Kashif Raza
Dudley Reynolds
Christine Coombe *Editors*

Handbook of Multilingual TESOL in Practice

Handbook of Multilingual TESOL in Practice

"This accessible and exciting handbook is a must-read for TESOL researchers and practitioners who are seeking to better understand and tap the vast resources that exist within their linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms. While acknowledging the challenges of teaching TESOL multilingually, the contributors of this path-breaking handbook also provide helpful insights on how to develop innovative curricula to enrich language learning and teaching."

—Dr. Peter De Costa, *Associate Professor, MATESOL Program Director*
Co-editor TESOL Quarterly, Michigan State University, Michigan, USA

"This book is a timely reference for linguists and language educators seeking to conceptualise and operationalise critical approaches in language education. The volume's coverage of topics and contexts is impressive, as it draws attention to numerous case studies and international sites of interest which are thematically arranged into the book's sections. Taken together, the collection challenges ways in which multilingual learners can be positioned within TESOL research, illustrates impactful pedagogic approaches, and advocates practices that situate language learning around multilingual critical praxis."

—Dr. Ibrar Bhatt, *Senior Lecturer, School of Social Sciences*
Education and Social Work, Queen's University Belfast, Australia
Leverhulme Research Fellow (2021–22)
Executive Editor: Teaching in Higher Education
Governing Council Member: Society for Research into Higher Education

"If you are a teacher of English in a multilingual setting, this book will be a great asset! It contains 33 research papers encompassing various themes from practitioners in both the global north and south. The papers discuss curricular activities which capitalise on the use of L1 knowledge, teaching practices where local languages are or should be used as resources to develop the learning of English and the challenges of teaching multilingual TESOL due to state and educational ideologies. Moreover, there are papers which provide a range of activities and resources including multimodal communication and translanguaging to support multilingual TESOL. Ways to test target language learning in such settings are also discussed. Studies on the training of language teachers in many multilingual TESOL contexts are also shared. This book will support language teachers who want to demonstrate how students' heritage languages can be embedded into a TESOL curriculum, and how appropriate pedagogy, resources and evaluation can support target language learning. As an English language teacher in multilingual Malaysia, I find the many studies focusing on curriculum, teaching, training and testing from different sites both personally informative and useful."

—Dr. Maya Khemlani David, *Honorary Professor, Asia-Europe Institute*
University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

"This book generously offers its readers a wide selection of topics on today's TESOL multilingual practices. Its broad scope covering everything from childhood classrooms, adult language learning, teacher development, learners' plurilingual strategies, EFL, assessment and appreciation of cultures and languages, to language policies and issues of power, language and identity, is neatly organised into six sections, each containing a number of chapters. The book provides a collection of original papers on teaching English to speakers of other languages in diverse contexts, featuring multilingual settings of Bangladesh, Pakistan, Hawaii, Brazil, Türkiye, Japan to name only a few. A special value and novelty of the Handbook is in that it underscores the reality of multilingualism and devotes an entire section to multilingual TESOL. This constitutes a landmark in English language instruction that will help shift assumptions away from monolingual paradigms. The reader will appreciate an array of case studies amply representing the linguistic diversity of learners and teachers of English in the world as well as the long-awaited provision of activities and materials to support multilingual TESOL.

The Handbook of Multilingual TESOL in Practice is a rich source of information and inspiration for practitioners, educators and researchers alike. The book resonates not only with the needs of those directly involved in teaching English to speakers of other languages but will be of great interest to anyone connected with language teaching and learning, sociolinguistics, and multilingualism."

—Dr. Larissa Aronin, *Associate Professor, Oranim Academic College of Education Israel Past Secretary of the International Association of Multilingualism*

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Christine Coombe
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Handbook of Multilingual TESOL in Practice

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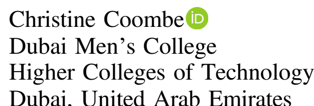
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Foreword: Moving Dominant Assumptions About Teaching English to the Background—A Foreword to Multilingual TESOL

I start this Foreword by recognizing that to understand what the editors and authors of this volume have contributed to TESOL, we must push concepts that have traditionally constituted the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages *to the background*. As Scott Saft says in his chapter, the transformation of the field can only occur if we place "English in the background." This volume clearly shows that multilingual TESOL must transform the relationship that English, as emanating from the dominant Global North, and as spoken by white monolingual native speakers, has held in the imagination of the teaching field. Instead, we must foreground the language practices and experiences of those from the Global South and build a TESOL epistemology that subverts monolingual ideologies and language-in-education policies and practices that are divorced from local realities. In this volume what has been last in TESOL is foregrounded as first, and so I start by identifying what in the past TESOL had left behind and hidden from view, and how this volume brings it into full view. The editors and authors here go beyond how the field of TESOL has traditionally operated. I first name these "goings beyond," and then discuss them, as I bring them into view.

1. Beyond the Global North
2. Beyond English and the linguistic
3. Beyond previous training and experience
4. Beyond policy from above
5. Beyond theories to expanded practices

All Forewords should move things into the future, and so I end by pushing multilingual TESOL beyond its own beyond and forward.

Going Beyond to Bring into View

Beyond the Global North

First, it is the Global South and the experiences of students of all types learning English in different types of education programs that drive our understandings of multilingual TESOL in this Handbook. Boaventura de Sousa Santos (2007) proposes that we have operated with "abyssal thinking." As such, we have viewed TESOL only from the dominant side of the line, that of the Global North. The epistemologies, knowledges, and experiences of those in the Global South have been mostly hidden from view. This Handbook takes on a Southern Epistemology by centering the experiences of those learning English in contexts that have suffered the indignities of colonization and where their own multilingual practices have been often rendered invisible. The editors themselves all have experiences teaching English in the Global South—Qatar, United Arab Emirates, and Pakistan. It is indeed the description of the struggles of Kashif Raza, as he leverages the students' Arabic to develop English that frames the volume in Chap. 1. This fearless adaptation of traditional TESOL methodology to leverage the students' multilingual practices is then repeated in the international contexts that appear in this Handbook—South Asia (Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Vietnam), the Middle East (Lebanon, Qatar, UAE), the Maghreb (Morocco), and South America (Chile, Brazil). Although Europe is not absent, it is represented by Greece, and not by the UK. Although there are chapters about multilingual TESOL in the United States, they have been carefully selected to give priority to colonial indigenous situations such as that of Hawai'i, or to contexts other than California and New York City, the traditional foci of study on the education of emergent bilinguals. Multilingual TESOL in other English-speaking contexts such as Australia and Canada is considered, but overall, precedent is given to multilingual people learning English in contexts where multilingualism is indigenous, and not solely produced by mobility from outside of immigrants or international students. By centering the experiences of learners in the Global South, this volume pushes back on white English-monolingual native speaker ideologies.

Beyond English and the Linguistic

The focus on the Global South also produces a different understanding of what is considered "English," for many of the students in English classrooms already use English to different degrees and for various purposes. As Sadequle Islam and Silvia Melo-Pfeifer say in their chapter, "bringing languages together is unavoidable." These adaptations of TESOL methodology not only make visible the presence of what are considered other languages, but also the heterogeneity of what has been named and curricularized as English. By giving precedent to the Global South, the language named English also expands beyond the boundaries of what the field had

accepted as legitimate English, pushing its limits and valuing its complex heterogeneity. The notion of English itself is here questioned, as the heterogeneous nature of English language practices comes into view. Further, English and other languages are not simply treated here as "the linguistic." Instead, the multimodal takes its important place and joins the linguistic as a most significant semiotic system of meaning-making, especially in learning. The chapters on technology for digital storytelling and films, for example, show us how English is much more than what textbooks define as language. We learn about the potential of multimodalities in enabling communication, as teachers give precedent to the visual, the action, the gestures, the stories, the music, important components of communication, and an integral part of language and the languaging that people and learners do.

Beyond Previous Training and Experience

This Handbook is also a call to go beyond what Raza, Reynolds, and Coombe call "previous training and experience." Many of the authors call for a decolonizing critical multilingual approach, noticing how issues of power are entangled in the language-in-education policy in many nation-states and particularly in the Global South. Thus, authors call for multilingual TESOL as a subversive act, reducing the feelings of guilt exhibited by many students who rely on their existing repertoire as they develop English, and lessening teachers' fear of reprisal by educational authorities when they leverage their students' full semiotic repertoire. The volume legitimizes the use of multilingual practices in teaching English and gives us examples of how this is being done all over the world, relieving teachers and students of feelings of anxiety and inadequacy. In his chapter, Wahudi shares how he uses his entire language repertoire to teach an Applied Linguistics course in Indonesia. In so doing, he creates a practical space for social justice for all, affirming his own agency, identity, emotions, as well as facilitating his students' comprehension. All chapters consider English to be more than simply a linguistic system, arguing that TESOL must consider the cultural/historicized content in which it is immersed and the role that the English Empires have had in domination. Even the chapter on teacher education in Finland demonstrates how teacher candidates are supported in dismantling whiteness and Finnish-speakerism as the only social and educational norm.

Beyond Policy from Above

Another important thrust beyond conventional epistemologies of English language teaching in this Handbook is the value given to educators' role as policymakers. The teaching of English as English-only has often been handed down as policy from the top, for example, in Vietnam, Bangladesh, and Chile. Yet, teachers have found ways of subverting these policies, introducing spaces where multilingual pedagogies lead to the development of English language practices. This volume

shows that rather than dictating language policies from above, educational systems should develop curricula and materials that reflect the students' language practices, their own languaging. As Hanh Dinh says in her chapter, teachers cannot teach without curricula and materials.

Beyond Theories to Expanded Practices

A most important way in which this Handbook expands TESOL understandings is by going beyond theories of second language acquisition to actual practices in different contexts and grade levels, from pre-school to institutions of higher education. Many of the chapters clearly outline not only principles, but also actual practices and classroom activities that boost the emotional engagement and agency of students. Some chapters give examples of strategies used. For example, Rhodes shows us how multilingual journals, annotations, autoethnographies, and story maps are important strategies in an advanced ESOL writing classroom. This Handbook also gives evidence of how the goal of learning English must go beyond simply passing a course or a test, arguing that English language teaching must meet the needs of the students for communication and literacy, locally and internationally. For example, Chen and Lin give an ethnographic account of the content of the TOEFL iBT test preparation course which Chen followed. They show how leveraging Chen's own language practices as he prepared for the test helped him not only pass the test, but also expand his repertoire to encompass doing English for academic purposes. The chapters in this Handbook clearly indicate that the language named English is not the only target of instruction. Language is used in instruction for many other purposes, and teachers must understand when it is that they are focusing on the features and practices of what is curricularized as English, and when it is that language is used for the many other purposes of classroom instruction. In those instances, the students' own language practices must be foregrounded. This Handbook also goes beyond understanding instruction as simply classroom practices. Instruction encompasses here multilingual assessment. Authors demonstrate how students use their own language practices naturally when being assessed in English. Furthermore, Brown, Hoa, and Zhang provide an example of a multilingual assessment tool that captures the students' understandings, speaking, listening, and writing, as they develop English literacy.

Clearly, this Handbook takes us in a journey that goes beyond the boundaries that traditional TESOL epistemologies and methodologies had imposed in the past. It makes an important contribution to what is now considered multilingual TESOL, the use of local languages in teaching English. But now that TESOL recognizes the value of multilingualism, where does it need to go next? How can it extend its beyond?

Bringing the Beyonds Forward: Local Languages and English or Translanguaging?

Many of the chapters in this Handbook refer to flexible and multilingual pedagogical practices that are then named translanguaging pedagogies. The Handbook is also revelatory in documenting translanguaging practices in TESOL, pedagogical practices that have been prevalent in language teaching in most contexts, but that hereto have remained hidden from view. This is perhaps one of the biggest contributions of this Handbook. It legitimizes translanguaging pedagogical practices.

In this section, however, I extend understandings of translanguaging beyond those of simply the use of local languages in English language instruction. Many of the chapters use the term translanguaging to signal the inclusion of local languages in English language pedagogy. In Bangladeshi classrooms, for example, the authors say that “bringing languages together is seen as an unavoidable linguistic instance of Bangladeshi EFL classrooms.” But for TESOL to be inclusive of the heterogeneity of the world, it would have to recognize people’s bilingualism or multilingualism as much more than simply the addition of two or more languages. What is it that Bangladeshi students do? I would argue that they draw from a unitary repertoire, a semiotic repertoire that includes all the linguistic practices and features that are part of their identity and life experiences, as well as the multimodalities that make up their languaging. Indeed, what Bangladeshi students are doing is going beyond the borders of languages and meaning legitimacy that have been imposed by nation-states and their institutions, and that are often, as many of the chapters here attest, a result of socio-political decisions.

The call to include indigenous, non-Western, non-dominant epistemologies, and histories in English language teaching requires us to go beyond the present notion of local language vs. English. It is not that translanguaging pedagogical practices simply allow the inclusion of local languages in TESOL. It is that translanguaging pedagogical practices fit a different epistemology surrounding multilingualism. Languages as taught in schools and affiliated with nation-states, whether they are local languages or English, are social constructions with histories of how and why they have been constituted as such. The production of English as we recognize it today, for example, has its roots in colonial processes of domination. It is impossible to bring up what are seen as local languages to par with English unless we recognize the sociopolitical nature of the social constructions of all named languages.

Multilingual students from the Global South, with translanguaging practices that reveal doing language in ways that disrupt named language boundaries, must lead our understandings of multilingualism. It is not the case that these speakers are multilingual in the sense that they have more than one named language, following an epistemology from the dominant North. Indeed, their identity is shaped by knowing that they speak more than one language, often an indigenous language that has been trampled upon by English-speaking colonizers. But their use of language goes beyond the traditional northern epistemology of speaking many languages.

These racialized and colonized bilinguals do language with one unitary repertoire that goes beyond the boundaries assigned to English, as well as to a local language. These multilingual speakers engage in translanguaging because they do language with one repertoire, a repertoire of features and practices that are their own and that do not fit squarely into the boxes that are recognized by nation-states and their institutions as one language or another. In so doing, they are native speakers through and through, of their entire repertoire which includes their English.

It takes generosity, courage, and commitment to inclusivity and cognitive justice to recognize speakers as able to do language with their own practices and experiences. The TESOL profession must view their profession not from a monoglossic perspective of bi/multi-lingualism, with multiple languages being used in the instruction of one language, here English. I am extending the concept of bi/multi-lingualism beyond its established meaning to recognize that a heteroglossic perspective is needed, one that recognizes the social value of learning English, and yet understands that doing English in the Global South or among immigrant/indigenous/minoritized/racialized communities cannot be equated to doing English among monolinguals. Only by opening up translanguaging to an epistemology that clearly recognizes that bilinguals do language with a unitary repertoire, even though the target of instruction is English, will TESOL fit the ways of being and languaging bi/multi-lingually of speakers whose dynamic language practices have been the excuse to colonize them, dominate them, and racialize them as inferior. This volume goes a long way toward putting the TESOL profession in this path, recognizing the role that English has had in domination and colonization, and opening up spaces to understand what we have hereto named English or local languages differently. Rather than starting with English or local languages, it is important for instruction to start with the actual dynamic language practices of the students themselves, with their translanguaging. Only then will we be able to build on multilingual students' translanguaging, adding new features to their own repertoire which is always present. Only then will what we call English be theirs, not that of other white dominant speakers, but their own.

This volume devotes significant attention to assessment and teacher education, dedicating the final two sections to these topics. For me, these two issues are most important for this shift in TESOL to take place. In teaching a language named "English," teachers are indeed adding features and practices to the students' own existing repertoire of semiotic resources. But because that repertoire is unitary, and not dual (except in a social sense) it is cognitively unjust to assess these students' learning English with instruments and tools that allow them to show what they understand and know only in English. Some of the chapters here show the progress we are making in developing assessments that respect multilingual students' translanguaging, practices that are not delimited by the artificial boundaries that we have socially established among languages. For assessment in English to be cognitively just for all students, teacher education must not only train prospective teachers in TESOL methodology. TESOL teacher education programs must take an active stance ensuring that prospective teachers understand multilingualism from the perspective of speakers in the Global South. Only then will TESOL create the

equitable opportunities for racialized speakers to learn and do English without having to compare their English language use to that of white Anglo monolinguals. This volume pushes TESOL beyond past monolingual practices and encourages it to bravely look toward a future when multilingual speakers' translanguaging would be recognized not only as an important tool to make meaning, but also as legitimate languaging which includes what we call English shaped by speakers' own local epistemologies and practices. This would be the only way to truly go beyond the native speakerism that has plagued TESOL.

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Christine Coombe: It is to my students and colleagues at Dubai Men's College, Higher Colleges of Technology in the UAE that I dedicate this volume. They continue to inspire and encourage me to keep growing and learning as a faculty member and as a person. Thanks are also extended to the many language teachers I have had throughout my life who have helped me in my quest to be multilingual. I am not there yet but continue to try to get there! Gratitude goes to my co-editors, Kashif Raza and Dudley Reynold whose respective visions inspired this volume. For the second time, they continue to be fantastic to work with! I also thank our

chapter authors from around the world who have provided much-needed insight and inspiration about the value of multilingualism and how it can be put into practice. Finally, thanks to my family and especially my sister, Cindy, who remain my motivation in work and in life. I'll end this acknowledgment with one of my favorite quotes by Ludwig Wittgenstein who stated "The limits of my language mean the limits of my world" which provides I feel a rationale for the importance of multilingualism in the world today.

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Part I
Curricular and Principle-Based Approaches to Multilingual TESOL

This part of the book comprises four chapters that discuss curricular and principle-based approaches to multilingual TESOL. Whether these are individual decisions taken by teachers at classroom level or collective initiatives at program or institutional level, the chapters in this part showcase how students' local and heritage languages can be embedded into TESOL curriculum and pedagogy to support their language development.

The first chapter by **Kashif Raza, Dudley Reynolds**, and **Christine Coombe** is a collective piece by the three authors who have worked on language policy and teaching practices in diverse contexts. The chapter provides a case study of a TESOL practitioner, Kashif, who struggles to make his language classroom meaningful for his students because of the monolingual ideologies that have influenced the designing of the curriculum and teaching approaches that exclude students' first language resources from the classroom. Through self-reflexivity and readings about multilingual language ideologies and practices, Kashif consciously set out to change what he could imagine as a way to teach English and created a heuristic for analyzing the ecology of his course to which he called the Teaching Adaptation Model (TAM). This model includes five teaching strategies to create a student-centered learning environment: understanding student population, filtering instruction, increasing student participation, considering value clarification, and keeping a teaching journal. Kashif used these strategies to identify opportunities, implement changes, and self-reflect. The outcome of this was the creation of a multilingual classroom where students' first language, Arabic, was used as a resource to develop the target language, English. This case study demonstrates the importance of reflecting on and deconstructing previous training and experience, the need to be explicit about values when teaching, the role of an individualized praxis model, and contributions from a professional network that extends beyond the local context.

The increasing diversity in early childhood classrooms calls for providing a space to sustain children's cultural and linguistic heritage through instructional practices that recognize and expand on these rich repertoires. In this regard, there

is a need to consider Culturally Sustaining Pedagogy (CSP) that supports multilingual and multicultural perspectives and practices for educators and students by fostering linguistic, literate, and cultural pluralism as part of schooling. **Catherine Restrepo** and **Sabrina Sembiante** report on a study conducted in a mixed-age monolingual preschool classroom serving a culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) student population in South Florida where educators created their units around the four tenets of CSP: seeking community agency, integrating language practices, incorporating cultural/historicized content, and teaching about CLD groups. Their findings show that together the four CSP tenets foster an understanding and appreciation for cultures and languages that support the co-existence and co-development of languages required in classrooms. They also provide practical implications for TESOL practitioners looking to integrate CSP principles in their preschool curriculum.

In order to demonstrate that it is possible to create educational curricula focusing on indigenous and endangered minority languages without sacrificing language capabilities in a dominant language such as English, **Scott Saft** reports on a unique bilingual educational pathway in Hawaiʻi that has found success in supporting the linguistic development of students by keeping English, more or less, in the background. His chapter describes efforts in Hawaiʻi to promote English literacy as a part of a larger program designed to foster a multilingualism that includes the indigenous Hawaiian language, the local creole language (called Pidgin), as well as English. During this process, the focus is placed on the growing popularity of a Hawaiian medium educational pathway that develops bilingual abilities in Hawaiian and English and also respects Pidgin as a legitimate language of Hawaiʻi. He describes four aspects of the curriculum that have yielded positive outcomes: an early focus on literacy, the development of a heritage language program, the introduction of English as an academic subject in the fifth grade, and an early college credit program. These examples may inspire others not to be afraid to move English at least slightly to the background in order to construct curricula of a multilingual nature that feature minority and indigenous languages.

While a lot has been written about the deficit thinking of idealizing native speakerism and promoting it as a goal in TESOL, white monolingual native speaker ideologies continue to persist, especially in language domains such as pronunciation, that view additional language (AL) learners as a deficient version of an idealized native speaker model. This native speakerism delegitimizes learners' existing knowledges in their first and additional languages, disparaging students' plurilingualism competence by focusing on teaching students how to acquire a native speaker accent in the target language. To help combat this deficit-approach in TESOL, **John Wayne N. dela Cruz** proposes four plurilingual strategies for TESOL practitioners to scaffold the teaching of intelligibility in AL English over promoting a native speaker accent: *translation-for-mediation*, *cross-linguistic comparisons*, *translanguaging for meaning-making*, and *cross-cultural comparisons*. TESOL practitioners can draw

from and employ these plurilingual strategies when teaching English pronunciation with a focus on improving students' intelligibility, rather than on acquiring a native accent.

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Chapter 1
Multilingual TESOL in Practice in Higher Education: Insights from EFL Classrooms at a Gulf University

Kashif Raza, Dudley Reynolds, and Christine Coombe

Abstract Many people support "multilingualism" in theory, acknowledge the importance of heritage languages, and denounce the tragedy of language death. However, when it comes to multilingual praxis—using multiple languages as part of our classroom repertoire or when assessing students, developing materials and offering professional development, they often ask themselves: But how would this work in my own language classroom? Because many of us have not seen multilingual Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in practice, we cannot imagine it. This chapter provides a case study of the work done by one teacher, Kashif, to overcome this lack of imaginability. In this chapter, we present a case study of how the first author, Kashif, incorporates multilingual teaching practices into university-level, English for academic purposes (EAP) and English for specific purposes (ESP) courses in the Gulf. The chapter also argues that the case study makes visible the, often invisible, agency that teachers have as language planners for their own classrooms. The discussion of the case study centers around the already established benefits of a multilingual classroom and showcases how the case study on Kashif's university-level EA/SP courses exemplifies these benefits through the use of the Teaching Adaptation Model or TAM (Raza in J Ethn Cult Stud 5:16–26, 2018, Raza in TESL Ontario Contact Mag 46:41–50, 2020), aimed to increase culturally sustaining pedagogy. A note about this chapter's organization: The bulk of this chapter offers a case study of how the first author, Kashif, incorporates multilingual teaching practices into a university-level, EA/SP courses. The introduction, authored by the second author, Dudley, argues that the case study makes visible the, often invisible, agency that teachers have as language planners for their classrooms. The discussion of the case study, presented by the third author, Christine, centers

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around the already established benefits of a multilingual classroom and showcases how Kashif's university-level EA/SP courses exemplify these benefits through the Teaching Adaptation Model or TAM (Raza in J Ethn Cult Stud 5:16–26, 2018, Raza in TESL Ontario Contact Mag 46:41–50, 2020), aimed to increase culturally sustaining pedagogy.

Introduction

As someone who frequently argues for language policies and teaching practices that support individual and societal multilingualism (e.g., Raza et al., 2021; Reynolds, 2019), Dudley is well aware that the arguments against multilingual Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) often involve issues of (im)practicality. Many people espouse support for "multilingualism" in theory, acknowledge the importance of heritage languages, and denounce the tragedy of language death. But when it comes to multilingual praxis—using multiple languages as part of classroom talk or when assessing students, developing materials and offering professional development, the comment is: But how could that work? Some assume that policy—be it set by a ministry, an administrator, or simply a school's culture—will not allow it. Others see it as unnecessary confusion or, worse, opening a door to classrooms where English ends up being "studied" while hardly heard or used. Often these arguments against multilingual TESOL are based in assumptions about what *might* happen. They are also thinly veiled reflections on the educator's own language learning experience. Because many of us have not seen multilingual TESOL in practice, we cannot imagine it. This chapter provides a case study of the mental work done by one teacher, Kashif, to overcome this lack of imaginability. In doing so, it showcases the active role that language teacher cognition (Borg, 2006; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015) plays in what Lo Bianco refers to as "pluralist language planning" (2010, p. 169).

In a review of research on language teacher cognition, Borg concludes: "teachers' prior language learning experiences establish cognitions about learning and language learning which form the basis of their initial conceptualisations of second language (L2) teaching during teacher education, and which may continue to be influential throughout their professional lives" (2003, p. 88). The TESOL field has long been dominated by monolingual conceptualizations of language and a tendency to treat late-onset bilingualism (e.g., TESOL for adolescent and adult learners) as if individuals with advanced socio-cognitive reasoning abilities were monolingual children being exposed to language for the first time (Ortega, 2014). As such, many educators' prior experiences with classroom-based language learning simply do not provide them with conceptualizations for imagining or enacting multilingual TESOL.

This challenge is exacerbated by a view of teachers as simply policy implementers, not crafters. Lo Bianco, however, counters such a disempowering characterization of teachers' roles:

> Mandated curricula, syllabus, textbook activities and assessment expectations establish only generic policies but teaching exceeds the intention and aspirations contained in curriculum statements or textbooks. Both pedagogy and the needs and circumstances of learners in their immediate network of communication peers require of teachers active, personalised and class-specific LP [language planning] in a myriad of micro-interactions governed by explanation, abstraction, generalisation and application of knowledge. (2010, p. 167)

He goes on to emphasize that the choices teachers make as part of these micro-interactions characterize their orientation to language planning as *assimilationist*, *diglossic*, or *pluralist*. Assimilationist orientations emphasize monolingual use of the target language inside and outside the classroom, whereas diglossic orientations affirm the value of multilingualism but still distinguish between language to be used at home and language for the classroom and academic success. As exemplified in the following case study, Kashif's orientation is more pluralist, "[combining] a pedagogy of active multilanguage and multiliterate communication with ideologically affirmative messages of linguistic human rights and social justice" (p. 169).

In a more recent review of research on language teacher cognition, Burns et al. remind us that teaching "combines public activity—classroom actions, routines, interactions, and behaviors, which are publicly accessible through observation (including video and audio recordings)—with private mental work—planning, evaluating, reacting, deciding, which remain invisible to outsiders and beyond the reach of researchers" (2015, p. 585). The invisibility of teachers' mental work too often makes not only their choices with respect to language planning opaque, but also the active thought processes that lead to those choices: their use and adaptation of theoretical literature, generative employment of heuristics, and recurring reflection on classroom interactions.

The following account from Kashif reveals how he consciously set out to change what he could imagine as a way to teach English. Drawing on readings about multilingual language ideologies and practices (e.g., Conteh & Meier, 2014; May, 2014), he created a heuristic for analyzing the ecology of his course. He called his heuristic the Teaching Adaptation Model (TAM) and used it to identify opportunities, implement changes, and self-reflect. His contribution to this chapter attests to the power the heuristic provides his teaching.

Construction of the Teaching Adaptation Model (TAM)

The construction of the TAM was initiated by Kashif's attempts to align his previous teacher training and experience with his students' academic challenges and his ongoing research on multilingual English as a second or foreign language (ES/FL) learners. For instance, he was previously trained to teach English monolingually where students' first language (L1) was perceived as an interference in target language development. However, despite frequent emphasis on using English to communicate with the teacher as well as classmates, students were continuously relying upon their L1 (Arabic) to process information, take notes from the lecture, communicate

with peers during group activities, and use Google translation for task completion. Similarly, students were taking more time to understand the content through which English was being introduced and taught, which affected their performance and language acquisition. This was because the students were either unfamiliar with the concepts that were being introduced to them or they had the least interest in learning them. For example, the textbooks that were used for the English courses contained reading and listening activities that showcased examples of festivals and rituals from a culture that students were not acquainted with. Consequently, they were spending more time in familiarizing themselves with the concept than practicing the English language.

Realizing these context-specific challenges and using a reflective teaching approach (Raza & Coombe, 2020; Reynolds, 2020), Kashif decided to create a model that would assist him in filtering the content, activities as well as instruction that better serve his students than the textbook or the curriculum. The model aims to provide English language teachers a platform where they can align their prior teacher training and experience with the academic needs of their students that are mostly local and context-specific. A brief overview of the TAM is provided in the next section.

Overview of Raza's TAM

The TAM comprises five strategies that are aimed to increase culturally sustaining pedagogy (Paris & Alim, 2017) and accommodate students' academic needs through the modification of teaching approaches. These strategies include: understanding the student population, filtering instruction, increasing student participation, considering value clarification, and keeping a teaching journal. Although all five strategies are interconnected and complement each other, Raza (2018, 2020) did not propose using all of them together or following a particular sequence; a teacher may approach the model in ways it can better facilitate their teaching adaptation.

In this chapter, we focus on the ways the TAM was used in an EFL context to support the local languages of the students while teaching and learning English. In other words, aligning with the focus of this volume, the chapter showcases examples from English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses where a TESOL teacher created opportunities for his students to utilize their multilingual competence in collaboration with English (Raza et al., 2021); hence multilingual TESOL in practice at the classroom level.

Understanding Student Population

Developing information about English language learners (ELLs) involves learning about their linguistic repertoire(s), their previous and current academic development, interests, values, beliefs, and challenges in learning English. Since ELLs possess

differences at individual as well as group levels (Harper & de Jong, 2004; Raza, 2018, 2020), learning about these differences and how they may impact language development allows teachers to make informed decisions about what instructional strategies to employ and in what ways. Similarly, teachers also become able to create better connections between the target skills and students' schemata, interests, culture, and values when they know what students have already learnt and in which language(s).

The student population that Kashif taught were mainly Arab students, speaking Arabic as their L1 and majoring in arts, education, international affairs, history, law, mass communication, policy and planning, and Sharia. Students studied their majors in Arabic and were in the third or fourth year of their degree program when they took the English course that Kashif was teaching. As they had spent considerable time in their degree program, they were expected to have developed good understanding of their field of study. For example, the themes of the EAP course units ranged from education to culture, development, environment, and technology. As these themes aligned with most of the students' majors, English teachers would expect students to draw upon their previous learning to develop their opinions and arguments for speaking and writing tasks. However, when students were asked to provide examples or explain a concept in English, the usual answer would be, "teacher, I know this in Arabic but cannot explain it in English." Similarly, a student's response below to an informal survey provided by Kashif to collect information about their experiences of studying ESP law course exhibits their frustration with studying their major in L1 and then struggling to understand those concepts in English.

> In the beginning of the course, all the parts were difficult to me since all my previous study was in Arabic. However, I overcame this obstacle after the third week.

Realizing that students were familiar with most of the concepts in Arabic but were not always able to communicate them in English, Kashif started creating tasks that allowed students to build upon their prior knowledge in Arabic to complete tasks in English. In such tasks, Arabic was made part of the learning process, thus positioning students' L1 as a resource rather than an interference. Similarly, this practice also stretched students' habits of simply translating words from English to Arabic to using translation as a starting point and then building English language skills on its bases (Raza & Chua, 2022a). In doing so, students would translate the key words/information in Arabic and then build their discussions, arguments, and opinions on it in English. In addition, since Kashif spoke Urdu which has a lot of vocabulary from Arabic, his multilingual competence was also utilized in the classroom. Figures 1.1 and 1.2 are examples of such a task from an ESP law course where information about students' as well as teacher's linguistic repertoires was collected and then these languages were used to discuss legal vocabulary by looking at their meanings in Arabic, English, and Urdu. After discussing each word and clarifying the differences in meanings in all three languages, students were asked to utilize these words in speaking and writing tasks completion.

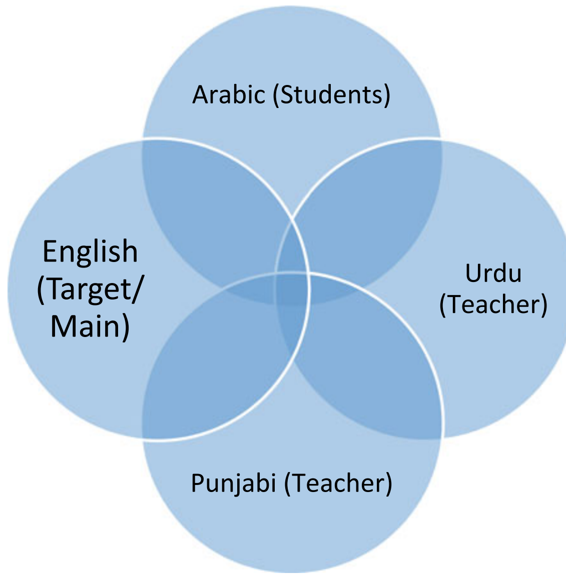

Fig. 1.1 Information about multilingualism in the classroom

Multilingualism in EFL Law Classroom

Class Details	Legal English Course - Mandatory Students study their legal courses in Arabic. Exit course – last English course Student population = 18-40 years old; male/female Legal English Textbook – British English for lawyers	
Target Legal Vocab	**Arabic Meaning**	**Urdu Meaning**
Plaintiff/Claimant	المدعى	مدعی
Evidence	شهادة	شہادت
Advocate/ Lawyer	مؤيد	وکیل
Complaint	شكوة/شكوى	شکایت
Precedent	قضائية/احكام سابقة	سابقہ فیصلہ

Fig. 1.2 Utilizing students' and teachers' multilingual resources for legal vocabulary development

Filtering Instruction

The medium of instruction (MOI) that teachers adopt delineates a micro-level policy for the classroom (Raza & Chua, 2022b). This is especially critical when there are multiple language speakers in the classroom but only one language dominates teaching and learning. In addition to maintaining hegemony of certain languages, these monolingual ways of teaching send a message that other languages can exist socially but are not welcomed inside the classroom. Since Kashif's students were studying their majors in Arabic and this was also their main medium of communication (MOC) in everyday life when speaking to their friends, family, and *other social actors*, the knowledge of the world these students were building was mainly in their L1. The best way to bring this knowledge into the classroom and use it for further academic development was to encourage students to not only realize the importance of the Arabic language in their social and academic life but also utilize Arabic as a necessary resource in English language learning. To do this, Arabic was integrated into the curriculum as an integral component where students were encouraged to use it for understanding the course content as well as for task completion.

An example of this initiative is Fig. 1.3. In this activity, students were introduced to the theme of "relationships" in English during a class session and a discussion on modern family structures was facilitated by the classroom instructor. Then students were asked to interview an older family member (preferably a grandfather or grandmother) in Arabic using a questionnaire from the textbook (Hughes & Dummett, 2013) and make notes in Arabic. These notes were later translated into English, and a short, informal presentation was given to the whole class about the interview findings. This activity was originally designed by the textbook publisher to be used by the students to interview their peers in English; however, to increase students' awareness about the importance of their L1 and create a link between their learning at school with their learning at home, Kashif decided to involve students' family members via L1 to turn his classroom into a multilingual teaching and learning space where knowledge learnt and developed in English and L1 is of equal importance. This activity is an example of tasks that can use multiple languages as integrated skills for task completion, connect students' in-class discussions with their social life, and, hence, contribute to the movement of multilingualism in TESOL (Raza, 2021).

Increasing Student Participation

Kashif believes that learning is a reciprocal process where teachers and students learn from each other and decide the best strategies for teaching and learning. Developing upon Paulo Freire's participatory teaching approach (1968; 2005), Kashif takes his "teaching beyond sharing information and controlling student behavior… [He] argues for student inclusion in decision-making at micro level, such as deciding the types of activities to be used, the amount of emphasis on a specific language

HOW DOES FAMILY SHAPE YOU?

1. Would you say you are a close family? why
2. How much time do you spend with family: why
   - out of a sense of duty?
   - because you choose to?
3. Is family a consideration for you in choosing where to live?
4. How conscious are you of your family's history?
5. Is there a strong family trait? Have you inherited it?
6. Is there a 'head of the family'? How important is it to have this person's approval?
7. Is there someone in the family you particularly admire? Why?
8. Has your family influenced the career path that you have chosen?
9. When seeking advice, are you more likely to turn to friends or family?
10. How important is it to you that your family approves of your partner?
11. Would you say your family members have the same attitude to:
    - money?
    - bringing up children?

[1] yes, we are a close Family/Close to each other, because we are withe each other in good and bad times, we don't have to be in the same house.

[2] All the time out of sense of duty because I am the mother of everyone in this hous and I Know what is good and bad for the cohesion of our Family. Choose because I love spending my time between them and with them

[3] We all lived together same houses or if they Fare away in same area.

[4] I Knows all their history, I Know the seventh grandFather of Our Familly, how often he got married and their pomes, their stories, where did he die and how?

Fig. 1.3 Utilizing L1 as an integral part of L2 development

topic, setting deadlines for assignments and homework, as well as at macro level like assessment, curriculum design, teaching styles, and classroom management issues" (Raza, 2020, p. 45). Raza (2019) has reported that such reciprocity is based upon shared expectations and allows both students and teachers to be aware of their roles and responsibilities in the learning process. These shared expectations can also take the form of a teacher-student learning contract (Raza, 2019) which explains what both parties are supposed to do as part of a successful teaching and learning process.

To increase student participation in the classroom, Kashif used multiple platforms and strategies. For instance, an informal survey was given to students at the beginning, middle, and end of the semester to collect information about their expectations

i. What did you enjoy the most in my class? (For example, teaching style, fun activities, English-Arabic translation, jokes, etc.)
ii. What are the things you would like me to improve about my teaching? (For example, teaching style, activities, English-Arabic translation, jokes, etc.)

Given Answer: Really, I am happy with everything the Professor gave us. His style is excellent for explaining and facilitating topics for us, as well as for translating words into Arabic. I don't wish to change anything of his style. When I in his class I enjoy his lesson too much. I feel that Professor is my big brother.

Fig. 1.4 Student participation in course management and delivery

from the course/instructor, their challenges in English language development, their role in the classroom, and the tools/resources that they prefer (e.g., educational technologies). As there were always diverse opinions about these topics, the findings of the survey(s) were discussed in the class to reach a decision about the best way to approach the challenges. Hearing from students allowed Kashif to understand their preferences in teaching and learning and then modify his instruction, content, and activities to meet their immediate as well as long-term needs (Raza & Coombe, 2020). This also helped Kashif decide how to approach his future courses and what to expect from his students. Figure 1.4 is an example of a student response from the survey discussed (Fig. 1.3). The student is appreciating the use of Arabic in developing legal English vocabulary. This practice of translation was suggested by another student in the same class by arguing that since they study their major (law) in Arabic, it would be helpful for them to discuss the target vocabulary in both English and Arabic. Following their suggestion, Kashif decided to use Arabic for clarification as well as for expanding understanding of the target vocabulary.

Another example of student participation from the same class is about designing multilingual and multimodal assessments. Such assessments allow students to use multiple languages as well as non-verbal semiotic resources to display their understanding of the content and complete assigned tasks. As Kashif's students were learning about legal courts in the UK as well as the vocabulary used to describe people and things inside the court, to link these vocabulary and concepts with local courts, they were asked to do a comparison between the two. In doing so, they were asked to write a comparative essay and give a short presentation during the class. However, some students suggested that they would instead like to draw court pictures and then use these visuals for presentation. Realizing that students were being creative and wanted to utilize non-verbal semiotic resources for task completion (Canagarajah, 2018), Kashif agreed to modify the assessment and permitted students to use visuals for presentation. Additionally, he also encouraged them to include Arabic words in their drawings for support. Figures 1.5 and 1.6 showcase two examples where students drew the courtroom and used English and Arabic for explanation. As they were highlighting the differences between the two courts, they were continuously referring to the pictures, using Arabic words for explanation, and drawing circles on the screen, thus using verbal and non-verbal semiotic resources for communication. Canagarajah (2018) labelled such translingual practices as the utilization of "spatial repertoires" where selective verbal resources are used "for communicative purposes in situated interactions, in combination with other semiotic resources" and where speakers "are able to use words from diverse languages for

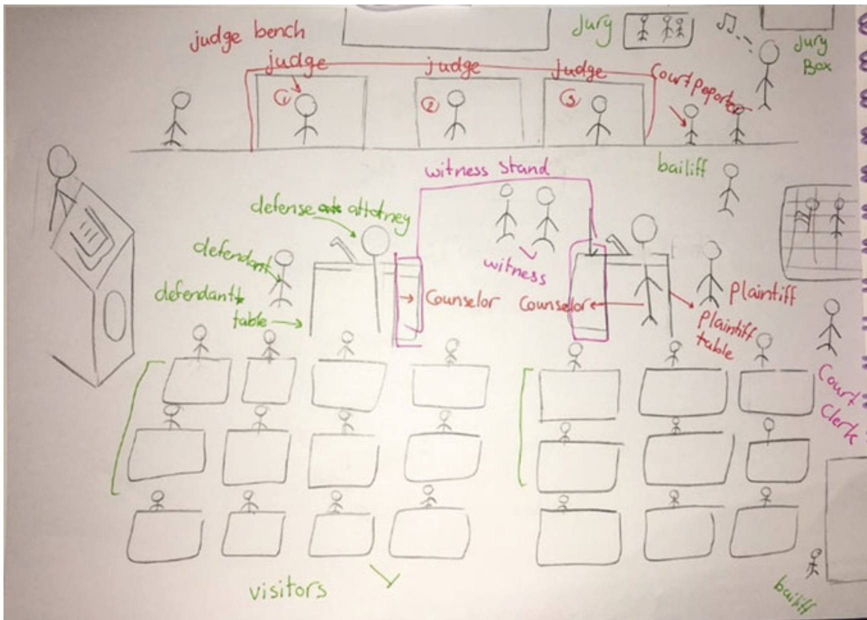

Fig. 1.5 Using multimodality in language assessment

accomplishing their communicative purposes" (p. 36). What these examples show us is that students are able to use multiple resources for task completion and display their creativity in utilizing translingual resources if teachers are willing to create spaces for them to go beyond traditional monolingual assessment practices.

Value Clarification

Students bring certain values to the classroom which may or may not align with the expectations of an educational institute or classroom setting that administrators and teachers hold (Raza, 2019). These values are often based upon their religion, culture, identity, language, and previous experience. Teachers can play a pivotal role in working with these values by creating opportunities for students to share their views about different topics, discuss their opinions, and reach a consensus through healthy argumentation. While discussing and negotiating these values, students should be encouraged to draw upon their linguistic repertoire for argument development.

To integrate value clarification in his teaching, Kashif exposed his students to different aspects of looking at things/concepts (e.g., culture, language, religion, relationships, diversity) without imposing his personal beliefs. Thus, they were invited to use critical thinking, problem solving skills and prior knowledge to discuss topics presented to them during lessons. To do so, Kashif included topics and tasks that were

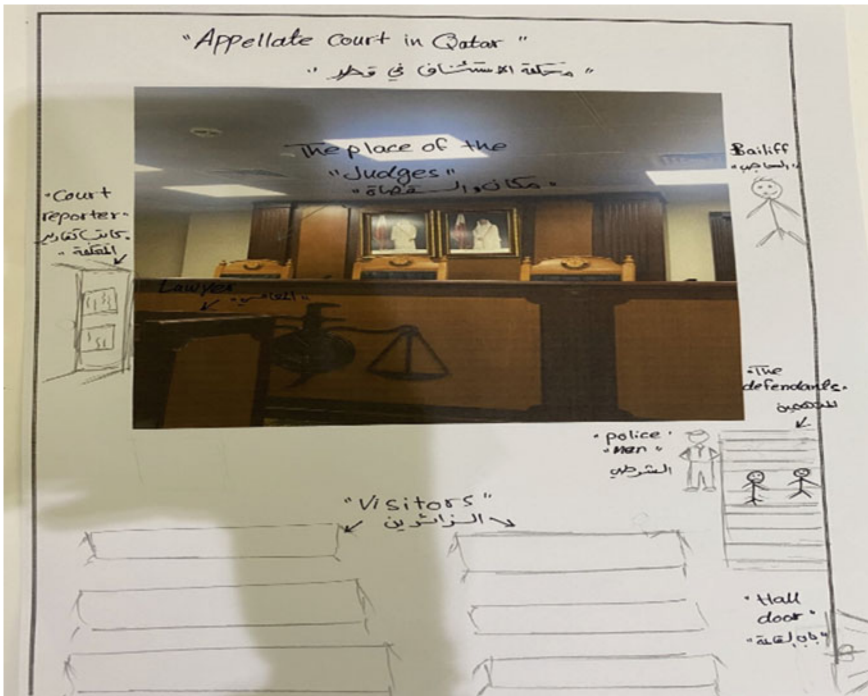

Fig. 1.6 Using multilingualism in language assessment

controversial in nature and may not always have a single correct answer; however, students were required to support their position by providing a strong reason and some relevant examples. This allowed students to agree or disagree with others and support their stance with an explanation, hence critical thinking and value clarification. An example of such activities is discussion on topics like multiculturalism and multilingualism. Since Qatar is a Muslim Arab country with a multicultural and multilingual population, Kashif's student population interacts with multiple layers of diversity every day. How do they feel about it? What do they think of other religions, languages, and cultures? What can we do to promote cultural and linguistic diversity at the social as well as the classroom level? Should we accept other cultures and languages in our country and class? What challenges does diversity create for our societies? How can we deal with these challenges? Can certain languages co-exist? Questions like these invited students to think about their views and share them with others for feedback and discussion. As students shared their opinions, others were welcomed to agree or disagree with their peers' stances and provide explanation for their positions.

Kashif also developed his value clarification activities on culturally sustaining pedagogy (Paris & Alim, 2017) that, in addition to focusing on deconstructing the

identities of cultural norms of students of color from deficit to valuable, emphasizes on integrating contemporary developments in cultural practices, especially of youth culture, into the curriculum as well as critically contending "with problematic elements expressed in some youth (and adult) cultural practices" that do not align with their dominant cultural practices (p. 4). As noted above, with increasing immigration, multiculturalism, and multilingualism in Qatar, students interact with these constructs every day. As they worked on their learning tasks, Kashif created opportunities for them to critically evaluate how they construct their identities as young Qatari, Arab, Muslim students living with diverse communities where multiple religions, languages, and cultures are practiced. An example of such critical self-reflections is the speaking exam where students were asked to identify a social issue, discuss its causes and effects, and propose solutions. Ali (a pseudonym), for instance, presented on "traditional food and the younger generation" and argued that:

> Younger generation are now going out to eat a lot of different food and avoid eating traditional food which will cost us losing our cultural food through younger generation.

After highlighting the causes of the younger generation's growing tendency toward international cuisine, Ali proposed that we need to:

- Raise awareness about the importance of holding onto our traditional food, especially among the younger generation
- Open more traditional Qatari restaurants in all the crowded areas in Qatar to attract customers and support the owners
- Encourage young Qataris to cook the traditional food and pass it on to their children

As Ali presented his arguments, he included pictures (Fig. 1.7) of traditional foods, historical places, Qatari dress, and examples of parents passing on traditional food cooking skills to their children [another example of the use of non-verbal semiotic resources in language assessment (Canagarajah, 2018)]. Such discussions invited students to take a critical gaze at their identity construction in a diverse society, learn and share information about their culture and tradition, and develop a sense of their belongingness to the dominant Arab, Qatari, Muslim culture.

Keeping a Teaching Journal

As a reflective teacher, Kashif keeps track of what goes well in the classroom and what needs modification. This allows him to reflect upon his teaching style, course content, instruction, and materials, and make necessary changes to increase his effectiveness as a teacher and the suitability of the materials used for teaching. He keeps a teaching journal where he notes down everyday progress of the class, materials used to cover course objectives, supplementary materials for practice and to cover unplanned lessons, repeated issues faced by the students in a particular lesson, course or semester, or in developing a specific skill, feedback provided by other teachers

Fig. 1.7 Student group project presentation

#	Strategy	Examples/Ideas of implementation
1	Understanding student population	
2	Filtering instruction	
3	Increasing student participation	
4	Considering value clarification	

Fig. 1.8 Teaching journal

during lesson observations, new ideas he plans to implement in future lessons, and any other points related to teaching and learning process. An example of this journal is the use of the first four points of the TAM (Raza, 2018, 2020) in the form of a chart (Fig. 1.8). Kashif keeps a hard copy around himself to take notes frequently and then reflect upon them. The examples and discussions in the previous four subsections are examples from his teaching journal.

Discussion and Reflection

Multilingualism, simply put, is the ability to speak more than two different languages fluently. Contrary to what many people believe, the vast majority of the world's

population is either bilingual or multilingual. In fact, it is estimated that more than half of the world's population use two or more languages in their everyday lives, and there exists a large body of research highlighting the benefits of multilingualism (Kroll & Dussias, 2017; Muller, 2018). As such, it makes sense to incorporate as many languages into our classrooms as possible. There are a number of benefits associated with being multilingual and using multilingual practices in our classrooms. Many of the benefits presented below were found to be inherent in Kashif's classroom and espoused through the TAM framework discussed in this chapter.

A major benefit of multilingualism that is pretty much universally agreed upon is that speaking more than one language is better for your brain and makes you smarter. Research has revealed that early bilingual proficiency has been found to be positively correlated with intelligence (Bialystok, 2017). Speaking more than one language from an early age means that your brain has to work harder in those critical development years and you therefore become smarter. Bi- and multilingual children benefit from this for the rest of their lives (Ramirez et al., 2016). With their better understanding of how language functions, bilingual children often grow up to be able to communicate meaningfully with the world around them (Kinzler, 2016). They are also found to have better attention spans because they have had more practice at paying attention to things like choosing which language to use or interpret (Bialystok et al., 2014). Further research reported on by Okal (2014) has found that multilingualism practices enhance intellectual flexibility and creativity. Recent studies have indicated that children who grow up in a supportive environment speaking more than one language from an early age are more perceptive and intellectually flexible than those who speak one language.

Another major benefit of the multilingual classroom is that multilingual students are more empathetic. So, classrooms with a multilingual atmosphere like the one showcased in this chapter are more likely to produce learners who understand that to be equal to someone, does not mean they have to be the same as or similar to them. Multilingual instruction fosters a type of meaningful diplomacy by growing student's appreciation of different cultures (10 Advantages to Being Multilingual, 2017). As such, the presence of an empathetic attitude will provide access to richer, more diverse social networks which help secure student success and social mobility later on in life (Dewaele & Li, 2012; Fan et al., 2016).

Multilingualism and multilingual classroom practices also create an opportunity for early diversity. Access to a multilingual education and classroom offers students an opportunity to celebrate the diversity in human societies and different cultures and provides them the opportunity to learn from differences instead of being afraid of or intimidated by them. Multilingual classrooms are also a means of connecting communities. It is generally believed that students who speak multiple language are better language learners overall. The reason for this is that students who can draw on their L1 knowledge or home language in the classroom or who are permitted to codeswitch helps ensure that they remain connected to their home language, culture, and community (10 Advantages to Being Multilingual, 2017).

Yet another important benefit of being multilingual particularly in the language classroom is that learning one new language makes it easier to learn others. Each

additional language that an individual can learn to speak with fluency will make it much easier to start speaking another language more quickly (Raza, 2020).

Being bilingual or multilingual broadens a student's career prospects (Chau, 2014). Companies and/or businesses today look for employees who are bilingual or multilingual due to the diversity found in today's global population. Proficiency in more than one language is said to immediately improve a student's chances of finding employment upon graduation. Some even believe that students are more likely to get hired at higher salaries (as much as 10–15% more) and into careers with higher social status than their monolingual counterparts (Chau, 2014). This is for the most part due to the fact that multilingual students have more highly developed cognitive skills and on average are said to perform better on general tasks (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

Supporting multilingualism in the classroom can be a valuable pedagogical practice which can result in positive effects on students' academic performance, as well as on other aspects like social and emotional well-being. Whether this is done in a passive way by allowing students to use their home language, or a more active way by implementing teaching and learning practices that draw on more than one language such as Kashif's classroom and his use of the TAM (Raza, 2018, 2020) model, it is crucial to view all students' languages as resources that can be used and exploited in the language classroom. The case study described in this classroom offers but one way to employ multilingual classroom practices at the university level. These five strategies make up Raza's (2018, 2020) Teaching Adaptation Model and focus on: understanding the student population, filtering instruction, increasing student participation, considering value clarification, and keeping a teaching journal.

Conclusion

In this chapter and in later chapters of this volume, we (and other chapter authors) have reflected on and cited the growing body of research evidence showing that preventing learners from using their home languages in the English language classroom not only impedes their learning and denies their linguistic human rights (Heugh et al., 2019), but also results in the loss of valuable opportunities for teachers to draw on their students' knowledge and experience as resources for teaching. For many decades, educators, researchers, and policymakers across the globe have engaged in debate about how to ensure and maximize English language proficiency. In the past, some thought that learning and/or using two or more languages simultaneously in the classroom was somehow confusing to students and detrimental to their education. However, based on new research on the many cognitive, social, and economic benefits of bilingualism and multilingualism, that debate has all but ended and educators are encouraged to engage in and enact meaningful multilingual classroom practices like the ones showcased in this chapter and volume.

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Chapter 2
Culturally Sustaining Practices in a Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Preschool Classroom

Catherine Restrepo-Widney and Sabrina F. Sembiante

Abstract Culturally sustaining pedagogy (CSP) supports multilingual and multicultural perspectives and practices for educators and students by fostering linguistic, literate, and cultural pluralism as part of schooling. The study presented in this chapter responds to the necessity for more CSP-informed research in preschool contexts by examining pedagogical practices that sustain preschool children's linguistic and cultural heritages in spaces supportive of family engagement. The study is guided by the following research questions: (1) What does CSP look like in a culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) preschool setting? and (2) How does a CSP-informed preschool unit engage family participation? The study was conducted in a mixed-age monolingual preschool classroom serving a CLD student population in South Florida. Observations of lesson planning and delivery and informal discussions with teachers occurred over a two-week period and followed two lesson units on Japan and India, reflective of participating students' heritages. Supported by observation field notes and lesson plan documents, we engaged in a content analysis to examine the nature of CSP-informed curricular and instructional practices. Results show that educators created their unit around the four tenets of CSP: seeking community agency (e.g., parent-led activities and parent-informed lesson plans), integrating language practices (e.g., Japanese and Hindi vocabulary and phrases), incorporating cultural/historicized content (e.g., culturally authentic art and shared reading activities), and teaching about CLD groups (e.g., centering students' heritages in curriculum). Findings shed light on CSP-informed pedagogical practices appropriate for preschool settings designed to sustain children's heritages while providing welcoming, supportive spaces for family engagement.

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Introduction

Early childhood classrooms are more racially and ethnically diverse than ever before. Based on a recent U.S. national survey, 49% of young children are Hispanic, African American, Black, Asian, or bi-racial and 50% are non-Hispanic White (Kids Count Data Center, 2021). Twenty-five percent of children below six years of age have one foreign-born parent and 27% of children in this age group have at least one parent who speaks a language other than English (Migration Policy Institute, 2019). With 25% of young children in the U.S. qualifying as dual language learners, many of these children have parents originating from China (3%), El Salvador (4%), India (7%), Mexico (41%), and the Philippines (3%) (Child Trends, 2018). With such diversity in language and culture, early childhood classrooms can provide a space to sustain children's cultural and linguistic heritage through instructional practices that recognize and expand on these rich repertoires.

Culturally Sustaining Practices and Family Participation in Preschool

Culturally sustaining pedagogy (CSP), emerging from culturally responsive pedagogy traditions (Ladson-Billings, 1995), supports multilingual and multicultural perspectives and practices for educators and students by fostering linguistic, literate, and cultural pluralism as part of schooling (Paris, 2012). In the context of early childhood education (ECE), CSP honors children's funds of knowledge by centering their experiences and framing their community-based knowledge and culture as valuable (Souto-Manning, 2016). To support children's full meaning-making potential, CSP invites children to participate in the classroom through all of their available semiotic resources and modes [e.g., art, clay, dramatic play (Ntelioglou et al., 2014)]. Despite the value of CSP for preschool, the nature of CSP in preschool contexts remains relatively unexplored and specifically for culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) preschool children.

Of the few researchers who have explored the applications of CSP at preschool level, Harris et al. (2020) documented a critical participatory action research to support the developing literacy practices of 51 children and their families across three Fijian communities. They employed CSP dialogically to facilitate the co-creation of multilingual books in children's heritage languages. Designed to acknowledge and incorporate community modes and identities, they developed ten CSP-based practices (i.e., embrace community languages, engage with community cultures, understand community ways, ensure community inclusion, incorporate community modes, emphasize community relevance, connect with community identities, mobilize community agency, enact ethics in communities, embed assessment in community contexts). Beyond providing children with access to co-written, authentic, and

multilingual books, the creation of these multilingual books brought the community together, reinforcing and sustaining their cultural traditions.

Citing findings from prior studies, Souto-Manning (2016) argued for the inclusion of specific literacy practices that reinforce high academic standards for young bi/multilingual learners while fostering children's cultural competence and critical consciousness. Similar to Harris et al. (2020), she encouraged the co-authoring of books featuring traditional and contemporary aspects of children's lives in the languages that reflect children's heritages (e.g., Souto-Manning & Martell, 2016). Through the use of oral history projects, teachers can invite children's families into the classroom space to share narratives about the day children were born, engaging children's community and culture, valuing family funds of knowledge, and helping children learn about their own histories (e.g., Souto-Manning & Martell, 2016). Ensuring that classroom literature represents a diverse array of racial, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds provides a pathway to expand children's perspectives and helps them feel acknowledged in school. Artifactual literacy is another mode of cultural sustenance whereby teachers invite children to bring and discuss personally meaningful objects. Children's object-based expression reaffirms their cultural practices and serves as a foundation for their literacy and text-making (Pahl & Rowsell, 2011; Souto-Manning, 2016).

Other applications of CSP have been adopted with elementary-aged children and feature pedagogical practices promoting their engagement with racialized discourses, appreciation of their (African) heritage, contention with immigrant issues, and exposure to historical events omitted from curricular texts. In first, second, and third grade classrooms, researchers explore the effects of teachers integrating outside literature on topics pertinent to children (Allen, 2015) or harnessing children's creative, inventive practices to develop materials responsive to their languages and cultural traditions (Long et al., 2013). In both a kindergarten and second grade classroom, researchers document how teachers integrate historical content and scaffold concrete, historical discussions with children, resulting in the strengthening of children's identities and positive self- and cultural perceptions (Boutte & Strickland, 2008; Laman & Henderson, 2018). These studies present inroads into the application of CSP in elementary classrooms with regard to Black and African American experiences and U.S. immigration issues specifically. In comparison, relatively few CSP-focused studies have aimed their investigation toward preschool classrooms, children from heterogeneous ethnic and cultural heritages, and the affordances of family integration in preschool spaces. The study presented in this chapter responds to the necessity for more research in this area and is guided by the following research questions: (1) What does CSP look like in a CLD preschool setting? and (2) How does a CSP-informed preschool unit engage family participation?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of culturally relevant pedagogy (CRP) (Ladson-Billings, 1995) acknowledges the importance of integrating children's racial and ethnic identities, languages, cultures, and community experiences into curricular and ideological dimensions to empower children. While CRP provides a powerful contemporary approach, CSP (Paris, 2012) extends principles to foster and support the dynamic features of culture in society, recognizing the fluidity, complexity, and hybridity of culture and reflecting these in curriculum. CSP-informed pedagogy centers CLD groups through teaching about their cultural and historicized content and the language practices reflective of the community and children (Ferlazzo, 2017). In an early childhood context, this requires educators to create meaningful and relevant lessons presenting opportunities for children to enact and engage with their respective communities' modes of expression (e.g., song, dance, culinary art, text, crafts, and oral storytelling) (Harris et al., 2020). Teachers shift the focus from culturally dominant norms of educational achievement to pluralist outcomes legitimizing the real-life skills, knowledge, and routines of children, their families, and community networks (Paris & Alim, 2014). Children, families, and communities become the primary resource in informing the creation of lesson unit plans where cultural and linguistic practices are reified through opportunities to act out and experience tangible applications in the classroom. We use CSP as a lens to explore the pedagogical choices made by a teacher in a CLD preschool setting to understand how children were asked to engage with culture and language. The four tenets of CSP [i.e., seeking community agency, integrating language practices, incorporating cultural/historicized content, and teaching about CLD groups (Ferlazzo, 2017)] guide our understanding of how teachers navigate diverse racial, ethnic, and linguistic communities within the classroom.

Method

Setting

The case study was conducted in a private, monolingual English early childhood laboratory school situated on a public university's main campus in the southeastern United States. The surrounding metropolitan area consists of 53% White residents, 23% Hispanic residents, and 18% Black residents (U.S. Census Bureau, 2019). The tuition-based center serves approximately 100 culturally and linguistically diverse children ranging in age from birth through five years. Due to its laboratory school status, the center operates as a fieldwork site for students obtaining degrees from the local universities. The center was accredited following the National Association for the Education of Young Children for research, theory, and practice. The center's six lead teachers held Bachelor's degrees, four of whom were obtaining

their Master's degree. Most assistant teachers were completing their associates or Bachelor's degree. We chose to highlight this classroom as a case study because the teacher's practices were CSP-aligned. The focal preschool classroom started their instruction together during the June summer semester and would stay together until the end of the spring semester in May. A critical component of the center's curricular approach included project-based learning which establishes children's interest as the driving force behind content coverage (Clark, 2006). The selected preschool classroom's project unit "*What's on Earth?*" was derived from children's interest in classroom maps and globes.

Participants

The focal preschool classroom comprised sixteen children between the ages of three years, three months and four years, two months who reflected a wide range of heritage cultures. Children's heritage cultures included Brazilian, Ghanian, Indian, Italian, Japanese, Moroccan, New Zealand, Panamanian, Polish, Romanian, and Vietnamese. Four children from Indian, Italian, Japanese, and Vietnamese backgrounds were emergent bilingual, learning English in the classroom and speaking and learning their heritage languages at home, while the remaining children were predominantly exposed to only English at home. The lead teacher, Ms. Sadie had 18 years of ECE teaching experience, eight of which were at this center. She held a Bachelor's degree and was enrolled in a Master's degree program. She was born and raised in the southeastern United States, in the same city in which the early childhood laboratory school was located. Ms. Sadie is 42 years old and a monolingual English speaker of Scottish descent.

Data Collection

Data collection occurred over a two-week period for four hours each school day. During this time, the first author observed classroom interactions, took field notes, and collected classroom artifacts. The first author engaged in the activities with participants and served as a volunteer teacher aide in the classroom. The first author documented activities, teacher delivery of lessons, children's reaction and behavior, parental feedback, classroom interactions, lesson sequences, activity content and the use of art as part of her field notes. Classroom artifacts included lesson unit plans, photos of the activity process and children's work, and copies of the read-aloud text which were collected to contextualize and further document aspects of the classroom activities. Field notes were typed at the conclusion of the school day and saved with any classroom artifact collected on the corresponding day.

Data Coding and Analysis

The authors coded field notes, lesson unit plans, read-aloud texts, and parent interactions to identify key features of CSP (i.e., language practice, community agency, cultural/historicized content, and CLD groups) in curricular and instructional practices. Language practice codes indexed participant use of the Hindi and Japanese languages. Community agency codes captured student-centered and parent-led activities. Cultural/historicized codes involved the general dissemination of Japan and India's history and culture, and CLD group codes represented moments of cross-cultural comparison and feelings of empathy and appreciation. After independently coding, the authors compared and discussed codes to clarify themes and resolve coding conflicts and definitions.

Results

Results show that educators created their unit around the four tenets of CSP: seeking community agency, integrating language practices, incorporating cultural/historicized content, and teaching about CLD groups.

Seeking Community Agency

Whereas families are often shut out of schools, culturally sustaining teachers seek to draw from communities' funds of knowledge and reflect families' needs and desires in their children's schooling (Paris & Alim, 2014). In this preschool classroom, teachers recruited parents to suggest, develop, and/or lead authentic activities reflective of aspects of their heritage cultures. Upon their acceptance of the invitation, parents were welcomed by Ms. Sadie to develop parent-led and -informed activities showcasing aspects of their culture for the lesson unit.

Ms. Sadie began by sending out a letter to parents informing them about the multicultural lesson units and inviting parents to plan activities that represent their cultures. After Eriko, Khushbu, and Anahita's mothers volunteered to participate, Ms. Sadie met with them informally during drop-off and pick-up times to explore their ideas, asking parents to develop an activity that represented their family. Ms. Sadie was intentional in embracing parents' ideas or providing suggestions or examples of potential activities as needed (e.g., cooking, bringing an artifact, choosing and reading a book, singing, presenting family routines, and creating a PowerPoint presentation). She welcomed parents to bring their own materials but also encouraged their use of any classroom resources. Ms. Sadie integrated parents' planned activities into the rest of the day's events, announcing and previewing parents' activities with children in morning circle (e.g., showing children the cover of the book *Binny's Diwali*)

Fig. 2.1 Ms. Sadie's Diwali PowerPoint presentation

and developing related content and activities throughout the day (e.g., presenting a PowerPoint to children about Diwali, the Indian festival of lights (see Fig. 2.1); using the vocabulary words learned by Khushbu's mother during the creation of the Taj Mahal model). Giving families the opportunity to present their culture to children highlighted Ms. Sadie's value of the families' heritage and enhanced their confidence and agency to reaffirm their culture in and outside of the classroom setting. By creating a welcoming and responsive space in the classroom and curriculum for children's families, culturally sustaining teachers reinforce the value of families' cultural knowledge and practices, their involvement in their children's education, and their choice of subject matter to share.

Integrating Language Practices

The Japanese and Hindi languages were important mediums employed by the teacher to authentically introduce and expose children to the cultures and countries of Japan and India. Teachers integrated Japanese and Hindi languages in the CSP-informed preschool unit by relying on parents' bi/multilingual expertise and integrating several

intentional practices around languaging such as: translating high-frequency classroom vocabulary into Japanese and Hindi (e.g., numbers 1–10, primary colors, weather, alphabet), creating opportunities to use this vocabulary during activities; co-selecting texts with parents showcasing Japanese and Hindi vocabulary and corresponding writing systems; asking parents to demonstrate Japanese and Hindi writing; and playing videos of number and color songs in Japanese and Hindi.

For example, parents were invited to choose and read a picture book representing their heritage culture and language during read-aloud time. During the Indian unit, Anahita's mother read *Binny's Diwali* (Umrigar, 2020) containing information about the Hindu festival of lights and the story of a young Indian girl, Binny, who tells her classmates about the festival. During the reading, Anahita's mother frequently stopped to discuss the concepts in the story, further explained text-based Hindi words (e.g., jalebis are a type of syrup-soaked doughnut) and facilitated associations for children to help scaffold their understanding (e.g., asking children which treats they enjoy on holidays) (Fig. 2.2).

Parents expanded children's knowledge of Japanese and Hindi by demonstrating their writing systems (Hiragana and Devanagari alphabets, respectively) and composing each child's name. During the Japanese unit, Eriko's mom wrote the Hiragana character "ろ" on an easel board in front of the class, asking children what the figure most closely resembled (i.e., a "3"). As the children's learning progressed, Eriko's mom modified her questions (e.g., first asking about figure recognition then asking what the children thought the character represented) to further develop their critical thinking. Eriko then assisted her mother in the pronunciation of the characters (i.e., "ろ" is pronounced "ro"), followed by the class repeating after them. After the collective lesson, Ms. Sadie (the lead teacher) handed children personalized papers

Fig. 2.2 Reading *Binny's Diwali* with Anahita and her mother

with their name written in Hiragana, providing space on the page for children to practice writing their name in Hiragana while Eriko's mom helped each child pronounce what they had written.

The above examples represented two of the many ways in which the teacher integrated language practices in CSP-informed units, relying on family engagement and reading, writing, and art modalities to support and reinforce concepts.

Incorporating Cultural/Historicized Content

As a part of sustaining students' cultural practices, educators must integrate the histories and cultures of racial, ethnic, linguistic communities and their larger nation-states into the curriculum (Paris & Alim, 2014). In the context of early childhood, culture and history are made most accessible to preschoolers through tactile, experiential activities that provide engaging and participatory ways for them to experience some of the lived and sensed representations (e.g., smell, touch, see, taste, hear) of these otherwise abstract histories and cultures. To highlight facets of the Japanese and Hindi history and culture, teachers developed activities around traditional food (e.g., Fried Rice, Paneer Kathi Rolls, and Khaman Dhokla), festivals (e.g., Diwali), significant national representations (e.g., Taj Mahal and Japan's national flag), books featuring folklore and festivals (e.g., *Peach Boy* and *Binny's Diwali*), and customary genres of music.

For example, during the lesson unit on India, Ms. Sadie used the festival of Diwali as a medium through which to introduce and engage children with connected aspects of culture, history, religion, and social tradition. She presented videos about the history of the festival and actual footage of past Diwali celebrations showcasing *Garba* dancing and traditional attire (e.g., saris). Anahita's mother was invited to read *Binny's Diwali* (Umrigar, 2020) illustrating an Indian child's experience of Diwali. Khushbu and Anahita's mothers also visited the classroom to showcase how to make *Dhokla*, a sweet sponge cake with coconut, eaten during Diwali. After group discussion about the videos and book, Ms. Sadie announced that the class would be preparing for their own Diwali festival. As depicted in Fig. 2.3, children were provided chiffon fabric and ribbon to create their own saris (in the form of a sash) and practiced how to say *Shubh Diwali* (Happy Diwali in Hindi). Ms. Sadie coordinated the children's Diwali parade, inviting children's families and other preschool classes to attend the festival. Children danced and walked across the school's campus playing traditional Diwali music and wishing bystanders *Shubh Diwali*.

Rather than focusing on one unifying cultural event as was done during the lesson unit on India, Ms. Sadie incorporated a number of different historical and cultural aspects during the Japanese lesson unit to form a representation of Japan's history and culture. Ms. Sadie started with an activity around the Japanese flag, discussing its shape (i.e., circle, rectangle), colors (i.e., red, white), and meaning (i.e., sun: power, emperor; white: purity) with children and engaging them in an activity to paint their own Japanese flag. Eriko's mother demonstrated how to prepare Japanese fried rice,

Fig. 2.3 Measuring fabric to create a sari

cooking the rice in front of children and inviting them to add and mix typical Japanese ingredients during its preparation (i.e., soy sauce, carrots, rice; see Fig. 2.4).

Afterward, children enjoyed the meal together and were provided with chopsticks to practice eating the rice. Ms. Sadie introduced children to the Japanese Artist

Fig. 2.4 Mixing ingredients while preparing Japanese Fried Rice

Tomioka Tessai and his art, known for its broad brush strokes. She designed an art activity where children created their own paintings using similar broad brush strokes, targeting children's fine motor skills and presenting them with a tactile way of connecting with this Japanese art/ist. Other art activities were created around the importance and meaning of Cherry Blossom trees and Koi fish in Japanese culture and having children paint and create both objects out of construction paper. Music was another means in which Ms. Sadie infused Japanese history and culture into the curriculum, playing two genres of Japanese music for children (i.e., Gagaku, Biwa), providing children with the opportunity to dance to these genres of music, presenting pictures of Japanese instruments (e.g., taiko, koto), and showing YouTube videos of traditional Japanese dance (e.g., Bon Odori).

Through children's embodied experiences with Japanese and Indian art, cultural customs, national representations, music, and food, children were provided with access and an introduction to the cultures and histories of these different nations.

Teaching About CLD Group

As a way of countering hegemonic focus on white, English, monolingual/monocultural practices, CSP advocates for the importance of creating curricular spaces for the learning and engagement with different cultures to show their value and true image (Paris & Alim, 2014). In a CLD preschool classroom, this means discussing cross-cultural comparisons to create opportunities for children to engage in critical reflections around lived experiences and activities. To be able to create cross-cultural comparisons between Japanese, Hindi and American cultures, the teacher-centered activities that were familiar to the children (e.g., preschool, formal clothing, food, holidays and greetings) to build off of their past knowledge and experiences.

To illustrate, during the lesson unit on Japan, Ms. Sadie presented a video about a Japanese preschool. The video highlighted customs throughout the school day such as morning circle (e.g., bowing to greet and sitting in chairs) and lunch time (e.g., waiting for everyone to sit down to eat). Ms. Sadie frequently stopped the video to have children consider critical questions comparing similar and different cultural traditions (e.g., "How do children in Japan get to school?" and "How do you get to school?"). To cultivate children's appreciation of Japanese culture, Ms. Sadie invited children to experience some of the customs and traditions of Japanese preschool culture. The children embodied dimensions of the Japanese culture through food (e.g., making and eating with chopsticks; see Fig. 2.5), customs (e.g., taking shoes off at the door and sitting in chairs during group sessions), manners (e.g., bowing to demonstrate appreciation) and art (e.g., painting Cherry Blossom Trees). Participating in the Japanese traditions allowed children to internalize the multifaceted and often abstract phenomena that comprise a culture. Ms. Sadie solicited children's feelings as a way for them to empathize with the socioemotional aspects of Japanese culture and to stimulate their critical thinking around cross-cultural comparisons. She questioned

Fig. 2.5 Practicing the use of chopsticks to pick up and taste seaweed

the children on their feelings while engaging in the Japanese customs and traditions (e.g., "How do you feel?", "Do you like taking your shoes off?" and "Do we like sitting in chairs instead of sitting on the floor?").

This example provides an insight of the discussions during CSP-informed activities to support children's reification and reflection in cross-cultural comparisons of Japanese and American preschool culture and customs.

Discussion

Our findings shed light on CSP-informed pedagogical practices appropriate for preschool settings designed to sustain children's heritages while providing welcoming, supportive spaces for family engagement. One way in which investigating the English and additional language development of preschoolers might vary from other age groups in the domain of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is the conceptualization of children's language learning status. Given that all preschoolers are emerging as language learners, using the term English language learners to categorize those who are exposed to additional languages fails to recognize the emergent and developing status of all children into the verbal modality of language. From this perspective, language learning and teaching must be approached holistically: Children need to be provided with authentic opportunities

for language use and exposure tied to socially and culturally valued activities that are reflective of their home lives and communities.

Approaches supportive of multilingual TESOL in English-medium preschool settings means inviting children to explore their heritage languages and cultures (e.g., creating units about different countries, cultures, and customs), helping children make metalinguistic connections between English and heritage languages (e.g., comparisons between letters and sounds across languages), and inviting members of those languages and cultures into the classroom to share their traditions. Children learn language through participating in hands-on, experiential activities. By communicating and interacting with others during these activities, children are afforded with opportunities to hear and practice the language forms (e.g., sentence frames, word meanings, and discourse styles) that they observe being used. CSP-informed approaches underscore the development of language by building foundational knowledge of culture and the relationship between culture and language. Together the four CSP tenets foster an understanding and appreciation for cultures and languages that support the co-existence and co-development of languages required in classrooms.

The centering of communities' funds of knowledge was achieved through inviting families to share the cultural knowledge and practices of their choice as part of the curriculum. Ms. Sadie's invitation to families was organic and unconfining, asking families to choose activities that represented them so as to encourage community-responsive, bottom-up approaches rather than top-down, teacher-centered ideas. These requests need to be open-ended in order to encourage the cultural fluidity, complexity, and hybridity of families' funds of knowledge and the rich array of information communicated by their cultural practices (Paris, 2012). A central aspect of families' funds of knowledge is the range of modes they employ in cultivating and sharing cultural information, such as through singing, storytelling, cooking, music, dancing, and other forms of art (Harris et al., 2020). Part of inviting families' cultural know-how into the classroom space is validating their respective mode of expression to create home-school connections between community-based linguistic, literate, and cultural practices and ways of "doing school" (Love, 2015). Although this chapter has focused primarily on sustaining the cultures of different nation-states, the racial and ethnic cultures of African American, Latinx American, Asian American, or Native American cultures should be promoted using similar approaches (Love, 2015).

In integrating Japanese and Hindi languages into the lessons about Japanese and Indian culture, families were able to showcase the use of their languages to children, heightening the authenticity and meaning of their cultural activities. Exposure to words and ideas in different languages may promote children's development of key emergent literacy skills crucial for literacy development (Soltero-González & Butvilofsky, 2020). Hearing and seeing transliterations of words in Hindi and Japanese may enhance children's sound-to-symbol connections and the concept that one idea or object may have different labels across languages (Ferreiro, 1990). Presenting these vocabulary words written in their original alphabets also expands children's concepts of print to include different symbols, sounds, reading directionality, writing system, and writing conventions (Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1982). Moreover, the presentation of languages and cultures through a medium of shared

and familiar experiences contributes to children's inference that the world encompasses a rich variety of languages and cultures, countering any perceptions of foreign languages and cultures as unusual or insignificant (Souto-Manning, 2016). Providing hands-on experiences around the cultural and historical aspects of children's racial, ethnic, and linguistic communities provides an important inroad toward their understanding and concrete participation in these potentially abstract concepts. Although the range and depth to which children learned about the Indian and Japanese cultures during the week-long units already surpasses Banks' description of the Holidays and Heroes approach (Banks, 1988), the difference between this approach and what Paris and Alim (2014) advocated in their reference to historicized content (Ferlazzo, 2017) is important to delineate. Tying experiential activities to elucidate the historical knowledge of communities is a developmentally appropriate way to introduce and engage preschoolers in the past and present practices of groups of people, whether that grouping is by neighborhood, community, or nation state (Harris et al., 2020). Eriko's, Khushbu's, and Anahita's family members worked with Ms. Sadie to create tangible, tactile, and experiential representations of Indian and Japanese histories and cultures that would peak their interest, create a positive memory, and help children expand their general understanding about historical practices. These activities also provided a window into children's family history by centering cherished family cooking, reading, or celebratory routines, showcasing and engaging children in the communal practices representative of historical and cultural tradition (Souto-Manning, 2016; Souto-Manning & Martell, 2016). An additional way in which Ms. Sadie extended historicized content beyond the Holidays and Heroes approach was by contextualizing numeracy and literacy concepts into historical learning and infusing these across classroom centers (block play, whole group, morning circle) (Wohlhuter & Quintero, 2003). Through a focus on the Taj Mahal, children learned the history and cultural significance of this landmark for Indian culture while learning vocabulary words to describe its shapes and colors, counting the number of its pillars, and reinforcing these concepts by building their own replica in the block play center.

Dedicating time and attention toward families' cultures and other CLD groups is a means of countering curricular bias toward white, English, or monolingual/monocultural experiences and underscoring the value of cultural diversity. A focus on CLD groups also situates children to consider similarities and differences in cultural norms across groups, supporting their ability to analyze and make inferences. Among the four tenets of CSP, preschool teachers must incorporate opportunities for children's exposure and engagement with historized content first so that they can begin comparing CLD groups' histories and cultural practices thereafter. The act of comparison promotes children's understanding of one culture in contrast to another and supports their inferencing abilities, foundational for their literacy development and later reading performance (Oakhill & Cain, 2012). Moreover, rich opportunities to "value cultural and linguistic sharing across difference" (Paris, 2012, p. 95) can stem from comparisons across cultures that reinforce peers' shared kinship despite children's cultural variations.

Practical Implications

Relatively few studies have provided insight into CSP for preschool classrooms, for/with children of heterogeneous cultural and ethnic backgrounds, and the place of family integration in sustaining culture. Moreover, for preschoolers who are all emergent language learners, an important component of CSP for this age group is to support and sustain their developing language knowledge while inviting children to make connections across their languages. The findings of this study hold practical implications for how teachers can apply CSP to preschool classrooms and below; we identify some practical implications for teachers looking to integrate CSP principles in their preschool curriculum.

- Create unit themes and topics that reflect families' social and cultural realities, including their cultural backgrounds, languages, occupations, neighborhoods, and pastimes.
- Expose children to other languages during activities and create opportunities for children to hear, speak, read, and write these languages (e.g., expressing morning circle salutations in different languages, reading bi/multilingual books, translating high-frequency, activity-related vocabulary words, presenting children's names in different writing systems, and playing music and nursery rhymes in these languages, etc.).
- Read books that incorporate words from other languages (e.g., *Binny's Diwali*) or which showcase traditions, customs, and other artifacts of students' heritage cultures. For this purpose, family and community members can be invited to select and read culturally and linguistically relevant and meaningful texts.
- Incorporate media (i.e., videos and images) showcasing preschool children's realities, routines, and lifestyles in different countries and/or settings (e.g., YouTube videos of a day in the life of a Japanese preschooler).
- Design unit themes and topics that equitably attend to both children's racial and ethnic backgrounds (African/Latinx/Asian/Native American) in addition to nationality.
- Integrate aspects of unit themes into other classroom activities and play centers adding culturally relevant media, objects, materials, print, or images representative of the target culture (e.g., picture of Taj Mahal in block play, chopsticks added to utensils in kitchen area of dramatic play, Taiko and Koto added to the music area of classroom).
- Help families brainstorm examples of their valued practices and offer suggestions and ideas for how they could concretize these into classroom activities.
- Allow families to assume a lead teacher role in activities and serve in a supporting role to facilitate classroom management and supplement activity content and direction.
- Welcome embodied forms of families' funds of knowledge such as singing, storytelling, cooking, music, dancing, and other forms of art.
- Invite families to share their personal history and connect this to other relevant historical events and concepts (e.g., wars, civil rights movement, artists).

- Integrate numeracy skills (e.g., showcasing years on a timeline) and literacy skills (e.g., pointing out the capitalization in important people or event names) as part of history-focused lessons.
- Plan group conversations with children that scaffold their comparison and contrast of cultural norms, practices, routines, points of view, and traditions [while avoiding a Holidays and Heroes approach (Banks, 1988) focused solely on foods, celebrations, and famous figures].

Conclusion

The study presented in this chapter responds to the necessity for more CSP-informed curricula in preschool contexts and showcases ways of implementing multilingual TESOL practices with preschoolers. We investigated what CSP looks like in a CLD preschool setting and how a CSP-informed preschool unit engages family participation. We were able to gain insight into preschool-appropriate CSP practices through observations of Ms. Sadie's lesson planning and delivery. We engaged in a content analysis of observation, field notes and lesson plans to examine her application and integration of CSP and family involvement into her curriculum and instructional practices. Her practices illustrated the four tenets of CSP: seeking community agency (e.g., parent-led activities and parent-informed lesson plans), integrating language practices (e.g., Japanese and Hindi vocabulary and phrases), incorporating cultural/historicized content (e.g., culturally authentic art and shared reading activities), and teaching about CLD groups (e.g., centering students' heritages in curriculum). The findings reveal avenues which reroute static and superficial portrayals of diversity into CSP-inspired pedagogical approaches designed to sustain children's heritages through experiential and tactile modalities. CSP practices center families' funds of knowledge to develop authentic lessons through a range of family member-led activities and supplemental classroom lessons and activities. Integrating diversity in preschool through a CSP approach allows children to engage in the fluidity, complexity, and hybridity of culture. In preschool, all children are emerging in their languages, cultures, and family histories. CSP promotes a curricular space to explore these identities and heritages and develop a wonder and appreciation for the world's diversity.

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Chapter 3
English in the Background: Developing an Indigenous Multilingualism in Hawai‘i

Scott Saft

Abstract With English proficiency as a primary goal, educational programs in the United States often pay little attention to other languages spoken by learners, languages that are sometimes minority and even endangered local languages. This chapter describes efforts in Hawai‘i to promote English literacy as a part of a larger program designed to foster a multilingualism that includes the indigenous Hawaiian language, the local creole language (called Pidgin), as well as English. More specifically, the focus is placed on the growing popularity of a Hawaiian medium educational pathway that develops bilingual abilities in Hawaiian and English and also respects Pidgin as a legitimate language of Hawai‘i. In particular, the chapter describes four aspects of the curriculum, an early focus on literacy, the development of a heritage language program, the introduction of English as an academic subject in the fifth grade, and an early college credit program that have thus far yielded positive outcomes.

Introduction

Although bilingual education in the United States has been a source of controversy, the field of TESOL has, as Cummins (2009a, p. 318) noted, "consistently articulated its support for bilingual education as a legitimate policy option for the education of bilingual and language minority students." At the same time, though, Cummins (2009a) pointed out that administrators and instructors have not been united in terms of the allotment of time in the classroom to the teaching of minority languages. Often, students who primarily speak a minority language at home may be placed in special classes under the heading of bilingual education that focus on English with little recognition of their first language (L1) skills and their bilingual capabilities. As Cummins (2009a, p. 318) stressed, such educational practices "perpetuate the monolingual principle by consigning students' L1 to invisibility within the classroom."

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Moreover, not only do such monolingual practices fail to appreciate the L1s of students and their families, but they also reinforce the domination of English throughout the world, which according to Reagan and Osborn (2019, p. 85) is "unmatched in the history of our species." As they reported, roughly 1.5 billion people across the globe study English, a phenomenon that simultaneously underscores the importance of English and sends the message to people in English-speaking countries that it is not necessary to learn other languages. Macedo emphasized this point by noting that "only 1% of Americans succeed in learning an additional language in school" (Macedo, 2019, p. 33).

In order to demonstrate that it is possible to construct a school curriculum in the United States without putting English front and center, this chapter reports on a unique bilingual educational pathway in Hawai'i that has found success in supporting the linguistic development of students by keeping English, more or less, in the background. Falling under the general category of indigenous immersion (Fortune & Tedick, 2008; Tedick et al., 2011), the pathway to be discussed makes the indigenous Hawaiian language the focal point of the educational curriculum. Hawaiian is an endangered language, and the Hawaiian pathway follows other indigenous immersion programs in being "designed to revitalize endangered indigenous cultures and languages and promote their maintenance and development" (Tedick et al., 2011, p. 2). Indigenous immersion has grown around the world, in places such as Oceania, Scandinavia, North America, South America, and Europe focusing on languages that include Basque, Irish, and Welsh, to name just a few (Tedick et al., 2011). This chapter is meant, then, to lend support to the notion that it is possible to create educational curricula focusing on indigenous and endangered minority languages without sacrificing language capabilities in a dominant language such as English.

Indigenous immersion has also exhibited success in Hawai‘i, with a growing educational system that includes twelve pre-schools and several sites that provide education through the medium of Hawaiian at the elementary, junior high, and high school levels. These schools have achieved success by making Hawaiian not just the primary language of the school but also the language employed by the teachers and administrators when talking amongst themselves. While falling under the umbrella term of indigenous immersion, the administrators and teachers of these schools prefer the term "Hawaiian medium education" in order to highlight the fact that Hawaiian is employed not just in a few classes but rather is the language through which the educational pathway is administered (Wilson & Kamanā, 2006, 2011, 2017).

Yet, while a major goal has been to revitalize the endangered Hawaiian language, the schools have also taken advantage of the English environment surrounding the students as well as the multilingual history of Hawai‘i to promote a type of indigenous multilingualism that attempts to facilitate the overall linguistic capacity of the students, including their English skills. This chapter will detail four components of the educational curriculum, an early focus on literacy, the development of a heritage language program, the introduction of English as an academic subject in the fifth grade, and an early college credit program that have thus far yielded positive outcomes. The next section provides a brief historical sketch of the events that led to the establishment of this Hawaiian medium educational pathway.

Brief Background

The arrival in Hawai‘i of British Captain James Cook in 1778 and American missionaries in 1820 is typically offered as two major events that opened Hawai‘i to the world and thus set the stage for immense social and linguistic changes. Yet, as Wilson noted (1998a, 1998b), English did not immediately come to dominate Hawai‘i's linguistic landscape as the indigenous Hawaiian language remained the primary language of the society. Moreover, even before English ultimately did rise to prominence in the 1900s, Hawai‘i made a significant multilingual turn as speakers of various languages were brought to Hawai‘i to work on the sugar plantations in the middle of the 1800s and into the early 1900s. The first big group of workers came from China, but soon thereafter, workers arrived from Portugal, other parts of Europe such as Germany and Sweden, Japan, Okinawa, Korea, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines, to name just a few. As they performed the hard labor of harvesting sugar cane, the plantation workers created communities marked by the usage of their native languages, including the establishment of schools and newspapers in some of their languages. Moreover, the interaction among the speakers of many of these languages helped spark the development of a creole language that is now referred to by the name of Pidgin. In summary, then, before becoming a society dominated by English, Hawai‘i was marked by a multilingualism that included the indigenous Hawaiian language and the development of the creole language Pidgin.

Ultimately, however, English became the principal language of Hawai‘i in the mid and latter 1900s, a result that was not a natural outcome but rather has its origin in key events. In 1893, a group of American businessmen, with the help of American military, engineered a coup to imprison the last reigning monarch, Queen Lilu‘okalani, and install an American-based form of government that effectively ended the sovereignty of the Hawaiian Kingdom. The same provisional American government then instituted legislature in 1896 making English the only acceptable language of education, which led the enforcers of this law to punish students and teachers who continued to use their native language in school (Saft, 2019; Wilson & Kamanā, 2006). This "Americanization" of Hawai‘i had a significant effect on its multilingual landscape. The enforcement of the legislature that banned Hawaiian from the classroom, when coupled with the sharp decrease in the Native Hawaiian population due to diseases introduced by outsiders from the west, led to the endangerment of the Hawaiian language. Some statistics indicate that by 1983, there were less than 30 children who could speak the language fluently (Kimura et al., 2003). In addition, the language schools that were created by the Chinese, German, Japanese, and Korean communities faced severe pressure from the American territorial government leading up to the world wars and were ultimately forced to shut down. Some of these schools, particularly those focusing on Chinese and Japanese, reopened following World War II, but they have never approached the large enrollment numbers witnessed prior to the war (Asato, 2006). Moreover, despite Pidgin's roots in Hawaiian (Bickerton & Wilson, 1987; Sakoda & Siegel, 2003), it has been the object of a campaign by educators and politicians to keep it out of public space and particularly out of the

classroom. Pidgin still remains the preferred language among many people born and raised in Hawai‘i as it has retained a “covert prestige” that sets “locals” apart from “outsiders” (Furukawa, 2018; Saft, 2019), but it nonetheless remains stigmatized with negative beliefs that lead many speakers to avoid using it in public space.

While English still remains dominant, one key change in the linguistic landscape of Hawai‘i is the emergence of a sustained attempt to revitalize the Hawaiian language. The revitalization movement grew out of a period of Native Hawaiian activism in the 1960s and 1970s referred to as the Hawaiian Renaissance that helped push the state in 1978 to declare Hawaiian, together with English, as an official language of the state (Goodyear-Ka‘ōpua et al., 2014; Kanahele, 1982). Soon thereafter, a group of dedicated parents and language activists in 1983 established the non-profit organization “Aha Pūnana Leo,” which was based on a similar organization in New Zealand and which paved the way for an educational pathway through Hawaiian. This pathway now features education through the medium of Hawaiian at the pre-school, elementary, junior high, and high school levels. There are now two Hawaiian medium high schools, Ke Kula Kaiapuni ‘O Ānuenue on O‘ahu and Ke Kula ‘O Nāwahīokalani‘ōpu‘u (Nāwahī for short) on the Big Island of Hawai‘i. Nāwahī is the school that will be especially discussed in this chapter. It currently functions as a laboratory school of the Ka Haka ‘Ula o Ke‘elikōlani College of Hawaiian Language (Ka Haka ‘Ula for short) that is part of the University of Hawai‘i at Hilo and is located in close proximity to Nāwahī on the Big Island. With Ka Haka ‘Ula offering both undergraduate and graduate programs through the Hawaiian language, this interconnected set of Hawaiian medium education has been referred to as a P-20 (pre-school through 20th grade) system, which is meant to emphasize that it is possible to be educated through the medium of Hawaiian all the way from pre-school through to the Ph.D. level (Saft, 2019; Wilson & Kamanā, 2017). The movement to revitalize Hawaiian through Hawaiian medium schools should be considered, first and foremost, as an attempt to preserve the Hawaiian language. At the same time, however, as the rest of this chapter shows, Hawaiian medium education adopts procedures that utilize the multilingual history of Hawai‘i to promote not only Hawaiian language abilities but also the multilingual skills of the students. This includes the introduction of other languages at early levels of education, and it also includes the official introduction of English, which occurs in the 5th grade. The next section begins with the focus placed at the pre-school level on literacy.

Emphasis on Literacy

Through an approach known as Hakalama, Hawaiian medium education starts concentrating on the teaching of literacy at the pre-school level in the ‘Aha Pūnana Leo pre-schools. Hakalama refers to the practice of reciting Hawaiian sounds in syllables according to the modified English orthography that is employed to write and read Hawaiian (Wilson & Kamanā, 2017). The children typically do this by reading together with the teacher a chart of the syllables, with the first few syllables

being "ha," "ka," "la," and "ma," hence, the name Hakalama. As the teachers lead students through the chart, the children come to associate the sounds with the pairs of alphabet letters that represent the syllables, which facilitates their ability to read the syllables later on when they are used in combination with other syllables to form words.

As Wilson and Kamanā (2017) emphasized, literacy in Hawaiian is aided by the fact that Hawaiian has a highly regular system of spelling with a consistent phoneme to letter correspondence. The syllable pronounced as "ka" will always be represented by the two letters "k" + "a," which contrasts with the irregular spelling system of English (contrast "chaos," "khaki," "captain," and "karma" where the "k" sound is represented by various letters and combination such as "ch," "kh," "c," and "k"). Moreover, it is also recognized that Hawaiian consists of 90 basic syllables, including short and long versions of the vowels, which is strikingly less than the count of 15,000 different syllables for English (Wilson & Kamanā, 2017). Accordingly, then, as Wilson and Kamanā (2017, p. 136) noted, "the syllabic structure of Hawaiian therefore makes it possible to memorize symbols for all Hawaiian syllables and begin reading syllabically before kindergarten."

Furthermore, not only does the Hakalama approach facilitate literacy in Hawaiian but this early exposure to syllabic reading also transfers to the reading of English. Here, it should be emphasized that even though English instruction does not officially begin until the 5th grade, the students are already exposed to English due to the preponderance of English (and English writing) throughout the community and thus are likely to be transferring their Hakalama reading practice in their Hawaiian medium pre-schools to the "outside world." Hence, even though beginning literacy is not taught for English at Nāwahī, students develop literacy skills in English as well as Hawaiian prior to the official introduction of English (Wilson & Kamanā, 2017). Accordingly, we can suggest that, given that the syllable structure of Hawaiian is simpler than that of English, there is a certain logic in beginning first with Hawaiian and then moving on to English. Indeed, Wilson (2017, p. 227) made this point when he stated that "because of the high regularity of the Hawaiian writing system and its malleability to being taught syllabically, children can begin reading through Hawaiian approximately two years before peers in English. Literacy in Hawaiian then transfers to English."

The idea that literacy in Hawaiian can facilitate literacy in another language such as English is grounded in research showing that the development of linguistic abilities in one language expediates the learning of subsequent languages. This is in fact the claim made by Cummins (2009b) in his interdependence hypothesis, which emphasizes that students do best when their prior knowledge in one language is actively engaged as they are educated in another different language. Cummins (2009b) explained this with a specific example from a Basque-Spanish bilingual program showing that the development of Basque reading and writing skills also correlates with literacy in the majority language of Spanish. Hence, it follows that starting literacy in a language with a seemingly more basic syllabic structure such as Hawaiian gives the students a head start in not just reading Hawaiian but also in understanding how the

process of reading works as a part of a development of the students' overall linguistic competence.

In fact, there is growing literature demonstrating the potential of transferring indigenous literacy to reading in dominant languages. Holm and Holm (1995) described a Navajo literacy program in Rock Point, Arizona, in which students learned to read first in Navajo, then in English and reported that the students performed better in English classes than Navajo students in English-only programs (also see McCarty, 2011 for discussion). Holm and Holm also found that the students also gained a sense of empowerment from seeing themselves as bilingual and biliterate and likewise developed pride in their native culture due to academic success through their heritage language.

Indeed, in outlining the Hakalama approach, Wilson and Kamanā (2017) referred to findings from other Polynesian languages, noting that "similar transfer of indigenous language literacy to literacy in English has been observed with children from other Polynesian language backgrounds in English dominant New Zealand" (p. 146). Thus, although every social and linguistic situation needs to be considered separately, the decision to focus on Hawaiian and begin Hawaiian literacy training at the preschool level is grounded in evidence that literacy in an indigenous language can, instead of hampering children's ability to learn to read in English, facilitate English literacy and lead to the development of biliteracy.

From Hakalama to Heritage Language Learning

As previously noted, children who begin learning literacy through the Hawaiian language at the pre-school level are able to transfer their reading skills to English when they begin formal study of English in the 5th grade. Yet, before they reach the 5th grade, efforts are made in the Hawaiian medium education pathway to further develop not just the children's reading ability but also their overall language skills and awareness through a "heritage language program" intended to recognize and honor the mixed ethnicity of many of the students (Wilson & Kamanā, 2017). This heritage language program typically begins with the introduction of Japanese in the first grade, the teaching of Latin a few years later, and, depending on the availability of teachers, instruction in Mandarin beginning at around grade six. The influx of plantation laborers from countries such as China, Japan, and Portugal ultimately led to intermarriage and to the increase in number of Native Hawaiian children of mixed ethnicities. The choice of Latin is meant to represent the Portuguese background of some of the students (Wilson & Kamanā, 2011).

Through this heritage language program, students are introduced to both spoken and written Japanese in the first grade, and in terms of writing, students are taught to read the hiragana syllabary and some simple kanji characters. The fact that the students have been previously introduced to syllabic reading through the Hakalama approach lends itself well to reading the Japanese hiragana syllabary (Wilson &

Kamanā, 2017). Introduction to both the hiragana syllabary and simple kanji characters enables the children to extend their understanding of reading as a process, and it also offers exposure to different linguistic and writing systems.

It should be emphasized, however, that the purpose of this heritage language program is not necessarily to promote fluency in the languages that are introduced, although the children do receive instruction in the vocabulary, phonology, and sentence structures of multiple languages and do develop an ability to communicate with basic phrases. Instead, this focus on other languages is intended to promote the children's overall metalinguistic awareness that can facilitate cognitive development and help with their ability to acquire Hawaiian. Wilson and Kamanā (2011) underscored that Latin instruction at the Nāwahī school is done via a contrastive analysis that requires students to heighten their awareness of Hawaiian and Hawaiian culture through comparisons with the cultures and histories involved in the development of Latin. As they noted, "metalinguistic skills developed from contrastive analysis with Latin provide Nāwahī students with tools to consciously improve overall vocabulary development and language performance, be it in Hawaiian, English, or other languages" (Wilson & Kamanā, 2011, p. 50).

The emphasis then in the curriculum on multiple languages is aligned with linguistic research showing the cognitive benefits of exposure to two or more languages at a young age. Although research on these benefits is still ongoing, there is evidence suggesting that experience with two languages results in a general "bilingual advantage" in executive function, metalinguistic awareness, cognitive flexibility, creative thinking, and may also delay the onset of dementia (Antoniou, 2019; Antoniou & Wright, 2017; Bialystok et al., 2012; Byers-Heinlein & Lew-Williams, 2013).

