Codes

TASK	JIGSAW TASK		INFORMATION GAP TASK		TEXT EDITING TASK	SPOT THE DIFFERENCE TASK
CODE	OPEN	CLOSE	OPEN	CLOSE	OPEN	CLOSE
Lexical Difficulty	5	51	15	4	17	11
Scaffolding	11	117	8	31	12	16
Task Management	4	49	6	33	44	15
Phatics	9	53	2	9	7	17
Grammar Deliberations	1	16	0	0	0	0
	30	286	31	77	80	59
TOTAL	316		108		80	59

In Table 7, Task 1 was seen to have produced the most translanguaging turns in terms of all the codes generated previously for student translanguaging instances (56.12%). In addition, close type activity of Task 1 was determined to include most of the translanguaging turns across all types. The most encountered translanguaging reason was determined to be for scaffolding (40.91%) and phatics function (18.53%), lexical difficulty (17.83%), task management (17.13%), and grammar deliberations (5.60%) respectively. Close type activity of the Task 2 was observed to generate more translanguaging instances compared to its open type activity. The most documented translanguaging reason was for task management (n=33 turns) in the close type activity; and lexical difficulty (n=15) in the open type activity. Open task activity was noted to produce the most translanguaging turns regarding lexical difficulty, and scaffolding and task management in order. In the close type activity of Task 2, translanguaging for scaffolding was noted to be very close in frequency (n=31 turns) to the most recurrent reason which was task management. Besides, it was documented that open and close type activities of Task 2 included 10.18% of all turns for phatics

function. Nevertheless, either types didn't generate any translanguaging instances regarding the code grammar deliberations. Moreover, the only code that open type activity generated more translanguaging turns compared to close type of the same task by students was noted to be for lexical difficulty. The Task 3 was wholly an open task type activity and was documented to produce the most translanguaging turns in terms of task management followed by lexical difficulty, scaffolding and phatics function. This task was documented to generate no instances of translanguaging related to grammar deliberations as Task 2. Task 4 was a close type spot the difference activity and was seen to have generated the least translanguaging turns in comparison to the other activities (10.47%), the most recurring of all being for phatics function, scaffolding, task management and lexical difficulty in order. This task alike was seen to have produced no instances of translanguaging regarding the code grammar deliberations.

Table 8. Differences in Translanguaging Instances in terms of Task Type

CODE	OPEN	CLOSE	TOTAL
Lexical Difficulty	37	66	103
Scaffolding	31	164	195
Task Management	54	97	151
Phatics	18	79	97
Grammar Deliberations	1	16	17
Total	141	422	563

The transcribed data was also analyzed in terms of task types in relation to translanguaging frequency. Open type activities were recognized to yield the most translanguaging turns for the task management code (n=54); and lexical difficulty and scaffolding being very close in the total turns documented. Phatics was remarked as being one of the two least recurrent codes (n=18) along with grammar deliberations (n=1). Close type activities

were remarked to have revealed the most translanguaging instances for scaffolding (n=164). A significant difference was realized across the codes' total frequency as open type activities have included 25% and close type activities 75% of all codes which was presented in the table. The second most iterative code for translanguaging instances was recorded to be for task management (n=97) and phatics (n=79), lexical difficulty (n=66), and grammar deliberations (n=16) following. As a result of the analysis, close type task activities were determined to have produced more translanguaging turns as presented in Table 8. Open type task activities were documented to have generated less translanguaging instances under all codes.

CHAPTER V

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter was aimed to provide a general overview of the current study, discussion of the findings in the light of research questions, and implications and recommendations for further research.

5.2. GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The past two decades have brought together new perspectives regarding the modification of communicative language teaching to task-based teaching activities and also of monoglossic understandings to flexible language pedagogies in language acquisition (Brooks & Donato, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Bygate & Samuda 2005; Robinson 2011; Skehan, Bei, Li & Wang, 2012).