In addition, the decision to find space in the early years in teaching curriculum to include languages such as Chinese, Japanese, and Latin fits with the multilingual history of Hawai'i and the ethnic backgrounds of the student population. Like the Latin classes, both Chinese and Japanese instruction feature a focus on cultural traditions and practices and thus provide students with knowledge about their ancestral backgrounds. On the overall, these heritage language programs serve as an example of how an educational pathway that, instead of following a generic national curriculum, is situated within the local environment from which the students come.

The Question of English

As discussed, English is formally introduced in the 5th grade, after students have already been working on literacy in Hawaiian, and after they have been exposed to other languages such as Japanese and Latin. The decision on the part of the originators of the Hawaiian language medium pathway to put Hawaiian before English met at first with considerable opposition from government officials. As Wilson and Kamanā (2001) noted, the evaluation team from the Department of Education in Hawai'i recommended at first that, even with declaration of Hawaiian as an official language

of the state, Hawaiian language immersion makes English the featured language. In the words of Wilson and Kamanā (2001, p. 160), "the evaluation team's focus has thus been on maintaining the status quo, with the addition of fluency in Hawaiian as a second language for enrichment rather reversing language shift." In contrast, Wilson and Kamanā (2001) set out to make Hawaiian not just the language of a few select classes within a larger English dominant setting, but instead to "reverse the positions of English and Hawaiian" (p. 160) and make Hawaiian *the* language of the school.

Yet, while the pioneers of Hawaiian medium education were adamant in terms of establishing Hawaiian as the medium of education in the school, it should be emphasized that there was never any intention to ignore English. As Wilson and Kamanā (2006) pointed out, the Hawaiian medium schools that existed prior to the overthrow of the Hawaiian Kingdom in 1893 placed an importance on the development of English for the Hawaiian speaking children. The plan in the revitalization movement was to ensure proficiency in English after establishing Hawaiian as the primary language of the schools (Wilson & Kamanā, 2006). Moreover, in response to critics who believe that students would not be able to acquire academic English if it was not the primary language of education, Wilson and Kamanā (2006, 2011) referred to research on bilingualism and literacy suggesting that about six years of study in a second language is necessary "to reach grade-level academic achievement in the second language" (Thomas & Collier, 2012, p. 16). Beginning in the fifth grade and running through the 12th grade, the Hawaiian medium students have one formal English course per day for each school year, which means that they engage in eight years total of formal study of English. These eight years, of course, build on the fact that the students generally receive more input in terms of reading and speaking English in the community than they do in Hawaiian. In this sense, English is not just in the background at school but also remains constantly a part of their experience in the community as they go through the Hawaiian medium educational pathway.

This input in the community, thus, should be considered crucial to students' development of strong English skills. It still, however, needs to be emphasized that progress in English is closely connected to the strength of the students' Hawaiian skills. Reports by Wilson (2017) and Wilson and Kamanā (2011) underscore that strong Hawaiian language programs are the key to producing the highest all-around academic outcomes, including outcomes in English language arts. Indeed, data show that students in Hawaiian medium education perform as well or even better than Native Hawaiians in English-medium schools (Wilson & Kamanā, 2017).

Continued Emphasis on Multilingual Awareness

As students enter high school in the Hawaiian medium educational pathway, there are continued attempts to support Hawaiian language proficiency in spoken and written communication, with some of these attempts relating closely to the multilingual backgrounds of the students. This occurs largely through a program that provides

high school students at Nāwahī with college level courses offered through the Ka Haka ʻUla College of Hawaiian Language. Via this program, the students enroll in courses in the Hawaiian language and also a course, conducted fully in Hawaiian, on the topic of language revitalization with an emphasis on the Hawaiian language situation. These courses are generally open to the general population of university students (and sometimes other students, in addition to the Nāwahī students, do enroll), but the content is typically tailored to match the Hawaiian language level of the high school students. One of the purposes in doing so is to facilitate the acquisition of a very high level of fluency as well as a strong metalinguistic awareness of Hawaiian.

At the same time, the high school students are also offered courses that do not concentrate solely on the Hawaiian language. One example is a course on English composition taught by a university faculty member from the English department. In this course, the students refine their English writing skills and also read texts that include those written by Shakespeare. The students have also taken a course on dual literacy in which they read articles from different genres in Hawaiian and English and then wrote essays in response, some of which are in Hawaiian and some in English. For example, in order to facilitate the students' ability to make and develop arguments in their writing, they first read the article "Lifeboat ethics: The case against helping the poor" by Garrett Hardin (included in Buscemi & Smith, 2004) and were then prompted to choose a side—either that the poor should or should not be helped—and write an argumentative essay in Hawaiian. In another assignment, the students read a description in Hawaiian of the development of the Hawaiian language revitalization movement and are subsequently required to compose a narrative essay in which they describe in English how they themselves came to be a part of the movement. One other assignment that brings in still another language use required by the students is to watch a ten-minute video of a public speech by a local Hawaiian politician using a significant amount of Pidgin and then write an essay in English comparing and contrasting public speaking in English and Pidgin. The dual literacy course is taught primarily through the medium of Hawaiian but by providing students with different types of essays to read and write in Hawaiian and English and also by offering opportunities to consider other languages such as Pidgin. The course intends to push the students not just to improve their reading and writing abilities but also to acquire a high level of metalinguistic awareness of Hawaiian and English, and how language works in general.

Yet, it is not only the students' Hawaiian and English skills that are focused on in these college level courses. As a part of building metalinguistic awareness, a common practice in the Hawaiian language courses is the adoption of a contrastive approach through Hawaiian with a focus on Pidgin, which is a language spoken by the majority of the Nāwahī students. The Nāwahī students typically grow up speaking Pidgin as one of the languages of the home, especially if the parents are speakers of Pidgin and not Hawaiian. Linguists note that much of the modern Pidgin vocabulary derives from English, but the grammatical structure of the language influences from other languages, particularly Hawaiian (Saft, 2019; Sakoda & Siegel, 2003). At the metalinguistic level, this similarity in structure between Pidgin and Hawaiian serves as a resource to facilitate the learning of Hawaiian (Wilson, 2017). Moreover, not

only does this contrastive approach with Pidgin promote the acquisition of Hawaiian, but also, as Wilson (2017) argued, it further enhances the students' understanding of Pidgin as a language. Thus, despite being taught throughout much of their life that Pidgin is not useful beyond the home, the students develop an appreciation of Pidgin due to its close structural connection to Hawaiian. This then contributes to a heightened appreciation of the students of their own selves as speakers of multiple languages in addition to Hawaiian.

As is the case with all of the procedures employed in the Hawaiian medium educational pathway, the primary goal of this early college credit program is to produce young speakers of the Hawaiian language as a part of preserving and revitalizing the language. One of the hopes of this program is that the young speakers, through their exposure to Hawaiian language at the college level, will develop the kind of "ideological clarification" (Fishman, 1991) that will prompt them to continue in the Hawaiian medium pathway and eventually contribute as Hawaiian speaking leaders of the community. At the same time, by providing a multilingual education that brings in languages such as Chinese, English, Japanese, Latin, and Pidgin, Hawaiian medium education works to provide the metalinguistic awareness and overall cognitive skills that will prepare students for success in their lives post high school.

Conclusion

This chapter has described an educational pathway in Hawai'i designed to support the endangered Hawaiian language and also to promote English language skills through a focus on multilingualism. With the emphasis purposefully placed on Hawaiian language revitalization, this pathway keeps English, for the most part, in the background. Hardly ignored, though, the students develop English language skills through the four components of the academic curriculum described in this chapter, namely, the Hakalama literacy program at the pre-school level, the heritage language emphasis that begins in early elementary school, the introduction of English as an academic subject in the 5th grade, and an early college credit program that allows high school students to enroll in university courses. These four procedures help bring not just English into the curriculum but also other languages that include Chinese, Japanese, Latin, and Pidgin. This attention to multilingualism promotes the multilingual awareness and overall cognitive development of the students that supports their acquisition of both Hawaiian and English.

The possibility of an educational pathway in the United States not centered on English will undoubtedly make many educators and politicians uneasy. Yet, it should be emphasized that Hawaiian medium education is yielding positive results in Hawai'i, particularly among the underserved Native Hawaiian population. As Wilson and Kamanā (2017) noted, the Nāwahī enrollment is 95% Native Hawaiian, with 70% meeting the US federal definitions of low socioeconomic status. As mentioned earlier, the practice of putting English in the background has shown success with students in the Hawaiian medium pathway performing at the same or even a higher

level than students in English dominant schools. Moreover, unlike graduation and college attendance rates for Native Hawaiians in non-Hawaiian medium public schools, which have both been significantly lower than that of the next three largest ethnic groups—Caucasians, Japanese, and Filipinos, Nāwahī has maintained, since its first senior class, a 100% high school graduate rate and 80% college attendance rate (Wilson & Kamanā, 2017). This includes the acceptance of Native Hawaiian students at so-called "prestigious" universities in the United States such as Stanford and Dartmouth.

To be sure, the curricular decisions made in the Hawaiian medium educational pathway, particularly the choice to include languages such as Chinese, Japanese, and Latin in the curriculum, are designed specifically for students in Hawai'i and thus may not transfer directly to linguistic situations in other parts of the world. Nonetheless, it is hoped that the discussion in this chapter of the Hawaiian medium educational pathway may inspire others not to be afraid to move English at least slightly to the background in order to construct curricula of a multilingual nature that feature minority and indigenous languages.

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Chapter 4
Plurilingual Strategies for Teaching Pronunciation in TESOL: A Research-Based and Action-Oriented Approach

John Wayne N. dela Cruz

Abstract Multilingualism is increasingly becoming the norm among students and teachers in the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) around the globe. Yet, in pedagogies for language domains such as pronunciation, white monolingual native speaker ideologies persist, which view additional language (AL) learners as a deficient version of an idealized native speaker model. This native speakerism delegitimizes learners' existing knowledges in their first and additional languages, disparaging students' plurilingual competence by focusing on teaching students how to acquire a native speaker accent in the target language. To help combat this deficit-approach in TESOL, this chapter draws from plurilingualism as a theoretical-pedagogical framework for an action-oriented approach to AL teaching, learning, and assessment. Specifically, this chapter proposes how to utilize four plurilingual strategies—(a) *translation-for-mediation*, (b) *cross-linguistic comparisons*, (c) *translanguaging for meaning-making*, and (d) *cross-cultural comparisons*—at each stage of Celce-Murcia et al.'s (Teaching pronunciation: A course book and reference guide. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2010) framework for teaching pronunciation: (1) *description and analysis*, (2) *listening discrimination*, (3) *controlled/guided practice*, and (4) *communicative practice*. The chapter puts forth recommendations for how TESOL practitioners can tailor these plurilingual strategies and pronunciation teaching framework to their own contexts and classroom needs, with an emphasis on how such a research-based and action-oriented approach can scaffold the teaching of intelligibility in AL English over promoting a native speaker accent.

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Introduction

With increasing global superdiversity (Blommaert, 2010), multilingualism is increasingly becoming the norm across the world (e.g., Galante & dela Cruz, 2021), permeating additional language (AL) classrooms that have traditionally taught the target language in a monolingual, target language-only approach. Such a monolingual mode of instruction largely ignores students' plurilingual repertoires and practices as a rich resource for AL learning in the classroom: practices such as language-mixing or cross-linguistic comparisons are discouraged (Cummins, 2007, 2017) in favor of training students to learn the target language and speak it like native speakers (Cook, 2016). For instance, teachers and learners alike would prefer to not use their first or additional languages in the classroom in order to acquire a native accent (McAndrews & Thomson, 2017).

However, this target language-only approach no longer provides sufficient support for the learning needs of multilingual students, and teachers—feeling unprepared—may find it challenging to deliver linguistically inclusive and responsive pedagogies (e.g., Dault & Collins, 2016; Querrien, 2017). Yet, despite growing multilingualism among learners and teachers alike and the robust body of research showing that an exclusive use of the target language in the classroom does not result in any measurable long-term benefits (Lightbown & Spada, 2020), monolingual instruction continues to be the norm in mainstream Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) education (Kubota, 2020). As such, TESOL practitioners still find it difficult to overcome the field's monolingual orientation (Piccardo, 2013), and implementation of plurilingual instruction remains a challenge (Kubota & Bale, 2020; Kubota & Miller, 2017).

To date, there is paucity of research (e.g., Galante & Piccardo, 2021) and resources [e.g., Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR); Council of Europe (CoE), 2020] that can provide TESOL educators concrete ways to incorporate plurilingualism in their practice. Indeed, it was not until recently that descriptors for pronunciation and phonology were added in the companion volume of the CEFR (CoE, 2020), which details descriptors for assessing language learning across linguistic domains. To address this gap, this chapter proposes four plurilingual strategies for English pronunciation teaching that welcome learners' full linguistic repertoire during language learning. The chapter's goal is to provide TESOL practitioners a guide with examples on how to use plurilingual pedagogies for teaching *intelligibility* (Derwing & Munro, 2005; McAndrews & Thomson, 2017) that are evidence-based and action-oriented, and that can therefore help them—and their students—resist persisting native speakerism in TESOL.

Plurilingualism and Pronunciation Teaching

Plurilingualism is a theoretical-pedagogical framework for an action-oriented approach to language teaching, learning, and assessment (CoE, 2001, 2020; Marshall & Moore, 2018). Plurilingualism posits that the learners' languages and cultures are all interconnected in a composite repertoire, and that these learners have the agency to draw from their plurilingual repertoires—in parts or in full—as they see fit for their communicative goals and needs (Coste et al., 1997/2009; Moore & Gajo, 2009).

In plurilingual instruction, students are encouraged to flexibly and creatively use the languages in their repertoire (Piccardo, 2017), including the various dialects and registers of their first language (L1; Piccardo, 2019) when learning a new language. As well, plurilingual pedagogy prompts students to draw from the interconnected linguistic resources that are neurocognitively available to them (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013; Kroll et al., 2013; Piccardo, 2013). Plurilingualism has been theorized extensively in second language education in the past 20 years (e.g., Coste et al., 1997/2009; Marshall & Moore, 2018) as an alternative to a strict monolingual mode of language instruction that continues to dominate mainstream AL education today (dela Cruz, 2022). Yet, a gap still exists between the theory and practice of plurilingual instruction in classroom settings. This gap can be attributed to a lack of empirical research that directly links plurilingual practices to quantifiable language gains in specific language skills (Galante, 2021). Only recently has there been some quantitative research on the positive impact of plurilingual instruction on learners' lexical (e.g., Galante, 2020; Joyce, 2015; Makalela, 2015; Pujol-Ferran et al., 2016) and syntactic gains (e.g., Apaloo & Cardoso, 2021). This lack of research is compounded by an overall scarcity of teaching resources that can guide plurilingual practice in the classroom (Kubota, 2020).

These reasons are especially true for phonology, which is already understudied in language education in general when compared to vocabulary and grammar (Derwing & Munro, 2005; Foote & McDonough, 2017). Despite the existence of formal assessment descriptors for learners' phonological skills such as those in the CEFR (CoE, 2020), which draws from plurilingual theory, a search in applied linguistics databases (e.g., Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts [LLBA]; PsycINFO) and in Google Scholar yields no literature on how to apply plurilingual approaches to AL pronunciation instruction.

As such, this chapter will provide a research-based and action-oriented guide for teachers on how to use plurilingual strategies when teaching English pronunciation. The chapter will accomplish this in two ways: first, by drawing on existing literature on effective plurilingual strategies for teaching AL vocabulary and grammar and adapting these techniques for teaching pronunciation; and second, by linking existing literature on effective pronunciation teaching to a plurilingual strategy. This chapter will draw from the following plurilingual strategies:

(a) *Translation-for-mediation* (e.g., Galante, 2021; Muñoz-Basols, 2019): learners translate across their languages when completing tasks in the target language,

such as when learning new vocabulary or expressions, including their pronunciation;

(b) *Cross-linguistic comparisons* (Auger, 2004, 2008a, 2008b): learners systematically compare and contrast novel forms and meanings in the target language to their counterparts in their L1/ALs, such as when learning grammar or phonology;

(c) *Translanguaging for meaning-making* (e.g., Cenoz, 2017; Hornberger & Link, 2012): learners fluidly mix and switch their languages when discussing and making meaning about course content and materials, such as when watching a short clip in the target language but discussing the clip's content in their L1;

(d) *Cross-cultural comparisons* (e.g., Byram, 2020; CoE, 2020): learners compare and contrast novel items in the target language to counterparts in their L1/ALs through a cultural lens, such as when comparing language use across languages and cultures (e.g., "thank you" and "sorry" are common and sometimes overused expressions in Canadian English, but not in other English varieties).

Each of these strategies will be proposed to be paired with each step of Celce-Murcia et al.'s (2010) four-step framework for teaching pronunciation, which emphasizes the learning of perception skills before production skills in the target language (Cardoso, 2018; Thomson, 2018). Examples used in this chapter will involve English, Tagalog, and French, which are part of the author's plurilingual repertoire. The following section will briefly discuss the importance of the intelligibility principle when setting goals for pronunciation teaching and learning, and delineate the steps involved in Celce-Murcia et al.'s perception-before-production approach to pronunciation pedagogy.

Intelligibility Principle and Perception-Before-Production Approach

Historically, TESOL teachers and learners of pronunciation have subscribed to the *nativeness principle*, which claims that a native sound or accent is both possible and desirable when acquiring a new language (McAndrews & Thomson, 2017). Hence, it is not surprising that pronunciation still plays a big role in how competent and proficient AL learners are perceived to be when spoken to (Galante & Piccardo, 2021; Ramjattan, 2020). More recently, however, empirical research on pronunciation instruction has called for a shift away from a native speaker standard. Derwing and Munro (2005), for instance, illustrated that *intelligibility*, or how much of the speaker's speech is actually understood, and *comprehensibility*, or a listener's perception of how difficult or easy it was to understand the speaker's speech, should be the primary focus in the classroom, as they are more likely to impact communication than *accentedness*, or the rating of how close the speaker's accent is to the target sound. The identification of these phonological constructs has led to the challenging of the *nativeness principle* by the *intelligibility principle*, which argues that teachers should

instead aim for their students to become more readily understood when speaking (McAndrews & Thomson, 2017), regardless of how they sound. When teaching intelligibility, McAndrews and Thomson emphasized that the goal is to help learners produce phonological features in a recognizable but not necessarily native-like way.

In line with their study on using an empirical approach to teaching intelligibility, McAndrews and Thomson (2017) recommended consulting Celce-Murcia et al.'s (2010) framework when designing intelligibility-focused pronunciation tasks. As previously discussed, this teaching framework for pronunciation draws from empirical evidence showing that perception typically precedes production during the acquisition of AL phonology (Cardoso, 2018; Thomson, 2018). Appropriately, Celce-Murcia et al. suggested that teachers should first begin by developing their learners' sound awareness via sound description, analysis, and discrimination (i.e., perceptive skills) before moving on to performing controlled and guided practice (i.e., productive skills), and finally culminating with open communicative activities (i.e., both perceptive and productive skills).

This chapter adapts a simplified version of Celce-Murcia et al.'s (2010) perception-before-production approach, which entails four steps:

(1) *Description and Analysis*: teachers begin by raising learners' awareness of a sound via describing a sound, such as where it occurs in the mouth/throat, how it is articulated/produced, its voicing, and its written form;
(2) *Listening Discrimination*: teachers continue to develop learners' receptive skills, allowing them to be aware not only of different sounds in the target language, but also that these sounds can be meaningfully distinct (e.g., "[b]ack" is different from "[p]ack");
(3) *Controlled/Guided Practice*: teachers proceed to advance learners' productive skills through structured rehearsals of specific phonological features, allowing teachers to highlight specific sounds or combinations of sounds and provide explicit feedback to learners;
(4) *Communicative Practice*: teachers provide learners the opportunity to meaningfully combine their emerging receptive and productive skills through contextualized communicative exercises, wherein learners both listen to and respond orally, such as when discussing in pairs/groups a clip they watched or a text they read.

In each step, a description of how teachers can use one of the four plurilingual strategies for teaching specific phonological features of English will be included, supported by empirical findings in AL phonology research on intelligibility. To be concise, the chapter draws from a select sample of phonological features (e.g., segments, suprasegmentals, syllables, and phonetic variability) as examples for each step, while making sure that features are examined at least once. Note that while only one target pronunciation feature and one plurilingual strategy is considered for each step of Celce-Murcia et al.'s (2010) teaching framework, this does not mean that other combinations of plurilingual strategy, target feature, and teaching steps are not possible. Similarly, plurilingual strategies, while discretely defined above, can be applied simultaneously, which AL English students have even been observed to

Table 4.1 Summary of plurilingual strategies for teaching AL intelligibility

Plurilingual strategy	Teaching step	Target feature
Translation-for-mediation	Description and analysis	Segments (i.e.., isolated sounds)
Cross-linguistic comparisons	Listening discrimination	Segments
Translanguaging for meaning-making	Controlled/guided practice	Suprasegmentals (e.g., sentence stresses)
Cross-cultural comparisons	Communicative practice	Phonetic variability

do when learning from each other (e.g., dela Cruz, 2022). Hence, TESOL practitioners should take this chapter as a guide; that is, the ways in which they will apply the examples in this guide should be ultimately informed by their unique contexts, needs, goals, and creativity. Table 4.1 summarizes which plurilingual strategy will be articulated at which step of Celce-Murcia et al.'s teaching framework and for which target pronunciation feature.

Applying Plurilingual Strategies in Teaching AL Pronunciation

The following is a brief guide on how to practice plurilingual approaches in AL pronunciation instruction. The examples in this guide are not meant to serve as one complete lesson, but rather as a resource on how lessons can be planned according to a specific and appropriate part of a larger curriculum. Again, TESOL educators are encouraged to mix and match the teaching stages with the plurilingual approaches as they see fit for their classroom contexts.

Description and Analysis Through Translation-for-Mediation

At the Description and Analysis step, a teacher will use oral and/or written illustrations to show students when and how a phonological feature occurs. The main goal here is to raise the learner's consciousness about the existence of a feature. For this step, teaching how sounds are represented in a form (i.e., spelling) through translation-for-mediation will be considered.

Translation-for-mediation involves using the direct translations of words from the target language in the student's ALs, whichever is the most applicable or useful (e.g., Galante, 2021; Muñoz-Basols, 2019; Pujol-Ferran et al., 2016). Translation is especially useful for learners with lower proficiency levels, as it facilitates how they mediate with novel sounds by helping reduce the cognitive costs of learning these new linguistic features (Joyce, 2015). For example, when introducing the /eɪ/

diphthong of the letter "a" in the word "cake," Tagalog-speaking English learners will greatly benefit from using the written translation of this word in their L1, "keyk" /kejk/. As can be observed here, there is a great orthographic depth distance between Tagalog and English; that is, Tagalog has a one-to-one sound-spelling correspondence (i.e., it is orthographically transparent) while English does not (i.e., it is orthographically opaque). Thus, using orthography and translation as basis for teaching certain features such as the English diphthong /eɪ/ can be an effective method to help AL learners mediate between their languages and the target language, and to help raise their awareness about common intelligibility issues in English that are due to L1-based assumptions about the target language's orthographic transparency (McAndrews & Thomson, 2017). Indeed, Dickerson (1990, 2013) demonstrated that showing students how sound and spelling interact in a language helps not only in acquiring new sounds, but also in predicting their appearance in novel orthographic-phonological environments via a rule-based approach.

Hence, when developing students' phonological awareness in this first step, teachers can utilize direct translations of English words in the students' ALs to help them analyze and describe similarities and differences between form representation (i.e., spelling) of sounds across their languages. Doing so can support students when inferring sound-to-form patterns in the target language, which will scaffold their progress at this early stage of pronunciation learning.

Listening Discrimination Through Cross-Linguistic Comparisons

For this second step, teachers can start performing activities with students that further fine-tune their receptive skills. Once learners are aware that a certain feature exists in the target language, the follow-up step is to assure that they also perceive it meaningfully in controlled environments, discriminating it appropriately as being different from another sound. For example, take /s, z/ allomorphs in English for the morpheme "-s," which appear in coda (i.e., syllable-final) position for regular plural nouns (e.g., bet[s] versus bed[z]) as well as in the third person singular simple present (e.g., he leave[z] versus he leap[s]). If these allomorphs are targeted in a listening discrimination task, the plurilingual approach of cross-linguistic comparisons can be used as a feedback method to complement the activity.

Cross-linguistic comparisons involve a systematic comparison and contrasting of target language features—in this case sounds—with their L1 and AL counterparts (see also *comparons nos langues*; Auger, 2004, 2008a, 2008b). As such, this plurilingual strategy makes explicit the similarities and differences between phonological forms and meanings. In addition, this process serves to strengthen the learners' metalinguistic skills and enhances their multilingual proficiencies (CoE, 2020; Pujol-Ferran et al., 2016).

As an example, consider a Tagalog L1 and a French L1 learner of English who are learning the allomorphs /s, z/, where the former occurs adjacent to other unvoiced segments (e.g., bets /bɛts/), while the latter occurs adjacent to voiced segments (e.g., beds /bɛdz/). In Tagalog, no such allomorphism for "-s" exists since both the letters "s" and "z" are typically pronounced as /s/ instead. In French on the other hand, the allomorphs /s, z/ exist as in English, but in this case, the former occurs when /s/ is a part of a coda consonant cluster (e.g., *presque* /pʁɛsk/), regardless if the following consonant is voiced (e.g., *bilinguisme* /bil˜ɛgɥism/), while the latter is produced intervocalically between two vowel sounds (e.g., *présenter* /pʁez˜ɑte/). As such, Tagalog and French speakers may be expected to substitute and perceive /s/ for a /z/, especially because voiceless sounds are preferred for codas than voiced sounds (Cardoso, 2018).

Hence, during the listening discrimination step, TESOL practitioners can use cross-linguistic comparison as a form of feedback for students while they listen to the target sounds from a list of words that are meant to be read aloud. For example, when the teacher says "fea[ts]," the students will answer a questionnaire that asks "Which word did you hear? Feats/Feeds." Afterwards, the teacher can immediately provide feedback for both correct and incorrect responses by presenting to the class a cross-linguistic explanation as shown above. In doing so, the example Tagalog or French speakers above can heighten their awareness about the differences and similarities between their L1's and English's phonology. As the activity goes on, learners can then build up and use this metalinguistic awareness to aid and improve their perceptive skills, which in turn scaffolds later acquisition of productive skills. As such, cross-linguistic comparisons can be invaluable for teaching and learning phonological features related to syllabification because syllables should be explained multidimensionally since its acquisition may be constrained by multiple factors (Cardoso, 2018). Further, cross-linguistically comparing features such as /s, z/ coda sounds will be useful as these features have been found to have a moderate impact on English learners' intelligibility (see McAndrews & Thomson, 2017 for a more comprehensive list). Hence, teachers can utilize cross-linguistic comparisons to focus on phonological features that will impact learners' intelligibility, and on features that also differ from their L1 patterns.

Controlled/Guided Practice Through Translanguaging for Meaning-Making

Once students have acquired sufficient receptive competence, teachers can proceed with structured speaking exercises, which aim to progress the acquisition of specific phonological features from perception to production. By paying special attention to a highlighted feature, students learn to use (or even communicate using) said feature while self-monitoring. For this step, teaching nuclear stress (i.e., which word to

stress the most in a sentence in order to communicate meaningfully) through guided practice while translanguaging will be considered.

In L2 classrooms, translanguaging for meaning-making refers to the process of "purposeful pedagogical alternation of languages" (Hornberger & Link, 2012, p. 262) in order to gain knowledge, make sense, and communicate about a target language in written or spoken modes (Wei, 2011). Since such strategic and fluid use of languages in their repertoire is a common practice among multilinguals (García, 2011) who are typical in AL classrooms today, it is a technique that can be applied when learning English suprasegmentals. Unlike cross-linguistic comparisons, which serve as a means to explicitly point out differences and similarities between languages, translanguaging goes beyond by also encouraging full agency among students (Cenoz, 2017) to produce examples, meanings, and explanations in their L1 and ALs when learning a pronunciation feature, instead of solely expressing themselves in the target language.

As such, translanguaging can help encourage students to think and talk about their emerging plurilingual knowledge (e.g., dela Cruz, 2022) about different pronunciation patterns in their languages, such as about placement of nuclear stress on sentences. Specifically, teachers will prompt learners to examine their knowledge of how and where prominence are placed in utterances in their different languages, including in the target language. Teachers can even further encourage students to translanguage during guided practice by asking them to share and explain examples in their ALs to their peers. For example, when practicing the sentence "How ARE you?" properly, where "are" receives the nuclear stress, students can also repeat to themselves or to a partner how the same utterance is spoken in another language (e.g., their L1). For instance, in Tagalog, it would be *"KAMUSTA ka na?"*; in French, it would be *"comment ça VA?"*. In these examples, it can then be deduced that each of these languages places nuclear stress on different places in the sentence: English puts it on the last function word, while Tagalog and French typically put it on a fixed position, regardless of word class (i.e., sentence-initial and sentence-terminal, respectively). In contrast, "Where are YOU?" (note the emphatic shift here) will be "*Nasaan KA na?*" in Tagalog, but "*où es-TU ?*" or "*t'es OÙ ?*" in French. This then shows that Tagalog, like English but unlike French, could also typically shift nuclear stress to a different place in an utterance if a change in emphasis is necessary.

By letting students produce and hear these nuclear stress patterns during a translanguaged, guided, and repetitive practice, students are given the opportunity to realize on their own and explain to their peers *how* and *why* suprasegmental features are used variedly from language to language. Teachers can ensure, however, that general, explicit feedback is provided to the class afterwards, so that the newly acquired knowledge about production is consolidated at the end of the activity or lesson. This way, translanguaging for meaning-making can effectively target the *use* of a phonological feature like nuclear stress, which is considered to highly and negatively impact intelligible pronunciation, especially between fellow English learners (Jenkins, 2002).

Communicative Practice Through Cross-Cultural Comparisons

Finally, the last step calls for both perceptive and productive practice of target pronunciation features. Here, the focus is on the students' ability to use the target features in a communicative manner, that is, by listening and responding to both form and content of utterances. This step thus requires that learners' production meaningfully supports an actual conversation. In terms of pronunciation, this step targets learners' intelligibility the most holistically, and so it makes the most sense (at least as an example for this chapter) to pair it up with teaching learners about phonetic variability.

In TESOL, teaching learners about phonetic variability means two things. First, this topic necessitates introducing learners to the idea of *English as a lingua franca*, that is, English is used across the globe among speakers of different L1s, especially in contexts and situations wherein English is the medium, if not also the only option, for communication (Seidlhofer, 2011). Second, this topic also requires teachers to raise learners' awareness about World Englishes, which are independent, named English varieties, such as Nigerian English, Singapore English, Indian English, and Philippine English, which are made distinct by their features including lexicon, syntax, pragmatics, and importantly, phonology (Jenkins, 2009). The existence and pervasiveness of English (varieties) across geographically and culturally diverse settings make the plurilingual strategy of cross-cultural comparison conducive for tackling phonetic variability.

Given that English is now spoken more by AL learners than native speakers (Jenkins, 2002), it is imperative that TESOL practitioners and students alike are aware of the great phonetic variability among English speakers. This variability exists not only among varieties spoken by international speakers, but also even among those spoken in Anglophone nations (e.g., American and Canadian English in North America; British, Irish, Scottish and other regional and dialectical English accents in Europe; Australian English). Indeed, such diversity is the rule rather than the exception (Jenkins, 2002). This is where cross-cultural comparisons come in: students can analyze phonetic variability in their English classroom through an intercultural and pluricultural lens (e.g., Byram, 2020; CoE, 2020), which will allow them not only to consider the variability in a phonetic feature's forms, but also its underlying cultural meanings as inscribed in pragmatic, discursive, and sociolinguistic conventions (Galante, 2018; Galante & Piccardo, 2021) such as regional accents, dialects, and linguistic identities.

Cross-cultural comparisons can work well with Hyper Variability Phonetic Training (HVPT), an auditory training for learning the sounds of a new language by listening to numerous and diverse utterances spoken by multiple speakers of the target language from varied phonetic contexts (Thomson, 2018). Though HVPT is most often used while working with segments, it can be easily and cheaply adapted for use while tackling communicative practices. For instance, one option is to have students listen to samples of phonetically variable speeches found in YouTube or Netflix, which also incorporates visual cues to the target sounds such as subtitles

and speakers' moving mouths—an addition that Hazan et al. (2005) have found to yield significantly greater improvement for certain phonetic features such as labial sounds. Here, teachers can use videos to prompt students with appropriate questions to discuss what they listened to/watched in terms of the cross-cultural implications of the way that the talkers sounded. Such questions can include, "With which place is this English sound associated?" or "Was the speaker difficult to understand or not? Why?", and even "Which of these English sounds would you consider correct or proper? From which places are these "appropriate/proper" sounds?" (see also CoE, 2009 for more potential questions). Further, the HVPT materials that teachers use can also be used to prompt students to practice communicatively with each other about a topic raised in the sample, expanding students' language learning from pronunciation features to the materials' content.

Ultimately, using cross-cultural comparisons with HVPT extends the latter's usefulness beyond perceptual training and into productive practice, bringing Celce-Murcia and colleagues' (2010) perception-before-production approach to teaching pronunciation to a complete circle. As well, this combination can draw from research evidence showing that HVPT yields significant improvement in learner's perception and production scores during AL training—a measurable improvement that is (1) generalizable to new instances of the same sound, to new talkers, and to extended communication; and that is (2) expected to last indefinitely (Thomson, 2018).

Conclusion

To recapitulate, this chapter presents a guide to teaching pronunciation in TESOL using plurilingual strategies that are evidence-based and action-oriented. TESOL practitioners can draw from and employ these plurilingual strategies when teaching English pronunciation with a focus on improving students' intelligibility, rather than on acquiring a native accent. While this guide follows that perception precedes production in language learning, it is not designed to be taken as an entire step-by-step lesson plan, but rather as a resource to inform an activity, or parts of a lesson or curriculum. Further, the guide serves to put into dialogue ostensibly unrelated research on plurilingualism and phonology, and to make apparent their untapped pedagogical overlap.

However, TESOL practitioners must also be aware that the guide articulated in this chapter does not serve to replace the current and future need for further empirical studies on the applicability and impact of plurilingual instruction on developing AL learners' pronunciation. Instead, they must critically review the strategies and examples presented in this chapter when adapting and implementing them in their own practice to ensure that these plurilingual pedagogies appropriately address their students' needs and are suitable to their unique classroom contexts. Most importantly, TESOL practitioners should keep in mind that beyond teaching students to successfully acquire intelligible pronunciation, fostering students' plurilingualism by countering pervasive monolingual native speakerism in TESOL is *how* the field will move

further forward toward a truly inclusive *multilingual practice*, wherein linguistic diversity, phonological or otherwise, are treated as valuable learning resources and successes rather than teaching challenges or failures.

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Part II
Teaching TESOL Multilingually

There are four chapters in this part that provide examples from multilingual TESOL classrooms where local languages are used as resources to develop English as a target language. Since contemporary TESOL classrooms are linguistically and culturally diverse, the authors argue for the recognition and utilization of this diversity for teaching TESOL multilingually. This requires confronting monolingual practices of teaching English, valuing other languages as equal, and embracing multilingualism as an effective approach.

Although social multilingualism is recognized as a reality, it is at policy and practice level in educational spaces that monolingualism continues to remain a practice and pedagogical translanguaging is seen as problematic (Raza et al., 2021). Teachers, as policy interpreters and implementers, contribute to such discriminatory practices when they discourage the use of multiple languages in the classroom and give more importance to a single language, often dominant language like English, for instruction and assessment. Pointing to a similar tension, **Md. Sadequle Islam** and **Sílvia Melo-Pfeifer** discuss Bangladeshi teachers' perspectives toward pedagogical translanguaging and its use in tertiary level English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms. Their results show that bringing languages together is seen as an unavoidable linguistic instance of Bangladeshi EFL classrooms and systematic and judicious use of pedagogical translanguaging could be an effective teaching approach, especially for grammar teaching and learning. They add that pedagogical translanguaging seems to be perceived more as a remediation strategy to cope with perceived lack of knowledge in the target language, rather than a strategy to enhance student awareness and skillful use of English, its varieties and other languages.

The growing population of local and international students in contemporary classrooms has resulted in cultural and linguistic diversity, making multilingualism very critical to support diverse needs of these students. Since writing centers are considered an extension of classroom learning, the number of international students visiting these centers for support has been increasing. However, because of monolingual instruction, these centers have been struggling to facilitate multilingual students' learning experiences. With the goal of addressing these students' needs to enhance and enrich their learning experience, **Lana Wang-Hiles** explores their perceptions of working

with multilingual tutors and the employment of these tutors' and students' native languages during tutoring. Her study's results indicate that multilingual international students held a positive attitude toward working with non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) because some of them shared students' home languages and often employed them during discussions. Instead of viewing English-only tutoring as optimal, the students observed a need for their home languages in tutorial sessions and favored the idea of employing native languages in tutoring. Drawing upon these results, Lana proposes that university writing centers hire qualified multilingual tutors and offer bi-/multilingual tutoring to support international students.

The next chapter in this part raises a critical question of whether incorporating local languages in TESOL classrooms is enough to confront monolingualism and support the multilingual movement. Since issues of power, language, and identity continue to emerge when multiple languages interact with each other, attention should also be paid to how target languages like English are developed and valued by teachers and students, and whether this happens at the expense of local languages, cultures, and identities. Recognizing such complex intersection of multilingualism, power imbalances, and postcoloniality in Morocco, **Hamza R'boul** presents his own attempts as a TESOL practitioner to decolonize EFL classes. He argues that implementing multilingualism in Moroccan, and other, EFL classes has to be informed by a decolonial option that critically understands the linguistic dependency of the country and embraces a form of critical multilingualism where local languages and English are presented on equal footings. His chapter also includes practical implications of critical multilingualism that turn EFL classes into sites of political activity to decolonize TESOL classes.

Vikas Kadam and **Lina Mukhopadhyay** present translanguaging as an alternative to English-only instruction in ESL settings with multilingual learners. They argue that since collaborative teacher-learner interactions during writing and revision processes help learners internalize macro- and micro-features of writing, translingual strategies can further enhance this internalization through scaffolding in students' local languages. Through examples of translingual moves that allowed mediation to be contingent and graded, they make the case for translanguaging as an effective meaning-making tool to efficiently enable knowledge co-construction in the context of discourse analysis in multilingual writing classrooms.

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Chapter 5
"Bangla Helps Learners to Get the Gist Better"–Translanguaging in Postcolonial English as a Foreign Language Classes in Higher Education in Bangladesh

Md. Sadequle Islam and Sílvia Melo-Pfeifer

Abstract In postcolonial South Asia, and specifically in Bangladesh, students use their mother tongue while learning English as a second or foreign language (ES/FL), even if not overtly, while daily communicative translanguaging is seen as unproblematic. This apparent contradiction shows a gap between learning and communicative practices or, said otherwise, between pedagogical and communicative translanguaging. In this chapter, we discuss Bangladeshi teachers' perspectives toward pedagogical translanguaging and its use in tertiary level EFL classrooms. The results show that bringing languages together is seen as an unavoidable linguistic instance of Bangladeshi EFL classrooms. Teachers also concede that systematic and judicious use of pedagogical translanguaging could be an effective teaching approach, especially for grammar teaching and learning. Pedagogical translanguaging seems to be perceived more as a remediation strategy to cope with perceived lack of knowledge in the target language, rather than a strategy to enhance student awareness and skillful use of English, its varieties and other languages.

Introduction

With a historical background of language movement and independence, Bangladesh is mainly a monolingual country where over 95% of the total population speaks Bangla (BANBELS, 2003; Hamid & Erling, 2016). After the independence of Bangladesh in 1971, English suffered a serious setback due to the strong linguistic nationalism for the mother tongue, Bangla. Bangladesh could be called a postcolonial context in the landscape of English language teaching and learning (Canagarajah, 2011; Pennycook, 2021; Ricento, 2000). In recent years, Bangladeshi scholars have

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attempted to rethink the teaching and learning of English as a way to take agency and ownership over it (Sultana et al., 2021). The role of English in Bangladesh is thus still very practical as it is used as a linguistic link to the rest of the world, after being the language of the formal colonial power. In other postcolonial contexts, the majority and official language is often the language of former colonizers (Chimbutane, 2011), which is not the case of Bangladesh. English has been used here for a considerable length of time and for various purposes and has established itself as a dominant language at several levels. In Bangladesh, there is no complete language policy mentioning the status of foreign languages. Several foreign languages, including Arabic, French, Japanese, and Persian are offered for various diplomatic, commercial, and cultural reasons, while English holds a unique status as a compulsory subject, taught across primary, secondary, higher secondary, and at tertiary levels (Islam & Rahman, 2019).

Though the debates regarding the issue of whether pedagogical translanguaging in tertiary level English as a foreign language (EFL) education is appropriate or not are still going on, it has been noticed that there are certain communicative and learning purposes associated with it (Chiras & Galante, 2021; Garcia & Li, 2014). In this contribution, we delve into teachers' perspectives on pedagogical translanguaging in Bangladesh. As a postcolonial context that historically defined itself as "monolingual," both as a way to challenge the colonial power and fight the imposition of the colonial language, and to differentiate itself from neighboring (and sometimes conflicting) multilingual countries, we might anticipate that attitudes toward translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy could reveal a particular ideological stance, namely the call to decolonize English language education (Li & Garcia, 2022). Our aim is not to see if teachers are pro or contra translanguaging, in a dichotomic perspective, but to analyze the reasoning displayed when talking about it and thereby to understand how and in what circumstances English language teaching and learning can offer a path to multilingual education in Bangladesh.

Pedagogical Translanguaging: A Focus on Teachers' Attitudes

The Concept of Pedagogical Translanguaging

In multilingual and bilingual communities, interaction between different languages and language varieties is quite common and unavoidable (Cook, 2008). According to García (2009), a bilingual is a person who employs (at least) two languages with diverse and unequal experiences within each language. Rodriguez et al. (2014) provided another definition of bilingualism: "the ability of an individual to use two languages in a variety of situations and conditions" (p. 4). Bilingualism (which is used as a synonym to "multilingualism" by some authors, like García & Li,

2014) refers to the coexistence of more than one language system within an individual, as contrasted to monolingualism (Hakuta, 2009). Bilingualism can be used as an umbrella term encompassing speakers with linguistic abilities in at least two languages what has been conceptualized in the European context as "plurilingual competence" (Council of Europe, 2001). While communicating, bilinguals usually translanguage to convey meaning and make sense of their world (translanguaging as a theory of communication) and to learn (pedagogical translanguaging).

Recently, translanguaging has become a much-discussed scientific concept in socio- and applied linguistics. As a theory of communication and language, translanguaging is the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, and gaining understanding and knowledge by using several languages and other meaning-making resources (Baker, 2011; Cenoz & Gorter, 2021; García & Li, 2014). Languages are used not only for learning and teaching but also in an active and functionally integrated manner to manage and arbitrate mental processes in understanding, communicating, and literacy development. In education, translanguaging goes beyond code-switching and translation because it refers to the process by which bilingual students or emergent bilinguals perform bilingually, in multimodal ways, namely in the classroom (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021; Garcia & Li, 2014).

According to García and Li (2014), when translanguaging is used to learn, it can perform certain functions. According to them, translanguaging can: (i) mediate understanding among pupils; (ii) co-construct meaning of what they are saying; (iii) construct meaning within themselves; (iv) include other pupils in the interaction; (v) exclude others from participating in the exchanges; and (vi) demonstrate knowledge. The same authors also asserted that translanguaging has been seen as a specific pedagogy and a strategy to allow "deeper learning" (p. 91). They conceded that translanguaging "is a way of differentiating instruction to ensure that all students are being cognitively, socially, and creatively challenged, while receiving the appropriate linguistic input and producing the adequate linguistic output in meaningful interactions and collaborative dialogue" (p. 92). As a specific empowering pedagogy for the multilingual classroom, translanguaging enables teachers to: (i) involve students and give them voice; (ii) clarify form and content; (iii) reinforce the acquisition of language and content; (iv) manage the classroom; (v) extend and ask questions; (vi) and foster critical positioning (García & Li, 2014).

Whenever it comes to so-called monolingual, bilingual or multilingual contexts, debates have always occurred on whether it is beneficial or detrimental to navigate across different linguistic resources in the foreign language (FL) classroom or even to use them to accomplish different tasks, a discussion that shapes teachers' attitudes toward it. While proponents of the communicative language teaching approach support judicious use of the first language (L1) in language learning, adherents of the monolingual approach insist on the sole use of the target language (Islam & Rahman, 2019), what could be seen as the "monolingual habitus" in language education (Gogolin, 1994). Researchers in favor of using both L1 and the target language in the FL classroom, whether or not using the term translanguaging to describe it, feel that the former can be used to speed up the learning process and that it may

have cognitive and affective benefits for learning the latter (Adamson & Adamson-Fujimoto, 2012; Cook, 2008; Cummins, 2009; Ortega, 2014). In the case of students growing up monolingually and becoming multilingual at school, as is most often the situation in Bangladesh, there is a question of whether L1 can be used for learning the target language.

Language Teachers' Attitudes Toward Translanguaging

As previously mentioned, this chapter will deal with the teachers' attitudes toward pedagogical translanguaging, i.e., the pedagogical and planned use of several languages in the foreign language classroom to leverage all the components of students' multilingual repertoire, develop metalinguistic and metacognitive skills, and foster target language acquisition (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021).

Research on teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging, as toward other multilingual pedagogies, is still emerging. This research trend is based on the assumption that teachers' attitudes have an impact on their pedagogical practices (Goodman, 2022). Baker (1992) defined attitudes in the following terms:

> Attitudes cannot be directly observed. A person's thoughts, processing system and feeling are hidden. Therefore attitudes are latent, inferred from the direction and persistence of external behavior. Attitudes are a convenient and efficient way of explaining consistent patterns in behavior. Attitudes often manage to summarize, explain, and predict behavior. (p. 11)

Teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism and translanguaging are still rooted in prevalent monolingual stances toward language instruction and multilingual pedagogies are usually seen with some suspicion (Gorter & Arocena, 2020; Melo-Pfeifer & Chik, 2020; Young, 2014). Roose et al. (2022) analyzed the interconnectedness of teachers' attitudes with their reported pedagogical practices, namely those related to differentiation practices including using students' multilingual repertoires. Goodman (2022) contended that student teachers might have been exposed to negative attitudes toward the use of linguistic resources beyond the target language in their learning path, influencing the way they perceive this pedagogical resource. He further added that these negative attitudes can be overcome through specific instruction about the values attached to translanguaging. Furthermore, even when teachers report positive attitudes toward translanguaging at a theory level, they might have difficulties in applying it in the classroom (Gorter & Arocena, 2020).

In the language classrooms of Bangladesh, though most Bangladeshi teachers and learners engage in the practices of translanguaging, little research has been done on teachers' attitudes toward it. In the pedagogy of English Language Teaching, a judicious use of L1 by EFL teachers is seen as a pedagogical resource in a learning environment where (emergent) bilinguals use their linguistic resources to enhance communication in the target language (Yuvayapan, 2019). Shuchi and Islam (2016) showed that teachers at some points also use Bangla in the English class for affective

reasons and for making the lecture graspable to the learners. Farooqui (2014) discovered that almost all the teachers outside urban areas used Bangla whereas most of the teachers in the urban areas used a mixture of Bangla and English. Salim (2014) mentioned that around 90% teachers and students appreciated the facilitating role that Bangla plays in English classes.

English in Bangladesh: From Primary to Teacher Education

Since teachers’ attitudes are dependent on the context and might change through explicit instruction, it is important to grasp the context in which attitudes toward translanguaging in English in Higher Education in Bangladesh emerge and how they might change (or not) through teacher education.

English in Bangladesh has had a turbulent past as well as an undefined but robust present (Sultana & Roshid, 2021). Bangla is the only official language in Bangladesh and the status of English in Bangladesh is undecided. Nevertheless, as the use of English is escalating in all sectors (both private and government), day-by-day in different forms, there is considerable evidence of the use of English along with Bangla (Banu & Sussex, 2001), which can be described as translanguaging practices. This shows a clear gap between official and social status of English as a language.

In Bangladesh, the medium of instruction in primary, secondary, and higher secondary public schools is Bangla. In 1989, English was introduced as a compulsory subject from Year 1–12, with students having to qualify in both English and Bangla in the board examinations. The aim of this curriculum change was to improve “communicative competence” of Bangladeshi learners so that they can access more opportunities nationally and internationally. Like Bangla, English is taught every day in the classroom, between one and two class periods of 45–60 min. But English teaching and learning outcomes in these schools are not comparable to those in English-medium private schools, where English is the dominant language and Bangla has a peripheral role (Hamid & Jahan, 2015). In 1996, a compulsory English language foundation course was introduced in public (state) universities’ undergraduate classes. However, universities, especially the private ones, have started to put stronger emphasis on English. These private universities have strict rules about the enforcement of English and remedial English courses have also been offered for students who don’t score high in English (Islam, 2013). Apart from that, most private universities offer skill-based English language courses as compulsory subjects in the first year. Though there are no official indications about the medium of instruction, in all public and private universities, the medium of instruction is English.

Linguistic ecology of Bangladeshi English language classrooms is quite perplexing. Islam (2018) found that, though the scenery in EFL class is formally monolingual (English only), in practice it is bilingual–both Bangla and English are used interchangeably. In the universities, most of the students come from Bangla medium background and have had limited exposure to English as a foreign language. Rahman and Sing (2021) showed that in the Bangla medium of instruction, from the

very beginning of school, English is taught as a subject, whereas abruptly, in the tertiary level, English converts into a medium of instruction. This mismatch causes students' failure to achieve the target level of proficiency, making translanguaging a valuable resource in classes (also in EFL classes). Shuchi and Islam (2016) mentioned that since Bangla is the mother tongue, it is not unusual for students to use Bangla in English classes and to expect the teachers to use it as well in the classroom.

As reported in previous studies, teachers often do not know how to deal with classroom translanguaging, as they have not always had access to teacher education dealing with those issues. Teacher education contributes to building teacher cognition and teacher identity, decisive factors which determine teachers' actions in the classroom (Rahman et al., 2019). However, there is no specific institutional pre-service teacher training for English language teachers in Bangladesh, meaning that they do not offer a pedagogical and didactic component. Rahman (2005) mentions that bachelors and masters programs in English, mostly focused on language acquisition, are run by all the universities and these programs in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), and English Language Teaching (ELT) are considered as providing pre-service teacher education. On the other hand, there are only limited opportunities for secondary level English teachers to take part in government initiated in-service teacher education programs, including Certificate in Education (C-in-Ed) and Bachelor of Education (B. Ed) and the knowledge imparted in these programs is inadequate since their content has a limited focus on the practical aspects of English teaching. For tertiary level English language teachers, there is also no training program organized by the government or the institution itself, meaning that teachers are left alone in their professional development path.

The Empirical Study

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the attitudes of Tertiary level EFL teachers toward pedagogical translanguaging in EFL classes in a postcolonial setting. Two research questions guided the study:

- What are teachers' perceptions regarding the use of Bangla-English translanguaging in their English classes?
- To what extent do teachers think that translanguaging can actually be used in their English classes?

Context of Data Collection and Participants

The research was carried out in one public (University of Chittagong) and one private university (University of Information Technology and Sciences) in Bangladesh.

University of Chittagong has 48 departments in 9 faculties. Almost every department has a Fundamental English course for the first-year students and the faculty have specialized English teachers to teach the course. Four of these teachers from the University of Chittagong were interviewed as a part of this research. The University of Information Technology and Sciences (UITS) is the first IT-based private university in Bangladesh and is located in the capital city Dhaka. The University has two fundamental English language courses for the first-year students coming from all departments except those coming from the English department. The courses focus on the four language skills. Teachers from the department of English teach these two courses apart from their departmental courses. Four teachers from the English Department of UITS were interviewed for this study.

In total 8 (eight) semi-structured teacher interviews were conducted, in both Bangla and English. Four of the teachers were male and four female, with teaching experience varying from 3 to 20 years.

Among the questions that were asked, the following are important to understand the analysis:

1. What is translanguaging?
2. Does translanguaging take place in your English language classroom?
3. When does translanguaging best function in the English classroom for the learners?
4. Is translanguaging helpful or harmful for the learners?
5. Do you have any suggestion/comment on translanguaging in the EFL classroom?

Corpus and Methodology of Analysis

Interviews were transcribed for content and discourse analysis. Additionally, we repeated reading and listening to the interviews in order to find a category system that would enable the analysis. In the next section we describe how, when and with what purposes teachers make use of translanguaging strategies and how they assess their efficiency for English learning purposes.

While analyzing teachers’ responses, code of identifications (T1, T2…. T8) are used. Table 5.1 summarizes the participant teachers’ profiles.

Findings and Discussion

The analysis of teachers’ interviews showed that they had positive attitudes toward the use of translanguaging in EFL classes for a number of reasons. They revealed that translanguaging served interpersonal, instructional, and managerial interactions. Teachers use translanguaging for explaining difficult grammatical rules, clarifying unfamiliar lexical items, summarizing given ideas in Bangla, clarifying unknown

Table 5.1 Teachers' profile

Code of identification	Type of University: public/private	Male/female	Teaching experience (in years)
T1	Public	Female	5
T2	Public	Male	19
T3	Public	Male	7
T4	Public	Female	3
T5	Private	Female	12
T6	Private	Female	14
T7	Private	Male	4
T8	Private	Male	6

concepts, and exchanging informal interactions with the learners. The extract below from one of the teachers reflects this practice:

> Well, though the medium of instruction is English here… specifically for our English class, I think Bangla-English translanguaging sometimes becomes very necessary… demand of time, you know…for students, it makes the concepts clear and easy and the learning environment… becomes much more congenial for them. [T6]

T2, T6, and T7 indicated that, if Bangla is used for summarizing the lesson at the end, it becomes easier for the students to comprehend any complicated elements, specifically grammatical complexities. Participants T4 and T7 also said that translanguaging helps to explain complex meanings and new vocabulary, ensuring better communication within classrooms and encouraging students to ask for clarification. This fits the results by Lee (2010) and Rahimi and Jafari (2011) presented in the theoretical section.

According to Canagarajah (1995), when any lesson, topic, concept or term is introduced to the students, a number of strategies can be used for explanation such as repetition, reformulation, clarification, exemplification, and so on. Indeed, T1, T2, T4, and T7 shared their experience that translanguaging is very effective in clarifying any kind of misunderstanding or confusion regarding a concept. The following extract indicates that teachers practice translanguaging because Bangla helps the learners to get the gist better when the teachers want to clarify a concept:

> Translanguaging serves… I mean it helps to clarify unfamiliar concepts and terms, and there is no doubt that it promotes understanding...and from my own experience I can say it helps the learners to get the gist or the summary better… [T1]

According to the teachers, Bangla-English translanguaging is purposeful and serves to facilitate learning in the language classroom. Teachers practice translanguaging in adapting to the context and to the learners' needs. They use translanguaging as a teaching approach or tool to make learners understand intricate items such as complicated grammar items and difficult vocabularies. Some teachers mentioned that translanguaging (specifically the use of Bangla) reduces anxiety and gives support and confidence to students in learning. Therefore, translanguaging

serves as emotional support and fulfills the psychological needs of the learners by lessening the feelings of alienation in the classroom.

Additionally, teachers opined that the majority of the university students in Bangladesh come from a Bangla medium background with little exposure to the use of English in their secondary and higher secondary education. Their English skills are limited to those of grammar books. When they enter the university, they are exposed to English via textbooks, classroom instruction, and exams. Consequently, these Bangla medium students find it hard to cope with the English dominated education. Thus, to make lessons a bit easier for the students and to help them get the gist better, teachers tend to use translanguaging in English classes. For grammar lessons, for instance, teachers use Bangla intermittently to help students understand confusing and complicated grammar rules like subject-verb agreement, pronoun reference, clause structure, etc. From the following excerpt, it is clear that teachers use translanguaging to translate grammar rules:

> It helps the students to comprehend intricate topics easily. Let's say… use of conditionals, articles or subject-verb agreement… you can compare and contrast the items from both languages… and thus it can be easier for the learners to understand these topics…at times English vocabulary is taught by giving it's Bangla equivalent…that is you can explain the meaning of new words by using translanguaging. [T3]

The findings show that learners continuously try to create an association between English and Bangla. Deliberately or not, L1 (Bangla) continuously enters these teachers' practices. Some teachers even feel that it is vital to begin an English lesson through Bangla or use it intermittently within the class. They think the mother tongue can be a valuable instrument to afford students a sense of security since deficient language capability may create apprehension among learners and hinder their participation. Through Bangla, teachers can make associations that aid them in fulfilling the aim of the lesson. According to teachers T1, T3, T5, T8, and T6, translanguaging functions well when it is used to emphasize certain learning items in the classroom and for exemplification purposes. When a teacher uses translanguaging to give examples from Bangla, learners can understand more easily. If there is any trouble in the middle of the lesson, the use of Bangla helps teachers to easily confront it and helps the learners to get the gist better. This seems to show that, by regularly considering when and how to use translanguaging, and the circumstances under which it will facilitate student learning without making it an onerous experience, teachers feel they can provide a safe and stimulating environment for language learning. For example, when a terminology for a concept does not exist in the target language, translanguaging acts as an authentic requirement for teaching and it helps students to reshape their understanding and thus results in true and enhanced learning. Teachers make use of L1 to manage classroom activities with a positive frame of learning outcomes (cf. Alrabah et al., 2016). In our study, one of the teachers stated:

> Well, when I am teaching any grammatical item, it becomes necessary to give examples…Exemplification with the help of translanguaging can be a very effective strategy. And, yes, when I have to give any important instruction to the students in English, I try to say it one more time in Bangla, because you know…it helps them to get the gist of the instruction better… [T8]

Conclusion

In this contribution, we started by acknowledging the gap between Bangladesh's common, spontaneous translanguaging practices and pedagogical translanguaging. This may be because a strong presence of the colonial language (English) co-exists with a status of both L2 and *lingua franca.* In the context of formal classroom settings, the use of more than one language (Bangla and English) among the Bangladeshi English language teachers and learners is extensively reported. However, there are debates regarding the issue of whether more than one language in the EFL classroom is appropriate or not, and when it could occur with benefits for teachers and students. Overall, a pervasive monolingual stance still seems to be present in this specific context.

The results of our research contribute to the long-standing debates among ELT scholars regarding monolingual and bilingual approaches to English learning and teaching in Bangladesh. The teachers interviewed for this study agreed that opportunities need to be created for the interactive use of translanguaging (specifically, use of Bangla in the English classroom), which is perceived largely as a question of teaching style and method, rather than use of language per se. Despite saying that the use of Bangla can jeopardize an effective learning environment in their English lessons, they concede that if Bangla is used judiciously as a part of the translanguaging process by well-trained teachers of English, it may become an important teaching and learning resource. Almost all the teachers (7 out of 8) held the opinion that teachers should be provided comprehensive training for ensuring the best possible use of Bangla within the language-focused classroom. Pedagogical translanguaging is perceived more as a remediation strategy than as a strategy to enhance students' metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness and skillful use of English, its varieties and other languages. Though translanguaging is not always fully and systematically valued for its participatory and identity benefits to students, it is a useful technique for language teaching and learning in order to make grammar more easily understood.

Due to the fact that Bangladesh, unlike other countries in the region, is perceived as strongly attached to a pre-colonial language (Bangla), it is important to analyze which multilingual pedagogies can be developed in higher education. According to our presentation of the sociolinguistic situation of Bangladesh, the majority of the population tends to be described and identified as monolingual and the provision of foreign language learning is not widespread. In this context characterized by a strong monolingual mindset, we feel that multilingual pedagogies should be anchored in the L1, as a door to other languages, namely English. In the same vein, we consider that multilingual pedagogies should be based on a Teaching Other Languages to Speakers of English (TOLSE) approach (Melo-Pfeifer, 2021). In line with this approach, "systematic bridges could be established between the languages in order to pave the way of the development of new language learning ideologies and strategies" (pp. 253–254), in order to challenge the prevalent monolingual mindset.

A further way to decolonize the language curriculum in Bangladesh would be to diversify the foreign language provision at school and use English as a springboard

to enhance students' multilingual competence. This proposal thus combines the use of English as a *lingua franca* and translanguaging to learn third languages. Following from our results, it would be judicious to use pedagogical translanguaging as a way to challenge the norm that is imposed on classrooms and to address the pluricentricity of English, thus making its intralinguistic diversity visible and valuable. As Pennycook puts it when referring to decolonizing ELT in Bangladesh to achieve social and cognitive justice, "alternative ways of thinking about language, policy, teaching, and assessment that focus less on some putative variety of English and more on how English resources may be part of multilingual repertoires" are needed (2021, p. xxii; see also Li & García, 2022). And finally, by acknowledging translanguaging social practices and their usefulness in daily communication, teachers could help to narrow the practice-pedagogic divide, thus normalizing language contact as a way to navigate complex communicative situations.

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Chapter 6
Promoting Multilingualism at University Writing Centers: International Students' Perceptions of Non-native English-Speaking Writing Tutors and the Employment of Their Native Languages in Tutoring

Lan Wang-Hiles

Abstract With the influx of international students coming to study in US institutions, the critical need for bi/multilingual education in linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms has been recognized. As an extension of classroom instruction, university writing centers (WCs) also have witnessed a steadily increasing number of multilingual international students (MISs) becoming major clientele. WCs face a challenge of effectively working with MISs. With the goal of addressing these students' needs to enhance and enrich their learning experience, this study explores MISs' perceptions of working with multilingual tutors and the employment of MISs' native languages during tutoring. These tutors are non-native English-speaking tutors (NNESTs) sharing native languages with MISs. This qualitative study results indicate that MISs held a positive attitude toward working with NNESTs; there was no preference between choosing a native English-speaking tutor (NEST) or a NNEST to work with. They perceived that the NNESTs were as helpful and competent as monolingual NESTs; NNESTs even demonstrated some advantages. Moreover, MISs favored the idea of employing their native languages in tutoring. Instead of viewing English-only tutoring as optimal, they observed a need for their home languages in tutorial sessions. Hence, this study proposes that university WCs hire qualified multilingual tutors and offer bi/multilingual tutoring to support MISs. Suggestions for WC administrators in hiring multilingual tutors are also discussed.

Introduction

With US academic institutional interest in retaining and expanding overall student enrollment, the recruiting of students from overseas has become important, leading to

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an increased number of international students in US institutions. These students are often called multilingual international students (MISs) because they speak different languages. The growing population of the MISs not only benefits the US institutions financially but also brings cultural and linguistic diversity to campuses. Multilingualism in classroom practice, thus, has become critical. Studies have found that multilingualism is a resource for MISs to improve communication and comprehension; hence, their native language use in the classroom should be well-kept and developed; multilingual education should be promoted (Horner et al., 2011; Shapiro et al., 2016). Accordingly, to facilitate the learning of linguistically diverse students, the concepts of translanguaging (García, 2009) and plurilingualism (Taylor, 2009; Taylor & Snoddon, 2013) have been advocated in classroom instruction, particularly in composition instruction (Canagarajah, 2005; Horner & Trimbur, 2002; Horner et al., 2010, 2011).

As an extension of classroom learning, university WCs play an indispensable role in facilitating MISs' learning experience. The changes of WC client structure from serving purely native English-speaking student writers to serving a mixed student writer population of MISs, 1.5 generation students, and immigrant students requires WCs to think of appropriate methods to work with all writers effectively. The main challenge university WCs face is accommodating diverse student populations' writing needs. As Rafoth (2015) pointed out, some monolingual tutors have inadequate content knowledge and lack cultural experience when tutoring MISs. This requires reforming tutoring approaches and promoting multilingual instruction to support MISs in a better way (see Lape, 2020; Wang, 2012; Wang-Hiles, 2020).

Although multilingual tutors are already working at some WCs at the US-Mexico border and at French–English institutions in Canada where bilingual tutoring is employed (Hotson, 2007), research on the plausibility of hiring bi/multilingual WC tutors is still insufficient. In addition, tutoring MISs in their native languages is also in its infancy (Wang-Hiles, 2020). Such a research gap can be fulfilled by investigating when to hire multilingual tutors, what to look for during the hiring process, and how to train tutors to better accommodate linguistically and culturally diverse student populations at WCs. With the goal of addressing these questions, this study conducted qualitative interviews with MISs to explore their perceptions and experiences of working with bi/multilingual non-native English-speaking tutors (NNESTs) and the employment of their native languages during tutoring. Additionally, it also compared tutoring services provided by multilingual NNESTs and monolingual native English-speaking tutors (NESTs). The main aim of the study was to see if the utilization of the native languages of MISs during tutoring sessions enhanced their learning experiences and improved their writing competence.

Literature Review

Over the past five decades, WCs have established and taken a unique position in universities, serving not only as an extension of classroom instruction to help students

learn writing and academic skills but also as sites of knowledge building (Harris, 1995). As MISs are gradually becoming the majority of university WC clients, this new student population has a great impact on the WC services. According to Wang-Hiles (2020), two decades ago, the average percentage of MISs in WCs was 30–40%; ten years later in 2010, this group of writers increased so significantly that during regular semesters, 50%–60% of the WC visitors were international students who rose up to 70% during the summer sessions. Today, MISs have become the dominant student body at WCs, maintaining 60%–80% of the WC clientele in many large public universities.

One fact to note is that most MISs, who are currently studying in the US colleges and universities, learned English as a foreign language in their home countries (Wang-Hiles, 2020). They already possess a high cognitive and linguistic competence in their native languages (Fu & Matoush, 2006). Yet, they may still need to strengthen their writing skills and better understand Western writing conventions while improving their English proficiency in order to succeed in the English medium academic context. From the second language (L2) writing acquisition perspective, Williams (2005) claimed that "L2 writers need copious input to develop both L2 proficiency and their writing skills" (p. 7). According to her, WCs provide a venue for MISs to achieve these demands and "enhance the language acquisition process" (p. 11). From these students' point of view, WCs are dedicated settings for them to improve writing skills (Williams & Severino, 2004); tutors are "immediately more helpful, more approachable, more practical and more personal than teachers" (Harris, 1997, p. 223). Hence, MISs tend to visit WCs, seeking English writing and academic discourse help.

If we employ Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory, his Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) in particular, to analyze the language learning process, we recognize that it occurs through two-way interaction. Since language development occurs through dialogic relationships between novices and experts, a WC, in this sense, is an ideal place for multilingual writers to develop both writing skills and linguistic competence through meaningful interaction with experts, the tutors. Moreover, even though most MISs from overseas are highly literate in their native/home language, they still lack the knowledge to successfully compose an academic paper in English (Spack, 2006) mainly because English as a second language writing may rhetorically, linguistically, and strategically differ from MISs' writing in their native/home language (Silva, 1993). Similarly, English rhetorical principles may also be different from their home language rhetoric (Connor, 1996). Thus, appropriate constructions associated with the academic discourse and genres must be "explicitly taught" (Hinkel, 2002, p. 18) to familiarize MISs with academic English discourse and rhetoric.

At WCs, the issue of whether English-only or other languages can be used in tutorials has not yet been given enough attention. Following the English-only policy, MISs' native languages are normally not allowed at any stage during tutorial sessions as using their native languages in tutorials is perceived to be language deficient; rather, English-only tutoring is the default practice as it is perceived to enable these writers to think in English with minimal interference from their native languages (Cummins,

2007). For this reason, monolingual English-speaking tutors are perceived to be qualified and ideal for MISs (Dvorak, 2016; Wang, 2012; Wang-Hiles, 2020). However, this monolingual ideology has been challenged (e.g., Canagarajah, 2002; Cummins, 2007; Michael-Luna & Canagarajah, 2007). Studies have observed the benefits of bi/multilingual education because international students' English proficiency development depends on their well-developed native language proficiency and enhances their content-area knowledge comprehension in English. As Canagarajah (2010) stated, "a bilingual person's competence is not simply two discrete monolingual competencies added together; instead, bilingual competence integrates knowledge of two languages and is thus qualitatively different from monolingual competence" (p. 158). In other words, bilinguals have one blended language repertoire that gives them more tools, rich resources, and more flexible ways to learn new knowledge, express themselves, and communicate with others (García & Wei, 2014).

Moreover, bi/multilingual education promotes linguistic equality, cultural diversity, and social adaptability. Some critical linguists, from the sociopolitical perspective, advocate for language equality, viewing "English-only" as a form of linguistic imperialism. According to Phillipson (1992), "the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages" (p. 47). Holliday (2005) believed that native speakerism privileges the English-speaking West as being central. Similarly, Pennycook (2000) argued that "people should have a basic linguistic right to education and use of their first language" (p. 63) and that "languages are not mere media, but rather stand at the very core of major cultural and political questions" (p. 64).

Researchers have also identified the limitations of the monolingual and autonomous model of literacy because an English-only approach fails to realize the significance of English language learners' biliteracy development (Street, 1984; Street & Lefstein, 2007). Hence, continua of biliteracy development (Hornberger, 1989, 2003) and multilingual literacy (Fu & Matoush, 2006) have been suggested. Similarly, García (2002) criticized the quality of education in the biliteracy development of bilingual students, pinpointing that writing instruction is not for an authentic communicative purpose, but an isolated academic activity dominant in English. According to García, good bilingual education promotes advanced biliteracy development instead of restricting bilinguals' potential. Thus, building a classroom ecology has been proposed (García et al., 2017) to encourage bilingual students to use all their language resources, so that "all learners would have equal educational opportunities and build a more just society" (p. 21).

Although research on MISs in composition classes has argued for replacing an English-only approach with multilingual instruction (Horner et al., 2010), many WCs in the USA continue to employ monolingual ways of teaching. Trimbur (2000) lamented the oversight of WCs for neglecting writing instruction in languages other than English and assented to the notion of bilingualism where multilingual tutoring is replaced with English-only instruction. Similarly, based on her empirical study, Wang-Hiles (2020) pointed out the inadequacy of an English-only policy for tutoring MISs and discussed the possibility of using the native languages of both MISs

and multilingual tutors for better learning. Such situation calls for WC tutoring approaches to reflect on ways to work with MISs effectively by addressing their linguistic and writing needs, thus contributing to multilingual TESOL in practice.

Methodology

According to Merriam (2002), critical research "uncovers, examines, and critiques the social, cultural, and psychological assumptions that structure and limit our ways of thinking and being in the world" (p. 9) and "critique, challenge, transform and empower" (p. 327). Within the framework of critical research, this qualitative study attempted to (1) explore MISs' perceptions of working with multilingual tutors who are NNESTs and find out NNESTs' writing assistance compared with monolingual NESTs and (2) investigate MISs' desire for their native languages to be employed in tutoring. For this purpose, six participants (see Table 6.1) were purposefully recruited from the international students who were studying at a public university located in the Northeast of the U.S. Participants, identified by pseudonyms, were a mixture of graduate and undergraduate students from different academic programs. They visited their university WC regularly and had tutoring experiences with both NESTs and NNESTs. The native languages of the NNESTs included Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, and others. In addition, a few monolingual NESTs understood and spoke languages other than English.

The semi-structured interview questions (see Appendix) explored participants' educational backgrounds, frequency, and reasons for visiting the WC, their tutoring experiences with NNESTs and NESTs, and their perceptions of the writing assistance from NNESTs and NESTs. Moreover, the interview questions investigated participants' opinions of the employment of their native languages in tutorial sessions. Their suggestions for the WC were also recorded. All interviews were conducted face-to-face individually in English during a semester; each lasted for 30–40 min. During each interview, follow-up questions generated from the interview were also asked, which allowed the participants to further elaborate or clarify their responses. For the purpose of collecting and retrieving data in an accurate form for analysis, a voice

Table 6.1 Multilingual writer participants

Participants (gender)	Major/Program	School year	Native language
Riko (f)	Communications	Freshman	Japanese
Ming (m)	Math	Freshman	Chinese
Fatima (f)	Psychology	Sophomore	Arabic
Juan (m)	English Education	2nd year/MA	Spanish
Tao (m)	Accounting	2nd year/MS	Chinese
Ari (f)	Sociology	3rd year/Ph.D.	Korean

recorder was used with the participants' consent. Interview data were transcribed verbatim in order to identify themes.

Findings

In general, the participants visited the WC at least once a week. The common issues that brought them to the WC were grammar checking, formatting, and language editing so that they could feel confident in turning in their written assignments. Participants who were graduate students also expected that tutors would help in rhetorical and subject-matter aspects. Overall, the participants were satisfied with tutors' assistance in linguistic improvement. They perceived that both NESTs and NNESTs were helpful, but in different ways. They also expressed their preference to be tutored in both English and their native languages when needed, reinforcing the suggestion that the WC hire more multilingual tutors to work with them.

Perceptions of Working with NNESTs

In terms of working with NNESTs, the participants stated that before visiting the WC for the first time, they did not know that the WC had NNESTs who were also international students. Most of them admitted that they assumed NESTs would do a better job in tutoring because English is their native language. Therefore, they purposefully chose to work with NESTs. Based on their frequency of visiting the WC, sometimes they unavoidably had the opportunities to work with NNESTs. After working with NNESTs, these participants' attitudes toward working with the multilingual tutors changed as they perceived that NNESTs were as competent as their NEST counterparts in writing assistance. NNESTs even demonstrated their uniqueness and indispensability in working with MISs.

Taking Tao's experiences as an example, NNESTs seemed to understand his writing without much difficulty and could identify and address issues easily, while his American tutors were sometimes confused by his language use and could not fully understand what he wrote. Tao recalled that when visiting the WC during his first semester, he always wanted to work with native English-speaking tutors.

> However, those tutors could not understand my writing. So, I switched to working with a nonnative English-speaking tutor, trying to see if it would work, and it worked as my tutor understood my point without much difficulty even though he is not Chinese.

When asked why NNESTs could help, Tao further said:

> I guess it is because the tutor has experienced the same process of English improvement for writing. So, he knew my writing.

Since then, Tao had no preference for choosing between a native or non-native tutor to work with. Similarly, Juan did not hold any preconception about tutors; he believed that "if a tutor is hired to work at the WC, then he must be qualified no matter whether his native language is English or not." Juan felt comfortable working with a tutor whose native language is other than English.

The two freshman students, Riko and Ming, felt they tended to be less anxious and more confident talking with NNESTs and perceived that they could communicate with NNESTs easily. According to Ming, NNESTs could address his linguistic issues directly and effectively by explaining the rules so that he could understand his linguistic problems and ways to solve them. Similarly, as a conscientious student, Riko always wanted to ensure that she comprehended her written assignments appropriately. However, instead of asking her instructor directly, she preferred to ask a tutor. In her experience, a NNEST could be equally helpful in explaining the writing prompts and discussing her ideas for composing an essay based on the given prompt. Both Ming and Riko perceived that NNESTs demonstrated more patience when tutoring them. Another student, Fatima, also shared that it was easier to build rapport with NNESTs. As she explained, "we are all international students, so we tend to understand each other." According to Ari, another student, in addition to seeing the help from NNESTs, they set good role models for her as they demonstrated their capability in both English and writing, which to some degree, motivated her to work hard.

In comparison with writing assistance from NESTs, the participants observed that NNESTs seemed to understand their writing difficulties and identified their issues better. They particularly found that NNESTs could help them with grammatical issues successfully while NESTs seemed not able to do so. As stated earlier in this study, one major reason for participants to visit the WC was to check their grammar usage; hence, these participants expected that tutors were able to not only identify their grammatical errors but also explain why they were wrong. Oftentimes NNESTs both identified and explained grammatical mistakes, while NESTs could only tell them: "it sounds awkward" but failed to explain the mistakes in proper terms or give the rationale so that they could learn to avoid making similar mistakes in the future.

Based on their tutoring experiences with both NESTs and NNESTs, participants viewed that both NESTs and NNESTs possessed competences that were helpful in certain ways. In their opinions, a tutor's qualification depends on whether the tutor is knowledgeable, helpful, patient, understanding, and easygoing rather than his or her nativeness in English. Further, if international students were hired to be tutors, they must be competent in both writing and English. Participants admired NNESTs and viewed them as role models. According to these participants, a typical advantage that NESTs possess was their intuition for the language use and the nuance between words. Their weakness, however, was that they did not possess adequate metalinguistic knowledge for explaining the errors while NNESTs often could. Overall, the participants held a positive attitude toward working with NNESTs.

Opinion of English-Only Tutoring Versus Bilingual Tutoring

Regarding the employment of their native languages during tutorial sessions, participants demonstrated a favorable attitude toward it and believed that doing it could help express ideas explicitly and that they could communicate better with tutors if the tutors understood them. According to them, English-only tutoring is not always optimal.

Riko, a newly arrived freshman student, favored the idea of using her native language during tutoring for solving both sentence-level issues such as word choice and grammar and content issues like idea expression. She stated:

> I would definitely prefer to work with a tutor who could understand Japanese no matter whether he is a Japanese or an American. That way, I can talk to the tutor [about] my problems directly in Japanese, and ask him how to express my idea in appropriate English.

Riko described her frustration that due to her limited English and inexperienced writing proficiency, she sometimes had to look up the words by using her phone to tell the tutor what she wanted to say during a tutorial. Fortunately, at her WC, there was a tutor who had lived in Japan for eight years, and he was able to communicate fluently in Japanese. Riko, therefore, visited him every time when she needed writing help. One example Riko shared was that although online dictionaries helped her with vocabulary, oftentimes, she was not quite sure whether those words were appropriate given the context. But this tutor who understood Japanese could immediately understand what she wanted to express and help determine which word was suitable in her sentence. Riko believed that working with this bilingual tutor really helped her writing and English language. She also suggested that the WC allow her to use Japanese in tutorials because “that would assist me speaking my ideas more readily, even though the essay was written in English.”

Graduate student Ari also expressed her longing for working with bilingual tutors. For her, working with a tutor who speaks Korean would be “a big advantage” because her major, Sociology, required her to write “content, culture, and history specific papers,” and during the tutorials, she would always need to have in-depth discussions with tutors on those topics. Unfortunately, she was not as lucky as Riko in having a bilingual tutor who understood Japanese. Ari complained that “with no understanding of Korean history and culture, a tutor couldn’t help me with the content of my paper well enough.” She further argued:

> Things would be different in a better way, if I have a tutor from Korea to work with, or even a tutor who understands Korean and my culture.

Juan, another graduate student, also asserted that “if I work with a Spanish bilingual tutor, it would be so wonderful because I sometimes do need to discuss the ideas that are hard to explain in English.” In fact, Juan disclosed that once he and his tutor, who is a native Spanish speaker, violated the tutoring rule by using Spanish in a tutorial. “But that experience was a wonderful one!” Juan commented. When asked whether using Spanish had interrupted him from thinking in English, Juan denied it and added: “Spanish served as a tool to help convey my ideas for my essay.”

Participants expressed their preference for bilingual tutoring in both English and their native languages. To them, "English-only" was not always ideal because they constantly depended on their native languages for expressing meanings or getting involved in discipline-specific discussions because their native languages are integrated into all phases of their English learning process (Cummins, 2019). Their justification is that bilingual tutoring could allow them to sufficiently use their content-related knowledge, cultures, and linguistic skills in both languages; thus, facilitating their English writing and English proficiency development. In maximizing their learning effectiveness, participants saw a need for both English and their native languages in tutorials.

Suggestions for the WC

In terms of suggestions for the WC, one common theme that emerged from the interviews was not to view international students as identical to those native English-speaking students because their needs at the WC were different. In this regard, they suggested that the WC employ tutoring approaches that better fit their needs, such as addressing those so-called lower-order concerns at the sentence level. They also hoped that instead of offering nudges for them to identify their own errors, they would prefer that tutors directly point out their issues and explain the logic of the solutions to them. More importantly, they suggested that their native languages be used in tutoring, which reinforces the need for more bilingual tutors. For example, Riko suggested that beginning-level English proficiency writers work with bilingual tutors who speak their native languages because "we need tutors to be understanding, we need their intensive explanation. To talk [to] my tutor in Japanese would be easier and much more helpful."

Offering a longer tutorial session for international students was also proposed. As Fatima said, "international students may need a longer time in communicating with tutors and digesting what tutors have suggested. We also expected to learn new things about writing in a tutorial session." A typical 40–50 min' tutorial session seemed short to her. "So I always had to schedule another tutoring appointment or even two afterward, which is inconvenient." According to Tao, he would prefer to work with a tutor "whose native language is also Chinese so that the communication would go smoothly to save time and make much progress." As proposed by Juan and Ari, the WC should recruit a greater disciplinary diversity of tutors rather than only from the English department. According to Ari, "because graduate level assignments are always content and cultural-specific, which requires a tutor to understand my culture and society in order to really help me." As Juan asserted, "Ideally speaking, tutors should be able to not only help with our linguistic issues but also the subject-matter papers."

Participants' suggestions demonstrated their specific needs at the WC, which also indicated that these multilingual writers possessed clear and legitimate ideas in their native languages. These competences enhance and facilitate their content knowledge

comprehension and command. Their culture, knowledge, and literacy skills in their native languages are resources for them to improve English and English writing.

Discussion and Conclusion

The study findings indicated that MISs held a positive attitude toward working with NNESTs, believing that tutors' qualifications, rhetorical and linguistic knowledge, tutoring strategies, and personality are more important than their mother tongue. Participants had no preference in choosing a tutor to work with. However, both novice and advanced writers expressed their expectations in working with multilingual tutors for either linguistic help or in-depth content and culture-related discussions, no matter whether the tutors are NESTs or NNESTs. MISs in this study perceived that NNESTs were equally capable and knowledgeable and possessed unique advantages, such as metalinguistic understanding, in tutoring MISs. Moreover, because NNESTs were MISs themselves, they tended to be more patient and understanding while acknowledging writers' native language literacy and cultures. NNESTs were also better at establishing tutor–student rapport, making MISs more relaxed but equally productive.

In addition, the practice of English-only tutoring was challenged by the MISs. In their opinion, it was not always optimal; instead, bilingual tutoring demonstrated its direct advantage for them at all levels. For MISs, if both English and their native languages were used, they would convey ideas clearly, express subtle meanings more accurately, and have a thorough and deeper idea expression. The study findings showed that bi/multilingual tutoring facilitates MISs' input and output in tutoring, consequently, their English and biliteracy development. Hence, this study makes recommendations for WCs in terms of effectively working with MISs, including recruiting qualified multilingual tutors, both NESTs and NNESTs, and hiring multidisciplinary and multicultural tutors. Such tutors tend to understand MISs and their cultures and values. Tutors should also be aware of the differences between MISs and native English-speaking writers. Thus, instead of employing the tutoring approaches and strategies that are widely applied in tutoring native English-speaking students, more flexible and feasible tutoring practices should be used when tutoring MISs.

This study also discovered the limitations of the monolingual tutoring approaches and highlighted the advantages of bilingual tutoring for MISs. In this regard, it suggested that university WCs acknowledge MISs' culture and literacy competence in their native languages and recognize the necessity for them to utilize their native languages in communication, learning, and English writing. In order to support linguistically and culturally diverse students and provide equitable and quality education, this study advocated for making university WCs multilingual and multiliteracy centers. Today, linguistic and cultural diversity on campus requires institutions and all teaching and learning facilities to understand the significance of multilingual education.

To second Auerbach's (2016) argument, empowering and supporting multilingual students does not mean "indiscriminately" allowing the use of their native languages. Rather, this study hopes to add that there is an urgent need for joint effort and collaboration across a broader range of contexts to realize the necessity of multilingual students' native languages in their learning process. Thus, the benefits of multilingual tutoring should be taken into consideration and qualified bi/multilingual tutors should be recruited. More careful and suitable teaching and tutoring methods should be selected and designed for working with multilingual students. More importantly, efforts should be put in exploring the legitimacy and necessity of the pedagogical possibilities of multilingual education (Cummins, 2019). Looking ahead, this study advocates and promotes equal education, linguistic rights, and cultural justice for multilingual students.

Appendix

Interview Questions:

1. What is your native country and language? In which program and at which year are you current studying?
2. How often do you visit the writing center? In general, what type of writing help do you often ask for at the writing center?
3. What is your experience of working with bi/multilingual tutors who are non-native English-speaking tutors? Please explain with examples.
4. In your experiences of working with native English-speaking and non-native English-speaking tutors, whom do you prefer to work with and why?
5. In what aspects do you perceive non-native English-speaking tutors could help you the most? Please explain with examples.
6. In terms of writing assistance, who, native English-speaking or non-native English-speaking tutors, could help you more?
7. What is your opinion if your native language would be allowed to use in tutorials, and why?
8. What suggestions do you have for the writing center to better serve you as an international student writer?

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Chapter 7
Critical Multilingualism in TESOL in Practice: Language, Power, and Decoloniality

Hamza R'boul

Abstract The Global South has been characterized by power struggles between local and foreign languages. In particular, Morocco is a southern space that has been grappling with its postcolonial positionality and linguistic dependency on foreign languages. With the spread of English in the country, local languages are facing more threats since French is the ex-colonial code while English might represent modern coloniality. Critical multilingualism seems a nuanced approach in balancing these power inequalities between languages and alleviating the possible hegemonic understandings of English. However, practicing multilingualism in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)/English as a foreign language (EFL) in the Global South is complex as the presence of English is often linked to the issues of linguistic imperialism, coloniality, and the supremacy of Anglophone cultures and perspectives. This chapter argues that (a) implementing multilingualism in Moroccan EFL classes has to be informed by a decolonial option that critically understands the linguistic dependency of the country, (b) multilingualism has to go beyond the mere integration of local languages by raising both teachers' and students' awareness of the potential hegemonic attitudes of English, and (c) EFL classes are sites of political activity where English might be implicitly understood as a better and more alluring alternative of local languages. This chapter (a) presents my attempts as an English language teacher to decolonize EFL classes through a decolonial approach, (b) argues for the necessity of embracing a form of multilingualism that is informed by decoloniality to present local languages and English on equal footing, and (c) offers practical applications of critical multilingualism that seeks to decolonize EFL classes.

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Introduction

Until recent years, the popular assumption of the language teaching scholarship has been that "new languages are best taught and learned monolingually, without the use of the students' own language(s)" (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 271). Languages have often been kept separate or avoided in classrooms in order to maximize exposure to and encourage thinking in the second language (L2) and minimize interferences of the first language (L1) (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). To undermine these understandings, critical Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) scholarship has made a valid case for actively supporting multilingualism in the TESOL classrooms, which is accompanied by a broad realization that multiple languages, cultures, and backgrounds can be part of classroom practice (Conteh & Meier, 2014; Raza et al., 2021).

Since the end of the colonial policy of the French protectorate, the Moroccan sociolinguistic situation has been marked by a power struggle between local and foreign languages (R'boul, 2022a). While the local languages, Arabic, Darija, and different varieties of Tamazight, are portrayed as languages of the local identity, culture, and traditions (Marley, 2004), French and English are seen as high-prestige languages (Jaafari, 2019) that symbolize modernity and status-bearing significance (Chakrani & Huang, 2014). Although English does not "have a colonial legacy in Morocco" (Buckner, 2011, p. 213) which explains the predominance of French in the country, the current demand for a lingua franca brought by modernity, globalization, and neoliberalism has propelled the presence of English in Morocco as a global language (Zouhir, 2013).

The rationale for this chapter is the assumption that the increasingly strong presence of English may come at the expense of local languages, cultures, and identities that have not received similar attention. Such a practice would further relegate the status of Arabic and Tamazight in Moroccans' imagination and label them as languages of locality, conservatism, and backwardness while French and increasingly English exude modernity and secularism. Therefore, the attempt to reflect multilingualism in Moroccan English as a foreign language (EFL) classes has to be underpinned by a critical understanding of the sociolinguistic, sociocultural, and postcolonial situation of the country which has been dominated by the French and increasingly English languages and perspectives.

The question here is whether implementing multilingualism in Moroccan EFL classes is only a matter of incorporating both local languages and English or it is a complicated task that requires careful attention to the interplay of power, language, and identity. This chapter argues that:

1. implementing multilingualism in Moroccan EFL classes has to be informed by a decolonial option that critically understands the linguistic dependency of the country and its postcolonial struggles;
2. multilingualism has to go beyond the simple integration of local languages and work toward raising both teachers' and students' awareness of the potential hegemonic attitudes of English in Morocco;

3. and EFL classes are sites of political activity where English is introduced as a better alternative of not only local languages but also French as the ex-colonial code.

This chapter recognizes the complex intersection of multilingualism, power imbalances, and postcoloniality. It also acknowledges the difficulty of making use of the nuanced theory and scholarship within TESOL classrooms as counterhegemonic pedagogic practices. This chapter (a) presents my own attempts as a teacher to decolonize EFL classes through a decolonial approach, (b) argues for the necessity of embracing a form of multilingualism that is informed by decoloniality in order to present local languages and English on equal footing, and (c) offers practical applications of critical multilingualism that seeks to decolonize EFL classes.

Multilingualism and Moroccan Sociolinguistic Situation

According to the Moroccan constitution (2011), the official languages of the state are standard Arabic and Tamazight. French is the nation's second language due to its prevalence in the sectors of higher education, business, and diplomacy since the end of the French protectorate in 1956. English and Spanish are used as foreign languages across various fields for different purposes (Ennaji, 2009). In recent years, English has been widely spreading in Morocco and, therefore, has gained more importance. The continuous efforts for economic prosperity and better representation worldwide have reflected the necessity of using English as a lingua franca and a global language in Morocco (Zouhir, 2013).

Several scholars and stakeholders have made a case for embracing English instead of French as the country's second language (Errihani, 2017; Kachoub, 2021) since it accommodates neoliberal conditions and globalizing attitudes (Soussi, 2021). A major factor and manifestation of this spread is the popularity of the American Language Center and the British Council schools in major Moroccan cities. Importantly, the positive attitude toward English has been attributed to the ideology of modernity of language attitudes (Chakrani, 2013), the hope for better socioeconomic status (Jaafari, 2019; Ouakrime, 2016), and the absence of any colonial connotation of English language in the country (Buckner, 2011; Zouhir, 2013).

Morocco is a multilingual country where different languages hold varying levels of importance. Yet, this state of multilingualism does not imply coexistence and equal status of all languages (Boudihaj & Sahli, 2021). French and increasingly English are granted more importance as evidenced by Moroccans' attitudes (R'boul, 2020a) and the state's language policies (Ben Haman, 2021). Language attitudes research in Morocco has revealed that French and English are perceived as high-prestige languages (Belhiah, 2020; Jaafari, 2019) that reflect modernity and status-bearing significance (Belhiah & Lamallam, 2020). On the other hand, Arabic, Darija, and different varieties of Tamazight are regarded to symbolize local culture, traditions, identity, and perspectives (Chakrani & Huang, 2014; R'boul, 2020a).

This state of multilingualism and the power struggles between languages in Morocco is highly relevant and important to EFL classes. The unequal status of local and foreign languages warrants serious consideration of multilingualism in EFL classes considering how English is strongly supported and propelled in the country. This chapter takes into account these understandings in its theoretical standing and the practical applications which will be extensively developed in the following sections. English has a great momentum due to its positive connotation in Morocco; that is why the EFL teaching practices discussed in the chapter actively consider the Moroccan sociolinguistic situation with regard to multilingualism and build on its postcolonial positionality and decolonial impulses.

Decoloniality in Multilingual TESOL

The previous section has outlined the power struggles that have long existed between local and foreign languages in Morocco. With the overwhelming spread of English in the country, it is even more threatening for local languages since French denotes the colonial legacy while English might be seen as a form of modern coloniality. Therefore, critical multilingualism seems a nuanced approach in balancing these power inequalities between languages and alleviating the possible hegemonic understandings of English. However, practicing multilingualism in TESOL/EFL in the Global South is not simple since the presence of English in these contexts is often linked to the issues of linguistic imperialism, coloniality, and the supremacy of Anglophone cultures and perspectives (R'boul, 2020b). Non-native teachers may unknowingly engage in self-marginalization in order to reflect western ways of knowing and languaging.

The postcolonial positionality and the linguistic dependency of Morocco warrant active support for decoloniality in critical multilingual TESOL. Decoloniality acknowledges the postcolonial malaise that Morocco and other southern contexts have been struggling with. Decoloniality recognizes the enduring colonial structures and tries to undermine the colonial mechanism by which power imbalances are maintained. In the context of TESOL/EFL classes, decoloniality can serve to problematize how languages are used as a colonial element that perpetuates inequalities within southern spaces or between southern and northern spaces. That is why given the sociolinguistic situation of Morocco and other southern spaces as well, it is important to include appropriate decolonial impulses in the process of implementing critical multilingualism in TESOL/EFL classes. This chapter argues for understanding criticality in "critical multilingual TESOL" as a framework that builds on the sociocultural and sociolinguistic situation of Southern spaces and includes power-conscious teaching practices that discourage hegemonic understandings of Anglophone perspectives and cultures over local languages, knowledges and ontologies.

The main question here is how teachers can deliver effective EFL teaching activities and ascertain, at the same time, a healthy degree of multilingualism in their

classes. I believe it is problematic and complex to ensure proper EFL teaching practices that integrate other languages without being criticized for potentially precipitating interference and wasting valuable time. Yet, it remains possible as long as teachers are power-literate and possess a deep perception of languages in their contexts and how their interaction is shaped and continues to shape the sociocultural milieu. Implementing critical multilingualism in TESOL classes in the Global South has to be underpinned by (a) a profound understanding of the sociocultural and sociolinguistic situation of the country, (b) decolonial impulses that do not motivate abandoning foreign languages but rather encourage simultaneously enabling students' access to English and a state of multilingualism where all local and foreign languages are appreciated, and (c) a framework that presents the perspectives and the cultures of all languages as being equal.

My Attempts in Decolonizing TESOL/EFL and Promoting Critical Multilingualism

I was a non-native English teacher for 8 years. I used to be working in a local languages school in Morocco where I have had the opportunity to teach a myriad of students with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. English was usually the students' second foreign language that they were exposed to and trying to learn. French is introduced early in private schools since first grade while in public schools it is first taught in the third grade. English is also introduced early in private schools since the third grade while students in public schools have to wait until the third year of middle school to start learning English for the first time. In fact, a great number of students were exposed to English for the first time in the language center where I used to teach. The groups were always homogenous with regard to students' level of English, but their ages were quite different at times. Therefore, although students had comparable skills in English, their cognitive and intellectual development was varied. This fact has sometimes complicated the very process of practicing the decolonial approach and critical multilingualism in the classes since some students would not be able to sufficiently fathom abstract and complex ideas.

This account of my own attempts to decolonize EFL classes through a decolonial approach and critical multilingualism focuses on two groups where students had a fairly good level of English (B1-B2) and their ages ranged from 16 to 26 years old. One group comprised 9 students whose ages were from 16 to 20 while the other group was formed of 8 students whose ages were from 19 to 26. The textbook used was *Speakout 2nd Edition* by Pearson. The use of US- or UK-produced textbooks was particularly required by the school administration justifying their decision by the importance of exposing students to "real" English in terms of languaging, culture, and accent; also, the administration had the belief that imported textbooks were of better quality and the parents were expecting their children to speak like native speakers.

My approach focused on meta-awareness since I had a conviction that critical multilingualism in TESOL/EFL classes basically relates to language attitudes and how students perceive different languages. Instead of prioritizing speaking various languages in classes, I was alert to the very assumption that multilingualism is about the perception of equality among languages rather than a linguistic practice. I mainly used discussions as a way of simultaneously teaching the language and practicing critical multilingualism. That is why my attempts sought first to draw students' attention to the postcolonial positionality of their country and its malaise with linguistic dependency. Then, I aimed at raising their awareness of the presence of English and how it can be understood through the lens of global coloniality and the superiority of Anglophone perspectives.

First, I prompted my students to reconsider the presence of English in Morocco by using a set of pre-constructed questions. These included "how do you see the status of English in Morocco?", "what are the reasons behind the global spread of English?", and "how did English get this enormous power in today's world?". While students would usually give typical answers, I would lead them to or explain to them the link between English and global coloniality. I often clarified that the global spread of English is a reflection of power imbalances among different countries which have been the case due to the overwhelming power of the USA and its influence on the world. After ascertaining that students have developed a fairly coherent understanding of the global spread of English, I would use questions that guide them to rethink how English might not be benign and might reshape our perceptions of other languages. The usual answers would focus on the comparison between French and English. More often than not, French was not perceived positively due to its colonial legacy and its use as a marker of social classes (the use of French was associated with high status) while English was seen as a better alternative since it is more accessible and does not have a colonial connotation in the country.

Next, I would prompt students to think more deeply about the status of local languages in the current shifts in the Moroccan sociolinguistic situation. Students agreed that Arabic and Tamazight are being relegated and that is mainly due to the use of French as the main linguistic pattern in higher education and business where fluency in French is a requirement to join and function in the job market. After that, students exhibited a serious concern about their identities, languages, and cultures. I asked students whether they have ever felt how language influences cultures, lifestyles, beliefs, clothing, etc. Students noted that French and English are seen as symbols of modernity and contemporary lifestyles while Arabic and Tamazight represent traditions and conservatism. Students started gradually to deliver a more critical stance toward foreign languages, especially English. Their traditional perceptions of the spread of English as being completely benevolent were questioned. Students claimed that in the current circumstances, learning foreign languages is a must. However, it should not be at the expense of our local languages and perspectives. Students started to explain that it was indeed possible to have access to English without compromising their own identity.

In other sessions, I would deliberately include perspectives and knowledge about language, culture, and ontology that originated in Moroccan culture or Arabic. I

had a firm belief that the main manifestation of the hegemonic understandings of English is the supremacy of its cultures and knowledge. I included various activities where students would use English to describe and discuss their own culture, ideas, and identity. For instance, I would teach interculturality in a way that does not essentialize themselves and others. I encouraged students to rethink their own perceptions of themselves and particularly native speakers. I was trying to prompt students to develop a strong belief in the equality of all cultures and that individuals cannot be understood through the defining characteristics of their national cultures. These teaching practices reflected the assumption that the supremacy of a certain culture is largely a reflection of the dominance of a particular linguistic pattern. Finally, I would write on the board the four languages: Arabic, Tamazight, French, and English, then ask students to establish relationships among these languages. My aim was to raise students' awareness of the multilingual state of their country and how it does not translate into the equal appreciation of these languages. This way, students would be able to better imagine the linguistic dependency of Morocco but seek to promote multilingualism and use English for their benefit without comprising their own languages, cultures, and perspectives.

Practical Applications of Critical Multilingualism in TESOL/EFL

The previous sections have provided insights into the rationale and the understandings underpinning critical multilingualism. The process of applying the principles of critical multilingualism is delicate and context-dependent. The following are suggested teaching practices inspired by critical multilingualism; these practices can be used in TESOL classrooms to decolonize and take into account the dynamics among languages in a particular context.

A. *Have students discuss multilingualism*

It is important to treat students as epistemic subjects who are able to discuss themes characterized by a relative degree of complexity. Teachers can engage with multilingualism and prompt students to discuss it according to their cognitive development and level of English. While the idea of multilingualism sounds fairly complex, it can be described and discussed in a way that supports students' learning as well as their reasoning. For example, teachers can use vignettes containing clear statements about different languages and then encourage students to give their opinions. Teachers can also have them read a text on multilingualism and how its relevance to their context.

B. *Have students discuss the significance of English to themselves and their community*

Teachers can sometimes ask students to consider the status of English in their context. The input that students will provide would be important to develop future practices

that take into account students' perceptions of English. For instance, teachers can elaborate on the history of English and its spread in their context. Then, students would be asked to share their opinions. This activity can be used as a further discussion of the previous activity. Teachers can amalgamate the understandings of the students from these two activities and discuss them collectively.

III. *Set a policy about language use in classroom*

While students need to focus on speaking English to complete assignments, teachers can develop policies that allow students to use their languages in certain cases and contexts. In particular, teachers can ask students to watch an English-speaking movie and write a report on it. Then, in the class, students would be asked to share their opinions on the movies and the English vocabulary they learned in their languages.

IV. *Have students see the value of learning English and maintaining their languages*

Teachers can draw a chart with two columns referring to the benefits of learning English and the benefits of maintaining their languages. Then, students would be asked to brainstorm and share their ideas with the whole class. Students can be encouraged to compare and contrast the benefits and the reasons for learning English and maintaining their languages. This activity is meant to show students that learning English does not have to be at the expense of their languages, cultures, and perspectives.

E. *Teach English by using students' knowledge, cultures, and perspectives*

Language is reflective of the culture and a nation's perspectives and knowledge. Dialogues that feature native-like names and topics are popular in textbooks (Shin et al., 2011). Teachers can make use of local culture and elements to teach English. For instance, teachers can utilize local stories with some parts in students' languages and the other parts in English. This way, students would be able to follow the story, learn English, and appreciate the presence of their languages in their classroom.

F. *Have students work in small groups*

Teachers can instruct students in small groups to perform certain tasks. Then, the teacher would ask each group to assign a reporter who would share their work in their languages other than English. This practice can be used the other way around. Teachers can have the students discuss the assignment in their own languages but report their work in English. This type of activity can help students realize the ability to speak their languages and learn English simultaneously.

G. *The importance of translanguaging in the classroom*

Research has shown that multilingual students have a linguistic repertoire that comprises the features of the various languages they speak (Gunnarsson, 2019). Teachers can build on these findings and orient their practices by an understanding that recognizes the links between languages. Also, teachers can sometimes use students' L1 to teach English; yet, this practice should be used with discretion and in a way that supports learning.

Conclusion

This chapter has made a case for critical multilingualism as a framework for decolonizing TESOL/EFL classes in the Global South by drawing on (a) the sociocultural and sociolinguistic situation of the context where classes are taking place and (b) decolonial impulses as a way of meaningfully considering the postcolonial positionality of the context and how English plays a role in its dynamics and social practices. This chapter describes a particular case of critical multilingualism in Morocco as a southern context whose linguistic dependency and postcolonial malaise are reflective of the issues that the Global South has been struggling with and where language is of major significance. It also provides a set of practical applications of critical multilingualism and decolonial approach that can be used in TESOL/EFL classes in the Global South. However, it should be noted that these applications are not standardized practices and teachers remain responsible for designing teaching practices and activities that are informed by critical multilingualism and actively take into account the sociocultural and sociolinguistic situation of their contexts. Critical multilingualism should account for the specificities and the conditions of each particular context.

The claim for the importance of multilingualism in TESOL is well-founded. Yet, the very process of practicing multilingualism has to be nuanced and characterized by a profound perception of the power imbalances among languages. Speaking various languages in classes does not imply equality among these languages and/or how students come to form attitudes toward them. Colonial structures continue to shape relations between the Global North and South which maintains the power asymmetries among these contexts in terms of knowledge, languages, and cultures (R'boul, 2022b). Critical multilingualism in TESOL classes is about realizing a pedagogical frame of reference that anchors its understanding of languages in power relations among the Global North and South. Critical multilingualism does not solely focus on using various languages in TESOL classrooms; it seeks to underpin the practice of using different languages in classrooms by a critical engagement with power inequalities among these languages and the status of English and its cultures in a given context.

TESOL classrooms can potentially be of great help in dismantling the inequalities among languages, and, most importantly, how learners come to perceive English with regard to their local tongues and cultures. I understand that the principal role of TESOL classrooms is to enable students to use English effectively, but it is also essential to form an understanding of English where it is seen as a useful tool in undermining injustices and hierarchies among people. Critical multilingualism can enable students to develop their awareness of how languages interact and ultimately shape societies. English provides an enormous voice to speak back against inequalities; speaking English does not have to be at the expense of local languages, cultures, and perspectives. The aim is to have teachers and students who are power-literate and actively seek to use English for their benefit. Critical multilingualism can contribute to the development of socially just classrooms where students are not implicitly

prompted to develop a firm belief in the superiority of Anglophone cultures and perspectives.

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Chapter 8
Using Translingual Mediated Revisions to Develop Micro-linguistic Abilities in Writing Argumentative Essays: A Study of Indian ESL Learners

Vikas Audumbar Kadam and Lina Mukhopadhyay

Abstract Contingent and graduated teacher mediation is crucial for developing academic writing knowledge in English as a second language (ESL) classrooms, especially for adult learners who lack grade-appropriate ESL proficiency. Previous research on ESL writing shows that collaborative teacher–learner interactions during writing and revision processes help learners internalize macro- and micro-features of writing. Such collaborations, when integrated into a framework of interactionist dynamic assessment, allow the teacher to activate and mediate learners' higher-order linguistic–cognitive skills and scaffold their writing knowledge. In Indian ESL classrooms, where learners come with multilingual resources, maintaining the contingency and graduation of teacher mediation can be effectively done through the use of translingual strategies as it can help learners access their first language (L1) knowledge to attempt ESL writing tasks. This chapter aims to study the relevance of translingual moves of multilingual teachers and learners used during *mediated revisions* (MR) as part of a collaborative dynamic assessment of argumentative writing. We examine the types and purposes of translanguaging moves, their frequency of occurrences during the MR sessions, and their potential relation to the development of micro-linguistic abilities to write argumentative essays and overall writing knowledge.

Introduction

In a multilingual country like India, people knowing and using multiple languages is a reality. English as a second language (ESL) classrooms are also no exception to this multilingual reality (Lightfoot et al., 2021). Therefore, it is very common for

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learners and teachers to know and use more than one language during classroom interactions because these languages coexist in their mental repertoire as well as feature in their day-to-day communication (Cummins, 2007, 2017). In bilingual education, the phenomenon of alternating between two or more languages naturally and in a conscious and planned manner for classroom communication is termed "*translanguaging*" (García et al., 2012). Translanguaging is distinguished from the notion of code-switching on the premise that it involves "the use of original and complex discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or another code" (García et al., 2012, p. 52). In pedagogical settings, especially in ESL classrooms with multilingual learners, English-only instruction proves ineffective due to learners' lack of threshold level proficiency in the target language and/or its absence in the home environment (Tsimpli et al., 2020). In such a scenario, translanguaging can prove to be an effective means of classroom communication. The process can become a key mediation tool in teaching and, more importantly, in assessing second language (L2) production (Lopez et al., 2017).

In the instructional context, the comprehensibility and uptake of input as well as internalization of teacher mediation become necessary conditions for L2 learning (Ellis et al., 2008). Viewed in this manner, teacher-support for language learning becomes a part of knowledge co-creation process according to the sociocultural theory (SCT), originally proposed by Vygotsky (1978). By applying this framework to L2, an individual's full learning potential can be realized by utilizing his/her zone of proximal development (ZPD). This has been well-theorized in the work of Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) and subsequently by Poehner and Lantolf (2005), who show that teachers play a significant role in *mediating* linguistic development in a *gradual* and *contingent* manner. The aspect of graduation relates to the principle of sequencing the mediation offered to the learner from the most implicit to the most explicit. The contingency of teacher's mediation refers to the quality and quantity of the mediation offered, which are decided based on the learner's response.

The process of providing such contingent and graduated mediation is known as Dynamic Assessment (DA), a term conceptualized by Vygotsky's most influential colleague Alexander Luria in 1961. Rooted in Vygotsky's construct of ZPD, DA is a dialogic process that combines instruction and assessment into one unified activity, enabling the teacher, mediator, or caregiver to promote learner's L2 abilities while assessing them dynamically or progressively within a course (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004; Poehner & Lantolf, 2005). Thus, DA has the potential to create the condition—"assessment *for* learning," whereby the event of the assessment itself serves as an event for learning (Assessment Reform Group, 2002). Lantolf and Poehner (2004) further classified DA into two types: *interventionist* and *interactionist*. The former operates on only scripted mediation prompts while the latter is purely dialogic without any strict adherence to any scripted mediation.

During *interactionist* DA, teacher mediation needs to be contingent and graduated (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Davin, 2013). When it is offered to the learner during a collaborative dialogue while jointly working on a learning problem that is slightly above the current developmental level of the learner, the mediation helps to reach learner's ZPD (Poehner, 2005). *Contingency* and *graduation* of teachers' ongoing

mediation become necessary conditions for successful internalization and appropriation of the mediation (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Davin, 2013). To maintain these two conditions, teachers have to engage in a variety of techniques and employ the best possible mediation for specific learner groups. One such technique is the use of the learner's first language (L1) during collaborative interactions (Poehner, 2005; Poehner & Lantolf, 2005). In multilingual contexts, such L1-mediated-L2 interactions can be considered examples of translanguaging because the actual transitions and culminations between and of the languages go beyond the process of code-switching to employ the rich multilingual repertoire of learners such that they can move through their ZPD effectively. Many aspects of learners' home language(s) and the medium of instruction get enmeshed into one another to the extent that one may not always distinguish clearly between features of one language from the other (García et al., 2012); getting across the meaning (here mediation as feedback) is prioritized.

Previous research on DA of a second or foreign language has provided instances of L1 use as a scaffold to develop learners' micro-linguistic abilities (Antón, 2009; Poehner, 2005). This chapter explores such usage in greater detail, examining the relations between language choice, move function, and whether the developmental process is being regulated by the teacher or the learner. We then examine the broader question of the impact translingual interactions have on the development of micro-linguistic abilities in academic writing.

We aim to explore the usefulness of translingual DA feedback to scaffold adult ESL learners' argumentative writing ability since this forms an important aspect of their academic progress. Writing ESL academic texts is a complex linguistic–cognitive process (Hyland, 1990; Swales & Feak, 2004). It involves developing knowledge of macro- (content and organization) and micro-(lexis and syntactic) features in composing long texts that are usually assessed and/or measured using the complexity–accuracy–fluency (CAF) features (Norris & Ortega, 2009). Previous DA research on L2 and foreign language writing abilities shows that collaborative teacher–learner feedback enables the latter to internalize this complex skill to show growth in (a) macro-aspects of writing such as content, organization (Alavi & Taghizadeh, 2014; Samuel, 2013), text structure, ideational, and textual meaning (Shrestha & Coffin, 2012) and (b) micro-aspects such as grammatical and lexical appropriateness, grammatical correctness, spellings, and punctuation (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Antón, 2009; Poehner, 2005). A second aim of the study, therefore, is to examine whether teacher feedback through translingual interactions plays a catalytic role in developing learners' micro-linguistic abilities, more specifically morpho-syntactic abilities, to develop accuracy and complexity in writing argumentative texts.

The Study

The present study explores the role of translingual interactions during teacher–learner collaborative revisions to provide feedback on argumentation following the interactionist DA model. The data used for the present chapter are part of a doctoral research project on the impact of DA on six ESL learners' knowledge of argumentation skills (Kadam, 2019). This study reports individualized collaborative and mediated revisions (MR) provided to two learners—Dhiru and Yogi (names masked for ethical reasons)—for improving their awareness of writing skills at the micro-level, especially morpho-syntactic features of ESL. The goal of the revision sessions was to help the learners develop the accuracy and syntactic complexity of their argumentative texts. In the MR sessions, a significant number of the interactions happened through the translingual mode, using Marathi and English, to ensure comprehensibility and uptake of teacher mediation (Ellis et al., 2008; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and to help learners reach their L2 ZPD of morpho-syntactic knowledge. The study explores (i) the types and purposes of translingual moves and language choices of the teacher and learners during MR Sessions and (ii) ways in which this feedback may have facilitated learner knowledge of micro-linguistic features required to write argumentative essays.

Participants

At the time of the study, the two focal participants were enrolled in a Functional English course in an undergraduate program in a rural town in Maharashtra. They had Marathi as their L1 and had previously studied in Marathi medium schools. Post that, they joined the undergraduate program where the medium of instruction was officially English but teachers would resort to L1 to aid in comprehension and learning. The English language proficiency of these learners was at the B1 level as was found through personal communication with their teachers and their written performance in college. Apart from their classroom exposure, these learners were also observed to use English mixed with Marathi expressions in their everyday communication with their classmates and teachers.

Task and Tool

A set of essay writing prompts were used, modeled after the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) Academic Task-2 (Hopkins & Cullen, 2007); the topics were chosen to suit the learners' proficiency level, cultural familiarity, and background knowledge (Hinkel, 2004; Myles, 2002). The learners developed and revised argumentative essay drafts, first individually (UMR) and later in collaboration

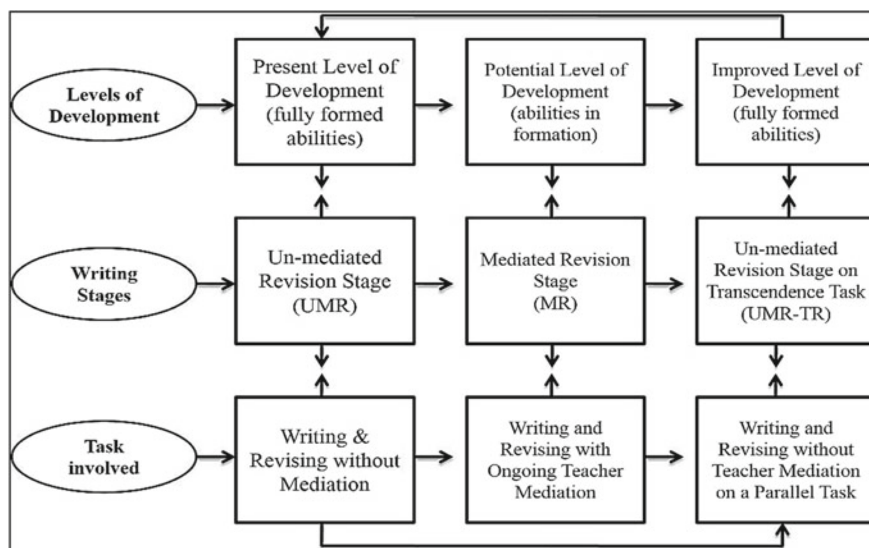

Fig. 8.1 Three stages of writing and revisions (UMR to MR to UMR-TS)

with the teacher–researcher during the MR sessions where learners received feedback on micro-linguistic abilities to improve upon their writing as shown in Fig. 8.1. Following the MR session with the researcher, the students wrote and revised a second essay on a parallel task (UMR-TR). The second essay served as a point of comparison for understanding learners' *transcendence* and development with respect to the morpho-syntactic features in L2.

Method of Data Analysis

The translingual MR interactions of Dhiru and Yogi were analyzed for the language used in the individual moves of both the teacher–researcher and the learners as shown in Fig. 8.2. This allowed for the categorization of the degree of L1 support provided by both speakers as an aid for comprehension. Discussion in *Marathi-only* is maximum L1 support (level 3) and discussion in *English-only* is minimum L1 support (level 0), whereas there are two moves with regard to the use of key content words (level 2) and metalinguistic terms (level 1) that show translingual choices. Figure 8.2 also provides examples of the purposes for which both teachers and learners resorted to specific language choices. Teachers tended to use Marathi-only when elaborating on errors, whereas the learners used it to seek clarifications.

The teacher mediation and learner responses were also analyzed on a regulatory scale in line with Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) regulatory scale. The actual teacher mediation and learner response moves emerged from the coding and categorization

	Teacher Mediation (TM)		Learner Response (LR)	
3.	Mediation through Marathi-only (e.g., elaboration on errors, revision instructions, reassurance of responses)	3.	Learner response in Marathi-only (e.g., seeking clarification, expressing inability to find the error)	**Maximum L1 Support**
2.	Key content words in English	2.	Key content words in English	**Translingual Support**
1.	Metalinguistic terms in English	1.	Metalinguistic terms in English	
0.	Mediation through English-only (e.g., initiation of feedback, confirmation, and clarification checks)	0.	Learner response in English-only (e.g., giving the partial answer, giving a complete correct answer)	**Minimum L1 Support**

Fig. 8.2 Types and purposes of translanguaging during MR sessions

of MR sessions between the teacher and the individual learners. The taxonomies of the teacher mediation and learner response moves were broadly divided into three degrees of regulation: *other*, *moderate*, and *self-regulation.* Figure 8.3 provides examples of the move purposes associated with each type of regulation.

The teacher mediation moves are organized from being the most implicit to the most explicit while the learner response moves are organized from the least control (other-regulation) to the most control (self-regulation or independent) over their learning as exhibited during MR sessions. Both the teacher mediation and learner response moves suggest a transition in learners' control over the correct use of micro-linguistic features from other-regulated to self-regulated. This suggests a growth along their ZPD of morpho-syntactic knowledge to develop argumentation skills.

The complexity of the written texts was analyzed through T-units (Hunt, 1965) while accuracy was measured based on the following seven morpho-syntactic features:

(i) missing finite main verb (MV),
(ii) incorrect use or missing helping verb (HV),
(iii) incorrect or missing subject–verb–agreement (SVA),
(iv) incorrect use of verb form or verb phrase structure (VF),
(v) incorrect use of prepositions (Prep),
(vi) incorrect or missing use of articles (Art), and
(vii) inappropriate use of verbs (App-V).

These syntactic features were chosen for error analysis as they were the most frequently occurring ones in the first and second drafts, and therefore required attention and instructional intervention through dynamic and collaborative feedback with the hope that these features would develop gradually (Dulay et al., 1982; Semren, 2017) and improve learners' writing quality.

Teacher Mediation Moves	Learner Response Moves
Other Regulation	
1. Explaining the rules after correction (TM-1) 2. Providing complete answers (TM-2) 3. Providing partial answers (TM-3) 4. Making incidental corrections (TM-4)	1. Accepting the correction made by the teacher (LR-1) 2. Expressing the inability to find the error (LR-2) 3. Appropriating mediation/meaning (LR-3)
Moderate Regulation	
5. Providing a grammatical or semantic clue (TM-5) 6. Requesting to construct or complete a sentence (TM-6) 7. Explaining the nature of the error (TM-7) 8. Locating the part of the sentence with an error (TM-8)	4. Explaining the intended message (LR-4) 5. Seeking confirmation and clarification (LR-5) 6. Producing incorrect structure (LR-6)
Self-Regulation	
9. Appropriating the intended message (TM-9) 10. Seeking confirmation for the grammatical structure being revised (TM-10) 11. Asking to clarify the intended message (TM-11) 12. Asking to find the error (TM-12) 13. Psychological comforting and reassuring correct answers (TM-13) 14. Accepting the answer (TM-14) 15. Asking to explain the rules for the correct response (TM-15)	7. Explaining the error or revision under process (LR-7) 8. Reassuring correct answer or existence of error (LR-8) 9. Providing or completing partial answers (LR-9) 10. Producing correct structure (LR-10) 11. Explaining the correct answer or nature of the error (LR-11)

Fig. 8.3 Teacher mediation and learner response moves across the regulatory scale

Results

The instances of translingual mediation during teacher–learner interactions and the impact of such language choices and regulated feedback on the use of micro-linguistic features in learner writing are presented in this section. Alongside this, the pedagogical implications for ESL writing teachers are also drawn out.

Translingual Moves of Mediated Revisions: Types and Purposes

The translingual mediation episodes were initially analyzed to understand the types and purposes of language use. Figure 8.4 provides examples of the patterns applied to a mediation revision interaction between the teacher and Dhiru discussing his first essay. The excerpt is a feedback snapshot on the correct use of the auxiliary verb "do" instead of "am" for the verb phrase "*I do not support…*" and how the learner gradually reaches an understanding to use the correct auxiliary verb during mediation. In the excerpt, the original transcript is on the left-hand side and alterations of languages are indicated according to the four codes along with the user of a particular move. For instance, the first utterance is an example of teacher mediation (TM) of initiating revision in *English-only* mode and is represented as TM-0.

Overall in excerpt 1, we can see that both the teacher (T) and the learner (Dhiru-D) use Marathi and English to carry out the mediated revision of one sentence from the second draft (UMR) of Dhiru's argumentative essay. The teacher uses *Marathi-only* to provide implicit and strategic help (TM-3 in utterances *3-Now what can you do here?* and *13-Then how will you write?*) where he is expecting the learner to take control of the revision process. He gradually starts using two translingual moves for using *Metalinguistic terms* and *Key content words in L1 utterances* to provide explicit mediation and for specific clues and explanations. For example, TM-1, which is translanguaging for metalinguistic awareness, is found in utterances 5, 9, 11, and 15. At this time, Dhiru is found to be mostly silent, as in utterances 4 and 12, or reads the sentence in English-only (LR-0), as in utterances 2, 6, and 10. He uses

Transcript (Marathi/English)	Translation (English)
1. T: Ok next. ... I am not support... **(TM-0)**	1. T: Ok next. ... I am not support...
2. D: I am not support to the…Maharashtra government decision. **(LR-0)**	2. D: I am not support to the...Maharashtra government decision.
3. T: Aata itha kay karu shakto? **(TM-3)**	3. T: *Now what can you do here?*
4. D: --- --- --- (remains silent) **(LR-NVR)**	4. D: --- --- --- (silent)
5. T: Tula sapadtiy ka kay mistake aahe ti? **(TM-2)**	5. T: *Can you find what the mistake is?*
6. D: (He keeps reading the sentence for a while. Does not respond.) **(LR-0)**	6. D: (He reads the sentence for a while. Does not respond.)
7. T: Jar mi tula mhatla…**(TM-3)**	7. T: *If I tell like this…*
8. D: Essay kasa past madhe lihaychay ka? **(LR-1)**	8. D: *Should I write essay in the past tense?*
9. T: Nai past madhe nai, present madhe lihaychay na. It's your opinion. **(TM-1)**	9. T: *No not in past, you should write in present tense. It's your opinion.*
10. D: Hmmm. Okay! **(LR-0)**	10. D: Hmmm. Okay!
11. T: jar mi tula asa mhanla ki tula itha 'do' vaparaychay? **(TM-2)**	11. T: *What if I tell you that you need to use 'do' here?*
12. D: Hmmmmm.. (He thinks for a while but no verbal response.) **(LR-NVR)**	12. D: Hmmmmm.. (He thinks for a while but no verbal response.)
13. T: tar kasa lihinar tu? **(TM-3)**	13. T: *Then how will you write?*
14. D: Hmmmm. I am not doing…I am not do...**(LR-0)**	14. D: Hmmmm. I am not doing… I am not do…
15. T: am kadhunach takaycha.. **(TM-1)**	15. T: *You need to remove 'am' entirely.*
16. D: I do not **(LR-0)**	16. D: I do not
17. T: Haan…**(TM-3)**	17. T: *Yes…*
Original Sentence: I am not support The maharashtra government decision. **Revised Sentence:** I do not support the decision of Maharashtra government.	

Fig. 8.4 Excerpt 1_Dhiru_Task-1_Sentence-2. *Note* D—Dhiru (Pseudo name); T—teacher; TM—teacher mediation; LR—learner response; NVR—nonverbal response

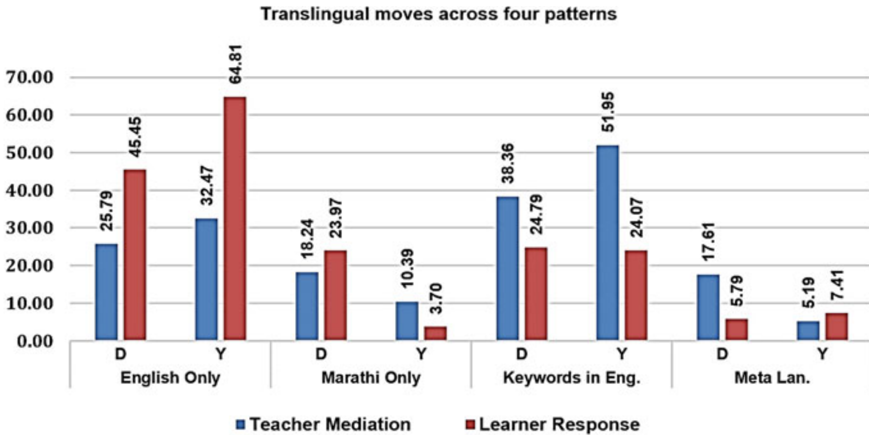

Fig. 8.5 Percentage of the degree of translingual moves across four levels

only one translingual response (LR-1, utterance 8: *Should I write the essay in the past tense?*) where he uses *metalinguistic terms in English* and *key content words in English.* Although the teacher mediation is more translingual than the learner's response to the mediation, by utterance 16 we observe that the mediation has made sense to Dhiru as he blurts out "I do not support" instead of "I am not support" and the teacher assures the revision made by accepting the correct response, TM-3: Utterance 17 "Yes."

In Fig. 8.5, we present a comprehensive picture of language choices to understand the amount of translanguaging during MR sessions between the teacher and the two learners with respect to the four types and purposes (see Fig. 8.3) of providing DA feedback.

It is interesting to note that the learners have higher percentages of English-only moves than teachers. Excerpt 1 in Fig. 8.4 suggests that the learners were focused on the language in their essays and, therefore, using more of L2, while the teacher was giving feedback more through Marathi and translingual episodes and consequently used less of L2. In the case of the teacher–researcher, the meaning-making process was scaffolded through translanguaging moves, while in the case of learners, the use of more L2 was desirable as they were developing their writing skills, especially accuracy. The fact that the learners made more English-only moves than the teacher–researcher suggests that the use of translanguaging as a contingent move does not impede the learners' choice to use and practice the L2. Such a trend has also been found in a recent study in Indian ESL classrooms where the amount of translingual moves for pedagogical reasons is more in teachers than learners (Lightfoot et al., 2021).

Movement from Other to Self-regulation During Translingual MR Episodes

Now let us look at excerpt 2 (Fig. 8.6) to understand how the mediation moves travel across the three levels of gradation of ESL writing feedback. In this excerpt, the teacher is helping Dhiru to revise a sentence from his argumentative essay for grammatical accuracy. The teacher uses a combination of translingual strategies in a contingent manner. The main purpose of this revision excerpt is to help the learner attend to the incorrect use of the definite article "the" before a proper noun (*the Maharashtra*) in a graded manner as the learner moves from other to self-regulation. The codes applied to individual moves on the left side of Fig. 8.6 correspond to the types of *other-regulation* (TM 1–4, LR 1–3), *moderate regulation* (TM 5–8; LR 4–6), and *self-regulation* (TM 9–15; LR 7–11) identified in Fig. 8.3.

Before beginning the revision, the teacher comforts (TM-13) Dhiru in utterances 1–3 using the translingual strategy of *using key content words in English.* Here the focus of the teacher's mediation is to primarily comfort the learner affectively and to encourage him for active participation in the revision task. He gives general instruction to read the sentence in *English-only* move (TM-12 in utterance 4), but switches to *using key content words in English* for inviting the learner to attempt the revision without any specific help to initiate the revision process in Utterance 6: *Now how can you revise this sentence*? (TM-12). He further clarifies his mediation move using the strategies of *using key content words in English* and *metalinguistic*

Excerpt-2: Dhiru_Task-1 _Sentnece-1_Part-2

Transcript (Marathi/English)	Translation (English)
1. T: Ata sentence wise jau apan…. Okay?	1. T: *Now we will go sentence wise… okay?*
2. D: Okay sir!	2. D: Okay sir!
3. T: asa samju nako ki mi khup chukka kadhtoy vagere. **(TM-13)**	3. T: *Do not think that I am pointing out too many mistakes.*
4. T: Can you read the first sentence? **(TM-12)**	4. Can you read the first sentence?
5. D: In the Maharashtra no school exams until class 8. **(LR-3)**	5. D: In the Maharashtra no school exams until class 8.
6. T: Ata tu he sentence kuthlya prakare revise karu shakto tu? **(TM-12)**	6. T: *Now, how can you revise this sentence?*
7. D: Ummmm Mhanje? **(LR-5)**	7. D: *Ummmm. What do mean by that?*
8. T: Mhanje rewrite karu shaktoyka to kutalya prakare? **(TM-12)**	8. T: *I mean can you rewrite this in any way?*
9. D: Mhanje kuthlya prakare….**(LR-5)**	9. D: *You mean, in what way?*
10. T: Mhanje mistake distey ka tula kahi? **(TM-12)**	10. T: *I mean do you see any mistake in the sentence?*
11. D: (He reads the sentence) ummm nahi sir…..(then again continues mumbling.) Rewrite karu shako….. kuthaly paddhatine…..ummmm. **(LR-2)**	*11.* D: (He reads the sentence) *Ummmm. No sir.* (Then again continues mumbling.) *can rewrite in any way…ummmm.*
12. T: Nahi?...Okay! In the Maharashtra no school exams until class 8.	12. T: *No?* Okay! In the Maharashtra no school exams until class 8.
13. D: 'The' kashala sir .. the nahi pahije. In Maharashtra fact. **(LR-7)**	13. D: *Why do we need 'the' sir? 'The' is not* required. Just 'in Maharashtra'!
14. T: 'the' kadun takaycha. Okay! **(TM-10)**	14. T: '*We have to remove 'the'. Okay!*
15. D: (he waits for a moment) ummm	15. D: (he waits for a moment) ummm.
16. T: Do it! (after a little long pause) **(TM-13)**	16. T: Do it! (after a little long pause)
17. D: 'the' kadhun takaycha... ha.ha...**(LR-10)**	17. D: *'the' should be removed…. yes... yes.*

Original Sentence: In The maharashtra No School exams until class 8.
Revised Sentence: In Maharashtra there were no school exams until class 8.

Fig. 8.6 Excerpt 2_Dhiru_Task-1_Sentence-1_Part-2

terms in English in utterances 8 and 10, but still, the mediation strategy remained the same (TM-12). At this time, Dhiru seeks clarifications initially to comprehend the implicit instruction through a *Marathi-only* move in utterance 7: *What do you mean by that?* followed by utterance 9: *You mean in that way?* (LR-5). He also *expresses his inability to find the error* in utterance 11 (LR-2) and then *finds the error* in utterance 13 (LR-7) with the incorrect use of English article 'the' through a *Marathi-only* move. Finally, the teacher provides an explicit mediation in utterance 16 when he is sure that the learner has noticed the problem and has come up with the solution on his own in utterance 13: *why do we need "the" sir?* (LR-7). This excerpt demonstrates that if implicit regulatory moves are presented translingually, they can enhance learner comprehension of feedback to help him/her reach a stage of self-correction through self-regulation.

Figure 8.7 summarizes the frequency of the teacher mediation and Dhiru's and Yogi's total response moves across the four patterns of translanguaging to move through the three stages of regulatory feedback.

Figure 8.7 helps us understand teacher–learner language choices and the role they play in maximizing the scaffolding impact.

On the one hand, we notice that while self-regulation moves are greater in learners in comparison to teachers, which is a normal and desirable trend, the amount of translanguaging in learners is less (20%) while English-only mode is more (34%) during these self-regulation episodes of the learners. This is indicative of two types of changes in their behavior: first noticing errors in a set of interactionist DA moves and, second, revising the use of morpho-syntactic features to rectify such errors. This suggests that translingual moves can be employed to give dynamic feedback and help learners notice problems in morpho-syntactic usage along their ZPD in L2. For instance, verb usage (Excerpt 1) and null use of the definite article (Excerpt 2) are fine-grained or micro-features of writing that usually take longer to develop in L2 (Dulay & Burt, 1974). However, the growth experienced on such features can be postulated to be impacted by the focused translingual mediation moves. Hence, the learning highlighted in Figs. 8.4 and 8.6 suggests that translingual moves can help learners move from "other" to "self" regulation in developing knowledge of micro-linguistic features.

Impact of Translingual Mediation on Writing Accuracy and Complexity

As noted above, Dhiru and Yogi were participants in Kadam's (2019) dissertation study examining the use of dynamic assessment to promote the argumentative writing development of six students. Table 8.1 summarizes changes for the six learners in the complexity and accuracy between the UMR version of the first essay used as the basis for discussion during the MR sessions and a second UMR (UMR-TR) essay written after the MR sessions.

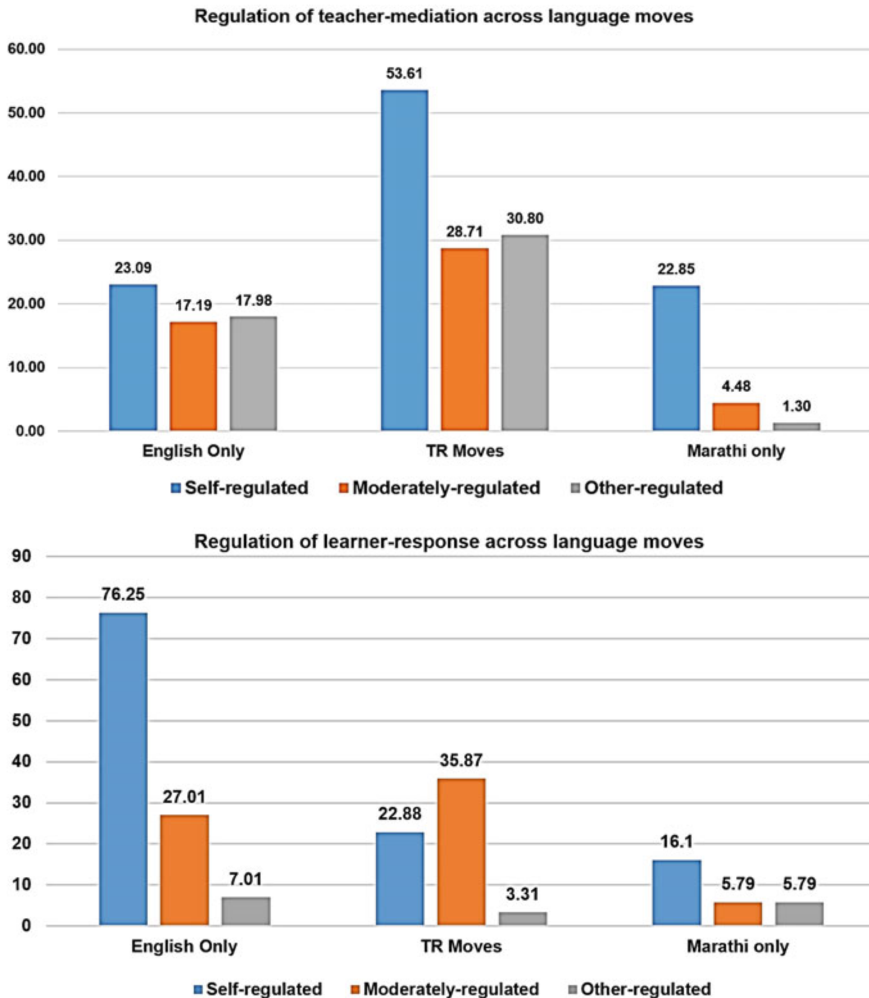

Fig. 8.7 Percentage of teacher mediation and learner response along the regulatory scale

There was a positive change in the average text length and number of t-units in terms of complexity, and there was homogeneous growth in terms of accuracy as the average errors per T-unit decreased by more than 50% on the UMR-TR drafts. Overall, the results suggest that the translingual interactions during the MR sessions were beneficial for the learners.

As illustrated in Fig. 8.8, Dhiru seemed to have gained a fair amount of control over micro-linguistic features and entered the self-regulation zone. Initially, he was at *Level 3* of Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) *transitional levels* of development of grammatical knowledge as he was able to both *notice* and *correct* most of his errors, but only under *other-regulation*. Through the MR session with the teacher–researcher,

Table 8.1 Mean and standard deviation for complexity and accuracy across six participants as from Kadam (2019)

Measures of accuracy and complexity	**UMR Mean (S.D.)**	**UMR-TR Mean (S.D.)**
Text Length	222.67 (75.60)	339.00 (129.17)
Number of T-units	17.67 (7.06)	26.67 (9.77)
Mean Length of T-unit	12.90 (1.29)	12.62 (1.46)
Errors per T-unit	1.30 (0.59)	0.78 (0.49)

Measures of accuracy and complexity	**Dhiru**		**Yogi**		**Aju**		**Niki**		**Rashmi**		**Sonam**	
	UMR	**UMR-TR**	**UMR**	**UMR-TR**	**UMR**	**UMR-TR**	**UMR**	**UMR-TR**	**UMR**	**UMR-TR**	**UMR**	**UMR-TR**
Text length	198	156	127	419	146	472	287	217	288	327	290	443
Number of T-units	15	14	10	32	10	32	27	18	22	24	22	40
Mean Length of T-unit	13.20	11.14	12.70	13.09	14.60	14.75	10.63	12.06	13.09	13.63	13.18	11.08
Errors per T-unit	1.47	0.29	1.2	1.03	2.00	1.47	0.26	0.28	1.64	0.92	1.23	0.40

Structure	UMR →	MR →	UMR-TR
Subject-verb-agreement (SVA: third-person singular, present tense)	Exams shows the quality in education. (4)	Exam shows the quality in education. (0)	Thirdly television grows the confidence of peoples. (1)
Use of finite (main verb: Be) in the sentence (MV)	In The maharashtra No school exams until class 8. Exams grow the confidence of students. (2)	In Maharashtra there were no school exams until class 8. (0)	Therefore televisions are very very important for every being human. (0)

Fig. 8.8 Examples of improvement in Dhiru's writing across stages

he was able to move to *Level 4* where he corrected most of his errors with *minimal* or *no obvious feedback* from the teacher. In Fig. 8.8, Dhiru's improvement is illustrated with error categories such as accurate use of SVA, insertion of MV, and "there clause" in MR and UMR-TR phases.

Yogi's growth, on the other hand, may not appear as prominent as Dhiru's as there was an apparent increase in his overall error count at the UMR-TR stage. However, when we closely studied his performance, he seemed to have used language to better communicate his ideas in a more elaborate and complex manner while writing his UMR-TR draft. He tried to produce more content as reflected in an increase in text length, T-units, MTUL, verb phrases, and finite verbs in the UMR-TR condition in comparison with the first UMR condition. There was also variety in his writing in the UMR-TR draft at the level of vocabulary, grammar, and content. While being a risk-taker, Yogi was also able to maintain his overall accuracy as there was some decrease in his ratio of errors/t-unit across the writing stages on HV, Prep, Art, and App-V. Overall there was a growth in Yogi's performance in the categories concerning the verb phrases, which incidentally was the major focus of the teacher's feedback during his MR session. So Yogi was somewhere between *Level 3* and *Level 4* and did not entirely move to *Level 4 on* Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) *transitional levels* of development of grammatical knowledge.

Implications for ESL Writing Teachers for Exploring Translanguaging Feedback

The above findings suggest pedagogical implications for ESL writing teachers. Teachers providing *contingent* and *graduated* mediation to ESL learners through collaborative dialogue around revisions need to regulate not only the level of *explicitness* of their mediation moves (other to self-regulation) but also their language choices to exploit the usefulness of translanguaging episodes. The complex condition of regulation is, probably, the main reason for ESL teachers to use translingual moves. Thus, while working with low proficiency learners, if teachers regulate their mediation only at the level of complexity and explicitness, they may compromise on

the *contingency* of their mediation, which is one of the primary conditions of interactionist DA. This is because the lack of or poor response of the learner to the teacher mediation may be due to comprehension problems owing to language barriers or lack of threshold level proficiency in ESL. Hence, the regulated use of translingual strategies can be very beneficial during the interactionist DA of low proficiency ESL learners in multilingual contexts.

Teachers can plan the types and purposes of language choices while providing feedback as shown in Fig. 8.2. They can identify the functions that can use more of L1 support like elaborating or critically explaining constructs or providing affective support to learners to make them feel comfortable with the process of feedback. They could use translingual inputs for the purposes of lexical choices (e.g., use key content words or elaborate on metalinguistic terms) and comparison of morpho-syntactic features from L1 to L2. They can also use L2 inputs for clarification and confirmation checks and to direct learners' attention to initiate noticing the target structures and errors thereof.

The feedback that Dhiru and Yogi received based on the translingual regulatory scale demonstrates that they experienced growth in the *micro-linguistic knowledge* required to write argumentative essays. What can ESL writing teachers draw from this illustration? Firstly, they need to note that learners experience growth according to their ZPD of knowledge of writing (here of syntactic features) and this would lead to content improvement (see Fig. 8.8, UMR-TR examples). Thus, ESL writing teachers can adapt regulatory feedback according to their learners' needs and proficiency levels and can give them nuanced and constructive feedback on micro- and macro-features of writing. Secondly, to make the feedback moves contingent and useful, they can plan and make a list of the features to give feedback. In writing, ESL learners may require feedback at both micro and macro levels; however, this may not be possible in one round of feedback. For this, teachers need to list the features (e.g., the seven syntactic categories listed in Sect. "Task and Tool") with which they can provide feedback. Finally, the significance of the multidimensional feedback would be borne out during the translingual collaborative dialogues between teachers and their learners. Owing to large numbers in classes, if individual feedback poses a challenge, teachers can divide the areas of feedback and explain it on a group basis. The gradation of feedback would be from more teacher support to less of it so that learners can gradually take responsibility for their learning.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have established the relevance and effectiveness of translingual teacher–learner MR feedback interactions to develop micro-linguistic abilities in ESL argumentative essays. The study examined classroom use of an interactionist DA model, focusing specifically on the SCT framework of regulatory feedback moving from other to self-regulation. The chapter showed how translingual moves allowed mediation to be contingent and graded during DA. The growth in the

micro-linguistic features of learners' ESL academic writing in Indian multilingual classrooms was scaffolded through translingual moves at all the levels of Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) regulatory scale. Through the qualitative analysis of excerpts from MR sessions attending to learners' argumentative essay drafts and teacher–learner translingual MR interactions, we established that individualized translingual teacher feedback during the MR sessions can support learners' internalization of morpho-syntactic features required for writing ESL argumentative essays. The chapter presented the patterns of translanguaging evident in teacher–learner interactions using the taxonomy of teacher mediation and learner response moves. Overall, the chapter attempted to make the case for translanguaging as an effective meaning-making tool to efficiently enable knowledge co-construction in the context of DA in multilingual writing classrooms.

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Part III
The Challenges of Teaching Multilingual TESOL

The six chapters in the following part explore the ideological as well as practical challenges that multilingual approaches to TESOL face. Drawing on pre- and in-service teacher interviews, student interviews, classroom observations, and personal narratives, the chapters report on educational systems serving primary through university students in six countries: Turkey, Japan, Vietnam, Bangladesh, Chile, and Pakistan. Across this diverse range of contexts, it is clear that one of the most fundamental challenges is a monolingual ideology, commonly-held beliefs that languages are best taught and learned in isolation from other named languages. The chapters in this part show that this ideology may be held by policymakers, teachers, learners, and society at large.

Sometimes the ideology manifests in explicit policies about classroom language use that then position multilingual TESOL as a subversive act. Even when the ideology exists as an implicit policy, however, it has the power to make teachers and students feel guilty that they are using their multilingual resources because of what they cannot do, rather than because of what they can. On a more practical side, the dominance of the ideology often means that systems do not consider the possibility of teaching multilingually and therefore do not provide teachers with the needed training and support for doing so. It also forces choices around which languages to include as part of formal education and which to neglect.

The chapters in this part are not about problems, however; they are about how these challenges can be addressed. In his chapter, **Serder Terkin** reports on interviews and class observations with five Turkish primary EFL teachers. A cross-cutting theme in his conversations with the teachers is their sense that they should not be using Turkish in the English classroom. This sense is in fact so strong that they are surprised when the classroom observations show the degree to which they use multiple languages during class. Terkin sees this as an opportunity not only for more teacher development but also for action research projects and peer observation focused on effective uses of translanguaging.

For **Patrick Ng, Gregory Paul Glasgow, and Tiina Matikainen**, the challenge is a lack of societal awareness in Japan about global Englishes and the inherent variability of linguistic resources. Through a collective narrative about their individual

approaches, they recount how they encourage their students not to see themselves as deficient native speakers but rather as resource-rich users of language. The common thread in their approaches is the inclusion of multiple languages and varieties of English in their classes.

In Vietnam, government policies have promoted monolingual teaching of English at the primary level. As **Thi Thanh Tra Do** and **Thi My Linh Nguyen** argue, this proves particularly challenging in rural areas with high percentages of ethnic minorities who must also learn Vietnamese at school. Their study documents how challenging primary school teachers in these communities find the mandate to teach English and also their feelings of inadequate preparation. They also report that some teachers are able to address these challenges through translanguaging and multimodal communication and argue for greater attention to the importance of multicultural education.

Tania Rahman describes a similar disconnect between an official policy emphasizing English-medium instruction in Bangladeshi private universities and the linguistic resources that many students bring to their university studies, especially those students who have graduated from Bangla medium secondary schools. Rahman argues that greater acceptance and use of multilingual teaching would allow these students to demonstrate their full potential and enable teachers to provide more diversified instruction.

Rodrigo Arellano and **Anikó Hatoss** address the constraints placed on teacher education programs by Chilean policies promoting the monolingual teaching of English. Through interviews with teacher-educators and pre-service teachers, they reveal how teacher-educators and their students reject government policies promoting English-only instruction and the neglect of indigenous languages. They also show a strong belief in the effectiveness of translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy.

In Pakistan, government policies have been more accepting of using mother tongues (e.g., Pashto, Balochi, Punjabi, and Persian) alongside the national language (Urdu) and English and have called for instruction in all three at the primary level. Drawing from interviews with primary English teachers in Balochistan, however, **Sania Panezai** shows that it is not enough to call for instruction in multiple languages; it is essential to develop curricula that allow students to build from the linguistic resources they bring from home and also to train teachers in how to deliver such instruction.

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Chapter 9 Translanguaging in the Young Learner EFL Classroom in Turkey: Hidden Challenges and Complexities

Serdar Tekin

Abstract There has been a growing interest in translanguaging in foreign/second language education recently, as it offers a new perspective in terms of drawing on a diverse linguistic repertoire in a dynamic and flexible way. It has sparked several studies focusing on different aspects of translanguaging in various contexts. However, research on teachers' actual translanguaging practices particularly in young learner English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom remains scarce. Considering this drawback, this chapter aims to demonstrate how EFL teachers working with young learners in Turkey experience challenges, dilemmas, and complexities regarding translanguaging practices. The study, a part of a broader project focusing on amount, functions, and reasons for the use of translanguaging in primary schools, drew on semi-structured interviews with five teachers and classroom observations over the course of 60 lessons. The results showed that although participant teachers frequently used a variety of translanguaging strategies in order to enhance target language teaching and learning, they experienced some challenges and complexities regarding language use. They mostly felt guilty for using the first language (L1) despite feeling its necessity in teaching learners more efficiently. It was also revealed that they unconsciously switched from one language to the other (from English to Turkish or vice versa), which was also a surprise for them after listening to their voice recordings. This study will help Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) practitioners see how to avoid these challenges and complexities and use both local languages and English effectively by customizing these translanguaging practices according to their own contexts.

Introduction

Translanguaging has been commonly used in language classrooms since it was first coined in the Welsh education system by Cen Williams in the 1980s (Conteh, 2018).

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Despite being far from a comprehensive solution to classroom language use, arguments around translanguaging are gaining strength nowadays. In addition to the growing amount of academic evidence supporting translanguaging (e.g., Hall & Cook, 2012), empirical studies investigating this practice acknowledge its existence in language classrooms in various contexts (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Song & Lee, 2019; Tekin & Garton, 2020). Examining it from different aspects such as students' and teachers' attitudes, and the amount and functions of language use, a growing number of studies contribute to the effective use of translanguaging and as a further aim, maybe, contributing to a bilingual pedagogy to help practitioners in terms of language use. Although there is ample evidence promoting translanguaging and hence bilingual education in various contexts, the research mostly focuses on the settings with older learners. For this reason, there seems to be a lack of research focusing on translanguaging practices in young learners (YL) contexts.

Translanguaging is not randomly switching from one language to another but a much more complex process which necessitates several contextual factors to be taken into consideration (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Vogel & Garcia, 2017). This means that encouraging teachers to use it without considering contextual challenges and complexities could be problematic. As argued by Copland and Neokleous (2011), teachers' decision-making processes on the use of first language (L1) and second language (L2) could be much more complicated than it is ideally imagined, particularly if they are working with YLs who are considerably different from older learners in many aspects (Pinter, 2017). For instance, due to their young age, YLs may have difficulty in managing their behaviors or may need to be fostered affectionately (Pinter, 2017) Therefore, this chapter seeks to identify challenges in the use of translanguaging in YL language classrooms based on empirical evidence from different teachers who work in various public primary schools in Turkey.

The chapter begins with clarifying translanguaging and briefly explaining the current debate about it. Then, common practical problems are emphasized in the use of translanguaging reported in the literature. It is followed by the context, participants, data collection, and analysis procedures for the current research. The following section elaborates on two main challenges and complexities participants of the study faced while working with children and discusses them in light of the relevant literature. A number of practical considerations addressing these difficulties and complexities are provided at the end of the chapter.

Translanguaging in Language Education

According to Lewis et al., (2012, p. 643), the term translanguaging refers to "planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson." Different from other common terms implying the separation of languages such as "L1 use in L2 classes" or "code-switching," translanguaging emphasizes the use of more

than one language in harmony by focusing on its pedagogical benefits onto language teaching and learning (Garcia, 2017). Probably because of its more flexible approach toward the inclusion of L1 as well as giving value to both L1 and L2 (Garcia & Lin, 2017), it is seemingly more commonly used in language education nowadays.

From a historical perspective, the main debate on language choice has gradually changed. Originally, the focus was on whether to use or not use L1 in L2 classes, and the debate was mostly driven by advocates of exclusive L2 use (Hall & Cook, 2012). However, around two decades ago, the dominant emerging idea was judicious or "cautious use of L1" (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 294). More recently, the debate has moved forward in favor of L1 use and now focuses more on the discussion of how L1 and L2 can be integrated for more effective teaching in language classrooms. According to Copland and Ni (2018), translanguaging is currently encouraged, considering its several pedagogical benefits including contrasting sounds between two languages and enhancing classroom environment by reducing stress and anxiety among learners. From this viewpoint, rather than viewing it as a mistake or deficient way of teaching, translanguaging can be adopted in teaching a new language as both L1 and L2 are viewed as valuable components of L2 teaching (Copland & Ni, 2018).

Considering the wide range of contexts in which English is taught across the world (Enever, 2016), translanguaging is considerably affected by a large number of factors including teachers' level and experience, class size, medium of instruction, the status of English (English as a foreign language [EFL] or English as a second language [ESL]), education policy, learners, and so on (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Vogel & Garcia, 2017). The consensus on translanguaging suggests that it is teachers' responsibility to adjust their language use by taking into consideration such factors as they are the ones who are the most aware of the contextual components (McMillan & Rivers, 2011). In this respect, it seems plausible to empower language teachers in terms of giving them the responsibility of language use inside the classroom (Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Macaro, 2005).

Although empowering teachers appears a useful solution to language use, it could be problematic to put all the responsibility on teachers' shoulders without providing sufficient knowledge about language use. For most teachers, it could mean bearing tremendous responsibility in terms of language choice and hence lead them to question their language choice decisions. There is some evidence showing that teachers are often stuck between using L1 or L2 in some situations (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Tekin & Garton, 2020). Therefore, one might consider it as leaving teachers alone on this issue to some extent. In addition to the fundamental principles on teachers' language choice, it would be beneficial to provide them with information about the problematic issues commonly reported in the literature. For instance, some principles can be established related to translanguaging with YLs in some situations in specific contexts and customized to others due to children's common characteristics as language learners at certain age groups.

Problematic Issues in Translanguaging with YLs

Canagarajah (2011) argued that translanguaging is a naturally occurring phenomenon requiring complicated decisions to make in the course of speaking. Considering the nature of speaking, it is an instant process to use languages in harmony, which also necessitates assessing a great number of factors simultaneously. It could be argued that there is a complex psychological process occurring here—whether to use translanguaging, how to use it, how much L1/L2 to use, how to convey meaning more effectively, and so on (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Vogel & Garcia, 2017). From this viewpoint, it is in fact a complicated process that speakers' minds need to deal with.

Moreover, teachers' sense of guilt is a commonly reported psychological issue in different settings (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Hall & Cook, 2012; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Zhang et al., 2020). The main reason for teachers to feel in this way is highly likely the inability to reach their own desired level of L2 use. It is a common belief among teachers to use exclusive or near exclusive L2 while teaching L2, probably stemming from "entrenched monolingualism in ELT" (Hall & Cook, 2012 p. 297). Therefore, language teachers mostly regard L1 as what Macaro (2005, p. 68) calls "unfortunate and regrettable but necessary." As Littlewood and Yu (2011) reported, there are even some who go beyond viewing it as a negative source and associate it with ineffective or unprofessional way of teaching.

The difference between ideal and actual amount of L1 use probably results from contextual factors which are, as previously mentioned, effective in teachers' way of teaching and hence translanguaging practices. For example, highly motivated learners could be expected to try harder to understand teachers' L2 use, which could allow teachers to use more L2 with such learners. Regarding learners' proficiency level, however, lower proficiency level could be associated with a high level of difficulty for learners to understand teachers' exclusive L2 use. When YLs are at stake, teachers' translanguaging practices could be argued to become more complicated, as there are more factors to take into consideration during language choice. Teachers are expected to tailor their way of teaching and hence translanguaging practices considering learners' young age in primary schools for learners to better understand (e.g., adjusting their language and creating a meaningful environment). In one sense, the distinctive characteristics of YLs who are considerably different from older learners in many aspects including motivation, concentration span, behavior, and way of thinking (Pinter, 2017) could be highly influential in teachers' decision on language use in English classes. In this respect, this study assumes that YL English teachers have some challenges and complexities in the decision-making process of language choice. The study, hence, focuses on relevant challenges and complexities in YL EFL classrooms in Turkey.

Research Methods

Setting and Participants

The study was conducted in five public primary schools in the south of Turkey. English was a compulsory foreign language offered to 2nd, 3rd, and 4th graders (7–9 years old) for two lesson hours per week (a total of 80 min). Children's L1 was Turkish, and according to teachers' statements, they mostly took English at school for the first time. In terms of medium of instruction, there were clear guidelines in favor of exclusive L2 use in English classes. The Ministry of National Education (MONE) explicitly recommended teachers that L1 can only be used in a limited way when necessary (MONE, 2018).

Five female EFL teachers participated in the study (pseudonyms: Esma, Melek, Seda, Ayfer, and Betul), and they were all native speakers of Turkish. Participants all had a bachelor's degree (BA) in ELT, except for Ayfer who was a graduate of English Literature, and their teaching experience ranged from three to 15 years in various schools. At the time of data collection, they were teaching all grades (2nd, 3rd, and 4th grades) in their schools. Their class size differed greatly, ranging from 14 to 40 students in each class depending on where schools were located (urban/rural). All the classrooms were equipped with interactive whiteboards or computers and projectors for the teachers to teach English with the help of technology.

Data Collection and Analysis

As a case study of YL of English in Turkey, this study used two main data collection methods, namely, pre- and post-observation semi-structured interviews and classroom observations (see Fig. 9.1) (Tekin, 2020). First, a pre-observation interview was carried out with each teacher to gather background and contextual information and to explore their beliefs and perceptions about their experience with YLs. This was followed by classroom observations during which field notes were taken and an audio recording was obtained. Twelve classes from different grades taught by each teacher were observed over the course of three months, making a total of 60 observations. Finally, a post-observation interview was employed to specifically address their language use in the observed classes. In one sense, post-observation interviews served as stimulated recall sessions (Dörnyei, 2007) during which participants listened to their language switch and commented on their translanguaging practices.

Regarding the analysis of classroom data, teachers' talk in the observed classes was divided into utterances by using NVivo 12. This study regarded an utterance as a stream of speech with a single message and one single purpose (Izquierdo et al., 2016; Macaro, 2013). Class recordings were listened to repeatedly to determine when and how the translanguaging practices occurred. In order to analyze the interview

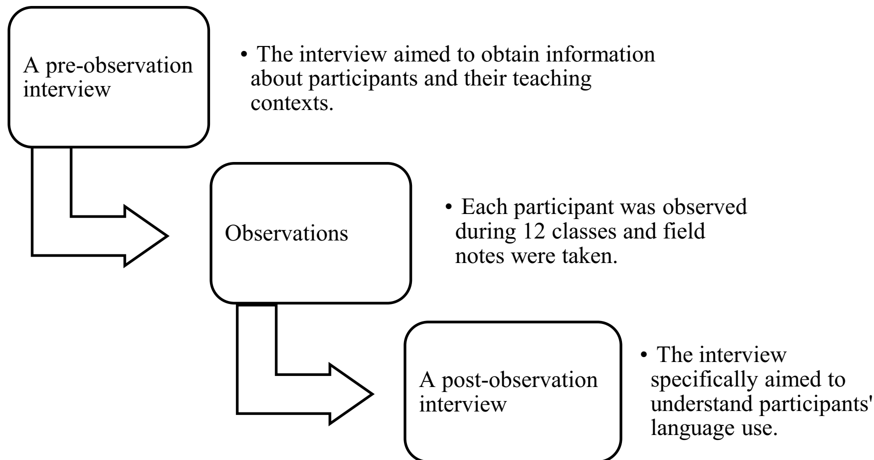

Fig. 9.1 Data collection procedures

data, a thematic analysis was used (Nowell et al., 2017). In this type of analysis, the process started with the researcher's familiarizing with the data, and it was followed by several steps including indexing, charting, mapping, and interpreting (Ritchie & Spencer, 2002). In this way, raw interview data were "lifted from their original context and rearranged according to the appropriate thematic reference." (Ritchie & Spencer, 2002, p. 182).

Findings and Discussion

Participants of this study experienced two common challenges and dilemmas in the process of using translanguaging in YL classrooms. These were feeling of guilt and unconscious language switch. While classroom observations helped to reveal these challenges, interviews enabled to find and elaborate on teachers' thoughts and rationales for translanguaging.

Sense of Guilt

Participants of this study had varying degrees of guilt stemming from the use of translanguaging in English classes. Their accounts revealed that they felt the necessity of translanguaging for several purposes such as creating meaningful context for children, familiarizing them with English in the initial stages, and fostering their affective needs. Considering these factors, teachers used translanguaging as a teaching strategy at the expense of having a feeling of guilt. Emphasizing the

difference between theory and practice, one teacher (Betul), for example, expressed her feelings as follows.

> I know that there is a failing in terms of speaking English. ... I know that I need to say something in English repeatedly and students will understand it sooner or later. However, it does not happen in practice.

It can be inferred from Betul's account that she was aware of L2-only policy in language education since she was in favor of using L2 constantly. However, her actual practice did not align with ideal language use, and this caused her to feel regret. Similarly, Seda also had a sense of guilt about the use of translanguaging but showed a stricter manner toward her way of teaching in terms of language choice.

> I feel bad. This is not normal at all. In this sense, there is no difference between being a Turkish or philosophy teacher and English teacher. I chose this as a job, so how can I enjoy speaking Turkish in English classes? I think there is no benefit of speaking Turkish apart from solving serious problems.

The most disappointed participant was Melek who went one step further by describing herself as an unprofessional and unsuccessful language teacher because she uses L1 with her students in English classes. She expressed her disappointment as follows:

> Speaking Turkish [in English lessons] disturbs me a lot. ... When I speak Turkish in the class, I feel like I am a Turkish or social sciences teacher. I feel that I cannot do my job properly.

Teachers' accounts indicate clear regret due to L1 use in L2 classes. Interestingly, Seda and Melek associated their use of Turkish with teaching different subjects such as philosophy and social sciences. It shows that they were in favor of exclusive L2 use in language education and hence had negative attitudes toward L1 use.

Different from others, Melek was working in both middle and primary schools at the same time. She explained the necessity of giving instructions in L1 to YLs to make the context more meaningful by making comparison between two contexts.

> I feel more comfortable with older students as I think I am better understood by them. However, when I give an instruction to the children, I give a few more instructions to make sure that they understand me right. In secondary school, I say it straight, just once and mostly in English. In primary school, I repeat it many times in Turkish.

Apart from trying to make the context more meaningful, Melek's repeated instruction in Turkish could also be related to learners' inability to adapt themselves with a new English environment. In other words, it was the first time for most of the 2nd graders to encounter English in their life. In fact, it was probably the first time to learn a language after the acquisition of their L1. For this reason, participants mostly believed that translanguaging was a useful tool to familiarize YLs with English by means of using both languages in harmony. At this point, two teachers acknowledged the benefits of using translanguaging in YL classes and suggested that there should be a balance between L1 and L2 use. Ayfer, therefore, had relatively more positive attitudes toward L1 use.

It is very normal for teachers to speak L1 in the class. However, if the class language is completely L1, this is a problem. When I say certain things in L1 and students understand, I become happy. In this case, I can understand that students have understood it with the help of L1.

In a similar vein, Esma emphasized the necessity of Turkish use moderately because of its facilitative role in teaching English and made an interesting comparison to refer to the balance between English and Turkish.

> … first language should be like the salt on a meal. We should use it neither too much nor too little.

In line with participants' accounts, observations revealed a number of cases in which teachers commonly switched languages due to learners' unfamiliarity with English. It was observed that learners were complete beginners and hence did not have basic information about the English language. A classroom extract between Ayfer and a 2nd grader is provided below (T and S refer to teacher and student, respectively. The English translation is provided in square brackets).

> T: Bu bizim alfabemiz değil. Peki kimin alfabesi olabilir? [This is not our alphabet. Who does it belong to?]
>
> S: 3-B'nin [alfabesi]. [3-B's [alphabet].]

In the above classroom extract, the 2nd graders sang a song about the English alphabet, which was followed by a question from Ayfer about who the alphabet belonged to. Although she asked it in a simple sentence in Turkish, the learners were not able to answer it at the beginning. Following a short pause, a student unexpectedly said that it was another class's alphabet in the same school. This reply implies that the student had very limited knowledge of English and was even unfamiliar with the alphabets of the language.

It was also observed that participants often used translanguaging to compensate for learners' lack of understanding in L2. Even basic instructions in L2 were too difficult for children to understand even if they were supported by body language. Considering this, teachers viewed translanguaging as a tool to facilitate L2 instructions. A classroom extract from Ayfer's lesson is presented as follows (a pseudonym is used for the name of the student).

> T: Berrin (.), come here. Take your notebook (…). Come here, huh? Berrin, stand up. Come here huh?. Come, come (.). Berrin, come (.). Notebook, take your notebook (.). Yes, come here (…). Berrin, defterini de alıp buraya gel. [Berrin, take your notebook and come here.]

As illustrated above, a language switch from English to Turkish occurred due to a student's inability to understand the teacher's instruction in English. Ayfer called a student, Berrin, to the board by using L2 instructions and gave some pauses for her to understand the instruction. She used her body language actively to support Berrin's understanding by waving her hand and showing the notebook. However, Berrin seemed unsure and hesitated to stand up or sit down by looking at Ayfer and her classmates. She finally decided to go to the board without her notebook, which led to another L2 instruction from Ayfer. It was evident that she was unable to

understand Ayfer's L2 instruction and hence Ayfer gave up with L2 use at that point and switched to L1.

Although L2 instructions were very basic ones in the classroom extract above, the learner was unable to understand them. Repeating and rephrasing the instructions nine times and using body language did not result in the learner's successful comprehension. In this case, L1 was a useful tool to overcome communication breakdown in a short time.

In addition to learners' lack of understanding, fostering YLs' emotional needs was another issue for the participants to use translanguaging. Various issues emerged because of children's unpredictable behaviors or feelings during the class. Accordingly, participants unhesitatingly employed L1 in such cases, and it indicates that they did it instinctively to take care of children. A classroom extract is provided below.

T: Neden böyle yapıyorson? [Why are you doing like this?]

S: Parmağımı kaldırdığımda bana hiç izin= [When I raise my hand, you never let me=]

T: =Tamam! Bundan sonar sana söz hakkı vereceğim, tamam mı? [=OK! From now on, I will let you say. Is that OK?]

S: Hı hı! [Uh-huh!]

T: Ben seni çok seviyorum, tamam mı? [I love you so much, OK?]

The above extract illustrates a conversation between a 2nd grader and Seda. When asking some comprehension check questions after teaching a part of the lesson, Seda saw that a learner was upset and not interested in the lesson. When she asked the reason, the learner explained that she was offended with Seda, as Seda did not see her hand raised several times to speak. Seda at that point used L1 to conciliate her, which was observed to work as the student raised her hand again to participate in classroom discussion. Due to large class size (35 students), Seda's unintentional ignorance of this student might be regarded as common; however, her use of L1 contributed to the quick solution of the problem.

As interviews and classroom observations show, participants of this study used translanguaging in their classes and were mostly aware of their language choice. They needed translanguaging for some common reasons, including making the context meaningful for learners, compensating learners' inability to understand L2 use, and fostering learners' emotional needs. Some of these reasons were specifically associated with the distinctive characteristics of YLs (e.g., meaningful context and affective purposes). Considering the positive impact of using L1 for these reasons, it could be argued that teachers employed translanguaging for the purpose of the enhancement of L2 teaching in YL classes. This could be viewed as a justifiable reason for the use of translanguaging practices.

Although participants felt the need for translanguaging and therefore used it, they mostly had a sense of guilt, which is a commonly reported issue in previous studies (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Hall & Cook, 2012; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Zhang et al., 2020). In fact, they were unhappy about not being able to use a desired level of L2. The underlying reason for them to show discomfort or regret regarding L1 use could be explained by long-established L2-only policy in ELT which can still

be observed in different contexts, particularly national curricula across the world (Hall & Cook, 2012; Zhang et al., 2020). It is closely related to what Hall and Cook (2012 p. 297) called "entrenched monolingualism in ELT." It seems that L2-only policy is still influential on teachers' beliefs.

In addition to sense of guilt, two participants (Seda and Melek) went further and associated translanguaging with being an unprofessional way of teaching. This is quite in line with Littlewood and Yu's (2011) findings that L1 might be perceived by some teachers as an inhibitor for effective language teaching. However, the other three participants' accounts indicate that they mostly aimed to enhance L2 teaching with the help of translanguaging. Despite the difference in their attitudes, they all focused on teaching children, adjusting language according to children's level, and valuing them as humans rather than strictly following an L2-only ideology. This way of thinking is quite in line with the arguments of Copland (2018) who viewed the use of translanguaging with YLs as a humanistic way of teaching which ensures that children follow what is happening in the class and feel included.

Unconscious Language Switch

Observations of this study revealed interesting results in terms of the complexity of translanguaging. While teaching English to YLs, some participants did an instant language switch with no obvious reasons, and this occurred in different grades. When they were asked about these switches after listening to their own voice recordings, they were not able to answer or give any explanation for these. For a better understanding of this type of language switch, classroom extracts are provided below.

T: Homework (.) Ödev (…) Maraton plus dört [the name of exercise book]. Unit one. Bitir! [Homework. Marathon plus four. Unit one. Finish!]

The class was almost over and Seda wanted to give homework to the 3rd graders. However, she seemed a little confused and gave the instructions in both Turkish and English. The interesting point here from most of the other instances of language switches was that she used L1 and L2 both at intersentential [Unit one. Bitir!] and intrasentential levels [Marathon plus dört]. It appears that she used both languages in a mixed way, but she could not offer an explanation or apparent justification for this switch.

A similar type of translanguaging practice was observed in another teacher's class, which is shown below. Here, Melek greeted the students at the very beginning of a class and pointed out the page number in English. However, she made instant switches between L1 and L2 without having any pauses to see whether students understood it or not.

T: How are you?

Ss: I am fine, thanks, and you?

T: Fine. Sit down (...). Yes (.) Page twenty-five, six. Twenty-six. Değil mi sayfa? [the page, isn't it?] Twenty-six. Yirmialtı. [Twenty-six.]

In the extracts above, teachers' translanguaging was not categorized as a specific reason (e.g., learners' inability to understand) as no possible explanation was found for language switch. They were instant switches with no pauses; therefore, it would be problematic to infer that they were because of learners' inability to understand teachers' L2 use. One could argue that teachers probably made these switches because they acted proactively and helped learners understand their L2 use with the support of L1 prior to encountering any problems. Another inference could be that instant language switches stemmed from teachers' being bilingual speakers and hence using either language is a natural way. During post-interviews, one teacher (Seda) argued that she had not noticed the instant switches and provided an explanation for these which occurred due to high level of excitement.

In fact, this is involuntary. It sometimes happens. I did not do it deliberately. I am sometimes aware of it. It may be because of the excitement of the moment or being a native speaker of Turkish. I even did not notice it whilst saying, but after listening to it, I noticed it.

Seda's accounts about automatic language switch show that using either language was a natural phenomenon for her. It is highly unlikely that she did it because of lack of words or phrases to express herself, as the expression she used in L1 could be regarded as too easy to forget. Instead, a better explanation could be that she drew on both language repertoires which is probably natural for bilingual speakers.

An alternative explanation for an automatic switch could be the complicated class context. As Dörnyei (2007) highlighted, classroom context is composed of several subcontexts such as instructional (way of teaching and tasks), managerial (class or activity management), and social (rapport). It is necessary for teachers to consider multiple factors, evaluate these in their minds, and decide on their language use instantaneously. Therefore, such class variables could overshadow teachers' language choice. This is also emphasized by Copland and Neokleous (2011) who argued that using either L1 or L2 is a challenging and complex decision for teachers to make due to the dependence on class variables and teachers' own cognitive processes. There might be a lot of questions on teachers' minds—whether to use translanguaging, how and when to use it, and how to convey meaning to learners, etc. (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Vogel & Garcia, 2017). In this regard, although it is difficult to clearly explain the rationale behind their instant language switch due to the lack of observable clues, they might use translanguaging based on complex decisions following instant evaluation of the situation in their minds.

Implications for Practice

The findings of this study hold important implications for teachers' actual practice and teacher education. Despite increasing support for translanguaging in language education, an L2-only policy is still pervasive in ELT contexts across the world, and

hence teachers feel guilty for using translanguaging. If the aim is to improve teachers' translanguaging practices in language classes, it is not sufficient to provide superficial recommendations such as recommending limited L1 use. In order to overcome a sense of guilt, as Copland (2018) argued, we should focus on teaching children effectively by keeping in mind their level of understanding (by using either L1 or L2) rather than following an L2-only ideology. In this way, it would be possible for teachers to feel more relaxed in terms of language use as long as they have justified reasons for L1 use.

Moreover, teachers should take into consideration the growth in pedagogical translanguaging across different contexts from primary (Garton and Tekin 2022) to tertiary levels (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020) and make informed decisions on language use considering their teaching contexts. Therefore, it would be problematic to suggest or impose exclusive L2 use without considering the contextual factors. Instead, it would be beneficial for teachers to become conscious about their L1 use and reflect on its justifications as well as use translaguaging to enhance students' understanding. In this regard, it would be a good practice to provide teachers with awareness-raising activities such as peer observation (Bailey, 2006) and action research (Burns, 2010). Regarding peer observation, it could help them learn cooperatively by observing each others' classes, discussing their practices, becoming more aware of language use, and developing new viewpoints on language choice. As for action research, Nunan (2018) elaborated on the process that teachers could follow to address pedagogical issues: identify a possible problem such as use of L1 excessively; identify possible solutions; apply them (as intervention); collect new data after intervention; and reflect on the entire process. It is believed that these two practices (awareness-raising and action research) will help teachers develop their language use, make conscious choices, and use either language more confidently by means of taking into consideration contextual factors.

It would also be useful to help teachers learn about the effective use of translanguaging. More specifically, teachers could be provided with continuing professional development (CPD) trainings to gain awareness about drawing on their language repertoire by taking into consideration contextual factors. Such teacher education programs could include the debate about language use, the latest developments and arguments about translanguaging, and classroom videos and extracts that could guide them to use translanguaging more effectively and confidently. Thus, it would be possible to empower teachers (Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Macaro, 2005) in that they could develop their own principles and strategies in terms of language choice and make informed decisions that are appropriate for their teaching setting and finally make positive contributions to students' learning process. Further research could usefully explore potential CPD trainings on this issue to help teachers to overcome the possible difficulties they face in YL language classrooms.

Conclusion

Following a long-standing debate about classroom language use, it seems that the pendulum has swung in favor of translanguaging recently and hence its use is encouraged in the course of L2 teaching and learning. However, language teachers experience some challenges and complexities while using translanguaging in YL English classrooms, and this chapter has addressed two of them which are teachers feeling guilty about L1 use and the unconscious language switch. It is believed that these difficulties and dilemmas should be taken into consideration to improve language teaching and help teachers decide on translanguaging more easily and confidently. There are still some signs promoting L2-only policy among some teachers, institutions, and national curricula, and this could cause teachers to be stuck between L1 and L2 use and hence feel guilty about using translanguaging. Since their language switch occurs as a result of complex decision-making processes, they could hesitate to use it in certain situations.

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Chapter 10
Multilingualism in Global Englishes Language Teaching: Narrative Insights from Three TESOL Practitioners in Japan

Patrick Chin Leong Ng, Tiina Matikainen, and Gregory Paul Glasgow

Abstract Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT) is still in its infancy in Japan as educators struggle to implement tangible and practical classroom methods to promote its principles. The lack of awareness regarding GELT and lingering attitudes that privilege monolingual orientations to teaching and conceptualizing the English language—exacerbated by the construct of native speakerism—persist among teachers, learners, and other educational stakeholders alike. This chapter examines how three Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) practitioners teaching in three different university contexts in various regions of Japan attempted to instill GELT-informed principles in their classrooms. As the reflective teaching movement has helped to enhance the knowledge base by highlighting the importance of reflection on classroom practices, this chapter adopts a collective narrative approach to reflect on the materials choice, curriculum design, and lesson activities to share the strategies undertaken by the teachers to promote multilingualism, diversity, and pluralism in the GELT classroom. We discuss the implications for curriculum development and program administration in fostering the use of multilingualism in other English language teaching (ELT) settings outside of Japan.

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Introduction

The "Global Englishes" (GE) paradigm is situated within the "multilingual turn" in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and said to be a paradigm that can assist learners in developing multilingual awareness (Galloway & Numajiri, 2020; Rose & Galloway, 2019). This orientation to language education is specified in more detail through the principles of Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT), in which Rose and Galloway (2019) advocated the need to break free from conceptualizing English as a language to be learned to achieve native-like competence. The learner of English is reimagined as an English *user* who is capable of appreciating the linguacultural diversity of the language and able to communicate competently in it, regardless of the variety or vernacular used.

GELT's principles create spaces to promote multilingualism in language teaching, implement translanguaging pedagogy, as well as gain awareness of the diversity of English varieties worldwide. However, in some contexts, it may rely on informed educators to effectively translate its principles into practice. It will be true to say that research in promoting multilingualism via a GE-informed pedagogy is still scarce in Japan, where traditional native speakerist notions of English language teaching remain existent (Glasgow et al., 2020; Lowe, 2020). This chapter intends to fill the gap by examining the following:

(i) How do the beliefs of TESOL practitioners support multilingualism in the Japanese TESOL classroom?
(ii) What pedagogies are adopted to promote multilingualism in the Global Englishes classroom?
(iii) What challenges do teachers face in fostering a multilingual teaching environment?

The authors of this chapter are three experienced TESOL practitioners—Patrick from Singapore, Tiina from Finland, and Gregory from New York City—who have taught English for more than 10 years in Japan. As the reflective teaching movement has helped to enhance the knowledge based on classroom practices, this chapter adopts a collective narrative approach to reflect on the strategies and activities undertaken by the three teachers to promote multilingualism in the GELT classroom.

The chapter outline is as follows: We first establish our identities as multilingual users of English and our GE teaching philosophy. Following this, we describe our local context of teaching in Japan. Next, we discuss our classroom pedagogy and teaching practices in support of multilingualism. We then articulate the challenges we faced as well as reflect on our attempts to promote GELT principles in our classrooms. We conclude by considering the implications for curriculum development and program administration in fostering the use of multilingualism in other ELT teaching contexts outside of Japan.

GELT Principles and the Japanese Context

Researchers in the subfields of World Englishes (Kachru, 1990), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) (Jenkins, 2009), and English as an International Language (EIL) (Sharifian, 2009), all conclude that the construct of native speakerism is untenable; the extensive literature in this area agrees that the belief that Anglo-American models of English should be the preferred models of use for the English language needs to be eschewed, even if it is recognized that the dismantling of standard language ideology remains a tall order (O'Regan, 2021). In addition, since the sociolinguistic reality is such that the use of the varieties of English is the norm rather than the exception, diversity, and multilingualism, as it pertains to the English language itself, need to be embraced. To combine the perspectives of all aforementioned subfields, Rose and Galloway (2019) have proposed the umbrella term "GE."

Even though GE research has recently started to gain attention in Japan due to the efforts of Japan-based ELF researchers (Konakahara & Tsuchiya, 2020), English language teaching (ELT) practice in Japan remains committed to the Anglo-American model, as reflected in the fact that Japanese ministry-approved textbook content tends to promote Inner Circle English varieties, with far less representation from Outer Circle speakers (Yamada, 2015). Neoliberal principles have permeated Japanese language-in-education policy discourse, promoting English education reform plans that place narrow emphasis on skill acquisition and communication to enhance English proficiency for global citizenship. Yamagami and Tollefson (2011) pointed out that discourses of globalization are evident in the language policies of Japanese universities which increasingly view English as a medium of instruction (EMI) to enhance student "global competence" and internationalize their campus settings. The Japanese university entrance exam remains entrenched as a de facto language policy (Hashimoto & Glasgow, 2021) that has significant washback on teachers' practices, making it difficult at the high school level for teachers to engage in GE-informed language teaching activities for multilingual awareness. The aforementioned examples reflect the multidimensionality of native speakerism in Japan. Konakahara and Tsuchiya (2020) lamented that uncritical Japanese adherence to a "native speaker" model "not only creates political inequalities among English-education professionals but also promotes a lack of confidence in English as well as unconscious linguistic discrimination among Japanese people" (p. 9). Therefore, to counter such challenges, and drawing on our unique identities as users of English as a lingua franca, we resist such ideologies and incorporate pedagogical strategies into our classrooms to foster student appreciation of linguacultural diversity.

Our Beliefs as Multilingual Language Users

Patrick

I was born in Singapore to Cantonese-speaking Chinese parents. From the age of five, I was surrounded by family members and friends who spoke English, Malay, Mandarin Chinese, and several other Chinese dialects-Cantonese, Hokkien, and Hainanese. As a multilingual speaker of English, I was quick to embrace multilingualism as a resource for learning foreign languages. It was during my undergraduate days in New Zealand that I realized that I could harness my knowledge of English grammar to master Japanese grammar. For instance, my understanding of the use of passive and active English sentences allowed me to grasp the conjugation of Japanese verbs easily. My knowledge of Chinese characters also facilitated the learning of Japanese kanji. On the first day of my class as a teacher, I usually introduce myself as "Patrick Sensei" and tell students that my country of origin is Singapore, a multilinguistic and multiracial country. To drum in my status as a multilingual teacher of English, I also tell my students that I could speak English, Mandarin Chinese and three other Chinese dialects-Cantonese, Hokkien, and Hainanese. To build rapport with students, I also tell them that I also speak some conversational Japanese. My students usually express surprise and awe when they realize that I can write Japanese kanji on the board to explain difficult English vocabulary.

Tiina

I was born and raised in Eastern part of Finland. During my primary education in the early 1980s, Finland already stressed the importance of multilingualism in education, so I started learning foreign languages from elementary school, Swedish from 3rd grade, English from 5th grade, and French and German from 7th grade. Outside of the classroom, however, I grew up in a completely monolingual Finnish environment. Nobody in my family spoke any other language besides Finnish. Even though Finland officially has two national languages, Finnish and Swedish, I never heard or met anyone speaking Swedish when growing up. I became enchanted with English soon after starting to study it, which resulted in me seeking out opportunities to experience English outside of the classroom, including American TV shows as well as English songs and books. I continued my university studies in the USA so that I could become an expert English user and realize my dream of becoming an English teacher. My life would be drastically different had it not been for learning English. English opened the world to me as well as provided me with a career that I love. I have been teaching English language and applied linguistics courses at undergraduate and graduate levels in Japan for the past 20 years. In my personal and professional life, I mainly use three languages, English, Finnish, and Japanese, a different language in different contexts. It is impossible to separate my identity as a multilingual person

from my role as a language educator, and this is evident in my classroom. I wish for my students to see language learning as a tool for enhancing their lives.

Gregory

My parents originated from English-speaking Guyana, South America, and I grew up as an Afro-Caribbean American in a multilingually diverse New York City. My mother's career as an international aid agency professional required her to develop proficiency in French and Spanish and prompted her to send me to a private international school, where I developed an appreciation for multilingualism at a very early age with French becoming my second language. Having lived and worked in international aid agencies in Togo and Madagascar after college, where I became fluent in French, the former colonial language of those countries, I further became intrigued with becoming a multilingual speaker. These experiences eventually led to my decision to embark on an expatriate teaching career in Japan.

In my 23-year teaching career, I have worked as a regular teacher, head teacher, teacher trainer, and curriculum coordinator in private language teaching chains, private senior high schools, and private universities. My Japanese students generally assume that I am just another American "native speaker of English," and in the past I had introduced myself as such. However, when I obtained my Master of Arts degree in TESOL and a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics, I started to appreciate my linguacultural and multilingual background more deeply, as I developed research interests in sociolinguistics, multilingualism in TESOL and GELT. I then began to "re-brand" my identity as a teacher, introducing myself to my students as a multilingual individual and highlighting my international travel experience.

Our Beliefs as Multilingual Language Users

Engaging with Linguistic Diversity

Little and Kirwan (2019) have outlined successful strategies for inclusive multilingual classrooms. They advocate the use of reflective talk encouraging cogitation of language use, making use of learner knowledge and experiences, and enhancing language awareness including examining the similarities and differences of languages. Mirroring these strategies, in this section, we will introduce some initiatives we have implemented in an attempt to incorporate multilingualism into our Japanese classrooms with the goal of transforming our multilingual identities to positive educational capital.

Patrick's Strategies

On the first day of my class, after a brief self-introduction, I usually proceed to describe how I had used English as a non-native speaker of English. I tell students: Although English is not my mother tongue, it is my language of use and preference. To motivate students to improve their English skills, I also tell students about the importance of English, in particular the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) among Asian countries. But whenever I mention "ELF," I observe that the majority of students look puzzled and confused. Despite learning English for six years, the majority of Japanese students have very little confidence in their spoken English. Trapped in the stranglehold of a monolithic environment, they have very little opportunity to communicate in English outside the classroom. They also could not comprehend the use of non-native varieties of English because they have very few opportunities to hear other English varieties. In their junior and senior high school, they had exposure to only American English as they were taught by American English teachers.

In my World Englishes class, I show McArthur's (1987) chart featuring the different varieties of English in the world to help students understand the concept of ELF. Although the class is made up of third-year students from the International Studies and Regional Development department, they are Intermediate learners of English. I tell them: English has gained the status of an international language. There are currently many non-native English-speaking countries in the world which have adopted English as a language of wider communication. English is spoken as a lingua franca—a common language between non-native speakers in Southeast Asian countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, and Philippines. From there, I proceed to explain that as a result of the spread of English from the native English-speaking countries such as Australia, Britain, and the USA, there is currently no "one English" but "many Englishes." To help students consolidate their understanding of the diversification of English, I also show them Kachru's (1990) three concentric circles of English and the development of an indigenized variety of English known as "World Englishes."

Realizing that many of my students are unfamiliar with other varieties of English, I also introduce English Listening Lesson Library Online (ELLLO), an Internet audio website that has more than 300 videos in English and features both native and non-native English speakers from different countries. My students usually express surprise when they hear different accents of English spoken by speakers from different parts of the world. I particularly like to show videos which feature fluent English speakers from the expanding circle such as Japan, Korea, or China to remind my students that other non-native varieties of English are equally legitimate and viable for communication in the world.

As a multilingual user of English, I resonate with the belief that the home language of students is central to individual identity and the "default medium" for thinking and learning (Garcia & Li, 2014). In class, I encourage students to express their ideas using their mother tongue: If you cannot say it in English, try to say it in Japanese. My purpose for promoting an explicit presence of their mother tongue is to provide an inclusive learning environment and to reduce their anxiety in communicating in

English in class. I also encourage the use of their mother tongue to expand their vocabulary. To help students master difficult English vocabulary in class, I ask students to check the meaning in their mother tongue and then translate the Japanese words into simpler English. For instance, when trying to explain the word "decompose," I instruct students to find out the meaning in Japanese using their dictionary. When students have understood the meaning of the word in Japanese, I then ask them to explain the meaning of "decompose" in English using simple words:

Decompose → 腐敗 → break down

In class, I also explain to students the syntactic differences between native and non-native English sentences. For instance, I show students the expression, "I went to the university by bicycle." I then explain that native speakers will normally say "I cycle to the university." To help students develop a positive attitude to their own Japanese English, I inform my class that although the English spoken is different from the standard English expression used by native speakers, it has no significant effect on our listening comprehension. To help my students internalize the importance of the local language in learning English, I also inform them that contrary to their belief, the current English language has been largely influenced by various Japanese words such as "sushi," "tsunami," and "tofu" which have now been accepted as standard English. As a way to remove their prejudice against other non-native English varieties, I go on to ask students to search the Internet for words that have their origins in the local language.

Tiina's Strategies

Every year when I meet new students in my university English classes, I ask them, "Where do you think Tiina is from?" The students are eager to guess my home country, but after they have suggested Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the UK, and the USA, they are perplexed. Based on the way I look and sound, they cannot imagine that I may come from a country where English is not spoken as a first language. They automatically label me as a native speaker of English. When it comes to themselves as English learners, I call this phenomenon "Native speaker learner fallacy" (Matikainen, 2019), a belief they hold that to be a competent English user, they should be highly fluent and sound like a native speaker. This ideology continues to disadvantage English language learners in Japan. Most of the commercial materials in the ELT field do not complement a multilingual approach in the language classroom. These materials continue to expose students to native speaker user models and native speakerism ideology. Therefore, one of my main goals in the classroom is to provide successful multilingual user models for my students to help them see themselves as being multilinguals, not merely students studying English as a subject.

One way I do this is by building lessons around Technology, Entertainment, Design (TED) talks by non-native speakers of English. For example, one talk I use is a Japanese architect discussing the design principles of a kindergarten he created. My students are always excited and happy to see a person like themselves talking about

their work in English that sounds like their English, not like a "native speaker" of English. These talks also provide wonderful opportunities for language awareness. For example, students can compare the talk with the transcript which usually has been corrected for any "mistakes" the speaker makes. Students find discrepancies in the spoken and written talk and discuss why these occur and what effect they have on comprehension. In the talk mentioned here, the speaker often drops articles or makes subject–verb agreement mistakes. However, these do not interfere with their message, which provides a great lesson to my students about not having to produce error-free language to communicate effectively.

In addition, I attempt to highlight language knowledge as a positive resource. My students are free to code-switch and use Japanese when necessary. I encourage it, especially as a collaborative resource for them to help each other. I also dedicate time for them to summarize their learning in Japanese with each other, ensuring nobody is left behind. They are comfortable writing me emails in Japanese if they are not able to express themselves in English, while knowing that they will receive a reply in English. I believe these small acts reduce their anxiety and increase their willingness to communicate.

Another project-based learning task that I incorporate into my classes is "becoming a field linguist." Taking advantage of the fact that there are at least three languages in our classroom, the students first work together to learn some new language from their Finnish informant, Tiina, with whom they do not share a common language. They have several sessions with the informant during which they can learn as much Finnish as possible. For example, one group may focus on weather and elicit weather-related vocabulary and phrases from the informant, using images, gestures, and nonverbal language. The goal is to collect primary data on basic lexical and grammatical aspects of the unknown language. After these information-gathering sessions, the students work together to compare the three languages they now know: Japanese, English, and Finnish and produce a written or spoken report. This activity is very popular with students as a fruitful opportunity to expose them to multiple languages in an otherwise monolingual EFL setting. Below is a short excerpt from a past student report in a Japanese university undergraduate elective course titled English for Global Communication:

> We found that Japanese and Finnish both tend to repeat the same vowel in the same word, for example, *kasa* (umbrella in Japanese), and *kala* (fish in Finnish). This is called vowel harmony. Because of this, we think it is easy for Japanese people to pronounce Finnish and for Finnish people to pronounce Japanese. Because English does not have this, it is one reason why it is difficult for Japanese people to pronounce English…. It was fun to learn that many words are the same in Japanese and Finnish. For example, *sora* means sky in Japanese but gravel in Finnish and *kani* means crab in Japanese but rabbit in Finnish. In English and Japanese, some words are the same, but usually these are loanwords with the same meaning. For example, *sushi* and *karaoke.*

Table 10.1 Course content—The History and Politics of the English Language

Week #	Content covered
Weeks 1–5	Basic facts about English; defining English(es); Kachru's Three Circles model (Kachru, 1990); the early history of English
Weeks 6–10	English and colonization; Schneider's model of language variation (Seargeant & Swann, 2012); advantages/disadvantages of Kachru's model; midterm assignment
Weeks 11–15	English and globalization; language policy; English in Japan; World Englishes project presentations

Note The course content is derived from Seargeant and Swann (2012)

Gregory's Strategies

In this section, I provide details about a content course that I have taught and developed about the history and politics of English. This 15-week course has been instructive in increasing students' awareness about "multilingualism within English," or variations found within the English language itself. The general structure of the course was largely based on the content of Seargeant and Swann's (2012) textbook entitled *English in the World: History, Diversity, Change.* I chose the book not only because it was at the appropriate level to challenge the students, but because of its visual appeal, interspersed with historical images of early English users and examples of multilingualism in public spaces in countries around the world. I have conducted the course in both synchronous and asynchronous formats, incorporating discussions, mini-lectures, reading comprehension assignments and writing assignments that are based on textbook content (see Table 10.1).

In the first month of the course, after introducing basic facts about the English language such as the estimated number of speakers who use it at a basic level through interactive quizzes, I would then proceed to have the students define "English" after listening to a mini video lecture about the notion that there is one English language has now been challenged by researchers. I then introduce Kachru's Three Circles model (1990) as a basic framework to conceptualize the role, status, and function of English worldwide, assist their comprehension of the model by "sorting" countries into the Inner, Outer and Expanding Circle categories for which Kachru is well known, and explaining why (e.g., large numbers of English settlers, colonization, increased globalization, etc.). I then introduce early historical facts about the language, its influences due to the Anglo-Saxon, Viking, and Norman invasions, and how through language contact, other languages have contributed to the lexical diversity within English.

The second month of the course describes colonization and the British role in it from the eighteenth to the twentieth century. The course distinguishes between three types of colonization as per Seargeant and Swann (2012): displacement (movement of English settlers to establish colonies such as Australia and the USA); replacement (the forcible transfer of African slaves to colonies), and subjection (the indirect rule of the colonial power over large populations in countries like Singapore or India).

The course then turns to a discussion of how languages become varieties based on Schneider's Dynamic Model of Postcolonial Englishes (in Seargeant & Swann, 2012); in this segment of the class, students watch YouTube clips that display fun comparisons of linguistic features of English varieties such as American, Australian, British, Singaporean, and South African English.

The final strand of the course is devoted to developing learner awareness about the extent to which English has become a lingua franca in domains of life such as finance, education, the motion picture industry, linguistic landscapes, and the media among others. The course then turns to focus on English in Japan, where I cover its basic history and current language policies in education. The final class presentation requires students to choose a nation of interest and to work in pairs to describe the history, status, and function of English in a given country. My most recent course featured countries such as Finland, Germany, Nigeria, South Korea, and Taiwan. In these presentations, the students first describe basic demographics about the country. Then they classify the country based on Kachru's Three Circles Model (Kachru, 1990; Seargeant & Swann, 2012) and provided basic history about how the language came to be spoken there. After that, they discuss features of the English variety spoken in the country and conclude their talks with basic descriptions of the country's language education policy and discussion questions.

Having taught this course at different universities, I have found that it has been generally effective in shifting students' attitudes more toward a linguacultural appreciation of the English language and the historical legacy of its global spread. In final course essays, students have commented on the novelty of the topic of GE for them and how appreciative they were of learning about it, linking it to more historical and contemporary macro-processes such as colonization and globalization.

> These days, I often hear the word, "globalization". I thought learning and using English can be a globalization (*sic*), but I noticed it was not enough. We have learned only American English. To really promote globalization, we have to know about varieties of English in the world to communicate with people all over the world with English. (Student A)

Yet, though students' attitudes may have shifted toward a positive awareness about the diversity of Englishes spoken, native speakerist attitudes did prevail. Below, in her final assignment, Student B, for example, harbored negative perceptions about the quality of English teachers in Outer or Expanding Circle countries, and advocating for English classes to be taught by "native speakers" there:

> Teaching English in a country that originally spoke a different language requires a teacher who can speak like a native speaker in that country. It is also doubtful that English different from native English can be understood by others. This problem is something that I, as a Japanese, should think about, and I think it is a problem that is unlikely to be solved yet. (Student B)

Challenges in Implementation

All strategies we employed derived from current research on multilingualism and GE. While many successes can be claimed, there were unique challenges that we all encountered, as expressed below.

Patrick's Challenges

It will be true to say that the Japanese EFL English classroom can be a constraint for teaching GE. As I reflected on my teaching experiences, I felt I was trying to teach GE on a small island in the middle of a "Japanese-speaking ocean." When students moved out of the class, the default language use would invariably revert to Japanese. Students also have practically few opportunities to meet multilingual teachers or students on the campus and outside school. When I explained about English use in multilingual Singapore, I could sense it was difficult for students to visualize themselves living in a multilinguistic society and using ELF for communication with different ethnic groups. When I asked students to try code-switching as a way to understand how multilingual people communicate, my students looked bewildered. After teaching for several years, I realized that it is "unnatural" for Japanese EFL learners to code-switch between Japanese and English, as code-switching is a sophisticated linguistic tool for monolingual speakers to adopt; besides, some students may think code-switching is a language deficit and are reluctant to try it.

To help students understand the importance of code-switching in language learning, I explained to them the various reasons for code-switching in the linguistic landscape of Singapore. I also encouraged students to switch to their mother tongue language if they could not express their ideas in English.

Furthermore, it was also a challenge for me to capitalize on my knowledge of Japanese in my classroom instruction because as a non-native speaker of Japanese, my level of Japanese is simply not up to the mark to foster the metalinguistic awareness of the English language among my students. In addition, I have very little support from fellow colleagues (all are White Native English teachers) who typically endorse a monolingual approach to teaching English and have very little understanding of GEs or using multilingualism as a resource for ELT. School administrators have also fossilized the notion that the idealized English teacher is a White Native English-speaking teacher (Ng, 2018). Although at times I had experienced a deep sense of insecurity about my professional identity as a teacher of English, I continued to hone my teaching skills to meet students' expectations. On many occasions, I had received positive evaluation on my teaching from school administrators.

The ideology of native speakerism is also fairly deep-rooted among Japanese students. As is often the case, many students still do not believe that their Japanese-accented English has communicative valency and status. To help students embrace the ownership of English, I often tell them: Be proud of your Japanese English.

Japanese English is just as good as other varieties. I also constantly remind students of Kirkpatrick's view on the purpose of language (Kirkpatrick, 2007): Language is not just merely a tool for communication; language is also a tool to showcase our cultural identity.

Tiina's Challenges

As a TESOL professional, it has proven challenging at times to develop a legitimate teacher identity in Japan (Matikainen, 2019). While I am "fortunate" to embody the idealized "native speaker" in terms of my appearance—Caucasian with blond hair and blue eyes; in addition to my near-native command of English; sounding American—I strongly self-identify as being a non-native speaker of English. Frankly, I do not wish to be considered a "native" speaker of English because that obscures my linguistic and cultural background as well as diminishes my hard work of becoming a competent English user and an English teacher. As a TESOL professional, it is crucial for me to bring my "non-nativeness" to my classroom as it is a vital part of my professional and personal identity. However, in the Japanese context, both from institutional and societal perspectives, this is not always desirable or even possible (Matikainen, 2019). I believe that professional development involving reading literature, attending conferences, and meeting other non-native English speaker teachers has played an important role in allowing me to embrace my teacher identity and has made me feel confident and proud as a non-native English teacher.

In the classroom, the most challenging thing is the fact that Japan and my teaching context are monolingual. Creating multilingual experiences for most students in Japan is extremely challenging. Although a large majority of my students study abroad for a year, their English language learning experience in Japan involves mainly other Japanese students. Therefore, it is critical for language teachers to find creative ways to incorporate multilingualism, both ideologically and pedagogically, into their classrooms. For me, this means finding new ways to embrace and weave my multilingualism into my students' lives and our classrooms, enabling them to have at least a brief encounter with multilingualism during their university studies. For example, small acts such as teaching my students to greet me and each other in Finnish at the beginning or end of each class have an effect in creating a more multilingual atmosphere. In addition, something that can be done even in a monolingual teaching context is using teaching materials that do not conform to the typical native speaker ideology. For example, using authentic materials such as TED talks by non-native speakers of English, ELLLO listening practice by young people from around the world with different accents, and news reports in English from countries where English is not spoken as a first language can help students understand that English belongs to everyone.

Gregory's Challenges

One challenge I faced in the aforementioned course was generating interest in countries other than European countries for student research. To counter the tendency for students to adopt Eurocentric preferences in their research choices, I had to pre-select the countries to ensure a wider representation of regions and continents worldwide so that students could truly appreciate the linguacultural diversity of English. Because of this, one student found it informative: "learning how English is taught differs depending on [the] country, [and] the fact that English is used in that domain proves that it is the lingua franca of the world" (Student C).

Another challenge stems from handling students who still have a tendency to harbor native speakerist views. In my more recent version of the course, one of the students who presented on New Zealand, as a discussion question, asked her group audience if "New Zealand English should be promoted in favor of correct English," with "correct" English being synonymous with the hegemonic UK or American models. I was concerned about her use of the term "correct English" and cautioned her about it, worried that such notion of "correctness" was based on native speakerism. Nevertheless, the same student remarked in an essay "that the more we analyze characteristics of some varieties of English, the more possibilities we get to discover something new about history. I think it is a very interesting and exciting thing" (Student D). This shows that while students may still harbor restricted views about the English language, with exposure they can indeed begin to appreciate the diversity within the language. Therefore, teachers need to generate critical language awareness among their students by enabling them to challenge and question common-sense assumptions and ideologies about English varieties. One activity that could prove useful in critically examining beliefs about standard English ideology is a reflection task. In my class, for instance, students read about and responded to a video clip about Singapore's "Speak Good English Movement" promoted by the national government. During the task, they realized that there is an indelible connection between language and identity. For example, it enabled them to see how, in some respects, a top-down policy to regulate the use of Singlish, while intended by the government to improve English proficiency, could be viewed as prescriptive in the eyes of Singaporeans who view it as a marker of their identity.