On pedagogical grounds, task-based activities have been proven to affect students' participation and confidence positively, and offer them with more opportunities to use L2 (Lopes, 2004; Tinker Sachs, 2007; Bao & Du, 2015). In spite of advantages of task-based activities, research has proven that teachers are reluctant to adapt them mainly with lower- level proficiency learners because these learners exhibit extensive L1 use and off-task talk in the course of implementing tasks (Li, 1998; Seedhouse, 1999; Bruton, 2005; Carless, 2008). L1 use sustains to be controversial taking into consideration

that using task-based activities improves L2 practice. As a consequence, interfering with L1 use has been perceived as the most useful action during task implementation, in spite the fact that some researchers have favored its authenticity as a beneficial tool in foreign language acquisition (Cook, 2001; Butzkamm, 2003). Nevertheless, current research has posited a new perspective on L1 use, viewing it as a productive means in L2 acquisition. Research in this area has proven that L1 use improves cognitive support with which learners analyze the target language, create a collaborative understanding, and bring out ways to accomplish tasks (Brooks & Donato, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Antón & DiCamilla, 1998).

The use of translanguaging in the classroom environment has particular properties. It is about a distinct pedagogical theory and practice during which the language of input and output may vary with dual-language processing. In other words, a course may begin in one language and continue in another because long term learning, which is related to language development, cognitive development, and content knowledge, may take place if both languages are activated (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). Therefore, the use of translanguaging in the classroom has challenged the monolingual belief in education which favors the language separation and has brought about some advantages. Teachers and students make use of their linguistic repertoires in a flexible pedagogy. This approach grants the learners a space for the production of social, identity, and pedagogic values and goals as also proposed by Palmer, Mateus, Martinez, and Henderson (2014).

5.3. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS IN REFERENCE TO RESEARCH QUESTION 1

Reasons for translanguaging on the part of the students

Students were documented to use tanslanguaging practices, as presented in Table 5, most frequently for scaffolding, task management, lexical

difficulty, phatics, and grammar deliberations respectively.

In line with Socio-cultural theory, language assists the expert to direct the novice's attention, to elaborate the directions for a task, and to provide help that is exquisitely adapted to the novice's needs. These mentioned roles of the language are termed as scaffolding in the related literature; and research on group or pair work, especially in adult L2 learning settings has demonstrated that scaffolding can be collective (Donato, 1994) as presented with the help of the excerpts in the current study. To exemplify, in assisting each other during the implementation of tasks, especially in the excerpts 1 and 2 presented, students were reported to use L1 for collaborative scaffolding, which means scaffolding can be allotted or created by members of the group (Storch & Aldosari, 2010).

In the present study, students were detected to assist each other by translanguaging mostly to discuss punctuation, spelling and pronunciation as proposed by Storch and Aldosari (2010) as 'mechanics deliberations'. Moreover, in the excerpt 4, students were found to translanguage as stated by Anton and DiCamilla (1998) in order to afford assistance to each other which manifested itself in negotiating metalinguistic knowledge and judging and comprehending the meaning of the text. This finding of the current study is also in line with Swain and Lapkin (2000) study where students were noted to resort to L1 to negotiate L2 linguistic knowledge which was labelled as 'focusing attention'.

The students were also recorded to translanguage to ascertain "moving the task along" (Swain & Lapkin, 2000, p.8) with the help of which initiating and maintaining planning, organization and monitoring of the task are accomplished. This finding of the present study is also in compliance with Azkarai and Garcia Mayo (2015) study which documented L1 being used to negotiate and direct the task. This strategy was termed as metacognitive talk

where apart from the above mentioned purposes, L1 served for setting goals and checking comprehension.

Excerpts 5, 6 and 7 presents monitoring function of translanguaging in the task implementation process. Students were seen to accomplish the first part of the activity and one pair gives directions to the other for moving along to the next part. Research in this field has demonstrated that L1 use renders cognitive reinforcement with the help of which students examine the target language, build up a collaborative understanding, and develop ways to complete tasks (Brooks & Donato, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Antón & DiCamilla, 1998).