Conclusions and Implications

As evident from our narratives, our decision to engage in multilingual practices is attributed to our personal beliefs about multilingualism as a resource for foreign language learning and our multilingual backgrounds and our identities as multilingual educators. Our collective stories in teaching pedagogies revealed significant insights into promoting multilingualism in the GELT classroom. We believe that it is important to help students conceptualize English as a multicultural language. Teachers must

also realize that the home language inevitably plays a role in helping students in acquiring English. Our narratives have also led us to believe that it is necessary to dismantle the ideology of native speakerism in the classroom, which may prevent students from adopting a positive attitude toward a linguacultural approach toward English.

Our attempt to forge a multilingual classroom has several implications for TESOL practitioners. We suggest that teachers should teach students cross-communications skills in English and international relations in the school curriculum. The focus of teaching instruction should deviate from the acquisition of a standard variety of English to a focus on learning "linguistic features, cultural information and communication strategies that will facilitate communication" (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 194). It is also important to help students adopt a critical attitude toward ELT. Language education programs should reflect the changes taking place in the use of English and allow students to critically reflect on the traditional practices of teaching English as a foreign language. Finally, in addition to encouraging students to identify and teach the changing features of the English language, there is a need to cultivate teachers' intercultural communication skills and encourage research on the changing nature of the English language and its pedagogical implications in the TESOL classroom.

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Chapter 11
Teaching English to Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students: Multicultural Pedagogy in Practice

Thi Thanh Tra Do and Thi My Linh Nguyen

Abstract Multilingualism has become a focus of language-in-policy worldwide in this era of globalization and internationalization.Multilingualism is of critical significance in a multilingual society such as Vietnam, where the language education policy supports both the mother tongue and indigenous languages while promoting a feverish demand for English as a foreign language. However, there are concerns regarding language-in-policy implementation in various contexts in Vietnam. This chapter addresses how Vietnamese primary English teachers (PETs) have shaped their teaching practice to teach ethnic minority students in rural and remote areas under the promulgation of Decision 1400/QĐ-TTg (Government of Vietnam in Đề án "Dạy và học ngoại ngữ trong hệ thống giáo dục quốc dân giai đoạn 2008–2020" [Project for Teaching and Learning Foreign Language in the National Education System for the 2008–2020 Period] (1400/QĐ-TTg). Government of Vietnam, Government of Vietnam. (2008)), which mandated English teaching into the primary curriculum. The study was designed within a theoretical framework based on the Vietnamese English Teacher Competency Framework (ETCF) and (Shulman in Harvard Educ Rev 57(1):1–23) framework of teacher knowledge. The data were collected from semi-structured interviews with eight primary English teachers teaching in rural and remote areas in Vietnam. The findings suggested that Vietnamese PETs, who were not prepared to teach in the primary sector, were struggling with teaching English to young students coming from diverse backgrounds. This study could extend discussions and research around school-based pedagogy in practice within various multicultural contexts. The study also recommends that policymakers and educational authorities support PETs teaching in rural and remote areas and improve multilingual education through enhanced professional development activities.

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Introduction

In this era of globalization, there has been a growing trend in many non-English-speaking countries, including Vietnam, for English language programs to be implemented from the early years of primary schooling. The promulgation of the Vietnam Government's Decision 1400/QĐ-TTg made in 2008 was a turning point for Vietnam's foreign language education in general and primary English teaching and learning in particular. The overarching aim of the decision is to enhance Vietnamese youth's foreign language capacity as a competitive advantage for the country's industrialization and modernization. Therefore, this decision aims at improving foreign language teaching and learning within the national education system to educate undergraduates who can confidently use foreign languages in a multilingual and multicultural environment (Government of Vietnam, 2008).

Since 2008, English has been made a compulsory subject in many primary schools across the country. Primary students (Grades 3, 4, and 5) are provided with 140 periods per year (four 35-min periods per week) of a foreign language as a compulsory subject (Ministry of Education and Training, 2018a). Students are expected to attain level A1 (Common European Framework of Reference for Language-CEFR) by the end of Year 5 (Government of Vietnam, 2008). It is the goal of the government that 100% of Vietnamese primary students (Grade 3–5) will have access to a 10-year-English program (Grade 3–12) by 2025 (Government of Vietnam, 2017). In addition to the first compulsory foreign language subject starting from Grade 3, the 2018 General Education Program also stated that primary schools with sufficient resources were encouraged to provide a foreign language as an optional subject to Grade 1 students (age 6) (Ministry of Education and Training, 2018a, 2018b). This decision is considered as an important turning point for English education at the primary level, but the question of how these goals can be achieved in rural and mountainous areas in Vietnam has been a significant concern. This is because in rural and mountainous areas, the inequity of access to education is a challenge (Stenman & Pettersson, 2020), and Vietnam is no exception. Similar to many multicultural societies, teacher education in Vietnam struggles to address the issues of access, equity, and excellence (Giacchino-Baker, 2007).

Inequality in English teaching and learning within the primary sector in Vietnam's rural and mountainous areas have been highlighted in some studies (Do, 2020; Nguyen & Ha, 2021). While urban primary students are offered extra English classes, better learning conditions, and better-qualified English teachers (Nguyen et al., 2016), primary students from ethnic minorities with low socioeconomic backgrounds experience language barriers and a shortage of support, basic resources, and qualified English teachers. Amongst these contextual challenges, the lack of English teachers who are prepared to deal with culturally and linguistically diverse learners is the most critical in rural and remote areas (Do, 2020).

Vietnam is home to 54 ethnic groups, of whom 53 are considered ethnic minorities, accounting for 14.6% of the country's total population. The minorities are scattered

throughout the country, with the majority located in less accessible upland, mountainous areas (Vietnamese Ethnic Council, 2018). Ethnic minority students and those from disadvantaged backgrounds are more likely to leave school and have lower academic achievement throughout their schooling. Thus, enabling, supporting, and encouraging such students is critical to ensuring they can reach their potential and not be left behind compared to their counterparts in the urban areas.

Teachers are the key to make education change (Fullan, 2016). Supporting English teachers working in mountainous and rural areas to teach ethnic minority students whose English is their third language is critical to boost the benefits of multilingualism. Multilingual students' language learning might be maximized if their prior existing linguistic and language learning knowledge is enhanced (Haukas, 2015). Therefore, it is critical to investigate how primary English teachers in mountainous and remote regions shape their teaching practice to teach ethnic minority students. It is significant because teachers working in disadvantaged areas are more likely to experience significant challenges to their health, well-being, and resilience (Day et al., 2007). These teachers need appropriate preparation and support to cope with the learning needs of students coming from diverse backgrounds. Such kinds of assistance are crucial to enhance educational equity due to the social divide between the urban and rural areas where teachers and students are more vulnerable. Promoting inclusive and equitable quality education for all has also been emphasized in the United Nations' 17 Sustainable Development Goals (United Nations, 2015). In response to this trend, teachers need to be equipped with knowledge and prerequisite skills to inform their teaching to be able to employ multilingual pedagogy for sustainable education.

Since the promulgation of the Decision 1400/QĐ-TTg, there has been ongoing concern regarding a mismatch between Government language policy goals and the reality in various Vietnamese contexts, especially in the rural and remote areas. English education in the primary sector experiences multilayered obstacles regarding the social and cultural factors of these locations. Amongst these challenges, human resources are one of the most critical concerns (Do, 2020). Vietnam experiences a lack of primary English teachers in terms of both quantity and quality, and this issue is manifest in the rural and remote areas of Vietnam (Aikman & Pridmore, 2001; Dennis et al., 2020; Do, 2020; Moon, 2005; Nguyen, 2011). While research in many multilingual contexts suggests there are various effective multilingual pedagogies that teachers can apply into their teaching context, to date, there has been no empirical study on multilingual Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in the context of the primary sector in Vietnam's rural and remote areas. Therefore, this study is expected to fill this gap. The findings are critical for not only the success of multilingual development programs in the future but also education equity across the regions in Vietnam and beyond in similar contexts.

This chapter describes how Vietnamese primary English teachers working in rural and remote areas shaped their teaching practice to teach ethnic minority students who were not fluent in Vietnamese under the light of the language policy 1400/QĐ-TTg enacted in 2008. In particular, this study sought to address the following research questions:

1. How were primary English teachers teaching in rural and mountainous areas prepared to teach diverse students?
2. What were primary English teachers' perceptions/beliefs about ethnic minority students' ability to learn English? What were their contextual challenges?
3. What strategies/multilingual approaches did they apply to teach these linguistically diverse students?

Multilingualism in Vietnam

In Kachru's original formulation, Vietnam belongs to the Expanding Circle Countries, where English is used as a foreign language (EFL) (Kachru, 1985). The pragmatic value of English has remained high in Vietnam since 1986 due to its global growth as a lingua franca and the overall reform of Vietnam's economy (Do, 2020). Multilingual education has also been recognized as an effective approach to prepare Vietnamese citizens with foreign language competence for globalization and internationalization while keeping the prestige value of Vietnamese (the national language) and indigenous languages. The Vietnamese Government has routinely promoted multilingual education and supported the development of writing systems for those indigenous languages. Children are encouraged to become literate in both Vietnamese and their indigenous languages (Government of Vietnam, 2010).

Well-equipped teachers are the key to helping students gain language capacities, a competency framework for English language teachers in Vietnam was developed in 2014. English teachers are expected to meet Vietnam's English Teacher Competence Framework (ETCF), in addition to all the requirements stated in the Education Laws and the Regulations for primary teachers (Government of Vietnam, 2019). This framework covers five domains: (i) Knowledge of language and curriculum, (ii) Knowledge of teaching, (iii) Knowledge of language learners, (iv) Professional attitudes and values in language teaching; and (v) Practice and context of language teaching (Ministry of Education & Training, 2014).

One of the subdomains of "Knowledge of language learners" is "Reflect on learners" values and prior learning' which is a vital indicator of Vietnam's ETCF. It is of particular importance for teachers whose students come from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds. From any professional learning program, it is prevalent to hear that an English teacher should have knowledge of their students' cultural values and be able to apply it to their own teaching contexts. However, this term seems to be interpreted in very different ways in various educational contexts. Under the expanding trend of English worldwide, the understanding of English language learners' diversity is also pivotal (De Jong, 2019; Villegas et al., 2018). In Vietnam's complex EFL teaching context, "one-size-fits-all" programs are no longer applicable nationwide. Therefore, teachers should be expected to have the knowledge and skills to respond to the requirements and expectations of teaching multilingual students in multicultural contexts.

In this chapter, the term "multilingual student" refers to ethnic minority students whose first language is not Vietnamese and who have been identified as needing language support (Vietnamese Ethnic Council, 2018). These students come from various language groups, including Thai, Hmong, Dao, and so forth. They use Vietnamese at school as the official language of instruction and might/might not use their own language (hereafter will be their "mother tongue" or "indigenous languages" at home with their parents and/or learn English as a foreign language. This group can be differentiated from other Vietnamese students who learn English as a foreign language, referred to as *English learners* in language policy in Vietnam. In this sense, our use of "multilingualism" matches with a common definition in the field of multilingual literature as "the many languages of societal groups and not of individuals" (García & Li, 2014, p. 11).

Multilingual pedagogy is perceived differently in teachers' teaching practices in various contexts. From rejection to engagement, in which multilingualism is considered as either an obstacle to or a resource for learning, "acceptance" is in the middle of these two ends where teachers value multilingualism as a kind of support to students' learning, but its benefits are not maximized due to limited knowledge and expertise (French, 2019). Within the context of the primary sector in Vietnam's rural and remote areas, multilingualism is perceived as an obstacle to learning. Primary English teachers (PETs) faced many contextual challenges to teach English to diverse students who were not fluent in Vietnamese. The most significant challenge is the language barrier which prevents these students from learning English (Do, 2020). In light of TESOL re-imagination, indigenous languages can be recognized and scaffolded with English teaching and learning via multilingual communication (Raza et al., 2021). For the equity of diverse groups in such contexts, cultural responsiveness has been strongly recommended (Do, 2020).

Culturally responsive teaching is defined as a method that considers different ethnic students' heritages, experiences, and perspectives as conduits to facilitate teaching practice (Gay, 2002). Teachers are expected to have multicultural competences to help diverse students learn more about their own and others' cultures for their equity, community membership development, engagement, and social transformation. This teaching approach involves and considers "what to teach, why to teach, how to teach, and to whom to teach with respect to ethnic, racial, cultural, and social diversity" (Gay, 2015, pp. 124–125). One of the most important components of culturally responsive teaching is teachers' beliefs about students' ethnic, racial, and cultural diversity and their ability to achieve academic knowledge and skills (Gay, 2015; Young, 2010). Thus, in this study, we want to explore how primary English teachers shape their practice to teach multilingual students in Vietnam's rural and remote areas.

The Study

Research Context

Within the context of Vietnam, the Northwestern mountainous region is characterized by the highest density of ethnic minorities, which comprise from 70 to 80% of the overall population. This region has the highest rate of poverty, the rates of poor and borderline poor households in 2017 were 28.12% compared to 6.72% nationwide (Vietnamese Ethnic Council, 2018). Regarding education, the literacy rate among the population aged above 15 in the region is the lowest of the six regions at 87.3%, compared with 93.5% nationally (Tran et al., 2018). The Northwestern mountainous region faces many challenges due to its segregation, mountainous geography, high concentration of ethnic minorities, poverty, shortage of qualified teachers, and lack of teaching and learning resources (Bui et al., 2019; Do, 2020; Tran et al., 2018).

Research Design and Procedure

This chapter reports qualitative data analysis of a larger project (Do, 2020) collected from semi-structured interviews. Do's (2020) study was based on Schuman's (1987) teacher knowledge framework and Vietnam's ETCF, in which she investigated English teachers' knowledge, perceptions, and practices within the context of the primary sector in Vietnam. The participants of the current study were eight (one male and seven females) English teachers teaching in the rural and remote primary schools in the Northwest of Vietnam. They were novice teachers, having fewer than five years of English teaching experience. We used pseudonyms in the findings section. Each was interviewed once, either face-to-face or online, for approximately between 45 min and one hour. The interviews focused on the challenges that PETs faced while teaching multilingual students, the interview protocols were developed for these PETs. The protocols consisted of 10 core questions (each with follow-up questions). The questions elicited critical information regarding whether they had been adequately prepared to teach in the primary sector, their beliefs about ethnic minority students' ability to learn English, their multilingual approach/strategies, as well as any contextual challenges they faced when teaching multilingual students in the rural and remote areas. Qualitative data were analyzed using thematic analysis with the help of NVivo 12 to identify PETs' readiness to teach multilingual students, their beliefs about students' ability to learn English, the challenges they faced and contextual factors that impacted their teaching practice. The interview transcriptions were also sent back to the interviewees for member checking.

Findings

From the teacher's perspective, the study examined the evidence in relation to the challenges of teaching multilingual students. Three main themes include (a) inadequate preparation in their pre-service teacher education programs, (b) teachers' beliefs about students' language ability and the role of English in rural and remote areas, and (c) strategies they applied to work with multilingual students. The key findings on each of these themes are set out in the next section.

Inadequate Preparation

PETs were not adequately prepared to teach English to young students coming from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds. All the interviewees reported that they were prepared to teach English at high schools, not primary. They were not confident in their English proficiency and teaching methodologies, especially dealing with diverse students from different ethnic groups. For example, Hoa, who had three years of teaching experience at a remote primary school, said:

> I enrolled in a part-time course to be a high school English teacher. We did learn English teaching methodology, but nothing about teaching English to young learners. To be honest, I was not confident with my English proficiency, but it was alright here at the primary level because of my students' limited English. They were struggling with understanding even when I used Vietnamese. It was really hard for me to explain to them, for example, what a word means, how to say something in English. I did not know where to start, how to say it so my kids could understand what I said, especially my ethnic students. Eighty percent of my students were from ethnic minority groups, they were not fluent in Vietnamese. I did not know how to teach them effectively! (Interview with Hoa, English translation)

Pedagogical content knowledge was a concern for all participants. They claimed that they could not use the knowledge and skills from their training in such a resource-poor context where students had very limited Vietnamese. They all admitted that they were struggling with finding appropriate methods to teach the students of ethnic minority backgrounds in rural areas. Another teacher, Ngoc, who had four years teaching at a secondary school, added:

> At first, I thought teaching Grade 3 and 4 was easy because the new words and structures were not difficult, just straightforward explaining like I did with my secondary students. But my students did not understand; I did not know how to explain it, I had the feeling of failure. I recognized that I had to find ways to make things simple for kids to understand. Teaching English to ethnic students was much more challenging because their Vietnamese is not good. I often got stuck with abstract words as many words do not seem to exist in their mother tongues. I wish I knew their indigenous languages so it may be easier for them. (Interview with Ngoc, English translation)

The findings indicated that these PETs had been inadequately prepared to teach diverse primary students, especially those learners without strong Vietnamese language skills. They all valued knowledge of teaching over knowledge of the English

language. These teachers failed to take into account the diverse students' linguistically and culturally different backgrounds in their own teaching methodologies. Inadequately trained English teachers have been considered a significant problem in developing countries where English is a foreign language (Baldauf et al., 2010; Copland & Garton, 2014), and Vietnam is no exception (Copland et al., 2014; Hayes, 2008). The situation is worse in the rural and remote areas due to its remote geography, high concentration of ethnic minorities, and poverty. Therefore, improving the preparation to support PETs working with multilingual students in such contexts is critical in light of the ideal of equity in education for all.

Teachers' Beliefs

Almost all interviewees (six out of eight) questioned whether or not the ethnic minority students could learn English or not during their first-time teaching in the mountainous areas. The feeling of vagueness and uncertainty grew stronger, shaped their teaching practices, and impacted their motivations. They struggled and had many concerns regarding how to teach English to ethnic minority students from disadvantaged backgrounds who were not fluent in Vietnamese. Most of them believed that their students could not learn English. Thu reported:

> Eighty percent of my students are Thai, Hmong, Khmer, etc. I still really don't know if students in rural areas can learn English or not. I see no reason for teaching English here, after three years teaching English at this school, I found my students had learnt nothing when they finished Grade 5. They just remembered some words, I guess. They do not even know how to say basic greetings in English. English is too hard for them; how can they learn another foreign language while they are still struggling with Vietnamese. My colleagues who teach Vietnamese often question me about what I do in my class as they don't think I can teach them English. I myself find that's reasonable. (Interview with Thu, English translation)

The importance of English has been recognized and is valued in the central and urban areas, but not in the rural and remote regions. The participants were vague about English learning and teaching in remote areas where schooling is not valued and recognized, especially by those from ethnic minority groups. These assumptions partly contributed to their beliefs about multilingual students' ability to learn a foreign language. Huong shared:

> The majority of my students are coming from an ethnic minority, most of them live in poverty, many do not have enough food and warm clothes. They are not interested in learning, let alone English! That's common and fair enough because they have to survive first. It might be the reason they do not like school, some have to look after siblings or do housework, and sometimes they do not come to school, especially during harvest time. (Interview with Huong, English translation)

Teachers' perceptions about students' abilities influenced their practice (Do, 2020; Gay, 2015; Young, 2010). With a shared belief that learning English was too hard for these multilingual students, six out of eight agreed that the current textbook was too difficult for their students. Therefore, removing some activities and parts from

the English textbook was reported to be the most common strategy used by PETs teaching multilingual students. They had many excuses to cut and remove the core textbooks, for example, "My students never do homework, so the textbook is too much for them" (Hoa); "I do not have enough time to teach speaking or listening because most of my time is spent on writing new words on the board because my students do not have the textbooks" (Ngoc); "It often takes me more than half of the time each lesson to teach new vocabulary" (Nam); or "I do not ask my students to do much, some parts of the textbook are too much because most of them do not do homework" (Huong).

Teachers' trust toward students' abilities is a mediator for student achievement (Gay, 2015). Moreover, high expectations matter for all students, which is particularly important for students from disadvantaged backgrounds (NSW Department of Education, 2020). A critical issue raised within this research is that teachers' assumptions about students' abilities ultimately limit ethnic minority students' learning. While urban students are sent to extra English classes after school, the textbook is too much for diverse students in rural and remote areas. Along with the requirement for no child to be left behind, PETs should be supported with not only English knowledge but also bilingual pedagogies.

A Look at the Bright Side

This part highlights the pedagogical practices of two outstanding PETs who tailored their practice to suit multilingual students' needs in the remote areas where learning a foreign language might be seen as an irrelevance. These two PETs were born and grew up in the Northwest and are also from different ethnic backgrounds. Accepting and engaging students' multicultural backgrounds and resources were crucial to working with linguistically diverse students, and that experience played a crucial role in their professional identity. Considering multilingual students' linguistic backgrounds and the language barrier, they tried to apply various strategies in their classes to promote students' understanding. La stated:

> My school belongs to the "135 area" and more than 80% of my students are ethnic minorities, including Thai, Muong, Hmong, etc. They speak their indigenous languages at home and Vietnamese at school, but they use their home language in small groups whose members share the same language. Many students are not good at Vietnamese, so I avoid explanation as much as I can. I use body language a lot. In my class, I use both Vietnamese, English, and even Thai (I am Thai), and it works well for Thai students but not for all. For abstract words, I find the words in the Thai language with the same meaning. I use chants, let my students speak in chorus a lot. When I was small, I learnt a lot of traditional Thai chants from my grandmother, so I think it's easier for my kids to remember. I use a lot of repetition, visual aids, and pictures. (Interview with La, English translation)

The other teacher who had worked as a tour guide for three years before starting her teaching career, also agreed with the use of codeswitching and translanguaging. Taking her experiences as a tour guide into class, she believed that being motivated

and having a reason to share are most important for students' English learning. Therefore, she reported that she prioritized personalizing and caring to make students feel secure and comfortable in the class. This is especially important for those coming from disadvantaged backgrounds like ethnic minority students. She added:

> I see children in tourist towns speak English easily and naturally, so I let my students imitate and talk about something related to their lives as much as I can. I do not ask them to write much. It seems that ethnic students are more interested in oral language compared with written language. To do that, you have to build a good relationship with your students and make them feel comfortable in your class. My students come from 6 ethnic groups, so I always show that I care about everyone. For example, when I taught "Hello," I asked my class how to say hello in their languages, and we all learnt together. Consulting with the community and parents is one thing I always consider. Most of them are illiterate and can't speak Vietnamese fluently. I have learnt some words in different languages. (Interview with My, English translation)

Personalizing and recognizing the value and worth of the various ethnic mother tongues were reported to be effective strategies for multilingual students. It is significant because students of diverse backgrounds can achieve more when they are offered opportunities to learn in culturally familiar ways (Harry, 1992). Therefore, teachers' multicultural competence is of vital importance for classrooms where teacher and students come from different cultural backgrounds (Weinstein et al., 2004).

Looking Ahead

This chapter described how PETs have sought to teach English to primary students of diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds in the Northwestern mountainous region of Vietnam in light of Decision 1400 made in 2008. The findings identified PETs faced multi challenges of teaching multilingual students due to inadequate pre-service training, beliefs about the language learning ability of ethnic minority students as well as the role of English in the rural and remote areas. Multilingualism was perceived as an obstacle to language learning and teaching. However, there were still some exemplary teachers who accepted and acknowledged their students' diversity rather than seeing learning difficulties and who created various learning opportunities tailored for their ethnically diverse students' educational needs. Therefore, it is critical to identify the demands on PETs and allow questions to be raised about the nature of pre-service preparation and ongoing professional development for teachers teaching multilingual students. PETs need to have support in tackling the contextual challenges they face in their everyday teaching situations.

Developing teachers' multicultural competencies is critical for teachers teaching students of diverse backgrounds. This is needed because schools are becoming increasingly culturally and linguistically diverse. Teachers should help students learn more not only about their own but also about others' cultures to avoid pejorative beliefs. Multilingual education with cultural diversity should be considered in EFL

teacher training programs. It is vital to support them to construct their own context-sensitive pedagogical knowledge (Kumaravadivelu, 2001) to be embedded within the sociocultural features of remote rural areas so they can cope with students of diverse backgrounds. Moreover, training and recruiting ethnic minority teachers to work in their own communities might be an effective approach to the improvement and growth of multilingual programs.

Changing PETs' beliefs and assumptions about ethnic minority students' learning English is one important component of culturally responsive teaching. This approach that considers ethnic, cultural, and linguistic pluralism as a "natural attribute of humankind" and a "necessary component of quality education" (Gay, 2015, p.125) should be emphasized in teacher preparation and professional learning programs. This is because culturally responsive teaching is vital to improving outcomes and academic achievement of ethnically, culturally, and linguistically diverse students (Gay, 2015; Malo-Juvera et al., 2018).

Research conducted in the Northwestern region indicated that teaching should be tailored to the context of rural schools and communities to ensure that all students, including both ethnic minority and majority, have the same equity of access, resources, and opportunity in schools (Dennis et al., 2020). However, teachers' practice was not only influenced by their knowledge, skills, and beliefs but also the broader social and policy context. This study provides robust evidence to teacher educators, policymakers, curriculum and development planners to support teachers to focus on multicultural education, to make it an integral part of teaching practice. Hopefully, the need of every diverse student coming from any cultural background will be responded to and taken into account.

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Chapter 12
Multilingual Teaching of English Language in Higher Education in Bangladesh: A Critical Perspective

Tania Rahman

Abstract Drawing on Teng's model of agency (in Autonomy, agency, and identity in teaching and learning English as a foreign language, Springer, Teng, Springer, 2019) and qualitative case studies of 5 teachers and 10 students of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) writing courses at a Bangladeshi private university, this chapter provides an empirical justification of bi-/multilingual Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in higher education classes of English language teaching in Bangladesh. The overall aim of the chapter is to shed light on the significance of the agencies of individual local actors to opt for or reject bilingual practices in the enactment of the institutional language policy in a particular sociocultural context of English language learning. The chapter shows how teachers and English as a foreign language (EFL) learners struggle to enact an English-only policy in EAP writing courses at a private university in Bangladesh and how they achieve their intended course learning outcomes through their bilingual practices in classrooms. Hence, a balanced bilingual policy is proposed for English language teaching in higher education in Bangladesh.

Introduction

In non-native contexts, where English is a second or a foreign language, strict adherence to English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in higher education has been put to question. Students as well as teachers have voiced their struggles and failures in learning and teaching either the content knowledge and skills in their respective disciplines or mastering English for such purposes and beyond. As a response to these challenges, there is a growing body of research attesting bi-/multilingual instructional practices allowing the use of the first language or L1 to facilitate English language learning to serve the purposes mentioned above.

Higher education offered by the private sector in Bangladesh is heavily based on EMI (Rahman et al., 2019; Sultana, 2014). In Bangladesh, a small ratio of the

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wealthy elites can afford to send their children to English medium schools where the use of the mother tongue is discouraged, and only English is encouraged to impart education providing English as a second language environment for the graduates of these schools. At private universities in Bangladesh, the emphasis on English as the only medium of instruction is still prevailing despite the inflow of more students with English as a foreign language (EFL) background graduating from schools and institutions which have alternative mediums of instruction in languages such as the national language Bangla, Urdu, Arabic, or other languages. The English-only policy and learning experiences of students of the private universities in Bangladesh have been found to be "not so rewarding for all the students" (Sultana, 2014, p. 14). Some of the major struggles of the learners in learning in an English-only environment of the Bangladeshi private universities are time consuming for adjusting with the English-only environment of the universities, passing all the required English courses, and low performance in the English courses (Sultana, 2014). The struggles of the learners point toward not only a gap between the micro-level pedagogic practices of these universities and the "linguistic competence" of the learners (Sultana, 2014, p. 14) but also an obstruction to the achievement of the intended learning outcomes to realize the mission and vision of the universities.

Broadly, drawing on Teng's (2019) model of agency, this chapter provides an empirical justification of bi-/multilingual Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in higher education classes of English language teaching in Bangladesh. The chapter shows how teachers and EFL learners struggle to enact an English-only policy in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) writing courses at a private university in Bangladesh, and how they achieve their intended course learning outcomes through their bilingual practices in classrooms. To explore this perspective, the chapter attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. How do teachers and learners of EAP writing courses at a private university in Bangladesh activate their respective agentic roles for learning academic writing in EAP courses though an English-only policy?
2. What are the attitudes of the teachers and learners of EAP writing courses at a private university in Bangladesh toward the use of Bangla in learning academic writing in an EMI context?
3. What are the patterns of translanguaging strategies that the Bangladeshi teachers and learners use as their agentic actions to achieve their intended learning outcomes in the EAP writing courses at the university?

Based on the sociocultural theory of teaching and learning, this chapter explores the idea of "agency" as a "socially mediated" construct (Teng, 2019, p. 78), and how teachers and learners in a non-native English learning environment activate their agencies in the learning process by negotiating their respective agentic roles to achieve their intended learning outcomes in their local teaching contexts. With this focus in view, the chapter investigates how teachers and learners of some EAP writing courses struggle and collaborate in teaching and learning English at the tertiary level at a Bangladeshi private university. Because the inconsistent and unstable national language-in-education policy has posed learning challenges for the students from

diverse language backgrounds, the chapter suggests that a balanced multilingual language-in-education policy for the Bangladeshi higher education should be adopted for a sustainable solution.

Background: English Language in Higher Education in Bangladesh

The use of English in higher education in Bangladesh is problematic and ambiguous in both institutional use and policymaking. At present, there is no consistent medium of instruction policy for higher education in Bangladesh. It is also not clear in the National Education Policy of 2010 which language, Bangla or English, should be the medium of instruction at the higher education level in Bangladesh (Rahman & Phyak, 2021). Only the Private University Act, passed in 1992 and endorsing the foundation of private universities in the country, emphasized English as the medium of instruction for the private universities (Islam & Hashim, 2019).

The uses of Bangla and English in Bangladeshi higher education institutes (HEIs) are also dichotomous. Currently, mainly two types of institutions offer tertiary education in Bangladesh: public or government-funded universities and privately-owned universities. According to the University Grants Commission of Bangladesh, out of a total of 152 universities in Bangladesh, 49 are public universities and 103 are private universities (University Grants Commission, 2018). Alongside these universities, undergraduate degrees are also offered by affiliated colleges under a unified government tertiary institution called the National University as well as the Madrasahs (Rahman & Phyak, 2021; Rahman et al., 2019). Bangla is used at large for teaching and learning in the humanities and social sciences institutions, but English is the main medium of instruction in disciplines such as medicine, engineering, science, and technology at the public universities. Conversely, a different scenario can be noticed in the private universities which largely emphasize EMI policy in Bangladesh (Sultana, 2014). Since the private universities have an “English-only” environment in which there are “strict rules about the enforcement of English,” the students are required to possess English language skills for better academic performances at these universities, and these institutions also “offer remedial English courses for the weaker students” to pass the courses and achieve their degrees (Sultana, 2014, p. 14). However, attempts like offering the remedial courses to students with weaker skills in English have not been successful because of the “long time to adjust with the English-only environment of the university” for many students who “struggle to pass all the prerequisite English courses” and “also do not perform well in the courses in which they need to read and write in English” (Sultana, 2014, p. 14).

Even though the Private University Act of 1992 mandated that English should be the medium of instruction at private universities in Bangladesh, studies have shown signs of problems in the implementation of an English-only policy at such institutions in Bangladesh. Islam (2013), for example, in his study on seventeen teachers and

thirty-seven undergraduate students studying in different disciplines mentioned that the medium of instruction policies of the private universities in Bangladesh which are informed by the higher education policy in the private sector at large "actualized" the domination of English and forced Bangla to a "peripheral existence" (p. 131) in such institutions, particularly to conduct academic activities since these activities are supposed to be performed mainly in English in such institutions. Besides cultural alienation, one major problem facing students studying through EMI at Bangladeshi private universities is the problem regarding understanding content due to low proficiency in English. Due to their low proficiency in English, the students in the study conducted by Islam (2013), for example, spoke about instructions in Bangla and the use of available Bangla materials to help them understand the lectures and contents of the courses taught in English. Besides the problems, the students and the teachers in the study acknowledged the value of learning through an English medium instruction to boost their social status and also improve job prospects. Another study by Sultana (2014) revealed data regarding how English affected the on-campus socialization, self-image, identity, and chances of learning of the participants most of whom were private university students. The participants of the study, all graduates of Bangla medium schools in and outside the capital Dhaka, shared experiences which indicated that "the medium of instruction had turned the classroom into a place of tension and struggle for them. They did not have the access to the COP [Community of Practice] of the university" (p. 30). The responses of the participants in the study showed results such as estrangement from peers from different medium of instruction backgrounds, struggles of power, alienation in academic socialization experiences, harboring negative feelings such as embarrassment, fear of making mistakes, and inferiority along with reduced chances of learning, acceptance of discrimination as natural, and reduced self-esteem.

The Study

Research Context

The study took place at the Department of English and Modern Languages (DEML) of North South University (NSU), the first private university in Bangladesh which started functioning in 1992 in Dhaka, the capital of Bangladesh. In general, NSU is modeled on US universities and approved by the University Grants Commission (UGC) of Bangladesh, the highest accrediting authority of higher education of the country. Currently, NSU has over twenty thousand students and 350 full-time staff members. The Department of English first officially offered the BA in English program in Summer 1997 and introduced the MA in English program in Spring 2005 (Abedin, 2016). In 2015, the Institute of Modern Languages was merged with the Department of English and the current name, Department of English and Modern Languages, came into being. The BA and MA programs are currently offered in

three streams: English Literature, Linguistics, and TESOL. 40 core and 19 adjunct faculty members are currently teaching credit and non-credit general and specialized courses in English as well as other specialized fields related to English language, literature, and education.

The department offers 3 EAP writing courses for 3 different proficiency levels: introductory, intermediate, and advanced levels. The courses will be referred to as EAP 1, EAP 2, and EAP 3 in the chapter. EAP 1 focuses on basic writing skills such as paragraph writing along with grammatical and reading skills, EAP 2 on expository essay writing, and EAP 3 on argumentative writing such as writing research papers. The intended learning outcomes of the courses relate to the respective foci of the courses.

Participants

Five faculty members and ten undergraduate students from the Department of English and Modern Languages participated in the study. In the teachers' group, the age of the participants ranged from 32 to 50 years. All participants in this group were females. The educational qualifications of the participants ranged from Master of Arts, Master in Education to Ph.D. specializing in areas such as English literature, linguistics, applied linguistics, applied linguistics and English language teaching (ELT), and TESOL. The number of years of the participants' teaching experience at the current teaching institution ranged from 2 to 8 years. Except one participant, all the rest of the participants have been teaching undergraduate courses at the department. All of the participants have been teaching one or more EAP writing courses at the department since the start of their teaching at the current institution.

The student participants in this study were grouped into two subgroups: one student group in the study comprised 5 students from different disciplines currently studying EAP writing courses at the university in the research context. Three of the participants were female while 2 were male students. The age of the participants in this group ranged from 19 to 23 years. Another group comprised students from the Department of English and Modern Languages who have completed at least some of the EAP writing courses at the same university. Except one male, the rest of the participants were all female students. In the students' group, the age of the participants ranged from 20 to 21 years. All student participants completed at least 2 semesters at the department. Among the students in the first group, 3 had English medium of instruction background and 2 had Bangla medium of instruction background, whereas in the second group, 2 had English medium of instruction background and 3 had Bangla medium of instruction background.

Data Collection and Analysis

The case study design of the present study used semi-structured interviews with teachers and focus group discussions (FGD) with students to collect data. All interviews and FGDs were conducted online to maintain social distancing due to COVID-19 pandemic situation. The participants have been contacted via phone communications, sms, emails, or social media chats to take part in the interviews and FGDs. The interviews and FGDs for this study took place between early-August 2021 and mid-October 2021. Written informed consent was gained from the participants expressing their willingness to participate in the study.

The teachers were interviewed individually for the study since it was difficult to gather the teachers at a single meeting place and time due to their varying teaching schedules. The interview protocols of Castillo-Montoya (2016) and Jacob and Furgerson (2012) were followed to design and conduct the interviews. Each participant in the teacher group was interviewed individually for 45–80 minutes. The interviews were conducted mainly in English with very little switching between English and Bangla. The interviews were semi-structured, but in order to extract data on their personal attitudes, beliefs, and strategies, the teacher participants were asked to share their life stories related to teaching writing in English in the Bangladeshi context. So, alongside some structured and scripted questions, the teacher interviewees were also given the freedom to elaborate in their own pace and manner on certain points related to their life stories of teaching English at the research site. As the teachers were interviewed individually, the interviews took place in a more informal, conversational manner.

Two focus group discussions were conducted with the students. Between the two focus groups, one group comprised participants who were students of the Department of English and Modern Languages, and another group comprised students of three other disciplines: Electrical and Computer Engineering, Biochemistry and Microbiology, and Management. At the end of each FGD session, informal post-FGD conversations took place between the researcher and the students with non-English medium schooling background, as the researcher was aware of self-consciousness issues that have been reported as noticeable among students with non-English medium backgrounds (e.g., Sultana, 2014). Adapted from Mack et al. (2005) and based on the Focus Group Discussions Guidelines by the Trinity College of Arts & Science at Duke University (2005), McNamara (1999) and Sharken-Simon (1999), standard FGD procedures were followed including asking probing, engaging, follow-up, and exit questions. The probing and follow-up questions included queries regarding the EAP writing courses the student participants undertook at the research site, their learning experiences in the courses, and their use of English and Bangla inside and outside the classrooms. The engaging questions included queries on their attitudes, feelings, and actions about the use of English and Bangla inside and outside the classrooms by themselves and their teachers. The FGDs ended with exit questions on their expectations about the use of English and Bangla in the classrooms in the EMI setting. The researcher of the study moderated the FGD sessions and took

notes in online mode due to the pandemic situation. The notes were expanded later for clarification. The FGDs were conducted for 60–90 min including the post-FGD conversations. For the FGDs, English and Bangla were used for asking questions, clarifications, etc. The researcher had to switch between English and Bangla to build rapport with the participants during the FGD sessions. However, the researcher used Bangla in post-FGDs in her interactions with the participants to gather their honest opinions.

Both the interview and the FGD data were analyzed using an inductive qualitative content analysis (Dörnyei, 2007). Following the inductive approach, major themes were identified by reading the data repeatedly. Three themes were identified in the analyses of both the teacher and student data: (1) attitudes toward EMI policy in teaching and learning academic writing, (2) preference for Bangla and/or English in teaching and learning academic writing, and (3) struggles of EAP teachers and students and patterns of translanguaging as teaching—learning strategies in EAP writing classroom, which are discussed in detail in the following section. Two types of coding have been used in this study to represent the teacher and student participants based on the coding schemes used in Islam (2013) and Sultana (2014). Each teacher participant is referred to as "T" accompanied by a numerical symbol and the student participants as "S" followed by the same. Students with English medium background are hitherto referred to as EM students and students with non-English medium background are referred to as NEM students.

Results and Findings

The data in this study show that even though all EAP teachers and most of the student participants of the study expressed opinions in favor of the EMI policy for teaching and learning in EAP writing courses, both the teachers and the student participants with non-English medium background acknowledged the need for translanguaging practices as more effective strategies for teaching and learning writing in EAP classes. The EAP teachers in general do not reject the bilingual translanguaging but keep a lenient attitude to encourage students to use English more and more in class.

The participant teachers shared their struggles with maintaining the English-only policy in class with weaker students to engage them in class activities. T3, for example, shared how she struggles to make her students speak in English in class and how she tries to strike a balance between the demands of her workplace policy and meeting the students' needs by listening to them:

> They [students] don't always want to speak in English in class. I have to work hard with the weaker ones because they struggle with finding the right words to express themselves. [T3]

The teachers also shared their struggles in eliciting responses in standard English from them:

> I have seen a few of my freshmen students, especially those coming from the Bangla medium schools, writing in awkward phrasing, I mean I think they try to paraphrase but not with

> the appropriate English phrases, they mix English with Bangla words, they make English sentences in Bangla sentence format, I mean, they use their own translations which often make the sentences awkward. And I need to explain to them why it's so which sometimes is time consuming during class. [T2]

The teachers also shared how they make the students aware of English for academic and non-academic purposes in EAP writing classes:

> I think nowadays it's become almost like a common trend with students to use acronyms and contractions in their writings. I tell my students that they shouldn't use these in their essays and why. Because I feel if I scold them, they won't listen to me. So I reason with them showing them the difference between writing for exams and writing for social media, for example. [T5]

The teachers also share about how they negotiate with the student responses—by providing corrective feedback during after-class sessions:

> So I ask the students to see me during office hours to get their problems solved. During the out of class sessions, I show them the problems and give them suggestions to overcome them. [T2]

The teachers adopt a lenient stance by listening to their questions in Bangla, but encouraging them to use English as much as possible, reminding them about the university policy not in a punitive way but in a more rational and explanatory manner:

> I motivate them to speak English in class, but then again, I try to keep an open mind to listen to their problems, even if they share their problems in Bangla to me. But I respond to them in English. [T3]

The teachers opt for English to use in their lecture delivery and class management. They take a tolerant stance toward weak students and do not penalize them for using Bangla in the classroom but are in favor of the EMI policy; they hold the belief that English should be taught through English-only, even though translanguaging practices are strategies that they sometimes use for student engagement in lessons inside classroom and also in out-of-class interactions for student understandings:

> I use English in my lectures and class discussions even though I listen to some of my students when they ask me questions in Bangla. I remind them that they should try to speak in English next time in class…In my office, I speak in a way that they would understand. [T3]

The students have different opinions and attitudes toward applying EMI in EAP writing classes. The EM students mostly support EMI for convenience of communication and skill development, whereas the NEM students support EMI for upward social status, better job prospect, and skill development. The EM student participants supported the use of English in lecture delivery and class discussions. They think that English should be taught through English which is good for their English skill development:

> I think teachers should use English to us all the time, otherwise how will we learn it? In my school, teachers were very strict about speaking and writing in English all the time, and that helped me learn English. I think we should have that at university too. [S3]

The NEM students, however, vary in opting for English or Bangla. Some students opt for Bangla for asking questions, whereas others think they should practice English more and more to improve their English skills:

> We should practice English more so that we can speak and write fluently. It will be good for us because then we will be able to do well in exams and get good jobs. It will also improve our status and we can hang around with more friends. [S1]

Some NEM students stayed quiet in the presence of their EM peers during the FGDs, but opened up when their EM counterparts left the discussions. During post-FGD informal conversations, these NEM students shared their experiences of their English learning difficulties and also their feelings of embarrassment to talk about their linguistic limitations in front of their EM peers. They shared that they feel more "comfortable" and "confident" when they are allowed to use Bangla in classroom interactions such as while asking questions, responding, explanations, clarifications of abstract concepts and difficult terms, etc.:

> I feel very uneasy when I cannot speak in English as good as my English medium friends. I had problems in understanding one of my writing teachers here since she spoke British English. I could not catch most of what she said in class, so I'd ask my classmates after the class to help me with understanding what she spoke about in that class…..my teacher asked me to ask her questions but as I didn't understand her accent, I asked my classmates instead. [S9]

The participant NEM students mentioned various translanguaging strategies that they apply in drafting their written assignments during and after writing classes. They mentioned writing Bangla meanings for abstract concepts and difficult terms and vocabulary by using online English to Bangla dictionaries while taking notes, drawing signs and pictures, googling images online, consulting English grammar books that they had in school days, chatting in student groups in the informal online student discussions, etc.

From the findings, it is noticeable that the teachers and the learners with non-English medium background in a non-native EMI context struggle to cope with the demands of the EMI policy of the institution. Both the learners and the teachers decide on when to use English and Bangla or the L1, i.e., during in-class discussions or out-of-class meetings, and how to use the languages, e.g., teachers using English during lecture delivery and listening to the students if they speak in Bangla in response to their questions in English. The teachers adopt a lenient approach by listening to the students, whereas the struggling students take help from peers to cope with challenges such as teachers' foreign accent as possible strategies to cope with the challenges emerging with the English-only policy of the institution.

The findings in this study echo some of the results of earlier studies related to problems in implementing EMI in non-native contexts such as learners' comprehension-related problems like understanding teachers' accents (e.g., Ammon & McConnell, 2002; Tange, 2010) and learners' low self-esteem and linguistic ideology (e.g., Islam, 2013; Sultana, 2014). However, the major finding in this study shows how the teachers and the learners navigate through the challenges posed by the EMI context by resorting to solutions in their own time and space, e.g., the out-of-class meetings

during the office hours held at the office of the faculty members. The learners also report their own online and offline strategies to use the L1 to learn writing in English. Although they opt for English as the medium of instruction, there is evidence that the strict adherence to English-only policy is problematic for students with non-English medium background.

In Teng's (2019) conceptualization, contextual limitations affect teachers' agentic capacities in negotiating the gap between the reality of their teaching contexts and the idealistic notions in policies, who, in turn, act toward fostering changes and innovations in their own teaching contexts. Such changes and innovations are not isolated, and these changes are brought about in interaction between the teachers and their learners as participants in the teaching and learning process. Hence, the agentic behaviors of the teachers in such scenarios are socially mediated and constructed. As the data in the present study show, not only the teachers but the learners also activate their agentic preferences and decisions to teach and learn English, sometimes through English-only and sometimes through Bangla, at their own convenience, to facilitate teaching and learning in the EMI context. Constrained by the English-only policy, the teachers are forced to use English in the classrooms, but they activate their agentic decisions of helping weaker students learn English by explaining in Bangla in out-of-class conversations during their office hours and encouraging the learners to use English during class time. Likewise, the students also struggle between following the EMI policy of learning English through English-only during class hours but opting for learning English through Bangla in their out-of-class study hours. In this process of teaching and learning English, both the teachers and the learners negotiate between their responsibilities and preferences of teaching and learning by opting for strategies that best suit their purpose of learning the language. As Teng (2019) emphasized, the agentic preferences and decisions of teachers are socially constructed and mediated to bring contextual innovations and changes in EFL classrooms. Similarly and furthermore, the teachers and the learners in the study of a Bangladeshi EMI context reported in this chapter show the implementation of co-constructed agencies of the teachers and learners through their choices of Bangla and English to learn English in a learning environment constrained by institutional policies, i.e., the English-only policy in a broader context where the use of English as a medium of instruction is still debatable.

Conclusion

The chapter shows that since the existing higher education policy at Bangladeshi private universities promotes an EMI policy which is largely monolingual and focused on English-only, students with non-English medium backgrounds in such institutions are unable to articulate their potential in only English and lag behind their counterparts with English medium backgrounds in their academic achievements at the tertiary level because of the influence of the schooling experiences in learning the language. It has been documented that educating students in a bi-/multilingual system

has numerous merits for students, teachers, and society at large. If there are flexible multilingual policies which allow the learners to use their multilingual repertoire to learn other languages in language learning situations such as EFL or English as a second language (ESL) in EMI contexts, such policies enable and encourage students to participate and contribute in linguistic and extra-linguistic academic activities such as curricular, co-curricular, and extra-curricular ones better. Multilingual policies allow students to "fully invest their cognitive, academic, and linguistic knowledge in learning activities" (Rahman & Phyak, 2021, p. 17). Besides students, multilingual policies also help teachers realize the value of differentiated instruction and activate such instructional practices in classrooms. Finally, multilingual policies are potent instruments to ensure equity and social justice in education. Hence, it is recommended in this chapter that a more balanced bi-/multilingual language-in-education policy can work in improving the language education scenario at present for all students in Bangladeshi higher education.

The benefits of bi-/multilingual education policies for students are manifold. Firstly, multilingual capacities have close connections with higher-order thinking skills such as creative and critical thinking. It has been attested that multilingualism enhances creative thinking (Marsh & Hill, 2009). Secondly, multilingual knowledge is resourceful for learners to learn a second or foreign language. As Rahman and Phyak (2021, p. 17) have argued, "the knowledge of local languages and cultures, for example, can be synthesized with the knowledge of the official languages and can be used for greater benefits" (see also Webb & Kembo-Sure, 2000). Finally, multilingual capacities enable people to adapt to competitive situations better. It has been found that monolingual speakers lag behind multilingual ones in availing educational and employment opportunities in competitive environments (Chiswick & Miller, 2007).

There are benefits of multilingual policies for teachers, too. In monolingual policies, the underlying one-size-fits-for-all principle disregards learner differences and teachers following such a myopic principle often have to struggle balancing their job requirements and their personal beliefs and practices to help students learn. As a result, very often there remains a gap between the teachers' and students' expectations about learning and performance, and multilingual policies allow materializing the "need to cultivate mutual understanding between teachers and learners so that both are aware of each other's expectations about their roles" to ensure productive learning (Raza, 2020, p. 43). Hence, multilingual policies enable teachers to value and practice differentiated instruction in their classrooms.

Finally, multilingualism helps ensure equity and social justice in classrooms. An environment of equality and fairness can be ensured by acknowledging and valuing students' linguistic repertoire as resources in teaching and learning. In monolingual EMI contexts, often the use of the learners' L1 or mother tongue is viewed derogatively, and because of such unfair treatment to the learners' linguistic repertoire, the learners' linguistic and cultural knowledge is devalued. As a result, the monolingual teaching and learning practices in the monolingual English language classroom threaten the learners' self-esteem resulting in the development of a sense of inferiority regarding their linguistic and cultural heritages. Multilingual practices

in English classrooms, on the other hand, allow students to learn confidently growing a sense of respect for their own languages and cultures (Raza et al., 2021).

In order to create room for and apply multilingual education policies in the linguistic context of Bangladesh, perspectives/views toward speaking or learning multiple languages need to be changed. Universities in Bangladesh need to see multilingualism as a potential resource rather than a problem to enhance opportunities for all students for better educational achievement. Instead of considering Bangla and other local languages as hindrances in learning English as a second or foreign language, the value of these languages should be recognized as "symbolizing Bangladeshi culture and heritage representing the symbolic, social, cultural and instrumental values in education and society" (Rahman & Phyak, 2021, p. 17). A balanced bi-/multilingual language-in-education policy acknowledges the instrumentalist function of languages which is based on language as a resource principle as well as the non-instrumentalist functions which emphasize the symbolic and sociocultural values of languages. Hence, in order to ensure successful English language education at the higher education level in Bangladesh, the debates on the choice of Bangla or English as the medium of instruction should be resolved, and a balanced bi-/multilingual policy for teaching and learning English should be adopted.

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Chapter 13
Caught Between a Bilingual Policy and Monolingual English Practices in Chile: Opportunities and Challenges of Translanguaging

Rodrigo Arellano and Anikó Hatoss

Abstract The current language policy in Chile aims to develop bilingualism in English and Spanish. However, these aims are highly contested as policy and related curriculum directions are based on English-only monolingual ideologies with little room for translanguaging. To begin with, this chapter introduces language-in-education policies and relevant Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) teacher training provisions in Chile. Then, the results of an empirical study are discussed which explored TESOL stakeholders' views about multilingual training experiences and expectations by drawing on interviews with teacher educators and teacher candidates in a regional university in Chile. The discursive data provide evidence that the current monolingual policy and curriculum directions are unsatisfactory, and there is an urgent need to incorporate translanguaging practices connecting with students' full linguistic repertoires. Participants also felt that if bilingualism is officially promoted, then Mapudungun—the most widely spoken indigenous language in Chile—should be included, even at the expense of English. These findings call for replacing monolingual English ideologies and incorporating multilingual strategies in TESOL teacher training contexts as well as into the practices of teaching English as a global lingua franca.

Introduction

This chapter discusses the changing landscape of Chilean Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). It queries whether TESOL practices and relevant teacher training curricula and pedagogies embrace translanguaging, or reflect the monolingual ideologies advocated by the current policy discourses. The chapter

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is also a call to action to embrace the historically rich linguistic diversity of Chile and respond to the emerging superdiverse context. In addition, it critiques policy rhetoric of Spanish–English bilingualism through monolingual TESOL training, "highlighting the need for a paradigmatic shift to reform education and to achieve more socially just outcomes" (Lamb et al., 2019, p. 34). The interrogation of monolingual versus translingual practices and ideologies is highly pertinent and timely, as Chile is a country with a complex language ecology built on rich indigenous roots, shaped by colonial powers and, more recently, an emerging migrant population.

Most Chileans are mestizos, while 12.8% declare themselves as indigenous (2,185,792) and 4.35% are immigrants (746,465) (National Institute of Statistics, 2017). Chile gained independence from Spain in 1818, however, Spanish continues to carry the colonial legacy as the de facto dominant language which is spoken by 95.9% of the population (Cervantes Institute, 2021). Although colonization wiped out a significant proportion of the indigenous languages, six of these languages are still in use, and there is also a minor presence of some European languages. Against this backdrop of colonial history and the landscape of fragmented indigenous linguistic diversity, English is promoted by policies as a global lingua franca. While some people see it as a threat to the local identity, others—such as government authorities—see it as a powerful tool for social mobility, cultural knowledge, and trade (Torrico, 2016). For them, it is the language of business, tourism, research, technology, and influence due to the popularity of American movies, music, and media.

Given the perceived importance of English, the government has treated TESOL training as a national priority to meet the rapidly increasing demands for highly proficient English-speaking Chilean citizens. With increased teacher training, the government set the ambitious goal to be the first English–Spanish bilingual nation in South America. However, despite significant efforts to improve the quality of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction, especially within the public sector, Spanish–English bilingualism seems to be a utopian goal detached from reality, and bilingual practices in society still have a long way to go (Barahona, 2016). Importantly, the emphasis on English in the curriculum is counter-productive as it fails to embrace multilingualism. Therefore, this chapter addresses TESOL stakeholders' views on the policy of bilingualism and explores whether translanguaging practices are perceived as having legitimacy in the TESOL curriculum, or whether the English monolingual ideology continues to prevail in the field of TESOL education in Chile.

Language Policies vis-à-vis English Language Education in Chile

With the rise of English as a global lingua franca, English became a compulsory subject in Chile in 1996 from year 5, with optional English tuition from kindergarten

and often complemented with more hours of instruction in private schools. Nevertheless, the shortage of EFL teachers, the low prestige of the teaching profession as well as the high workloads, large classes, poor infrastructure, and little investment have led to poor results. To address these issues, the Ministry of Education created the "English Opens Doors Program" in 2003 (Barahona, 2016) which provides free training for EFL pre-service and in-service teachers. This is the only national program of its kind and "works to ensure every citizen develops a degree of fluency in English, and Chile becomes a bilingual state" (British Council Chile, 2015, p. 6). However, the English Opens Doors Program's guidelines have favored "English-only" policies whose peak was reached in 2018 when the "English in English" initiative was created. This new program was aimed to train EFL teachers to conduct the entire lessons in the target language so that "(the teacher) speaks in English, effectively, 100% of the time in the class" (Ministry of Education, 2014, p. 29). As a result of this English-only policy emphasis, the training of pre-service teachers has prioritized the development of English proficiency to reach a C1 level (Barahona, 2016) with little or no training about the students' first language (L1) (mostly Spanish) or the relevant indigenous languages.

Nevertheless, new policies have been introduced in Chile to revitalize some of these local languages (Arellano et al., 2020). In 2006, educational programs to teach four existing indigenous languages were created, while the Ministry of Education provides textbooks, and classes are conducted by an educator designated by the local community. Among these courses, one language stands out, Mapudungun, which is spoken by the Mapuche culture. According to the latest census data (National Institute of Statistics, 2017), Mapuches represent 79.8% of the self-declared Chilean indigenous population (1,745,147), being the biggest cultural group that survived the Spanish invasion. This emergent focus on the maintenance of indigenous languages, however, clashes with English-only policies that leave little room for the use of different languages during instruction, including Spanish and other languages students could master.

Translanguaging as a Pedagogy for Contexts of Linguistic Diversity

The traditional pedagogical approach in TESOL, which has emphasized the clear separation of languages (L1 versus second language [L2]), has been increasingly challenged by translingualism and translanguaging pedagogy (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Post-structuralist theorists have increasingly brought modernist ideologies of separate and countable languages under attack to unsettle the very notion of language as a bounded unit. This change is interlinked with the agenda of decolonizing sociolinguistics (Canagarajah, 2011; Pennycook & Makoni, 2020), which aspires to move away from the one-nation one-language ideology. In line with this theoretical development, translanguaging offers new opportunities to embrace the learners'

full linguistic repertoire (Busch, 2012, 2015). Hence, this approach allows speakers to select items or structures based on the linguistic resources available to them to achieve their communicative purposes (García & Li, 2014).

Translanguaging originated in Wales as a school-based practice regarding the systematic treatment of Welsh and English, but it gained popularity rapidly in a variety of contexts. García (2009) extended this theory of language to include "multiple discursive practices in which multilinguals engage to make sense of their bilingual worlds" (p. 45), which is reflected in the use of pedagogical or spontaneous translanguaging. Pedagogical translanguaging can be used as a planned and deliberate tool to scaffold learning, a strategy that can be replaced when learners achieve higher proficiency levels. However, language users commonly utilize elements from other "languages" according to their communicative needs beyond formal education. This spontaneous translanguaging reflects the speakers' everyday linguistic practices, particularly within "super-diversity" (Vertovec, 2007, p. 1025) and calls for a paradigm shift in languages education from monolingual approaches to multilingual practices (Lamb et al., 2019).

Translingual practices have been investigated in a variety of contexts in Spanish-speaking countries. For instance, in the US, Latino students were shown to achieve higher academic English using translanguaging (Sánchez & García, 2022), and successful experiences have also been reported in Latin America (Banegas, 2021). Additionally, in Spain, research supports the use of translanguaging practices and their importance within the Spanish-Basque interrelation (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). However, despite the vast amount of literature on the benefits of translanguaging practices, they are still evaluated negatively by many teachers (Vallejo & Dooly, 2020). This highlights the need to research TESOL stakeholders' ideologies as the first step to researching language practices in the classroom.

For Chile, translanguaging offers significant pedagogical and social benefits. It brings in a pedagogical approach that makes use of learners' rich language resources (positive transfer), and it allows learners to use their full linguistic repertoire as it best suits their learning needs (learning support). In addition, translanguaging fits well with the linguistic richness of Chilean society and affords much-needed visibility and recognition for non-dominant autochthonous (indigenous) and allochthonous (immigrant) minority languages in the classroom and beyond.

Methodology

This study aimed to unpack TESOL stakeholders' ideologies vis-à-vis the bilingual Chilean policy and the monolingual ideology underlying teacher training programs. The current chapter draws on semi-structured interviews collected from 19 TESOL trainer lecturers and 17 EFL pre-service teacher trainees in a university located in Southern Chile.

The interview design used Bartels' principles of *Applied Linguistics and Language Teacher Education* (2005), introduced by a section about the Chilean TESOL practices. Two versions of the same interview were created (one for lecturers and one for trainees), piloted with 4 volunteer participants (2 for each type of participant), and validated by three local experts. After the final adjustments to the questions and once ethical permissions were obtained, the interviews were conducted face-to-face, audiorecorded, and transcribed in verbatim form using pseudonyms. All the participants were interviewed in Spanish to increase confidence during the data collection process, and finally, key excerpts were translated to English.

Lecturers had a minimum of five years of experience working in TESOL programs and at least, an MA in a language-related discipline. The EFL pre-service teachers were studying intermediate English and had taken various linguistics and teaching methods courses and at least one practice experience at school. All participants were Chilean native speakers of Spanish. Original transcripts were analyzed using the NVivo software which is designed for qualitative analysis. The interview segments were tagged for themes, from which further subthemes emerged. This bottom-up discursive approach allowed for a deep insight into the participants' views and ideologies.

Findings

The next sections provide the analysis of the key themes which emerged from the interviews. The first Section "Positioning Spanish as Interfering with Communicative Fluency" discusses the traditional view of interference when using languages other than English to achieve proficiency, while the second one shows the new focus on indigenous languages ("Contesting the Spanish–English Policy and Calling for the Inclusion of Indigenous Languages"). Then, the advocacy for translanguaging is detailed ("Advocacy for Spanish–English Translanguaging to Support Comprehension") together with the perceived need to foster metalinguistic awareness through positive transfer ("Advocacy for Positive Transfer to Support Metalinguistic Awareness").

Positioning Spanish as Interfering with Communicative Fluency

Regarding TESOL pedagogy, a common emerging theme was an ideology that challenged the current English monolingual practices advocated by policies. However, the use of Spanish was associated with the old-fashioned grammar-translation practices and seemed to have a stigma attached to it, as going against the modern methods of the Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT) which emphasized the

exclusive use of the target language. They also voiced their fears of negative transfer issues because of the students' use of L1 morpho-syntactic structures and pronunciation patterns. Nevertheless, participants also raised the point that Spanish should be utilized as a strategy to foster metalinguistic awareness. Excerpt 1.1 emphasizes the view that Spanish should only be used in the teacher training curriculum when it is necessary and that is sole to help students when they struggle with the content of the course. Another lecturer explained that there is an English monolingual mindset embedded in TESOL programs, as the use of Spanish and CLT are perceived as incompatible practices (Excerpt 1.2).

Excerpt 1

1.1 *The role of the Spanish language in an EFL class should only be used in very specific situations when students face many difficulties to understand a concept or idea in English. (Alice, participant 19, lecturer)*
1.2 *If, within a TESOL program, you speak directly about using Spanish as a strategy, it is absolutely, there is no possibility to do it because it is not aligned with the communicative approach. (Andrea, participant 18, lecturer)*

The issues arise within the tension between the institutional practices, the traditional TESOL discourse, and the real context where trainees experience English instruction. Participants critiqued the separation between Spanish and CLT while offering the possibility for the implementation of planned techniques to use Spanish as support knowledge. Participants also contested monolingual policies to favor practices to include Spanish as a resource during instruction.

Although teachers should be in charge of helping trainees make connections between the L1 and the L2, the discursive evidence suggests that lecturers do not do it. This was voiced by Antonella (Excerpt 2), as she stated that lecturers were said to implement an English-only classroom policy in which languages are clearly separated, and the use of Spanish is forbidden. This is the case in a linguistics class where Spanish has no place during TESOL instruction.

Excerpt 2

Well, for example, SLA was not a very good experience. (…) (The lecturer) was very focused on the fact that English was taught in English that you couldn't speak Spanish in class because speaking in Spanish meant giving up. So with us, she used the same methodology of pretending not to understand us when we spoke Spanish. So, the experience worsened a bit, simply because she did not have rapport as a teacher. (Antonella, participant 14, trainee).

As this excerpt demonstrates, there was a conflict between the English-only norm in the classroom, which must be protected at all costs, and the trainees' awareness of the need to incorporate multilingual practices, such as translanguaging in Spanish to aid their learning.

Contesting the Spanish–English Policy and Calling for the Inclusion of Indigenous Languages

Participants also expressed that seeing English as a second, rather than as a foreign language was not only highly ambitious but also an unrealistic and illegitimate goal that did not sit well with Chile's overdue social justice for the local indigenous languages. Thirty out of thirty-six participants categorically rejected the Spanish–English bilingualism promoted by the government. Instead, they voiced the need to foster indigenous languages, especially Mapudungun, the most spoken indigenous language of Chile, even at the expense of English (Excerpt 3).

Excerpt 3

3.1 *It does not seem to me that Chile should be a bilingual country, Spanish–English, at the moment. This is because the country has outstanding historical debts of recognition and intercultural integration with its indigenous peoples.* (Alice, participant 19, lecturer).

3.2 *I say we should be trilingual. We shouldn't, we couldn't, just as we value English as a foreign language, we should also give a status to the national Mapudungun language. And become trilingual. That would be fantastic!* (Mateo, participant 7, lecturer).

3.3 *I think learning English would be beneficial, but I don't think it is too necessary. I feel that Mapudungun is very important in our region, and I feel that it can be very useful.* (Pia, participant 36, trainee).

3.4 *I think that, first of all, that is, before English, they should be seen, like, other mother tongues, like the Mapudungun itself, which is intended to be taught, but very little is done.* (Javier, participant 36, trainee).

Participants did not reject English learning but rather emphasized that *"at the moment,"* (Excerpt 3.1) the priority should be revitalizing indigenous languages. Noting the focus on English rather than indigenous languages is a criticism of the education policy, which has long been neglecting indigenous languages and pushing them to the periphery. However, participants did not simply see the question as a dichotomy between English versus indigenous languages, as they advocated an additive bilingual, even from a trilingual perspective (Excerpt 3.2). It is clear that there was also a sense of "guilt" attached to teaching English to learners who do not even know the indigenous languages which represent Chile's cultural and linguistic heritage.

Indigenous languages were also seen as a resource and as a strategy to motivate students to learn English. In Excerpt 4, Lucas expressed his desire to learn the indigenous language as he felt it was an important way for making stronger connections with his students. He also commented on the fact that the schools are now teaching

the local indigenous language, Mapudungun, which is great news for educators and students like himself.

Excerpt 4

I want to learn other languages too, and I hope to learn Mapudungun so that the students can feel I am closer to them. Because I am not going to teach a foreign language to people who have spent hundreds of years fighting for their language to have recognition. I want to learn with them too. For example, now, the schools are teaching Mapudungun, which I also find fascinating. (Lucas, participant 10, trainee).

In Excerpt 5, Pia shared her experience of approaching English learning through her students' cultural knowledge as knowing indigenous cultures was also seen as a tool for motivating students. In this regard, participants voiced that by incorporating the indigenous languages into the curriculum, educators give legitimacy to indigenous languages and cultures and enhance their prospects for future vitality in the longer term.

Excerpt 5

I think it is super important to connect Mapudungun to the teaching of English. Both can be taught in parallel. Once, we did an activity to show their culture. So we had a meal. I remember each student had to bring something like a typical meal for them. But trying to use English, all the time. So we could also see their motivation. It caught our attention because they were really into it. So, we had seen in the previous classes that they did not like to participate because they were shown "gringo" recipes, very far from the context they had, they did not want to participate. It was Mapuche food; catuto, muday. So by doing this, the students wanted to participate a lot. With much more participation than what it was back then, to approach this reality that is their everyday reality. They realized they wanted to participate, like "I know this," "I'm not afraid to talk," I am not afraid of being able to express myself in another language. (Pia, participant 17, trainee).

Using local traditional recipes turned out to be a tool to increase her students' engagement and foster their learning of English. In this way, Pia expressed that by connecting elements from two languages simultaneously (English-Mapudungun), students were able to increase their confidence and their willingness to participate in class. For instance, "*catuto*" (a type of fried dough) and "*muday*" (a beverage) (Excerpt 5) are examples of linguistic units outside the Spanish language that were used as language resources to satisfy the students' communicative needs. She also reported good comments from her students: *"I know this," "I'm not afraid to talk"* and *"I am not afraid of being able to express myself in another language."* (Excerpt 5).

This story illustrates that the teacher's strategy to incorporate indigenous cultural elements was not to the detriment of learning English. In fact, quite the opposite, students were more engaged, and by using the indigenous cultural elements, students

were able to develop their English skills. In this way, the indigenous cultural content became a facilitator for learning English. A similar strategy is described below.

Excerpt 6

I teach pronunciation and there are, like, several sounds that can be found, for example, in English and Mapudungun, not in Spanish. And I take advantage of those instances too. (Julia, participant 6, lecturer)

Participant 6 sought to foster translingual knowledge and phonological awareness by using resources from other local languages that are not present in Spanish. In this way, the lecturer illustrated how educators can choose different elements from a repertoire of linguistic resources to select those that fit best with the linguistic skills to be developed. There is, however, more room for developing strategies where the indigenous languages are also more involved in the process, where teachers elicit L1 vocabulary to build on these elements in the English classroom.

Advocacy for Spanish–English Translanguaging to Support Comprehension

Participants also voiced the importance of translanguaging using Spanish to provide a scaffold for learners. Lecturers reported that they offered language alternatives to their learners during their practicums so that students can follow the instructions better and develop stronger language skills. For example, one such strategy was to get students to activate their target language receptive skills for accessing information (e.g., listening or reading in English), and then asking them to complete the task (e.g., answer comprehension questions) in Spanish. This strategy was used at least at the beginning to decrease the task difficulty and reduce learner anxiety. In Excerpt 7, the lecturer explained how she used this strategy to teach the first-year introductory linguistics courses in Spanish, while the higher year courses, such as Second Language Acquisition (SLA), were taught entirely in English. The program, therefore, resembles a transitional type of training intending to prepare learners for the delivery of the full program in L2 at the exit point.

Excerpt 7

For instance, "SLA" is taught in English, completely in English. But "Introduction to Linguistics" is delivered in Spanish because they are in their freshman year. They still don't have the language level. (Valeria, participant 4, lecturer).

This use of translanguaging in this way coincides with its original conception with the specific aim to allow non-English background learners to transition better into the English curriculum. In this way, trainees can use Spanish to reduce task difficulty for their learners to prepare them in a better way to use English at a later stage.

TESOL trainees expressed their awareness of the need for a higher level of English to cope with the demands of the course successfully. This challenge concerns the mastery of academic genres and the high jargon-heavy texts. At the same time, they

pointed out that they needed to learn the foundations of linguistics in a language that was most familiar to them, in this case, Spanish. The following subsections will highlight the discursive construction of the place of Spanish in the curriculum and the teaching practices. Here, the analytical lens are focused on the ideology of whether Spanish is seen as a "crutch" to aid the learning of content in English. Or if this is also a language with a legitimate presence in the curriculum with the opportunity to increase learners' language awareness and metalinguistic skills through L1-L2 connections.

Spanish Used as a Scaffold (Spanish–English Bilingual Approach)

Like lecturers, most trainees saw the benefit of using Spanish in aiding them in their studies, especially where the content was highly scientific or included abstract concepts. In this way, both languages could be strategically used in a single course. However, this idea is constrained by the monolingual practices of TESOL programs and schools, in which lecturers attempt to maximize the input trainees receive.

Excerpt 8

8.1 *I was quite scared by the readings in linguistics. Because I think they are dense. Because they were used in very low levels, where the language was not mastered by the students yet. Because I remember that in one class, there was something that we did not understand, no one understood it. And the lecturer switched to Spanish to explain it and it was an "aha-moment."* (Marcos, participant 7, trainee).

8.2 *I like it when all the classes are taught in the second language, or maybe the explanation is in Spanish because the explanations have to be understood.* (Amalia, participant 1, trainee).

Trainees voiced their concerns about English-only practices and advocated for the use of L1 to reduce their anxiety, especially in highly technical courses in which trainees can be "scared" (Excerpt 8.1). Through translanguaging, the lecturer can provide key "explanations" (Excerpt 8.2) in a language that is more familiar for trainees to be fully understood. Importantly, translingual strategies do not impede, but rather aid the development of L2, as Spanish and English can be embraced in the pedagogy and teaching materials to respond best to the trainees' linguistic and learning needs.

Trainees Lack Proficiency in English: Use of Spanish to Fill the Gaps

Parallel with the national guidelines provided to TESOL programs by the Ministry of Education (see Section "Language Policies vis-à-vis English Language Education in Chile"), an implicit English-only policy seems to exist at universities as lecturers

try to speak English in class as much as possible. However, the same lecturers are aware that this is not always a suitable practice based on the trainees' linguistic limitations, especially during the first year of TESOL programs. To tackle this issue, translanguaging is used as a strategy to complement English production, especially when trainees do not have the required English level yet.

Excerpt 9

It is true that one tries to make the students speak 100% in English, and that it is one of the great weaknesses that there is currently in the (educational) system. Because the teachers tend, even if they have a C1 level of English, they start speaking in Spanish because they say that it will be difficult for the students to speak. I always tell the trainees: use English as much as possible. Now, if the students can't, use the "sandwich" technique, that is, English–Spanish-English. (…) I think that here it is seen as a serious fault to use the translation of the two languages. But hey, I don't think we can either think that a class 100% in English is the one that will help all your students come out speaking 100% English. (Alba, participant 8, lecturer).

In Excerpt 9, it was recognized that lecturers try to speak in English most of the time in class, but that does not mean they reject other strategies aligned with translingual practices. They do not force trainees to do everything in English, particularly if they lack the necessary competencies to do so. Alba called it "*one of the great weaknesses that there is currently in the (educational) system*" as it represents a monolingual ideology that most respondents are willing to challenge. In this way, lecturers can utilize the trainees' linguistic resources as a tool, for example, by using the "sandwich technique" to initiate the interaction in English, clarify any difficult concept in Spanish, and then come back to English to reinforce, explain, or move on to another topic. Furthermore, the use of translation, commonly labeled as a strategy associated with old-fashioned methods, can be one of the available options to mitigate the trainees' lack of proficiency.

Calling for Better L1-L2 Connections in the Curriculum

Participants expressed the need to make better connections between different languages, rather than seeing them as isolated. This view has been traditionally depicted in TESOL instruction by either (1) a monolingual view in which one language is used for instructional processes while other languages are discarded or (2) a separation of languages; mostly English for language-related competencies and Spanish for pedagogy learning. Nevertheless, neither of these approaches helps trainees to understand the real use of languages by bilingual individuals. They also do not help improve the trainees' target language level by reflecting on their languages

(and vice versa) or support their future students' incipient bilingualism. For instance, Eleonor hopes to see a different approach, in this case, when learning linguistics.

Excerpt 10

I imagine you can use Discourse Analysis in Spanish and then in English. And then you can see the differences. (Eleonor, participant 16, lecturer).

Excerpt 10 provides an example of contrastive analysis in which a linguistics discipline can be studied from the perspective of two languages by analyzing texts in English and Spanish. This type of practice will force the trainee to establish connections, reflect on the languages he/she knows, and try to understand their differences. Then, if the field of study is difficult to master, the L1 can be used to scaffold learning, or this can be a starting point to learning L1 structural elements from a disciplinary perspective.

Advocacy for Positive Transfer to Support Metalinguistic Awareness

The traditional idea that knowing Spanish, or other languages, creates a problem when learning English as a foreign language is contested by the participants of this study. Spanish and English have similarities and differences, which can facilitate or hinder the learning process depending on the language distance between their linguistic subsystems, as seen below (Excerpt 11).

Excerpt 11

Well, clearly Spanish has similar things to English that somehow make *some things easier to learn, and it also has different things, which somehow, sort of, complicates the absolutely correct production of the structure in another language.* (Valeria, participant 4, lecturer).

Participant 4 expressed that the differences between the two languages would make proficiency a real challenge in terms of the *"absolutely correct"* (Excerpt 11) linguistic competence to be developed by trainees (proficiency). However, Valeria also referred to the benefits of the L1-L2 transfer as *"some things are easier to learn"* due to Spanish being similar to English but pointed out some limitations as elements in academic Spanish and English are different, and this *"complicates"* the language production. These practices require teachers' knowledge about contrastive pedagogies building on students' L1 and teaching skills in maximizing the development of students' metalinguistic awareness through a better focus on positive transfer. Teachers reported that they lacked confidence in these areas and highlighted the need for training to facilitate the use of Spanish knowledge as support to scaffold English learning, as expressed in the next section.

Lack of Awareness of L1 and the Need for Training

Participants emphasized the importance of using Spanish in their classroom practices in terms of metalinguistic awareness. For instance, lecturers were emphatic when saying that trainees must have knowledge about the students' L1 and regarded this knowledge as necessary. In this way, learners can develop grammatical awareness and metalinguistic skills in Spanish to push their L2 competence forward. Hence, only this training would equip trainees to compare both languages successfully.

Excerpt 12
The English teacher in Chile or wherever Spanish is spoken should have a Spanish language course to know something about that language. And if the English teacher does not know anything about his/her native language, which is Spanish, he/she will hardly understand why the student is saying something. (Eleonor - participant 16 - lecturer).

In Excerpt 12, Eleonor, a TESOL lecturer, expressed the view that trainees lacked expertise in Spanish grammar. This could provide a minimum required level of training *"to know something"* about the Spanish language. In this case, the potential training about how Spanish works can facilitate the understanding of the subsystems that can help learners to improve their L2 competency due to the similarities between these two languages. In the same vein, learners could also focus on their differences with a solid foundation based on what they could learn from a Spanish grammar course. A similar view is expressed in Excerpt 13.

Excerpt 13
I know there are no Spanish grammar courses for English teaching students. There is no Spanish grammar, therefore, they are also unaware of the Spanish grammatical structures, except for their intuitive knowledge that they can activate from the study of English grammar, right? But it's not the same, it's not the same! (Alvaro, participant 11, lecturer).

The use of five negative constructions in Excerpt 13 clearly shows the perceived detrimental effect of a lack of Spanish training within monolingual TESOL practices. It is assumed that trainees would know how to use Spanish simply because they are Spanish native speakers, and that their grammatical knowledge would be transferred by the experience of learning another language.

Awareness of L1-L2 Transfer in Teaching

Participants explicitly voiced their awareness of the importance of L1-L2 connections and pointed out how teachers can mediate and help in this process. In such a way, metalinguistic and teacher language awareness become pivotal to improving the

trainees' knowledge about the language as well as the trainees' own understanding of how languages should be learnt and taught.

Excerpt 14

We (the trainees) will try to build the knowledge of the foreign language on what we already know of our own language. We focus a lot on what English is, obviously, because it is the language we will be teaching. But this connection between English and Spanish. No, this is not the focus here. Spanish is the students' mother tongue, so it has a very important role since the first thing the student will do is connect the ideas in Spanish and English. Students will try to make the connections, and the teacher's role is to help make these connections. (Jorge, participant 8, trainee).

In Excerpt 14, Jorge expresses that the trainees' knowledge of their L1 is a fundamental base for learning additional languages. However, there is little focus on developing this metalinguistic awareness in TESOL programs as trainees receive little or no training about their L1, nor are they encouraged to make L1-L2 connections. Then, teachers can use the Spanish language as a resource for learning English, given that, in many cases, the students will return to their Spanish knowledge to interpret the new input in English.

Conclusion

The findings of this study demonstrate that TESOL practices and relevant teacher training and English language curricula are not sufficiently embracing translanguaging. Instead, TESOL programs are driven by monolingual ideologies with the underlying belief that English teaching has to happen through English-only. This practice leaves no space in the curriculum for the inclusion of other languages, such as Spanish and indigenous languages. However, the findings also demonstrate that future English teachers are ready to embrace translanguaging, and they show critical awareness of monolingual practices and have the potential to be agents of curriculum reform in future.

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Chapter 14 Pakistani English Language Teachers' Beliefs About Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education Policy: Findings from the Government Primary Schools of Balochistan

Sania Gul Panezai

Abstract The globalized world has increased the demand for the English language learning. As a result, Pakistani policymakers have lately updated the 2009 National Education Policy by shifting the monolingual-based educational practices of government primary schools of Pakistan into bilingual education. As a consequence, in the early stage, students are compelled to learn three different languages: their mother tongue (Pashto, Balochi, Punjabi, and Persian), Urdu, and English. But the policymakers revised the policy without addressing the challenges that teachers encounter while implementing policy in a real context. In this chapter, the researcher investigated English language teachers' beliefs about mother tongue-based multilingual education in government schools of Balochistan. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions with 28 English teachers of primary government schools in the province of Balochistan. Besides multiple constraints, the findings of the study showed that teachers were optimistic regarding multilingual education/pedagogy in the context of government schools of Balochistan. The teachers believed the mother tongue-based multilingual teaching practice increased the productivity level of the students by incorporating multiple languages inside the classroom. Moreover, the instruction in familiar languages increased the confidence level of the students, and they started participating inside the classroom without any hesitation. Finally, recommendations for teachers, researchers, school administration, and policymakers are put forward.

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Introduction

The word education is initially derived from the Latin term *educo*. The term is broadly defined as “to lead or bring out” (Collins Dictionary, 2022). The core purpose of education is to lead the individual to discover and nourish their hidden skills. It assists us in exploring and understanding the depth of the universe and provides a base for developing a stable and prosperous society (Raja, 2014). In the massive domain of education, language emerged as one of the foremost tools through which we explore, communicate, question, and learn. Not only is it the main source of communication, but it also helps us in building strong connections and relationships across the globe.

Due to advancements in science and technology, the world has been transformed into a global village (Crystal, 2003), with the English language emerging as the dominant language in academic and professional domains as a consequence of globalization. Therefore, developing countries such as Bangladesh, China, Pakistan, Malaysia, and India started adopting English as a second or foreign language in their educational policies (Channa, 2017; Nunan, 2003). In these developing countries, the English language is often viewed as possessing the potential to unlock the door of lucrative career opportunities (Manan et al., 2016; Shamim, 2011).

Consequently, following this line of reasoning, Pakistan’s National Education Policy (NEP), formulated by the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, Islamabad, 2006, 2009), implemented English as a compulsory subject in primary government schools of Pakistan. The core purpose of the English language policy was to uplift the students from low socio-economic status. But, these top-down education policies failed to consider Pakistan’s multilingual and multicultural variation (Channa & Panezai, 2019).

In the Pakistani context, such educational language policies are provoking national unsteadiness by promoting inequality in the society (Mansoor, 2004; Shamim, 2011). Furthermore, the English language segregated our society into elite, English-centric, and Urdu-centric societies. According to Rahman (2002), elite English medium schools’ graduates excel in academic and professional fields due to a strong educational and language foundation. However, the public, or low-English medium, schools lack available physical and technological assets for teaching English and failed to upgrade language learning skills of students and teachers (Panezai & Channa, 2017). Thus, the English language emerged as the source of hindrance and the main cause of failure in academic and professional accomplishments of students from low socio-economic status backgrounds (Sah & Li, 2018).

Given the dividing role of English in education, Rahman (2004) proposed that local languages be given more attention with all students communicating at the primary/elementary level in their native language. These findings about education in Pakistan suggest that it is important to amend the National Education Plan, provide substantial training and support to current and future employees, and

develop a well-researched and clearly expressed national policy on local language use and support in academic contexts (Ashraf et al., 2021; Mahboob, 2020). This study contributes to that goal by understanding the role of local languages in academic context of Balochistan in particular and Pakistan in general.

Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education

Multilingual education widely denotes an educational arrangement in two or multiple languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). In mother tongue-based multilingual education, schools utilize language to which children are familiar as one of the languages of education (Lindberg, 2011). In the early stage of schooling, the native language is vital in building children's critical and linguistic skills (Baker, 2012). It is the language in which children primarily learn, understand, comprehend, and communicate with the world around them and develop their individual and social personality (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). As Cummins (1996) pointed out, a strong base in the native language also helps children develop their literary skills and serves as a base for learning to express themselves and communicate easily in foreign languages. Therefore, considering the important role of children's native language, in the year 2014, the provisional government of Balochistan introduced regional languages such as Pashto, Balochi, Persian, and Sindhi as optional languages in primary grades of public schools of Balochistan.

But, research on teachers' beliefs, methodological approaches, and pedagogical challenges with respect to mother tongue-based multilingualism in Balochistan is very limited. In her book, *teachers as course developers*, Graves (1996) explained why understanding what teachers believe, do, and struggle with is important. Teachers can amend education policy and courses in order to increase their effectiveness. The evaluation of the course means knowing the shortcomings of the designed course. Moreover, she claimed that if learners of a course fail to make a certain level of progress, then the effectiveness of the course needs to be questioned. The evaluation of the planned course needs to include each and every aspect of teaching and learning practices, such as students' needs and background, main objectives, teaching materials, learning activities, the role of students or teachers, and student advancement. She emphasized that the assigned course should be evaluated in a real-world environment. According to my interpretation of her statement, teachers are the practical judges of educational policy in the actual world since they are believed to be the connection between the designed course and the students. Teachers are responsible for putting the course together and instructing students. They will be able to make more accurate assessments of the course's strengths and weaknesses. As a result, the current study seeks to understand these challenges better. It examines the beliefs of Pakistani English language instructors about mother tongue-based multilingual education, which was established by the government of Balochistan and is being implemented in Balochistan's primary schools.

Teachers' Beliefs About Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education

Aydin and Dogan (2019) examined public-school teachers' attitudes toward heritage language-based multilingual education in Turkey and found that teachers believed that heritage language-based multilingual education could pave the way for success for students belonging to multiple backgrounds. In the same scenario, Taşçı and Ataç (2020) explored three primary school English as a foreign language teachers' perceptions toward the usage of the first language (L1) in teaching the target language and found that the instructors preferred to use L1 in initial grades because the L1 assisted them in building a strong connection with students. Teachers' beliefs amalgamate experience, academic learning, and professional exposure (Ajzen, 1988). Similarly, teachers' beliefs help them reflect on their past experiences and guide them in making professional judgments (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). They also play a productive role in shaping classroom teaching and learning pedagogies and guiding the adaptation of teaching material according to the learning needs of the students (Pajares, 1992).

Many previous studies (Channa & Panezai, 2019; Manan et al., 2016), conducted in the context of Balochistan, examined instructors' beliefs about English as the language of instruction in English as a foreign language class. However, only a few studies have looked at instructors' beliefs concerning mother tongue-based multilingual education (Haidar & Fang, 2019). As a result, we are not aware of the advantages and disadvantages of implementing mother tongue-based multilingual education in a real or practical setting. Accordingly, this study analyzes the beliefs of government primary school teachers in Balochistan province about mother tongue-based multilingual education to close the gap. It also examines the difficulties that teachers encountered while trying to include regional languages as an additional language into the curriculum of government primary schools in Balochistan.

Research Methodology

A qualitative research technique encompassing semi-structured interviews, written documentation/records, and focus group conversations (Creswell, 2012) was used to understand teachers' beliefs regarding mother tongue-based multilingual education in the primary grades of Balochistan. The initial data for the study were gathered through semi-structured interviews. The researcher then conducted focus group discussions with teachers and school authorities (Headmaster/mistress) in the second phase. The data were collected at the end of the academic year 2021 over a one month period. Using convenience sampling, the researcher collected data from 28 primary government schools of Balochistan. To make the discussion lively, the researcher provided the opportunity to the participants to show their concerns during the conversation.

During the interview sessions, the researcher followed the theory of knowledge sharing, in which both researcher and participant equally contribute to constructing knowledge (Smith, 2012). The researcher and the particicpants conducted a joint investigation on multiple topics, such as teachers' perception about education and how the current demands of education diverge from their times. Moreover, the main focus of the discourse was to know teachers' opinions about recent education policy in general and mother tongue-based multilingual language policy in particular. The researcher also tried to find out the current status of English in their social and cultural backgrounds. Finally, the participants were requested to put forward their own proposal or recommendations regarding the current language policy.

The interviews and focus groups were transcribed and translated into English. Next, thematic analysis was performed in accordance with Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step method. These six processes are organized as follows:

1. Familiarize yourself with the data
2. Build initial codes
3. Search for themes
4. Review themes
5. Define and identify themes
6. Produce the report.

Important topics that directly or indirectly assist the study's aims were categorized by giving them names and codes. Ultimately, the emerging themes were interpreted in categories or subcategories.

Findings

The thematic analysis of the major findings revealed some interrelated themes of using mother tongue-based multilingual educational (MTB-MLE) policy in government primary schools of Balochistan. The Balochistani English language teachers had a huge debate over the limitation and strengths of using MTB-MLE in government primary schools of Balochistan, seeing both constraints and strengths associated with MTB-MLE. The findings are discussed as follows:

Constraints

The thematic analysis revealed certain constraints related to MTB-MLE inside the classroom premises including triggering ambiguity, the non-availability of teacher trainings, and myopic vision. These limitations are presented in the next sections:

Triggering Ambiguity

During the interview session, the teachers presented their concerns regarding the language policy initiated by the provincial government of Balochistan. This policy introduced local languages as an additional language/subject until grade 3. In the prevailing context, one of the participants stated that:

> In primary grades, we are teaching Pashto as an additional language along with Urdu and English. Currently, we are teaching regional languages until Grade-3.

In the same context, another participant further gave an in-depth analysis of the situation and said that:

> In the initial grades, students are bound to learn 4 different languages. They are pushed to develop their Pashto, Urdu, and English skills on school premises. But, at home, they have to learn to recite the Holy Quran in Arabic. The various language learning atmosphere burdens young learners beyond their learning capabilities.

The above statement thoroughly explained the effects of implementing the Pashto language as an additional language in the classroom. It makes the learning process more difficult for young learners. Moreover, Participant 3 believed that:

> The alphabets of Urdu, Pashto, and Arabic languages are somehow similar. But, there are few alphabets of Urdu that are missing or pronounced differently in Pashto and Urdu or Arabic Language. Such as alphabet (ښ/ش) of Pashto and Urdu language are pronounced as shin in both the languages. Furthermore, the English language further adds into their problems. Due to limited exposure to the target language, these students consider English as an alien language.

These findings suggest that ambiguity for students was created by the provincial government of Balochistan introducing regional language as an additional language. As an additional language, these local languages slow-down or stop students' progress in learning target languages such as Urdu and English. This policy further adds to the problems of the students from socio-economic disadvantaged backgrounds.

Non-availability of Teachers' Trainings

During the focus group interview, the teachers clearly stated that they were not provided with any kind of training or workshops for teaching local languages. Due to lack of initial training, teachers failed to understand the main objective of implementing regional languages in educational settings. Participant 7 believed that:

> We are not provided with initial training for teaching regional languages. Our school authorities are uncertain related to the main aim or scope of teaching regional languages. Therefore, most of the teachers in general and parents, in particular, are hesitant to teach regional languages to their children.

The above findings clearly demonstrated teachers' concerns toward teaching local languages inside the classroom. The school authorities did not receive initial training or workshops on behalf of the Balochistan education department. Consequently, the community (parents, teachers, and school authorities) is unaware of the benefits attached to teaching children in their native language. Echoing over the same context, another participant established that:

> Due to limited exposure, most school establishments are unwilling to teach regional languages. We are unfamiliar with the true benefits of teaching young children in indigenous languages. Neither are we provided with seminars/workshops to introduce us to the benefits of teaching young children in their original languages. It is the responsibility of the government to conduct an awareness session for teachers and parents. That awareness session would answer the concerns that society has toward teaching young students in their home languages.

The teachers widely believed that initial training is fundamental for the teachers' professional development. These training or seminars can increase the awareness of school establishments to include regional languages as a core subject of their school curriculum. But, due to the absence of awareness sessions, majority of the public institutions in Balochistan are unenthusiastic to teach in native languages.

Myopic Vision

The detailed analysis of focused group discussion revealed that policymakers are unaware of the learning needs and demands of students attending public schools. Due to a myopic vision, these policymakers introduced English and Urdu as classrooms' main mediums of instruction. Resonating over the same scenario, Participant 16 concluded that:

> The main goal of education is to build student's confidence levels. But, in public schools, the language of instruction is different from the language used in the community. Due to unfamiliar language, the education practices of most of the students are limited to school premises. This language barrier shattered students' confidence levels. Early education in Urdu and the English language emerged as a foremost factor for the initial drop out of the students in the primary grade.

Other participants also supported the idea that English or Urdu language emerged as an obstacle for building students' confidence levels. They hesitate to share their knowledge in unfamiliar languages such as Urdu and English. These students don't have exposure to these languages at their homes or even in the community. Explaining the same scenario, participant 21 suggested that:

> The policymakers should incorporate local language as the core language of instruction in primary grades. Moreover, the initial purpose of education is to build students' communication skills. A language is just a tool for accomplishing that goal.

Other participants also agreed that education should implement native languages as the main language of instruction in primary grades of public schools of Balochistan. The familiar language in early grades would make the language journey fun for the

students. The familiar language would bridge the gap between school and community. Resultantly, these students would continue their learning practices at home as well.

Strengths

The thematic analysis of semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions also identified multiple strengths of using the mother tongue as the main medium of instruction in government schools of Balochistan including gaining confidence and active participation by parents. The major findings are discussed in the next section.

Gaining Confidence

The participants were very optimistic regarding the mother tongue as the language of instruction in primary grades at public schools of Balochistan. They believed that the regional language will boost students' confidence and feelings of connection to the school atmosphere. Likewise, participant 3 was of the opinion that:

> It is an encouraging fact that if the language of instruction at school is similar to the language of home. The familiar languages would help the students to connect the learning of home/community to the school learning. This practice will not confine students learning to educational organizations.

Education in local languages can play a very productive role in bridging the gap between school and community. The majority of participants agree with this point that regional languages enhance students' confidence levels. Furthermore, due to a similar language, they were able to make strong connections between their home and school learning practices.

Parents' Active Participation

The parents are very passionate about giving quality education to their children. But, due to an inaccessibility of resources, the unprivileged classes fail to monitor their children's education. Out of many resources, language has emerged as one of the primary factors that draws a wall between school and community. Participant 23 further gave an in-depth analysis of the consequence and specified that:

> The rural community is hesitant to meet school authorities because they lack speaking command of Urdu and English. Due to unfamiliar language, these parents failed to assist their children's learning progress.

The above participant clearly explains the consequence of implementing unfamiliar language as the medium of instruction in educational settings. The unfamiliar language learning practices confine students learning inside the school boundaries. Participant 25 suggested that:

> In the early grades, the government of Balochistan should impose the mother tongue as the main medium of instruction in the educational institution. The familiar language would help the parents to feel empowered in the child's learning process. Consequently, they would actively participate in their young children's educational practices.

Other participants also acknowledge the fact that the native languages would enhance student interest in school. Furthermore, the child would link the learning practices of home to school. Also, the parents would monitor their children's learning practices because the family members are the initial teachers of their children. They would feel empowered in the education journey of their youngsters.

Discussion

In this research, Graves's (1996) framework assisted me in understanding regional language policy initiated by the provincial government of Balochistan. In their existing policy, they implement native languages such as Pashto, Balochi, and Sindhi as additional subjects in public schools in Balochistan. The teachers' beliefs, however, help in understanding the complexities related to mother tongue-based multilingual education in the context of the primary school of Balochistan. The study data revealed that most of the teachers support mother tongue-based multilingual education in their classroom settings. They believed that teaching in the familiar language in the early grades would make learning appropriate for the students. These results reinforce the major findings of other studies (e.g., Bergroth & Palviainen, 2016; Taşçı & Ataç, 2020) that emphasize how L1 helps students comprehend and learn foreign languages in the early grades.

Furthermore, teaching in an unfamiliar language builds a wall between school and community. The educational practices of students are mostly confined to educational institutes. The majority of the parents are unfamiliar and fail to comprehend the language used inside the school. The unfamiliar language often emerged as a barrier between parents and their children's educational practices. De Jong and Harper (2005) discussed the consequence of teaching young children in an unfamiliar language. Due to low economic/academic background, the parents have negative experiences while interacting with school authorities. Bezcioglu-Göktolga and Yagmur (2018) demonstrated the essential role of communication between parents and school teachers and found that communication with teachers assists parents in monitoring or feeling empowered in their children's learning journey. Epstein (2011) emphasized that a child's home or community exposure plays a progressive role in child academic enlargement.

Besides, teaching in languages such as Urdu and English makes the learning process hectic for the students belonging to a socio-economically unprivileged class. Besides education, these students also have to overcome the barriers such as hunger, poverty, and unstable learning conditions (Malone & Malone, 2017). The low proficiency level in the target language slows down their educational achievement compared to their mates who arrive with a certain level of proficiency in the school language. In the existing circumstance, Glewwe et al. (2009) proposed that students should learn through the material that they understand easily in the earlier grades. Also, the relevant learning material would easily build students' academic skills.

The primary grades teachers believed that in the initial grades, students should need to be taught in the language that they are able to comprehend. The familiar language would help them connect home learning to the school. These study findings corresponded with the study conducted by Damgaci and Aydin (2018), who found that education in a familiar language would help the children to attain basic education. In early grades, educational issues can only be resolved if educational authorities promote education in a familiar language.

Besides, the community and school authorities are reluctant to introduce a regional language as the core language inside their educational institutions. According to them, the native language would prove a barrier between learners and English (Kasstan et al., 2018). These dominant languages help them in attaining and building better social status. While considering the community's concerns, "The Citizen Foundation" (2020) very well addressed this issue. The mother tongue-based multilingual education would not isolate children from the opportunities offered by the globalized world. Instead, this education model expands the scope of education beyond the school settings.

Lastly, the foremost role of education is to build students' critical and intellectual skills. The children's first language assists them in connecting with the world that surrounds them. It is the language in which children initially think and communicate. Therefore, in the early years of schooling, students need to be educated in a language they understand. A familiar language would push student's educational progress forward, not backward. The Ministry of Education should try to implement regional languages as a core language of instruction in Balochistan primary schools in particular and Pakistan in general. As a core language, the native languages in earlier grades would help students acquire basic needs of education, that is to read and write.

The Way Forward

While discussing education in Pakistan, one of my students asked: "What is the core purpose of education, developing understanding, or learning courses related material?" This question assists me in reflecting on my educational journey. I belonged to the language minority community that is the traditional Pashtun

community. In the earlier years of my life, my linguistics skills were built in the Pashto language. At my initial learning stage, my mother tongue taught me to understand and communicate with the outer world. But, unfortunately, learning through my first language stopped as I stepped inside the school. Because, the school promised the quality of education, which was confined to education in dominant, and most commonly in unfamiliar, languages such as Urdu and English.

This guides me to question and comprehend the true purpose of education. My professional experiences at multiple institutes helped me to understand the main objective of education. Education and language are two different things. Language as a tool assists us in attaining education-related goals. Furthermore, learning is about fun and understanding. Due to the unfamiliar language of school, most of the children learn while compromising on understanding or the fun aspect of education.

To sum up, this calls for the attention of education officials and policymakers to empower local languages, to implement regional languages as the main medium of instruction in government primary schools of Balochistan, and lastly, to provide in-service training for the professional grooming of teachers serving in rural and urban cities.

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Part IV
Activities and Materials to Support Multilingual TESOL

Most attempts to explain how learning happens focus on the crucial role of activity, as both a destabilizer of previous knowledge and a reinforcer of new. It is understood therefore that key component of pedagogical training is curriculum planning and materials development. However, as many of the eight chapters in this part note, teachers hoping to enact multilingual TESOL find few examples in their own experience or training of classroom-based multilingual activity. Beyond adherence to ideologies about the nature of language repertoires and the importance of multiculturalism, what does multilingual TESOL look like in the classroom? How can the learning outcomes of an activity in which multiple languages are used be operationalized? What general principles can be used to guide teacher thinking, whether planning a single activity or a thematic unit?

The first five chapters in the part provide examples of activities suitable for a range of contexts. In general, the activities allow for multimodal communication and emphasize meaning-making and creativity over adherence to prescriptive templates. They are also intended to validate and build from students' identities and resources.

In the part's first chapter, **Polina Vinogradova** and **Heather A. Linville** outline ten steps that can be used to guide students through a digital storytelling (DST) process. Inherently multimodal because of its reliance on written and audio text, images, graphics, animation, videos, and hyperlinks, DST offers multiple opportunities for both receptive and productive uses of language in the service of creating a final product. In their discussion, they emphasize how many of these opportunities can integrate translanguaging.

Denize Nobre-Oliveira and colleagues find similar opportunities for translanguaging in the production of short films for an end-of-term film festival held jointly at higher education institutions in Brazil and Peru. While the films were produced for "English" classes, the multiple stages and modalities of communication leading up to the final product provide natural opportunities to use language in ways that affirm their identities as multilingual speakers and develop authentic understandings of how language is used.

The facilitative role of technology is further illustrated in **Pol Maidhachain (Paul J. Meighan)**'s chapter, in which he describes his use of OWLS (Online Worldreviewer Language Spaces) with post-secondary students during the COVID-19 pandemic. The examples include a class blog and self-reflection e-journal. Challenging students to analyze, critique, and reflect on multilingual and multimodal artefacts, the OWLS invoke heritage knowledge systems while also promoting the co-construction of new knowledge.

While an important goal of multilingual teaching in general is support for home languages and cultures, **Eftychia Damaskou** focuses on how multilingual activities, in particular ones where English is the reference or base language for the activity, can be designed to "awaken" young learners to awareness and recognition of different languages. She describes the creation of a story about farm animals who speak a range of languages commonly spoken by immigrant populations in Greece. She observes the use of the tale in first-grade classes in Greece and how students were able to use their incipient knowledge of English as a bridge for inferences about other languages.

Lana Zeaiter responds to a different need in designing activities for her university students in Lebanon, namely emotional well-being. She argues that inclusion of activities that allow students to use their full linguistic repertoires promotes not only plurilingual language development but also students' motivation and confidence. She describes the design, implementation, and affordances of five multilingual activities she used in her classes to promote emotional well-being.

The last three chapters in this part focus more broadly on principles that can be used to guide teachers' thinking around multilingual activities. **Christine Uliassi** and **Michelle Kirchgraber-Newton** describe a sample Language Diversity Project curriculum they created to address language arts standards for New York fourth graders. The curriculum begins with a module that builds students' ability to talk about language and multilingualism and then continues with a second module focused on linguistic diversity in their school. They offer the curriculum as a source for teachers in other contexts to reflect upon, and in particular its goal of building students' appreciation of linguistic diversity.

Patricia de Oliviera Lucas, Camila Höfling, and **Luciana C. de Oliveira** adopt a different approach to promoting teacher reflection, starting instead with a general set of principles describing plurilingual pedagogy, asking Brazilian pre-service teachers to design a set of materials that would align with the principles, and then reflect upon what they learned from the design experience. Focusing on the reflections, they find that the exercise helped the pre-service teachers become more accepting of translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy while also affirming their identity and the resources they bring to a classroom.

In the final chapter in this part, **Hanh Dinh** reports on a study of activities designed and implemented by three US secondary school science teachers with a high proportion of students designated as "English language learners." The study documents how all three teachers felt compelled to create multilingual activities to support these students' content learning and focuses on the common principles that guided their

creations. She notes a dynamic focus on both content and language, the integration of translanguaging for both interactional and academic purposes, and the use of technology for scaffolding difficult language and concepts.

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Chapter 15
Supporting Multilingualism Through Translanguaging in Digital Storytelling

Heather A. Linville and Polina Vinogradova

Abstract Recent development in the areas of digital multimodal composing (DMC) and digital storytelling (DST) coincides well with the call to support English learners' (ELs') home languages and resources through multilingual pedagogy. DMC incorporates various modalities of meaning-making including written and audio text, images, graphics, animation, videos, and hyperlinks to create a multimodal digital text. DST, as a form of DMC, can emphasize creators' multilingual repertoires and identity negotiation through the expression of personal multimodal narratives. Significant work has been done by Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) educators who have incorporated DST into English language curricula and teaching. However, there is limited exploration into how DST can offer a multimodal space for home languages in English language education and thus support multilingualism. In this chapter, we explore the role of translanguaging in English language instruction, and how DST can offer a multimodal space for translanguaging. To offer practical guidelines to educators, we outline ten steps of DST production with suggestions on how to incorporate them into language instruction and scaffold ELs' translanguaging in this process. Through this work, we demonstrate the value of multilingualism and translanguaging in TESOL.

Introduction

With the "multilingual turn" in applied linguistics and Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) (May, 2014; Ortega, 2014, 2019), many TESOL professionals have become interested in learning ways to value and support English learners' (ELs') home languages while teaching English. TESOL professionals see the advantages of maintaining and supporting the linguistic skills and diversity of

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their students (Paris & Alim, 2014) and also recognize the potential harm done by focusing solely on teaching English, especially to minoritized speakers such as children learning English in K-12 schools in the U.S. (Pentón Herrera, 2019), or speakers of languages other than English in colonized or formerly colonized regions of the world (Canagarajah, 1999). As a field, we understand the importance of maintaining and strengthening language development in ELs' multiple languages, both for their socioemotional development and growth and for their development as multilingual language users. We also value linguistic diversity in itself, as language loss depletes humanity's shared understanding of the world and the varying perspectives and understanding that different languages offer.

Recent developments in the areas of digital multimodal composing (DMC) and digital storytelling (DST) coincide well with this desire for multilingual approaches and techniques in English language teaching. These approaches can highlight and celebrate the multiple languages, cultures, and backgrounds of students of English as an additional language (EAL). To emphasize that ELs are multilingual language learners, we use the term EAL to refer to any classroom where English is learned as a second, foreign, or additional language.

In this chapter, we discuss how DST can support multilingualism. Specifically, we explore the role of translanguaging in EAL instruction, and how DST can create a multimodal space for translanguaging. To offer practical guidelines to educators, we outline the steps and components of DST with adaptations for its incorporation into EAL instruction. Further, we present suggestions on how to incorporate translanguaging in DST projects and provide examples of such projects in a variety of EAL settings. Through this work, we demonstrate the value of multilingualism and translanguaging in TESOL.

Translanguaging, Digital Multimodal Composing, and Digital Storytelling

Translanguaging

As noted by Tian et al. (2020), translanguaging may be viewed through theoretical, descriptive, and pedagogical lenses. As a theory, it asserts that multilingual individuals have a single linguistic repertoire which they draw upon in communicative situations, rather than a separate linguistic repertoire for each language they speak. Proponents of this theory also value the ways individuals use language(s) rather than adhering to strict, constructed, and named language boundaries. Finally, proponents recognize that minoritized multilingual speakers have to contend with societal expectations about language usage, such as speaking only one named language at a time, even as the theory works to upend these expectations. When employed as a way of describing language use, theorists focus on how multilingual individuals use their communicative repertoire strategically and in an integrated manner in order to learn

and make sense of the world around them, communicate, and express their identities in social situations (Li, 2011).

As a pedagogical approach, translanguaging aims to "foster individuals' linguistic fluidity, dexterity, and identity while expanding their linguistic repertoire to include English features" (Tian et al., 2020, p. 3). Li (2011) focused on the importance of creativity and criticality in translanguaging, arguing that they "are intrinsically linked: One cannot push or break boundaries without being critical; and the best expression of one's criticality is one's creativity" (p. 1223). Li (2011) also stated that multilingualism "is a rich source of creativity and criticality, as it entails tension, conflict, competition, difference, change in a number of spheres, ranging from ideologies, policies, and practices to historical and current contexts" (pp. 1223–1224). Language educators interested in incorporating translanguaging in their teaching, however, often wonder what types of projects and activities can help them do that in a purposeful and meaningful way.

DST is one way to enact translanguaging pedagogically in our teaching. We know that DST increases motivation and student engagement and offers a way for students to process and express complex emotions (Castañeda, et al., 2018; Kim & Li, 2021; Vinogradova, 2014). We suggest that the emotional experience of language loss, native speakerism, or language hierarchies for minoritized speakers of languages other than English can be fruitfully explored through DST, especially by offering and encouraging translanguaging in digital story creation. By highlighting possibilities for translanguaging in DST, students are encouraged to "take a step back, from being an actor to being an observer who can make objective decisions about *what* stories should be told [and] *how* they should be told" (Kim & Li, 2021, p. 8). Indeed, language is a compositional choice which situates creators in their sociocultural environment and is used to express interpersonal relationships between creators and their various audiences. As Kim and Li (2021) suggested, the layering of semiotic resources in DST "gives the audience a glimpse into [the students'] minds and helps students deal with their own complex emotions" (p. 7). In this way, we also imagine a future community in which plurilingual language users are comfortable and free to use languages in ways that they choose.

The connections between translanguaging and DST, and DMC more broadly, are clear. Referring to Li's (2018) work, Tian et al. (2020) highlighted the "multilingual, multimodal, multisemiotic, and multisensory performance" nature of translanguaging, going on to state that it "integrates diverse languaging and literacy practices to maximize communicative potential and indicate sociocultural identities, positionings, and values in different social contexts" (p. 5–6). We explore this further in the next section.

Digital Stories as Translanguaging

In recent years, we have seen the rise in general of digital multimodal composing (DMC) projects, and more specifically DST as one type of DMC, in EAL curricula

(see Hafner & Ho, 2020; Jiang, 2017; Jiang et al., 2020; Kim & Belcher, 2020; Smith, 2018). DMC incorporates various modalities of meaning-making, including written and audio texts, images, graphics, animation, videos, and hyperlinks to create a multimodal digital text. The main argument for DMC incorporation in EAL has been its support of purposeful engagement with "multiple semiotic resources" (Kim & Belcher, 2020, p. 87) and the development of competencies in multiple modes of communication (Hafner & Ho, 2020). DST is a form of DMC that combines a multimodal narrative, visual images of various formats (e.g., still images, cartoons, graphics, video clips, and various special visual effects), and music. It is "a distinct non-linear narrative genre that uses new media technology to produce short, personal narratives using high quality sound and image" (Vinogradova et al., 2011, p. 175). Used successfully in language curricula with ELs of various ages and language levels (see Anderson & Macleroy, 2016; Hafner, 2015; Kim & Li, 2021; Vinogradova, 2014, 2017) as well as in out-of-school programs (see Castañeda, et al., 2018), what positions DST as separate from other DMC projects is that it promotes language learning through community engagement, including continuous collaboration with classmates, families, and various community members. In this collaborative process, DST offers space for ELs' multilingual repertoires and identity negotiation through the expression of personal multimodal narratives (Anderson & Macleroy, 2016; Anderson et al., 2018; Vinogradova, 2011). As Kim and Li (2021) put it, "Embedding digital storytelling projects in a school curriculum can engage learners with a wide range of expressive resources while also enhancing students' motivation, creativity, identity development, and connection with others" (p. 33).

DST offers many benefits to educators seeking ways to implement translanguaging or multilingualism in their classrooms. Student motivation and engagement increase with DST projects as does language learning (Castañeda et al., 2018; Kim & Li, 2021; Vinogradova et al., 2011). By introducing DST as translanguaging and offering students the possibility of drawing upon their full communicative repertoire, students can showcase their full linguistic capabilities which go beyond monolingual classroom practices. Anderson and Macleroy (2016) stated that by becoming creators of digital stories, "we resist being defined by others and declare the legitimacy of a personal way of seeing and making sense of reality" (p. 1). The authors further connected this perspective to the language chosen to communicate, noting that when stories are created in different languages or combinations of languages, "they often carry greater cultural authenticity [and] embody and give positive expression to plurilingual repertoires within individuals and societies providing a deeper literacy experience and basis for greater intercultural respect and understanding" (p. 1).

The process of engaging in DST promotes both creativity and narrative skills (Rodriguez et al., 2021). Including translanguaging in DST can also encourage the criticality noted by Li (2011). Not only can "students' home language practices be used to further learning" (Marrero-Colón, 2021, p. 3), in DST, they can be encouraged to explore and to critically reflect on how and why they are deemed, or relegated to, *home* language practices. DST has always been used as a tool for social change and is "an ideal resource for giving voice to the voiceless" (Rodriguez et al., 2021, p. 22). Similarly, the main goal of translanguaging is to challenge discriminatory

language ideologies "by liberating and privileging language-minoritized speakers' multilingual performances and legitimizing all their linguistic varieties" (Tian et al., 2020, pp. 6–7). By combining the two, teachers can "make heteroglossic spaces that leverage students' bilingualism and bilingual ways of knowing and that support their socioemotional development and bilingual identities" (Tian et al., 2020, p. 7). In one example, Zhang and Gong (2020) used translanguaging digital storytelling with Chinese international students in Australia to interrupt the *deskilling* impact of an English-only focus. Their use of translanguaging in a digital storytelling workshop "helped foster a sense of empowerment as the act resisted the English superiority discourse that still prevails in academic institutions" (p. 101). Surprisingly, even in this environment, the final stories produced in their workshops were monolingual—an outcome worthy of further exploration. We suggest that multilingual digital stories offer the most benefits to the creators as well as audience members who can develop a greater understanding of multilingual language practices.

Marrero-Colón (2021) outlined several benefits of translanguaging in dual-language classrooms, and we believe the same benefits can be reached through multilingual DST. These benefits include increasing students' metalinguistic awareness and understanding of how different languages can be used strategically to communicate with multilingual audiences and negotiate meaning. This validates the role of language practices in homes and schools and provides opportunities for students to develop creativity as they experiment with their language resources. Anderson and Macleroy (2016) connected these benefits to multilingual DST, noting how this practice "values and supports multilingual repertoires, recognizing that every language is a distinct medium in itself with its own expressive resources, its own palette of colors, its own sounds and rhythms, all shaped by and representing history, culture, values, and beliefs" (pp. 4–5). In this sense, insisting on students only using one language—one part of their linguistic repertoire—is denying them their full expressive capabilities. As a final benefit, any translanguaging practice can support multilevel language classrooms where students have varying degrees of English or other language skills as it "allows the integration and collaboration of language learners from all proficiency levels" (Marrero-Colón, 2021, p. 8).

Incorporating Translanguaging into DST Work

In our work with multilingual ELs and TESOL teacher candidates, we have discovered that translingual practices might not come as naturally to the students as one might expect. While some students engage in translanguaging when brainstorming and discussing their ideas for digital stories, they do not recognize ways they can translanguage in their digital stories. Translanguaging has been evident with ELs when the students needed to reach out to their families and friends for help with visuals or music; however, students avoided using their home languages in their digital stories (Vinogradova, 2011). When prompted to incorporate their home languages in their multimodal narratives when reporting conversations between

family members or addressing their parents, they were hesitant as they did not see a legitimate place for their home languages in an EAL class. At the same time, incorporation of home languages in DMC projects, including DST, has shown increase in students' engagement in the target language (see Castañeda et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2020; Vinogradova et al., 2011), especially legitimizing and empowering language practices of ELs who come from minoritized language backgrounds in their home countries. These multilingual practices become acts of advocacy and empowerment for ELs, especially those who are mislabeled as native speakers of dominant languages in their countries of origin (Jiang et al., 2020; Pentón Herrera, 2019).

Scaffolding of Multimodal Translanguaging

Careful and purposeful scaffolding of translanguaging through the steps of digital story production will create space for multilingual students to incorporate their home languages and legitimize this language use as part of their multimodal practices. For that, we adapted the steps of digital story production developed by Lambert (2009) and Lambert and Hessler (2018) to explicitly facilitate translanguaging, as explained here.

Step 1. The first step in the DST process is to introduce the project to students, showing examples of a variety of stories and analyzing the components. At this point, it is important to choose stories that are multilingual and use a variety of languages in order to encourage translanguaging from the beginning of the digital storytelling process. As students analyze the components of the example digital stories, teachers can also have students notice the choices made when selecting and using various languages. The students can be prompted to think how well they understand the digital stories and what multimodal components help them in their understanding.

Step 2. With this foundational understanding of what digital stories are, and the establishment of a clear multilingual approach, students are ready to brainstorm ideas for their own digital stories. The prompts for this brainstorming can be quite general, asking the students to develop a digital story about something that is interesting or important to them or by posing a question (e.g., what aspect of your life would you like to share?). Depending on the focus of the class and the purpose of the DST project, the prompt can be more specific and can focus on community life, stories of migration, stories of language learning, or stories of traditions or cultural practices. To include translanguaging at this stage, educators can encourage students to use their full linguistic repertoire as they think about or collaboratively talk about ideas for their stories. An assignment can be to brainstorm and record their thoughts in their home languages and discuss their thoughts with family, friends, and community members. From the very beginning,

this brings in collaborative narrative practices and students' lives and communities into the educational setting.

Step 3. After determining topics or general themes for their stories, students engage in a story circle, a collaborative and supportive sharing of their story ideas in groups. Translanguaging can be utilized at this stage as students listen intently to their peers' ideas and ask questions, offer feedback, and help each other further develop their ideas. While the main linguistic medium of the story circle might be English, depending on the make-up of the class, students can be prompted to talk about how they took notes and recorded their thoughts in their home languages, who they talked to and why, and how their use of home language(s) can help them develop their multimodal narratives. They can also be guided to think how languages can be present visually in their digital stories, thus viewing languages as part of their multimodal repertoires. In this initial step of in-class collaborative reflection, analysis, and discussion, a multilingual community of practice starts forming where students find support and encouragement throughout the whole DST process.

Step 4. With the feedback of their peers, students are now ready to develop their verbal narratives. Depending on the course goals and the students' literacy levels, they might be writing their verbal narratives or invited to audio record their narratives right away. This verbal narrative becomes the oral voiceover for their story and undergoes several rounds of editing and revisions. In this step, translanguaging forms the basis of discussions of authenticity of voice, language expectations, and audience understanding. A teacher might ask students, "How would you convey this to different audiences? Which audience do you want to address here? How else, besides oral language, can you support comprehension of your message?" In particular, students can be reminded that subtitles or textual clues can be used in any language to help audience members understand their messages. It can be useful to ask the students to go back to their notes from Step 2 and use these notes when developing their verbal narratives. It is also useful to split this step into at least three stages: (1) initial drafting of the verbal narrative; (2) a peer-review session where students give each other feedback in the language(s) of their choice; and (3) revision of the verbal narrative. Depending on how this stage is structured, the instructor can give feedback and suggest points for revisions. Further, a peer-review session can be scaffolded using a worksheet with a list of questions for the students to discuss or elements of a verbal narrative to pay attention to.

Step 5. With the verbal narratives reaching their final form, it is time for the students to start collecting and organizing their visuals. These visuals can take various forms and can include photographs and various still images, drawings and cartoons, short video excerpts, animated images, and visual effects. Depending on the levels of technological and digital literacy, the students might choose to incorporate various types of visuals. Students who draw, take photographs, record their own videos, or do any type of other visual work professionally or as their hobbies might choose to produce their own visuals. In our work, we have also observed students reaching out to friends and family members to help them produce the visuals, further engaging in translingual practices by collaborating

with relatives and friends. Students can also be encouraged to pay attention to verbal representations in their visuals and engage in multimodal translanguaging this way.

Step 6. Finding music to accompany verbal and visual narrative elements is another step in the process of DST. Here, translanguaging includes thinking beyond language and employing the full range of multimodal resources one has access to (Zhang & Gong, 2020). Students can be encouraged to think about how the music helps tell their story, how it contributes to the emotional aspect of the story, and how it can support and complement some of the oral narrative to fully integrate the multimodal DST experience.

Step 7. Storyboarding—creating an explicit multimodal outline of a digital story—is an important part of the DST process as it helps the creator visualize their digital story by combining multimodal elements of a digital story in an explicit outline. Students again have the opportunity for multilingual peer feedback on their storyboards and for another round of thinking about their audience and the authenticity of their voices. At this stage, the students are able to see their story and assess how multimodal components—languages, visuals, and music—come together to convey their point of view, emotions, and the moment of change in their narrative.

Step 8. Recording the audio of the narrative (the voiceover) is the next step. At this point, students can once again revisit their language choices and consider how multilingual they want their digital stories to be. They can also be encouraged to think about the emotions in their digital stories and how their intonation and voice volume can convey these emotions and emphasize significant moments in their stories. As they record, and even re-record if they choose to do so, authenticity and clear communication of the story's message are primary goals. As in all steps, students have the final say as they decide when the voiceover is ready to be included in their digital story.

Step 9. The next step in the DST process is to take all of the elements and combine them into the digital story using video-editing software. There are many choices for video-editing software and we do not have the space to go into the pros and cons of each here. We recommend software that comes standard on many computers now (i.e., Windows Video Editor for PCs or iMovie for Macs) or free applications that can be downloaded onto tablets or mobile phones (such as KineMaster or OpenShot). It is often true that the students will have greater abilities in this step than some teachers, and acknowledging this student expertise can bring a great sense of empowerment for the students. Translanguaging choices in this step relate to decisions about adding subtitles and special sound and visual effects, the use of language(s) in the title slide and credits, and overall evaluating the story for its multimodal cohesion and meaning, not to mention the collaboration among students and teachers that happens throughout this stage. The students also work on adjustments to transitions between images, adjustments to volume of the voiceover and music, and determine whether any multimodal components need to be edited, added, or re-recorded. All of this multimodal work happens in service to telling the story in the best way possible, as determined by the story's creator.

Step 10. The final step is for students to share their stories with each other, their families, and their communities. Castañeda (2013), Castañeda et al. (2018) and Vinogradova (2014, 2017) emphasized the importance of this step as it is when the students get to engage with their audience and see live reactions to their digital stories—cheering, tears, laughter, applause, and body language indicating emotional engagement. Here again, translanguaging can occur as engagement with family members and friends is likely to happen using a home language. Thus, we suggest rolling out the red carpet (Castañeda, 2013) and having a movie night that is likely to inspire conversations about DST, multilingualism, language choice, and the importance of storytelling in communities.

Examples of Multilingual DST Projects

So far, we have discussed how DST can be employed with a multilingual focus and can facilitate multimodal translanguaging. Here, we would like to highlight several specific examples of DST projects that incorporate translanguaging in various ways. First, from Canada, children with a Farsi language background attended a heritage language school and created digital stories using both Farsi and English (Golneshan, 2016). The author noted that this pedagogy gave the students "the opportunity to move between the two languages, provided power to express themselves in the language they chose, and take control of their own learning" (Golneshan, 2016, p. 39). In another example from Australia, Chinese and other international students engaged in a DST workshop which encouraged them to critically question and creatively deal with how the use of English-only in their academic studies had marginalized them with respect to academic, social, and economic opportunities (Zhang & Gong, 2020). Discussing this project, the authors note:

> In narrating these experiences, [the Chinese international students] engaged in a creative and critical process of examining their social life and presented their thoughts, which would be challenging to do in English, if we see English as an arbitrary and self-contained [linguistic] system by itself…, an inefficient and insufficient tool for EAL students to demonstrate and express critical thinking. Ironically, the concern of English language deficiency, which weighs heavily in the student participant's mind, became a non-issue in their DST making process. They by-passed the "barrier" with their ability to use different modes to communicate ideas. In this sense, we argue that DST is a translanguaging practice… is empowering for students who are studying overseas. (p. 116)

In a final example, a teacher in Indonesia (Laily Amin Fajariyah, personal communication, 2021) used digital storytelling to improve her middle-school students' oral language and literacy skills in English, technological skills, and motivation for learning English. Using a play on words (and an example of translanguaging), rather than translating "digital story" directly into Bahasa Indonesia as "terita digital" (literally, story digital), Laily Amin Fajariyah used the term "cerdig," a combination of "cerdas" ("smart") and "digital." She used this "catchier" term to generate interest in DST and her project. After creating her own digital stories as listening texts for her middle-school EL students, she was challenged by a colleague to have

her students create their own stories. She found that students enjoyed being active learners, creators of content from scratch that they can upload and share on social media. She also noted that students find it motivating to have the opportunity to use their mobile devices in school as they typically have to leave them at home. This teacher introduced a variety of text types to her students that they can use to create their digital stories, including procedural texts and narrative texts. For narrative texts, students create digital versions of Indonesian stories and legends in English. While she did not encourage students to use Bahasa Indonesia or other Indonesian languages in their stories, students translanguaged as they wrestle with how to translate the stories and legends, or otherwise express their topics in English. She also noted that although DST improved students' pronunciation in English, they still spoke "Javanese English" (Laily Amin Fajariyah, personal communication, 2021), which was okay. No matter the topic, this teacher connected her DST project to students' interests noting that, "accommodating students' interests are the first thing we have to do in the digital storytelling project." She also recommended teachers "give [students] as much freedom as possible, freedom of creating their own creativity." She credited this freedom with the success of her DST projects.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have discussed how DST can be used to encourage multilingualism in EAL instruction. DST, as a creative, multimodal, and critical endeavor, has the potential to disrupt monolingual language ideologies and promote multilingualism in classrooms and communities—a goal of translanguaging. DST also encourages the many pedagogical benefits of DMC, including greater student engagement with each other, their families, and communities; empowerment of multilingual and historically marginalized students; and creation of spaces for identity negotiation and expression. Despite some concerns about the potential of DMC and DST to distract learners from their target language acquisition, DST projects facilitate development of linguistic skills, critical literacy, and multiliteracies, thus fostering "multimodal communicative competence" (Castañeda et al., 2018, p. 11). By employing translanguaging in DST as a pedagogical approach, we hope to encourage the strengthening of ELs' full linguistic repertoires in order to empower and benefit each language learner individually. This work also benefits societies as language loss and marginalization have a negative impact on humanity, eliminating forever the varying perspectives, and understanding that different languages offer. We are excited to add our chapter to the growing ideas for multilingualism in TESOL.

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Chapter 16
"Lights, Câmera, Acción:" Multilingual Practices in the Construction of Short Films

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Abstract Looking at students as multilingual subjects leads us to recognize their linguistic repertoires as composed by various socioideological languages, codes and voices. Through this post-structuralist view, being multilingual implies the use of different national, regional and idiosyncratic languages. Bearing this in mind, the main objective of this chapter is to present a project-based methodology for the teaching of English through which learners were expected to be engaged in multilingual practices. The project envisioned the production of short films by students of a Brazilian and a Peruvian institution. Throughout the project, multilingual experiences were pedagogically cultivated through tasks that (1) fostered students to be creative, (2) developed their linguistic repertoires through exchange and collaboration, and (3) ultimately explored their particular viewpoints through meaning-making practices. Based on this shared practice, we hope to shed light on how multilingualism can be theoretically understood in a postmodern framing, and how it might be methodologically designed through a project-based pedagogy.

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Introduction

In this chapter, we present an overview of what we mean by multilingual practices in the English as an additional language classroom from a postmodern perspective. This framing, which orients both the theoretical and the methodological rationale of our teaching *praxis*, is presented as a critical reflection toward many features that additional language teachers commonly take for granted while defining what multilingualism is, such as the existence of countries with their particular national language and culture; the idea of standard and stable languages; the well-defined boundaries between native and non-native languages; and a monolingual set of perspectives which downplays the diversity of social languages.

In the pages that follow we share our view of multilingual education based on postmodern conceptual metaphors that present language as a social practice and language learners as complex subjectivities who come into our classes with various communicative repertoires. On a practical level, these theoretical considerations are translated into our pedagogical practices through the design of project-based tasks in which learners produced short movies.

The project was divided into five different phases. In the first phase, *pre-production*, the main goal was to guide students in the process of brainstorming ideas and introduce them to the structure of the plot, as well as the synopsis, storyboard, and script genres. In the second phase, the *production* phase, students were engaged in the actual shooting of the movie. Next, in the *post-production phase*, they had to edit their movies and produce their respective posters. Finally, students presented their movies in a *ceremony* in which they were invited to evaluate and vote for the best production and, in the following class, they were also asked to *reflect* collectively on the short movies presented in Brazil and Peru.

Through this project-based design, we hope to shed light on how a multilingual pedagogy can be theoretically understood in a postmodern framing, and how it can be cultivated in the classroom context through tasks that (1) foster students to be creative, (2) develop their linguistic repertoires through exchange and collaboration, and (3) ultimately explore their particular viewpoints through meaning-making practices.

Understanding Multilingual Practices: A Postmodern Account

Adopting a postmodern perspective as a language teacher entails understanding language as a flexible set of resources and placing an emphasis on the expansion of communicative repertoires. The ways in which people use languages and other forms of communication (gesture, dress, posture, and other media) to function effectively in the numerous communities in which they participate, according to Rymes (2010), are referred to as communicative repertoires. In this sense, the author argues that a person's communicative repertoire is not just made up of a variety of

different national languages, but it is also a constantly changing collection of various genres, speech styles, pragmatic routines, and other recurring language chunks that are complemented by a variety of resources for meaning-making.

Individuals' communicative repertoires reflect the traces of their diverse life experiences and subjectivities as they travel around the world and interact in the numerous contexts in which they participate. This is precisely what foregrounds our view of language as an idiosyncratic construct which is somewhat unique to the people and their life experiences. It is human action and a way of being. It is not a noun, something we possess, or use–but rather a tool for communication. This deconstruction of the structuralist mindset regarding language as a pre-given thing leads us to understand it as human action by someone in particular, in a particular context, what is referred to in post-structuralist sociolinguistics as *languaging*.

The debate on *languaging* focuses on the social diversity of speech patterns and challenges the idea of different national languages, which has an impact on the concepts of bilingualism and multilingualism. This point of view emphasizes the importance of learning various languages in light of how people develop into social actors and set themselves apart through their unique linguistic traits. In this regard, Makoni and Pennycook (2007) discredited the notion of multilingualism and plurality of languages and referred to the idea of distinct national languages as an invention. According to them, the concept of *languaging* shapes social interactions in a way that can lead to the unification of specific language practices into so-called languages (Garca & Leiva, 2014).

With this post-structuralist conception of language in mind, *translanguaging* can be understood as a construct that goes beyond the notion of combining or switching two static language codes. García and Leiva (2014) noted that *translanguaging* is about a new linguistic reality that is autonomous and, to a certain extent, apart from any of their "parents" or codes. This means that translingual speakers move through various social, cultural, and political contexts, and while communicating, they allow fluid discourses to flow and give voice to new social realities.

Implications for Language Education

A postmodern perspective on language as a social practice leads us to take a specific stance when it comes to being a language teacher. Starting with how we perceive language learners, a critical postmodern viewpoint motivates us to abandon the notion that they are empty vessels awaiting the addition of the target language's forms and rules and, instead, adopt a perspective that sees them as meaning creators who enter our classrooms with a variety of communicative resources. According to this perspective, students interact with the learning materials created in class in a variety of ways, and because people's linguistic repertoires are flexible and dynamic, both students and teachers must acknowledge themselves as multilingual subjects.

According to Kramsch (2009), multilingual subjects do not necessarily speak multiple languages fluently; rather, they have a keen awareness of the social, cultural,

and emotional contexts in which their various languages have developed as well as the memories and experiences that each language evokes. Here, the term "multilingualism" refers to a variety of socioideological languages, codes, and voices in the various situations in which social actors interact rather than just a collection of distinct national languages. Therefore, we should view our students as multilingual individuals whose linguistic repertoires are made up of different (national, regional, and idiosyncratic) languages that may be used for a variety of purposes, not just to achieve practical communicative goals but also as a source of enjoyment, a puzzle, or other intellectual challenge.

We concur with Phipps and Gonzalez (2004) when they stated that the value of education is disempowered by the perception of language as a commodity. We advocate for an alternative to this theory of language learning through the concept of *languaging*. Language learning, based on this criticism, puts forth an educational paradigm that supports the co-creation of complete, risky, and critical intercultural beings that can comprehend the complex and multifaceted reality to which we all belong. The entire landscape of learning alters from this point of view on language education. The school dismantles its walls to become a space connected to the entire social sphere, and the classroom adjusts its furniture into a disposition that ensures exchange and collaboration, where different worldviews are explored and experienced through communicative practices.

Project-Based Learning: Students in Action

From a postmodern perspective, the classroom context is more than just a place where students can use the language they have acquired to respond to a teacher's inquiry. Although structured and responsive, it is a true experience where the potential for dialogue and active meaning production is lagging with life outside of the classroom (Phipps & Gonzalez, 2004). It is in accordance with this premise that we advocate for a teaching methodology that poses our students at the core of the schooling experience, and this is why we understand Project-Based Learning (PBL) to be a coherent methodological rationale for the construction of multilingual practices.

Although PBL has been recognized to be fruitful in twenty-first century education, it can be traced back to the studies of John Dewey at the end of the nineteenth century and to his idea that students should learn by doing. Dewey's hands-on approach remains at the core of PBL, which aims at having students as active participants in their learning process.

There are different ways to conceptualize PBL. According to Stoller (2006), as PBL is extremely versatile, it is difficult to draw up a definition that encompasses the various ways that the approach can be put into practice. Fried-Booth (2002), for example, argued that the project must be student-centered and lead to an end-product or project-work, which should be defined by students. Fried-Booth emphasizes it is during the project development route that learners build up confidence, independence, a sense of teamwork and cooperativeness. Stoller (2006) went further and adopts ten

criteria to detail the route to be followed in order to reach the final product. The project must have a process and a product, be defined and shaped with the help of students, last for an extended period of time, integrate skills, support students in both language and content learning, encourage group work, but also individual work, demand students to be responsible for their own learning in the target language, allow teachers and students to assume different roles, provide a feasible final product, and give students the chance to reflect on both the process and the product. While students assume a central and active position in the learning process, teachers are the ones who provide support and guidance throughout the project, supervise the whole process, offer students the necessary tools to achieve their goals and encourage students to deepen their knowledge (Leffa & Irala, 2014).

The next section describes a project-based learning opportunity developed in two different institutions. The description begins by outlining how the movie project was conceived and detailing the settings where the project took place. After that, the phases of the project and their development are described followed by a discussion of how multilingual practices permeated the project and how assessment was made.

From Theory to Practice: Behind the Scenes of a Movie Festival Project

Since 2011, the English language teachers of the Federal Institute of Santa Catarina (IFSC), Florianópolis Campus, have been wrapping up the academic semesters with projects that involve the production of plays, dubbing or short movies. Among these activities, making movies was the most recurrent for a few reasons. First, students reported to feel more comfortable recording a video to be presented later on in class than presenting in person in front of their colleagues. Also, they felt more linguistically comfortable, since they could rehearse their dialogues as much as they needed prior to shooting. Finally, producing a movie would give students the chance to focus on the development of their oral skills. Therefore, based on our experience with different projects and listening closely to our students’ needs and demands, in 2018, we decided to focus on the production of short movies and proposed an annual Movie Festival.

In this same year we established a partnership with a teacher who worked for the Language Center of Jorge Basadre National University (CEID), located in the city of Tacna, Peru, and carried out the first edition of the International Movie Festival, where students from both institutions watched and rated each other’s movies. The objectives behind the project were not only that students put into practice in a fun way the contents they had been learning along the semester, but more importantly offer them the opportunity to: (a) foster autonomy over their learning process in a meaningful way, (b) develop soft skills, such as effective communication, empathy, open-mindedness, creativity and teamwork, (c) develop oral and writing skills in

different genres related to cinema, (d) make use of technology to learn English, and (e) practice oral skills beyond the limits of the classroom.

The Settings

The study was conducted in Southern Brazil at the IFSC Florianópolis Campus, which is located in the city of Florianópolis and offers basic and higher education. The basic level of education is the focus of our attention for this chapter. Regarding the teaching of English, students have 120 h in the academic curriculum, distributed in 3 semesters (40 h each semester). There is no use of coursebooks as teachers produce their own materials. At the beginning of each semester, students take written and oral placement tests and are enrolled in one of three groups according to their proficiency level (basic, intermediate, and advanced). There are approximately 30 students in each group every semester and they have English classes once a week, lasting one hour and forty minutes. Participants in the project were three groups of each level, totaling around 90 students.

The second setting was CEID, which is a language center of the Jorge Basadre Grohmann National University, located in the southernmost city of Peru on the border with Chile. Around 1500 students over 13 years old and enrolled in different curriculum levels attend CEID. The curriculum follows the activities of a coursebook and a workbook. The English course lasts 23 months divided into four levels: Basic (7 month), intermediate (6 month), upper intermediate (5 months), and advanced (5 month). Classes are given on weekdays, and they last an hour and forty minutes. The participants in the project were two groups of the intermediate level, which made a total of 25 students. The project was inserted in the curriculum to promote participation and speaking evaluation with focus on the language contents (functions, tenses, etc.) students were learning during the month.

Lights, Camera and the Project in Action

The Movie Festival Project was divided into five stages and it was carried out within the period of seven weeks. Students had one hour and forty minutes of English class each week at both schools to work on the project, resulting in approximately twelve hours total. Students would also work extra, non-class time with their groups if they wanted or needed. The following sections describe each phase of the project and the proposed activities.

Pre-production Phase

In the pre-production phase, the main goal was to guide students in the process of brainstorming ideas for an initial draft of the movie as well as to give them the necessary tools to work toward the final draft before they moved on to the shooting of the movie itself. During this phase, students were introduced to the structure of a plot, as well as the synopsis, storyboard, and script genres. All the handouts distributed to them were in English.

During the first week, class began with a presentation of the project in English by the teacher. A set of guidelines was distributed to the students, and they negotiated the necessary steps to the development of the project with the teacher. At this moment, students could suggest changes or improvements to the project and the interactions happened mainly in their mother tongues. Students were then asked to establish their working group, in which each member would be assigned a role (director, editor, cameraman, resource manager, etc.), so that it would be clear who was responsible for each task.

The teacher then led a discussion in English to activate previous knowledge students might have about the film genre and some of its elements, such as theme, characters, setting, conflict, and plot. In order to explore such elements with the students, the teachers distributed a handout and discussed the structure of the plot with them based on the work of Freytag (1908). According to the author, a drama is divided into five parts, namely: exposition, rising action, climax, falling action, and catastrophe (also known as *denouement* or *resolution*). The teacher then explained that the *exposition* refers to the beginning of the story when the setting, characters and background of the story are introduced, the *rising action* refers to the events in a story becoming complicated due to the emergence of a conflict, leading to the *climax* which, in turn, refers to a turning point in the story, changing the protagonist's fate. Next comes the *falling action*, which refers to events and complications starting to be resolved, containing or not a moment of final suspense. Finally, the *resolution* refers to the unraveling of events in the story, i.e., the final outcomes of the plot. After this discussion, the teacher played one or two short movies from previous editions of the project so that students could analyze them according to the structure of the plot just presented.

The first part of the class was then finalized with students getting in groups and brainstorming ideas for their film, creating a sketch and starting working on their initial steps. During this time, basic level students generally discussed in Portuguese, as their mother tongue was the main tool they had at this point to build their arguments so that it could be rebuilt in the written form in English when filling in the handout. On the other hand, advanced level students would lead the discussion in English and Portuguese interchangeably once they seemed comfortable transiting in both languages. For instance, at times they were speaking in English and added a word in Portuguese to complete the flux of conversation and other times it happened the other way around. In the same way, Peruvian students were introduced to the task in English, then they turned the working groups into a kind of safe house in which they naturally communicated their ideas in Spanish orally and in writing; then they

translated the text into English and handed it in to the teacher for feedback. It is important to mention that this pattern was observed throughout the discussions that students had around handouts.

In the second part of the class, the teachers worked with the synopsis genre. According to Dongwan (2020), a synopsis is a short description of a screenplay which aims at making the person who reads it want to watch the movie. In addition to that, the author pointed out that even though the synopsis is often written after the completion of the movie, writing it beforehand can serve as an effective tool to help writers develop their ideas for the movie. In order to assist students to build knowledge of this genre, the teachers distributed a handout with a definition and characteristics. The teachers also showed some examples of synopsis from previous editions of the movie festival (Fig. 16.1) so that students could analyze them and have an idea of the outcome.

After that, students were asked to join their working groups so that they would create the synopsis for their films. At this point, the teachers emphasized—as it was already assigned in the guidelines—that the synopsis the students were writing would have to appear in the posters of their films on the day of the exhibition. As the groups finished writing their synopsis, they sat with the teacher to correct their productions in terms of grammar, spelling, cohesion and coherence. Special attention was given to check if students managed to include the characteristics of the synopsis genre, as

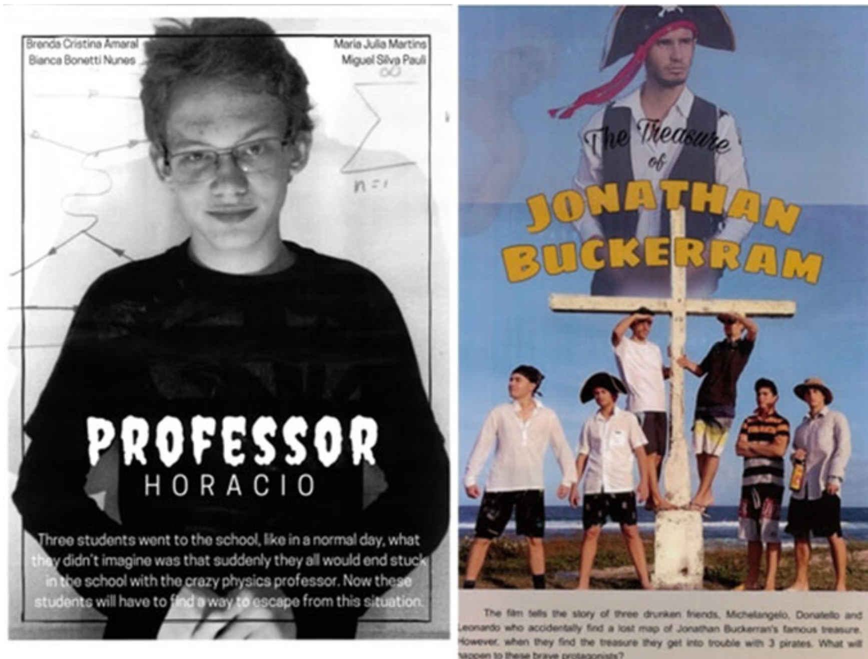

Fig. 16.1 Examples of posters with synopsis

discussed previously in class. The interaction between teachers and students were mostly in Portuguese and Spanish with the basic and intermediate groups, and in English with the advanced ones.

Moving on with the pre-production phase, the second and third weeks of the project were dedicated to exploring the storyboard and script genres. Hart (2007) citing Sherman (1976) stated that “the storyboard consists of making a series of sketches where every basic scene and every camera setup within the scene is illustrated—it is a visual record of the film’s appearance before shooting begins” (p. 3). Working on a storyboard, the author explains, allows one to know exactly what will be done before actually conceiving the footage. Bearing this information in mind, the teachers started the class by distributing a handout and discussing with the students what a storyboard is, why it is important and how to create one. Similar to the previous classes, the teachers showed the students a sample of a storyboard (Fig. 16.2) produced in previous years. After that, they were asked to join their groups and work on their storyboard having their synopsis as a reference.

In the third week, the teacher explained the structure of a script and the students joined their groups to start working. Since writing the script takes some time, the groups were not able to finish this task during class time, and most of them agreed to keep working on the script via online collaborative writing platforms during the week. The groups would then send the scripts for the teacher to make corrections.

During the elaboration of the script, a distinct interaction among students at each level was observed. Basic and intermediate students used Portuguese and Spanish

Fig. 16.2 Example of storyboard

in oral interactions to negotiate meaning more often than advanced students. We also observed a difference in the production of texts written by students at different levels: advanced students produced their texts directly in English, while basic and intermediate students wrote their first text versions in Portuguese or Spanish to then proceed with the translation to English (both with the help of translation tools and the teacher).

We could notice how translanguaging practices permeated their classroom interactions in their process of meaning-making at each stage of the project. During the pre-production phase of the project, it was possible to observe translanguaging taking place when students had to read and complete the handouts that were distributed to them in each class. As presented above, this phase involved the presentation in English of the guidelines and different text genres (synopsis, storyboard, script) followed by a group discussion so that they could start working on the handouts, which were also written in English. Similarly, for IFSC as well as for CEID, students explored their linguistic repertoires in order to make meaning during the reading of the handouts and to negotiate meaning orally at the moment of group discussion to come up with responses that were sometimes written in Portuguese or in Spanish, sometimes in English, and other times even in both languages. In doing so, students had the chance to exercise their autonomy over the entire movie making process once they could express their ideas, locality, creativity, and subjectivities in the language(s) they felt more comfortable with.

Production Phase

The main objective of the production phase was to shoot the movie and students were given one hour and forty minutes to do so. It was a time when students had to put their script into practice in terms of setting, costume, dialogues, and time planning. It was also a time when the groups had to practice their soft skills extensively (e.g., solving problems that might emerge, changing plans, etc.).

In order to avoid delay in the shooting process, students were previously advised by the teachers to bring all the material they needed for the shootings (mostly costumes and camera, but also any other object or equipment they might need). It was common to see students around the school rehearsing their parts and shooting and reshooting the scenes. Some groups had planned scenes that would happen outside the campus (on a beach or in a park, for instance), and others needed the nightfall to record, as in the case of Peruvian students, who had to shoot these scenes after class hours since students were not allowed to leave the campuses during class time.

It is important to mention at this point that during the production phase it was also possible to observe translanguaging taking place at the moment students were rehearsing their parts for the film. It was common to see students transiting from Portuguese or Spanish to English while shooting the scenes. Usually, commands of how to do and what to do in a scene were given in Portuguese or Spanish, and then students would naturally switch to English to move on with the shooting, thus using both languages in a very fluid way. It is interesting to mention that this strategy was

adopted both by students with high and low levels of proficiency in the language. Even though advanced learners had enough command of the English language and could, if they wanted, use English in all their interactions, still they chose to use Portuguese, thus exercising their agency over their learning process.

Post-production Phase

The post-production phase consisted essentially of the editing of the scenes, reviewing and inclusion of the subtitles, and the making of the film poster. Students were given a class to do it, but most of them had to take work home since there were not enough computers available—and with the necessary resources—for the students to work on campus.

As an assignment for this week, students had to bring to class and show the teachers some excerpts of their films (in their cell phones), so that they could have feedback on the work they were doing at home. Also, they had to show the teacher the final electronic version of their posters before printing them, so that the teacher could check for any remaining mistakes or adjustments.

The Movie Festival Ceremony

In the sixth week of the project, we had its outcome: the Movie Festival ceremony. That is when students from all the different groups involved in the project finally watched their peers’ productions. At this ceremony, the groups that made the best film and best poster in the public’s opinion were awarded. The prize was symbolic, but the emotion was real. Due to the time difference, students from Brazil and Peru watched the movies on different days and a winner was chosen in each country, based on the ratings the groups (Brazilians and Peruvians) gave one another.

Final Reflections

In the seventh and final week of the project, students were invited to reflect about the project as a whole. Each group was invited to assign a grade from 0 to 4 to the other groups, taking into account the movie watched, the poster and the synopsis. Students also completed a self-assessment form, in which they were asked to give a grade from 0 to 3 in relation to their participation in the production of the film and explain why they believed so. At the end of the form, there was a box in which they had to write their opinion about the project. The teachers were also responsible to give each group a grade from 0 to 3 based on their participation in the project and on the movie presented.

Some of the positive aspects of the project highlighted mainly by basic and intermediate level students were feeling more confident using the English language to communicate, being valued by their creativity, having the chance to rehearse before

exposing themselves, and improving their writing skills. Advanced students pointed out that they were able to improve their vocabulary and their writing skills, having immediate feedback from the teachers during the different phases of the project. Finally, some students wrote they would have enjoyed having more time to shoot and edit the movie and the chance to interact more with students from the other country.

In addition to linguistic gains in terms of grammar and vocabulary, students also reflected on language as social practice as they could experience how their linguistic repertoires were accessed in a very fluid way in order to perform each stage of the project. When discussing the social, political and environmental issues experienced by both countries, they could build a deeper understanding of language as a tool that allows them to expand their critical view of themselves and of others. Finally, when going over their suggestions for tackling the issues they all face in their contexts, students could reflect on the power of language to shape/change the reality around them.

Closing Remarks

The aim of this chapter was to present a project for teaching English as an additional language, which was carried out in two institutions, one in Brazil and the other in Peru. Through project pedagogy components, students were invited to produce short movies. Over seven weeks, they wrote the synopsis, created a storyboard, wrote the script, shot and edited the film, including the subtitles, designed a poster and presented their final product. During this journey, students engaged in diverse multilingual practices while discussing and negotiating with their peers. Portuguese/English and Spanish/English were used in a very fluid way throughout the phases of the project in order to build meaning. In the end, some gains with the project were that students became more confident while communicating in English; they enhanced their vocabulary, improved their writing, negotiation and argumentation skills, and used English, Portuguese, and Spanish to build a critical view of their social contexts, which were presented in their movies.

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Chapter 17
Online Worldreviewer Language Spaces (OWLS): Integrating Decolonizing Technology and Heritage Language Pedagogy in TESOL

Paul J. Meighan

Abstract Technology is not neutral; it is an extension of a knowledge system. A fundamental issue in discussing the role of technology in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is identifying if that knowledge system perpetuates social inequities, linguistic/cognitive imperialism, and white supremacy. With the advance of globalization, largely characterized by a western, capitalistic worldview and dominant colonial languages (e.g., English), non-dominant heritage/Indigenous languages and cultures continue to be threatened. The colonization of the digital landscape can perpetuate a (heritage) language deficit, linguicide and (epistemological) racisms, and uphold a global white, English, neoliberal agenda. However, decolonizing technology can facilitate formal, informal, and self-directed learning processes and "trans-systemic" knowledge exchanges (e.g., learner creations, community-led apps, and websites). This chapter therefore conceptualizes how decolonizing technology and heritage language pedagogy can enable more equitable transepistemic language education. The chapter introduces *Online Worldreviewer Language Spaces* (OWLS) and the example of the multilingual and multimodal OWLS class blog and self-reflection e-journal in post-secondary education during the COVID-19 pandemic. In OWLS, learners and educators are encouraged to use their full epistemic and semiotic repertoires in the language development and learning process (e.g., [Indigenous/heritage/sign] language, visuals, art, dance, movement, and song). OWLS can enable English language teachers and learners to: (1) critically reflect on their ongoing digital literacies; (2) draw on their (heritage) knowledge systems and multilingual/multimodal semiotic repertoires; (3) collaboratively review dominant neoliberal/colonial ideologies and bias in digital linear and modular texts; (4) share their own unique worldviews; and (5) co-construct deeper associations and meanings in their (online) English language learning or teaching journey.

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Introduction

Technology is not neutral; it is an extension of a knowledge system. A fundamental issue in discussing the role of technology in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is identifying if that knowledge system perpetuates social inequities, linguistic/cognitive imperialism (Battiste, 2013), and white (epistemological) supremacy (Gerald, 2020; Minde, 2003). With the advance of globalization, largely characterized by a western, capitalistic worldview and dominant colonial languages (e.g., English), non-dominant heritage/Indigenous languages and cultures continue to be threatened (Chiblow & Meighan, 2021). The colonization of the digital landscape can perpetuate a (heritage) language deficit (Little, 2020; Phyak, 2021), linguicide and (epistemological) racisms (Kubota, 2020), and uphold a global white, English, neoliberal agenda (Shin & Park, 2016). However, decolonizing technology can facilitate formal, informal, and self-directed forms of learning (e.g., community-led apps, websites, and social media). These "transnational" forms can (1) assert non-dominant heritage/Indigenous voices, creations and "right[s] to speak" across nation-state boundaries (Darwin & Norton, 2014) and (2) acknowledge the central role of local communities and the surrounding land/environment (e.g., the Indigenous Knowledge Social Network [SIKU] app).

This chapter therefore conceptualizes a way in which decolonizing technology and heritage language pedagogy (Meighan, 2020) can enable more equitable transepistemic language education (Meighan-Chiblow, 2021) in TESOL. The chapter introduces *Online Worldreviewer Language Spaces* (OWLS) and the example of the multilingual and multimodal OWLS class blog and self-reflection journal in a post-secondary setting in Canada during the COVID-19 pandemic. In OWLS, learners and educators are encouraged to use their full epistemic and semiotic repertoires (Kusters et al., 2017) in the language development and learning process (e.g., [Indigenous/heritage/sign] language, visuals, art, dance, movement, and song). In the OWLS blog, learners collaboratively reflected on educator prompts about online multimodal texts such as "Who wrote this article?"; "Which languages and images are they using on their site?"; or "Which worldviews are privileged or silenced?". In the OWLS Journal, both learners and educators reflect on their language learning and meaning making journeys and what they have learned from their multimodal and multilingual co-construction and sharing of knowledge. OWLS can enable English language teachers and learners to: (1) critically reflect on their ongoing digital literacies; (2) draw on their (heritage) knowledge systems and multilingual and multimodal semiotic repertoires; (3) collaboratively review dominant neoliberal ideologies and bias in digital linear and modular texts; (4) share their own unique worldviews; and (5) co-construct deeper associations and meanings in their (online) English language learning or teaching journey.

In this chapter, I will first discuss the knowledge system and ideological underpinnings of hegemonic colonial English and the problematic, inequitable characteristics of the dominant western, and capitalistic worldview in TESOL. The role of decolonizing technology and heritage language pedagogy in transepistemic language

education to address epistemic injustices and imbalances in colonial English and virtual/physical landscapes will then be explored. Finally, the example of *Online Worldreviewer Language Spaces* (OWLS) will be given to illustrate how decolonizing technology and heritage language pedagogy can be integrated in both virtual and physical (i.e., face-to-face) TESOL learning environments, and in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Colonial English and the Epistemological Error of the Dominant Western Worldview

The knowledge and belief system, or worldview, through which we view language is fundamental (Meighan, 2021a). The English language is a dominant, western language with a colonial and assimilationist legacy (e.g., Battiste, 2013). The belief system, or worldview, that colonial English represents began with the monolingual, epistemic, and linguistically "superior" ideology imposed through an internal colonialism on the Celtic nations and languages, such as on my language Gàidhlig (Scottish Gaelic), in what is known as the British Isles. This colonial ideology subsumes a present-day global neoliberal ideology based on economic growth, products, and capitalism (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2017). The view of English as a "superior" language is exemplified in the colonizing and imperial belief system of the "elites" of the British Empire where Great Britain acts,

> as a mighty teacher—and while she sits in her matchless powers of political supremacy, commerce, wealth and literature—these influences will combine to diffuse the language, with all the excellences kindred to it throughout the whole world. (George, 1867, p. 8)

Colonial English has been imposed on non-dominant cultures and "vernacular/inferior" languages under the tenets of "civilization," linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992) and cognitive imperialism (Battiste, 2013). Linguistic and cognitive imperialism underpinned the linguistic and ethnic genocide of the peoples colonized by the British Empire, as in the case of the residential schools in Canada (Truth & Reconcilliation Commission of Canada, 2015). We are not in a "post-colonial" era, in theory or reality, as languages and peoples, such as those Indigenous, are still being oppressed to this day through inequitable colonial education and government policy (e.g., Battiste, 2013; Chiblow & Meighan, 2021).

On a macro or epistemic level, colonial/assimilationist legacies and mindsets reside in the human exceptionalism (Haraway, 2008) and the "epistemological error" in dominant western thought (Bateson, 1972). Human exceptionalism "is the idea that humankind is radically different and apart from the rest of nature and from other animals… [which] has allowed us to exploit nature and people more ruthlessly" (Plumwood, 2007, para 1). Dominant western thought holds this anthropocentric (human-centered) perspective and essentializes the purpose of humans into an imperialistic control and exploitation of Earth, nature, the human, more than human, and constructed non-western "other" (Haraway, 2008; Spivak, 1988). Bateson noted, "we

are most of us governed by epistemologies that we know to be wrong" (p. 485) and "the creature that wins against its environment destroys itself" (p. 493). This positivist, "objective" view of western human as "superior" to rest of nature and the "other" has led to social, linguistic, and environmental injustices; "epistemicide" (Santos, 2016); a naïve empiricism; and an "arrogant elitism" in language research and teaching (Macedo, 2019).

On a micro or pedagogical level, inequitable and detrimental practices of linguistic and cognitive imperialism and the colonial English worldview can be perpetuated, even unwittingly, in the virtual or physical TESOL classroom. While some English learners may feel they have agency in learning or speaking English, linguistic imperialism privileges those who use the dominant, "standard," nation-state form of the English language. Linguistic imperialism is also a form of "linguicism," or a favoring of "one language over others in ways that parallel societal structuring through racism, sexism, and class … [and] privilege[s] users of the standard forms of the dominant language, which represent[s] convertible linguistic capital" (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2017, pp. 121–122). Linguistic imperialism normalizes a "deficit ideology" (Phyak & De Costa, 2021) and positions English at the top as a useful commodity (Heller, 2010), or as a "passport to success" and prestige for speakers of alternative, non-dominant languages. Learning English is therefore often actively promoted, normalized, and internalized by learners and parents alike as the language to speak, the language of "progress" or "civility" at the expense of alternative, "lesser" languages (Pennycook, 2017; Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2017). This deficit ideology "justifies inequalities as the outcome of deficiencies (intellectual, economic, and political) of the marginalized groups … [and] disregards the fact that social inequalities, including language inequalities, are shaped by unequal sociopolitical structures and policies" (Phyak, 2021, p. 228). While learning and speaking English can be useful and additive, neoliberal, colonial English does not always lead to transformative social change for those who acquire English as a second/foreign/additional language due to "epistemological racisms" (Kubota, 2020) and the privileging of western, white Euro-North American knowledge systems. Kubota remarks:

> the field of teaching English as a foreign language is a case in point. Japanese curricula and instruction, for example, emphasize standardized English and overrepresent Inner circle countries, especially the USA, as well as whiteness … This is reflected in Japanese students' preference for white native English-speaking teachers over black or Asian ones. (p. 718)

The "epistemological error" (Bateson, 1972) dominates the current mainstream western and anthropocentric worldview, mindsets, behaviors, and by extension, our institutions, TESOL classrooms, and the English language (e.g., Macedo, 2019; Meighan, 2021a). As President Theodore Roosevelt (1919) stated now a century ago, "we have room for but one language here [the United States], and that is the English language" (p. 2). Assumed colonial cultural and linguistic superiority has set the foundations for a cognitive imperialism, or "white epistemological supremacy" (Minde, 2003), the goal of which is to "eradicate all vestiges of the subjugated and conquered cultures and their respective languages" (Macedo, 2019, p. 15).

The Potential of Decolonizing Technology, Heritage Language Pedagogy, and Transepistemic Language Education for a More Equitable TESOL

Just as language teaching is not neutral or apolitical, so, too, is technology. Technology is the result of practical applied knowledge, skills, and networks which are continually evolving, fluid and context-dependent (Silverstone, 2005). Technology is not neutral and is the extension of the knowledge and belief system, the way of life, which has led to its creation (Strate, 2012). Examples of technology include writing systems, the pencil, the wampum belt, mass media, television and, more recently, online and digital technologies, such as the Internet and cellphones (Meighan, 2021b).

A fundamental issue in discussing the role of technology in education, and more specifically TESOL, is identifying which or whose knowledge or belief system is being enacted or upheld. It is imperative to locate and understand how technology has been viewed and utilized in dominant western, Euro-North American ideals of technological progress and the epistemic injustice this may perpetuate for fields such as TESOL and beyond. With the advance of globalization and digital and online technologies, English dominance has spread into the virtual landscape. The World Wide Web was created by western people for a western audience as an extension of the dominant western worldview. For example, Tim Berners-Lee, the inventor of the World Wide Web, envisaged "universality" and "dictated the monolingual [English] design of the web" (Kelly-Holmes, 2019, p. 28). As identified in the previous section, English can transmit a detrimental worldview and knowledge system, an "epistemological error" characterized by cognitive and linguistic imperialism and human exceptionalism. It is imperative, therefore, to question, who created this article or video? What is its purpose? Which language, and whose voices or identities are being silenced or upheld? These questions and concerns are particularly crucial when discussing endangered, minoritized, heritage, and Indigenous languages and cultures which have been disprivileged and disenfranchised by imperialistic, capitalistic, and colonial knowledge systems (Battiste, 2002; Macedo, 2019). As Pool (2016) noted, "for their colonizing mission, imperialists imported data methodologies, smugly assuming that epistemologies other than Euro-North American ones were inferior" (p. 62).

This chapter contends that, once we locate the knowledge and belief system that technology extends, we can take steps to envisaging a *decolonizing technology*. A colonization of the digital landscape would perpetuate a monocultural, monolingual universality, an internalized deficit ideology (Phyak, 2021), linguicide and (epistemological) racisms (Kubota, 2020), and a white, western, neoliberal agenda (Shin & Park, 2016). In contrast, decolonizing technology is a process through which we can address the colonization of the digital landscape, its monolingual, monocultural, ethnocentric design, by: (1) locating the knowledge system (or, epistemological lens) that technology is extending; (2) questioning whether said knowledge system

perpetuates epistemic injustice and/or social inequities; and (3) addressing any epistemic imbalance by integrating culturally and environmentally responsive knowledge systems in technological design, creation, and/or implementation. For steps (1) and (2), we as TESOL educators, alongside our learners, could critically self-reflect and ask, which online resources (websites, articles, apps, and social media) are we sharing? To what extent do those resources uphold a monolingual, and thereby, monocultural or colonial lens? These are important questions that perhaps are forgotten or side-stepped in attempts to create TESOL tasks, syllabi, and/or curricula and respond to stakeholder pressures (e.g., administrators, directors, and parents). For step (3), we could decentralize and decolonize technology as part of a transepistemic language education (see Fig. 17.1; Meighan-Chiblow, 2021) that incorporates heritage language pedagogy (Meighan, 2020); knowledge co-creation and sharing as we language; and sustainable, self-determined, self-produced, and self-created relational technologies (Taylor et al., 2019).

Transepistemic language education is defined as "a way of learning, teaching, knowing, and being which enables respectful and non-hierarchical knowledge co-creation while we engage with languages, peoples, cultures, and lands" (Meighan-Chiblow, 2021, para 1). As Fig. 17.1 illustrates, transepistemic language education encompasses the past, present, and future of our learners and enables: (1) heritage language pedagogy to respectfully relate to languages, peoples, cultures, and lands; (2) non-hierarchical knowledge co-creation as we language and relate; (3) decolonizing and relational technology use; and (4) greater opportunities for future environmental and humanitarian sustainability. Heritage language pedagogy is defined as "a method through which all multicultural and multilingual learners, not only

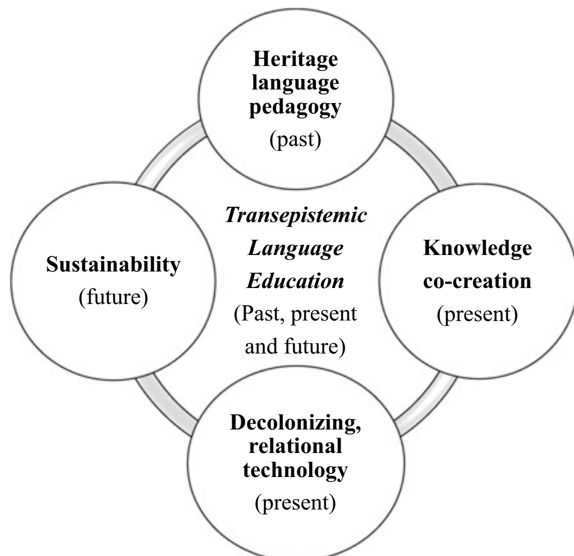

Fig. 17.1 Transepistemic language education

speakers or learners of dominant, non-endangered languages, can feel fully empowered and validated in an alternative holistic, earth-centered (as opposed to human-centered) learning process" (Meighan, 2021c). A culturally vitalizing and respectful non-hierarchical knowledge co-creation process which includes our learners' worldviews and (heritage) knowledge systems is, therefore, encouraged by educators and fostered by "trans-systemic knowledge exchanges" (Battiste, 2013). A decolonizing technology facilitates this knowledge co-creation process by formal, informal, and self-directed forms of learning (e.g., learner creations, videos, online blogs/websites, community-led apps, websites, and social media). These "transnational" forms can (1) assert non-dominant heritage/Indigenous voices, creations, and "right[s] to speak" across nation-state boundaries (Darwin & Norton, 2014) and (2) acknowledge the central role of local communities and the surrounding land/environment (e.g., the Indigenous Knowledge SIKU app which facilitates self-determination in research, education, and stewardship by and for Indigenous communities, in this case, the Inuit). And, finally, the greater exchange of worldviews and knowledges can enable greater opportunities for a transepistemic dialogue on present and future sustainability issues, such as the climate and humanitarian crises, based on existing learner knowledges that may have been overlooked, diminished, or excluded in mainstream western English classrooms.

An overarching takeaway is, before implementing technology as an extension to epistemic learning and pedagogical design, we as TESOL educators must question the lens and the knowledge system that is being implemented and take measures to address deficit ideologies our multifaceted, multicultural, and multilingual learners may encounter. Transepistemic language education is proposed as one way in which we can address deficit ideologies and (epistemic) injustices in TESOL.

Online Worldreviewer Language Spaces (OWLS): Integrating Decolonizing Technology and Heritage Language Pedagogy in TESOL

In this section, I conceptualize how decolonizing technology and heritage language pedagogy can enable more equitable transepistemic language education in TESOL by introducing the example of *Online Worldreviewer Language Spaces* (OWLS). OWLS are online multimodal and multilingual transepistemic language education environments where learners and educators are also *Worldreviewers.* As *Worldreviewers,* they can share insights from their own worldviews, heritages, and co-create knowledge in a respectful and non-hierarchical manner. OWLS build upon the "Worldviewer" video blog I previously introduced (Meighan, 2021c) and are envisaged as environments where both learners and educators can engage at an epistemic level in a decolonial sharing and co-creation of knowledges and worldviews. OWLS stress a plurality of knowledges, not a monocultural or monolingual universal western system, where

we can (1) decolonize the mind by questioning existing mental models and assumptions in physical and virtual environments; (2) problematize the inequities of the status quo in these contexts; and (3) co-create solutions to major and urgent real-life issues, such as the climate and humanitarian crises, by incorporating existing and co-creating new worldviews. In OWLS, learners and educators are encouraged to use their full epistemic and semiotic repertoires (Kusters et al., 2017) to go beyond linguicentrism or ethnocentrism in the English language development and learning process (e.g., named/unnamed/sign languages, translanguaging, visuals, art, dance, movement, song, and gestures).

OWLS emerged from my teaching experiences in my English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Business Purposes (EBP), and English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms at post-secondary institutions in Toronto, Canada. I wanted to incorporate a culturally vitalizing, multimodal and environmentally responsive approach to enable transepistemic language education. I implemented OWLS in several post-secondary college and university courses by utilizing: (1) an online multilingual and multimodal class blog (see Fig. 17.2); and (2) a learner and educator self-reflection e-journal (oral, video, written, or visual) and self-assessment log (see Tables 17.1 and 17.2). In a metropolis like Toronto, one shared characteristic of the classrooms in which I taught was that learners had rich multicultural and multilingual experiences and diverse knowledge systems that influenced how they languaged and related to the environment and to one another. Another shared characteristic of the classrooms was that the curricula and materials largely came from the lens of the hegemonic western worldview. For instance, the materials were largely written from a Euro-North American perspective and non-western views were not as commonly incorporated and/or acknowledged.

I wanted to include alternative and diverse ways of knowing and being in a way that respected the rich heritages of my learners and validated their own knowledge and

Fig. 17.2 *Online Worldreviewer Learning Space* (OWLS) blog

Table 17.1 OWLS mini-unit

Lesson	OWLS text focus	OWLS blog co-creation (Group)	OWLS E-journal (Individual)
1	***Rhetorical*** **Task**: Research author and publisher **Exploration**: Identification of bias; reasons why text was written	Groups reflect and record their answers to video reflection questions (see Table 17.2)	How do your own personal experiences relate to the text and text focus? Will you share what you have learned with anyone? Why?
2	***Visual*** **Task**: Analyze visuals **Exploration**: Identification of bias; reasons why text was written; impact of visual rhetoric/nonverbal communication on message	Groups reflect and record their answers to video reflection questions (see Table 17.2)	How do your own personal experiences relate to the text and text focus? Will you share what you have learned with anyone? Why?
3	***Grammatical*** **Task**: Textual analysis of grammar and style **Exploration**: Use of commas; use of simple versus compound tenses to explain concepts (i.e., Could message be simplified?)	Groups reflect and record their answers to video reflection questions (see Table 17.2)	How do your own personal experiences relate to the text and text focus? Will you share what you have learned with anyone? Why?
4	***Lexical*** **Task**: Vocabulary used **Exploration**: Use of positive or negative words; overall balance of positive versus negative words and what impact this has on reader	Groups reflect and record their answers to video reflection questions (see Table 17.2)	How do your own personal experiences relate to the text and text focus? Will you share what you have learned with anyone? Why?
5	***Cultural*** **Task**: Explore cultural or field-specific terms; re-create excerpt with learners' own terms **Exploration**: Exchange worldviews, experiences; impact of worldviews on planet, cultural, and linguistic diversity (i.e., colonization, climate crisis, Indigenous language endangerment)	Groups reflect and record their answers to video reflection questions (Table 17.2)	How do your own personal experiences relate to the text and text focus? Will you share what you have learned with anyone? Why?

(continued)

Table 17.1 (continued)

Lesson	OWLS text focus	OWLS blog co-creation (Group)	OWLS E-journal (Individual)
6	**OWLS Blog Knowledge Co-creation** ***Final Video Response*** (see Table 17.2) ***and Interaction*** **Task**: (1) Synchronously, learners discuss and reflect on how their interactions over time with the text have changed their understanding/experience of the theme and then via comment function on each other's blog video entries (2) Asynchronously, learners record an individual final video response to answer questions and reflect on learning over the whole mini-unit **Lines of exploration**: Knowledge co-creation while languaging; critical reflection, and evaluation of how the text and mini-unit has impacted on their worldview		

Text *Extinction of Indigenous languages leads to loss of exclusive knowledge about medicinal plants* (Zanon, 2021)

Table 17.2 Final individual OWLS video response

Final individual OWLS video response
1. Please video record your responses. If you wish, you can also use visuals or images, instead of words, to express how you feel • What are the key themes for you in the article? • How does the language in this article make you feel? • How does the article relate to your experience of languages and language learning? • How does this article relate to your experience of language oppression? • Do you think that cultural and linguistic diversity is important? Why or why not? • Has the article changed your mind about anything? 2. Upload your video to the OWLS class blog 3. Please view at least three of your classmates' videos and add a comment on how their experience with the text related to yours

belief systems, western-influenced or not. I decided to include more visual, aural, and/or multimodal texts (e.g., TED talks, recent online/print newspaper articles) created by authors with non-dominant, alternative, and earth-centered worldviews in addition to those written from the dominant western perspective. As part of culturally vitalizing and environmentally responsive transepistemic language education and heritage language pedagogy, educators and learners in OWLS are able to explore non-western, beyond neoliberal texts which may not be part of the "standard" EFL/ESL curriculum as they language and co-create knowledge in English.

By way of example, for one of my online classes during the COVID-19 pandemic, I included a newspaper article, linked to an academic publication, published in Mongabay, "*Extinction of Indigenous languages leads to loss of exclusive knowledge about medicinal plants*" (Zanon, 2021). Mongabay is a multilingual "web site that publishes news on environmental science, energy, and green design" with "reporting available in nine languages" (Wikipedia, 2021). Over a six-lesson mini-unit I designed (see Table 17.1), we analyzed rhetorical, visual, grammatical, lexical, and cultural aspects of the online text and produced an interactive OWLS blog

(see Image 1), a digital multimodal environment which documented our knowledge co-creation language journey.

For the OWLS text focus and blog, learners collaboratively reflected on educator prompts about the online multimodal text and linked publication such as "Who wrote this article?"; "Which languages and images are they using on their site?"; or "Which worldviews are validated, privileged or silenced?". Learners also tracked their progress on the OWLS self-assessment log (see Fig. 17.3). For the OWLS individual e-journal and final video response (Table 17.2), both learners and educators reflect on their language learning and meaning making journeys and what they have learned from their multimodal and multilingual co-construction and sharing of knowledge. For the collaborative knowledge co-creation work and individual critical self-reflection e-journals, logs and final response, we used either Google Docs, YouTube videos, digital platforms, or Discussion Forums on the OWLS blog.

During our OWLS mini-unit, blog, log and e-journal, we developed present-day and future skills, such as visual, digital, and print literacies (e.g., multiliteracies; Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). In addition, OWLS activated transepistemic language education through an epistemic (un)learning by challenging hegemonic western mental models and assumptions (e.g., cognitive/linguistic imperialism and human exceptionalism). OWLS enabled learners to share and review worldviews with each other and co-create knowledge through the lens of (their) alternative heritage/Indigenous/non-dominant languages and worldviews while languaging in English. For example, in some videos and prompted by the text, learners contrasted and compared names for plant medicines in diverse languages they knew, or the definition of water in the English dictionary as "odorless" or "tasteless" with the understanding that "Water is Life" in Indigenous worldviews and languages (e.g., (Chiblow (Ogamauh annag qwe), 2019).

We also reflected past experiences from our families' heritage languages and cultures and shared these insights in our OWLS group or individual responses and/or in the comment function of the OWLS class blog. Learners talked about traditional place names, what they meant, and compared sustainable agricultural practices in their heritage languages and cultures which shared ecological insights about the land. During class and in some OWLS responses, we also discussed the framing of the environment in dominant neoliberal western English discourse, such as "the degradation of the environment." We evaluated the impact of the nominalization of the English noun in this case. For instance, who is degrading the environment? Why is the agent missing? What effect does this have on the meaning? We also shared ways in which we could make more earth-centered language (Rosenfeld, 2019; Stibbe, 2017) and metaphors to talk about the environment. For example, why do certain people call areas of land "wasteland," "desert," or "dirt?" How do you relate to these words and treat this land? What would be another way of naming this land that is more respectful of all its inhabitants, including human, animals, and more than human entities?

In small groups (3 or 4), please videorecord your responses to the questions below. You can check off your progress and completion on each lesson with a ✓.

Note: Some questions are focused on specific lessons. In these cases, the lessons are greyed out.

	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Lesson 4	Lesson 5	Lesson 6
How did researching the author and publisher help you in identifying potential bias in the article?						
How did the use of images and visuals in the article impact you? What message did they convey?						
Do you think certain word choices contribute to the emotion of a text? Why?						
Does the author's language differ to other texts on the environment? Why?						
Why and how are Indigenous languages important?						
Do you think the text had an overall negative or positive tone? Why?						
Have your opinions about the text changed since the first lesson? Why?						

Fig. 17.3 OWLS self-assessment log

OWLS E-journal: How do your own personal experiences relate to the text? With your classmates?						
OWLS E-journal: Is there anything you will you share with others outside the classroom? Why?						
OWLS Blog: Final video response						

Fig. 17.3 (continued)

Conclusion

In OWLS and as *Worldreviewers*, we (learners and I) shared perspectives and worldviews of our own, or alternative languages and cultures in a respectful way where no *one* universal knowledge system was privileged, all were. OWLS activated transepistemic language education through a heritage language pedagogy and knowledge co-creation process where all languages and cultures, influenced by the past, present, and future, were welcomed. We co-created and shared knowledge together as we languaged in English through a decolonial, more than western, lens. We took a decolonizing technology approach which enabled us to co-create our own designs and critically reflect on the multimodal and multilingual features used to language in English on online, digital texts. We sought out more earth-centered metaphors and new and/or existing "stories to live by" (Stibbe, 2017) based on ecological insights from our own knowledge systems and languages on our interactive OWLS blog, responses and reflections. In OWLS, we activated our epistemic and semiotic repertoires in the English language development and learning process by including dominant, Indigenous, heritage, minoritized, and sign languages, visuals, art, videos, and song.

In conclusion, OWLS can enable English language educators and learners to: (1) critically reflect on our ongoing digital literacies; (2) draw on our (heritage) knowledge systems and multilingual and multimodal semiotic repertoires; (3) collaboratively review dominant neoliberal ideologies and bias in digital linear and modular texts; (4) share our own unique worldviews; and (5) co-construct deeper associations and meanings in our (online) English language learning or teaching journey. OWLS, as part of transepistemic language education, enables multilingual and multimodal knowledge co-creation in a respectful, non-hierarchical manner as we language in English.

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Chapter 18
The Facilitating Role of English as a Reference Language for the Awakening of Young Students to Linguistic Diversity

Eftychia Damaskou

Abstract During the last decade, migrant and refugee flows toward Greece have contributed to the formation of a multilingual and multicultural mosaic within Greek schools. Due to the absence of their mother tongues from the class, non-native young students become "invisible" in the classroom and are confronted with adaptation difficulties. Within this context, utilizing all students' languages in class seems a necessity, but also a difficult venture. However, the pluralistic approach "awakening to languages" could offer a solution, invoking a simultaneous cross-linguistic approach to many languages based on the students' linguistic repertoire. Being taught since kindergarten, English is a significant part of young students' repertoire. Hence, this chapter explores the role of English as a reference language within multilingual material for first schoolers' awakening to other languages. The research consists of a two-stage qualitative study. First, 60 teachers were interviewed about language stimuli, appropriate materials, and the teaching and working mode within the first grade. Based on the answers elicited through the interviews and the principles of the awakening to languages approach, a tale about farm animals was created and tried out in three mainstream first grade classes. All three implementations were filmed, transcribed, and analyzed using the technique of thematic analysis. The conclusions reveal the importance of English as a facilitating factor in approaching untaught languages, serving as a bridge or reference for identifying words' meanings, and recognizing letters' pronunciation. It was also found that familiarity with an alphabet other than that of mother tongue seems to be an important vehicle to open up multilingualism.

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Introduction

Since 1945 and even more intensely during the last decades, English has been by far the most widely taught language in both Western and Eastern Europe (Phillipson, 2008) and is being introduced as a first foreign language earlier and earlier in the education system (Muñoz, 2014). In Greece, the educational language policy responds to socio-cultural imperatives but also the broader directions of the European Union, where multilingualism is core (Language Policy Division, 2006). Skourtou (2005) noted that Greece is a country where significant progress is being made in the field of language learning, with many Greeks wishing to speak other languages and use them in their respective communication environments. The teaching of foreign languages in primary education was initially introduced in the three last grades during the late 1990s (Griva & Iliadou-Tahou, 2010). This experience reveals the importance and benefits of foreign language teaching to young students, while ensuring access to foreign language education for children from different socio-economic backgrounds (Mattheoudakis & Alexiou, 2009). Beginning in 2003, English was introduced in the third grade. Then in 2010–2011, the pilot implementation of the "Program for Early Teaching of English" began in the first two grades. Finally, in 2020, it was decided that English should be taught in kindergarten.

However, English is not the only language other than Greek present in the Greek education system. Since 1990, Greece has welcomed students of different ethnicities due to an unprecedented flow of migrants from the Balkans, the former Soviet Union, the Middle East, and Africa (Gkaintartzi et al., 2015; Mattheoudakis et al., 2017), transforming the school classroom into a colorful and polyphonic social cradle. The presence of students with different ethnic, religious, and linguistic backgrounds has led the educational authorities to reconsider issues related to culture, identity, and citizenship (Mattheoudakis et al., 2017). According to Kiliari (2005), the languages of immigrants have a place in school, as both a transitional learning tool for the acquisition of the dominant language and as a part of the free educational choices in school programs. However, the monolingual model of reference causes phenomena of "language denial" (Perregaux, 2004) in children whose first language is not that of the school, with serious consequences for the preservation of the identity roots and for learning in general. Failure to use the language of the home has led to isolation and therefore, marginalization of these students who avoid expressing themselves for fear of making mistakes (Szőnyi et al., 2020).

According to the Commission of the European Communities' Green Paper "Migration and mobility: Challenges and opportunities of EU education systems" (2008), it is necessary for classes and schools to adapt as much as possible to these demographic changes through new teaching skills, which include the involvement of immigrant families and communities. Bonnet and Siemund (2018) argued that for foreign language courses, the presence of multilingual immigrants offers pedagogical and learning benefits for all students. Within this setting, there is an urgent need to open the classroom to linguistic diversity and to utilize all the languages of

the classroom, both the foreign languages taught in school and the students' home languages. The issue that arises is how the teacher could build on the students' prior knowledge and language skills in order to welcome the children's particular languages. This chapter examines whether the existence of a reference language, namely English, in multilingual educational materials created to awaken students to multiple languages is a factor in the development of language learning strategies for primary school students. By reference language, we mean a dominant language that students refer to when processing unfamiliar languages during activities, in order to interpret then and understand their meaning.

Literature Review

The Council of Europe's *Framework of reference for pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures* (Candelier et al., 2007) establishes four pluralistic approaches to support teachers' promotion and utilization of their class's linguistic diversity. "Awakening to languages" (AtL) can be considered as the most extreme one, as it utilizes many languages in every implementation. According to Candelier et al. (2010), AtL refers to teaching approaches in which some of the learning activities incorporate languages that the school has no intention to teach. Since no language is excluded, this approach provides fuller recognition of the young students' particular languages and supports language learning throughout schooling. According to several studies, AtL appears to have great appeal in countries facing a strong presence of multilingual students at school (Azaoui, 2009; Candelier et al., 2007; Plain, 2016). In Greece, this approach was officially integrated in the third grade's curriculum and it was limited to project-based learning components ("Evelikti Zoni" in Greek) (Alachiotis, 2002).

The recognition and use of children's home languages in the school context cultivates a climate of trust and prosperity in the classroom (Mary & Young, 2017). Busse et al. (2019) claimed that the use of resources from students' whole linguistic repertoire stimulates positive attitudes and enhances language learning through the development of language and metalinguistic awareness. The valuing of students' languages and cultures, through the promotion of their interlinguistic skills, undoubtedly plays a facilitating role for their transition from home to school, cultivating positive relationships with families. According to the Council of Europe (2001), students who have already learned a first foreign language are very likely to know linguistic elements that are valid in other languages, thus they are potentially competent in other languages, without realizing it, while learning an additional language facilitates the activation of the knowledge of these elements and increases their awareness. Witney and Dewaele (2018) argued that the accumulation of such language learning experiences allows learners to use prior language knowledge to develop a range of enhanced cognitive skills including explicit knowledge of the language being learned.

Primary school students are already aware of linguistic diversity even before their schooling as within their living environment they often come into contact with other languages, most of which are unfamiliar to them, and may even get to the point of writing words or becoming familiar with word sounds in other languages that they have not previously encountered. As Cameron (2001) pointed out, the ability to transfer knowledge, skills, and strategies from one language to another depends to a large extent on how languages work in their written form. Of course, literacy knowledge and skills are only partially developed in the first language at the age of 5–6 years, so it should be borne in mind that only certain dimensions of the language are available for transfer. Bonnet and Siemund (2018) pointed out that the acquisition of a foreign language also depends on the typological distance or proximity between interacting languages. Transfer occurs when a specific linguistic property of the language input reveals an abstract structural similarity to the linguistic properties of the languages already learned (Westergaard et al., 2017). Odlin (1989) described it as the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously and perhaps imperfectly acquired. However, what are the implications of this kind of metaphor when a language already known is used as a basis by the students themselves in the context of activities to awaken them to linguistic diversity?

The Study

In the previous section, it became clear that utilizing all students' particular languages in class has nowadays become a necessity for the Greek educational system. Yet, creating teaching materials involving and promoting all languages that are spoken by one's students seems to be in itself a difficult venture for the teacher. As presented in the literature review, AtL through the harmonious synergy among the languages of the classroom that it provides seems to offer promising results in ensuring the resounding presence of every student's particular language. Thus, within this context, we designed a study to explore how young students refer to a known language in order to understand languages untaught and unknown to them, and on the type of relationships that students make between that language, which we call the "reference language" and the rest.

The study was a qualitative study conducted in two stages. In the first part, we conducted semi-structured interviews with 60 primary teachers to gather information about the creation of multilingual materials. Participants were male and female general teachers and teachers of other courses (English, drama, music, and physical education) aged from 25 to 55 years old, all having at least two years' experience in the first grade. Interviews were carried out in person or by phone in the form of informal conversations to ensure a relaxed ambience and to extract more "real-life" stories. During interviews, teachers were encouraged to share stories, opinions, and views on language stimuli that young pupils have inside and outside their class, favorite teaching subjects, appropriate teaching materials, and working modes for

young pupils. All conversations were in Greek and were tape-recorded by means of a voice recorder with the participants' consent. The analysis of each transcript led to a coding framework, from which emerged the themes of our research, as presented in the following section (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The second part of our study concerned the creation of multilingual material that would serve as an implementation tool. Analysis of the teacher interviews indicated that tales are highly utilized in the first grade. To start creating our multimodal tale, we had to define some basic axes: theme, working mode, type of activities, type of materials, and duration. Nature, especially animals, but also family are some of the most popular topics for students at this age. Thus, we created a tale entitled "The grandpa's farm," where two children visit their grandfather's farm and get acquainted with the animals that live there. Once the children get there, they decide to explore it. Suddenly, the farm's dog, Fidel, gets lost in the woods. The talking animals are willing to help the children find it, on one condition: the children must complete a sequence of tasks. These tasks engage pupils' in discovering animal vocabulary across eleven languages: Albanian, Bulgarian, Chinese, English, Farsi, French, German, Greek, Turkish, Spanish, and Swedish. The animal vocabulary included the words for rooster, dog, cat, frog, turtle, hippo, lion, elephant, and monkey, most of which take part in the tale. Written linguistic material was retrieved from online dictionaries, while oral content was provided by native speakers, free online text to speech tools, as well as a video-sharing website. The tale lasted approximately three teaching hours and was presented in class through an illustrated recorded narration, which was progressively interrupted by the tasks that pupils were supposed to achieve, in order to help the heroes. The material that each group received consisted of vocabulary lists of all animals in all working languages, cubes, plasticine, fluffy wires, and animal illustrations.

The theoretical frame of the awakening to languages approach plays a major role in our tale's plot. Thus, the evolution of the story serves as a chain that ties up harmoniously all the activities. Yet, the teaching materials designed according to this approach are built around three phases (Candelier, 2003): the anchorage situation, where the teacher provides activities that build bridges with the previous knowledge and prepare pupils for the new content, followed by the research situation, where activities entail observation, comparison, hypothesis making, cooperation, justification, auditory discrimination, and knowledge transfer. Pupils also compare writing systems, associate words to sounds, use kinesthetic and metacognitive strategies. The final synthesis phase involves activities where pupils are supposed to combine new knowledge and skills so as to complete a project (i.e., a poster, a model, play a game, etc.).

The tale was implemented in three mainstream first grades in two urban primary schools in central Greece. A total of 60 first graders participated, all of whom were Greek speaking, apart from several children who had Albanian or Bulgarian as home languages. English was taught as a foreign language for all of them. All three implementations were recorded with a camera, which provided a general overview of the class and allowed a comparative study of all groups. The groups' work during tasks was video recorded by mobile phone, which allowed for in depth

analysis of how each group worked in each task (strategies, hypotheses, argumentation, etc.). All videos were transcribed and analyzed by means of thematic analysis.

Results

Teacher Interviews

The first question that the teachers were asked was whether they think that first graders have stimuli from other languages. As we can observe in the following excerpts, some teachers confirm that first graders not only have stimuli from their peers' first languages but also tend to use and know the meaning of some words in these languages. More specifically, one of the teachers admitted to feeling impressed "by the fact that not only do they have stimuli from other languages, but as they make close company with children who come from Albania, from Bulgaria, from Serbia, from different countries, they recognize words and they know their meaning too" (T1). Another teacher admits having noticed that "within their games during breaks, [she has] heard Greek speaking pupils using words in their peers' first languages" (T24).

However, beyond contact with their peers' particular languages, it seems certain that young students have stimuli mainly from English. In fact, as a teacher claims, "almost all children distinguish English, because there are many stimuli they receive. I mean, on the computer, their games and all that, uh … they have a familiarity with the English language and they can recognize it" (T17). Some other teachers also refer to stimuli from young students' own home languages: "if they speak another language, let's say, like Albanian, Bulgarian, yes, okay, they recognize their mother tongue, that is, the one spoken by their parents and the language of the place where they are. The rest of the students, the Greeks, let's say, the natives, can recognize, I think, English. Because they have stimuli from the television, from the radio" (T15).

Another point of discussion during the interviews concerned young students' favorite type of activities. According to the answers, they seem to prefer conventional and interactive activities, whereas the most preferable type of material at that age of schooling seems to be computer-assisted material, playful interactive games (according to the majority of the inquired teachers), role play, and multisensory pantomime combining songs and images. Some teachers highlight the use of illustrations in association with the linguistic material, as meaning-making facilitators. Others insist on colors, heuristic nature, plasticine, flash cards, while others raise the fact that teaching material in the first grade should be adaptive, depend on very specific goals, be varied, feasible, and entail repetitions. In short, "the activities that include pictures or shapes, are their favorite ones!" (T7).

Teachers also focused on group work, short, diverse, and feasible activities, in order to maintain pupils' motivation. Specifically, there are teachers who "think the cooperative is the best. By groups. Because the children themselves can and they understand concepts they did not know until then. That is, they can (approach) concepts within the group that they did not know from home" (T8). Others support that "children like exercises that are so playful, that is, to learn through play" (T10), and that they also "need to feel materials with their hands, to paint, to cut, to take cardboard, to give them cardboard, to give them crayons, to give them sticks, to play games, fairy tales" (T32). Another important issue that concerns the appropriate activities for first graders are instructions, which should "be short and very clear, because they are small children and they get tired. Exercises should not include a lot of writing, that is, the answers should be short and of increasing difficulty" (T1).

The most adequate teaching method for the first grade appears to be "everything that has to do with experiential learning, active, participatory but in no case frontal teaching. Everything else, I would say. It is better to work in pairs and as such, I put them work in groups at these ages, especially when it has to do with activities such as let's say, let's make, let's say, a group collage… that is, okay the strictly cognitive part, see language, mathematics, can be on a binary level, [always that is, not individually, but even in collaboration]" (T24).

Implementation of Tale

Thematic analysis of transcripts from the implementation of the tale revealed the following themes related to the role of English as a reference language for raising young students' awareness to linguistic diversity in the context of multilingual material: identification of known elements in English, positive emotions that emerge from the use of previous knowledge in English, lexical transfer from English to other untaught languages and the baptism of unknown words as English. Note that bracketed text in the transcripts indicates the researcher's comments or clarifications about the carrying out of the activities.

Identification of Known Elements in English

According to the analysis of the recording's transcription, students seem to identify elements that refer to things they already know in English. These elements relate either to songs or words that present phonetic or graphemic similarities with vocabulary they have already learned during English class. Specifically, in the first activity of the research situation, students were supposed to listen to five different songs and find out if it is the same language or not. They were also encouraged to figure out what the song was about.

Researcher: Who understood which was the language in the first song?

[almost all students raise their hands to answer]: Albanian!

Researcher: What was the language in the second song?

[two students raise their hands]: English!

Researcher: English. The third;

[the researcher imitates the melody to remind them which song it is]

[A few students hesitantly say]: English.

This activity did not contain any songs in English. Students who are Albanian-speaking, immediately understood that the first song was in Albanian. However, the second song was in Turkish, an unfamiliar language to them, which they call "English" because they could not identify it. They understood that it was foreign, that it was not Albanian, because their classmates who know Albanian said that the previous song was Albanian.

Positive Emotions that Emerge from the Use of Previous Knowledge of English

The songs included in the activities seemed to create a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom. However, the enthusiasm and joy of the young students seemed to increase while listening to a song they already knew in English and another which was a version of another song they knew in English in another language. During the second activity of the research situation, students were supposed to listen carefully to six different songs and identify which one was in French and which one in Chinese.

[The English song "Head, shoulders, knees and toes," begins. Many of the students imitate the movements of the song which concerns the parts of the body]

Student: Miss, we know that song! It's in English!

Another student from the same group: Miss, I know that!!!

Another student from the groups in the back: I know that too!

[Some students are singing and seem to feel happy].

Most of the students recognized the song in English. Their body movements and smiles indicated that they felt excited, they were having a good time; they felt like singing and dancing, imitating the lyrics through gestures.

The last song of this activity was "Per Olsen hadde en bondegård," the Swedish version of the well-known English song "Old MacDonald had a farm." Students listened to the song and recognized the melody, the rhythm:

[A student gets up from his seat and shouts excitedly]: Miss, I know, Miss I know! It's in English.

[Students understand from the music and some familiar lyrics "E-I-E-I-O" that this is a song they already know and start singing.]

[Another student springs up]: I know that too!

[The students try to sing the song, even though they realize that something is wrong with the words, as they are about to sing but seem to get confused. However, all sing]: E-I-E-I-O

Researcher: Which one was the song in English?

Student: The last one!

Researcher: The last one? The "E-I-E-I-O"?

Previous student: Yes!

Another student from the same group: The English song was "Head and shoulders, knees and toes!"

Researcher: Well done, that was it!

Lexical Transfer from English to Other Untaught Languages

Another important cognitive finding that emerges is that young students transfer their knowledge from English in order to respond to activities. In the following excerpts, students transferred vocabulary from English, either to identify, or to group words into other unknown languages. In fact, during the sixth activity, students were asked to match an animal illustration with the labels of the words that define this animal in the working languages.

[One student has found the words "cat" and "Katze" and tries to read them]: Cat, "Katch"!

[Then, places the two words on the illustration of the cat.]

During the seventh activity, students played charades. One volunteer from each group stood up in front of the whole class and mimed an animal from the vocabulary list. The other groups had to guess the animal and raise the equivalent word in a language other than Greek.

[The first volunteer comes and mimes the frog]

[A student from a front group bursts out]: Frog! [he shouts in Greek]

Researcher: Shh! We are not supposed to shout the word!

[Students are all looking for the equivalent words, and the researcher looks at the labels raised by some students]

Researcher: Frog, Frosch, this group just won!

In the fourth activity, students were supposed to hear five groups of words that mean the same animal in different languages, and identify that animal among relevant animal pictures posted on the board. The first group of words were elephant / éléphant /fil/ elefant / Elefant / 大象 [dàxiàng] / elefante / слон / elefant / فيل [ˈfil]. The recording began and the children stopped talking and paid attention.

[The recording reaches the fourth word, a student from the back springs up]: Elefant??

[The recording ends and almost all the children raise their hands at the same time to say the answer.]

Another student: Miss, elephant, this is the elephant!

Another student: elephant!

Researcher: Well, let's see. This group [front left], what do you say? Which animal was it?

All the students of this group together: the elephant!

According to the excerpts, students seem to be self-confident that they knew the word, and were very enthusiastic to give an answer. During the same activity, the second group of words were cat / chat / kedi / katt / Katze / 猫 (māo) / gato / котка / mace / گربه (kórve). The recording begins and the children keep absolutely quiet to listen. Once they heard the first word which was "cat" they showed alertness and immediately raised their hands. From the word katt onwards, more hands were raised. It was clear that students recognized words they knew in English and so they guessed the meaning and were also able to process interlingual homographs.

The fifth group of words were hippo / hippopotame / hipopotam / hippo / Nilpferd / 河马 [hémǎ] / hippo / hipopotam /хипопотам/ اسب آبی [ˈasːbo̥ɑˈbi]. As it can be assumed from the following excerpt, most of the students seemed to be very excited and satisfied.

Student: Ah! Hippo! Ιπποπόταμος ! ["ippopótamos," hippo in Greek]

[As the recording progresses, from the second word, especially, to the fourth the students become more enthusiastic, as they recognize the word in question. They jump with joy finding the word and raise their hands impatiently to say which word it is. All the students have risen, and many are shouting hippopotamus.]

Researcher: Very nice! [addressing the back right] what do you say it is?

[Student from the front right group claims with confidence]: Hippopotamus!!

Simultaneous work on many unknown languages is difficult for young students; therefore, it is very important to raise students' awareness of linguistic diversity, to have known elements, which will keep students interested, prevent them from being discouraged, strengthen their self-confidence, also their satisfaction for what they know. In addition, it seems that students try to process the words with the supplies they have, that is, having as a guide how to read the specific letters in English, they try to read the words that are written in the Latin alphabet. The following excerpts come from the transcription of the fifth activity, where students were supposed to separate word labels into groups according to their writing.

[A student takes a word label in her hands and tries to read it. She seems to have difficulty reading it, but from the sounds she manages to read we think it is the word "sköldpadda" (turtle in Swedish). Another classmate seems to tell her something, and she responds in a slightly critical tone]: Yes, I am taking English courses and I know! It is a word in English!

Researcher: Are all these words in English?

Student: Yes

[Students seem to try and read words]

Another student: Gallo, gallo.. Rooster

Another student: Cat!

[A student at the front shows a word to his classmate, who seems to trust her in the pronunciation of the words]: What does it say here?

Student: "Frosch" [frog in German]

[The researcher shows the two words "frog" and "Frosch"]: Are these two words the same thing?

Student: Ah! [He takes the word "Frosch" and places it over the image of the frog]

Researcher: You are a star!

[The student also adds the word "frog"]

Apart from the formal similarities in lexis drawing from similar letters indifferent alphabets, some students seemed to show an increased awareness of phonetic similarities across different languages. In fact, as Bardel (2015) pointed out, vocabulary transfer is easier to locate than grammar. Yet, phonetics seemed to be more vulnerable to diagnostic influence than morphology, which is reasonable as certain phonemes occur at significantly higher frequencies than some morphological markers or syntactic structures. In addition, phonemes cannot be avoided by students while complex syntactic structures can be bypassed.

Student: Here, I found another word in English, "котка" (pronounced kotka)

[The researcher corrects the pronunciation]: "Katka," what does it mean?

[The previous student places the word on the picture with the cat]

Researcher: Well done! That is, "katka."

[Another student holding the word "Katze"]: What about this one?

Researcher: This is "katze," there is also the word "cat" written in it, can you

see it?

Another student: This is a cat!!

Baptism of Unknown Words as English

It is interesting to note that young students, even if they do not know a word at all, in order to do the activity, "baptize" these words as English. In fact, in some of the cases where this happens, these are not words written in the Latin alphabet, but the Cyrillic alphabet.

Researcher [addressing to a group at the back]: Which animal is it?

[A student pops up]: Luan!! Lion!!

[The other groups have almost all stood up with their hands raised]

[Researcher addressing another group]: What do you say?

Students all together: Lion!

Researcher [addressing another group]: And you?

Student: Luan, in English…. [From the video, it appears that previously, one of his peers had identified the word Löwe, and then, he heard Luan from another group and said it was English.]

Researcher: Find me a word in English!

[Students look for and observe the words carefully]

Student: Miss, look! [she shows the word “слон” which means elephant in Bulgarian. The student in the front left picks up and shows the label with the word “turtle”]

Researcher: “Turtle,” that’s right!

As we can note, students identified common letters between the Latin and Cyrillic alphabets and believed that if they did not recognize the word in Greek, it would be English.

Conclusions

Learners seem to identify English words among words in unknown languages and recognize the pronunciation of letters that are similar to the Latin letters without being confused or discouraged by the amount of unknown words they are working on. Young students also seem to perceive cross-linguistic similarities, and English seems to trigger this perception in lexis and phonology. However, what seems to be very interesting is that despite the fact that they may “baptize” some unknown words as being English, gradually, through the analysis and comparison of sounds and written words, but also peer group work, young learners show interest in less common languages. The familiarity with a different alphabet from the mother tongue language seems to be an important and safe vehicle to open up to and welcome multilingualism to a class of young students.