The Excerpt 3 between the pairs presents negotiating and directing the writing activity (Storch & Aldosari, 2010) where pairs converse about a better suitable expression in the accomplishment of writing task, generate and comment on ideas generated, especially in writing tasks. Besides, Bao and Du (2015) stated that this metacognitive talk in L1 tailors students to develop authority over the language and tasks, as a consequence, they evolve into self-regulated via verbal commitment in this meaning making process. An example of which was presented in Excerpt 6, where students converse about the organization of the Task 1. In the Excerpt 5 and 6, S1was seen to monitor the task and do the task-sharing; nevertheless, in the Excerpt 7, as a result of previous negotiations with his pair, S2 was observed to give the directions and plan the task organization.

To exemplify lexical difficulty, deliberations over vocabulary are instances where students employ their L1 to negotiate about word/sentence meaning, word searches, and word choice. A word search can be introduced by an interactant, in this study by a student, via a concrete search for a construct, which is later on accompanied with (or without) an orientation by the companion (Duran et. al., 2019). In the excerpts presented for lexical

difficulty, students were seen to indicate a breakdown preventing them to continue the task at hand since one of the pairs had obstacle in producing an appropriate lexical item. These moments, as pointed by Siegel (2016), in CA terms, were characterized as word searches indicating a particular type of repair which displays moments where an interactant encounters a problem in generating a proper linguistic item.

What's more, excerpts related to lexical difficulty and how the students overcame these breakdowns demonstrated how switching to L1 helped the students with coming up with unknown words, explaining and negotiating about these words, and examining them. With this switch, as proposed by Mackey and Goo (2007), students benefited from their linguistic resources, developed their comprehension of current knowledge, and realized the gaps in their existing knowledge and the target language.

Besides, in confirmation with Greer (2008) and Mori and Hasegawa (2009), switches between languages were encountered upon encounters with lexical difficulties. These switches, translanguaging turns in this study, disclosed alterations in students' preference of interaction as a bilingual resource. As such, the students were documented to employ their shared L1 in deliberations over word searches and word choice (Storch & Aldosari, 2010) and were detected employing their mother tongue and regarded it as a profitable help in the cases where their L2 proficiency is limited as proposed by Nagy (2018).

Phatics is another determined use of translanguaging where students used expressions to build and maintain interaction such as 'Ok', 'well', 'yes', or 'all right'. In the current study, the most frequent and only turns included phatic expressions were determined in the Task 1 which was a combination of open and close type task activity and also required students to speak and also write in L2. This finding of the study had similarity with Azkarai and Garcia Mayo (2015) who demonstrated that phatic expressions were

significantly more recurrent in speaking + writing tasks. The participant students were noted to resort to phatic expressions to maintain, sustain, or end up the interaction (Jakobson, 1995) for the sake of accomplishing the task. As also stated by Pica et al. (1993, p.11) “language learning is assisted through the social interaction of students and their interlocutors, particularly when they negotiate toward mutual comprehension of each other's message meaning”.

A different moment at which students translanguaged was documented in their negotiations related to grammar deliberations. Most of the students used the TL while they were in interaction with each other through the task implementation process. However, they were noted to resort to Turkish while in discourse with each other at the moments especially when they commented about the grammar structures. In the Excerpt 15, S2 was seen to detect her own mistake and this LRE presented as pointed by Swain and Lapkin (1995), enquired her language use and self-corrected her language production. Excerpts 16 and 17 showed instances where these corrections were provided by a co-participant, the other pair in this study; thus, these form-based (Swain & Lapkin, 2002) LREs demonstrated other-correction (Swain and Lapkin, 1995) turns for grammar deliberations over the task at hand. Translanguaging for negotiations over grammar strategy was in line with De la Colina and García Mayo (2009) findings suggesting that students use their L1 for meta-talk where they discuss the form and Storch and Aldosari (2010) findings which proposed that major L1 turns were documented for grammar deliberations about morphosyntax and text structure.

5.4. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS IN REFERENCE TO RESEARCH QUESTION 2

What are the benefits of translanguaging in the classroom environment?