There are also very important findings regarding the emotional assets of English as a reference language in young students awakening to linguistic diversity, as it seems that English helps to keep students interested, encouraged, and makes them feel self-confident. In addition, it seems that recognizing the English language makes them feel confident about themselves, as they believe they can use what they already know. In the face of linguistic diversity, English is a bridge to approach other languages and feel safe with them.

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Chapter 19
Plurilingual Tasks in TESOL: Improving Learners' Emotionality

Lana F. Zeaiter

Abstract Current Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) practices are often anchored in monolingual and monocultural ideologies that focus solely on the cognitive dimension of language learning. Unaware of the term plurilingualism, learners may nevertheless resort to plurilingual strategies to express different emotions and navigate language differences. On the one hand, the impact of emotions on language learning has been documented; similarly, there is evidence on the positive impact of plurilingualism on language acquisition among learners. However, there is little knowledge on the role of plurilingualism in improving learners' emotional well-being and the consequent implications for language acquisition. For that, this chapter reports on the pedagogical application of five tasks that incorporate plurilingual pedagogy while addressing learners' emotional well-being, with a focus on design, implementation, and outcomes. The tasks were applied in three undergraduate English language classes in a university in Lebanon. The results reported in this chapter are based on my perspective as an instructor and on students' feedback. Major outcomes included (1) increased student motivation to learn English, (2) increased confidence using English, and (3) improvement of vocabulary. The benefits were not only academic; the tasks helped create a bond of trust among students and decreased students' anxiety toward learning English as a second language. Although these TESOL tasks were implemented in a Lebanese context, they could be used in other multilingual contexts. The significance of these tasks goes well beyond the individual level; they highlight the unavoidable hybrid and fluid interconnectedness of individuals as social agents with external social and cultural influences and other social agents.

Introduction and Context

Research in the field of second language acquisition acknowledges the impact of emotionality on students' language learning (Arnold, 2019; Dewaele, 2020;

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Teimouri, 2017). As emotions and languages are related, affective variables can enhance or diminish the extent to which students invest in learning a second language, and ultimately their language proficiency (Richards, 2022). Learners of a second language often struggle with phonological, morphological, or syntactic challenges that hinder the learning process (Abd Elwahab, 2020; Moses & Mohamad, 2019; Strauss, 2012) and translate into an emotional burden that renders the learning process even more challenging (MacIntyre & Vincze, 2017). Despite the good intentions underlying current Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) practices, research has repeatedly shown that these practices often disregard students' emotional needs as they focus on the cognitive aspect of language learning (i.e., attention, memory, and analysis), without recognizing the role of emotionality in enhancing cognition (MacIntyre & Swain, 2013; Vincze, 2017). Affect influences how students create and react to mental representations of the world and process and retain information (Forgas, 2008). In addition, existing TESOL practices expect students to use the English language based on monolingual and monocultural norms instead of considering students as plurilingual speakers (Barros et al., 2021; Galante, 2021b). Monolingualism assumes that separating languages is the best default practice for language teaching (Cummins, 2017). Such an approach to language teaching can have detrimental effects on students' English language learning as their linguistic diversity, in addition to their prior lived experiences, are undervalued and ignored (Dewaele & Li, 2020; Paterson, 2020). Hence, current TESOL strategies dismiss students' emotionality and linguistic repertoires, which can negatively impact students' chances to achieve academic success (Carmona-Halty et al., 2021; White, 2018).

To bridge students' linguistic practices beyond classrooms and the teaching strategies implemented inside the classrooms, this chapter reports on my experience—the author's—implementing five plurilingual tasks in TESOL classes in a university in Lebanon, with a focus on objectives, design, implementation, and affordances. While the role of emotions in language learning on the one hand (Richards, 2022; White, 2018), and the positive impact of plurilingualism on language acquisition (Busse, 2017; Piccardo, 2019) have been documented, there is still a dearth of research on the role of plurilingual pedagogy in enhancing learners' emotionality. After implementing the tasks, it was observed that plurilingual instruction offered concurrent affordances in both areas of cognition and emotionality. Students felt more at ease when they used their entire linguistic repertoire as their linguistic and cultural identity was respected and valued. This created a positive learning environment where no language is favored over the other. As a result, students had more emotional stability and increased motivation, leading to better language learning and performance.

Lebanon's Linguistic Landscape

To contextualize the rationale behind implementing the plurilingual tasks, it is important to understand the educational system in Lebanon. Schooling in Lebanon heavily

relies on foreign languages (mainly English and French). Arabic, the official and national language, is only used to teach Arabic and social studies classes (Orr & Annous, 2018). This focus on foreign languages results from Western powers' historical, political, and economic involvement in Lebanon and job requirements at the national and international level that also entail proficiency in dominant languages (Baladi, 2018). Hence, students in Lebanon usually learn both languages simultaneously as a second and third language depending on the school's orientation and affiliation (i.e., Lebanese system, French system, and International Baccalaureate), and often incorporate different languages in their daily interactions. Although students are exposed to different languages in schools, Lebanon's language policies are still biased toward a monolingual ideology that uses the target language as the language of instruction and disregards students' linguistic repertoire. In the case of English teaching, for example, teachers and students are required to use English only in the classroom. The use of other languages is disfavored. Such practices cause additional challenges in learning English, especially for Arabic speakers who already struggle with linguistic insecurity (Al Suwaiyan, 2018).

Undergraduate Courses: Overview and Objectives

The five tasks described here were implemented in three undergraduate TESOL courses (intensive, intermediate, and advanced level) with a total of 95 students in a university in Lebanon. The duration of the courses was four months, although the number of weekly sessions slightly varied. The intensive course concurrently prompted reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills throughout various tasks and activities such as understanding the different stages of the writing process, writing cohesive paragraphs, and demonstrating the ability to converse about general topics. The intermediate course focused on writing short essays of different genres (i.e., reading response, problem–solution, and persuasive essays) and developing public speaking skills. The advanced course emphasized critical thinking abilities through exposure to academic and non-academic articles and writing argumentative essays and article critiques. I taught all the courses, including the tasks, prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, so the classes were offered entirely face-to-face. However, the tasks can easily be adapted to an entirely online or hybrid mode of delivery. I used a variety of multimodal strategies to teach the classes, including, but not limited to, videos, course packs, and slides.

Theoretical Framing: Plurilingualism and Emotionality

My work draws upon the concepts of *multilingualism* and *plurilingualism* as theorized in the Common European Framework (CEFR; Council of Europe [CoE], 2001;

Piccardo & North, 2020) and its companion volume (CEFRCV; CoE, 2020). *Multilingualism* is centered around the co-existence, at the societal and individual level, of different languages with the official languages of a specific context. That is, various languages (i.e., heritage language, home language) are used and spoken alongside official and dominant languages (i.e., English and French) in schools, homes, public spaces, and social settings. *Plurilingualism*, on the other hand, focuses on learners having "a single, inter-related, repertoire that they combine with their general competences and various strategies to accomplish tasks" (CEFR, 2001, p. 28; CEFRCV, 2020, p. 30). In other words, plurilingualism does not deny the existence of named languages; yet it treats them as one entity of inter-connected traits rather than separate entities with fixed boundaries.

While the terms emotionality and affect are often used interchangeably, some literature classifies the latter as a subordinate of the former. For the purpose of clarity, my work considers emotionality and affect as both being "aspects of emotion, feeling, mood, or attitude which condition behavior" (Arnold & Brown, 1999, p. 1); that is, two faces of the same coin. I draw on one of the CEFR's general competences: *savoir-être,* which encompasses affective variables involved in language learning such as self-confidence, anxiety, attitudes, motivations, and values. According to the CEFR, these variables "affect not only the language users'/learners' roles in communicative acts but also their ability to learn" (CEFR, 2001, p. 106). Hence, I explore tasks to bring affect into the TESOL classroom.

Pedagogical Strategies

Based on the literature and my student population, I selected five pedagogical strategies to implement in the tasks:

(1) ***Translation*** (Galante, 2021a; González-Davies, 2017): When encountered with a new word, expression, or sentence that they do not understand, students can translate it to another language they are familiar with. Then, they can share their translations with other members of the class and compare whether they are similar to English or not. By translating words to different languages, students engage in meaning and ultimately retain the words faster.

(2) ***Cross-linguistic comparisons*** (Ballinger et al., 2020): As they are learning the target language, English in this case, students can compare the words in different languages they are familiar with. The comparisons can be at the level of pronunciation, meaning, word formation, word classes, etc. For example, if students are learning about basic sentence structure in English (subject, verb, and object), the teacher can ask them about sentence structure in their languages. Then, they can compare where the subject is positioned in the sentence in different languages. Through cross-linguistic comparisons, students can affirm their linguistic identity, all while learning a new language.

(3) ***Cross-cultural comparisons*** (Coste et al., 2009): Throughout the language learning process, students are introduced to different cultures and their traditions, customs, beliefs, and ways of living. For example, some languages such as English, French, and Arabic are used in different countries and parts of the world; yet, they are used differently depending on the cultural context. For that, teachers can ask students to research and compare how the same language is used in different countries. Hence, cross-cultural comparisons offer students the opportunity to develop critical thinking skills and learn about cultures from various perspectives, especially regarding how language is used.

(4) ***Translanguaging*** (García & Otheguy, 2020; Li, 2018): To facilitate making meaning of the content, students can use different languages or different variations or dialects of a language. For example, they can read a text in French and bring the knowledge to be discussed in class in English. Or, when writing an essay in English, if they cannot find the word they are looking for, they can write it in a different language and revise it later. Thus, students can still deliver without interrupting the flow of communication.

(5) ***Pluriliteracies*** (Coyle, 2015; Meyer et al., 2018): Plurilingualism considers learners as social agents who rely on their linguistic and cultural knowledge to initiate and participate in various communication processes. They rely not only on reading, writing, speaking, and listening to communicate; but also, on other types of literacies such as visual representations (i.e., memes, emojis, and images), symbols, body gestures, and digital literacies (i.e., vlogs, reels). So, plurilingual instruction uses pedagogical resources already available and new ones created by the students. For example, a map illustrating the history of the English language can inspire students to turn it into a short movie or a song.

Plurilingual Tasks

The decision to develop the below plurilingual tasks stemmed from anecdotal evidence resulting from a student's visit to my office. After failing her English midterm exam, my student asked to see me during office hours. As we were going over her answers in the exam, she used English; however, as she started expressing her feelings, she was "stuck" and switched to Arabic. Unaware of the notion of plurilingualism, she nevertheless used two main plurilingual strategies (translation and translanguaging in this case) to describe her emotions. In addition, my students have always expressed apprehension toward solely using the target language as the language of instruction. Hence, I developed the tasks below to celebrate my students' linguistic diversity and emotionality.

The common objective of all the tasks was to create a welcoming and an accepting environment where students can claim their right to speak and express their emotions. The academic and non-academic affordances of each task are also discussed in the following section, in addition to an indication of the designated level and a description

of objectives, design, and implementation. I list the tasks according to the level I used them with; however, they can be adapted to any level.

Therapy Task

Level: Intensive.

Plurilingual Strategies: Cross-linguistic comparison and translanguaging.

Objectives: This task aimed to (1) enhance students' English vocabulary of emotions and (2) improve students' ability to construct basic sentences and converse about general topics.

Design and Implementation: This task was implemented weekly as a relaxing pre-weekend activity. I started by asking students how they were feeling. As students took a turn in expressing negative and positive emotions, they alternated between the three languages they were all familiar with: Arabic, English, and French. Some students used additional languages or different varieties of the same language. While I initially encouraged them to use English, most of them used Arabic, their first language, to describe their feelings as they could not always identify them in English. While students shared their feelings, I wrote down on the board the types of emotions they were unable to identify in English. If a student used a language I was unfamiliar with, I asked them to write it themselves. Once students were done, we went over the list of words together. For each word written in a language other than English, I asked the student who used it to read it, then explain its meaning. The explanation could be in English or any other language. It is essential to allow students to describe the feeling using any language even if the teacher or students do not understand it. Students should be able to exercise agency over the way they express their emotions, including the language they use to do so. Then, I asked the student to take out their phone and find the word's translation in English. I wrote the translation on the board next to its counterpart. Once we translated all the terms, we divided them into categories of emotions (i.e., anger, happiness, and love). We explained the variations (if any) of the feelings within the same category (i.e., anxiety and frustration). Depending on the duration of the session, teachers can either choose to end the task at this point or extend it by comparing word formation, pronunciation, and meanings of a type of feeling across different languages and cultures (cross-linguistic and cross-cultural comparison).

Affordances: Although students were hesitant to share their feelings at the beginning of the semester, however, as the semester progressed, students were more likely to share personal stories as opposed to the common challenges students face during their studies. This is probably due to their sense of belonging that was nurtured throughout the task, which also enabled students to communicate different emotions. By the end of the term, it was also noticed that students were more likely to use English to express their feelings instead of Arabic, as they now had a richer English vocabulary repertoire

of emotions. The observed advantages of the task align with Van Der Wildt et al.'s (2017) findings that correlate teacher practices with students' sense of belonging. In other words, the author argues that tolerance toward multilingualism and attention to students' needs (personal and emotional) affects their sense of belonging to the classroom and, ultimately, their learning.

Beauty Task

Level: Intensive.

Plurilingual Strategies: Cross-cultural comparison and translanguaging.

Objectives: This task aimed to (1) explain the notion of word formation especially that of adjectives, nouns, and adverbs and (2) introduce students to worldwide perceptions of beauty.

Design and Implementation: During the first part of the activity, I wrote the word *beautiful* on the board and asked students to share their perceptions of the notion of beauty. More specifically, I asked them to give examples of adjectives in English that they would typically use to describe beauty. While some students focused more on appearances and body image, other students gave more intuitive answers that related beauty to personality traits. After concluding the first part of the task, I asked students to work in small groups to find the noun and adverb forms of the adjectives written on the board. A read aloud of all the nouns, adverbs, and adjectives and a discussion about word formation later followed. The next step consisted of assigning one country to each group of students and asking them to research the beauty standards of this country. Since beauty standards are often related to sociocultural influences, suggesting countries from different parts of the world would enrich the activity. I encouraged students to conduct their research in any language of their choice and bring in the results to be shared with their classmates in English. Students then gave short presentations about worldwide perceptions of beauty, followed by discussions including comparisons between different countries. The last part of the activity focused on students' emotional reactions to the beauty standards shared, including those of the Lebanese culture's, and the impacts (positive or negative) on their well-being. I asked students to share personal experiences or encounters using the nouns, adjectives, and adverbs learned during the first part of the activity. Some of the reactions shared included a critical comparison of the notion of beauty concerning both women and men and how modern societies, including social media, pressure women more than men to abide by strict beauty standards.

Affordances: Interestingly, when students discussed their perceptions of beauty in Lebanon, they alternated between Arabic and English instead of solely using Arabic. This is probably because students now felt they have a base of English vocabulary of beauty and emotions that they can use. Also, they were more motivated to

use and practice English despite potential grammatical, phonological, or syntactical errors because the classroom environment fostered a trial-and-error approach to learning. Hence, plurilingual practices validated students' linguistic diversity (Dooly & Vallejo, 2019) and broadened the task to include personal aspects of significance to the students (Van Viegen & Zappa-Holman, 2020).

Memoir Writing Task

Level: Intermediate.

Plurilingual Strategies: Pluriliteracies, translanguaging, and translation.

Objectives: This task aimed to (1) illustrate the importance of cohesion and coherence in writing and (2) align content to students' real-life experiences.

Design and Implementation: Since the topic of the activity requires familiarity among students, I implemented this task toward the end of the semester or the academic year. After spending an entire semester or year together, I found this to be a great way to see how well students and myself know each other. The task was implemented to conclude a reading and writing unit about *memoirs*, in which students were introduced to different types and structures of memoirs, including examples of relevant memoirs (i.e., excerpts from *Seventy* by Mikhail Naima; *Lighter Than My Shadow* by Katie Green). For the task, I asked students to plot the most significant moments of their life into a diagram to prepare them to write their memoirs. The length and guidelines of the memoirs are for the teachers and students to decide, depending on the content covered in class. For the students who already have one burning story to share with their peers, I asked them to outline the main points they would like to talk about. Since the focus of the diagrams and outlines was more on highlighting main events and less on students' ability to write in English, students were allowed to use different languages, in addition to symbols and drawings. Students were also invited to use all their senses, including the various sights, sounds, smells, and textures that their story evokes in them. After giving students ample time to plan and write the first drafts of their memoirs, I assigned the second draft as homework. Students were expected to use English only in their second drafts, submit one soft copy to the teacher (through email or school's system) with their names, and bring one anonymous hard copy of the assignment to the class. I collected all hard copies on the due date and distributed them randomly to students who were supposed to guess who the memoir belonged to.

Affordances: This activity allowed students to practice the cohesion and coherence writing strategies previously covered in class. The reported benefits of the task also included students' ability to write a vivid and detailed description to re-create a memorable that is emotional, event or a moment in time. Thus, students responded to the challenge of writing in English by implementing plurilingual strategies to create

meaningful writings (Little & Kirwan, 2018), ones that evoked positive feelings in them.

Gratitude Task

Level: Intermediate.

Plurilingual Strategies: Translation and pluriliteracies.

Objectives: The task aimed to (1) encourage positive relationships among students and their entourage and (2) teach students the necessary vocabulary and expressions to make and answer phone calls.

Design and Implementation: For this task, students and I conducted our *experiment of gratitude*, where we called our loved ones in class to express how grateful we are for having them in our lives. Some students even went a little further and apologized to family members or friends to resolve existing misunderstandings among them. This task was the most emotional experience my students and I went through together as a group. As they called their loved ones, students' facial expressions and behaviors beautifully reflected raw human emotions. Linguistically, it was also observed that students mostly used Arabic during the phone calls. After completing the first part of the task, I then asked students first to write down the expressions they used to make the phone call (i.e., openings/greetings, establishing purpose, wrap-ups, and closings), then to translate them to English. We later discussed how these expressions differ depending on our audience and the context (i.e., professional and cultural). In fact, students compared how the expressions and words they used, in addition to other conversational elements (i.e., tone of voice and formality) varied depending on the person they called. To recognize informal and formal functional language related to common telephone routines, I suggested different scenarios and asked students if they would still use the same language they used with their loved ones and to suggest alternative examples. Finally, we created a list of expressions and vocabulary in English that students can use to make or answer a phone call. The task can be expanded into a role-play where students can use the list in different scenarios.

Affordances: By the end of the task, students were able to use common phone call phrases to engage in informal and formal phone conversations. They were also able to improve their communication skills by expressing their opinions and emotions through different modes and mediums (i.e., phone call and oral discussion). The results agree with Piccardo's (2019) and Kharkhurin's (2021) claimed about the role of plurilingual strategies in allowing students to creatively stretch linguistic and cultural norms. The results were not only academic. By experiencing gratitude, students were able to feel more positive emotions, deal with relationships adversity, and build stronger connections; all of which enhanced their engagement in the academic part of the activity (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2021).

Mental Health Task

Level: Advanced.

Plurilingual Strategies: Translation, pluriliteracies, and cross-cultural comparisons.

Objectives: This task aimed to (1) introduce students to academic responses and (2) warn against the dangers of mental health stigma.

Design and Implementation: Based on my experience as an English teacher, students often struggle with writing an academic response. For that, I usually use this task as an introductory activity to teaching response writing. The challenges students face with response writing might be due to the nature of the essay that requires students to reflect on different aspects of a given source (i.e., article, movie, and book) through academic writing. That is, students are expected to implicitly express their personal opinion about either the main topic and ideas or the structure (i.e., organization of ideas and type of reasoning) of a source by basing it on research, analysis, and critical thinking so that it appears to be objective. I also choose a current critical topic that students can relate to. As a strong advocate of mental health, I center this activity around depression. Interacting with students for extended periods opened my eyes to the daily internal struggles students deal with, often on their own. Despite the ongoing advocacy for mental health, it is still considered a taboo in Lebanese culture, which stigmatizes people suffering from mental health issues and forces them to suppress their struggles.

The first time I implemented this task was during an advanced English undergraduate course. The music video of Billie Eilish and Khalid's song "Lovely" had just come out. For the first part of the activity, students and I watched the video clip together twice. The first time was for students to familiarize themselves with the singers and the song, and the second time was to focus on the details, such as the music and the narrative nature of the clip. Since the lyrics do not explicitly refer to depression or any other mental health issue, students were expected to critically analyze the song and video clip elements to guess what they were really about. They were encouraged to take notes either in writing or using symbols and drawings. After expressing their reactions to the song and the elements of the video clip (i.e., the graphics and the singers' body movements), students concluded that the song was about depression. A lengthy discussion about mental health and the different types of symptoms and treatments later followed. Then, I asked students to gather in groups to find a song about depression in Arabic. When students were ready, they were supposed to compare in writing how the topic of depression is portrayed in both songs. More specifically, they had to critically examine the vocabulary used, the main arguments, the supporting ideas, the choice of instruments, and the rhythm. Aligned with the structure of the academic response, students first summarized different elements of both songs and then responded to three main ideas. The song *Lovely* is used here as an example. Teachers may choose other songs or other artistic platforms in addition to other languages besides Arabic. The activity can also be edited to fit more beginner levels.

Affordances: By utilizing plurilingual strategies, students were able to reflect on how depression is perceived in different cultures through a critical examination of language, and digital and artistic tools. They also learned new information about mental health and its prevalence, and some positive coping strategies to deal with mental health issues. It is also important to focus on the emotional aspect of the activity which was a key criterion in its success. In fact, students felt at ease to discuss mental health which is often a difficult topic for many to tackle. This may be due to the sense of community and the connections built in the classroom and among the students. The results of the task fit within the scope of current research about plurilingualism. In fact, students reported that when used with a plurilingual approach, translation allowed them to make sense of English vocabulary, and enhanced conceptual knowledge (Galante, 2021a). In addition, plurilingual practices helped them strengthen their connections and community building (Walker, 2021).

Implications for Language Education

While research has highlighted the positive role of emotionality in enhancing students' second language learning (MacIntyre & Vincze, 2017; Saito et al., 2018;), current TESOL practices continue to be biased toward a cognitive approach without recognizing the role of affective variables in improving cognition. As languages and emotions are firmly connected, disregarding students' emotionality can adversely affect learners and negatively impact their investment in learning English as a second language (Dewaele & Li, 2020). In addition, current teaching pedagogies are anchored in a monolingual and monocultural ideology that often dismisses students' linguistic and cultural repertoires (Galante et al., 2019). Such practices can increase students' emotional distress in relation to language learning (Taboada Barber et al., 2021). Finally, implementing activities that focus on affect is also positive for teacher development as it allows teachers to be more creative and autonomous instead of only working with textbooks (Arnold, 2020).

The materials included in this chapter are meant to address these issues and guide TESOL teachers into enhancing students' emotionality through the implementation of plurilingual pedagogy. Informed by the concepts of plurilingualism and emotionality, the tasks focus on utilizing five plurilingual pedagogical strategies that value students' linguistic and cultural repertoires while addressing critical emotional issues such as self-esteem, trust, and happiness. The affordances discussed are presented from my perspective as an English teacher and based on my students' feedback.

While the tasks were implemented in English language learning classrooms in Lebanon, they could be used in any other multilingual setting and adapted to different levels. Given that the tasks require teachers to reflect on their context, pedagogical practices, and students' affect, teachers can design suitable tasks for their learning environment and student population. For example, while most teachers will not deny the importance of sharing emotions in class, some would argue about the extent and the type of emotions to be shared. Sociocultural factors also come into place as some

cultures are centered around the importance of emotions in building trustworthy relationships, whereas others are intolerant toward sharing one's emotional state. Hence, the activities' objectives, plurilingual strategies, design, and implementation can be customized to support context-specific outcomes. Moreover, even in contexts where language policies are monolingual or bilingual, plurilingual approaches can validate students' emotions by drawing on their plurilingual and pluricultural identities. Emphasizing students' emotionality has both an intrinsic and an instrumental value in their language learning in general and English language acquisition.

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Chapter 20
Enhancing School-Wide Multilingualism Through Student-Led Action Projects

Christine Uliassi and Michelle Kirchgraber-Newton

Abstract The Language Diversity Project (LDP) curriculum described in this chapter details a student-led approach to bringing multiple languages and cultures into elementary classrooms. This curriculum empowers students with understandings of the cognitive and social benefits of bi/multilingualism and translanguaging. With this knowledge, the lessons guide students to investigate and document language in their lives and school community and present an action project based on their investigations. While positive perspectives on translanguaging and multilingualism are becoming widespread in the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) field, there are limited examples of curriculum that can be implemented in mainstream education settings. Therefore, this chapter will provide an overview of the theoretical foundation of the curriculum, summaries of each module, and sample lessons and materials so that readers can adapt similar curricula in their own settings. By sharing our curriculum, our hope is for teachers and students to appreciate language diversity, build linguistic flexibility, and make multilingualism more visible in school communities.

Introduction

The Language Diversity Project (LDP) curriculum described in this chapter brings diverse language identities and competencies into inclusive elementary classrooms. Our work stems from on-going dialogue between the authors (Michelle, an elementary English as a second language [ESL] teacher and Christine, a teacher educator and Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages [TESOL] researcher) on ways to promote and sustain a more multilingual school culture where home languages are validated. After collaborating on other projects focusing on emergent bilinguals

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(EBs), we realized we needed to rethink our approach and create materials to promote multilingualism school-wide for *all* learners. We designed the LDP lessons and activities to create linguistic and cultural exchange that could empower all students, whether they speak one, two, three, or more languages. Multilingual students deserve recognition that their community values their linguistic assets. Monolingual students can be inspired to pick up a new language and build diverse and respectful friendships.

The LDP curriculum values translanguaging by building on students' multilingual identities and assets. Taking Conteh and Meier's (2014) view of translanguaging, all learners in classrooms have repertoires of languages, which can be engaged as "vehicles for learning and to foster language awareness and curiosity about their own languages and those of others" (p. 3). Translanguaging affords cognitive and communicative benefits to students and teachers who identify as monolingual, bilingual, or multilingual (Barros et al., 2020). As Conteh and Meier (2014) noted, there has recently been a "multilingual turn" as global societies become more interconnected and individuals' diverse language repertoires are utilized and recognized.

While these perspectives on translanguaging and multilingualism are becoming widespread in the TESOL field, there are still limited examples of projects that show integrated multilingual efforts in mainstream education settings (Meier, 2014). Mainstream teachers, who are often monolingual, are generally not as prepared to support bi/multilinguals and often do not promote language diversity (Barros et al., 2020; Conteh et al., 2014). Often, as Gibbons (2003) noted, "there is considerable linguistic and conceptual distance between the teacher and students, especially when they do not share the same language, assumptions, and life experiences" (p. 249). Misconceptions and misunderstandings about language acquisition and bi/multilingualism can interfere with teachers' practices when providing the optimal learning experiences for linguistically diverse students.

The chapter supports classroom mainstream and ESL teachers with discussion of theoretical understandings and examples of material resources that can ensure that the "multilingual turn" occurs vibrantly in their classrooms and schools. Before explaining each module and providing sample activities, we explain the theories that form the foundation for our pedagogical choices.

Theoretical Foundations of Our Curriculum

Culturally Sustaining Pedagogy

The LDP curriculum emerged from a combination of theories that empower learners to embrace diverse languages and take action to create change in their school community. First, the curriculum embodies the research and practice of Paris' (2012) culturally sustaining pedagogy which seeks to "perpetuate and foster" multilingualism and multiculturalism in practice for students, the school, and the community. Paris

reviewed and critiqued culturally relevant and responsive pedagogies (i.e., Ladson-Billings, 1995) and argued that more focus needs to be on fostering and perpetuating multilingualism as an essential component of democratic schooling. Paris believes that without such emphasis in schools, the values of a pluralistic society cannot be attained and maintained across generations. The devastating effects of assimilation and misconceptions about language learning are clear. Over the past several decades, immigrant children have faced accelerated language attrition or language loss (Fillmore, 2000; Paris, 2012). As they have learned English, immigrant students have used their home languages less and less. Teachers' linguistic biases can lead to this type of subtractive bilingualism (Barros et al., 2020). Language attrition can weaken students' cultural identity which is intertwined with their mother tongue and culture. Culturally sustaining pedagogy also problematizes dominance of one form of English over others like African American Vernacular English (AAVE), and therefore, is a needed antidote to foster and sustain, and sometimes even recover, students' rich linguistic identities.

Culturally sustaining pedagogy is beneficial not only for EBs, but also for all students who speak the target language, English. Paris (2012) urged educators to incorporate the richness of language and literacies that are both dominant and marginalized. EBs' use of their mother tongue, along with English, empowers students to transform aspects of their target communities (Paris, 2012; Tadayon & Khodi, 2016). For this reason, we made the instructional focus on inclusive elementary classrooms so that the benefits of diverse languages would reach all students. Culturally sustaining pedagogy is grounded in social justice as it honors, protects, and shares languages of marginalized students. In considering the social justice emphasis on this pedagogy, we aligned our modules with Learning for Justice's *Social Justice Standards* (2018), which will be described more in the curriculum overview. Culturally sustaining pedagogy is well-suited to serve as a basis for our curriculum because its principles are aligned to the language-rich and social justice-oriented lessons we have designed.

Thematic Investigations

In addition to culturally sustaining pedagogy, our curriculum is rooted in critical pedagogy. Throughout the curriculum modules, students investigate and document language in their lives, school, and community and finish with an action project based on their investigations. This aspect of the curriculum is modeled on critical theorist Paulo Freire's (1970) *thematic investigations* where students and teachers become critically aware of their realities which helps them to take action. Freire used this problem-posing model in his literacy programs with adult learners in Brazil, many of whom were poor and indigenous workers who could not read. This method was designed to uncover the root causes of this injustice in relation to power and oppression. In this model, teachers and learners act as co-investigators.

The process includes the phases of *codification, dialogue,* and *praxis*. *Codification* is gathering information to create a picture, or codify, the reality of any given situation. In our curriculum, students are first guided to document language use in the school through photos, interviews, and classroom artifacts to codify the current situation surrounding language use. From there, themes are developed which create *dialogue*, discussion and critical consciousness, or awareness of critical issues. The final part of the investigation reflects Freire's (1970) term *praxis* where critical investigators initiate changes through thoughtful actions. In our curriculum, groups work on an action project to enhance multilingualism in the classroom or school community. These actions turn into student-driven projects meant to foster multilingualism, such as visiting younger classrooms to share bilingual books and poems, inviting family or community members to tell stories, or creating bilingual resources for teachers.

Language Diversity Project Curriculum

Overview

The curriculum is organized into a set of three modules: Language Superpowers, Language in our Community, and Language Diversity in Action. The lessons were designed for fourth graders and aligned with the *New York State Next Generation English Language Arts Standards* (New York State Education Department, 2017) as well as Learning for Justice's (2018) *Social Justice Standards.* While we worked within the confines of English-only language standards, we found certain standards to be especially useful when connecting ideas across languages. For example, take the fourth-grade standard: "Use common, grade-appropriate Greek and Latin affixes and roots as clues to the meaning of a word" (p. 61). With this standard, we were able to capitalize on word parts that traverse several languages including English (see Fig. 20.1).

We aligned the modules with Learning for Justice's *Social Justice Standards* (2018). In response to recent events in the United States (white nationalist movement, English-only fervor, police killing of Black Americans), both Michelle's school district and Christine's university have committed to anti-racist and justice-oriented curriculum. Learning for Justice's standards are divided into four domains—identity, diversity, justice, and action. The standards assert that students in today's diverse classrooms need knowledge and skills related to both *prejudice reduction* and *collective action***.** Our curriculum aims for both prejudice reduction toward linguistic difference and collective action for more linguistic awareness. Our curriculum connects to several areas, specifically the domain of identity. For example, "Students will develop positive social identities based on their membership in multiple groups in society" and "Students will recognize that people's multiple identities interact and create unique and complex individuals" (p. 3). Students' linguistic identities are not often amplified as part of students' complex identities.

Module 1: Language Superheroes

Lesson 1: Languages in our Lives

Social Justice Goal: Students will develop positive identities related to their linguistic backgrounds.

Learning Target(s): Students will describe their own language background by completing a language biography.

1) Begin the unit by telling the students you will be reading the text *The Cazuela That the Farm Maiden Stirred* by Samantha Vamos. Invite the students to enjoy the story and consider question: What do you notice about the way Vamos used Spanish and English?"

2) Have students share what they notice about the author's use of language in the story. Next, ask them if they learned any new English or Spanish words. (If needed, revisit the story or glossary).

3) Welcome students to Day 1 of the Language Diversity Project and provide a brief overview. On the whiteboard, create concept maps for the terms language and diversity with the students' ideas.

4) Ask students to guess how many languages they think are spoken in the world? [It's about 6,500!]

5) Say "Now that we know how many languages there are in the world, let's find out more about languages spoken in this classroom!"

6) Explain to students that they will first interview a partner orally about their language experiences using interview cards. Before pairing, model using expressions like "Could you repeat that?" or "Can you explain that more?" to build students' dialogue skills.

8) After, students complete "My Language Autobiography" using the sentence starters:

My name is

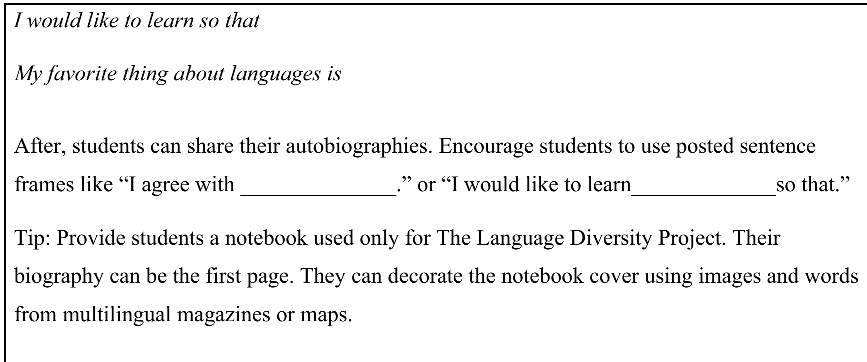
I speak

I am learning

I have friends or family members who speak

I have noticed other languages when

Fig. 20.1 Module 1: Language superheroes



I would like to learn so that

My favorite thing about languages is

After, students can share their autobiographies. Encourage students to use posted sentence frames like “I agree with ______________.” or “I would like to learn_____________so that.”

Tip: Provide students a notebook used only for The Language Diversity Project. Their biography can be the first page. They can decorate the notebook cover using images and words from multilingual magazines or maps.

Fig. 20.1 (continued)

The lessons in our curriculum included suggested accommodations for emergent bilinguals: modeling, providing sentence frames, illustrative read alouds, using graphic organizers, and of course, the use of all languages in students’ repertoire. In some lessons, sentence frames are provided to assist students when writing (“The character in the story feels ______________because_______________”) or having oral discussions (“I agree with _______________”). To further assist students with dialogue, it is noted where teachers can also model and provide questions, like “Could you repeat that?” or “Can you explain that more?” to aid peer conversations.

Our first curriculum module, *Language Superpowers*, introduces students to terms and concepts related to multilingualism while developing an understanding of the cognitive and social benefits of speaking more than one language. While teacher educators and teachers frequently discuss the importance of promoting bilingualism in schools, we neglect to directly teach our students about the benefits of being bilingual or multilingual. Here, the students share their language background and experiences with the class in a variety of modes (student interviews, poetry, word games).

In the second curriculum module, *Languages in Our School Community*, students are guided to uncover and document the use of languages in the school community. In collaborative groups, students investigate through discussions, interviews, and photographs how English is used and how home languages may be included or excluded. Building off their discoveries, in the third and final module, *Language Diversity in Action*, groups will work on action projects to enhance multilingualism in the classroom or school community.

For each module, we provide rich vignettes, sample lessons, and detailed explanations of additional activities and resources. The appendix includes a list of recommended bilingual picture books for this project.

Module 1 Language Superpowers

Fourth graders gather to hear "The Cazuela that the Farm Maiden Stirred" by Samantha Vamos (2013). Michelle invites the students to enjoy the story and consider the question: "What do you notice about the way the author, Vamos, used Spanish and English?" A student, Marta, shares that she notices a pattern. On each page there is one more Spanish word….Vamos adds a new one in place of the English word from the previous page." Tyler shares that he notices some Spanish and English words sound similar, like cream and crema or lemon and limón. After the reading, Christine welcomes the fourth graders to the Language Diversity Project, a new set of lessons to learn about the different languages in your school community and the world. "Let's get started!"

Because of the vibrant illustrations and how *The Cazuela that the Farm Maiden Stirred* adds new Spanish words gradually, we begin the project with this engaging bilingual experience. The sample lesson is provided in Fig. 20.1.

In the second lesson, we help students use word part knowledge to uncover and explain the meaning of words in English and other languages with word parts *bi, ling, trans,* and *multi*. The class views and discusses an engaging TedxKids talk on the cognitive and social benefits of being multilingual that is led by two bilingual children (Lawson & Sabrede, 2019). The next day, students read and create poems in more than one language. Examining Alma Flor Ada's (2015) poem, "Bilingual/Bilingüe," students answer the questions in small groups: What is her poem mostly about? What new words did you learn from her poem? What do you notice about her use of Spanish and English in the two versions? Why do you think she mixes in English and Spanish in her poem?

Building on Ada's bilingual poem, students write sprinkle poems where they will be "sprinkling" favorite words from another language into their poem. To gather words to sprinkle into poems, it may be a good idea to decide on a theme for the class poetry. For example, the class could decide on a topic like "journeys" or "friendships" or "language" itself. Then, with groups utilizing peer language resources and bilingual dictionaries, students focus on finding interesting words in a language other than English to jazz up their poems. The students should also be encouraged to write most words in another language and sprinkle in English. The final lesson, we explore how often multilingual people feel differently when they are speaking languages, in other words, the emotional superpowers of being bilingual. We welcome a bilingual community member into the class to discuss their language background, how they use their different languages, and unique feelings attached to each language. To wrap up Module 1, we ask students to complete an open-ended reflection on what they have learned so far in "The Language Diversity Project."

Module 2 Languages in Our Community

The class is buzzing as students work in groups on their language investigations. Marta, Amira, and Tomas visited the library to tally books that are bilingual or in a language other

than English. They are creating a chart with their results. Michelle leans over to check in with Mariam, Tali, and Jules who are scrolling through the pictures they took on an iPad. They captured bulletin boards, welcome signs, posters, and student work around the school, and they are discussing what they found in terms of represented languages. Michelle notes: "It looks like you are almost ready to share your discoveries with the class!"

In the lessons in the second module, we guide students to uncover and document language in the school community. Students build on their foundation from Module 1 on the importance of languages for identity, cognitive and social learning. Students examine how, where, and when languages are used and valued in their school community and how this relates to power. There are many variations on how to do this investigation, but one place to start is for students to share their own knowledge of language use in the school community. For example, a student might share how school communications only come home in English. Next, we generate a list of questions they have about language in the school community. Some questions they might brainstorm include: *What are the most common languages in our school? How do bi/multilingual students and teachers use different languages during the school day? When are languages other than English used in the school day (lunch, recess, certain classes)? What are the bilingual resources (books, fliers, posters) throughout the school?*

In the following lesson, we lead a discussion on how, as a class, they can find answers to the questions they generated. The students may decide that they will need to interview students and teachers. They may need to provide teachers with simple surveys to collect data on language use. This documentation may involve using iPads to photograph and tally bi/multilingual resources throughout the school. After these discussions, we break students into groups to find out more about languages in our school. The sample lesson (Fig. 20.2) describes how students share and examine their findings. To deepen students' conceptual understanding of linguistic attitudes and biases, the text *The Arabic Quilt* (Khalil, 2020) is integrated into the conversation. The book describes Kanzi's experiences as a new student from Egypt. While her teacher, Ms. Haugen, welcomes her linguistic and cultural background into the classroom, she still faces teasing from another student, Molly.

Module 3 Language Diversity in Action

Tomas and his group are writing a letter to the school district to advocate for more bilingual books to be purchased for the library. They are using ideas from Module 1 about the importance of promoting bilingualism to persuade readers. They are using their chart from Module 2 to see what gaps there are in the languages spoken in the school and the books available in the library. Their next step is to generate a list of 15-20 books that they would like purchased for the library. Meanwhile, Jules' group is ready to implement a French counting lesson in PreK using the book, "Oui Love Numbers: An English/French Bilingual Counting Book." With the help of Michelle, they are doing a run-through of their lesson to see how it goes. The class is excited to see their language diversity action projects come together!

Module 2: Languages in Our Community

Lesson 3: Languages in Our School

Social Justice Goal: Students will examine how linguistic attitudes or biases can lead to inclusion and exclusion of different groups.

Learning Target(s):

Students will analyze the findings of their documentation of languages in the school.

Students will compare messages and attitudes about linguistic diversity in their school to those in *The Arabic Quilt*.

1) Read aloud and discuss *The Arabic Quilt.*

2) Have students answer the following questions in their language journal using evidence from the text:

- What is Molly's attitude toward languages at the beginning of the story?
- Describe Ms. Haugen's attitude about multilingualism? How does it affect the school community?
- Overall, what message does this book share about multilingualism?

2) Turning to students' projects, groups share their findings about language in the school community. Teachers can take notes on findings on the whiteboard as each group presents.

3) Lead a discussion on what these findings mean. Ask questions like: *What messages are being sent by this group's findings? Who is being included or excluded by what this group shared about language? What do these findings tell us about attitudes toward languages?*

4) Discuss the similarities and differences in these messages and attitudes about linguistic diversity to those in the book, *The Arabic Quilt.*

5) End the class with a conversation about what actions they could take to spread appreciation of linguistic diversity in their school.

Fig. 20.2 Module 2: Languages in our community

After Module 2, students have ideas on what projects would promote a more multilingual school community. Module 3 (Fig. 20.3) is for planning, enacting, and sharing these student-led language diversity projects. This module will involve a significant amount of group planning time, check-ins with teachers, and finally, sharing their

Module 3: Language Diversity in Action

Lesson 2: Planning for Student-Led Action Projects

S**ocial Justice Goal:** Students will recognize their own responsibility to take action against exclusion and prejudice.

Learning Target (s): Students will work collaboratively to make step-by-step plans for their group's language action project.

1) Students will soon be creating and presenting their action projects. Begin by letting students know how they will be assessed on their project. Present the acronym LINGO to represent the five domains (language, innovation, need for project, group collaboration, outcome for justice) of evaluation criteria while connecting to the theme of the project.

   Language: Does your project incorporate two or more languages? Does it help develop linguistic awareness and diversity?

   Innovative**:** Is your project creative and innovative? Will your audience be interested in your project?

   Need for Project: Does your project meet a need related to language diversity in the school? Does your project lead to action toward change?

   Group Collaboration: Were all group members' ideas valued? Did all members contribute to the implementation and presentation of the action project?

   Outcomes for Justice: How does the action project lead to more inclusion and diversity in the classroom or school community?

2) Allow students time to restate criteria, ask questions, and provide examples to show understanding.

3) Now that students understand the expectations for the group project, planning begins. Ask: W*hat is the goal of your project? Who do you need to help you with the project? What tools does your group need to complete the project? What are the steps needed to complete your project?*

4) Share a model of the planning sheet like below:

Fig. 20.3 Module 3: Language diversity in action

Project Goal: Teach preschoolers how to count in French

Adult support needed: Help with preschool lesson ideas

Tools needed: laptop, bilingual book cart in library

Steps Needed:

- Arrange a time with the PK teacher
- Find counting books or songs online
- Create short lesson using the book or song
- Assign group member teaching roles
- Create posters/ handouts for lesson
- Share with teachers for feedback

5) Provide the remaining time and subsequent lessons for students to plan with their group and consult with teachers.

Fig. 20.3 (continued)

final projects. The lesson sample provides teachers a guide for how to help students plan their action projects.

After learning about all their peers' action projects, students discuss the actions they have taken to create change and what effects they have seen. From here, we discuss what students believe still needs changing and consider who has the power to make these changes. This leads into the final lessons where students write persuasive letters to promote multilingualism in schools. We lead lessons on the appropriate audience for their letters. Perhaps they can write to the principal, school board, or larger entities at the state or national level to urge more language learning in the school. They might choose to write to community organizations or families to ask for funding for linguistically diverse resources and materials. We suggest writing lessons that focus on parts of a letter, persuasive language, using evidence to support opinions, and addressing counterclaims. In this way, Module 3 allows students to experience a multitude of ways to use their voice for change.

Conclusion

By using and sharing the LDP curriculum, our goal is to "normalize multilingualism in the school curriculum and instruction" (Barros et al., 2020, p. 13). The curriculum described in this chapter provides teachers with clear and practical examples of ways to embed translanguaging in inclusive elementary classrooms. The activities and materials provided open space for translanguaging in otherwise monolingual environments. Teachers can see the possibilities for integrating bi/multilingual books, poems, and writing projects into standards-based lessons. Students and teachers can investigate language use in their community and spread multilingualism through action projects. Throughout, students' linguistic identities are validated and respected and for some, expanded. By advocating for more appreciation and attention to linguistic diversity in schools, children learn that their languages matter and they learn that their voices matter.

The LDP curriculum stemmed from our frequent conversations about the possibilities and challenges in attempting to leverage the linguistic assets of our students and incorporate bilingual materials and practices in inclusive classrooms. The questions we asked ourselves could serve as a framework for other teachers and teacher educators discussing how to modify or implement elements of this curriculum in their own spaces. First, we considered: W*hat do we know about our students that we can utilize to develop these materials?* We suggest determining students' home languages and examining students' language use in school. For us, it was recognizing that while our students and their families represented diverse multilingual backgrounds, the bilingual students do not often seem comfortable using home languages at school. Teachers can also consider the grade level of the students as they modify lessons. Our curriculum was created with fourth grade in mind because Michelle supports mostly older elementary students. However, developing lessons for younger children can make multilingualism part of the school culture earlier and this may lead to more meaningful and lasting effects.

Next, we wondered: *Where do the language diversity lessons align with standards or enhance existing curriculum?* For us, we capitalized on the districts' focus on anti-marginalization and social justice themed curriculum. We purposefully aligned the curriculum to the Social Justice Standards (2018). We were also able to build clear connections in our lesson objectives and state standards in English/Language Arts related to topics like analyzing word parts, responding to literature, and writing persuasively. We suggest teachers consider starting small—perhaps beginning with a poetry unit—and expand the possibilities as they go.

Additionally, we reflected on: *What additional constraints or challenges might we face in implementing these lessons?* Even with our willingness to situate lessons based on our students' needs and backgrounds within the standards-based curriculum, we worried we might run into challenges. First of all, not all teachers center the assets of the linguistically diverse learners in the curriculum they teach. Also, some teachers are not all willing to empower students to take the lead in their own learning which

is a necessary part of the student-led action projects. We suggest ESL and classroom teachers begin this work with like-minded educators. Teachers can share the tangible accomplishments with other stakeholders, like administrators and families, so that more people in the school community see the value in enhancing school-wide multilingualism. After reviewing this chapter, our hope is that teachers and teacher educators can have conversations spurred by the Language Diversity Project and its theoretical underpinnings. We hope this leads to educators' critical engagement with creating empowering curriculum to promote and sustain multilingualism.

Appendix

Title	Author	Language	Book description
Stolen Words	Melanie Florence	Cree	A little girl sets out to help her grandfather find his language, Cree, that had been stolen from him as a boy
The Cazuela That the Farm Maiden Stirred	Samantha R. Vamos	Spanish	A fun story that begins with English words, adding one new Spanish word to each page building on the ones introduced on the previous pages
The Arabic Quilt: An Immigrant Story	Aya Khalil	Arabic	Based on a true story, Kanzi wraps herself in and writes poems about a quilt that her grandmother gave her. She inspires her classmates to create a quilt of their names in Arabic
Animals in French and English	Oui Love Books	French	With colorful pictures, this book teaches children about animals throughout the world in both French and English
I Love Saturdays y Domingos	Alma Flor Ada	Spanish	A girl celebrates her bilingual-bicultural family, affirming both her Mexican–American and European-American heritages

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Title	Author	Language	Book description
Dreamers	YuYi Morales	Spanish	Using both Spanish and English, YuYi Morales tells the story of her journey from Mexico to the United States with her son
The Field	Baptiste Paul	St. Lucia Creole	A soccer story about teamwork, leadership, diversity, and acceptance that includes words in Creole from St. Lucia
Mina's First Day of School	Katrina Liu	Chinese	Written in English, traditional Chinese & Pinyin, this story tells about Mina's first day of school
Who Are We?	Anneke Forzani	Amharic	A bilingual book that encourages children to explore identity, diversity, and inclusion
Errol's Garden	Gillion Hibbs	Burmese	Errol and his neighbors of many different backgrounds create a rooftop garden. Available as a bilingual book in many different languages
The Three Billy Goats Buenos	Susan Middleton	Spanish	This is a fun modern twist on a classic story that uses English and Spanish throughout
Bindiya in India	Kamaria Chheda	Hindi	A bilingual story of a young Indian-American girl's first trip to India
Let Me Fix You a Plate: A Tale of Two Kitchens	Elizabeth Lilly	Spanish	A story of a family's road trip from West Virginia to Florida, celebrating the love they have for their two distinct cultures

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Chapter 21 Materials Development for Plurilingual Contexts: Challenging Monolingual Practices in Brazil

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Abstract The context for this chapter is the largest Portuguese-speaking nation in the world, Brazil. In general, teacher education in Brazil does not have materials development as one of its mandatory subjects (Lucas in Os materiais didáticos de inglês como língua estrangeira (LE) na prática de professores da escola pública: Um convite à formação reflexiva ou à perpetuação do ensino prescritivo? (Publication Number 7402) [Teaching materials in English as a foreign language (EFL) in public school teachers' practice: an invitation to reflective practice or the perpetuation of prescriptive teaching?], 2016). Because of this lack of focus, certain teacher education programs have developed elective courses to address this much needed area. This chapter reports on reflections on activities developed in the elective undergraduate course "Materials Development Workshop in English" to show how principles of plurilingual pedagogies (de Oliveira and Höfling in Policy development in TESOL and multilingualism: past, present and the way forward. Springer, pp 25–37, 2021) were understood by pre-service English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and how they integrated those principles in their practice when developing their own materials as part of the course. The themes that emerged from these reflections were related to teacher education which led us to reconsider how we have prepared our future EFL teachers. In addition, pre-service teachers' comments invited us to think of some of the issues related to the uses of a foreign language versus a native language in the classroom. The sample teaching materials developed by those pre-service teachers, besides their own reflections on the elective course, brought suggestions for how they can become more flexible concerning the use of Portuguese (native and official

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language of instruction), along with English (target language) within their practice, in order to help EFL teachers build and strengthen their professional identities.

Introduction

The context for this chapter is the largest Portuguese-speaking nation in the world, Brazil. The chapter provides a report of activities developed in an undergraduate course "Materials Development Workshop in English" to show how discussions regarding principles of plurilingual pedagogies (de Oliveira & Höfling, 2021) were understood by pre-service English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and how they integrated those principles in their practice, by developing their own materials as part of the course evaluation. We start the chapter by describing the context of Brazil and teacher education undergraduate programs that prepare EFL teachers for multiple educational contexts, where the majority of curricula still reflect and emphasize monolingual teaching and learning perspectives of the target language, leaving the use of Portuguese as a restriction. We then discuss and challenge monolingual views of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and what they mean for materials development. This area of materials development still needs more attention; specifically, we need to know more about how teachers view and develop their own materials (Garton & Graves, 2014; Harwood, 2014; Lucas, 2016), which intrinsically depends on how teachers understand the concept of language (Augusto-Navarro et al., 2014), and also, how they understand the process of language learning (Tomlinson, 2010). We conclude the chapter by reflecting upon the materials that were developed by pre-service teachers, bringing suggestions for how these future professionals can become more flexible concerning the use of Portuguese (native and official language of instruction), along with English (target language) within their practice, to help EFL teachers strengthen their professional identities.

Challenges Faced in Language Teacher Education Undergraduate Programs in Brazil

Brazil is the biggest and the only country in South America that has Portuguese as one of the official languages. Classrooms in Brazil increasingly bring together students from a range of language backgrounds, however. In the last decades, Brazil has attracted students and scholars from all over the world due to increased internationalization, refugees who have been forced to leave their home countries due to social and political factors, and also border immigrants. This scenario has challenged many teacher education programs to rethink the idea of granting privileges to the use of one specific target language (e.g., English) at the expense of working with other languages in the classroom context.

The majority of undergraduate language teacher programs in Brazil vary from a single licentiate degree to a double licentiate degree, with the latter having Portuguese as one of the languages. Although these programs intend to prepare EFL teachers for multiple educational contexts, many curricula still reflect, emphasize, and sometimes place a high value on monolingual teaching and learning perspectives of the target language, making the use of students' first language seem like something that has to be banished from the classroom, with a target-language-only mentality. As de Oliveira and Höfling (2021) showed, teacher educators must help their students realize that they may encounter contexts where students bring a range of languages to the classroom and that they have a responsibility to take students' repertoires into account is important for the strength and development of plurilingual practices.

As teacher educators, we know that it is fundamental to consider beliefs that pre-service teachers bring to the classroom. Barcelos and Abrahão (2006) argued that beliefs can influence not only how classes are given but even more pre-service teachers' attitudes. Therefore, allowing them to talk about their expectations when learning a foreign language (FL) and their perceptions regarding the use of their L1 can help improve their linguistic competence in the target language, but also give them the chance to reflect upon their professional identities, which is a best practice for undergraduate teacher education programs.

Teacher education programs also face challenges posed by government policy. The CNE [National Council of Education] recently published a document regarding the National Curricular Guidelines for Plurilingual Education (Parecer CNE n.º 02, de 2020) (Brasil, 2020). Among other measures, the Council recommends to the Ministry of Education: (1) the establishment of partnerships with higher education institutions in order to promote plurilingual education policies; (2) the creation of conditions for the development of digital platforms with materials and didactic resources for plurilingual education; (3) the promotion of plurilingual education policies, involving initial and continuing teacher education in higher education institutions; (4) the promotion of scholarships and academic research about plurilingual education; (5) the creation of recurrent evaluation systems and proficiency certification for teachers and students; (6) the creation of national policy of evaluation for plurilingual education; (7) the reformulation and modernization of undergraduate programs in education, languages, and others related to teacher education, targeting teacher education for work in those contexts, which were demanded by the new guidelines (Brasil, 2020). However, at the time of writing this chapter, the CNE document had not yet been officially issued by the Ministry of Education.

As far as we understand, these guidelines, once validated and put into practice, will demand a significant change in the curricula of undergraduate courses for teacher education in Brazil, and those changes will have a direct impact on the development of language materials, mainly because teachers will have to balance theory and practice when teaching their students when they use these materials. Among other requirements, the guidelines ask for an in-service teacher profile that currently does not exist, namely teachers who have attended undergraduate programs (Education or Languages) in *Bilingual Education*, or who hold a certificate in Bilingual Education, which are also scarce in Brazil. Considering all the history of teacher education

in Brazil (Gimenez, 2015), we can foresee difficulties in providing changes to the educational curricula. Moreover, the required level of proficiency for teachers to work in those contexts (B2) is another matter of concern. Thus, Brazil is still struggling to prepare language teachers who will be proficient and ready to work in a diverse educational environment.

Monolingual Views of TESOL: Some Implications for the Area of Materials Development

Materials development is a very important area in teacher education, but in the majority of programs in Brazil, this subject is not part of core courses. For this chapter, our objective was to analyze students' development of teaching activities in a "Materials Development Workshop in English," which is an optional course with no prerequisites for students to enroll. This optional course is part of the curriculum of a language undergraduate program in a public federal university located in the Northeast of the country. Not having any prerequisites was a challenge for the course because some students had low language proficiency levels in the target language, and others had limited theoretical background in applied linguistics and methodology, especially students who were at the beginning of the course and had not taken those subjects yet.

With respect to materials development, we have limited knowledge about how teachers understand and develop their own teaching materials (Harwood, 2014). One of the biggest issues is not the technical creation of materials per se, but how teacher educators should prepare future teachers to critically think about the resources they choose and use in their practice (Lucas, 2016). This fact is an inevitable corollary of the diversity of teacher education programs around the world, and it shows how teachers struggle to understand materials and how the context where they work can reveal their conceptions of materials development (Garton & Graves, 2014).

In Brazil, there is a massive national program entitled *PNLD (Programa Nacional do Livro Didático)* that distributes language textbooks for students and teachers' guides for public schools. Even though this public education policy has been compulsory since 1937, the foreign language textbooks were just inserted in the program in 2010 (English and Spanish languages only), and the textbooks were received by public schools and distributed to students in 2011. Although the initiative is necessary for Brazilian public schools which typically lack funds to buy textbooks and other types of materials, teachers have often not had enough preparation to understand how these materials were developed and/or the conception of language that underpins the development of the materials (Augusto-Navarro et al., 2014).

In almost 100% of the textbooks that are selected by public schools, English is the major language used for the development of all activities. Some exceptions can be found in some teachers' guides, where there is a partial explanation in Portuguese regarding how teachers should use the textbook. In Brazil, a considerable number

of undergraduate programs in languages receive the majority of their students from public schools. Once they are in public universities, taking a course like "Materials Development Workshop in English" and being asked to develop an activity, their main concern is to use only English when doing the task because this is the model they were exposed to in their earlier education. If student's command of the target language is varied, however, having materials where instructions or even some of the questions are in students' first language may be an asset, and not a problem, in helping students to develop a target language (de Oliveira & Höfling, 2021).

In summary, some undergraduate programs insist on keeping monolingual practices in an era where we have plurilingual students and teachers know the benefits of bilingual education. It is desirable to stop denying and erasing the students' repertoires by just teaching language per se, but how can we prepare pre-service teachers to develop the resources that will support these goals? This is the crucial question in this chapter. If we continue promoting non-reflective educators, we are failing in preparing critical teachers for the future capable of dealing with plurilingual and pluricultural contexts.

Integrating Principles of Plurilingual Pedagogies: Some Pre-service Teachers' Reflections upon Their Future Practices

During the course "Materials Development Workshop in English" students read de Oliveira and Höfling's (2021) chapter entitled "Bilingual Education in Brazil." The chapter presents principles of plurilingual pedagogies, and students were challenged to try to integrate some of these principles in their practice by developing their own materials as part of the course evaluation. At the beginning of the course, some general principles regarding the teaching and learning of FL were discussed, and bilingualism was one of the topics. Prior to the theoretical discussion regarding bilingual education, the majority of students described it as being a practice where teachers must teach their classes only in English. According to students' beliefs, Portuguese is not considered a language of instruction in this context as its development already happens outside of the classroom.

During the course, Höfling was invited to talk to students about the principles. The previous reading of the text was mandatory for students, and they also had to come up with one or two questions, acting like they were interviewing her. The class was very (in)formative, and students were challenged to reflect upon their beliefs. Questions such as the differences between bilingual programs and bilingual schools, the characteristics of translanguaging, code-meshing and code-switching were raised, as well as the percentage of language needed in a bilingual program (50% English and 50% Portuguese, for example).

Among all the questions that were raised, the one that students were most curious about was the percentage of language in a bilingual program. One could suppose that those students' concerns reflected their lack of theoretical background, as they were

still in the process of understanding how languages can be learned. For example, the decision to enroll, or not, a child in a bilingual school is often based on the amount of English that is going to be used in the classroom. Additionally, the documents that are the basis of the official guidelines for plurilingual education in Brazil propose mathematical percentages for the amount of L2 as language of instruction in different grades. For example, they state that in Primary Education (from 6 to 9th grades), 30–50% of the additional language should be allowed in the classroom. de Oliveira and Höfling (2021) argued that such mathematical divisions are on the wrong side of the road in terms of all the research in the area of plurilingual education:

> Our vision for real bilingual education includes a dual-language program model in which *equal emphasis is placed on development of Portuguese and English*, emphasizing a plurilingual approach with a *more dynamic relationship between languages*, not a strict separation of languages for instruction and use in the classroom. (de Oliveira & Höfling, 2021, p. 34)

Other questions raised by the students when discussing the text included:

- How did indigenous people receive bilingual education?
- How did these bilingual schools for indigenous people work?
- About bilingual border school projects, would they work in the Brazilian context?
- Why were the national curriculum guidelines so criticized and why would they only be possible in public schools?
- Concerning the bilingual education for indigenous people, the target language would be Portuguese or English? (I assumed the instruction language was going to be indigenous, right?)
- What is the difference between international schools, bilingual programs and bilingual schools?
- What is the word used to identify schools whose focus is monolingual teaching in English?

These questions seem to show that these pre-service teachers were confused about the plurilingual context they will face once they graduate and are ready to teach. Doubts regarding the languages of instruction, the differences among the bilingual programs, and the national guidelines they are supposed to follow whether working in public or private schools are among their main concerns.

After this discussion along with additional readings related to materials development, the pre-service teachers were asked to develop materials in accordance with a list of "Principles for Plurilingual Practice" (Table 21.1) found in de Oliveira and Höfling (2021) as well as other theories studied. In order to accomplish this task, students had to develop one teaching unit with four activities. For each activity proposed, students had to use: (1) the four skills separately (reading, writing, listening and speaking) and (2) one or more principles applied to support its development.

To check students' understanding regarding the principles, an online form was distributed where students could enter some of their reflections related to each of the principles. Among the responses, their previous and current knowledge about the use of the target language in instruction and in materials stood out. These responses related to the third principle, emphasizing the relationships among all languages

Table 21.1 Principles and description of plurilingual practices (de Oliveira & Höfling, 2021)

Principle	Description
1. The use of multiple linguistic resources and repertoires of students should be capitalized on in the classroom	These linguistic resources should be a starting point for the development of further linguistic resources from which to build up a plurilingual repertoire
2. An integrated, holistic approach to language teaching and learning should drive instruction in bilingual programs	Code-mixing, code-meshing, and translanguaging should be seen as positive and should promote awareness of language diversity, with the recognition of similarities and differences among languages
3. Plurilingualism should emphasize the relationships among all languages in a dynamic perspective	Translanguaging should engage students in actively using their entire linguistic repertoires. This could involve reading a text in one language and discussing it in another language, aimed at meaning-making
4. The aim of bilingual programs should be to develop plurilingual and pluricultural competences	Pluricultural competence refers to the cultural knowledge of various communities that language learners develop as they are learning languages
5. Bilingual programs should include the teaching of subject areas from a plurilingual perspective	Bilingual programs are not just about the teaching of languages. Bilingual programs include the teaching of the content areas of arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. Using a plurilingual perspective in the content areas involves connecting and analyzing content and language as inseparable components (de Oliveira, 2016) and connections to students' entire repertoire of meaning-making

in a dynamic perspective. Students had a strong belief that the use of L1 either as the language of instruction or the language in the material would compromise the teaching and learning process of a FL. Some students had in fact a monolingual view of bilingual practices, believing that teachers and students should only communicate in English and showing a fear of inserting L1 in the materials and in the classroom. At the same time, students could also clearly see how the strategic use of L1 could be beneficial in materials, and also, the potential that the combination of L1 and L2 could be very dynamic in developing materials. Next, we discuss how the principles were inserted by students when they developed the activities.

Thinking Global, Going Local: Bringing the Principles of Bilingualism to Materials Development

In the area of materials development, it is always important to emphasize that we have different kinds of materials and that each one of them can address different purposes (Lucas, 2016). During the course, students had to discuss and analyze the differences among materials that are global, local, and localized (López-Barrios & Villanueva de Debat, 2014). Global materials are the ones developed in a specific country but that can be used for any learner around the world. As an example, we can cite some of those massive series, generally published by a well-known publisher and distributed around the globe. Localized materials are adapted versions of global materials, and they usually bring something that denotes some specific features like "Pronunciation for Brazilians." Local materials are developed specifically for a region in an attempt to match the national curricula and be capable of reflecting students' needs (Lucas, 2016).

De Oliveira and Höfling's (2021) principle 3 (*Plurilingualism should emphasize the relationships among all languages in a dynamic perspective*) was the one that the pre-service teachers tried to incorporate the most in the materials they developed. During their presentations, they naturally used code-switching, and some students participated much more when translanguaging than in the moments when only English was used. Reflecting on their experiences, students concluded that the use of L1 is not a barrier preventing students from learning a FL or a sign of non-native English-speaking teachers' limited linguistic competence. These kinds of reflections are very important because they represent the beginning of the process for pre-service teachers to become reflective professionals. As they start to (re)consider some of their initial beliefs and (re)shape their beliefs, they can also become more conscious about their roles in their classrooms (Lucas et al., 2017). It is important to highlight that "we do not learn much from experience alone as much as we learn from reflecting on that experience" (Farrell, 2007, pp. 1–2). Therefore, reflective practices empower teachers, allowing them to be sure about their decisions and making their choices informed (Augusto-Navarro, 2015).

At the same time, students pointed out that the most complex principles to be incorporated in the development of materials were principles 3 and also 4 (*Plurilingualism should emphasize the relationships among all languages in a dynamic perspective*; *The aim of bilingual programs should be to develop plurilingual and pluricultural competences*). The students mentioned culture, stereotypes, and authentic materials many times. They felt that materials should be developed in a certain way to avoid possible conflicts, misunderstanding, and the dissemination of faux cultural stereotypes, as well as avoiding the unconscious overestimation of some cultures at the expense of others. They pointed out that the development of pluricultural competences could be challenging for teachers, who are responsible to show their students the equality and value of all cultures and languages. They worried about perpetuating, even if unintentionally, a colonial view through the process of teaching and learning an L2 (Kumaravadivelu, 2016).

With regard to the use of authentic materials, the students understood the necessity of moving away from materials that were based on outdated methodologies and approaches in TESOL, using unreal dialogues or adapted texts that are unreflective of the plurilingual context we live in. So that, the challenge is finding the balance between the communicative language for real purposes, and the professional linguistic components that are needed for teaching and learning a language, when developing materials.

Consequently, the balance between theory and practice in teacher education programs, in an attempt to understand what travels and what transfers (Freeman, 2016), has been one of the biggest challenges in how we prepare our pre-service teachers. The search for this balance is also seen in materials development (Majthoub, 2014), especially in the development of activities. In this sense, we agree with Augusto-Navarro et al. (2014) on the importance of educating teachers to understand the theoretical concepts that are behind the covers, and usually invisible to them. This is important because when teachers are capable of understanding the methodologies that were used to design units, they become somewhat co-authors of the materials, and they feel more confident to adapt materials.

Principle number 5 (*Bilingual programs should include the teaching of subject areas from a plurilingual perspective*) was also mentioned in some students' reflections as the most difficult to incorporate, as we can see in one pre-service teacher's answer:

> Acredito que este princípio, o quinto, seja o mais difícil de incorporar, pois o ensino bilíngue de matérias de cunho exato requerem mais planejamento e uso de recursos mais lapidados para a ocasião, sendo assim, provavelmente caros, difíceis de produzir, e possivelmente, de qualidade duvidosa, pelo fato de que muitos professores atuam apenas na sua própria área, logo, um professor de matemática precisaria de ajuda de um professor de inglês de modo a montar unidades BILÍNGUES para tal matéria.
>
> [I believe that this principle, the fifth, is the most difficult to incorporate, as bilingual teaching of specific subject matter requires more planning and the use of resources that are more refined for the occasion. Thus, this can be expensive, difficult to develop, and possibly, of dubious quality, due to the fact that many teachers work only in their own area of expertise. Therefore, a math teacher would need help from an English teacher in order to assemble bilingual units for that subject.]

Teaching different content from a plurilingual perspective requires previous planning and more accurate use of resources, which is intrinsically related to the learning of theories. A Brazilian content teacher, for example, would need the help of an English teacher in order to develop plurilingual materials. Although pre-service language teachers may not face the language issues challenge of developing teaching materials, on the other hand, content teachers would have to learn about how to teach their subjects using a second language (L2) as medium of instruction, which requires knowledge of different approaches and methodologies in the area of teaching and learning a L2, besides learning to develop their students' repertoires, stimulating them to build their own communicative competences in L2 and in the subject areas.

In general, the students' reflections were very fruitful for our own reflections as researchers and teacher educators and confirmed our belief that more attention to

materials development is very much needed in teacher education programs. Another student from the course made some interesting reflections, by mentioning that reading the text really opened her eyes to this truly bilingual side of developing materials:

> A leitura do texto realmente abriu meus olhos para este lado realmente bilíngue, sempre havia sido para mim natural querer trazer a língua materna e conceitos familiares para dentro da sala de aula, porém, sempre via que "quanto mais inglês melhor", "se usar português eles não aprendem", e agora pude ver, de um ponto de visto acadêmico, que a inserção da língua materna nesse contexto não deveria ser nem ao menos pauta, já que o ensino que se diz BILÍNGUE, deve ser conduzido com as duas línguas, de maneira dinâmica.
>
> [The reading of the text really opened my eyes for this really bilingual side. It had always been natural for me to want to bring the native language into the classroom, but I always saw that "the more English the better," or "if you use Portuguese, they don't learn," and now I could see, from a theoretical perspective, that the insertion of the first language in this context should not even be on the agenda, since the teaching that is said to be BILINGUAL, must be conducted in both languages.]

In addition, another pre-service teacher also pointed out another important aspect of their development as pre-service teachers: "A maior reflexão que eu fiz foi a de incluir aspectos mais reflexivos entre as línguas na minha unidade temática. Procurei não só me apoiar na tradução e mesclagem de línguas, mas sim compará-las, refletir sobre suas nuances." [The biggest reflection I did was to include more reflection between Portuguese and English in my thematic unit. I tried not only to support myself in the translation and mixing of languages, but also to compare them, to reflect on their nuances.]

These reflections show that these pre-service teachers' main concern was the use of Portuguese and English on developing teaching materials to teach a foreign language. However, at the same time, they found support on the theories related to bilingualism which empowered them to use both languages in their future classrooms.

Conclusion

In order to educate pre-service language teachers, teacher education programs will have to rethink how their pedagogical components are presented and understood. The redesign of the national curriculum is not a trend, but an urgent need. For it to succeed, however, it is crucial to have teaching materials that foster teachers' practices, contributing to the improvement of the teaching and learning of additional languages (Lucas et al., 2018).

Alongside theoretical preparation regarding teaching materials, undergraduate language programs should rethink their curricula and highlight more those new contexts that pre-service teachers will face. This chapter has shown how a reflective exercise about the development of materials for plurilingual contexts can foster critical thinking, allowing pre-service teachers to (re)think their own beliefs, such as the use of the L1 in the classroom, and even question practices they may have learned by observing the practices of their teacher educators.

Pre-service teachers need to understand the concepts of plurilingualism and pluricultural education; therefore, these concepts must be incorporated in teacher education programs, as Brazil is not a monolingual nation and neither are its educational contexts. There is no space in plurilingual contexts for faux monolingual teaching; our students deserve this respect.

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Chapter 22
Teacher-Generated Instructional Materials for Integrating Content and Language Learning: Actualizing the Translanguaging for English Language Learners

Hanh Dinh

Abstract Content teachers often struggle to help English language learners (ELLs) demonstrate a more profound understanding and analysis of the subject content in a language they have not yet mastered. This study demonstrated how three in-service secondary school science teachers generated complementary learning materials for that pedagogical purpose. They all found the need to generate learning materials and instructional practices that adopt translanguaging theories and strategies, emphasizing the use of entire linguistic repertoires flexibly and strategically to leverage students' language and academic content development. The data include teacher interviews and artifacts from the materials design process, resulting in lesson plans, handouts, and written reflections. Their efforts in using students' multilingual resources to learn content knowledge vary to a degree. The findings reveal common emergent themes in the participating teachers' expertise for actualizing translanguaging pedagogy, characterized by reciprocating between content and language in all design manifestations. They include (1) dynamically attending to both content-enriched and language-infused learning practices, (2) seamlessly integrating interactional language and academic language, as well as translanguaging, for conceptual construction in the content area, and (3) utilizing digital translation tools and visual aids to assist meaning-seeking and communication with multilingual students.

Introduction

According to the U.S. Department of Education, in 2018, nearly, 5 million students were categorized as English language learners (ELLs) within K–12 public schools, demonstrating a burgeoning growth of English learners in the U.S. school population. When it comes to science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM)

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subjects in elementary and middle schools, 78.5% of science, 80.3% of mathematics, and 73.3% of technology teachers reported having ELLs in their service loads (Besterman et al., 2018). ELLs' cultural and linguistic backgrounds, prior literacy foundation built-in first language schooling history, and bilingual advantages, such as divergent thinking and executive functioning promise multi-competent and multi-talented insights (Bloom et al., 2017; Duarte, 2020; Esquierdo & Arreguín-Anderson, 2012). In addition, those STEM subjects are assumed to provide ELLs with routes to acquiring knowledge via demonstration of phenomena, experimentation, and consolidation of hands-on practices related to science. In other words, ELLs are also supposed to be competent learners at obtaining STEM content since the content in diverse subjects can enrich their second language immersion.

Notwithstanding this presumption, long-held academic performance reports in education and U.S. policy have asserted that ELLs lag behind the commensurate performance compared to their native English-speaking peers regarding educational attainment (Abedi & Gándara, 2006; Fradd & Lee, 1995; Neidorf et al., 2006; Shi, 2017; Van Laere et al., 2016). This mismatch between theory and reality of education stems from prevailing views that limited English language abilities for academic literacy and content learning have prevented ELLs from achieving success (Stevens et al., 2001; Torres-Velásquez et al., 2014). For a long time, the idea of making ELLs familiar with the English language at all costs and asking them to resort to the English language to get access to subject content has dominated the field. Accordingly, instructional and learning materials have "no consideration of language support" (Ball, 2018, p. 174). It depicts the imposition of a monolingual English-only mindset in instruction and material designs and serves to exacerbate an already critical situation for treating ELLs as those with language deficits (Collier et al., 2016; East & Tolosa, 2014). There is also considerable confusion and variance in how STEM teachers understand the complexity and the needs of multilingual/multicultural students to build new concepts in a language that they are developing (Coady et al., 2016). Teachers' enactment of designing instructional materials tends to be less consistent with their intention to perceive ELLs as active participants in the process of knowledge construction with non-ELL peers (Schneider et al., 2005).

Therefore, to tackle this problem, researchers (i.e., García & Li, 2014; Louie et al., 2017) have called for a multilingual turn in which an integrated linguistic repertoire of first and second (and so on) languages is used to free ELLs' mind from resorting to one language for understanding. Such practice is called *translanguaging*, and it can be incorporated into awareness and sensitivity to diverse sociocultural academic contexts (Canagarajah, 2014). Translanguaging is a pedagogical method or classroom norm used to engage in meaning-making and an interactional shift such as a change in topic, task, or addressee. While this theoretical ideology has been put forward in scholarly debates, there is still a lack of context-responsive and readily made or commercially produced materials in the market that have adopted such an approach (Moore & Lorenzo, 2015; Morton, 2013). Thus, to address this problem, teachers have been stepping forward to develop their materials (Bosompem, 2014; Davies, 2002; Hoffman & Zollman, 2016; Reeve & Jang, 2006; Sánchez Beltrán, 2018).

Teacher-generated materials refer to extensive instructional steps, learning tasks, and contexts for learning interactions. Teachers tailor the lesson content to scaffold ELLs' scientific discourse and linguistic skills. Moreover, with more and more content teachers certified to teach ELLs or co-teach them with English as a second language (ESL) teachers (Bell & Baecher, 2012), it is necessary to offer meaningful, authentic materials that contextualize and integrate a diverse set of activities, comprehensible English texts, and systematic instructional strategies suitable for students in specific local contexts to mediate between two languages and between language and content (Breiner et al., 2012; Pereira & de Oliveira, 2015).

This chapter exemplifies how three in-service science teachers in three secondary schools in a suburban area in North America, who earned state certification in ESL, generated materials for that pedagogical purpose. Throughout one academic year, their teaching artifacts and interview transcripts were used to analyze how they formulated a rationale, looked for activity ideas, and then developed materials to support those activities. The following sections discuss frameworks, sample materials, and activities that illustrate scaffolding integrates language and content.

Theoretical Frameworks for Analyzing Pedagogical Activities and Materials

Analysis of the activity ideas and materials developed by the three teachers was informed by frameworks proposed by Cummins (2000) and Chi and Wylie (2014). Cummins argued that for ELLs maneuvering a learning task involves two distinctive aspects: cognitive load (how many mental resources one needs to solve the task) and linguistic contextual support (which words and phrases are needed to be employed for idea articulation). Tasks which have a lower cognitive load (e.g., problem solving) and use language with contextual support embedded in the activity will be more accessible for ELLs. To provide contextual support, teachers can, for example, preteach some vocabulary in rich contexts before the activity is conducted. They can also ask students to summarize what they comprehend from the instructions before getting to the main task. That focus on language stimulates the language output and adds additional practice that calls ELLs' attention to vocabulary they might need for more complex tasks. It also increases the awareness and acquisition of text features (Pei, 2014; Pereira & de Oliveira, 2015). Activities, therefore, need to start with scaffolding and language elicitation, starting with words to sentences to texts. Other helpful strategies include text completion, marking, labeling, segmenting, and sequencing. Finally, teachers can use translanguaging to help lower-level English proficiency or emergent bilingual students because the method enables students to employ their linguistic repertoires by drawing on code-switching and language mixing to aid their thinking, conceptual fluency, and idea articulation (Sayer, 2013).

Cognitively demanding tasks requiring higher levels of thought processing (e.g., analyzing, evaluating, and creating) can be placed later in a set of materials. This

phase is where the potential of technological tools and translanguaging can be used to leverage the robust meaning-making repertoires and cultivate science concepts at more depths. At this phase, more hands-on activities that promote ELLs' cognitive functions, such as authentic exploration of scientific phenomenon (e.g., observations, experiments), will support conceptual understanding (Lee & Butler, 2003). Cognitive support for content learning ranges from non-verbal cues, such as facial expressions, gestures, and body language, to pictorial, graphic, or verbal organizers and demonstrations in the learning environment (Bentley, 2010). Combined with cognitive support strategies, translanguaging can be applied to allow ELLs to express themselves in all possible ways and multimodally to engage with academic content (Leeuwen, 2011). It is less challenging for ELLs to practice the concept in different visual and meaningful tasks using both languages (Gale et al., 2020), so STEM teachers can retain the cognitive challenge of a content task by helping students match their linguistic demands first.

While cognitive demand and linguistic scaffolding depict the internal construction of a learning activity, students' learning experiences are also contingent upon their interactions while doing instructional activities. Chi and Wylie (2014) proposed placing learning activities into four modes that represent different types of engagement: interactive, constructive, active, or passive. The selection and use of these modes depends upon students' focused attention and the behaviors they display during knowledge-change processes. According to their categorization, the interactive mode of engagement achieves the highest level of learning because students communicate with an audience or a partner about their substantive constructive contributions and co-construct new ideas related to the topic under discussion. The interactive mode of engagement is crucial for ELLs because cooperative learning (group work) and peer-interaction promote ELLs' communication of their understanding in a variety of formats (e.g., written, oral, or graphic) and capitalize on the help from peers (Ardasheva et al., 2015). The constructive mode demonstrates students' doing overt activities with some form of motor function and focused attention ("deep work") to connect current knowledge with prior knowledge. While the active mode is qualitatively greater than the passive mode, in which students receive information from the instructional materials without overtly doing anything that consolidates or transfers learning input, both the active and passive modes require less engagement on the part of students.

According to these frameworks, teacher-developed materials for ELLs have to consider the functions of incorporated tasks in order not to cut off potentially useful learning avenues or interaction patterns that will help engage students. Applying translanguaging into this model, teachers can include situations from students' cultural contexts using different channels. According to Back et al. (2020), translanguaging strategies can act as scaffolds for ELLs' emotional well-being, learning motivation, and engagement better than traditional strategies of English-only interactions. In addition to improving the acquisition of academic content, translanguaging can also reduce anxiety, motivate learners' willingness to learn from another, and avoid behavioral issues. Using translanguaging through the modes of engagement as

Chi and Wylie (2014) suggested helps create an agentive, collaborative, and socio-culturally responsive pedagogy for multilingual learners where their backgrounds are acknowledged and their prior experiences in home cultures are capitalized on.

The above frameworks posed by Cummins (2000) and Chi and Wylie (2014) highlighted the didactic sequence in which the design of learning materials can be organized around three dimensions in terms of linguistic scaffolding, cognitive complexity, and engagement. In the next section, integrating these aspects from the frameworks provides a lens to describe and analyze how teachers optimize learning activities for ELLs so that they are socially engaged and develop conceptual understanding and academic language in STEM content.

Methodology

The following examples of teacher-generated materials and lesson plans are based on content analysis of teaching artifacts of three in-service content teachers in secondary schools in upstate New York collected over one academic year (around thirty weeks). The employed materials have been designed and adjusted to the varied needs of ELLs, combining concepts, procedures, and language to feature the target topic. The participants were prospective teachers in a professional development program for teaching ELLs who agreed to participate in interviews and submit their teaching artifacts used in the 2020–2021 academic year (see Table 22.1 for teachers' profiles).

The researcher conducted at least three forty-five-minute formal interviews and several informal interviews with each teacher. In the last interview, the researcher delved more into the teacher's rationale for designing their materials and their approach to delivering what they had compiled. I focused on eliciting conversations around the question, "Tell me about what happened here when you designed the task like this." The interviews with the teachers were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The interview transcripts and teacher-developed materials, including 110 handouts, worksheets, and visual aids, were analyzed using NVivo 12 Plus.

Findings and Discussion

The following principles and features emerged from the analysis and show the teachers' consistent efforts to match their learners' cognitive and language levels while maintaining a level of challenge. The teachers also exhibited their ability to rationalize during the meaning-making process and develop a sequence of activities that offer variety, relevance, linguistically rich input/output, and cognitive engagement.

Table 22.1 Teachers' profiles

Teacher	Subject	ELLs' language proficiency	Age	Teaching years	Certification in teaching ELLs	Use of translanguaging	Teacher's language abilities
Mr. William	Earth science	Advanced	Mid-30 s	5 years	Yes	No	Monolingual English native speaker
Ms. Kathy	World geography	Intermediate	Early 20 s	1 year	Yes	Yes	Monolingual English native speaker
Ms. Sarah	History	Lower intermediate and intermediate	Mid-40 s	9 years	No	Yes	Spanish–English bilingual teacher

Content-Enriched and Language-Infused Learning Practices

All three teachers showed their explorations into dynamically attending to both content and language in their materials. Mr. William said that:

> If my ELLs receive explicit grammar instruction alongside science instruction, their overall literacy skills will also show meaningful improvement. I want to create materials that have specific tasks aligned with that needs for grammar scaffolding. In those activities, I explicitly encourage students to compare their first language and second language grammatical structures. I realize that students tend to mesh or mix two languages in a sentence structure, which I allow for the first stage of resolving the task.

For example, his students take the final regents exam in English, and he felt that many of their incorrect exam responses result from a linguistic misunderstanding rather than a conceptual one. Using translanguaging with that test-based practice approach, he did a text analysis in both languages for the coursebook and previous exams. He also developed his instructional materials with extra spaces and margins to take notes in both languages.

In another example, he came to the realization that scientific language often uses the passive voice. Experimental procedures are supposed to be written in ways that others can accurately repeat. Thus, he decided to create materials that include linguistic scaffolding, such as focusing on the passive voice, which is confusing to students who are more grammatically accustomed to the active voice in their first language or whose language does not have the notion of voice/mood. He asked students to explain the concept in their first language with a teaching assistant or an interpreter. Then, he guided them to formulate a passive voice version in English. The most important thing for him was to use students' first language and a comparative lens between first and second language to help students understand passive voice usage in the report genre. He argued that passive sentences often slow students down and can result in an overall reduction of comprehension, so understanding the roots of the problem using translanguaging is a way to deepen students' understanding. He felt that additional explicit practice with passive/active sentence conversions from first to the second language will improve students' ability to perform these conversions while reading subconsciously. This linguistic integration will result in greater cognitive comprehension of scientific content. Figure 22.1 provides an example of an activity which highlights the syntactic sequence of passive constructions.

Similarly, in her history class, Ms. Sarah also thought critically about activities that could enhance students' language first with cognitively undemanding tasks. She engaged ELLs in a semantic mapping strategy called "List, Group, Label," inspired by the National Urban Alliance (see Fig. 22.2). This strategy allows students to make new concepts stayed organized using prior learning and background experience. This technique is most often seen and used for vocabulary development and building background for independent reading, shared reading, jigsaw reading, or interactive read-aloud across disciplines. However, in developing this lesson, she found it could also work for teaching new grammatical concepts. This activity illustrates one of Batstone and Ellis's (2009) grammatical teaching principles, given-to-new, guiding

Activity #1 (Practice) – "Name Three"

1. Name three fossil fuels that can .... (find) in sedimentary rocks.	2. Name three greenhouse gases that .... (emit) by farms.	3. Name three coastal cities that might .... (flood) by meltwater from the polar ice caps.
ESRT, p. 7 4. Name three sedimentary rocks that .... (compose) of land-derived sediments.	5. Name three things that can .... (do) to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.	6. Name three countries that .... (convince) to sign the "**Paris Agreement**" in 2016.

Fig. 22.1 Syntactic sequencing focusing on scaffolding "passive voice" using prompts and content extracted and modified from a Regents Exam

students and their thinking about learning by forming connections to prior knowledge learned from previous history lessons. This activity aligns with the principle that the teacher can create a cognitively demanding task but linguistically context-embedded with guides. Specifically, learners can connect a "given" meaning in the first language to its "new" meaning in the second language, thereby recycling language in the content class while encoding the lexical and grammar across languages and contexts of use.

Academic Language Integration with Engagement and Translanguaging for Conceptual Construction

Mr. William emphasized the importance of using teacher-developed materials to facilitate group discussions. He established a low-stakes, interactive, "game-like" cognitively undemanding atmosphere, which could alleviate stress and increase student engagement/motivation. Furthermore, the collaborative groups within his classroom were grouped heterogeneously by skill level. In other words, groups consisted of students with a range of performance levels. Higher-performing students would benefit from helping lower-level students learn/practice the skill through interactional activities. Lower-level students would benefit from the guidance of the higher-performing students. Gilbert et al. (2010) stated that ELLs should intentionally grouped with a group of students who have high leadership skills without clarifying how those students can thrive in that cooperative environment.

I	Know Biết	about her ancestors, who are Native Americans called Shawnee. Về tổ tiên của cô ta, từng được gọi là Mỹ bản địa và Shawnee.
You	should make sure you know that cần biết là bạn phải	many Shawnee moved to Texas and later to Oklahoma. rất nhiều người Shawnee đã đi cư đến Texas và vùng Oklahoma.
He	is the Shawnee	leader Tecumseh.
She	is helping us to learn that the Shawnee moved west to areas such as Ohio and Missouri.	to areas such as Ohio and Missouri.
It	broke	Shawnee hearts' to fight with other tribes.
We	are learning that Shawnee opposed	American expansion onto Native American lands.
They	are taking	the tribes to large earth hills for important ceremonies and buildings.
She	is holding	a picture of European explorers and settlers who first met the Shawnee in the 1600s.

Fig. 22.2 An example of a semantic mapping activity in English and Vietnamese where the teacher cuts the rows/columns into strips of paper which the students must use to construct sentences

In addition, his Earth Science course served to inspire and reinforce key grammatical and lexical phenomena among ELLs. He felt that his materials focused on the literacy skills that are of central importance when preparing students to demonstrate their knowledge on standardized exams and other summative assessments. He stressed the essence of hands-on laboratory activities of the science classroom, providing engaging and relevant context-embedded practices where students practice and further develop their language skills. To maximize the level of engagement for cooperative learning, when working with ELLs to co-examine their design, he guided the construction using both languages in collaborative conversations. He demonstrated the testing of the designed platform with ELLs via oral speech, action, and translanguaging. He explained the scientific rationale and its connection with the engineering design for his Spanish ELLs,

> To document different wavelengths… attach the protractor (or, *transportador*) to the side of the bin so that the zero degrees mark aligns with the perpendicular handle. *Mira la cinta métrica* affixed to the side of the bin. (pointing to the visual aid).

That timely and appropriate interference diversified the interactional patterns and ensured. ELLs could reach the expected pace of work. Explaining why his materials did not adopt translanguaging before, Mr. William said that

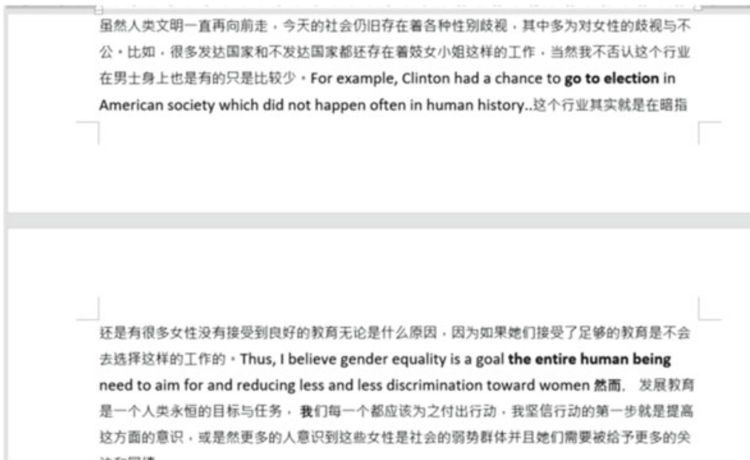
> ELLs have to "work twice as hard" in content-area classrooms. There is no doubt that it will be challenging and time-consuming to teach content and English language lessons in parallel constantly. The flip side is that my ELLs have even more to learn and "double" the growth potential.

His ELLs learned high-level science content while developing and refining their English grammar and vocabulary. All the grammar activities he developed for accompanying his content lessons sought to support students' first language before their second language development. He found that translanguaging helped reinforce the content in his Regent Earth Science course better than English-only materials.

Mr. William changed from an "English-only" academic immersion approach by creating materials with English linguistic and cognitive scaffolding. Ms. Kathy and Ms. Sarah, on the other hand, both argued that being allowed to learn the differences between conversational and textual discourse markers in two languages could be particularly valuable for their students, especially those who sought proficiency in English that would enable them to switch into an academic, formal style. Such switching can capitalize on students' first language backgrounds, meaning students can compare and combine English language discourses with those in their mother tongue.

Ms. Kathy, for instance, acknowledged that there were some concepts deep-rooted in the L1 base, so by replacing monoglossic language ideologies with heteroglossia ones for dynamic language practice, she could construct a dynamic meaning-making discursive process. The use of translanguaging (Fig. 22.3) in her materials for students' journaling activity stimulates generative words regardless of which language is being used: "Translingual fluency in writing would be defined as deftness in deploying a broad and diverse repertoire of language resources, and responsiveness to the diverse range of readers' social positions and ideological perspectives" (Horner et al., 2011, p. 308). After students used translanguaging to write down their reflections, they could relate to this code-switching script to formulate their thoughts in the English language orally. Ms. Kathy would work closely with both the script and the speech to mediate the students' struggles in the target language and facilitate the mode of engagement as constructive and interactive, such as using words collocational in English instead of decontextualized words to rephrase their Chinese ideas.

Likewise, Ms. Sarah attempted to do a bit of a hybrid between the communicative approach and the 3 P method of Presentation, Practice, and Production seen in the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching for her ELLs. She chose to focus on explicitly paving the way for future in-class conversations and content-related discussion for her ELLs, targeting ELLs' textual discourse markers and boosting their confidence in interactions during the meaning construction process with non-ELL peers.



虽然人类文明一直再向前走，今天的社会仍旧存在着各种性别歧视，其中多为对女性的歧视与不公，比如，很多发达国家和不发达国家都还存在着妓女小姐这样的工作，当然我不否认这个行业在男士身上也是有的只是比较少，For example, Clinton had a chance to **go to election** in American society which did not happen often in human history..这个行业其实就是在暗指

还是有很多女性没有接受到良好的教育无论是什么原因，因为如果她们接受了足够的教育是不会去选择这样的工作的，Thus, I believe gender equality is a goal **the entire human being** need to aim for and reducing less and less discrimination toward women **然而**. 发展教育是一个人类永恒的目标与任务，**我**们每一个都应该为之付出行动，我坚信行动的第一步就是提高这方面的意识，或是然更多的人意识到这些女性是社会的弱势群体并且她们需要被给予更多的关

Fig. 22.3 Translanguaging is allowed for students to focus on individual reflection and conceptual equivalency between two languages on the topic of "equity"

> Lack of discourse markers may complicate comprehensibility and cohesion within discourse, such as when a person is looking to change the topic of a conversation. Also, the textbook used for our class categorizes "besides" and "so" as textual discourse markers, but they are also used frequently in casual conversation. Although it can create a stiffer, more formal sounding utterance if a student incorporates more strictly textual discourse markers into their conversations, the greater issue is students not using appropriately formal discourse markers in contexts like emails to professors, academic reports, or academic presentation scripts.

However, she realized that simply offering a translated vocabulary list of common conversational discourse markers would be insufficient for ELLs' participation in conversations in academic topics. Thus, in one activity, she used in her materials for her history class; she used navigating conversations (see Fig. 22.4) to provide a structured written exercise for her students to practice using the discourse markers they would need in the class's group discussion. There was a word bank, and the exercise featured unfinished dialogues accompanied by prompts, which suggested the shape of the next conversational turn by the student. This was to highlight the phrases they would use throughout the class and prepare the students for the next scaffolding task, a casual game.

> ELLs can answer the questions in their first language first or mix both languages. Then, they will go through the bank in English language and modify their answers accordingly. Once it is done, they will be paired with an English native speaking student, and they will work with each other to improve oral fluency.

The two teachers' materials exemplify how teachers can seamlessly integrate interactional and academic language via translanguaging to add in conceptual construction in the content area.

At work this morning, your co-worker Jay is telling you what he thinks about another co-worker, Emma. While he is talking, you see Emma coming your way! Quick, use a discourse marker with your sentence to help change the subject of your conversation to something else!

Jay: So, what did you think about Emma's presentation? Frankly, I didn't like it at all, I thought it was boring.

You:

Later at lunch, you are trying to tell Jay about your plans for tonight. Jay is talking about Emma's presentation again. You are not interested! Politely use a discourse marker with your sentence to get back to talking about your plans for tonight.

Jay: You know, I've been thinking about it, and I think Emma talked way too fast. She needs to slow down when she speaks.

You:

It's the end of the day and Jay will not stop talking about Emma! You are ready to go home, so use a discourse marker with your sentence to politely end the conversation.

Jay: Anyway, that's why I think I should be the one who gives the presentation next week.

You:

---

right	actually
so	I mean
anyway	you know
by the way	to be honest
speaking of	well

Fig. 22.4 Students write answers in their first language or a mix of them before using the prompters to revise their sentences

Digital Translation Tools and Visual Organizers to Aid Meaning Construction

Other shared patterns across the three teachers' materials are their utilizing digital translation tools and visual aids to enhance communication between teachers and multilingual students. For example, Ms. Kathy stated in her interview that visual aids such as flashcards helped students retain their memory of English vocabulary and work as reminders for grammar accuracy. Go Fish (see Fig. 22.5) is quite a common card game in the United States, but only a few students had heard of it before in her classes. There is a deck of digital or physical cards in Irregular Verb Tense Go Fish, and each card has a match. She created the decks herself on cut index cards. For example, the different verb tenses are written on the index cards depending on the content being learned. Then, they compiled a list of words and explanations and labels in their first language to retrieve the vocabulary whenever they wanted. Regarding past participle, one card would say "be," and somewhere else in the deck would be its match "been." As students master-specific verbs, they can be taken out of the deck, and new ones can be added. The vocabulary related to content could be added to create a full sentence-matching activity. This activity can be played between ELLs and non-ELLs to create rapport. However, Kathy allowed translanguaging, encouraging ELLs to generate bilingual and monolingual visual vocabulary entries.

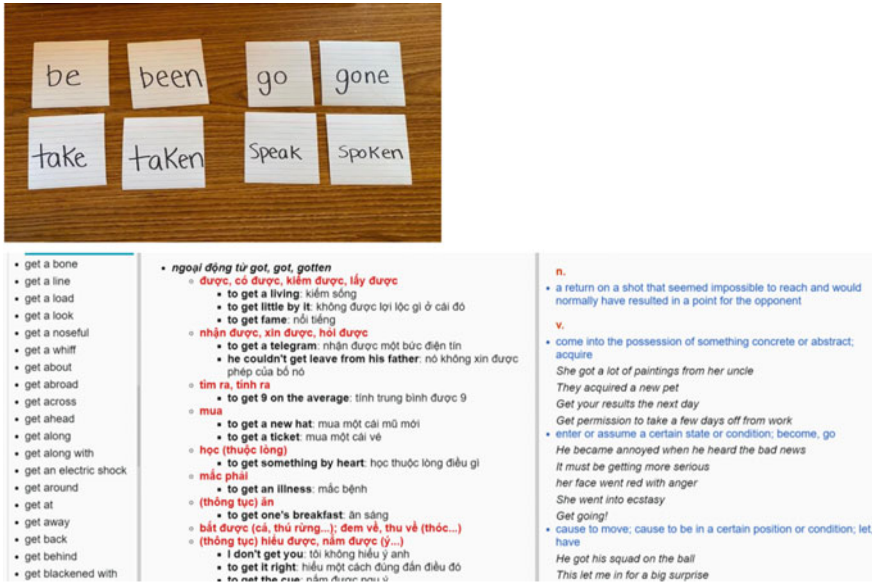


Fig. 22.5 Go Fish Card example to help ELLs navigate the accuracy of their verbs in formulating English sentences. After the activities, ELLs can update the words in their online notebook

In another class, with self-generated visual aids, Ms. Sarah helped her Spanish–English bilingual students observe the differences in syntactic forms of conditional sentences. She would point out how we have two separate words in the subordinate and main clauses for the subject and verb in English. In Spanish, they take the infinitive and change the ending to match the person and tense. For example, in English, we say *If **I were** you, **I would study** more.* The subjects "I" and "were" in Spanish are written using one word, ***fuera***, and "I would study" is written using the one word, ***estudiaría***. In English, they do not change verbs based upon gender, and they separate the infinitive and modal verb in the main clause, whereas Spanish use the infinitive. Still, they need to show the modal verb by adding an ending to the infinitive making it one whole word. Native Spanish-speaking ELLs may forget to use the modal verb in English because they are used to just seeing one word in their language, so a visual aid comparing between two languages as in Fig. 22.6 may help. In another scenario, ELLs from Arabic languages would struggle with using the word "would" because in their language, when they want to talk about future action, they use the jussive mood, which translates to *will*. They only use "will" when talking about things they would, could, or want to do in the future because in their language it does not exist for these types of sentences, so a collage of photos with a distinctive and engaging example in both languages opened a new way of conceptualizing the grammatical aspects in English.

While Ms. Sarah used visual aids to scaffold language knowledge, Mr. William integrated visual aids (pictures and video recordings) to introduce ELLs to more context-embedded situations. For instance, the visual aids (i.e., pictures, videos, cartoons) are used for language production practice and content-related learning (see Fig. 22.7). With visual help, ELLs read the cartoon in their first language, which was visually depicted. Then, they went through a convergent process by formulating a set of deep reasoning questions and gradually translating their thoughts into completing the English language activities (structures).

Conclusions

In examining the teacher-developed materials to support ELLs in STEM lessons, it becomes apparent that the prevalence of scaffolding methods varies considerably depending on the area of content expertise and the dynamics of ELLs (e.g., the percentage of ELLs in the class, their language proficiency, and the program they attend). Notably, findings implicate the need to generate learning materials and instructional practices that adopt translanguaging theories and strategies, emphasizing the use of entire linguistic repertoires of bi/multilingual ELLs flexibly and strategically to leverage their students' language and academic content development. Teachers' efforts in using students' multilingual resources to learn content knowledge vary to a degree. Teachers include (1) dynamically attending to both content-enriched and language-infused learning practices, (2) seamlessly integrating interactional language and academic language, as well as translanguaging, for conceptual

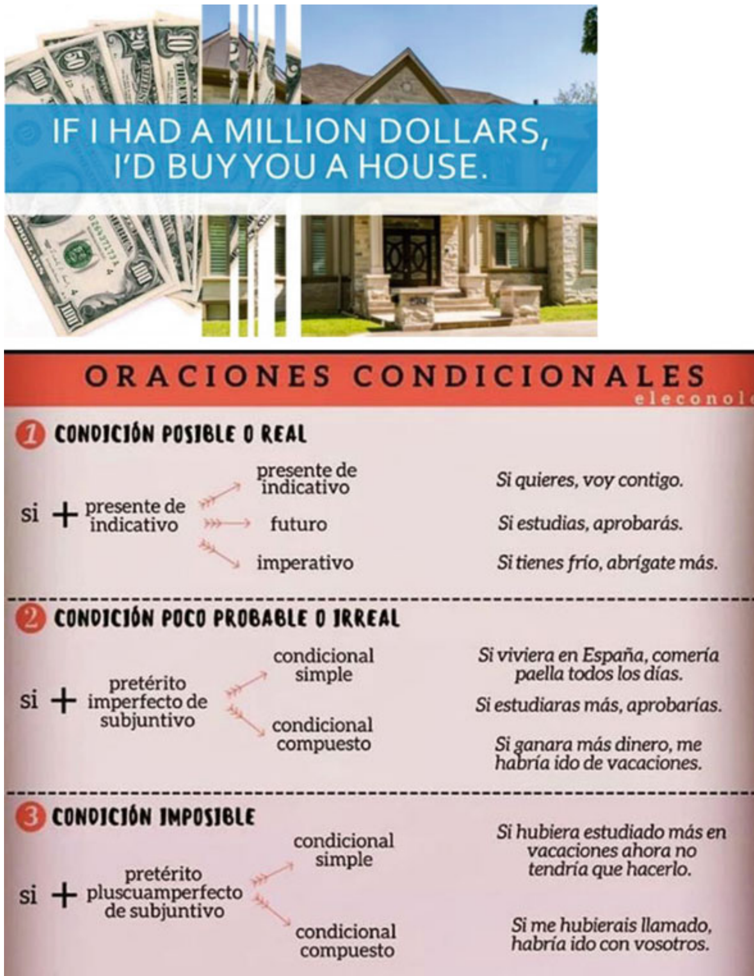


Fig. 22.6 Use of self-generated collage of photos help scaffold students' linguistic knowledge understanding

construction in the content area, and (3) utilizing digital translation tools and visual aids to assist meaning-seeking and communication between monolingual teachers and multilingual students. In summary, the key principle underlying an activity for multilingual students aligns with Charamba (2020) that the application of translanguaging goes beyond drafting teaching and learning materials. Rather, actualizing the translanguaging for English language learners requires teachers to consider and evaluate the dynamics between students' cognitive, linguistic, and socioemotional potentials and abilities.

Activity #2 (Production) – **"Using Passive and Active Voice to Talk About Global Warming"**

Name:______________________________ Date:___________

Using Passive and Active Voice to Talk About Global Warming

Fig. 22.7 Incorporating first language's cartoon for aiding ELLs' comprehension and contextualized content learning before sharpening their second language skills

The educational experiences for ELLs include translanguaging delivered via group activities and reference lists of vocabulary and grammar practices. While interactive engagement is a critical factor in motivating students' learning, the generated materials work as complementary learning resources to scaffold students. The above materials demonstrate that diverse linguistic and engagement scaffolds do better than simplifying speech or text (García et al., 2017; Walqui & van Lier, 2010). Linguistic support using translanguaging means amplifying ELLs' meaning-negotiation opportunities and providing linguistic input for facilitating concept formulation.

Furthermore, the teacher-generated materials promise the possibility of comprehensive guidance from teachers on different aspects to meet ELLs' individual linguistic and cognitive needs. Specifically, teachers have tried to design materials

that actively demonstrate the coordination of three distinctive objectives: (1) comprehend the nuances of scientific language, (2) master science concepts, (3) and learn English. Practice-oriented learning materials meet the requirement to provide meaningful language-learning and science-learning scaffolding. More specialized workshops on professional teacher-generated materials are recommended to train teachers to develop activities and materials to match their English proficiency level and level the playing field for ELLs in terms of conceptual growth.

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Part V
Assessment Practices for Multilingual TESOL

The issue of assessment in multilingual educational contexts has become important especially in the last three decades as we realize that multilingualism is now a key issue in the field of TESOL and Applied Linguistics. This realization coupled with the widespread need to integrate non-native English-speaking yet multilingual populations into mainstream education and to provide fair and equitable forms of assessment for all students. As such, assessments of multilingual competence should assess the learners' abilities to use their entire linguistic repertoires by allowing them to use different languages in different situational contexts, for different purposes, and with different groups of people. This part of the volume addresses the need for research and guidance on testing and assessing multilingual students. At its heart are guidelines for the design of multilingual tests and testing multilingual groups of language learners. More specifically, Part V consists of four chapters each focusing on a different aspect in relation to multilingualism and assessment.

In **Qinghua Chen and Angel M. Y. Lin's** chapter, the authors examine the comprehension of academic content in TOEFL iBT test preparation classes. Through the use of an autoethnographic approach, they examine the first author's (Chen) teaching experience in TOEFL preparation by consolidating the teacher's teaching notes, the students' narratives of their course experience, and 20 hours of classroom recordings into an analysis of how to implement discourse strategies, translanguaging, and CLIL theories. Their study also explores how these theoretical insights can help to mitigate the tensions between the practical goal of helping students to prepare for and "pass" the test and the long-term goal of expanding students' linguistic competence in the academic genre.

In the next chapter, **Alexis A. Lopez** discusses the use of students' local languages in English language proficiency assessments within the context of young language learners in American public schools. The specific focus of her chapter is on how ESL and bilingual teachers can leverage students' entire language resources to provide fair opportunities for young language learners to demonstrate what they know and can do in English. In a pilot study, kindergarten students completed four speaking tasks in which they describe pictures, answer questions, and retell events. These examples illustrate how the use of local languages occurred naturally within the

assessment and illustrate how the test administrators and the students engaged in multilingual practices for different purposes. Recommendations on how teachers in different instructional contexts can enable multilingual practices within English language proficiency assessments are also provided.

"Assessing the Multimodal Literacy Practices of Young Emergent Bilinguals" is the focus of the chapter by **Sally Brown, Ling Hoa, and Rong Zhang**. In this chapter, the authors showcase a formative assessment that will help educators identify the strengths of young learners as they navigate responses to texts in classrooms. The *Multimodal Literacy Profile (MLP) for Emergent Bilinguals* captures the understanding of story elements, visual representations of knowledge, and speaking, listening, and writing communication within multiple languages. The authors explain the theoretical framework for the MLP and give an in-depth analysis of three emergent bilingual children's responses to fictional stories as a way to illustrate how the assessment tool works.

The focus of the last chapter in Part V is on contact zones and investment in the advanced ESOL writing classroom and evidence-based recommendations for linguistically sustaining instructional design. According to the chapter author, **Robin L. Rhodes**, pedagogy focusing on student assets and collaborative dialogism help create more equitable assessment and increase investment in language learning. As such, asset-based instruction and the use of linguistically sustaining assignments such as vocabulary journals, collaborative annotations, literacy autoethnographies, and a multilingual story map are highlighted through a case study at an American institution of higher education. The course showcases pedagogy that supports multilingualism in the advanced ESOL writing classroom. Rhode's recommendations in this chapter can be adapted for varying teaching contexts and are useful for different language levels and age groups in both the United States and beyond.

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Chapter 23
Facilitating the Comprehension of Academic Content in the TOEFL iBT Test Preparation Classroom

Qinghua Chen and Angel Mei Yi Lin

Abstract The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) iBT test is required by many universities for admission which has fostered training businesses in many Asian countries. Although there is an abundance of academic content in TOEFL test material, most of the research attention has focused on its linguistic aspects, such as teaching English vocabulary and grammar mainly because academic knowledge is believed to be unnecessary for achieving a good performance as claimed by the exam organizers (Educational Testing Service in Why choose the TOEFL test? (For test takers), 2012). Although some recent studies have found otherwise (Deniz in TESL-EJ 23:1–9, 2019), this gap in TOEFL preparation courses still exists. Using an autoethnographic approach, this study examines the first author's teaching experience in TOEFL preparation by consolidating the teacher's teaching notes, students' narrative of course experience, and 20 h of classroom recordings into an analysis of implementing discourse strategies, translanguaging, and CLIL theories in a TOEFL preparation course. This study also explores how these theoretical insights can help to mitigate the tensions between the practical goal of helping students to pass the test and the long-term goal of expanding students' linguistic repertoire in academic genre.

Overview and Purpose

Designed as a standardized language proficiency test, Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) Internet-Based Test (iBT) has been widely accepted and has served as a requirement by most universities in North America for recruiting international students (Educational Testing Service, 2012). Academic content (e.g., a biology lecture on biodiversity) appears in all four sections of the test: reading,

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listening, speaking, and writing. Yet, the public attention, the education research community and the official administrative body of the test, have by and large downplayed the role of academic/content knowledge required for taking the test. For example, on the TOEFL official Web site, tips for preparing for the listening test are provided (Educational Testing Service, 2012), among which none of the tips touch on the comprehension of content knowledge. This official disregard of content knowledge has significant pedagogical impact as instructions are most likely to respect and follow the opinion of the test makers and focus predominately on linguistic aspects such as vocabulary, words, organization, and structures of the text while leaving the students to "figure out" content knowledge largely by themselves. Having worked as a TOEFL tutor for more than 10 years, the first author's (I) experience leads to the conclusion that the ability to comprehend, process, or even apply content knowledge is indispensable for achieving an acceptable performance in the test, and such ability cannot be trained simply by learning vocabulary and grammar of English. This experience is also consistent with research findings that the ability to comprehend content knowledge does matter (Deniz, 2019). Research into this issue is necessary to explore the pedagogical options for the inclusion of explicit and strategic teaching of understanding, analyzing, and applying content knowledge on the TOEFL test, in addition to instructions on language. The lack of it can cost test-takers enormous time and money or even delay their admission to university.

Recent developments in applied linguistics, content and language integrated learning (CLIL), science education and multilingualism offer great opportunities for language tutors to overcome this pedagogical shortcoming of leaving out content knowledge. Semantic discourse strategies (Tang, 2021) as a metalanguage for explicit discussion of semantic relationships among scientific concepts would enable language tutors to analyze the academic text beyond merely highlighting new words and phrases for students.

Besides, monolingualism in the English language classroom has been challenged as strong empirical and theoretical evidence has emerged (Cummins, 2009). Translanguaging practices (Lin, 2018) dismantle the artificial barrier between named languages and help transfer the academic discourse that are already known to the students in their first language to the ability in understanding and applying such knowledge in English. These theories highlight the previously neglected pedagogical resources such as the significant role of L1 in learning academic content and language. In the context of this study, students taking the TOEFL preparation course are mainly English language learners (ELLs) with some degree of science content knowledge obtained through previous instruction in their L1. We see the need to help the students perform better on the TOEFL test by bridging the gap between the semantic relationships (partially) known to the students in their L1 with the semantic relationships they are supposed to comprehend in English in the TOEFL test.

Theoretical Frameworks

Lin (2015) has conceptualized the potential role of L1 in CLIL: the provision for the curriculum goal of both L1 and L2, the dual focus on content and language development and allowing the planning of systematic and functional use of L1 and L2 in different stages of the learning process. With the artificial boundary between L1 and L2 being blurred, instruction focuses on expanding the whole communicative repertoire. To achieve this goal, Lin (2015) also proposed the use of "Multimodalities/Entextualization Cycle (MEC)" (p. 86), in which multimodalities are used to create a rich experiential context, to engage students in reading and note-taking, before asking students to produce L1/L2 academic genres. In this process, the students will have got immense engagement and experience with various semiotic resources before officially producing academic text. This curriculum genre is gradually adopted in this study since the first author was exposed to it in 2016.

Building on the work of Lemke (1990), Tang (2021) pointed out that the connections between words in science class are embedded in the semantic patterns throughout the process of communication. Teaching only the definition of the scientific concept is not enough for the students to comprehend the content. It is important to highlight the thematic pattern/semantic relationships between the scientific concepts to help students fully align with the meaning of terms in the academic and science genre because some semantic relationships are assumed or hidden in the talks of scientific concepts. For example, in one of the TOEFL listening practice activities, a question is asked: "Why does the speaker mention the reddish mud along the root of the spartina?" The correct answer to this question is "to indicate oxygen is present in the root of the spartina." Students have to figure out the answer from the following scripts: "If you pull up a spartina, you might even notice some reddish mud on some of the roots. This is caused by oxygen reacting with iron sulfide in the soil and it produces iron oxide, or rust." It is very difficult to explain these issues only from a language perspective without delving into and depending on student' prior knowledge in chemistry and biology which they have most likely learned through L1. Tang (2021) has offered useful discourse strategies (i.e., critical semantic connection, unpacking abstraction, and jumbled sequencing) to explain the semantic relationships between the scientific concepts involved in these questions. For example, jumble sequencing can be a useful strategy to explain the logical process from oxygen exists along the spartina's root—iron sulfide exists in the mud—the oxygen reacts with the iron sulfide to create iron oxide—iron oxide is red—there is reddish mud on the root of spartina. These processes need to be explained step by step to help students align their logic with the intention of the question and the listening material.

Drawing on the theoretical insights from both CLIL and discourse strategies, this study aims to generalize pedagogical options and reflect on the classroom practices that facilitate the understanding of academic content in TOEFL test preparation. Also, these theories provide important frameworks to examine, understand, and explore

further the expansion of the students' whole communicative repertoire by applying discourse strategies in translanguaging practices.

Methodology

This study uses autoethnography as the main research methodology. According to Ellis et al. (2011), autoethnography is a process that "combines characteristics of autobiography and ethnography" (p. 275). The researchers write retroactively and selectively about past experiences using hindsight. More specifically, this study belongs to the category of reflexive autoethnography in which a researcher gathers documents from field work and goes through a process of backstage investigation before writing up the autoethnography.

The first author has been teaching the same series of TOFEL preparation courses since 2016 and has taught a variety of students coming from various backgrounds. Most of the students reside in mainland China, and the teaching is done remotely through a combination of synchronous sessions and asynchronous interactions via emails, social media, and chat apps. Since all the teaching sessions are automatically recorded by the online teaching platform, the first author has more than a thousand hours of session recordings. Due to the scope of this study, the first author will analyze the most recent 20 h of class recordings as they are a reliable representation of the most common teaching practices developed through the years after the author made the decision to implement discourse strategies to teach TOEFL preparation courses.

For the analysis, the first author reflects on various pedagogical options and tools implemented to provide sufficient and explicit instructions on helping students to make sense of the academic/content knowledge in the TOEFL iBT test. During the reflective process, the first author also identifies the pedagogical implications related to the application of theory-informed content teaching (CLIL and discourse strategies) from both the perspective of language tutoring and TOEFL test preparation. As the first author has been conducting the teaching for a substantial period of time, some of the practices have become spontaneous, which requires the analysis to bring the subliminal teaching practice back to conscious examination. To achieve this goal, the author first listened to the class recording and wrote reflective notes marking the steps in the teaching process. These notes have two parts: (1) pinning down the minutes mark when translanguaging strategies are used to explain semantic relationships to the students, and (2) drawing a semantic relationship diagram related to the specific material involved in the analysis. In this process, the first author brings back the memory and experience of teaching that specific session by referring to the electronically stored teaching notes and reflecting on the pedagogical choices and the learning outcomes demonstrated by the students in the class. The first author then compiled these notes, read them again to add more detail and reflection, before writing the analysis section.

Data Analysis

The 20 h of listening class recordings contained 4 content topics in different subject areas, which are illustrated in Table 23.1. These are all TOEFL listening classes explaining the lectures (listening exam material) that students found to be particularly difficult to understand. In the actual exam, the candidates are expected to listen to these lectures once, take notes while listening, and then answer 5 to 6 multiple-choice questions.

From Table 23.1, it is obvious that the content of these listening materials is academically rich. Although students are not expected or required to have discipline-specific knowledge to comprehend the material, as claimed by the test designers, it is imaginable that students with limited exposure to the academic register in English can experience considerable challenge in learning the knowledge and then applying that knowledge in the following questions by listening to these materials only once. Discourse strategies can then be applied in the class to make this academic content more explicit for the learners (Tang, 2021).

Using Translanguaging to Explain Semantic Relationships

Taking the first material as an example, in one synchronous session of the TOEFL listening class, one student listens to a lecture in a marine biology class. This listening material mainly discusses the challenges a plant is facing to survive in its harsh living environment. This listening material has the following list of new words to be taught to students (as identified by students in class):

- Marsh
- Genus
- Saline
- Osmosis

Table 23.1 Information about the listening material taught in class

Title of the material	Duration	Theme	Number of questions
A lecture in a marine biology class	5:05	How a plant genus overcomes the difficulties of living in salt marshes?	6
A lecture in a musical history class	4:55	What are the factors affecting the sound quality of a vintage violin?	6
A lecture in an animal behavior class	4:32	What are the functions of crocodile vocalization?	5
A lecture in an astronomy class	5:09	The life course and orbit of comets	6

- Dehydrate
- Evaporate
- Sulfide
- Rhizome.

Instead of just providing the translation of these words in Chinese, I went a step further to explain the semantic relationships among the concepts represented by these new words:

05:12 Teacher: Osmosis here 它的意思是渗透作用 [It means osmosis], do you know what is “osmosis”? 理解什么是渗透作用吗 [do you have an idea of what osmosis is]?

05:26 Student: 就是,就比如说,水从海绵上滴到下面去 [that is, that is to say, like water drops off from the sponge]?

05:30 Teacher: 好,那个呢是们日常生活当中理解的渗透,实际上这个地方不太一样,这个指的是水会从盐度较低的地方渗透到盐度较高的地方,是这个意思,然后一直达到盐度的一个平衡.好,他这个地方讲的是比如说,植物,假如说我们把一般的植物,放到海水里面去你觉得这个植物会怎么?有没有想过这个问题 [Ok, that’s an understanding in everyday life, actually in the listening material it is a bit different, it means water will move from places with lower concentration of salt to places with higher concentration of salt until it reaches a balance. Ok, in here it is saying, if we put some plant, these common plants into the sea water, what do you think will happen? Have you ever thought of this?]?

06:07 Student: 就会死了 [It will die].

06:08 Teacher: 嗯,对, 为什么会死呢?这中间有什么机制会让它死呢? [Yes, but why? What mechanisms cause its death?]

06:14 Student: 它这个,茎叶脱水,然后脱水就死掉了 [It is, the stem and the leaves lose water, and they die of dehydration].

06:22 Teacher: 啊对, 那脱水,脱水就会死, 好那这个地方就会学到下一个单词….. [Yes, dehydration leads to death, now we can move on to the next word]

(Class recording 2021.04.22)

The above excerpt demonstrated how the student’s knowledge about the semantic relationships in L1 is “activated” in the process of explaining the concept behind the English word “Osmosis.” At the beginning, I did provide a translation in Chinese for “Osmosis,” yet by asking the question “What is osmosis” in Chinese, I invited the student to give an explanation in Chinese to make sure the student knows the concept of osmosis and its semantic relationships with other concepts like “dehydrate” or “saline,” which are two other important concepts in this listening material. At first, the student answered that osmosis is like “water dripping off a sponge” (05:26), which indicates the student’ conception of the term “osmosis” is different from that which is embedded in the semantic relationships constructed by this listening material. Yet, the student has learned the same concept “渗透作用” in Chinese, so I engaged the student in conversations in Chinese about this concept and used a scenario which is also discussed later in the listening material (common plant in seawater) to check whether the student has got the semantic relationship around osmosis as described in the listening material. The thematic pattern revealed in this conversation in Chinese is demonstrated in Fig. 23.1.

Figure 23.1 demonstrates the semantic relationships embedded in the concept of “Osmosis.” The darker-shaded part in Fig. 23.1 represents the additional information

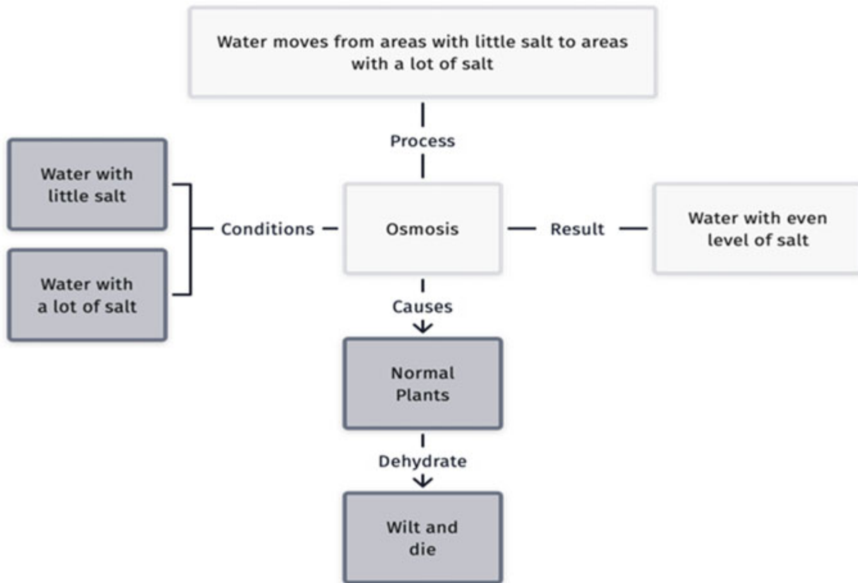

Fig. 23.1 Semantic relationship discussed in Chinese on osmosis

discussed with students in the L1 (Chinese). With these semantic relationships made clear, the students usually feel more comfortable to continue with conceptualizing the discussions in the later part of the listening material that simply assumes such semantic relationships. As such, if students are still having issues understanding these concepts in the ways that the listening material suggested and assumed, they are likely to encounter more obstacles to follow the threads of meaning the listening material is trying to make. For example, another important chunk of listening material is as follows:

> Typically, the process of osmosis works... Well, when water moves through the wall of a plant cell, it will move from the side containing water with the lowest amount of salt into the side containing the highest amount of salt. So, imagine what would happen if a typical plant suddenly found itself in salt water, the water contained in the plant cells, that is water with very little salt would be drawn out toward the seawater, water with a lot of salt. So, you can see the fresh water contained in the plant will be removed and the plant will would quickly lose all its water and dehydrate.

Regarding the above chunk, a question is asked:

- What is one result of reverse osmosis in the spartina?
  - A. Salt from seawater strengthens the plant's cells.
  - B. All parts of the plant can receive oxygen.
  - C. Salt evaporates off the stems and leaves of the plant.
  - D. Water is unable to move across the plant cell walls. (Educational Testing Service, 2019)

According to Tang (2021), the above question poses another challenge for average students whose language of instruction is not English. First, there is the level of abstraction. The concept of osmosis is first explained and then used again with additional information of "reverse" in the question. As discussed above, there are so many different processes happening (i.e., difference in salinity level, normal plants) behind the concept of "osmosis" that there is a considerable amount of cognitive load to comprehend what "reverse osmosis" is. So, if the students are not familiar with the concept of "osmosis" as suggested in the listening material in the first place, it would be quite unlikely for the students to know what "reverse osmosis" means. This has happened quite often in my teaching experience, and students got overwhelmed and sometimes disheartened. It is important for teachers to take into consideration the emotional implications of these scenarios (Swain, 2013). Due to the lack of sufficient scaffolding, students at this point are very likely to develop frustration that interferes with possible further engagement with the listening material, so it is important to do some unpacking of the complex concept of osmosis (Tang, 2021).

Also, the example of a "typical plant suddenly found itself in the salt water" can be confusing, had the semantic relationships of the various concepts/ideas involved in osmosis not yet been made clear. It is significant to have had the initial discussion with the student when the student reported a different understanding of osmosis as "water dripping off a sponge." However, when the situation is already discussed in the L1 (Chinese) and the students are aware of the concept of "osmosis" as well as its semantic relationships with other concepts in the listening, the example of a "typical plant suddenly found itself in the salt water" can possibly make sense to the students.

Translanguaging to Expand Both the L1 and L2 Repertoire

In actual teaching, the situations usually become more complex. Although translanguaging helped in delineating the semantic relationships involved in the listening material and helped bridge the gap between everyday understanding of a concept and the concept in an academic sense, it is also important to pay attention to the intricacies and nuances in translanguaging that can impede students' understanding. This problem usually arise in two senarios: when one named language (in this case Chinese) has a very different way of representing the same academic concept in English; and when students are not familiar enough with the academic concept in their L1. In these circumstances, it is important for the teachers to engage in translanguaging for an extended period of time and try to expand students' meaning-making resources in both L1 and L2.

16:13 Teacher: The wall of a cell 你知道这是生物课上说的哪个概念吗? [Do you know which concept does this term refer to in your biology class?]

16:22 Student: 嗯…the wall of a cell, 应该就是细胞墙吧? [en…the wall of a cell, does it mean the wall of a cell]?

(Class recording 2021.04.22)

It is hard to understand the student's response to my question when it is translated into the English language. However, when the student translated the "wall of a cell" as a very unusual term in Chinese "细胞墙" instead of the commonly agreed-upon academic term "细胞壁," it is a sign that the student may not have understood the idea of "cell wall" in an academic sense or they may not have connected the term "cell wall" with "细胞壁." "墙" in Chinese usually refers to a concrete wall that is not penetrable, which causes confusion when students hear later in the listening material that water can travel through it. Although the term in Chinese "壁" has a very similar meaning to "墙" in everyday Chinese, the academic term "细胞壁" does not seem to carry the same meaning specifically that the wall is concrete and not penetrable. If the student had taken biology and learned about "细胞壁" in their L1 (Chinese) and knew the equivalent English terms, they would probably not have translated "the wall of a cell" into "细胞墙." In this case, to help students fully understand the concept of osmosis, the teacher will need to fill-in-the-gap again and explain the semantic relationships in both L1 and L2 to avoid causing further confusion. This teaching experience is another piece of evidence of the argument made by Lin (2015) when she called for the systematic and functional use of both L1 and L2. In this case, through translanguaging, the concepts of "osmosis," "wall of a cell," and "细胞壁" are all made clearer to the students.

Translanguaging to Overcome Phonological Mismatch in Teaching Listening

In addition to the above scenario when translanguaging helped to explain semantic relationships in both L1 and L2, there is another incident in class when translanguaging may have helped avoid mixing apples for oranges.

15:04 Listening material: Well, when water moves through the wall of a plant cell, it will move from the side containing water with the lowest amount of salt into the side containing the highest amount of salt

15:19 Teacher: The listening here mentioned a "wall of a plant cell," and water can move through it. 你有学过 wall of a plant cell 吗? 在生物课上? [Have you learned about wall of a plant cell, maybe in your biology class]?

15:35 Student: Yes. the war of a plant cell, 是说, 不同的 cells 为了争抢水, 而改变自己的盐度? [is that to say, different cells are fighting for water by changing their own salinity level?]

16:01 Teacher: Oh, 这个 wall 是墙壁, 所以 wall of a plant cell 是细胞壁, 不是细胞在打仗. Pay attention to the difference in pronunciations between "wall" and "war." [The word is wall, not war, so it is the wall of a plant cell].

From this excerpt, what the student got from the listening material is "war of a plant cell" instead of "wall of a plant cell." This type of phonological mismatch is not uncommon in teaching listening, yet when this intervenes with the comprehension of the semantic relationship, it can lead to further implications. Just like in this case, when the meaning of a "war" enters the semantic relationships which

is being constructed by the student, it leads to a completely different version than the one intended by the listening material. Also, it needs to be pointed out that had translanguaging not been allowed in this teaching session, the teacher and the student would have gone on with their discussion which could have been puzzling for each other as “wall” and “war” continue to be mismatched in their conversations. It is only when these phonological mismatches from students are sorted out, can we focus on explaining the semantic relationships embedded in the listening material. Besides the common phonological mismatches as described above, some students also commonly conceptualize 细胞壁 [wall of plant cells] as a wall made of plant cells. So, translanguaging is found to be very useful in sorting out these ambiguities that are otherwise difficult to identify.

The Embedded Semantic Relationships

Though many of the semantic relationships are directly discussed in the listening material, some can be hidden or assumed. These hidden semantic relationships are found to be even harder for the students to follow in class.

From Fig. 23.2, we can identify that there are many implied semantic relationships (Light shadows) here that need to be made explicit to the students. For example, the clause in the listening material is saying, “When water moves through the wall of a plant cell,” which implies that water molecules can travel through the walls of plant cells because of the osmotic pressure, but salt cannot. So, for normal plants to “wilt and die,” there are three conditions: putting the plant in the sea water, the wall of plant cells allows water molecules to pass, and salty material generally cannot move through the wall of plant cells. Since the third condition is embedded, it becomes important to make it explicit to the students in teaching to help students align their thinking with the intention of the listening material.

Discussion

As demonstrated in data analysis, translanguaging has been a pedagogical tool in this specific teaching context to provide scaffolding for understanding the semantic patterns/relationships in the listening material, sorting out phonological and semantic mismatches between L1 and L2, and expanding the meaning-making (and linguistic) resources in students’ both L1 and L2. As a standard language proficiency test required by many American and world-wide universities for admitting international students, TOEFL has been focusing on general academic language in English-speaking universities (Educational Testing Service, 2012). Yet, since the test is taken by all students who seek admittance in higher education in various English-speaking countries, it may be difficult to design the test as subject/field specific. So, it is quite possible for test-takers to encounter concepts and knowledge that are not only

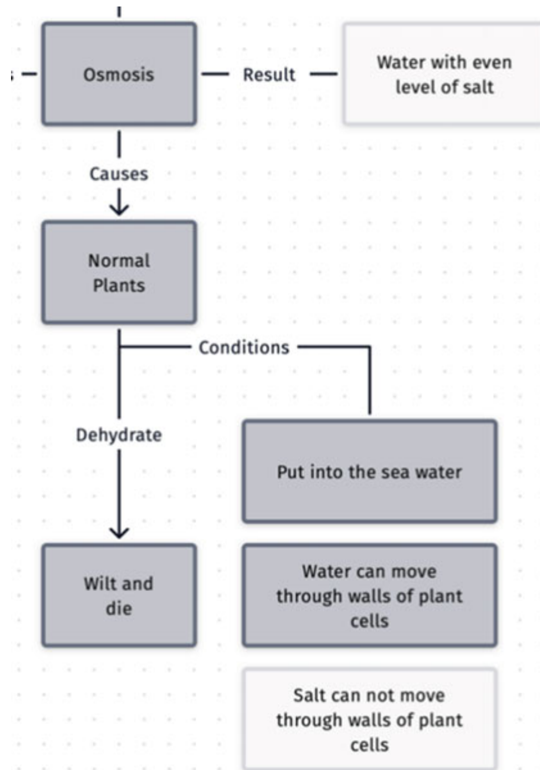

Fig. 23.2 Semantic relationship between "wall of plant cells" and "osmosis"

new but foreign to them. Various discourse strategies to make explicit the semantic relationships of concepts discussed in the test materials can be of great help to the students who are preparing for these tests (Tang, 2021).

In the specific context discussed in this chapter, the teacher and the students share the same L1 (Chinese), so translanguaging has always been the norm of classroom interactions. Translanguaging has served as a pedagogical tool that bridges the gap between L1 and L2 content knowledge, clears mismatches of concepts and ideas in both L1 and L2, and facilitates discussions at the metacognitive level to manage the teaching and learning. Yet, despite the benefits of the translanguaging practice, students of this course are all going to become TOEFL test-takers, in which they are required to listen, understand, take notes, and do the multiple-choice questions by themselves. Otherwise, students may fall into a situation when they have a relative high level of comprehension of the test material, and yet they are not able to perform well in answering the test questions. The idea behind the "Multimodalities/Entextualization Cycle (MEC)" (p. 86) as proposed by Lin (2015) points to a possible reconciliation between the tension of facilitating students' comprehension of academic registers/genres in both the L1 and L2 and the more instrumental goal of passing the TOEFL test which is monolingual. My practice in class is to use English

only with students when it comes to answering the test questions (after all the explanation and facilitation has been done). I find that this practice helps students become more familiar with the linguistic features and genre features of both the questions as well as the norms of expressing these concepts in L2. For example, one test question asked, "What is one result of reverse osmosis in the spartina?" And the answer to this question is "Salt from seawater strengthens the plant's cells." There are a few semantic relationships embedded in the answer to this question: (1) spartina's cell wall can let salt enter; (2) the salinity level within the cell will become higher than the sea water; (3) water will then enter the plant cell to bring down the salinity level within the cells, (4) and cells are strengthened when water enters. At this point, I will largely require the students to explain their answers/choices in English, for them to get familiar with the monolingual test environment and to double check whether they have learned the relevant linguistic features in L2 to explain these concepts.

As discussed by Lin et al. (2021), the translanguaging approach should not be another trendy policy movement in which teachers need to use and adopt students' languages in their class to feel legitimate, but it should be added to the awareness of the teacher and the students and be applied and used where it fits the pedagogical purposes in a specific teaching context. In the context of this study, a scenario which is usually believed to be against translanguaging since it is about test preparation, the use of translanguaging and discourse strategies in facilitating students' understanding of academic content can also go well with the more practical and instrumental goal of helping students to pass the test.

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Chapter 24
Enabling Multilingual Practices in English Language Proficiency Assessments for Young Learners

Alexis A. Lopez

Abstract In this chapter, I discuss the use of students' local languages in English language proficiency assessments within the context of young language learners in American public schools. Specifically, I focus on how ESL and bilingual teachers can leverage students' entire language resources to provide fair opportunities for young language learners to demonstrate what they know and can do in English. I provide examples using student responses from a pilot study with 18 kindergarten students who had been recently identified as English learners. In this pilot, students completed four speaking tasks in which they described pictures, answered questions, and retold events. I illustrate how the use of local languages occurred naturally within the assessment and demonstrate how the test administrators and the students engaged in multilingual practices for different purposes: (1) to establish rapport with the students, (2) to help students build their confidence, (3) to help students understand what the assessment was asking them to do, (4) to help students complete the assessment in English, (5) to elicit more responses from the students, and (6) to help students elaborate their responses. Recommendations on how teachers in different instructional contexts can enable multilingual practices within English language proficiency assessments are also provided.

Introduction

The number of children learning English worldwide has increased due to global migration and immigration trends (Butler et al., 2018). As a result, there has also been an increase in English programs for young learners worldwide. However, these programs vary greatly in terms of their mission, overall aims and goals, length and structure, teaching methods and materials, and the types of students they serve. Moreover, young learners are not homogenous, and their second language learning contexts differ significantly (Butler, 2019). For example, young language learners include children whose families are linguistic minorities within countries where English is the

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dominant language in the wider community, such as in the United Kingdom or the United States. However, in most settings, young learners learn English as a school subject where English is not widely spoken as a first language and where there have traditionally been fewer opportunities for incidental learning outside the classroom. In addition, due to the increased mobility of people, a more significant number of young learners are learning English in multilingual environments, both in English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts.

In this chapter, I focus on young learners identified as English language learners within the context of public schools in the United States. Students whose first language is not English are the fastest-growing population in public schools in the United States. With the growing number of children learning English in instructional settings, teachers must find better ways to assess their English language development. However, assessing young learners (defined in this chapter as children age 5–7) warrants several special considerations due to their age and other unique characteristics. I propose enabling multilingual practices in English language proficiency assessments for young learners to help them feel more comfortable completing the assessment tasks, navigate the assessment tasks, and attempt completing the tasks in English.

Challenges Assessing Young Language Learners

Assessing the English language proficiency of young learners is challenging for different reasons, including their age and other unique characteristics (Butler, 2019; Lopez et al., 2016; Wolf & Butler, 2017). For example, development and contextual factors might impact the performance of young learners on English language proficiency assessments (McKay, 2006). Furthermore, young learners are undergoing cognitive, socio-affective, and linguistic development (Butler, 2019; Wolf & Butler, 2017). Therefore, assessing the English language proficiency of young learners is challenging because they are going through social, emotional, and cognitive developmental growth. In addition, at this age (5–7), children have smaller memory capacities and smaller attention spans. As a result, assessments for young learners tend to be relatively brief to minimize the risk of students becoming disengaged during their assessment experience (Lopez et al., 2016).

Moreover, assessing the English language proficiency of young learners is challenging because they are often first-time test-takers who may be new both to school and the procedures of standardized testing, resulting in conditions that increase the likelihood of measurement error (Lopez et al., 2016). For example, measurement results of a young student's oral skills may be influenced by the degree of comfort the child feels toward the examiner. Another challenge in assessing young language learners stems from the fact that these students are rapidly developing their language proficiency and pre-literacy skills in their home language and second language, and individual students' developmental trajectories can vary widely (Butler, 2019; Guzman-Orth et al., 2017).

Translanguaging Among Young Learners

Translanguaging is rooted in the belief that multilingual people have a unique linguistic repertoire from which they select and combine resources to suit the needs of the communicative situation at hand (Li, 2018; Otheguy et al., 2015). Furthermore, translanguaging posits that languages are not seen as separate but integrated and dynamic while constantly interacting (Otheguy et al., 2015). Translanguaging has also been discussed as a pedagogical strategy in which teachers draw on the students' entire linguistic repertoire and engage them in activities where they can deploy all their languages to accommodate their communicative needs (García et al., 2017). Several studies have pointed out that children engage in translanguaging to mediate understanding, co-construct meaning, and show knowledge (e.g., Alamillo et al., 2017; Chapman de Sousa, 2017; García et al., 2011; Kirsch, 2018).

It has also been well-documented that local languages can be leveraged as a resource for young language learners in English medium classrooms (e.g., Cummins & Swain, 1986; Moll et al., 1992). Recent studies investigating how young language learners' linguistic repertoire is incorporated into teaching and learning have reported how teachers explicitly encourage students to use their linguistic repertoires as fluid resources to learn a second language (e.g., Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; French, 2016; Gort & Sembiante, 2015; Makalela, 2015; Pacheco, 2018). Translanguaging can also be incorporated into the assessment. Several studies have highlighted that allowing students to engage in multilingual practices has powerful implications for assessing young language learners (e.g., Ascenzi-Moreno, 2018; Guzman-Orth et al., 2019).

Ascenzi-Moreno (2018) examined how teachers created a space for translanguaging within formative reading assessments. She found that these assessments allowed teachers to have a very accurate picture of their reading development. On the other hand, Guzman-Orth et al. (2019) investigated how bilingual kindergarten students completed a dual-language assessment task using all their linguistic resources. They found that young bilingual students could deploy all their linguistic resources to demonstrate their emerging language and literacy skills. These findings are promising; however, more research is needed to examine how translanguaging can be leveraged in assessment contexts, particularly for assessing young language learners' English language proficiency.

The Study

This study was carried out as part of a larger research project focused on investigating different tasks to assess young learners' English oral skills. Although it was not the original intent of the research project, we found that some of the students were engaging in multilingual practices while completing the assessment tasks. To understand why these students engaged in multilingual practices, I decided to examine the

interactions between tests administrators and students in more detail. Thus, this study aimed to identify strategies that promoted multilingual practices in English language assessments for young language learners and to understand how these multilingual practices supported young learners in demonstrating their speaking skills in English. The following two questions guided this study:

1. How did test administrators enable multilingual practices within the context of English language proficiency assessment tasks for young learners?
2. How did these multilingual practices support young learners in completing English language proficiency assessment tasks?

Participants and Setting

The participants in this study were part of a kindergarten classroom at a public school in the United States. There were 18 students in this classroom, and they received ESL instruction and bilingual support (literacy instruction in Spanish). This classroom was selected because it had many students recently identified as English learners. Of the 18 students enrolled in this classroom, 11 (six girls and five boys) of them engaged in multilingual practices while completing the speaking tasks. According to an English language identification assessment, or screener, administered at the beginning of the school year, the students were classified at different English language proficiency levels (four as low, three as intermediate, four as high). Their age ranged between five and six, and they all spoke Spanish at home.

Overview of Assessment Tasks

In this study, students were asked to complete four speaking tasks in English. These assessment tasks were designed for research purposes and were intended for students ages 5–7 at different levels of English ability, from beginners through more proficient speakers. All the prompts and stimulus materials were presented using a tablet. Below, I describe each task.

Silly Picture: Students looked at a picture of a classroom with lots of strange or funny things in it. Students were then asked to say what things were strange or funny in the room.

Zoo: Students watched an animated video of a class field trip to a zoo. Students were then prompted to answer questions about the animals and different things they saw at the zoo and explain their answers.

School Cafeteria: Students watched an animated video of their class going to the school cafeteria for lunch. Students were then asked to select their lunch options and explain why they made those choices.

Mixing Paint: Students watched an animated video of an art lesson in which a teacher is mixing paint colors to make a new color. Students were then asked to explain what the teacher did to a fellow student who walked in late to class and talk about what they could do with those colors.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data for this study came from one-on-one sessions between a test administrator and a student. In these sessions, students were asked to complete four speaking tasks. Each session lasted between 10 and 15 min per student. All the sessions were audio-recorded and transcribed. Each assessment session transcription was coded by two researchers using a grounded open coding process (Charmaz, 2014). In this process, the researchers independently generated a set of themes and then met to compare and discuss them. Disagreements in the coding were resolved through discussion, and a consensus was reached (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The three recurring themes that emerged from the coding included the following: (1) helping students feel more comfortable completing the assessment tasks (e.g., building rapport with the students, allowing students to deploy their linguistic repertoire in the assessment, and helping students build their confidence), (2) helping students navigate the assessment (e.g., making sure students understood the tasks and knew what they needed to do to complete the tasks, and clarifying task expectations), and (3) helping students complete the tasks in English (e.g., providing opportunities for students to provide a response in English and to elaborate their responses).

Findings

In this section, I attempt to offer some preliminary evidence to support the use of multilingual practices in English language proficiency assessments for young language learners. Then, using excerpts from the students' assessment sessions, I describe how test administrators engaged in multilingual practices with the students to help them feel more comfortable completing the assessment tasks, navigate the assessment tasks, and attempt completing the tasks in English.

Helping Students Feel More Comfortable Completing the Assessment Tasks

In this section, I provide information about how test administrators incorporated multilingual practices in the assessment session to allow the students to feel more

comfortable and relaxed and help them be more engaged in completing the assessment tasks. The following excerpt comes from the assessment session with Carlos and an English–Spanish bilingual test administrator (one of the researchers). He is six years old, and his English language proficiency level was reported as low. In this excerpt, Carlos is attempting to complete the Silly Picture task.

Prompt on tablet: Let's look at this picture of a room in a school. There are lots of strange or funny things in this room. What strange or funny things do you see in this room?

Carlos: (No response)

Test administrator: *Aquí tenemos un dibujo de un salón de clase. ¿Lo ves? Y hay muchas cosas.* [Here we have a picture of a classroom. Do you see it? And there are many things.] … many strange and funny things in the class. Ok? What kind of things do you see in the picture?

Carlos: (No response)

Test administrator: What do you see?

Carlos: (no response)

Test administrator: *¿Si entiendes la pregunta*? [Do you understand the question?]

Carlos: *Es que no hablo inglés.* [Is that I can't speak English.]

Test administrator: *¿Quieres intentar hacerlo en español*? [Do you want to try in Spanish?]

Carlos: *Bueno. ¿Qué tengo que hacer?* [Okay. What do I have to do?]

Test administrator: *Por ejemplo, ¿qué ves ahí* (pointing) *¿Qué es esto?* [For example, what do you see here? what is this?]

Carlos: *Un payaso.* [A clown.]

Test administrator: Ok… *y, ¿esto qué es?* (pointing)? [And, what is this?]

Carlos: *Pintura.* [Painting]

Test administrator: Mmmhmm. *¿Qué tiene el niño en la mano?* [What is the boy holding?]

Carlos: *Un plátano.* [A banana].

Test administrator: Un plátano. *¿Y por qué tiene un plátano en la mano?* [A banana. And why is he holding a banana?]

Carlos: *No sé*. [I don't know.]

Test administrator: (laughs) *Yo tampoco sé! ¿Y esto qué es* (pointing)? [I don't know either. And what is this?]

Carlos: Apple.

Test administrator: *Muy bien, un apple! ¿Y esto qué es?* [Very Good, an apple! And what is this?]

Carlos: Chair.

Test administrator: Yes, a chair! *¿Y qué tiene de extraño?* [And what is wrong about it?]

Carlos: *Está al revés.* [It's upside down.]

From this exchange between Carlos and the test administrator, we can see that the student was intimidated and overwhelmed from the start of the assessment session. As it is typical with many young language learners, Carlos cannot respond right away. The test administrator repeated the prompt in English but later noticed that Carlos could not respond in English. So, the test administrator switched to Spanish to ask if he understood the question. Carlos explained that he could not complete the task because he did not speak English. At this point, the test administrator realized that Carlos seemed frustrated and was not going to complete the task in English. So, the test administrator decided to allow Carlos to deploy all his language resources to complete the task and began asking him questions in Spanish to help him describe what was strange in the picture. Carlos seemed more engaged completing the task in Spanish. He also seemed more relaxed and tried his best to answer all the questions. We can even see that he begins to show his emerging English language by using words like "apple" and "chair" to answer some of the questions at the end of the task.

Helping Students Navigate the Assessment

In this section, I report how test administrators engaged in multilingual practices to help the students understand the directions and what they needed to do to complete the assessment tasks. Throughout the sessions, the test administrators conducted comprehension checks to ensure the students knew what was expected and clarified expectations whenever needed. The following excerpt comes from the assessment session with Valentina and an English–Spanish test administrator. She is six years old, and her English language proficiency level was reported as low. In this excerpt, Valentina attempts to complete the first question in the Zoo task.

Test administrator: Which animals do you want to see in the zoo today?

Valentina: (no response)

Test administrator: *¿Si entendiste la pregunta?* [Did you understand the question?]

Valentina: *Un poquito.* [A little bit.]

Test administrator: *¿Qué te preguntaron?* [What did they ask you?]

Valentina: *Voy a decir los nombres de los animales.* [I'm going to say the names of the animals]

Test administrator: *Lo que te preguntaron es, ¿qué animales quieres ver en el zoológico hoy? Trata de contestar en inglés.* [What they asked you was, what animals do you want to see in the zoo today? Try to answer in English.]

Valentina: Zebra

Test administrator: Any other animals? Zebra, anything else?

Valentina: And crocodile… I like alligator.

Test administrator: Anything else?

Valentina: Hum (doubt)

Test administrator: *¿Algo más que me quieras decir?* [Anything else you want to tell me?]

Valentina: No

Test administrator: Which animal do you like? Tell me why you like this animal.

Valentina: Crocodile

Test administrator: Why do you like the crocodile?

Valentina: (no response)

Test administrator: *¿Por qué te gusta este animal?* [Why do you like this animal?]

Valentina: *Porque es grande.* [Because it is big.]

Test administrator: Can you say it in English? *¿Puedes decirlo en inglés?* [Can you say it in English?].

Valentina: No

Test administrator: *¿Si entendiste la pregunta?* [Did you understand the question?]

Valentina: *Si.* [Yes.]

Test Administrator: *¿Qué te preguntaron?* [What did they ask you?]

Valentina: *¿Que cuál animal me gusta más?* [Which is my favorite animal?]

This exchange shows how test administrator engaged in translanguaging to help students navigate the assessment by ensuring that they knew what the assessment task was asking them to do. We see at the beginning of the task that Valentina cannot respond. The test administrators asked her a series of comprehension check questions in Spanish to ensure she understood the question and what the task was asking her to do. Since Valentina was unclear on what she was being asked to do, the test administrators translated the directions into Spanish and encouraged her to respond in English. After the test administrator clarified the directions, Valentina could carry on with this part of the task. At the end of the task, we can see that Valentina answered the remaining questions about the animals she wanted to see in the zoo in English.

When Valentina got to the second question in the Zoo task, she only answered the first part of the prompt and did not explain why she liked her favorite animal, the crocodile. Again, the test administrator paused the test session to check in Spanish if the student understood what she was being asked to do before moving on to the next task. When Valentina could not respond in English, the test administrator switched to Spanish again to confirm if she had understood the question.

Helping Students Complete the Tasks in English

The overall goal of these assessment tasks is to measure students' English-speaking skills. In this section, I highlight how the test administrators engaged in multilingual practices to encourage the students to respond in English. The following excerpt comes from the assessment session between Violeta and an English–Spanish test administrator. She is five years old, and her English language proficiency level was reported as low. In this excerpt, Violeta attempts to complete the last part of the Mixing Paint task.

Prompt on tablet: It's fun to use paint to make pictures. What can I paint with these colors?

Violeta: (No response)

Test administrator: *¿Entendiste la pregunta?* [Did you understand the question?] What can I paint with these colors?

Violeta: (No response)

Test administrator: *¿Qué puedes pintar con estos colores?* [What can you paint with these colors?]

Violeta: *Mi mamá.* [My mom]

Test administrator: And in English?

Violeta: My mom.

In this short exchange, we see how the test administrator engaged in multilingual practices to encourage and motivate the student to complete task in English. For example, we see that Violeta cannot respond when the tablet initially prompts her. At first, the test administrator repeats the question in English, but there is still no response. After that, the test administrator engages in translanguaging by translating the question into Spanish, and Violeta responds in Spanish. Next, the test administrator encourages her to respond in English, and Violeta can finally complete the task by answering in English.

In the following excerpt, Violeta completes the last part of the School Cafeteria task.

Prompt on tablet: Good choice. Now I want to know more about your favorite foods. What do you like to eat for breakfast?

Violeta: [no response]

Test administrator: *¿Entendiste la pregunta?* [Did you understand the question?] What do you like to eat for breakfast?

Violeta: *¿Qué es breakfast?* [What is breakfast?]

Test administrator: *¿No sabes qué es 'breakfast'?* [You don't know what 'breakfast' is?]

Violeta: No

Test administrator: Desayuno. ¿Qué te gusta comer de desayuno? [Breakfast. What do you like to eat for breakfast?]

Violeta: Apple and juice and orange.

Prompt on tablet: What is your favorite fruit?

Violeta: Apple

Prompt on tablet: Are you thirsty? Choose something to drink with your lunch. There are three choices. There is water, orange juice, and milk. Tell me what you want to drink.

Violeta: Orange

Test Administrator: Orange juice?

Violeta: Yes

In this exchange, we see how the test administrator engaged in multilingual practices to act as a language broker to help the student negotiate understanding. We see that Violeta is initially not able to complete the task. After probing in Spanish, the test administrator learns that one word in the prompt impeded her from completing the task. After the test administrator helps Violeta negotiate the meaning of the word "breakfast," she can carry on and complete the Mixing Paint task in English.

Discussion and Conclusions

This study aimed to investigate how kindergarten English language students engaged in multilingual practices while completing English language proficiency assessment tasks. Based on the analysis of the interactions between the students and the test administrators, I found evidence that translanguaging occurred naturally as test administrators reacted to students' communicative needs. By doing so, test administrators incorporated students' language resources flexibly and implemented assessment practices that capitalized on young learners' linguistic resources. For

example, they engaged in translanguaging practices such as code-switching, translation, bilingual recasting, and language brokering to support young language learners in completing the speaking assessment tasks.

By enabling multilingual practices within the context of English language proficiency assessment tasks, test administrators supported young learners in multiple ways. For example, multilingual practices allowed young learners to feel more comfortable during the assessment session. Many of the students who participated in this study, particularly those with low English language proficiency, seemed intimidated and overwhelmed with the assessment tasks. Their frustrations could be attributed to either not understanding what the tasks were about or not being familiar with the language required to complete the tasks. Whatever the case might be, language teachers should pay more attention to affective aspects when assessing the English language proficiency of young learners. If students are stressed or anxious or not engaged or motivated to complete the tasks, this could impact their performance or invalidate the inferences we can make about their English language skills. Allowing young learners to deploy their entire linguistic repertoire and engage in multilingual practices might be a way to build rapport with them, help them feel more at ease, engage them, and motivate them to complete the assessment tasks. Providing that sense of completing an assessment is very important even if students answer in their home language.

Furthermore, test administrators and students engaged in multilingual practices to help students navigate the assessment. One crucial aspect of English language proficiency assessments is understanding what is needed to complete the assessments tasks. Some studies have documented that not all young learners clearly understand test directions (e.g., Cho & So, 2014; Hsieh, 2016). If young learners lack clarity of what the assessment task asks them to do, it can create construct irrelevant variance (Winke et al., 2018). Construct irrelevant variance refers to any factor that is irrelevant to the construct of interest (i.e., what it is being assessed) that might impact test performance such as background knowledge, language complexity of the questions, test directions and familiarity with assessment procedures (e.g., Cho & So, 2014; Winke et al., 2018). In this study, we found that by engaging in multilingual practices, the test administrators checked if students understood the directions and knew what to do to complete the task. Some of the multilingual practices used included translating the directions and important words into Spanish, using Spanish to check if students understood the directions, and asking the students to explain in Spanish and English? what the task was asking them to do. By engaging in this flexible use of language, the students had a clear understanding of what they needed to do, and this information, in turn, allowed them to complete the assessment tasks.

Finally, the incorporation of multilingual practices in English language proficiency assessments afforded students multiple opportunities to provide evidence of their English-speaking skills. In this study, test administrators and students used Spanish and English dynamically. Test administrators also encouraged students to translanguage during the assessment tasks. In a way, the test administrators legitimized the students' use of different languages by creating a translanguaging space where students could complete the assessment tasks in Spanish first and then in

English. This multilingual practice allowed young learners to bridge the gap between the two languages and allowed them to make connections between their home language and the language of the assessment, like how teachers and students do it in the classroom (García, 2017). Although not all the students in this study were able to complete the tasks in English, they were all given multiple opportunities to demonstrate their speaking abilities in English.

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Chapter 25
Assessing the Multimodal Literacy Practices of Young Emergent Bilinguals

Sally Brown, Ling Hao, and Rong Zhang

Abstract This chapter showcases a formative assessment that will help educators identify the strengths of young learners as they navigate responses to texts in classrooms. The *Multimodal Literacy Profile (MLP) for Emergent Bilinguals* captures understanding of story elements, visual representations of knowledge, and speaking, listening, and writing communication within multiple languages. The authors explain the theoretical framework for the MLP and give an in-depth analysis of three emergent bilingual children's responses to fictional stories as a way to illustrate how the assessment tools work.

Introduction

Being literate is shaped to reflect the acquisition of skills and practices in different types of media that afford learners the ability to make, remake, and interpret signs in multiple modes. Multiliteracies emphasize the cultural and linguistic variations that exist in a global world. This view validates the existence of diverse forms of literacy and showcases the ways literacies are influenced by contexts, texts, and participants, which moves beyond monolingualism, monoculturalism, and standard forms of languages. Authoritarian pedagogies must shift to consider the expansive modes of representation that are now exercised in communication. Children use available resources to remake or remix them for communicative purposes that foreground modes other than language (i.e., images, sound, layout), which become as equally

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significant as language or the written word (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008; New London Group, 1996).

Educators and policymakers must consider the rise of non-linguistic forms of literacy, the types of literacy that should be valued in schools, and the ways of assessing learning, especially for students learning English as a new language (ENL). According to the Office of English Language Acquisition (2018), 4,850,000 students are learning ENL in U.S. classrooms, representing about 10% of the school population. Given the large population, it is essential to support emergent bilinguals, students learning English as an additional language, as communicators to open up possibilities for their academic development (Bauer et al., 2017). Current literacy assessment measures for young students learning ENL are inadequate (Frede & García, 2010). To date, there are no developmental scales or assessments that consider the multimodal aspects of literacy-related textual products that young emergent bilinguals produce (Espinosa, 2012).

This chapter presents a multimodal assessment tool for teachers to evaluate emergent bilingual students' "texts" (i.e., drawings, Lego constructions, cut-outs) by building on student strengths, valuing multiple ways of representing knowledge, and celebrating diverse linguistic repertoires, rather than overly focusing on the linguistic mode (Brown & Allmond, 2020). It is a holistic, strengths-based approach to assess ensembles (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001). This tool provides teachers with an option for understanding the literacy performance of emergent bilingual students whose numbers grow every day in public-school classrooms. Additionally, the chapter includes an analysis of the multimodal work of young children using the assessment tool. Clear examples of understanding and interpreting what emergent bilingual children know and can do from their multimodal literacy products are illustrated.

History of Literacy Assessment Practices for Emergent Bilinguals

The assessment issues plaguing English learners in U.S. classrooms mostly revolve around measurements designed for English-speaking populations and are rarely scrutinized for content. Many emergent bilinguals are hampered by content tests that measure English language proficiency rather than academic content such as comprehension of a story (Abedi, 2011). Rarely do assessments consider the linguistic needs of emergent bilinguals and thus do not provide accurate portraits of what these students know (Ascenzi-Moreno & Seltzer, 2021; Mahoney, 2017).

As we begin thinking about assessment practices with young emergent bilinguals, it is crucial to define what we mean by them. For this chapter, assessment (referred to as the Multimodal Literacy Profile (MLP) for Emergent Bilinguals) is a "tool designed to observe students' behavior and produce data that can be used to draw reasonable inferences about what students know" (Pellegrino et al., 2001, p. 42). The

formative assessment tool allows students to draw from multiple language resources as they make sense of books and share their ideas and interpretations about these texts (Noguerón-Liu et al., 2020). By blending the ways students use oral language, artwork, written language, and other learning modes like gestures, we can gain more insight into their literacy learning processes (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2020).

Theoretical Foundations

The MLP was designed using principles from translanguaging theory, Kress and van Leeuwen's (2020) visual grammar framework, Serafini's (2015) applied visual grammar for teachers, and Callow's (2008, 2018) affective and compositional dimensions. Each of these ideas is explained in this section.

Translanguaging

Translanguaging comprises the complex language processes used by multilingual individuals as they express their perspectives using rich semiotic resources, including multiple forms of language that may include non-standard forms (García et al., 2016). It is considered transformative because it involves "new ways of speaking and acting, of languaging, but also of being, of knowing, and of doing" (García et al., 2016, p. 79). While there is a lot of research supporting translanguaging as a theory with pedagogical implications, the intentional use of students' repertoires often goes unnoticed in schools. Educators miss the vast resources, linguistic and non-linguistic, that emergent bilinguals draw upon as they engage in literacy learning and can express on restrictive assessments.

Visual Grammar Framework and Educator Applications

Kress and van Leeuwen's (2020) visual grammar framework was originally developed as a tool to understand the ways images function in the world and later adapted to study the images in picture books. It is based on the premise that visual language is culturally specific, and therefore, the values and meanings associated with visual elements differ according to context. We use this framework to learn more about the ways students make meaning through the images they create. In this case, the MLP pushes teachers to look closely at the drawings or other multimodal productions of emergent bilinguals. The images students create may reflect material reality, but they can also indicate social reality or the interaction between the creator and what is being created. Then, these images are transformed as they are embedded in other modes like talking and writing, resulting in semiotic reality. This approach adopts a

metafunctional organization of resources which include ideational and interpersonal functions. Viewing students' drawings and artwork as representational and organizational helps educators understand the relationship across actions, events, distance, and layout.

Serafini (2015) provided practical applications of the work of Kress and van Leeuwen (2020) by viewing a multimodal text as a visual object rather than focusing on linguistics. Trying to understand children's drawings and other artwork by focusing on visual and design elements opens a space for understanding children's interpretations of texts as they respond in multimodal ways. Serafini's (2015) elements of visual grammar for teachers became essential components in the MLP. For example, elements like salience, color, layout, and perspective are evaluated within the context of the composing experience and text read. It is essential to consider students' backgrounds, languages, and cultures as visual objects are created.

Affective and Compositional Dimensions

Visual literacy is another area that we drew upon to inform the MLP. Callow's (2008) assessment of visual literacy skills for students highlights essential features of visual texts that aid in understanding. He argues for applying a critical perspective that considers affective and compositional dimensions of images. The MLP extends this work to the visuals created by students as part of the meaning-making process. Affective components of students' work may be present in facial expressions, gestures, or by bringing in personal experiences and preferences for aspects like the use of color (Callow, 2018). Compositional tools such as salience, layout, and lines with the support of student talk inform what students grasp from a read-aloud or independent reading of a text.

Callow (2008) also provided a set of guiding principles for assessment. Several of these are evident in the MLP. First, the assessment is part of an authentic learning experience with a high-quality piece of children's literature (fiction or non-fiction). Students are asked to respond to a text after a reading experience. There is no out-of-context assessment focusing on specific skills. Second, students have opportunities to show what they know through various multimodal resources depending on what is available in their classrooms. Finally, the MLP equally values student talk, written language, and visuality. Allowing students to share their interpretations or meanings of texts is an essential part of the process (Arizpe & Styles, 2015).

Being Informed by Previous Research

Oral Language Assessments for EBs

For emergent bilingual children, standardized assessments cannot reflect their complete competence and literacy growth (Babino & González-Carriedo, 2017). Some more recent assessment tools build on a holistic and translanguaging lens in a multilingual context (Bauer et al., 2020), where teaching and assessing are more asset-based than in the past. Compared to the traditional approaches, the newer tools draw on emergent bilingual children's full linguistic repertoire (Gorter & Cenoz, 2017). For example, Kabuto (2017) used miscue analysis as a culturally relevant assessment tool to evaluate oral reading performances of bilingual children. Bilingual readers used their linguistic resources in their retelling of texts. Noguerón-Liu et al. (2020) used Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark Assessment System (Fountas & Pinnell, 2011) as an oral reading assessment for emergent bilingual children to enable them to draw on their linguistic resources. Through a translanguaging lens, they examined the children's complex understandings of texts. Emergent bilinguals drew on their linguistic repertoires in their retelling. Klein and Briceño (2019) developed an assets-oriented oral language formative assessment tool, the Oral Language Record. Their tool builds on students' linguistic capital and reflects students' language structure. It is noteworthy that although these tools built emergent bilingual children's linguistic capital, most of them focused on assessing the oral retelling of texts. The assessments did not consider children's use of oral languages in describing artwork or multimodal productions.

Drawing and Other Visual Representation Assessments

Creating visual representations, such as drawing, is an important aspect of young children's meaning-making, especially when their written and oral language proficiency is developing (Darling-McQuistan, 2017; Ring, 2006; Wright, 2010). Hopperstad (2010) posited the vital importance of children's drawings as a visual source of information when determining how students make meaning. Incorporating multiliteracy assessment in the school setting is needed to address the value of children's diverse ways of meaning-making (Jacobs, 2013). A multiliteracies assessment broadens the definition of literacy that allows assessors to comprehensively understand a child's literacy development (Brown et al., 2009; New London Group, 1996; Serafini & Gee, 2017).

Studies on analyzing young children's drawings and multimodal artifacts inherently illuminate ways of assessing young children's creations of visual representations (Callow, 2008, 2018). Alvarez (2018) analyzed the content of Mexican–American children's drawings and writings and found that they reflected emergent bilingual children's experiences and the use of funds of knowledge. Bock (2016) analyzed her

two children's chronological multimodal artifacts to see how children built imaginary worlds and narratives. In addition, Melo-Pfeifer (2015) explored emergent bilingual children's perception of multilingualism by examining drawings from a semiotic perspective.

Several studies (De Wilde et al., 2020; Mellati & Khademi, 2018) conducted a refined analysis of children's multimodal works with theoretical lenses that took time and involved collaboration with a team of researchers. In these cases, researchers often attended to the child's detailed composing process, such as oral explanations or even pen selection choices throughout the composing process. However, for teachers in classrooms, it is hard for them to spend the same amount of time and attention analyzing each student's work. Thus, building on the existing studies, the MLP assessment introduced in this chapter provides a convenient way for educators to assess young children's multimodal artifacts from both semiotic perspectives and content aspects, including the use of linguistic repertoires, funds of knowledge, and imaginative understandings.

Written Language Assessments

Many written language assessments exist but may not be the best match for assessing young emergent bilinguals. For example, Harmey et al. (2019) created an early writing rubric to observe change over time in emergent writers as they transition into conventional literacy. However, the focus in their rubrics emphasized correctness with a right versus wrong application, fostering a deficit perspective. In addition, scoring was based on standard English conventions, which marginalizes emergent bilinguals who may not yet have these skills or who write in multiple languages.

Writing in multiple languages should not be considered a barrier but part of the rich linguistic repertoires that emergent bilinguals use for composing. An asset-based perspective fosters the use of multiple languages during assessment and instruction. This viewpoint avoids "a one-sided picture of students' skills and unravel[s] multiliterate resources and their role in students' educational success" (Usanova & Schnoor, 2021, p. 21). Bearne and Wolstencroft (2007) used an approach to multimodal composing that integrated visuals with writing. In some cases, students started with a visual before proceeding to write. This strategy helped plan the writing of narratives. The use of a visual resulted in the development of a multimodal text maker rubric as a tool for evaluating student work. While it does not capture the unique needs of emergent bilinguals, the rubric did provide a means for assessing children's writing development as embedded in the visual modes and social environment.

In addition, Bernstein's (2017) study with Nepali-Turkish-speaking children found that writing, enacted as a social practice, was an invitation to develop oral language. Letter writing was embedded in the talk about friends, and spelling relied on collaborative, communicative labor. The featured multimodal interactions used writing to develop oral language and vice versa, just as in Dyson's (1989, 1993) work in U.S. classrooms. Given the integrated nature of literacy learning from studies like

these, it makes sense to assess students in ways that capture written language along with other modes.

Development of the Assessment

The MLP extends Brown and Allmond's work (2020), while the revised version focuses on a more qualitative approach that avoids quantifying individual elements. This change is in response to numbers being used by educational systems to label emergent bilinguals and position them as having deficits. The newer version of the profile allows educators to assess multiple formats of responses instead of primarily digital-based products. The profile targets emergent bilinguals' understandings of texts, speaking, listening, and writing abilities within multiple languages, and visual representations of knowledge.

The profile can accommodate the work of very young children, which may involve painting, paper cut-outs, playdough, and more traditional resources like crayons, markers, and paper. An in-depth literature review of children's multimodal composing practices and examination of a wide variety of student work samples informed the descriptors included in the assessment.

The holistic approach to assessment does not overly focus on English proficiency. Instead, it allows emergent bilinguals to translanguage or draw from their semiotic repertoires to express understandings of texts. This approach aligns with Kleyn and Yau's (2016) assessment practices in New York City for young bilinguals. Allowing students to move between languages was key in capturing what they were able to comprehend. Since emergent bilinguals develop their language skills in flexible ways that involve "multiple linguistic codes, semiotic modalities, or participation during literacy events referred to as 'hybridization' (Gort, 2012, p. 92)," assessments must adapt to these processes.

The MLP was developed with a concerted effort of capturing key qualities of functional assessments (Green, 2014). First and foremost, practicality was taken into account. The existing demands of classroom teachers already overemphasize testing and assessment. This profile intends not to add to this burden but to give teachers an alternative way to document the growth of their emergent bilingual students in a thoughtful, productive manner. Therefore, we considered the ease of administration, supportive directions and examples to facilitate documentation, and time spent with the assessment. In addition, consideration was given to the resources teachers have available in diverse classrooms, which do not always include technology.

We also fore fronted beneficial consequences embedded in authentic learning experiences. So, the multimodal response to picture books always occurs as genuine aesthetic engagement with a text tied to the student's culture and background. The ultimate goal is to gain information that can guide future teaching and learning activities in ways that promote student growth.

Description of the Assessment

There are five sections in the MLP (see Appendix). Section I gathers the contextual information, including the composing event, the name of the book, and the materials used or available resources. The assessor circles the context that applies (e.g., home or school, read aloud, or independent reading). Then, the assessor talks to the child, examines the artwork/responses, and analyzes written language/symbols and other modes like gestures to score the remaining four sections. Teachers may use the app, Talking Points (a two-way free translation app for Smartphones), to capture the child's oral language and ask the prompts in multiple languages during the assessment. This tool is imperative for monolingual teachers administering the assessment to students who speak other languages.

Section II is focused on Ideational Functions, including (a) Oral Narrative, (b) Story Elements, (c) Personal and Cultural Connections, and (d) Imagination. Section III is dedicated to Interpersonal Functions, which include (e) color. Section IV analyzes Textual Functions, including (f) Salience (Size), Distance, and Layout (Spatial Arrangements) and (g) Coherence of Modalities. The Assessment Feature and Prompt portions include prompts for teachers to ask the child. The Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring sections are spaces to record the information gathered from the child's oral response plus artwork and written language. First, teachers record the child's response as close to verbatim as possible. Then, the assessor makes a note of evidence on the form. The information in the last column guides the analysis and requires the assessor to check all the boxes that apply.

Section V is the overall complexity of the ensemble or student's production concerning meaning-making. The assessors evaluate to what extent the child's multimodal response was complex given all of the components. The evaluation includes oral language (responses in any language to the assessor's prompts), written language (in any language or dialect form), visual representations, and the use of gestures. The assessors mark an X on the continuum after reviewing the notes and reading the descriptors.

Assessing Student Ensembles

The following section uses three emergent bilinguals' responses to picture books to illustrate the assessment components. All names are pseudonyms. First, we evaluate Carol's multimodal response, which provides a rich example of a child's work involving the use of playdough, Chinese written language, as well as her conversation about her creation. This sample is used to showcase sections A, B, and C of the MLP. Next, Mae's marker-crayon drawing is analyzed to understand elements D and E. Her work was selected because of her imagination in interpreting the story. Finally, Samir's digital drawing illustrates components F and G with his rich oral language description of his work.

Carol's Example

Carol was a 6-year-old emergent bilingual speaking English and Chinese, and both her oral and written Chinese proficiency were beyond her average grade level. Carol attended an online read-aloud session with Ling and read the book 谁偷了包子/*Who Stole the Buns* (Jin, 2011). It was a Chinese picture book about a girl who became friends with a kitty that stole buns to eat. The multimodal artifact shown in Fig. 25.1 was Carol's work responding to the read aloud. Carol was given options of using playdough, pencil, and paper to create her work. During her multimodal authoring process, she verbally explained her work to Ling and her mother.

For the narrative commentary section (Fig. 25.2), the assessor normally says, "Tell me about your work today," and the assessor records the child's oral language. In Carol's example, she spoke in Chinese multiple times about making a bun and used a mix of Chinese and English to explain her pizza, demonstrating her use of cross-linguistic resources. When Carol imaginatively put her pizza into the oven, she said, "One more step, put it in the oven. Ding, Ding, Ding. 老师看我的 pizza 做完了 (Teacher, look, my pizza is done.)." During this time, her hands held the playdough pizza reaching far back into the oven. She used an inflective voice and gestures to mimic the sound of an oven bell and sending the pizza into the oven. Similarly, Carol also imagined steaming the bun after making it. She said, "我去把它蒸一下 (Let me steam the bun.)" with a gesture of putting the bun into an imaginary pot.

When Carol worked on making the playdough bun, she described the procedure of squishing the dough, rolling the dough into a bun wrap, waiting for the wrap to be ready, and stuffing the wrap with meat. In her description, Carol precisely used different Chinese verbs and rich vocabulary to demonstrate her sophisticated understanding of the bun-making steps. In addition, Carol described details about the color of her bun wrap, filling, pizza toppings, and ways of cooking them. Thus, in the narrative commentary section, there are five elements checked for Carol. These highlight her assets in section A.

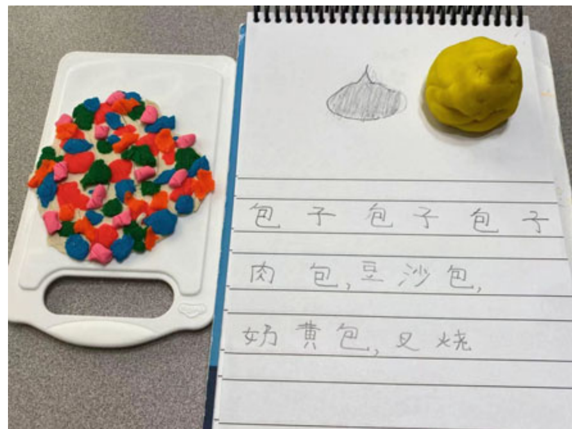

Fig. 25.1 Carol's multimodal artifact

Section II: Ideational Functions (Oral Narrative)		
Assessment Feature and Prompt	**Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring** (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored.	**Information to guide the assessor**
A. Narrative Commentary - **Tell me about your work today.** (This can be asked during or after the child completes their composing.)	**What information can you gather from the child's oral description of their work?** **Child's response (as close to verbatim as possible):** Mom: 这包子什么颜色的呀? [What is the color of this bun?] Carol: 黄色的。[Yellow] Mom: 为什么是黄色的? [Why is it yellow?] Carol: 黄色是包子皮，白色是包子不熟。[Yellow is the bun wrap, white means the bun is raw] Carol: 第一步是把它压扁 [First step is to squish it] Carol: 我小心的擀这个皮，这个面不太好 [I roll this bun wrap carefully, this dough is not good] Carol: 先把他晾一晾 [I need to let it stay for a while] Carol: 先要把馅放一放 [I need to put stuff in it] Carol: 放一些肉在里面，包子才能吃 [Put some meat stuff in it, so that the bun is ready to eat] T: Carol做的是什么呀? [What is Carol making?] Carol：我做的是一个包子 [I am making a bun] T: 为什么是黄色的呀 [Why it is yellow?]	**Be sure to use the Talking Points app if you are capturing languages other than the ones you speak proficiently. The child may respond in any language or using a mix of languages.** **Check all that apply.** □ Cross linguistic resources (i.e., child uses multiple languages or forms of non-standard languages in their oral and written work). □ Use of inflective voice (i.e., child giggles, pauses, uses emotion or loudness, etc.). □ Use of gestures (i.e., child uses their body, face, hands, etc. to explain their work). □ Use of dialogue (i.e., child tries to explain what the character said in the story or what the character in their drawing is saying). □ Design process talk (i.e., child talks about how they created their work – "I made a big mooncake and used two different color yellows to make it shine in the black sky."). □ Oral verbiage adds energy to the narrative (i.e., child uses sophisticated vocabulary/language to describe their work). □ Multiple elements of precision in the talk create an overall rich message. May include long, rhythmic sentences used in the oral narrative for the overall description of the work. □ Details about ideas/concepts are discussed with the use of appropriate nouns and pronouns (i.e., a single/separate detailed description of the work).
	Carol：因为我这里的白色不够，所以我做的是黄色的 [Because I don't have enough white playdough, so I use the yellow one] T: 那你做的是什么包子呢，是煎包还是蒸包子呢? [What kind of bun you are making? Pan fried bun or steamed bun?] Carol：是肉包子，就是蒸的。我去把他蒸一下 [It is meat stuffed bun, it is steamed. I need to steam it.] Carol: One more step, put it in the oven. Ding Ding Ding. 老师看我的pizza做完了. [Teacher, look, my pizza is done.] T: Carol 做了pizza，你的pizza里都有什么呢? [Carol made pizza, what is in your pizza toppings?] Carol：都有肉，和一些pepperoni，和一些flour，和 [There is meat, some pepperoni, and some flour, and] T:那你为什么要做pizza呢? [Why do you make pizza?] Carol：因为我喜欢吃. [Because I like to eat it] T: 嗯，喜欢吃。[Yes, like to eat it] Carol：还有鸡蛋 [And eggs] **Notes (Evidence):** • use both languages in oral narration • mimicking the sound of oven ring • gestures of steaming the bun in a pot and baking the pizza in the oven • describe the detailed procedure of making a bun • describe the details of bun elements and pizza toppings	

Fig. 25.2 Carol's assessment—narrative commentary

Section II: Ideational Functions (Story Elements)		
Assessment Feature and Prompt	Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored	Information to guide the assessor
B. Story Elements - Tell me more about what you understood about the story.	What information can you gather from the child's oral response PLUS their artwork and written language? Child's response (as close to verbatim as possible): T: Carol做的是什么呀？ [What is Carol making?] Carol：我做的是一个包子 [I am making a bun] T: 那你做的是什么包子呢，是煎包还是蒸包子呢？ [What kind of bun you are making? Pan fried bun or steamed bun?] Carol：是肉包子，就是蒸的。我去把他蒸一下 [It is meat stuffed bun, it is steamed. I need to steam it.] Notes (Evidence): • verbally and visually pointing out the story element bun • verbally narrated steaming the bun, which is shown in the book	Be sure to use the Talking Points app if you are capturing languages other than the ones you speak proficiently. The child may respond in any language or using a mix of languages. Check all that apply. □ Appearance of at least one story element (i.e., child mentions or draws the main character). □ Representation of time (i.e., in the drawing through the use of darkness with a moon; through oral language by using words such as "then", "later", "the next day"; through written language) □ Sequence of images/pieces in the artwork or oral sequencing description (i.e., child draws the beginning of the story and elements that represent the ending). □ Movement shown through use of alternative text features like arrows, squiggles, etc. □ Story elements strongly related to one another as a way to express comprehension (i.e., objects relate to the characters and setting) □ Integrated approach to story elements tells the story as a whole. Representations include events, objects, and movement (i.e., the child draws a dog with several fleas above the dog at higher and higher levels to show jumping fleas)

Fig. 25.3 Carol's assessment—story element

For the story element section (see Fig. 25.3), the main story element "bun" is shown in her oral description and multimodal works. Carol made a playdough bun and a pencil drawing of a bun and wrote "bun" in Chinese. She also dramatized steaming the bun, which was connected to the mother steaming buns shown in the book. Other than the two strengths mentioned above, Carol's work and verbal language did not represent time, alternative text features, or narrating the story as a whole.

In section C (Fig. 25.4), Carol made connections between the multimodal work and her personal and cultural experiences. While making the playdough bun, Carol orally described the steps that were not mentioned in the book. The detailed procedure reflected Carol's personal experiences of making a bun. A bun is Chinese cuisine, and Carol described the making of a bun with vivid Chinese language related to Chinese culture. When making the playdough pizza, Carol described the toppings on the pizza, which were connected to her personal experience of eating pizza, such as mentioning pepperoni as a topping. Multiple colors of playdough pieces were used to represent different types of pizza toppings. In addition, Carol chose to make pizza because of her personal preference, as she said, "因为我喜欢吃 (Because I like to eat it.)." In Carol's writing, she not only wrote the word bun in Chinese but also wrote different types of buns, such as 奶黄包/(custard bun) and 叉烧包/(Cha siu bao), which is an extension of the story's concept of the bun to her personal and cultural funds of knowledge. Thus, Carol met all five descriptors for this section, as shown in Fig. 25.4.

Section II: Ideational Functions (Personal and Cultural Connections)		
Assessment Feature and Prompt	**Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring** (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored	**Information to guide the assessor**
C. Personal and Cultural Connections – Prompt is optional. (You may score from other sources of information.) **Tell me more about the connections you made to your own life.**	**What information can you gather from the child's oral response PLUS their artwork and written language?** **Child's response (as close to verbatim as possible):** Carol: 第一步是把它压扁 [First step is to squish it] Carol: 我小心的擀这个皮，这个面不太好 [I roll this bun wrap carefully, this dough is not good] Carol: 先把他晾一晾 [I need to let it stay for a while] Carol: 先要把馅放一放 [I need to put stuff in it] Carol: 放一些肉在里面，包子才能吃 [Put some meat stuff in it, so that the bun is ready to eat] Carol: One more step, put it in the oven. Ding Ding Ding. 老师看我的pizza做完了. [Teacher, look, my pizza is done.] T: Carol 做了pizza，你的pizza里都有什么呢? [Carol made pizza, what is in your pizza toppings?] Carol：都有肉，和一些pepperoni，和一些flour，和 [There is meat, some pepperoni, and some flour, and] T:那你为什么要做pizza呢? [Why do you make pizza?] Carol：因为我喜欢吃. [Because I like to eat it] T: 嗯，喜欢吃。[Yes, like to eat it] Carol：还有鸡蛋 [And eggs]	**Be sure to use the Talking Points app if you are capturing languages other than the ones you speak proficiently. The child may respond in any language or using a mix of languages.** **Check all that apply.** □ Symbolic flexibility in relation to culture and personal experience (i.e., child draws a square to represent his house) □ Significant connections to culture and/or personal experiences (i.e., child creates an origami fish to represent the main character in the book) □ Culture and experiences are represented at a deep level across modes (i.e., written language in Japanese compliments the playdough depiction of family dinner time) □ Shows personal preferences (i.e., child likes skateboarding and introduces this into the connections). □ Uses prior knowledge (i.e., child draws from their own experiences of cooking with the family to interpret the story).
	Notes (Evidence): • create a drop shape represent bun • create a pizza with playdough because pizza is favorite food • share her personal experience of pizza and toppings • white flat playdough represents pizza crust and red green blue playdough dots represent meat, pepperoni, and pizza toppings. • In writing, Coco writes different types of buns in Chinese cuisine and written in Chinese that relate to her personal experiences/background knowledge.	

Fig. 25.4 Carol's assessment—personal and cultural connections

Mae's Example

Mae was a five-year-old Chinese American girl. She spoke Chinese as her first language and was proficient in both English and Chinese. Her writing skills were emergent. She was in Author 2's Chinese class and part of a weekly online bilingual reading club. Mae seldom spoke during the read alouds. In this example, Mae did not give any oral response after reading. Nor did she explain her artwork. However, her drawing showed many details about her meaning-making process. Mae's artwork was selected to show her use of imagination and colors. Mae's drawing was in response to a Chinese picture book 年獸來了/*Nian Beast is Coming* (Huang, 2005) (Fig. 25.5). It was about villagers who scared away the Nian monster, which reflected the origins and traditions of the Chinese Spring Festival. Mae used crayons to draw a picture of the Nian monster.

Fig. 25.5 Mae's drawing in response to Nian beast is coming

The imagination section (D) does not require teachers to ask questions. It can be scored from other sources of information, or the assessor may ask questions based on the child's response. In Mae's example, the firecrackers were used repeatedly in the drawing to show how people were scared of the Nian monster. Thus, "Repetition" was one of the characteristics in her drawing (see Fig. 25.6). Moreover, the Nian monster's appearance was imaginative. It was different from the one in the story. The decorations on its body, the feet, the rabbit head, the big mouth, the triangle nose, and the wings showed that the child envisioned scenarios different from the original text. In addition, the firecrackers around the Nian monster showed the child's understanding of the story. The scary appearance of the Nian monster also revealed the child's interpretation of the story.

The color section (E) requires teachers to ask an additional question—"Tell me more about how you used color in your artwork or response?" Information from other sources may be used as well. In Mae's example, she used yellow for firecrackers and gold coins, which showed, "Repetition involves the same use of color to represent different ideas." At the same time, Mae also used various colors for different objects: purple and pink for rabbit head, ear, and tail, green for feet, and red for firecrackers. She also used green multiple times for the feet, where she differentiated tints of the same color. The Nian monster was color filled and did not remain outlined in black marker. Red was utilized for firecrackers that were intricately drawn, representing meaningful details with cultural significance. Finally, the colorful Nian monster showed Mae's unique interpretation of the monster in the story with a mysterious perspective (Fig. 25.7).

Section II: Ideational Functions (Imagination)		
Assessment Feature and Prompt	Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored	Information to guide the assessor
D . Imagination – score from other sources of information.) (Ask questions if needed, decided by the teacher)	What information can you gather from the child's oral response PLUS their artwork and written language? Child's response (as close to verbatim as possible): Notes (Evidence): • The firecrackers were used repeatedly in the drawing to show how people scared the Nian monster. • The Nian monster's appearance was imaginative. It was different from the Nian monster in the story. The decorations on its body, the feet, the rabbit head, the big mouth, the triangle nose, and the wings showed that the child envisioned scenarios different from the original text. • The firecrackers around the Nian monster showed the child's understanding of the story. The scary appearance of the Nian monster also revealed the child's interpretation of the story.	Be sure to use the Talking Points app if you are capturing languages other than the ones you speak proficiently. The child may respond in any language or using a mix of languages. Check all that apply. □ Repetition (i.e., child uses objects, characters, etc. multiple times). □ Symbolic flexibility in relation to imagination (i.e., child draws a triangle to represent a unicorn horn) □ Use of imagination envisions scenarios different from the original text (i.e., child writes a story starring themselves as Rapunzel) □ Use of imagination extends the storyline (i.e., child orally and gesturally explains a new ending to the story) □ Use of imagination creates a unique, meaningful interpretation of the story (i.e., child makes unicorn dolphins who fly and live on top of rainbows)

Fig. 25.6 Mae's assessment—imagination

Section III: Interpersonal Functions (Affective Features – Color)		
Assessment Feature and Prompt	Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored.	Information to guide the assessor
E. Color (You may score from other sources of information.) Tell me more about how you used color in your artwork or response?	What information can you gather from the child's oral response PLUS their artwork and written language? Child's response (as close to verbatim as possible): Notes (Evidence): • Repetition: the child used yellow for firecrackers and gold coins. • Unique: the child used purple and pink for rabbit head, ear, and tail, green for feet, red for firecrackers. • the Nian monster was filled with different colors. • The child used red and yellow for firecrackers. • The Nian monster was colorful, which showed the child's understanding of the monster in the story as a mystery.	Be sure to use the Talking Points app if you are capturing languages other than the ones you speak proficiently. The child may respond in any language or using a mix of languages. Check all that apply. □ Repetition involves the same use of color to represent different ideas (i.e., child uses green to represent the tree leaves and the collar on the dog). □ Unique colors are used to differentiate objects/concepts (i.e., child may create a rainbow fish or two elephants – one gray and one brown). □ Representation includes tints of the same color (i.e., multiple uses of the shades/hues of blue). □ Objects are color filled (i.e., objects are not simply stick drawings but are filled with color). □ Color adds details to facial expressions and/or emotions including the use of emojis (i.e., emoji with a blue tear is used to convey sadness). □ Color represents details that the child finds interesting or meaningful (i.e., child creates a red banner with Chinese writing) □ Color is used to express emotion or has cultural significance (i.e., child creates a Lego structure in all pink blocks that signifies happiness with accompanied writing in pink font). □ Color is integrated in meaningful ways to showcase an ability to understand the nuances of the story

Fig. 25.7 Mae's assessment—color

Samir's Example

Samir was a seven-year-old first grader attending a public-school dual-language immersion program (English–Spanish) within a larger school setting. He was from Afghanistan, and his first language was Farsi. In this context, Samir was learning both English and Spanish at school while speaking Farsi at home. Samir was very inquisitive and frequently investigated the affordances offered by technology. His multimodal composition showcased a response to the picture book *Nerdy Bird* (Reynolds, 2015) using a tablet device. Take note of Samir's oral description of his work and his use of written language. There are no prompts to guide the assessment of sections F and G of the MLP. However, the assessor must use what the child stated for Prompt A. This information is noted in Fig. 25.8.

In this case, the assessor examined the child's use of salience (size), distance (close-up, birds-eye perspective), and layout (spatial arrangement) (see Fig. 25.9). Upon examining Samir's digital drawing, the moon was the most salient object in the center of the page. It was relative in size to the stars (stickers) he placed around the moon with the white smudges representing shooting stars. The differences in sizes of the objects showed distance. For example, the stars are always smaller than the moon when looking into the night sky.

The layout of his image utilized the available space, which included a black night sky encompassing the entire page. The bottom of the page was used to draw the power lines where Nerdy Bird sat. Samir's repeated use of lines with the white

Child's oral description of his work:

"I making a little white fire and sparkles for the power line. I'm going to use a blender or smudger with the glow one using white. It's so cool. It looks like shooting stars. The picture is the night skies from Nerdy Birdy when her, his friend was tired of him playing games. And then he dropped him on a power line and then left."

Child's written language - it is "night

(This is hard to see, but it is written in bold yellow font on top of the moon.)

Fig. 25.8 Samir's drawing

Section IV: Textual Functions (Combinations of Modalities and Compositional Features)		
Assessment Feature	Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored	Information to guide the assessor
F. Salience (Size), Distance, and Layout (Spatial Arrangements)	How does the child use size, distance, and layout to communicate meaning? Notes: Most salient object is the moon in the center of the page surrounded by stars (stickers) and smudges which are shooting stars. The power line is represented at the bottom of the screen to show it is closer to the ground. The stars are small in nature indicating they are distant.	**Salience, distance, and layout can be represented in any format – oral, written, or visual. You may revisit any of the child's comments through the process for information about salience.** Check all that apply. □ Salience is proportional to the objects created and/or ordered in size (i.e., children drew the person larger than the dog). □ Salience communicates importance (i.e., the child creates largest construction paper flag to represent their country while other countries are represented with smaller versions). □ Salience is exaggerated for emphasis based on the child's interpretation (i.e., child's painting is covered in fire to show the devastation of the fire). □ Saliences is related to different font sizes/styles (i.e., child uses large, bold letters for emphasis). □ The layout of the artwork utilizes the associated space (i.e., child may include a background sky and grass or overlap less salient objects). □ The layout is meaningful and contributes to an overall sense of story (i.e., the playdough buns are placed in a small bowl). □ Distance is taken into account through a particular perspective like mid shot or close up drawings (i.e., child paints a close up of a tiger's stripes on his tail and the rest of the tiger is regular size). □ Lines are used to indicate specific meanings (i.e., a horizontal line separates the troll house setting from the forest)

Fig. 25.9 Samir's assessment—salience, distance, and layout

electricity contained specific meanings related to the story that he read. Four of the eight elements for Section F were assets for Samir and showcased his ability to use particular drawing features to communicate his interpretation of the story.

The last section of the assessment provided information about how Samir combined modalities for a coherent composition (see Fig. 25.10). The short piece of writing, "it is 'night'," complimented his use of the black background to represent the setting of the story event where Nerdy Bird is dropped off on the electric line by his friends. This event was also explained in the oral description, which built consistency across modes. One mode was used to complement another. The objects in Samir's drawing contain details (stars, shooting stars, electricity-white = fire) that he also discussed orally. Taking all of this into account revealed that Samir was aware of his audience, composed of his peers, who read the same story. In this context, a thumbnail size image of Samir's digital drawing was located on all tablet devices because they were synced. He knew that his friends would access his drawing and make comments.

Overall Score

After elements A through G are analyzed, an overall judgment about the child's performance is made using the continuum. While the quantitative score, one through

Section IV: Textual Functions (Combinations of Modalities and Compositional Features)		
Assessment Feature	**Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring** (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored.	**Information to guide the assessor**
G. Coherence of Modalities	**How does all that the child produced come together to inform their understanding of the story?** **Notes (list evidence): The writing, drawing, and oral narrative come together to communicate one cohesive piece. This retells one event in the story which is the impetus for the rest of the story as Nerdy Bird tries to return home. Bold yellow font is used for writing on top of the yellow moon.**	**Take into account how the child made meaning as a whole across multiple modes including oral and written language, visual responses, gestures, etc.** **Check all that apply.** □ Multiple sources of information connect to one another (i.e., child's use of color is explained through their written language – The forest was on fire and the panda couldn't get out. □ Facial expressions are used in concert with color, font size, and other features to extend meaning (i.e., character is frowning with blue speech bubble saying, "I am sad right now."). □ Details are consistent across modes (i.e., child uses a font style to match how the character talks and produces this orally by talking like the character). □ Awareness of audience is evidenced by the child's desire to communicate across modes (i.e., may include digital stickers/clipart, foreground, dialogue, spatial arrangements). □ One mode adds depth to other modes (i.e., visual adds to written; oral adds to visual/written, etc.).

Fig. 25.10 Samir's assessment—combinations of modalities and compositional features

eight, is not of the utmost importance, teachers should look for growth over time. It would be essential to take note of the multimodal communication skills the children develop as they become more experienced with the available resources and extend their interpretations of the story. The assessor should review all of the child's assets that were evidenced overall. The following descriptors are used to note the progression: (1) Emergent, (2) Emergent Plus, (3) Developing, (4) Moderate, (5) Experienced, (6) Substantial, (7) Advanced, and (8) Independent (see Appendix).

Where Do We Go from Here?

To move forward, teachers must use their rich understandings of students along with translanguaging practices and multimodal authoring practices to avoid becoming driven by deficit perspectives. This practice means valuing teacher's expertise as an observer of children to identify multimodal learning assets (Kesler, 2020). Ascenzi-Moreno (2020) called for teachers to become aware of these resources that emergent bilinguals bring with them to school and leverage these resources to learn new things about students. She referred to this as a renewal process where teachers' learning is generative and informs classroom instruction and assessment. In order for teachers to succeed, there need to be professional development opportunities related to visual literacy, translanguaging, and analyzing multimodal compositions

created by children. Learning opportunities may take the form of after-school workshops, online learning modules, classes at a local university, or within professional learning communities. Extending teachers' expertise in these areas makes it easier for emergent bilinguals to have their knowledge recognized and validated.

Conclusion

There is still much to learn about the resources emergent bilingual children use to make meaning in classrooms. Mavers (2010) reminds us, "ordinariness masks richness and complexity, routine features that pass by largely unnoticed are not at all trivial and commonplace 'errors', even if not overlooked, are replete with meaningfulness" (p. 1). Take the time to notice what makes the multimodal compositions of young emergent bilinguals remarkable. At first glance, it may not seem evident. Give student work a closer look. Many surprises may be unearthed by digging deep into the multimodal meaning-making process of children.

Appendix: A Multimodal Literacy Profile (MLP) for Emergent Bilinguals

Student's Name _______ Date ________ Grade/Age ________

Section I: Contextual Information

a. What is the context of the composing event? School Home
    Read aloud Independent reading Listening to a digital story/YouTube video
b. Name of Book (if applicable): ____________________________
c. Materials used or available resources: _____________________

(The following sections are determined by talking to the child, examining their artwork/responses, using written language/symbols, and other multimodal ways of making meaning.)

During the assessment, teachers may use the app, Talking Points (a two-way free translation app for Smartphones) to capture the child's oral language and ask the prompts in multiple languages.