The most frequent claim by students as a result of the interviews was found to be that translanguaging helped them to better understand and

complete the tasks. They pointed that they could not finish some of the activities if they were demanded to use English only. As stated by Antón and DiCamilla (1998) who investigated L1 use in collaborative tasks and demonstrated that L1 functioned as a pivotal psychological means to afford learners scaffolded assistance, develop and sustain intersubjectivity (Rommetveit, 1985). Besides, in line with students' claims in the current study, the researcher suggested that L1 use in collaborative tasks helped learners to stay on the task and accomplish it in L2. What's more, Azkarai and Garcia Mayo (2015) demonstrated that collaborative tasks stimulate learners to act together and in doing so, they generate knowledge with the help of collaborative dialogue described by Swain (2000, p. 102) as "dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building".

Besides, another aspect related to benefits of translanguaging in the classroom was documented to be that it assisted long term learning with dual-language processing. Students explained this aspect such that they were able to comprehend content knowledge adequately enough to finish the tasks and also to develop their L2 knowledge with the help of scaffolded assistance and feedback they receive from their pairs. This function of translanguaging is in compliance with Duarte (2019) who investigated speech acts and concluded that translanguaging practices were determined in cognitively complex task-talk activities and that students used translanguaging to demonstrate their ideas in a plain way and to formulate new knowledge. Tognini and Oliver (2012) stated that, the feedback learners give each other as part of the interaction stimulates them to notice the difference between their interlanguage and the target language an example of which was noticed in Excerpt 15 where the student realized a previous mistake of her own and uttered the appropriate grammar form in the task at hand. Similarly, Swain (1995; 2005) demonstrated that this feedback pushed learners to make their output more precise, coherent, and appropriate.

Moreover, some of the students demanded that translanguaging provided them a safe space where they could use flexible language strategies as also stated by Baker (2011) such that translanguaging supplies learners with a safe space where they can utilize all their linguistic capabilities and allows for better content comprehension, enhances acquisition, and invests in home-school links. They continued that this granted them the production of social and pedagogic values and goals since their identity and culture were welcomed in the classroom environment. This finding is similar to the function that Carless (2008) concluded by examining mother tongue (MT) use in task-based classroom. Pointed previously, he expressed that MT use can be perceived as being a learner-centered strategy since it created a safe space for student learning. In similarity, Martin-Beltran (2014) concluded that student- directed translanguaging strategies assisted them work in harmony and collaboration with their classmates and teachers as the pedagogical benefit of translanguaging to provide a safe instructional environment. Additionally, students' claims were in consistency with Garcia's (2009) propositions that translanguaging liberates learners from coping with sociolinguistic matters such as language power and identity, which, as the researchers suggested, affect the performance of speakers in monolingual classroom settings.

In the current study the participant teacher also mentioned that "It is beneficial to create a safe space in which translanguaging is permitted especially when introducing new vocabulary and exploring their own background knowledge, brainstorming during class activities, preventing communication breakdowns and making the content more comprehensible for them." As can be observed from the statements translanguaging serves for the accomplishment of educational goals and it facilitates language teaching and learning in an effective way (Garcia & Wei, 2014).

5.5. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS IN REFERENCE TO RESEARCH QUESTION 3

Is there a significant difference in the translanguaging frequency according to the task type?

Research on the topic has shown that "different task-modality triggers different learning opportunities with collaborative speaking tasks drawing learners' attention to meaning and tasks that also incorporate a written component drawing attention more to formal linguistic aspects." (Azkarai & Mayo, 2015, p.1). To exemplify, according to Pica et. al. (1993) a jigsaw task was regarded to produce negotiation for meaning most likely since every one of the participants has some, not the whole information required to complete the task. Nevertheless, tasks that necessitate the learners to focus on meaning, thus including a writing component, have been proposed to draw the attention to formal aspects of language (Storch, 2005).

It's beneficial to point as a reflection for the first and third tasks of the current study that De la Colina and García Mayo (2009) noted that in the jigsaw task (Task 1 in the current study), students concentrated more on vocabulary searches than in the text reconstruction task (Task 3 in the current study). Besides, in the second and third tasks, which were writing tasks, translanguaging was noted to be employed most frequently for task management and lexical difficulty. This finding is in conformity with Storch and Aldosari (2010) that L1 was mostly used for task management and vocabulary deliberations. In the fourth task which was a spot the difference task, translanguaging turns for lexical difficulty was recorded to include 18.64 % of all the translanguaging turns among the close tasks as stated by Azkarai and Garcia Mayo (2015) vocabulary searches being recurrent in speaking tasks. In addition, task management and scaffolding codes for student translanguaging were observed being the most recurrent reasons of translanguaging turns (26.82% and 34.64% respectively). The reason behind

this finding of the study was interpreted as tasks necessitated students to work in collaboration, in doing so, they enquired each other about how to carry out the task, focusing their attention on completing the tasks. According to Swain and Lapkin (2001), this work guided the students to analyze their own language use when they come up with problems. The researchers suggested that the students revived "conscious attention gaps" (p.110) in their cognition and figured out reasonable explanations via hypothesis formation and testing, depending on their collective linguistic resources.

Overall, the study concluded that close task activities generated more translanguaging turns (75%) when compared to open type tasks (25%). This finding is in opposition to Carless (2008) which put forward that the more open ended a task is, the more likely it promotes mother tongue use. The underlying reason behind this finding could be the fact that open tasks give students opportunities to promote their performance. What's more, the finding of the current study is in conflict with Loschky and Bley-Vroman's (1993) finding, close tasks require learners to negotiate more because learners do not have the chance to quit when they experience a breakdown, and thus, close tasks encourage learners to employ the target language.

5.6. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

In this study, it was discussed that the term translanguaging is a recent construct which is conceptually different from code-switching and translation in that it involves not just content but context, cognitive and cerebral activity (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). It is not just related to linguistic code, and it functions continuously and generally in classrooms.

As proposed by Garcia (2012) and Grosjean (1989), it is more than the idea of a bilingual being two monolinguals. In this sense, translanguaging is a strong version of bilingual education that puts emphasis on bilingual processes in learning instead of just outcomes. It underlines that "two (or

more) languages are not just the result of bilingual education but the very nature of how a bilingual thinks, understands, and achieves" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012, p.667).

A typical characteristic of peer interaction in foreign language settings shows itself as speakers are expectedly depend on their shared mother tongue in the process of L2 practice. This inevitable reliance which may cause over use of L1 contradicts with psycholinguistic basis of peer interaction in foreign language context (Carless, 2008). Nonetheless, research on peer interaction in foreign language classrooms reveals that participants are inclined to employ their L1 reasonably and properly for some social and cognitive functions which have been seen to reinforce L2 performance instead of interfering with it (De la Colina and García Mayo 2009; Antón and DiCamilla 1998; Azkarai and García Mayo 2015; Brooks and Donato 1994; Storch and Aldosari 2010; Tognini and Oliver 2012). In this vein, L1 use has been researched as a communicative strategy in L2 tasks requiring peer interaction. As a result of these analyses, particularly with adult learners, it has been suggested that L1 use in L2 interaction in L2 peer interaction occurs in different quantitatively and qualitatively frequencies based on the lparticipants' proficiency level and the task type (De la Colina and García Mayo 2009; Azkarai and García Mayo 2015; Storch and Aldosari 2010).

It is argued in accordance with the findings of the current study that as leaners and instructors engage in flexible translanguaging pedagogy in task-based activities, the limits between languages get pervious. In other words, the participants in this study used whatever language and forms they had at their disposal to communicate with each other, indicating completely different knowledge and producing new ones while accomplishing the tasks. The students in the current study benefited from the translanguaging practices of both parties. They gained confidence in their weaker language (Carstens, 2016) and they had the opportunity to select more influential linguistic repertoire (Garcia & Sylvan, 2011) of their own in accordance with the task

requirements.

Overall, the findings of the study suggest that translanguaging is a useful tool to perform multiple pedagogical functions in multilingual contexts. It is important for the teachers to find ways to support those with different linguistic needs. It is also crucial for the students to feel that their linguistic background is valuable and essential. Feeling this way, they can integrate what they know with new knowledge and develop literacy skills.

5.7. FURTHER RESEARCH

Even though there is a need for more research to be done on the nature of translanguaging and its effectiveness on language development, this study functions as a quick look into the phenomenon by providing views from EFL students' lens. The present study also aimed to provide the pedagogical benefits of translanguaging in EFL classrooms in the implementation of task-based language teaching activities. The results of the study could be of use in similar foreign language contexts where teachers and students share the same mother tongue and could serve as an awareness-raising perspective, enhancing EFL teachers' and administrators' interpretation in relation to foreign language task-based teaching. Taking into consideration of the delicate and complex nature of practices concerning translanguaging in EFL classrooms, it is obvious that there is a need to assist teachers when and how to use translanguaging practices effectively in TBLT context. Barely in this way would it be admissible to create a classroom environment encircled by enhanced opportunities of productive language learning and teaching experiences.

CONCLUSION

This study aimed to determine what translanguaging practices and reasons EFL students present in task-based activities. Students were applied three open and three close type task activities during four weeks of a speaking course with the same teacher. On the course of accomplishing the tasks, they were audio recorded and in the light of color-coded transcription process, the most frequent reasons for and practices of translanguaging were determined as scaffolding (34.64%), task management (26.82%), lexical difficulty (18.30%), phatics (17.23%), and grammar deliberations (3.01%) respectively. As for the benefits of translanguaging in the classroom environment, six students participated in stimulated recall interviews which helped to better understand the nature of the translanguaging instinct. In line with the interviews, students were presented audio recordings of their own which included translanguaging instances and they were required to recall the reason for their language choice. In line with the interviews, the most iterative reasons for translanguaging on the part of the students were concluded as translanguaging helped them to better understand and complete the tasks, it assisted long-term learning, and it provided them a safe space where they could use flexible language strategies. What's more, the difference in the frequency of translanguaging across the open and close type task activities were scrutinized and as a result of the analysis, close type activities were concluded to produce more translanguaging turns (75%) in comparison to open type activities (25%).

The earlier research related to translanguaging has concentrated on the benefits of this bilingual pedagogy either in EFL or ESL, or in immersion classes. Likewise, previous studies regarding TBLT was seen to have focused on which task type generate more L1 use and which functions L1 brings together or promote L2 acquisition more. The current study may be distinctive in that it has searched for translanguaging in TBLT activities from

EFL students' lens. Moreover, the results of the study indicate that participants have come up with a new interactional pedagogy quite unlike what could be found in monolingual educational contexts while they accomplish the tasks. By using their flexible linguistic repertoire, both pairs could participate in organizing and monitoring the task at hand, thus promoting collaborative learning.

To summarize, translanguaging in EFL context in the implementation of tasks provided the students with a new means via they took in new knowledge and as a result of dual- language processing, produced authentic language output; not forced to comply with the norms of monolingual education. Put differently, the students could be able to translate and reinterpret knowledge in the course of which translanguaging served as the transition and scaffolding, which reflects the conclusion by Cook (2001, p.418) that reasonable L1 use in L2 classes can: 'build up interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge in the students' minds [and enable them] to carry out learning tasks through collaborative dialogue with fellow students'.

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CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information

Name Surname	: Elif AYTAÇ TANIK
Place and Date of Birth	: Kars/1988
Language	: English
Email	: elifaytactanik@gmail.com

Educational Background

Master's Degree	**:** Kocaeli University, English Language Teaching (2019-2021)
Bachelor's Degree	**:** Çukurova University, English Language Teaching (2005-2009)
High School	**:** Adana Erkek Lisesi (2001-2005)

Professional Background

2009-2014	**:** Siirt Kız Meslek Lisesi (English Language Lecturer)
2014-2021	**:** Namık Kemal Anadolu Lisesi (English Language Lecturer)

Certifications

2020	**:** IMASCON 2020 Spring Congress (Paper Presentation)
	ELT 2020 Research Conference (Paper Presentation)