Section II: Ideational Functions (Oral Narrative)

Assessment Feature and Prompt	**Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring** (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored	**Information to guide the assessor**
A. Narrative Commentary – **Tell me about your work today** (This can be asked during or after the child completes their composing.)	**What information can you gather from the child's oral description of their work?** **Child's response (as close to verbatim as possible):** **Notes (Evidence):**	**Be sure to use the Talking Points app if you are capturing languages other than the ones you speak proficiently. The child may respond in any language or using a mix of languages** **Check all that apply** ☐ Cross-linguistic resources (i.e., child uses multiple languages or forms of non-standard languages in their oral and written work) ☐ Use of inflective voice (i.e., child giggles, pauses, uses emotion or loudness, etc.) ☐ Use of gestures (i.e., child uses their body, face, hands, etc., to explain their work) ☐ Use of dialogue (i.e., child tries to explain what the character said in the story or what the character in their drawing is saying) ☐ Design process talk (i.e., child talks about how they created their work—"I made a big mooncake and used two different color yellows to make it shine in the black sky.") ☐ Oral verbiage adds energy to the narrative (i.e., child uses sophisticated vocabulary/language to describe their work) ☐ Multiple elements of precision in the talk create an overall rich message. May include long, rhythmic sentences used in the oral narrative for the overall description of the work ☐ Details about ideas/concepts are discussed with the use of appropriate nouns and pronouns (i.e., a single/separate detailed description of the work)

Section II: Ideational Functions (Story Elements)

Assessment Feature and Prompt	**Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring** (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored	**Information to guide the assessor**
B. Story Elements – **Tell me more about what you understood about the story**	**What information can you gather from the child's oral response PLUS their artwork and written language?** **Child's response (as close to verbatim as possible):** **Notes (Evidence):**	**Be sure to use the Talking Points app if you are capturing languages other than the ones you speak proficiently. The child may respond in any language or using a mix of languages** **Check all that apply** ☐ Appearance of at least one story element (i.e., child mentions or draws the main character) ☐ Representation of time (i.e., in the drawing through the use of darkness with a moon; through oral language by using words such as "then", "later", "the next day"; through written language) ☐ Sequence of images/pieces in the artwork or oral sequencing description (i.e., child draws the beginning of the story and elements that represent the ending) ☐ Movement shown through use of alternative text features like arrows, squiggles, etc ☐ Story elements strongly related to one another as a way to express comprehension (i.e., objects relate to the characters and setting) ☐ Integrated approach to story elements tells the story as a whole. Representations include events, objects, and movement (i.e., the child draws a dog with several fleas above the dog at higher and higher levels to show jumping fleas)

Section II: Ideational Functions (Personal and Cultural Connections)

Assessment Feature and Prompt	**Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring** (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored	**Information to guide the assessor**
C. Personal and Cultural Connections—Prompt is optional. (You may score from other sources of information.) **Tell me more about the connections you made to your own life**	**What information can you gather from the child's oral response PLUS their artwork and written language?** **Child's response (as close to verbatim as possible):** **Notes (Evidence):**	**Be sure to use the Talking Points app if you are capturing languages other than the ones you speak proficiently. The child may respond in any language or using a mix of languages** **Check all that apply** ☐ Symbolic flexibility in relation to culture and personal experience (i.e., child draws a square to represent his house) ☐ Significant connections to culture and/or personal experiences (i.e., child creates an origami fish to represent the main character in the book) ☐ Culture and experiences are represented at a deep level across modes (i.e., written language in Japanese compliments the playdough depiction of family dinner time) ☐ Shows personal preferences (i.e., child likes skateboarding and introduces this into the connections) ☐ Uses prior knowledge (i.e., child draws from their own experiences of cooking with the family to interpret the story)

Section II: Ideational Functions (Imagination)		
Assessment Feature and Prompt	**Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring** (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored	**Information to guide the assessor**
D. Imagination—score from other sources of information.) **(Ask questions if needed, decided by the teacher)**	**What information can you gather from the child's oral response PLUS their artwork and written language?** **Child's response (as close to verbatim as possible):** **Notes (Evidence):**	**Be sure to use the Talking Points app if you are capturing languages other than the ones you speak proficiently. The child may respond in any language or using a mix of languages** **Check all that apply** ☐ Repetition (i.e., child uses objects, characters, etc., multiple times) ☐ Symbolic flexibility in relation to imagination (i.e., child draws a triangle to represent a unicorn horn) ☐ Use of imagination envisions scenarios different from the original text (i.e., child writes a story starring themselves as Rapunzel) ☐ Use of imagination extends the storyline (i.e., child orally and gesturally explains a new ending to the story) ☐ Use of imagination creates a unique, meaningful interpretation of the story (i.e., child makes unicorn dolphins who fly and live on top of rainbows)

Section III: Interpersonal Functions (Affective Features—Color)

Assessment Feature and Prompt	**Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring** (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored	**Information to guide the assessor**
E. Color (You may score from other sources of information.) **Tell me more about how you used color in your artwork or response?**	**What information can you gather from the child's oral response PLUS their artwork and written language?** **Child's response (as close to verbatim as possible):** **Notes (Evidence):**	**Be sure to use the Talking Points app if you are capturing languages other than the ones you speak proficiently. The child may respond in any language or using a mix of languages** **Check all that apply** ☐ Repetition involves the same use of color to represent different ideas (i.e., child uses green to represent the tree leaves and the collar on the dog) ☐ Unique colors are used to differentiate objects/concepts (i.e., child may create a rainbow fish or two elephants—one gray and one brown) ☐ Representation includes tints of the same color (i.e., multiple uses of the shades/hues of blue) ☐ Objects are color filled (i.e., objects are not simply stick drawings but are filled with color) ☐ Color adds details to facial expressions and/or emotions including the use of emojis (i.e., emoji with a blue tear is used to convey sadness) ☐ Color represents details that the child finds interesting or meaningful (i.e., child creates a red banner with Chinese writing) ☐ Color is used to express emotion or has cultural significance (i.e., child creates a Lego structure in all pink blocks that signifies happiness with accompanied writing in pink font) ☐ Color is integrated in meaningful ways to showcase an ability to understand the nuances of the story (i.e., each character is represented by a different skin tone because the story had multicultural characters)

Section IV: Textual Functions (Combinations of Modalities and Compositional Features)		
Assessment Feature	**Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring** (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored	**Information to guide the assessor**
F.Salience (Size), Distance, and Layout (Spatial Arrangements)	**How does the child use size, distance, and layout to communicate meaning?** **Notes (Evidence):**	**Salience, distance, and layout can be represented in any format—oral, written, or visual. You may revisit any of the child's comments through the process for information about salience** **Check all that apply** ☐ Salience is proportional to the objects created and/or ordered in size (i.e., children drew the person larger than the dog) ☐ Salience communicates importance (i.e., the child creates the largest construction paper flag to represent their country while other countries are represented with smaller versions) ☐ Salience is exaggerated for emphasis based on the child's interpretation (i.e., child's painting is covered in fire to show the devastation of the fire) ☐ Salience is related to different font sizes/styles (i.e., child uses large, bold letters for emphasis) ☐ The layout of the artwork utilizes the associated space (i.e., child may include a background sky and grass or overlap less salient objects) ☐ The layout is meaningful and contributes to an overall sense of story (i.e., the playdough buns are placed in a small bowl) ☐ Distance is taken into account through a particular perspective like mid-shot or close-up drawings (i.e., child paints a close-up of a tiger's stripes on his tail and the rest of the tiger is regular size) ☐ Lines are used to indicate specific meanings (i.e., a horizontal line separates the troll house setting from the forest which is drawn on the other side of the line)

Section IV: Textual Functions (Combinations of Modalities and Compositional Features)

Assessment Feature	**Assessor Notes, Interpretations, and Scoring** (Assessor lists evidence here in the form of a short narrative.) Need to determine if and how this would be scored	**Information to guide the assessor**
G. Coherence of Modalities	**How does all that the child produced come together to inform their understanding of the story?** **Notes (Evidence):**	**Take into account how the child made meaning as a whole across multiple modes including oral and written language, visual responses, gestures, etc** **Check all that apply** ☐ Multiple sources of information connect to one another (i.e., child's use of color is explained through their written language—The forest was on fire and the panda could not get out ☐ Facial expressions are used in concert with color, font size, and other features to extend meaning (i.e., the character is frowning with a blue speech bubble saying, "I am sad right now.") ☐ Details are consistent across modes (i.e., child uses a font style to match how the character talks and produces this orally by talking like the character) ☐ Awareness of the audience is evidenced by the child's desire to communicate across modes (i.e., may include digital stickers/clipart, foreground, dialogue, spatial arrangements) ☐ One mode adds depth to other modes (i.e., visual adds to written; oral adds to visual/written, etc.)

Section V: Complexity of Meaning-Making

Overall Complexity of the Child's Work or Composition

To what extent was the child's multimodal response complex given all of the components evaluated in earlier sections. This includes oral language (responses in any language to the assessor's prompts), written language (in any language or dialect form), visual representations, and use of gestures

Mark an X on the continuum after reviewing your notes and reading the descriptors

Emergent **Experienced**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

(1) **Emergent**	The child is just beginning to make meaning of texts and responds in simple ways. Visuals may be simplistic and may or may not show a relationship to the text. The child may rely on the teacher to facilitate the experience
(2) Emergent Plus	The child communicates a singular aspect of the text through one primary mode. For example, the child may rely on their drawing to communicate their interpretation or understanding
(3) Developing	The words (oral and/or written) and images tell different but related concepts from the text. The child is agentive in selecting resources and may experiment with resources, modes, and languages. There may be some questions about the meaning of the composition as a whole
(4) Moderate	One cohesive aspect of the text is highlighted and communicated effectively. The selection of resources is intentional and relates to what the child is communicating about the text
(5) Experienced	Multiple modes come together to provide a rather complex understanding of the text. Some details are included. Not all resources are utilized
(6) Substantial	Some aspects of at least three modes are used to express understanding of the text. Child is becoming purposeful in the way he/she makes meaning
(7) Advanced	The child pulls together multiple details from the text using various modes in order to fully explain their personal interpretation or understanding. There is evidence of the child's perspective in the composition
(8) **Independent**	Makes intentional, independent decisions about which resources to use in order to communicate their ideas most effectively. Child understands his/her audience and uses multiple modes and languages accordingly. The total composition is cohesive and easy to understand

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Chapter 26
Contact Zones and Investment in the Advanced ESOL Writing Classroom: Practical Recommendations for Linguistically Sustaining Instruction

Robin L. Rhodes

Abstract In this chapter, asset-based instruction and the use of linguistically sustaining assignments such as vocabulary journals, collaborative annotations, literacy autoethnographies, and a multilingual story map are highlighted through a case study of academic English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) course at an American institution of higher education. Based on Pratt's Contact Zone theory (Pratt in Profession 33–40, 1991) and Norton's concept of investment (Norton in TESL Can J 28(1):1–13, 2010), the course highlights pedagogy that supports multilingualism in the advanced ESOL writing classroom. Valuing student-preferred languages while offering English instruction involves pedagogy that explicitly promotes linguistic assets based on a globalized multilingual life where investment and writer identity are negotiated in relation to dominant ideologies. The pedagogy helps to limit imposed identities that stem "from the myth of linguistic homogeneity" (Matsuda in Literacy as translingual practice: between communities and classrooms. Taylor & Francis, p. 129, 2013) which leaves instructors with the inability to value transnational perspectives brought to writing (Canagarajah in Coll Engl 68:589–604, 2006a; Canagarajah in Coll Compos Commun 57(4), 586–619, 2006b). Pedagogy focusing on student assets and collaborative dialogism helps create more equitable assessment and increases investment in language learning. The recommendations here can be adapted for varying teaching contexts and are useful for different language levels and age groups whether in the USA or elsewhere.

Introduction

Current research in multilingual ideologies, identity, anti-hegemonic views of English, and literacy as a social practice is at a pivotal point as the national and global discussion on issues of racism and xenophobia continues and students face ongoing linguistic bias and inequitable assessment in higher education.

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Multilingual students' introduction to academic English discourse communities in American institutions may create linguistic capital but does not have to devalue or limit a student's linguistic repertoire and identity. Investment in language instruction and negotiation of student identity may help evolve advanced ESOL discourse communities in ways not yet commonly seen in upper-level classrooms; students navigate norms while contending with potential identity conflicts and assignments and instructional design can limit language hierarchy (Canagarajah, 2009; Coffin & Donohue, 2012; Dentith, 1995; Lillis & Tuck, 2016; Morita, 2004; Norton, 2013; Rhodes, 2022). The English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) classroom is about more than the intricacies of the English language and skill building that may or may not be prescriptive (Freire & Macedo, 1987; Luke & Freebody, 1999) and should have a goal of multilingual ideology as well as knowledge of the practical application of academic English.

IRB-approved empirical research founded on a critical ethnography approach draws on questionnaire data involving student, staff, teacher, and faculty participants, linguistic analysis, and field work (Rhodes, 2022). The research formed one of the foundations of an academic ESOL course redesign where pedagogical choices reflect a multilingual ideology. One goal of the course is to work on higher and lower order writing issues with a focus on critical theory and a conversation that lies at the heart of understanding life in the United States—racism and antiracism (Rhodes, 2022). The course redesign was very intentional and based on praxis that also incorporated Moore Howard's *Writing Matters* (2018) and Jason Reynolds and Ibram X. Kendi's *Stamped: Racism, Antiracism, and You: A Remix* (2020). In addition, the instructional design involved combatting prescriptive Eurocentric views of Standard Academic English (SAE) based on a monolingual ideology (Rhodes, 2022).

Research respondents indicated a desire for linguistic backgrounds to be valued in the transition to and participation in academic discourse communities as seen possible in Pratt's (1991) contact zone, which moves toward a more pluralistic approach. Educators can teach writing starting with "students' cultural universe as a point of departure, enabling students to recognize themselves as possessing a specific and important cultural identity" (Freire & Macedo, 2000, p. 127). Transnational students deserve explicit critical approaches and equitable assessment utilizing situated aspects of writing where lived experience, relationships between linguistic and institutionalized power, and demands of genres and disciplines (Lillis et al., 2015; Sheridan, 2011) are at the forefront of instructional design.

Methodology

The study was conducted from the USA to an international audience with a research impetus to explore student, faculty, and staff perceptions about culturally and linguistically sustaining pedagogy for the ESOL advanced classroom. Survey design allowed for the exploration of linguistic identity, assignments, and assessment, and gathered anonymous responses throughout the study window (Rhodes, 2022). The

study asked participants about the use of preferred linguistic and cultural identity while learning academic English and the data helped inform recommendations for asset-based instructional design (Rhodes, 2022). Overwhelmingly students were either in the USA for study at higher education institution or represented multiple nations where they were studying and working in English-speaking environments. One hundred student surveys and forty-eight faculty/staff surveys were returned. An advanced English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) course taught by the author, who resides in the World Languages, Cultures, and Media department, gave evidence to authentic samples and ethnographic study (Rhodes, 2022). Qualitative collection methods were used including surveys through Qualtrics and ethnographic methods such as use of student samples and an extensive literature review. Evaluation of student perceptions of linguistic understanding involves examining social aspects of language, history of language use, and practice of writing (Lillis, 2008), and these were considered during the analysis, coding, and writing phase.

Transnational Identities and Deficit-Based Assessment

The term linguistically sustaining pedagogy recognizes language differences not as deficits but as part of a student's whole language repertoire where instruction and assessment can reflect linguistic identity. Authentic and meaningful writing opportunities create contexts whereby students may think creatively and transition to academic expectations (Ortega, 2009; Rhodes, 2022; Zamel & Spack, 2006). In higher education, "shared repertoire of language use and practices" (Goddard & Carey, 2017, p. 8) is a goal for many educators (Rhodes, 2022). However, contact zone negotiation and discourse expectations may focus student work into discourse hegemony where multicultural and multilingual voices are not allowed or accepted and may be representative of the negative rhetoric around multilingual students (Paris & Alim, 2014). Emancipatory literacy should not rest on formulaic writing and norms that generally reject multicultural identities but instead should rest on the validation of students' lived experience that draw on the multiple strengths of multilingual students (Freire & Macedo, 1987).

Deficit-based instruction and assessment may include the goal of subtracting language abilities to promote dominant academic English skills in which first languages are thought to interfere with English learning (Guo, 2009). However, in multilingual literacies, students are able to see the importance of valuing linguistic repertoires without prioritizing one over the other and are able to shuttle between dominant languages and their preferred language(s). A student in the course from Colombia noted loss of her preferred language when she wrote "I could not believe that I was losing my Spanish and I felt I was giving up on a huge part of my identity. I was feeling alienated from some of the people I love the most, and it was hard because I felt like I could not control it." Others expressed how giving up a mother tongue is equal to handing over your identity to others and how this preferred language contributes to their cultural ways of being. Norms in language and culture

influence identity and pedagogies which either support or negate identity and value or devalue multiple perspectives (Lee & Canagarajah, 2019; Norton, 2013).

Theoretical Foundations: Investment and Contact Zones

Norton's (2013) language identity theory focused on investment, capital, communities of practice, and imagined communities. Norton examined imagined communities in which English language learners can see themselves as part of the English-speaking community and this imaginary community (for example, academic community) can invite students to be invested in their own learning. Norton also argued that in addition to valuing critical needs in language learning such as linguistic input and output and SLA concepts, we also need to understand the social acts of literacy and negotiated identity of learners. Investment "signals the socially and historically constructed relationships of learners to the target language and their sometimes ambivalent desire to speak, read, or write it" (Norton, 2010, p. 3).

Deficit-based pedagogy and imposed identities further damage investment in language learning, and pedagogy design should recognize the assets brought into the classroom and the investment/imagined communities students draw on to increase language skills (Ortega, 2009). The research here elaborates on Norton's (2010) concept of investment to not only signal imagined communities in the target language but also signal an imagined community of global citizens where linguistic capital is based on multilingual, not monolingual, ideology. Multilingualism is of highest value, not monolingualism and native English language ability. Students are able to imagine themselves with these beneficial identities and instructors utilizing asset-based instruction foster these while also helping students improve academic English, which is just one part of a student's linguistic identity.

In addition, Pratt's (1991) contact zone is a place where students undergo negotiation of identity, where cultures clash and students search for meaning—usually in relations of power (Canagarajah, 2002, 2012, 2014; Freedman & Ball, 2004; Grant & Wong, 2010; Lillis & Tuck, 2016; May, 2014; Norton, 2013; Pratt, 1991) and is a perfect description of what happens in the multilingual classroom where students experience seeing the world with their identities engaged while exposed to new information and thus follows incomprehension, revelation, mutual understanding, and new wisdom (Pratt, 1991). It is in this zone where it is particularly important for instructors to build on student identity and schemata and give students time to navigate the zone. Multiple discourses come together in negotiation where students may feel conflicted about learning a new language like English and instead value their local or preferred language (Goddard & Carey, 2017). Collaborative and dialogic instruction and assessment encourage students to negotiate within the contact zone (Rhodes, 2022).

The advanced ESOL classroom as a contact zone sets up further considerations for transnational asset-based assessment where its alignment to instruction is paramount (Kroll, 1990). Assessment is not founded or based on Western monolingual norms

as discourse writers will change those communities through active involvement and identity negotiation making this pedagogy good for all students (Canagarajah, 2009; Coffin & Donohue, 2012; Dentith, 1995; Lillis & Tuck, 2016; Morita, 2004; Norton, 2013). Rarely do transnational students get time in the zone because much of their professor's feedback on academic writing involves a comparison to native speaking/writing norms as evidenced by several students in the study who received comments and lower scores due to comparison to native speakers.

Transculturation, as defined by Pratt (1991), is the process where students, faculty, and staff renegotiate identity and norms from the dominant culture (Layne & Lipponen, 2016). Students need time to understand expectations and negotiate power demands. The contact zone as an underlying foundation of a writing classroom is about understanding differences where counternarratives are valued and where diversity becomes the dominant narrative, not marginalization (Layne & Lipponen, 2016). Without time in the contact zone, students may feel there is no opportunity to enter communities of practice without following the rigid rules of academic writing and being forced into a set identity.

Contemporary and Pertinent Conversations in the Multilingual Classroom

With global conversations turned to institutional discrimination and bias and antiracism, standard academic English generally demands linguistic variations that are from predominantly white communities with a deficit-based view of variations coming from minority and colonized communities (Rhodes, 2022). Cummins's (2000) pivotal work draws attention to discriminatory rhetoric and othering with attention to monolingual preferences (Rhodes, 2022). He promoted transformative pedagogy that is grounded in the lives of students; praxis can help guide transformative pedagogy.

With this in mind, I drew on backward design to recreate an advanced ESOL course focusing on critical literacy and fostering assignments that value diverse habitus with a focus on multilingualism and multiculturalism (Rhodes, 2022). Valuing linguistic identity was pivotal to course design and the course worked to mirror a 21st-century multilingual global life where students were encouraged to invest in language learning. The samples and instructional guidance here are based on multilingual student and faculty perceptions and offer creative pedagogy—where the course acts as its own contact zone (Rhodes, 2022).

The discussion of racism and antiracism in Reynolds and Kendi's book helped students improve strategies for effective argument, coherence, and grammatical items as "academic institutions are not simply instructional sites; they are, in fact, cultural arenas where heterogeneous ideological, discursive, and social forms collide in an unremitting struggle for dominance" (Kumaravadivelu, 1999, p. 466; Rhodes, 2022). The content for the advanced class offered numerous assignments and classroom

work to engage in discourse analysis within a context that combats bias and discrimination while also working on writing skills. The book *Stamped: Racism, Antiracism, and You: A Remix* and the theme from Adichie's TED Talk "Danger of a Single Story" were effective for this purpose (Rhodes, 2022).

Concepts from Howard's *Writing Matters* (2018) were systematically studied and analyzed for authentic use in *Stamped: Racism, Antiracism, and You: A Remix* (2020) and at any given time, negotiation and discussion, navigating discourse moves and expectations, and working to achieve awareness through the ability to connect and draw on experience were emphasized (Dewey, 2015; Freire & Macedo, 2000). For example, when parallel structure, fragments, and word choice were examined in class and in the writing textbook, these were also examined in use with an analysis of context and writer decision-making in *Stamped: Racism, Antiracism, and You: A Remix* (2020) by Reynolds and Kendi. Similarly, when genres of extended definition and problem–solution were discussed, the text *Stamped* was analyzed as to how the authors negotiate and make choices to give definitions and set up problems and solutions. Both texts worked as mentor and foundational. Qualitative research supports the pedagogical redesign with combining writing skills, increased vocabulary and grammar, and syntactic fluency while building critical consciousness.

An examination into bias and fairness in assessment also took place. Course assignments validated the "way racial formations might respond differently" (Inoue, 2015, p. 42; Rhodes, 2022). Students shared ideas from their multilingual lived experiences through collaboration and genre (Rhodes, 2022) and submissions of assignments reflected a diversity of ideologies and thought processes. Assignments were reviewed for culturally based wording and cultural examples were examined for hegemonic connections.

Genre-based instruction allows for more variation and flexibility to account for examinations of contested norms and varying rhetorical situations, especially when combined with antiracist genre pedagogy through avoidance of formulaic and prescriptive structure (Accurso & Mizell, 2020; Caplan & Johns, 2019). The goal of English teaching and learning does not stem from attaining native speaker status but stems from becoming a multilingual writer, one who is sensitive to context and can perform communicative needs (Rhodes, 2022; Tian, 2021).

Practical Recommendations for Linguistically Sustaining Pedagogy

The following sections contain specific assignments that can be adapted to different contexts and for varying audiences. Each assignment is included for assessment in the course, and students are free to use their preferred language and cultural backgrounds as they see fit while still focusing on academic English skill building. There is limited discussion here about the two main writing assignments, an extended definition and a problem–solution paper, but the papers were assigned to bring all English academic

Table 26.1 Course assignments

Grading/evaluations will be based on:
Class Participation—100 points (attendance, participation, writing exercises)
Digital Map Introduction—20 points
Literacy Autoethnography—40 points
Revised Paper #1 Extended Definition with Final Draft Letter—100 points
Three Vocabulary and Reading Journals—40 pts each = 120 points
Collaborative Annotations—One regular time @ 40 points, one leadership time @ 50 points = 90 points total
Lab Attendance and Participation—10 pts./lab = 80 points
Final Portfolio—130 points (revised paper #2 problem–solution, final draft letter, reverse outline)

skills and content together in writing practice. Both papers continue skill building while allowing students to explore a topic that is representative of their identity. In the past, students have written on topics from their own cultural background and have explored these in the two specific genres. Course assignments are as follows in Table 26.1.

Vocabulary and Reading Journals

The vocabulary and reading journal assignment connects the two texts as students have to keep a journal of a word, definition, collocation, connotation, part of speech, and note relationships and also examine and analyze the text *Stamped* for concepts presented in Howard's *Writing Matters*. The following paraphrased excerpt from the assignment highlights how student choice and connections can form a more authentic assignment:

> Some students like to write the word in their first language and then translate. Please state the word and its forms, part of speech, definition, connotation, one collocation, and relate the word to something real in your life, the news, campus, or the world. How does this word relate to what is going on? What you think? Where you study or live? This is related to you and not a copied sentence from the Internet. Your connection will not be graded but I will look to see that you have been able to articulate it. You can submit your vocabulary journal as an oral flip grid, a chart, PPT, a video, an infographic, or any other representation of how you see the words and the required components. We all don't think the same and we all don't need to do everything the same way as long as the goal is met.

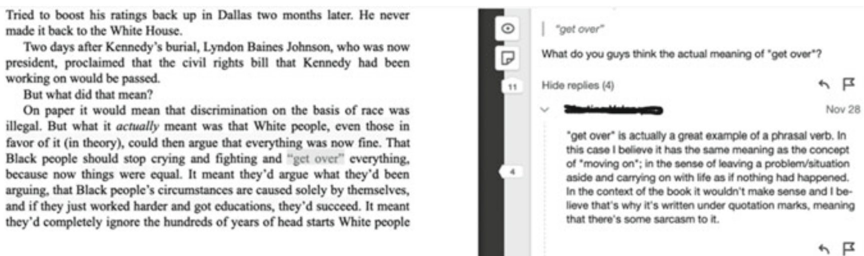
Empirical research conducted by the author reveals that students value these types of assignments as one student from Greece reflected that the vocabulary journal is her favorite assignment for its concrete nature in expanding her understanding of words. Her response was followed by a different student, from Colombia, who commented

about the loss of a first language when learning new words. The choice to write entries in two languages and to connect to their own experience values the multilingual status and ability to make meaning using languages and lived experiences together. The encouragement to use their preferred language and English sends a strong message that the preferred language is an asset and welcomed in the classroom. The message to language students is in sharp contrast to deficit views of preferred languages and students' lived experiences. The reading journal section helps students examine authentic texts for syntactic complexity and grammar forms along with studying audience and context. For example, if the class is studying concise writing in the writing textbook, students would be asked to find examples and analyze the text *Stamped* for concise writing as models of authentic use of the language.

Collaborative Annotations

Use of negotiation and dialogue is encouraged through collaborative annotations (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014) which ask the class to annotate a document together to practice skills related to critical reading. For the assignment, Hypothesis, a free Chrome annotation extension, allows students to collaboratively annotate and respond to each other with multilingual entries encouraged (Rhodes, 2022). There is a class guide for the annotation, so students understand expectations as this works to engage them with the text and one another. Each student also takes a turn as an annotation leader. Students annotate *Stamped: Racism, Antiracism, and You: A Remix* to not only understand the historical content but to analyze language use and take note of sentence and paragraph level constructions as in the text (see Fig. 26.1) (Rhodes, 2022).

The combination of using Howard's *Writing Matters* as a guide and *Stamped: Racism, Antiracism, and You: A Remix* as the mentor text is both compelling and helpful for students to study academic writing moves. The collaboration helps students work together to study rhetorical moves and to discuss content in *Stamped:*


Tried to boost his ratings back up in Dallas two months later. He never made it back to the White House.

Two days after Kennedy's burial, Lyndon Baines Johnson, who was now president, proclaimed that the civil rights bill that Kennedy had been working on would be passed.

But what did that mean?

On paper it would mean that discrimination on the basis of race was illegal. But what it *actually* meant was that White people, even those in favor of it (in theory), could then argue that everything was now fine. That Black people should stop crying and fighting and "get over" everything, because now things were equal. It meant they'd argue what they'd been arguing, that Black people's circumstances are caused solely by themselves, and if they just worked harder and got educations, they'd succeed. It meant they'd completely ignore the hundreds of years of head starts White people

Fig. 26.1 Sample collaborative annotation. *Note* Phrasal verb discussion in *Stamped: Racism, Antiracism, and You: A Remix*, 2020. Rhodes-Crowell (2020)

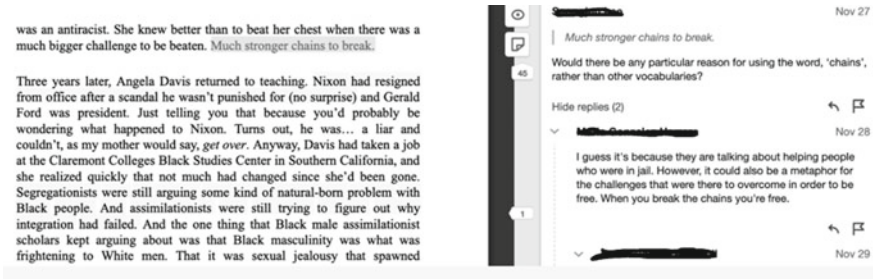


Fig. 26.2 Sample collaborative annotation. *Note* Responses to word selection and metaphor in *Stamped: Racism, Antiracism, and You: A Remix*. Rhodes-Crowell (2020)

Racism, Antiracism, and You: A Remix to make sense of these issues and the historical information in the text as seen in Fig. 26.2.

One reason for the course redesign is that upon arrival to US academic institutions, transnational students may have limited understanding of and exposure to US history of race relations and the reverberating effects in society through racist and antiracist acts and ideologies. At the same time, students may be subjected to these ideologies and many welcome the opportunity to learn and relate to their own lived experience. The collaborative annotation helped students negotiate a new culture (Rhodes, 2022) and the larger theme of the course. Students noted the success they had in their own writing due to collaborative annotation and opportunities for dialogue (Rhodes, 2022)—students could function within the contact zone where negotiations are critical.

Letter Writing

Another important course component is constructing a traditional letter to the students to offer revision comments and to encourage dialogism during the revising and editing phase. In addition, upon submission of the final draft, students also construct a letter back to the professor that can be submitted as an audio or video file, traditional letter, and other possibilities to account for student preference. The letter is a time for students to deconstruct the revising and editing process and decision-making in rhetorical moves in hopes of exploring student identity and variation in standard academic English. Students also respond to whether or not they were able to retain their voice and identity in the paper assignment. The letter is an exercise in understanding student choices, logic, and connections and is submitted with the final draft (Rhodes, 2022).

The research data validate the value of negotiation and the opportunity for students to explain unconventional uses of language while attempting to communicate how their lived experiences influence their writing (Rhodes, 2022).

Literacy Autoethnography

With the consideration of research data and theories put into practical recommendations, included was a literacy autoethnography and other papers around the theme of dominant narratives and single stories. Courses that bring in pertinent and contemporary conversations while also studying word choice, collocations, genre expectations, and grammar are particularly engaging for students (Caplan & Johns, 2019; Rhodes, 2022). Literacy autoethnographies allow students to draw on their lived experience and educational path as relates to their linguistic and cultural identity, and many discuss how their bilingualism/multilingualism has or has not brought about cultural capital within academic and personal situations (Park, 2010; Rhodes, 2022; Wang, 2020). Rather than teaching a generic model such as the five-paragraph essay, navigating genres and discourse within intellectual contemporary topics can form a foundation for praxis that is not often seen in advanced ESOL courses (Rhodes, 2022).

Students started with the literacy autoethnography as a way to create investment and for the course to explicitly highlight the value of multilingualism. Bringing linguistic and cultural identity into an assignment as students navigate genre demands helped set the tone for the course and for the future where students will have to write increasingly more complex academic writing assignments. In student survey responses, 42% of student respondents feel their preferred language is not valued in environments where English is privileged. Faculty and staff survey respondents felt they could include some of their linguistic resources into academic English writing, 51% do not feel their preferred language is valued in environments where English is privileged and 40% do not feel like their cultural background is valued in environments where English is privileged, so the course valued linguistic and cultural backgrounds through intentional design of assignments that purposefully set the tone for multilingualism in ESOL classes.

Wang (2020) explained the literacy autoethnography assignment where students were asked about their education and experience with writing and linguistic identity. Genre was explored through a corpus and sample papers and the class watched several TED (Technology, Education, and Design) Talks such as Boushnak's *For These Women, Reading is a Daring Act* (2014), Adichie's *Danger of a Single Story* (2009), and Talhouk's *Don't Kill Your Language* (2012), and read Douglass's chapter on literacy in *Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass, an American Slave* (Douglass, 1845) to prepare students to think about the power of language, language identity, and the damage of single story narratives. Students wrote about their multilingual path, English academic writing, their level of investment in the process, and the results with a serious reflection on the current status of their language abilities within ESOL courses and general content courses. Many students also noted the role of family in the development of language abilities and the conflict between home and academic linguistic transitions (Rhodes, 2022; Wang, 2020).

Students in the course reflected on the literacy autoethnography assignment and how it was the first time they thought about and analyzed their identity and that the

يقول الله -تبارك وتعالى: وَإِذَا سَأَلَكَ عِبَادِي عَنِّي فَإِنِّي قَرِيبٌ أُجِيبُ دَعْوَةَ الدَّاعِ إِذَا دَعَانِ فَلْيَسْتَجِيبُوا لِي وَلْيُؤْمِنُوا بِي
لَعَلَّهُمْ يَرْشُدُونَ

And when My servants ask you, [O Muhammad], concerning Me – indeed I am near. I (2:186)
respond to the invocation of the supplicant when he calls upon Me. So let them respond to Me
[by obedience] and believe in Me that they may be [rightly] guided

Fig. 26.3 Included student text in the literacy autoethnography

人生山あり谷あり、ただ日々生きることを誇りに思いたい。

There are mountains and valleys in life, I want to be proud of living each day

Fig. 26.4 Student proverb use in the literacy autoethnography

assignment carried extra personal value for them. Other students commented that the paper was a great exercise in self-reflection and to deepen concepts of language, identity, and privilege and how these are seen in their own lives. Several students, Figs. 26.3 and 26.4, included some aspect of their preferred language and cultural background into their autoethnography.

Digital Narratives and a Multilingual Digital Story Map

Other course assignments that helped bring in linguistic identity include multimodal composition as seen by digital narratives and a multilingual digital story map where students can write their entry in their preferred language and in English while also utilizing images to share part of themselves. Multimodal composition is cited as being incredibly valuable to multilingual learners, and the inclusion of semiotic resources can help build on students' existing cultural and linguistic schemata (Norton, 2010). Digital narratives can include multilingual entries and semiotic resources and may be more representative of variations in language and ideas (Rhodes, 2022; Wang, 2020). Figure 26.5 represents cover images of a student who converted her literacy autoethnography to a digital narrative form.

Digital narratives may be more flexible in representing culture and in fact, "a multimodal approach to academic literacies offers students the opportunity to experiment with a range of genres for presenting academic argument" (Huang & Archer, 2017, p. 67; Rhodes, 2022).

The construction of a multilingual digital story map in which students write their entry in their L1 and English and work both on identity representation and academic English is an example of classroom pedagogy valuing multilingualism. The digital

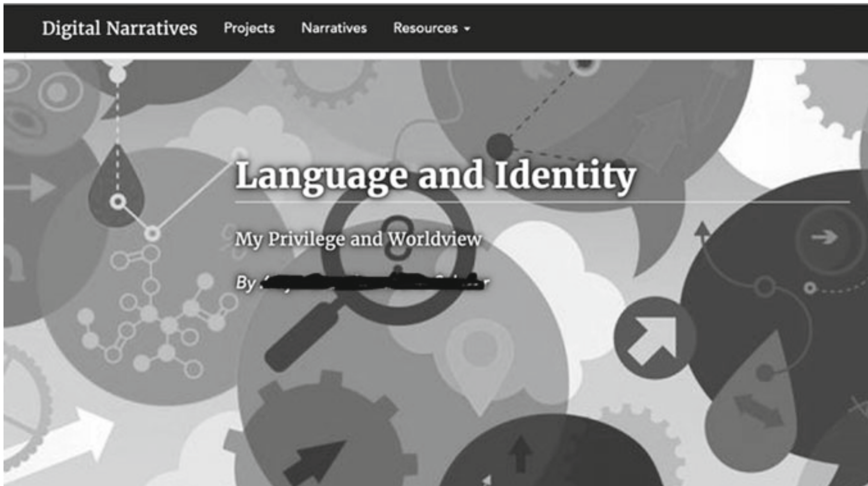


Fig. 26.5 Student digital narrative cover image. *Note* Rhodes-Crowell (2020)

map literacy project is about how students choose to represent themselves (Kim, 2016) and share their multilingual/multicultural identity by creating a page on the class map. The project gives students permission to use their preferred language along with English and prioritizes identity and student backgrounds. A link to the project and entries is provided in the appendices.

Conclusion

The research is clear that what instructors do in instructional design matters for multilingual writing success and investment. Treating students as "agentive, shuttling creatively between discourses to achieve their communicative objectives" is a goal of the academic English classroom (Canagarajah, 2006a, p. 591). A student in the advanced ESOL course reflected on the assignments where she noted her interest in the expectation that students negotiate with concepts while also practicing higher and lower order skill building (Rhodes, 2022).

Instructors who value the multilingual voice and explicitly state this in both instruction and assessment will start to create a classroom where student investment develops as students work to become part of a vibrant transnational community of language users as seen in many multilingual countries. Students notice explicit support and value of their linguistic and cultural backgrounds, yet this is a developed mindset, a habit of mind, that must be cultivated with instructors.

When instructors do not underestimate the importance of other languages in English writing instruction and show interest in students' languages with explicit encouragement to use their preferred language in writing, investment in academic

English writing may take place. Improved communication skills treat multiple languages as assets (Canagarajah, 2009), and instructors should be prepared to encourage co-construction of meaning, pursue investment in language building, and view literacy as a social act (Canagarajah & Matsumoto, 2017) in which students function within a contact zone (Rhodes, 2022). In her final course letter, one student noted:

> Finally, *Stamped* clearly became a book that I will never forget. Not only was it fascinating to read, but the interaction of everyone through our comments made it feel as if we will all present in the same room. On a more personal level, your class will remain in my heart for an important reason: it helped me improve my command of the English language in a way that I had never experienced before.

Appendix

https://www.stlawu.edu/scholar/global-student-scholars.

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Part VI
Teacher Development for Multilingual TESOL

If, as García (2009, p. 5) states, "bilingual education is the only way to educate children in the twenty-first century," then all teachers must be prepared to both advance the plurilingual competencies of students and teach students with different home language practices and bilingual abilities. The seven chapters in this part of the volume will focus on how the principles of multilingualism/plurilingualism provide essential foundations for our TESOL teacher education programs and later inform not only our discipline but the curriculum and pedagogical knowledge within our field.

TESOL teacher training programs often attempt to situate the teaching of English within a framework of multilingualism, which promotes both the strong maintenance of the L1 and a flexible approach to the use of the students' full linguistic repertoire in the classroom. Student teachers often find it easy to accept these arguments on a theoretical level, but report uncertainty about how to work with them in practice. In this chapter, **Fiona Willans** puts forward a framework to help teachers determine when the language of the classroom is serving as the target language and when the language of the classroom is being used for a range of other purposes. It is the premise of this chapter that there is every reason to draw on the resources of the full linguistic repertoire and distinguishing between the target language and lesson frame should help teachers make decisions that are grounded in the principles of second language learning.

The focus of **Mohammad A. Manasreh's** chapter is on the role that Program Administrators (PAs) play in facilitating adaptations for teachers in multilingual contexts, but also in providing TESOL learners with learning opportunities that encapsulate their cultural values and native languages. TESOL Program Administrators face huge challenges while striving to carry out their expected duties and live up to the expectations of their colleagues. In this chapter, Manasreh aims to provide insights about the common cultural and educational challenges faced by PAs in the local Qatari context and the strategies employed to address them based on the author's six-year experience as Head of Department at one of the biggest TESOL units in the Middle East. The discussion of these challenges will hopefully resonate with similar

experiences in other TESOL contexts and provide answers that may help current and future PAs.

Despite the increased acknowledgment of multilingualism in the United States, TESOL teacher education courses remain non-inclusive of many languages spoken by multilingual learners. Instead, they focus mainly on the study of the English language system. In the case study described in the next chapter, **Tuba Angay-Crowder and colleagues** put forward the need for heteroglossia in a US TESOL teacher preparation program. More specifically, they explore how pre-service teachers (PSTs) responded to translanguaging pedagogy in a TESOL education course. Using data collected through course assignments and interviews with PSTs, the findings showed that PSTs embraced translanguaging in multiple ways that reflected heteroglossic perspectives in education. This study has implications for teacher-educators, curriculum developers, and language teachers who grapple with bringing multilingualism to the center of TESOL that has traditionally privileged English-only.

The context of the study described in the next chapter is India where the use of English has resulted in a widespread public demand for more access to English within public-school education. As such, many Indian state governments have introduced English in all regional medium primary schools. The early introduction of English, while perceived as essential, is also problem-ridden. **Mahananda Pathak** describes the challenges with this scenario and makes a case for improvement by reporting on the efforts to explore the ways of developing the knowledge base of primary school teachers with the help of a mixture of home and school language-based instructional practices such as the use of a cross-lingual discussion, parallel tasks, and the creation of bilingual lessons with clear methodological guidelines. Such practices are developed with a spirit of L1 inclusivity within the task-based language teaching framework.

In the next chapter, **Johanna Ennser-Kananen and her colleagues** bring together critical perspectives on the position of English in Finnish society and in the world with data and experiences from a Finnish teacher education context. Through their research, they show how pre-service English teachers reflect on their experiences as multilingual language users and future educators and interpret these data from a focus group interview against the backdrop of the position of English in Finland and the larger context of TESOL. Their results show that language awareness and cultural sensitivity are normalized and familiar ideas to the students and could support an effort to challenge images of Finns as white and Finnish speaking. This could in turn normalize an image of Finland that is racially and linguistically diverse and promote pedagogies and materials that support teachers in dismantling whiteness and Finnish-speakerism as social and educational norms.

Multilingualism, or its more recent variation, plurilingualism, underscores the strong recognition of the multiple languages and varieties of language in any speech community. At the same time, the multiple language and cultural backgrounds of language teachers are acknowledged as an asset for professional practice. It is the premise of this chapter by **Robyn Cox and her colleagues** that TESOL

teacher education programs need to critically engage with this turn to multilingualism/plurilingualism to effectively prepare student teachers. Set in the context of Australian higher education, the authors describe a program that has incorporated emerging theoretical and empirical findings around multilingualism/plurilingualism into the program design, delivery, and assessment of their TESOL Teacher Education programs to prepare students to work in a variety of educational contexts.

In the last chapter of this volume, **Ribut Wahyudi** elaborates on his translanguaging practices in an "Introduction to Applied Linguistics" course in Indonesia. Through detailed descriptions, he makes a case for translanguaging practice as a favorable tool for dismantling dominant concepts in an English-only classroom. His research reveals that translanguaging, as confirmed by students, creates a more liberating space for students as English was no longer a "barrier" in the classroom. This suggests that translanguaging not only theoretically but practically creates a space for social justice. Even though constrained in the online environment, teaching and learning through translanguaging have remained meaningful for both the lecturer and the students. From a personal perspective, the author reports that it not only supported his agency, emotions, and affirmed his identity, but it also enhanced his students' comprehension.

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Chapter 27
Separating the Target Language from the Lesson Frame: Helping Teachers Make Informed Decisions About When They Should and Shouldn't Make English Teaching Multilingual

Fiona Willans

Abstract Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) teacher training programs often attempt to situate the teaching of English within a framework of dynamic multilingualism, which promotes both the strong maintenance of the mother tongue and a flexible approach to the use of the full linguistic repertoire in the classroom. Student teachers find it easy to accept these arguments on a theoretical level, but report uncertainty about how to work with them in practice. By listening to them talk about classroom practice, we realize that many student teachers apply a crude all-or-nothing binary to their pedagogical decision-making around the use of languages other than English. There is limited nuance to their considerations about when, and for what purposes, to use languages other than the target language of English. This chapter therefore puts forward a framework to help teachers determine when the language of the classroom is serving as the target language, in which case English needs to be used to a sufficient extent to achieve the language learning goal; and when the language of the classroom is being used for a range of other purposes that may include explanation, brainstorming, task extension, reflection, strategy development, and classroom management, in which case there is every reason to draw on the resources of the full linguistic repertoire. Distinguishing between target language and lesson frame should help teachers make decisions that are grounded in principles of second language learning.

Introduction

This chapter draws on experience gained as a teacher educator in the highly multilingual Pacific. Across this region, English fulfills a complex role as a language of regional, and sometimes national, communication. It is the former colonial language in many countries and therefore the principal medium of instruction in the education

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system, sometimes even right from the start of primary school. It is increasingly being learnt at home as a dominant first language, although it is still the second language for most children across the region. The University of the South Pacific's postgraduate diploma in Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching, taken predominantly by experienced English teachers, therefore attempts to situate the teaching of English within a framework of dynamic multilingualism, which promotes both the strong maintenance of the mother tongue and a flexible approach to the use of the full linguistic repertoire in the classroom.

Teachers who join the program can be broadly categorized into three groups in terms of their response to this framing. One group is immediately open to the argument that the mother tongue should hold a far stronger role throughout the education system, both seduced by the possibilities of imagined multilingualism, and worn down by the knowledge that the current submersion system is not working. Some members of this group jump so swiftly to embrace languages other than English that they struggle with the very idea of using English at all. The second group appears to see a pro-multilingualism stance as a justification for what they already do—using languages other than English whenever their students cannot cope with monolingual English—thereby validating a deficit approach that tolerates, but does not value, other languages. The third group, while taking on board the reasons that languages other than English should find a role in education, appears quite resigned to the way things are, trapped in the belief that, since English proficiency is so highly valued by the education system and job market, there is no real alternative to the status quo.

Discussions held either in person in the classroom or online via asynchronous forums reveal that many student teachers struggle to connect what we have learnt about multilingual possibilities in theory and the realities of their own classroom practice. Anonymized forum extracts from a range of postgraduate diploma courses between 2017 and 2020 are used below to illustrate some of the common discourses that are typical in these discussions.

An Either/or Approach to Language Choice

Among the teachers who embrace an alternative to an English-only model, we find comments such as "it doesn't work at my school to teach in English, so we teach through the vernacular almost all the time;" "I feel so guilty that I've been enforcing English all this time, and I'm relieved to read that it's okay to teach through other languages;" "I wish we were allowed to use our own languages in the classroom, as it would be much more appropriate than using English;" and "I am lucky that I teach at a school where we are allowed to use whichever languages we want to, so this means I don't need to use English too much."

The majority of the teachers fall into the middle group, using our discussions about pedagogical translanguaging to validate what they perceive they are currently doing, with examples such as the following: "I'm glad to read support for code-switching in our course materials, because we know that our weak students don't

understand what we're saying to them unless we do it;" "A few of my little ones are okay when we play games like Simon Says, but most of them don't know English, so I have to translate everything for them, or point to where they need to go, or tell them just to follow the quicker ones;" "Yes, I really support the idea of using the vernacular, especially when we do reading comprehension, because otherwise they don't understand what they're reading about;" and "I have realised over the years that some of them have really good ideas but they don't feel confident saying them in English, so I let them give their ideas in Fijian instead."

Finally, we find a number of comments from teachers who state positive dispositions toward multilingualism, but appear resigned to the fact that English is really the only language that should or can be used: "I do allow students to use multiple languages sometimes, because the slow learners especially find participation easy, but I don't encourage it because, at the end of the day, they need English;" "Yes code-switching has its place, but it must be limited. As soon as they understand, then back to English;" "The reality in my classroom is that the children don't understand, but we have no choice, since that's the way it is;" "About half of my students speak the same first language as me, but I don't speak the L1 of the other half, so it's not fair for me to code-switch for just some of them;" "I know I'm a by-product of this system that has led me to believe that English-only is best, but they won't pass the exams at the end of the year without it;" and "This does not mean that I do not believe that using the L1 to teach is not useful, but I'm bound by a system. Unless that system changes, students will continue to grapple with learning content in their fractured English."

These types of comments often surprise me, because the immediate engagement with the literature around *pedagogical translanguaging* (Probyn, 2015) or *classroom translanguaging* (Lewis et al., 2012a, b), both following Williams (1994), García (2009) and Baker (2011), *purposeful code-switching* (Archila et al., 2021), and *bridging discourses* (Gibbons, 2006; Probyn, 2015), is often lively and more nuanced. Students do seem to pick up on the key points about making pedagogical choices around the different languages. However, when reflecting on their own day-to-day classroom practice, a large number of my students appear to conceptualize a binary between either using English or not using English, without much consideration of how they might use multiple languages together in support of learning English. Whether or not these teachers support the idea of a multilingual classroom, all three groups seem to see such a scenario as a necessary replacement for an English-only alternative rather than a desirable situation in which multiple languages are used "in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner to organise and mediate mental processes in understanding, speaking, literacy, and, not least, learning" (Lewis et al., 2012a, p. 655).

One clear concern that emerges from these discussions is the apparently frequent use of what is effectively translation of target-language material. So, we see a Grade 1 teacher saying that she has to translate or demonstrate the commands of "Simon Says," which suggests that the learning outcome of the activity becomes doing the right actions, rather than learning to respond to commands in the target language.

Of course, there is a place for multilingual and multimodal communication, particularly when explaining how to play the game for the first time, but if the children end up responding only to the translations or visual clues and can ignore the new target linguistic input altogether, the game ceases to be a language learning moment. Similarly, we find teachers throughout secondary school saying that the reading comprehension passages in the textbooks are too hard for many learners in the class, so they go through them orally in other languages to ensure they can understand them. Once again, this suggests that the learning outcome has shifted to knowing what the texts are about, rather than anything to do with developing reading proficiency in the second language. The teacher who allows students to say their ideas in other languages because English is too hard for them is doing something similar, removing the opportunity to try saying a little bit more in the target language.

A second concern is the frequent reference to slow or weak learners who don't yet know English. These students are compared to the few who already do know enough of the language to cope with the tasks. A common concern appears to be that English is seen as a barrier to understanding concepts or content, rather than English being the target language in which all learners need to develop higher levels of proficiency. These types of comments suggest that the English subject is set up for first-language users of English and is not designed with second language learning in mind at all, despite the stated aims at the start of many syllabus documents (Willans, 2018). One experienced teacher in the postgraduate diploma, Evangeline Narayan, was so taken by this realization that the syllabus she had been attempting to teach might not actually be designed for second language learning that she did an in-depth analysis of Fiji's English syllabus for her MA research, titled "In search of principles of second language acquisition in the design and unpacking of Fiji's English syllabus." She concluded that there was no systematic approach to the teaching of language items, no integration between the teaching of different skills, and no language learning outcomes related to the meaningful use of English (Narayan, 2021).

As a result of both participating in these discussions with several cohorts of students and working with Evangeline as her MA supervisor, I have come to realize the importance of grounding class discussion of multilingual classrooms in clear pedagogical principles of second language acquisition. The key point I focus on is that there are times when the language being used in the classroom is serving as the focus of a learning activity, and there are other times when the classroom language is serving as the frame for that learning activity. In other words, English is the target language to be acquired through the English subject, but this does not mean that English is the only language that can be used to support this acquisition. While this may seem self-evident, I have realized that many student teachers struggle to articulate when the classroom language is being studied or practiced, and when it is being used to support that study or practice.

Principles to Guide Practice

In this chapter, I put forward a series of principles that I now use to guide such analysis. These principles draw on Nation's (2007) framework for second language teaching, in which he has argued for a balance between meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development. As Evangeline's supervisor, I watched how she engaged with this framework once she started searching the literature for how she would know whether the Fiji English syllabus appeared to be designed with second language learning in mind. Taking the lead from a graduate of our postgraduate diploma who has clearly found Nation's work helpful (particularly Nation & Macalister, 2010), I have tried to see how the same framework might help other teachers to identify the principles underlying the language choices they make in the classroom.

The conditions that Nation specifies for the meaning-focused input strand are that there is a sufficient amount of input; that the content is interesting enough to engage learners; and that the level of difficulty is such that learners already know the vast majority of the language they are listening to or reading, while they can work out the remainder from context (Nation, 2007). The purpose of the activities in this strand is for learners to focus on meaning—not to decode this meaning through conscious and painstaking effort, but to be able to access the meaning relatively easily. When reading and listening are comfortable, learners can engage with large enough amounts of input to provide the necessary conditions for incidental learning to take place.

The meaning-focused output strand is similar. Sufficient opportunities must be there for speaking and writing; the content about which learners are expected to communicate must be familiar enough to make the scenarios relatable; and learners should know almost all of the language that they need to use to complete the activity (Nation, 2007). The purpose of the activities in this strand is also to focus on meaning, but it is the goal of trying to get meaning across to another person that helps push learners to extend their abilities to use the target language. Learners need to have enough of a foundation in the language to talk and write about whatever the scenario demands, so that the activities are achievable rather than stressful. They will need to search for new words or make corrections and reformulations to ensure their communication is successful, and this process of wanting to get the other person to understand is what stretches the speaking or writing ability to a slightly higher level.

The fluency development strand is in place when learners are entirely familiar with both the content and language required to achieve listening, speaking, reading, or writing tasks, as the focus is on using existing linguistic knowledge more comfortably (Nation, 2007). Meaning is still paramount, but there is pressure to perform the tasks at a faster or more fluent rate while still understanding the content. This is sometimes achieved through repetitions of the same task—literally trying to achieve the same outcome in a shorter timeframe—but it can also be achieved through tasks that are well within learners' comfort zones but completed within a time limit.

Finally, the language-focused learning strand involves the deliberate study of the features of pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse (Nation, 2007). The language features chosen for study should be simple enough that they are within the learners' current grasp; they should be consolidated throughout the input, output, and fluency strands; and they should be revisited at intervals across the course for further deliberate attention rather than ticked off a list once and for all. The idea is that these short, concentrated bursts of language learning can increase the amount of language that learners have ready access to, such that they can handle increasingly harder input and output tasks that continue to be meaningful.

In summary, if roughly equal proportions of time are spent on each of the four strands, as Nation (2007) advocates, then at least three-quarters of the learning time (that spent on the input, output, and fluency strands) require the target language to be used. More specifically, the level of target language used within these activities needs to be well within the learners' grasp, so that the focus remains entirely on meaning or fluency. If a text chosen for an activity is so hard that teachers find themselves translating what it is about, then the conditions are immediately flouted for a meaning-focused or fluency-focused activity, and no language learning can take place. In the remaining quarter of the learning time (devoted to language-focused learning), there will clearly also be significant amounts of the target language presented and practiced, such as lists of new words, or example sentences that demonstrate a grammatical feature.

For successful second language learning to take place, we need to see and hear the target language being used, receptively and productively, for a significant proportion of the time in the classroom. Any discussion of a multilingual approach to the teaching of English must keep this basic point in mind. A multilingual approach to *the teaching of English* requires significant amounts of English to be used. However, a multilingual approach means that other languages can and should be used in addition to (rather than instead of) English, for a variety of purposes.

A Framework for Determining Language Choice in the Classroom

In this final section, I suggest a framework that may help English teachers situate their practice within both an ethos of dynamic multilingualism and some well-established principles of second language acquisition, without getting trapped in unhelpful binaries. I use this framework to help teachers determine when the language of the classroom is serving as the target language, and when it is being used for a range of other purposes.

Before outlining this framework, it is useful to unpack the concept of "target language" a little, since this term is often associated with communicative approaches to language learning that advocate using the target language *only*. It is also associated with the time-on-task argument: the belief that the more time spent using the target

language the better, to the extent that any use of languages other than the target language is seen as a waste of learning time. My use of "target language" here is not intended to align with these views, but it is intended to echo certain aspects of them. In common with proponents of target-language-*only* positions, I believe that the language being learnt does need to be used receptively and productively in order for language learning to be successful. I just do not believe that that fact has any bearing on the question of whether other languages can be used in the classroom too. I consider the target language to be the goal that is to be achieved rather than the means to achieving that goal.

Phase 1: Engagement with New Ideas from the Literature

In the first phase, I am assuming engagement with new ideas from the literature, which in this case is a body of literature focused on multilingualism in the English classroom. Having looked at theoretical support for a dynamic multilingual approach, I then direct teachers to consider the following questions:

- What are the core principles of second language acquisition that we *also* want to engage with? In other words, revisit the fundamental ideas about what we know about the way second languages are learnt.
- What are the conditions for meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, fluency development, and language-focused learning, as set out by Nation (2007)?
- Can I identify any aspects of these core SLA principles that seem either in line with or in opposition to any ideas about taking a multilingual approach to second language teaching?

This phase is all about starting to make connections between theory and practice, but, more importantly, the connections between new theory and other theoretical principles that were previously guiding practice. It is important that novice scholars are supported in synthesizing different bodies of theoretical work, so they are not overwhelmed by what may seem to be incompatible approaches.

Phase 2: Lesson Planning

Teachers carry out some form of lesson planning, so they are encouraged to see this as the second phase of the process. During this phase, they are encouraged to answer the following questions:

- What are the specific language learning outcomes for the lesson?
- Which strand (meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, fluency development, or language-focused learning) does each core activity fit into?

- If it is a meaning-focused input activity, can I identify what comprises the target-language input? (In other words, what exactly will the learners be reading or listening to?) Is this written or oral input (a) interesting, and (b) of an appropriate level so that my learners will either know or be able to work out very easily all of the language; and am I asking my learners to read or listen to this input for a meaningful purpose?
- If it is a meaning-focused output activity, can I identify what comprises the target-language output? (In other words, what exactly will the learners be writing or saying?) Will this written or oral output be (a) based on a familiar or relatable context and (b) of an appropriate level so that my learners will either know or be able to substitute very easily all of the language they need to complete the task; and am I asking my learners to communicate for a meaningful purpose?
- If it is a fluency development activity, can I identify the target-language input or output that learners will be trying to achieve more comfortably or quickly? (In other words, what exactly will the learners be trying to read, listen to, write or say with greater fluency in the activity?) Is this input or output entirely familiar to the learners so that they can focus completely on fluency?
- If it is a language-focused activity, can I identify the target-language feature that will form the focus? (In other words, which are the sounds, vocabulary items, grammatical structures or discourse features that I expect the learners to learn?) Is this target-language feature within the learners' current grasp?

Having answered the relevant questions, depending on the nature of the activities being planned, teachers will have identified either a text or a language feature for each activity in the target language of English. This is the core of the learning activity, and it has an important role to play in the learning process. It provides the target language (or stipulates the target language that learners will produce) that is necessary for the activity to be successful. Provided that they have been chosen appropriately, there will be no need to translate any of the input or output texts, so these will be in English. The target features for language-focused activities will also be in English, potentially accompanied by translations if being introduced for the first time.

The purpose of this phase is for teachers to articulate which elements of the learning activity form the target language and to articulate the reason behind those elements always being in English.

Phase 3: Lesson Actualization

The lesson itself forms the middle phase of the process. This is where the language choices are made as the lesson comes to life in real ways. As teachers are teaching, they should start to become more conscious of these choices and be able to articulate when English is needed (to fulfill its role as the target-language component of a core learning activity) and when any language or combination of languages may work well within the frame of those activities.

What I am referring to as the lesson frame here may include what happens immediately before or after the core part of a learning activity (a pre-task or post-task), and it also includes what happens during a learning activity (such as instructions, explanations, classroom management, and asides). It is a broad term that encompasses everything other than the target-language input or output. Arthur (1996) has used the terms “on stage” and “backstage” to describe the way teachers and pupils in Botswana distinguish “between ‘doing lessons’ and talking about them,” with English sanctioned as the on-stage language, and Setswana the backstage language. This description mirrors what many of my student teachers tell me about trying to teach (or “do lessons”) in English, but then switching to another language when meaning breaks down. However, I am attempting here to differentiate more subtly between just the target-language elements of the lessons, and everything else that might be part of the frame, including learning activities that might support the core language learning outcomes. For example, a lesson that contains a meaning-focused output activity (in which we need the learners to produce the output in English) may start with a multilingual activity that generates meaningful ideas that can feed into the task. Similarly, a language-focused learning activity that is focused on a particular grammatical structure (which must, by definition, be a feature of English) can easily be conducted multilingually, including explanations and task instructions in languages other than English. For me, the crucial point is understanding that English is needed because it is the target language being learnt, rather than anything to do with it being the only appropriate language for school purposes.

By thinking about these questions during both the planning and reflection stages, teachers should become better at making clear choices. Questions we can imagine teachers asking in the here-and-now of lessons are:

- What are we doing right now? Is this a learning activity? If so, what is the target-language element that I have already identified? (Recap: This is the target language, so we need to hear or see English in the classroom.)
- What else is going on in the frame of this lesson activity (e.g., pre-task, post-task, instructions, explanations, classroom management, asides)? What is my goal here? Am I trying to ensure understanding? Am I building solidarity? Are we brainstorming creative ideas? Are we reflecting on how something went?
- Which language(s) make sense in this moment? (Note: English can have a role to play, even when it is not the target language of a task, but it is not the only option available.)
- How do I know when the activity has started? Do I have a good way of transitioning to and from a target-language focus and a lesson frame?
- Am I expecting something different from normal with language use? If so, how will I set the expectations in a manageable way? (e.g., If I want to try a more concerted focus on the target language, will I set a very short time limit for an activity, and then challenge my learners to try it in English before immediately switching back to our more familiar language to reflect? If I want to welcome other languages into the activity but am aware that this will be a marked strategy, will

I need to make any decisions about who is working with whom, before starting the activity?)

In this phase, teachers get to make conscious decisions about what they are doing and why. They stay ahead of the code choices, rather than falling back on alternatives when the target language does not work. They know why they are using certain languages, and they know when to hold their ground with using English, and when things would make more sense in other languages.

Phase 4: Lesson Reflection

Once the lesson has finished, teachers are encouraged to reflect on what happened. They are encouraged to ask questions, such as:

- Were the specific language learning outcomes met? How do I know?
- Did learners appear interested in the target-language texts that were used for input, output, and fluency activities? Did they appear to be communicating for meaningful purposes? Did any learners appear either bored or frustrated?
- Did the activities break down at all? If so, can I identify any conditions that appeared to be flouted, such as too many unfamiliar vocabulary items in the reading passage, or a fluency activity that we did not manage to do in the time that had been allocated? Was this a planning issue (e.g., poor choice of text) or was it an actualization issue (e.g., I did not do a good job of setting the time expectations and did not know what to do when I saw how slowly the learners were reading)?
- Very approximately, how much of the target language was used, and how much were other languages used? Did we keep to English for the target-language elements of the learning activities? Which languages were used to frame the learning activities?
- Were there any classroom moments where I noticed that the language choices were particularly successful or unsuccessful? (For example, did we switch out of English because meaning broke down, or did we bring in other languages as a way of taking our discussion to a much more interesting place?)
- What can I do now? Are there any issues with prescribed materials that are preventing good language learning and, if so, what concrete suggestions can I make to people who are able to support change, and what specific rationale will I give for these changes? Can I buddy up with another teacher for peer observation and reflection, and see if we can identify helpful episodes from our classrooms that are worth exploring further?

It is hard to stipulate exactly which questions teachers will need to ask of every lesson, but, as they gain more experience, they will learn to focus their reflection on differentiating the target language from the lesson frame. They will learn to think more deeply about whether they were using English for the elements that they had identified as target language and then become more conscious of what other languages

are being used for. They are also pushed to articulate reasons for things that do not work well, always keeping core second language acquisition principles in mind.

Phase 5: Re-engagement with New Ideas from the Literature

The final phase brings teachers back to the first step, re-engaging with the ideas from the literature about multilingualism. Now that they have had a chance to try out some learning activities, and articulate the principles behind their language choices, they are more ready to think about what the literature suggests about dynamic multilingual practice. Hopefully, they will have moved beyond an either/or binary between English and other languages and will have started to make conscious decisions that are based on the difference between target language and lesson frame.

This phase is about connecting practice back to theory, essentially re-starting the process again with the first set of questions from Phase 1.

Conclusion

Teachers need to make explicit choices about what the purpose is of the language being used in each classroom moment. The only way to make judicious decisions about whether English or other languages should be used is to know what the purpose is of whatever it is they are currently doing. This is not to suggest that all code choices are planned in advance, and then followed rigidly, but teachers need to make conscious decisions about which language(s) will work best in the moment, in order to achieve the outcomes of the activity. These decisions should be driven by principles of second language acquisition, rather than by colonially rooted feelings about what is appropriate or acceptable in the classroom.

If we find ourselves using other languages in order to survive the lesson, then the activities we have planned are not appropriate, and we are missing the language learning opportunity. While many advocates of target-language-only classrooms would say that flooding learners with the target language will provide the optimum conditions for language learning, it is clear that, if this flood is too strong, learners will simply be swept away in the current without learning anything. It makes more sense to differentiate between the moments in which the classroom language is being used as the target language (in which case English *must* be used) and when it is being used as the lesson frame (in which case English *may* be used, but there are so many other options available).

While promoting a dynamic multilingual framework for English teaching, it is crucial to keep in mind that English is still the target language and therefore needs to be used prominently in language learning activities. Not only will this help keep language teaching in line with principles of second language acquisition, but it will also reassure policymakers and other stakeholders such as parents. Such stakeholders

are often concerned that the use of languages other than English will lead to outcomes other than English learning. Conversations about multilingual English classrooms need to make sure they mention "English" as well as "multilingualism."

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Chapter 28
Program Administration Challenges and Initiatives in the Burgeoning Multilingual TESOL Contexts

Mohammad Manasreh

Abstract Multilingualism has become a reality in the current Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) scene where thousands of TESOL practitioners are relocating every year from their native countries to new contexts all over the world. Teachers' exposure to different languages and cultures in these contexts necessitates adaptations to their attitudes, pedagogy, and leadership skills to operate effectively. Program administrators (PAs), in particular, have a key role not only in facilitating these adaptations for teachers, but also in providing TESOL learners with learning opportunities that encapsulate their cultural values and native languages' intricacies. Contrary to the common conceptions, TESOL PAs face huge challenges while striving to carry out their expected duties and live up to the expectations of their colleagues. This chapter aims to provide insights about the common cultural and educational challenges faced by PAs in the local Qatari context and the strategies employed to address them based on the author's six-year experience as Head of Department at one of the biggest TESOL units in the Middle East. The discussion of these challenges will hopefully resonate with similar experiences in other TESOL contexts and provide answers that may help current and future PAs.

Introduction

The emerging multilingual mosaic in the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) dynamic landscape has posed new challenges for leaders (Asmani & Wiharja, 2017; McGee et al., 2015; Raza et al., 2021; Shah, 2019; Stephenson, 2018), who are often TESOL teachers with a leadership role, ranging from relocating logistics and cultural adaptation to curriculum efficacy and class scheduling. These challenges are further complicated by factors like the marginalized institutional status of TESOL units in many contexts (Asmani & Wiharja, 2017; McGee et al., 2015), the involvement of different stakeholders in the TESOL profession (e.g., teachers, learners, and society), and the expectation to generate revenue in

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some cases (Eaton, 2017; McGee et al., 2015). As a result, program administration has become a demanding responsibility that is not limited only to the leadership model but also encompasses linguistic, cultural, and educational perspectives (Raza, 2021).

In many TESOL contexts, program administrators (PAs) are expected to oversee recruitment, conduct appraisals, address student issues, set unit goals and key performance indicators (KPIs), manage professional development (PD), lead curriculum projects, and liaise with institutional higher administrations. Despite the usual academic job titles of PAs in TESOL units, these responsibilities require skills and competencies that are not provided in pre-service teacher education programs (Shah, 2017) and not very often enhanced through in-service PD.

The resemblance in leadership roles and stakeholder expectations in the TESOL field around the world has resulted in shared challenges commonly faced by PAs in different TESOL units. Therefore, it is hoped that the discussion of some local challenges, mainly faced by the administrations of TESOL units in higher education institutions in Qatar, will shed light on possible transferable ideas and provide insightful answers to colleagues in other contexts.

Overview of Program Administration in the Qatari Context

The Middle Eastern State of Qatar is home to a large number of national and foreign higher education institutions including American, British, Canadian, French, and Dutch, which presents the small nation as an example of an emerging global educational site of "linguistic super-diversity" (Hillman & Ocampo Eibenschutz, 2018; Nebel, 2017). However, English is the medium of instruction in most of these institutions with each, or sometimes as a block, having a TESOL unit that offers pathway courses (Al-Hendawi et al., 2018) to assist students matriculate into their major colleges. The demographic composition of faculty and student populations in these units is multicultural and multilingual, which is reflective of the culturally diverse Qatari society (Vora, 2018).

PAs in Qatari TESOL units are comparable in structure, governance, and practice. These units are generally structured as departments, programs, or academic bridges affiliated with a college, a deanship, or directly with the institution's higher management. The missions and visions of these units are rooted in the wider institutional versions and based on serving client colleges, or departments, through ongoing needs analysis and curriculum adaptation. The main authority in governance is either a head of department (HoD) or a director who is expected to implement and support the institution's mission and goals. Instructors in the unit report directly to the head of department/director who plays a bridging role between instructors on the one hand and HR and the higher management on the other hand. The HoD/Director has a status of an academic administrator and is often one of the instructors who has a TESOL degree without any formal qualifications in management. The main common responsibilities for a unit head include hiring, overseeing curriculum, task

and workload allocation, instructors' appraisal, and handling student issues. Most higher education institutions in Qatar require a master's degree in the field (TESOL, English language teaching [ELT], or applied linguistics) to be considered a candidate for employment along with three, or two, years of experience in a similar context. However, a bachelor's degree with a DELTA can be accepted in some tertiary-level units. In most organizational structures, TESOL units within larger higher education institutions are classified as teaching units and their instructors are not expected to produce research as part of their contract renewals, albeit their teaching workload is often 60–100% higher than colleagues holding research track positions.

Qatar University (QU) is the country's main national university of ten colleges. It offers a variety of undergraduate and postgraduate degrees to more than 22,000 students on two, gender-segregated campuses (Al-Hendawi et al., 2018). The university's TESOL courses are offered by an ELT Department within the Foundation Program (FP), which employs more than 145 full-time faculty members and 15 non-academic administrative staff. QU students have to take two to six of the 16 different courses offered by the department based on their academic stream, college affiliation, and IELTS score. The reflective account in this chapter is based on the author's role as the HoD between 2015 and 2021 and informed by his professional relations with peers at similar units in the local context.

Program Administration Challenges in the Local Context

Among the variety of challenges faced by PAs in the local context, managing cultural diversity effectively, and politically correctly, stands out as a shared concern across the spectrum. Arguably multiculturalism is intertwined with multilingualism in TESOL where (bi)multilingual practitioners often come from multiple nationalities and cultural backgrounds. Recruitment decisions in local institutions are based on TESOL qualifications and classroom preparedness rather than the mother tongue or cultural identity. For instance, faculty in the TESOL department at Qatar University come from 40+ nationalities, which is similar to other TESOL units in the country (Lusail University, Community College of Qatar, Qatar Foundation's Academic Bridge, etc.)

Effective teachers are those who are culturally adaptive and can integrate into the host culture (Raza & Coombe, 2020). However, as cultural diversity brings a wealth of resources to the institution in terms of pedagogy, learning models, and skills, it may also result in a potential struggle to adapt to a new working environment different from one's own, and to adapt from previous pedagogical and cultural perceptions that may not fit the new context. This personal struggle, which might be invisible to PAs, could have implications on areas like curriculum design, teaching methods, and self-image. Anecdotally, two areas can be immediately affected, i.e., teachers' communication with colleagues and their contribution to the positive learning experience of their learners. Therefore, PAs, who assume a comprehensive role in most local institutions, should play a key role by demonstrating their own cultural understanding and through

facilitating their teachers' adaptation efforts. PAs have a moral and administrative duty to introduce new hires to the local contexts' multicultural and multilingual ins and outs prior to relocation and during the initial orientation stage. In many cases, teachers' rutted path of adaptation is a result of poor management of their relocation phase by their new administration. In a similar vein, lack of PAs' cultural awareness and vigilance could result in dire consequences in the workplace such as distrust, low morale, fluid loyalty, and broken communication channels (Raza et al., 2021). Similarly, TESOL practitioners' awareness of the linguistic background of their learners is a critical adaptation tool. Arabic, being a Semitic language, is inherently different from Indo-European English. When Arab students learn English, they learn a new linguistic system different from their native language, which is written from right to left, with only six vowel sounds, fixed pattern of stress, no capital letters, and only three tenses. While TESOL practitioners are not expected to learn Arabic, their familiarity with these difficulties will help them address potential issues related to L1-L2 interference and prepare more relevant lessons.

The second common challenge in the local context is how PAs can, and should, address student needs and interests. The student population in most TESOL units is diverse both culturally and academically as higher education student intakes come from three main categories of high schools in Qatar, i.e., international English-speaking schools, public and private Arabic schools that follow the ministry curriculum, and community schools that follow the national curriculum of their home country. This variety of student academic backgrounds can negatively impact the TESOL classroom in higher education units with extreme mixed-ability language competencies in the same cohort, and heterogeneous classrooms that are not properly accommodated.

In addition to the linguistic factor, student multiculturalism often poses an administrative challenge to capture their voice and address their needs. Since students have different learning styles and assorted expectations from the institution and their instructors, they tend to employ various methods to express and pursue these needs. Their expectations can also be influenced by their status, i.e., fee-paying or non-fee-paying. PAs have a service provider-stakeholder relationship with students rather than instructor-learner that puts them in an accountable position to attend to their requests, needs, and complaints. Among others, common student needs that are usually handled by PAs include transfer and override requests, academic suspension appeals, course equivalency, behavior cases, cheating incidents, make-up requests, academic disputes, and issues pertaining to support services. Since most units conduct regular reporting on student satisfaction and retention statistics, PAs could find themselves beleaguered to pre-emptively address these issues, which may take up a significant share of their working hours and the unit's administrative resources. In addition, the administration's stance on student issues may not be consistent with teachers' expectations at times, which leaves PAs between the stakeholders' hammer and the anvil of their own colleagues.

Another observed challenge is related to competence and the lack of pathways that offer specialized training to prepare potential PAs for the demands of the job and the TESOL field. As noted by Eaton (2017), "ESL program directors are often

ill-prepared to take on management roles" (p. 14). In the local context, PAs, who are mostly men, are hired as classroom teachers in the first place and are later promoted to a management position in lieu of workload reduction/monthly allowance, or both. Hence, they do not often have formal management qualifications, or even prior experience in some cases. This lack of a formal management career pathway poses an operational challenge for PAs when they are assigned tasks like budget preparation, developing marketing and business plans, crafting health and safety policies, managing buildings and facilities, funding and sponsor hunting, non-academic staff evaluation and induction, client [colleges] needs analysis, mission and vision review, ensuring legal requirements, supplier and vendor evaluation, conducting SWOT analysis, and setting governance models.

Fluidity in the organizational structure is another common and obscure challenge for PAs. Although institutions have job descriptions for leadership positions, these job descriptions are not always compatible with their volatile daily duties and mutable responsibilities. As noted earlier, PAs have a carte blanche authority over a variety of issues, and they adopt different approaches and styles when implementing this authority and executing their responsibilities. Consequently, the management culture in TESOL units becomes interweaved with the leadership style of who is in charge and may change drastically when a new unit head takes over. When such a scenario takes place, it is inevitable that the unit's priorities, projects, and morale are negatively, or positively, affected. However, the unit's accumulated management experience is lost in the process.

The last challenge this chapter discusses is relevant to the integration of technology. Although technology has reshaped how we design and deliver lessons globally and more visibly in the Qatari context (Manasreh, 2014, 2018), this value has not yet been realized for academic administrators. Generally speaking, the utilization of technology in local institutions by PAs to facilitate the routine duties and solve administrative problems is still facing numerous obstacles. One of the main reasons is the lack of software specifically designed for academic administration on the market. Unlike the business sector where managers often use one platform for all their business needs, PAs in local institutions have to juggle multiple applications for tasks like attendance, appraisal, HR, finance, student complaints, scheduling, archiving, and student progress data. This variety of outlets along with the required training to use each of them is inconvenient and may result in underutilization and unconscious resistance. In addition, technological proficiency is not usually a key selection factor when recruiting a new PA.

How the Current Program Administration Challenges Are Addressed

Despite facing these common challenges, TESOL units in the local context differ in how they address them. Among other considerations, their responses are typically

based on the prevailing management culture in the unit and the perceived significance of these issues by the unit's head. Unfortunately, such solutions and mitigation actions are not usually documented in a formal arrangement. Hence, the accounts below are based on anecdotal data and interactions with other peers in these units.

When managing cultural diversity, units mainly seek to raise awareness about tolerance and understanding during their induction programs and through their internal communication, e.g., weekly memos. New hires are often assigned a mentor prior to their arrival with cultural adaptation on the agenda, and in some cases, they are given a lighter schedule in the first semester to help facilitate relocation and reduce cultural anxiety. Sometimes, the same cultural challenge may be addressed differently. An example of adopting different approaches to the same problem is the discussion of topics related to cultural differences, which are tolerated in some workplaces to foster understanding and disapproved of in other places to avoid misunderstanding without a clear rationale for each approach. Similarly, social events, like field trips and social gatherings, can be encouraged in some units to nurture collegiality and foster networking and discouraged in others because they are deemed outside the unit's professional remit. Nonetheless, most TESOL units seem to agree in their policies that the local culture should be reflected in the curriculum, and sensitive cultural themes, or practices, should be avoided in a professional setting. Initiatives to offer Arabic lessons to non-Arabic speaking faculty are not unusual in the local TESOL units. These courses are often offered by bilingual colleagues on voluntary basis or by a continuing education section. In addition, linguistic awareness is also promoted through linguistic tips in the units' weekly memos and other internal communication venues.

By the same token, addressing student needs and issues is also wide-ranging. Students' voice can be valued, and regular need analyses are conducted to identify their preferences in some workplaces or ignored and considered ineligible to reflect on curriculum and teaching quality in others. With regard to student complaints about performance issues related to their instructors, two main practices can also be observed; either to keep these complaints confidential and handle them in general terms with the instructor or to share the full details and play the mediator role between both parties. However, TESOL units seem to share some common practices relevant to student needs including holding open days with students, conducting entry and exit exams, listening to student complaints and sometimes having a system and dedicated staff for this, staying up-to-date and responsive to student social media feeds, providing extra academic support, running student satisfaction surveys, and promoting extracurricular activities. Finally, most higher education institutions have a student representative body, with different authority levels, where union representatives may discuss curriculum changes and request clarification on specific student cases in some contexts.

With regard to PAs' formal preparedness, the strategies used by most institutions seem harmonious with the common assumption that newly selected PAs are well qualified and can handle the job, albeit some PD courses might be offered by the institution or paid for from the unit's budget. This puts the onus on PAs to develop their skills as they deem fit and to ensure their units have a proper handover protocol

in place to ensure sustainability. Surprisingly, the culture is different in the K-12 system in Qatar where two separate licensure pathways have been developed for TESOL teachers and department heads (Abu-Tineh et al., 2017). Another mitigation practice to the competence problem by PAs is through networking and sharing best practices either through personal interaction, social media, or professional meetings. Regardless of how much PAs try to hone their skills and delegate tasks, their job is generally stressful and often characterized by burnout and short-term tenures. As noted by Eaton (2017), "ESL directors are less likely to be tenured, less likely to hold a tenure-track professorship, and less likely to have time available for teaching or research when compared to academic administrators of other departments" (p. 14). This is doubled with other difficulties, such as heavy administrative workload and lack of autonomy (Shah, 2019). Although the general conception is to associate the burden of being a TESOL PA with those new in the profession, it is pervasive across all PA categories and contexts and could possibly be threatening to their well-being and mental health.

As for fluidity in the organizational structure, the current solutions are also unstructured. New PAs, who might view the situation as an opportunity of freedom to implement their new ideas, tend to tolerate the mismatch between their job description and reality. However, as PAs progress in their positions, they either develop effective delegation or become overwhelmed with the emerging new responsibilities. In addition, some PAs may put together internal communication policies to clarify the delineation of roles and line of management that should be followed. Yet, when the fluidity is linked to external factors, PAs often have limited options to address the issue. A common manifestation of the institutional attempts to address this situation is the frequent modification of the organizational structures of TESOL units where new support positions are added, or removed, which could take place a couple of times within the same academic year. Furthermore, the TESOL unit's position in the bigger university structure is also frequently modified. For example, one unit may start as a subsidiary unit within the literature/linguistics department associated with a certain college, and later become a separate academic program affiliated directly with the institution's management before its status changes again to a support department within a student affairs deanship and so on. The ownership of TESOL offerings may also change across departments and colleges as the management deems appropriate. When such a change occurs, faculty who teach these courses also change their affiliation status in the reporting hierarchy to the new college or department. In some institutions, the solution has been to create several TESOL units connected directly with client colleges, e.g., separate ESP units in the colleges of medicine or engineering and another one in the college of humanities to teach general English courses, etc. Unfortunately, the situation above of solutions that do not relate to the core problems illustrates a bigger issue of identity confusion and marginalized status of TESOL units, similar to Eaton's (2017) conclusion that "ESL programs are obliged to generate revenue for the very institutions in which they struggle to be regarded as legitimate contributors to the academic community" (p. 14).

Lastly, the underutilization of technology for the successful operation of leadership roles is observed in many TESOL contexts around the world (Shah, 2017) and

noticeably acknowledged in the Qatari context. PAs often voice frustrations over their limited resources to unify the platforms they use. However, certain units are more active in mitigating the situation through practices like providing 24/7 technical support to administrators, or through unifying the institutional credentials across these platforms. Other units have gone further and contracted programming vendors to design a tailored Oracle platform for administrative tasks similar to the unified LMS platform for teaching, which is Blackboard in most units. Such initiatives are few but have been successful based on positive verbal feedback from colleagues in these units. Another common solution is to capitalize on the skills of some tech-savvy faculty members, usually on a voluntary basis, to streamline ICT integration in administrative duties. Yet, this practice is unsustainable as these faculty members may leave the unit or stop volunteering.

The Way Forward

Arguably being a TESOL PA in a multilingual environment is a challenging endeavor that encounters various difficulties and heavy administrative workload (Shah, 2019), and requires certain skill sets, patience, and inclusive leadership traits. The efforts discussed in this chapter are just examples relevant to the local Qatari multicultural setting which is a microcosm of the global international TESOL administration context. As the TESOL profession continues to thrive, TESOL program administration pathways and practices should also be streamlined to become commensurate with one of the most multilingual professions in the world nowadays. It is against this backdrop that certain actions should be taken by higher education institutions, TESOL international organizations, policymakers, and PAs themselves to streamline and consolidate the status of the profession. Table 28.1 provides a summary of these recommendations.

Table 28.1 Recommended actions to streamline program administration in the TESOL field

Program administrators	**Higher education institutions**
• Set up professional organizations • Organize and attend networking events • Share best practices via newsletters, websites, and research • Raise awareness about L1-L2 differences	• Promote specialized research • Offer professional pathways for PAs • Value TESOL units as contributing academic departments rather than auxiliary support units
TESOL organizations	**Employers and policymakers**
• Produce guides and standard sets for quality assurance and benchmarking purposes • Set up interest groups and funding programs for relevant research • Organize events on TESOL leadership	• Provide more paid assisting positions in the unit's structure • Update job descriptions with clear delineation of responsibilities • Provide budget for suitable technology and other resources

As shown in Table 28.1, the moral responsibility over the future of the profession is shared among all stakeholders. TESOL units play a significant role in achieving the prime objective of any higher education institution, i.e., education. Unfortunately, the current system in many contexts is distracting PAs from the core of this mission by various non-academic duties and failing them on multiple other fronts. It is time for all stakeholders, and policymakers in particular, to consider and resolve the obstacles facing the entire enterprise of TESOL program administration.

Conclusion

This chapter has shed light on what it means to be a TESOL PA in the multilingual Qatari context and outlined some of the various difficulties that may resonate with the experience of other PAs in similar contexts. Complexities related to organizational structure, planning, resources, personal readiness, and culture require collective efforts by all stakeholders to be critically conceptualized and properly addressed within the sociocultural norms of the relevant context. Given the pivotal role of PAs in the success of their units and institutions, it is imperative on stakeholders not to delay any attainable solutions in terms of practice or theory.

Likewise, future research directions that could scaffold these efforts might address suggestive frameworks for PAs pathways, anxiety management strategies in the TESOL PA context, and the role of multilingualism in PA identity negotiations and construction. In addition, in-service sessions for PAs may benefit from research insights on the effective practices in managing cultural diversity and the impact of the administrative style on the unit's efficiency and student attainment. Similarly, gender inequality in TESOL administration is another critical issue that has been under-researched and can be explored in future studies. Finally, TESOL units and their larger institutions need to encourage research that investigates the negative/positive impact of appraisal systems on program performance and TESOL governance models. In the meantime, PAs should continue to fulfill their duties, maybe with a more reflective attitude.

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Chapter 29
Embedding Multilingualism in Undergraduate Courses: A Need for Heteroglossia in US TESOL Teacher Preparation Programs

Tuba Angay-Crowder, Jayoung Choi, Nihal Khote, and Ji Hye Shin

Abstract Despite the increased acknowledgment of multilingualism in the United States, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) teacher education courses remain non-inclusive of many languages spoken by multilingual learners (MLs). Instead, they focus mainly on the study of the English language system. Neglecting to support MLs' heritage languages (HLs) inadvertently reinforces prevalent monolingual ideologies and marginalizes MLs in classrooms (Barros et al., Journal of Language, Identity & Education 20:239–254, 2020; Flores, N., & Aneja, G. (2017). "Why needs hiding?" Translingual (re)orientations in TESOL teacher education. Research in the Teaching of English, 51(4), 441–463. https://www.jstor.org/stable/44821275; Tian, Z. (2020). Faculty first: Promoting translanguaging in TESOL teacher education. In S. M. C. Lau & S. Van Viegen (Eds.), Plurilingual pedagogies: Critical and creative endeavors for equitable language in education (pp. 215–236). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36983-5_10). Translanguaging pedagogy with its heteroglossic approach creates a language ecology in which all students enrich teaching and learning experiences with more democratic approaches (Deroo and Ponzio, Bilingual Research Journal 42:214–231, 2019; Khote and Tian, Translation and Translanguaging in Multilingual Contexts 5:5–28, 2019); however, both teachers and teacher educators know little about how to integrate translanguaging pedagogy into their coursework. In this case study, drawing upon (Bakhtin, M. (1981). Dialogic imagination: Four essays. University of Texas Press.) *heteroglossia*, we explore how pre-service teachers (PSTs) responded to translanguaging pedagogy in a TESOL education course. Data were collected through course assignments and interviews with 11 PSTs. Findings showed that PSTs embraced translanguaging

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in multiple ways that reflected heteroglossic perspectives in education. First, PSTs operationalized translanguaging as translations used to teach language and content lessons. Second, they took an active role in preparing lessons. Third, they understood translanguaging as a classroom ecology. While PSTs recognized the benefits of translanguaging for MLs, they also struggled with the translanguaging pedagogy because they could not imagine the full potential of translanguaging for themselves and their students. This study has implications for teacher educators, curriculum developers, and language teachers who grapple with bringing multilingualism to the center of TESOL that has traditionally privileged English-only.

Introduction

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) teacher education programs are responsible for creating a democratic classroom environment by utilizing the linguistically and culturally rich resources that multilingual learners (MLs) bring to classrooms. Still, many language courses use the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP)[1] and its 30 features as best practices for MLs (Echevarria et al., 2017), which minimize the focus on various languages spoken by MLs (Tian, 2020). Language teachers need heteroglossic and transformative approaches to teaching and learning such as translanguaging as a pedagogy (Khote & Tian, 2019). When teachers not only engage in the act of translanguaging as a practice but also embrace it as a pedagogy, which requires leveraging MLs' full language repertoire and an ideological shift in attitudes toward a linguistically just classroom, they can accommodate the status-quo (García & Leiva, 2014). However, both teachers and teacher educators still know little about how to integrate translanguaging pedagogy through heteroglossic perspectives into their coursework (Back, 2020; Khote & Tian, 2019). Furthermore, research that supports pre-service teachers' (PSTs') translanguaging pedagogy in TESOL teacher education programs is scarce (Barros et al., 2020); and thus, PSTs struggle with implementing or embracing translanguaging as a pedagogy (Tian, 2020).

To address this gap and to promote translanguaging as a heteroglossic space in language teaching, the authors engaged in this case study (Yin, 2014) that explored how PSTs responded to translanguaging as a pedagogy in a TESOL education program. Our purpose is to recommend guidelines that could be pursued by TESOL educators and teachers who aim at balancing language hierarchies in the classroom for all students and introduce translanguaging into a curriculum that is prescribed by monolinguistic perspectives. First, we present findings as to the opportunities and challenges of incorporating translanguaging into coursework. Then, we

[1] The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) model is a research-based method of instruction that addresses the academic needs of MLs. The SIOP model eliminates this separation by combining multiple instructional components with teaching strategies to ensure the content and language needs of MLs are met as they learn alongside their native English-speaking peers.

discuss what and how we learned from this study that can be helpful for teacher educators, curriculum developers, and language teachers who grapple with bringing multilingualism to the center of TESOL that has traditionally privileged English-only.

Theoretical Framework

TESOL teacher education programs need to aim at preparing diverse speakers without holding prejudice against their linguistic, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds or worldviews. Therefore, we envision TESOL through a translanguaging lens (Tian et al., 2020). More particularly, we draw upon Bakhtin's (1981) ideological term *heteroglossia* as a theoretical framework since it supports translanguaging by challenging language ideologies and highlights the semiotic nature of languages that teachers and MLs draw upon in and out of- classes. Heteroglossia also conceptualizes language as dialogic and historical process and explains the competing discourses and tensions concerning language use that affect language teachers and MLs. This approach contributes to meaning-making, provides counter-perspectives to monoglossic language ideologies, and brings a more democratic approach to teaching models such as SIOP that limits the use of MLs' rich linguistics repertories (Tian, 2020). In this framework, heteroglossic spaces can be created based on the following principles: (1) focusing on the context-dependent and dialogic nature of language to recognize the full potential of linguistic resources and using them fluidly (Khote & Tian, 2019); (2) bridging home and school literacy practices and cultivating identities by interrogating social inequalities and monolingual discourses (Flores & Schissel, 2014); and (3) fostering the agency of individuals by actively engaging them in the process of language practices and communication (Blackledge & Creese, 2014). A pedagogy based on heteroglossic perspectives opens a space for an interrogation of language varieties, discourses, and practices because students' localities, social histories, circumstances, and identities are foregrounded as central forces.

Background Literature

Researchers and educators look for better ways of educating MLs in multicultural educational contexts that embrace all languages as rich linguistic resources. Imagining multilingual TESOL with diverse languages spoken by language learners is still a contentious topic (Taylor, 2009). To contribute to the efforts of recognizing TESOL as a multilingual organization, especially in K-12 settings, recent research has examined pre- and in-service language teachers' responses to translanguaging pedagogy (e.g., Back, 2020; Menken & Sanchez, 2019; Vaish, 2019). These teachers experienced ideological shifts and disrupted monolingual approaches to teaching MLs from

elementary, middle, and high school levels. They also developed transformative practices, culturally relevant materials, and a translanguaging stance for their teaching. Similarly, in university settings, research examined language teachers' responses to translanguaging pedagogy (e.g., Burton & Rajendram, 2019; Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018; Wang, 2019). These teachers also embraced the pedagogy to an extent and recognized the use of HL in instruction as an equitable pedagogical tool that supported their and MLs' identity development. At the same time, they revealed ambivalent attitudes toward translanguaging due to several reasons, including ideological tensions and institutional constraints.

Within research at the university level, few teacher educators embedded translanguaging pedagogy in their TESOL courses for in-service teachers (ISTs) (e.g., Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Deroo et al., 2020; Ponzio & Deroo, 2021) and PSTs (e.g., Barros et al., 2020; Flores & Aneja, 2017; Robinson et al., 2018; Tian, 2020). Flores and Aneja (2017) developed translingual projects such as personal narratives or storytelling through which PSTs engaged in positive conceptualizations of their identities. PSTs adopted a translingual orientation and recognized language and semiotic elements as flexible. Still, PSTs struggled with the implications of adopting this orientation as non-native English-speaking teaching professionals. Barros et al. (2020) examined how four mainstream PSTs were (or not) receptive to bringing translanguaging to the center of teaching MLs in an ESOL Endorsement course. PSTs acknowledged the importance and issues of HL use, identity, and affective domains in teaching. However, they also had concerns envisioning translanguaging in practice when they did not know MLs' HLs and if they would have pushbacks from district, school, or community. In the end, monolingualism persisted as an ideology for these PSTs.

Robinson et al. (2018) introduced translanguaging to affirm language use and identity and promote justice in an undergraduate course that was originally designed as a Sheltered English Immersion (SEI) course. PSTs demonstrated critical, sociocultural understandings of language that are foundational in teaching for justice. Although some PSTs faced challenges in the implementation of pedagogy, they all eventually developed their identities and an understanding of translanguaging as a pedagogical tool for their classroom and learned how to navigate inequalities created by the SEI model. In a similar study, Tian (2020) examined how one teacher educator created spaces for translanguaging for her PSTs in a TESOL practicum course that applied SEI techniques. These PSTs discussed the opportunities and challenges in developing a translanguaging stance and implementing translanguaging strategies to bring systematic change in Language Teacher Education (LTE) programs. PSTs took a critically reflexive stance and shifted their perceptions about translanguaging as they connected their lived experiences with translanguaging theory and designed lesson plans in their disciplinary content areas. The findings of the study suggested a need for PSTs to develop pedagogical content knowledge and skills in differentiating translanguaging practices for MLs.

Although the translanguaging strategies in the above-mentioned studies help illuminate challenges and affordances of implementing the pedagogy in classrooms, little is known about how teacher educators integrated translanguaging into a SIOP-driven

curriculum and how PSTs responded to the pedagogy. Furthermore, not enough studies have considered heteroglossia as a critical perspective to provide a better understanding of translanguaging practices (Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018). Accordingly, we ask the following questions: (a) In what ways did the PSTs embrace translanguaging? and (b) what challenges did PSTs face in understanding and implementing translanguaging?

Methodology

Operating from the perspective that TESOL education programs should integrate heteroglossic approaches into PSTs' teaching and learning, we conducted a case study comprised of descriptions of complex and real-life situations in a bounded system that captured contextual conditions and permitted the investigation of a phenomenon in systematic ways (Yin, 2014). In this study, the complexity of the case involves the ways in which one professor systematically integrated translanguaging as pedagogy with heteroglossic approaches into her teacher education course in Spring 2019 in one university and the ways her PSTs responded to this pedagogy.

Context

This study took place in a southeastern university in the United States (U.S.). The undergraduate PSTs enrolled in a Methods and Materials for Teaching ESOL course of the ESOL endorsement program embedded in their Elementary Education teacher education program. The course was structured around lesson planning and implementation of SIOP in conjunction with the WIDA English Language Development standards. The purpose of the SIOP method in the program is to develop PSTs' pedagogical content knowledge, academic skills, and English proficiency simultaneously and acquaint PSTs with instructional strategies and materials that will help them deliver effective grade-level content-area instruction for both MLs and English-only speaking students. However, SIOP limits the use of HL as the valuable or valid mode of instruction, thereby undermining the rich cultural linguistic resources with which MLs are equipped. To pass key assessments in this methods course, students had to learn how to implement SIOP methods in their teaching. Within the constraints of SIOP-focused context, the professor designed her TESOL education courses by incorporating SIOP approaches together with translanguaging as pedagogy because she supports multilingual approaches in her teaching and believes that students and their teachers should use their full linguistic repertories to create and contribute to the socially and linguistically just education. Eleven female PSTs, whose HL was English, consented to participate in the research. Each PST was assigned a participant number, such as T1.

Data Collection and Analysis

Multiple data sources provided rich understanding of how the TESOL professor and her PSTs engaged in translanguaging in their teacher education coursework. Data collected include (a) PSTs' reflections on course assignments and readings, (b) 20–30 min open-ended interviews of PSTs, (c) PSTs' presentations and discussions of academic articles about the pedagogy, (d) SIOP activities that incorporated PSTs' translanguaging, and (e) SIOP lesson plans that PSTs analyzed and developed with translanguaging resources and activities. The analysis of PSTs' work samples included written responses to articles and peer presentations, lesson plans and reflections about the course, as well as interview transcripts.

We used a grounded theory approach to data analysis to describe the common experiences of groups (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), using an iterative and recursive process with our data. All data sets were read separately. In the first step, the open-coding process and constant comparison method for different data sets contributed to the triangulation of data and helped make sense of how PSTs responded to the pedagogy. The second step involved axial coding to identify broad categories and patterns. Finally, we connected these patterns to discover general themes that helped with grounded description of findings. In each stage of data analysis, we initially worked individually, then, came together to discuss our findings for a mutual understanding. This process helped establish research credibility (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003).

Findings

In general, PSTs embraced translanguaging in multiple ways that reflected their endorsement of heteroglossic perspectives in education and showed PSTs' respect and appreciation for multilingualism. First, PSTs operationalized translanguaging as translations used to teach language and content lessons. Second, they took an active role in preparing lessons drawing on their student' HLs. Third, they understood translanguaging as an essential element in creating a multilingual ecology. While PSTs recognized the benefits of translanguaging for MLs, they also struggled with the translanguaging pedagogy because they could not envision the full potential of translanguaging for themselves and their students.

Embracing Translanguaging in Teaching Language and Content

PSTs appreciated translanguaging strategies that facilitated teaching of language and content. In a peer response to an article in which teachers implemented translanguaging in language arts units in elementary classes, T1 favored the authors' argument in the article that translanguaging improves vocabulary learning for MLs: "I

like that they encouraged the use of both languages and when the children did not know a word then they were able to use one they were familiar with." For T1, translanguaging meant that MLs can use HLs when they experience a lexical gap. Similarly, T7 in her response to a peers' presentation wrote: "A major takeaway from this article is how the use of both languages can help figure out unknown words and expressions. I could use translanguaging in the classroom to allow the students to figure out unfamiliar words and their meanings." With these responses, PSTs showed how translanguaging became an aid to deciphering unknown words.

To teach content, PSTs also discussed how they could translate materials and resources into HLs. For example, T7 and T10, in their group analysis of a SIOP-based science lesson plan, recommended that teachers incorporate translanguaging into the lesson by translating names of animals as well as sentence starters into students' HL, which they called L1, first language: "the teacher could give the students the images of the different animals and have the animals name in English and the students' L1 in the classroom…The sentence starters can be provided in English and the students' L1 in the classroom." The group also proposed that "The key vocabulary words will be posted on the wall in English and in Spanish with the definition provided in both languages as well… The labels [for 3D shapes] will be provided in Spanish and English." These recommendations provide evidence that PSTs embraced the use of translations for words and lesson materials to infuse multilingualism into content lessons.

Taking an Active Role for Translanguaging

PSTs played an active role in both teaching and learning through translanguaging. For example, they integrated translanguaging into the instruction materials and activities. English-speaking PSTs became willing to provide translations of words and key concepts and looked up the unknown words in MLs' HL to improve instruction and aid content learning. In an analysis of a SIOP science lesson plan, T6 and T11 suggested that "…if the three languages spoken in class were English, Spanish, and Korean the teacher could have looked up the parts of a dragonfly in all of these languages before the lesson…" T9, in her peer article response, proposed a similar idea: "Although I am not bilingual, I think it is still possible to search our students' language and get the right tools in order to support them." By making this extra effort to look up words in all students' HLs, PSTs were willing to actively participate both in language teaching and learning.

T4 in fact made an explicit suggestion to all teachers that they become language learners as they teach MLs. In her SIOP lesson plan analysis, she wrote: "The video clips shown in the PowerPoint presentation could be shown in Spanish and English…The teacher could also learn keywords that are in the PowerPoint in their students' native language when reading from the slides." Later, T4 also suggested that teachers integrate translated words into the Think-Draw-Pair-Share activity that requires group discussions in HL. She explained that "the word bank provided for

the students to complete this activity can be in both English and the students' native language and include pictures of each word." These examples demonstrate that PSTs' willingness to go beyond their comfort zone and take an extra step to incorporate translanguaging in all areas of lessons, including the translation of texts and peer discussions.

Creating a Classroom Ecology for Multilinguals

PSTs embraced translanguaging as an ecological approach to language teaching. A classroom ecology focuses on the relationships among languages and individuals who speak different languages, social contexts of languages, and the inter-relationships among all these different dimensions concerning languages (Creese & Martin, 2003). Considering translanguaging as a classroom ecology, PSTs moved away from the study of language in decontextualized settings and appreciated translanguaging as a way of establishing constructive relations among students and teachers in various educational contexts.

PSTs' classroom discussions around translanguaging reflected the principles of classroom ecology. As a general principle, PSTs advocated the idea that all languages, cultures, and related identities are important and valuable, and therefore should be respected, promoted, and utilized as foundational resources in the classroom. Then, PSTs supported this advocacy with different strategies. For example, after attending a conference presentation related to multilingual education, T1 highlighted that: "The teachers are not expected to know all of the students' languages" to be able to validate all students' languages and cultures in the classroom. She gave an example from the presentation about how she could have had students help each other with their own languages:

> Michelle, one of the teachers that the researchers worked with at JPS, chose to have her kindergarten class recreate their own version of the children's book The Lion and the Mouse…. The project that Michelle did with her kindergarten class helped the students understand that all languages are important and should be respected.

With this example, T1 demonstrated how a children's book created with different versions could provide a dialogic and safe space for validating all languages.

T4 proposed another strategy for classroom ecology in her SIOP lesson plan analysis: "the agree/disagree cards could be translated. The translated cards could go with the students who only speak English, and the English cards could go with the bilingual students. In doing this, both students are learning more about languages and how they can interact with one another in knowing more." Encouraging this type of interaction between English-only speaking students and MLs, T4 aimed at cultivating a classroom ecology that promotes social relationships and culturally responsive knowledge distribution among different cultural and linguistic groups.

PSTs also wanted to learn more about how they could use translanguaging to include not only English-speaking students but also other minorities who are more

marginalized in the classroom. During her article presentation, T3 asked "how can we use these strategies in a classroom that includes students who do not speak Spanish?" This question demonstrates how T3 developed responsibility for advocating for MLs who speak minoritized languages other than Spanish.

T3 also aimed at raising her classmates' awareness of language varieties to promote appreciation for all languages and prevent stereotyping about language and culture and possible negative connotations related to cultures. In a peer response to an article presentation, she drew attention that:

> In my field experience today, a girl was speaking Spanish and some kid yelled 'ARE YOU SPEAKING MEXICAN?' This article stood out to me, because we need to have children be aware of the different languages and this study helped incorporate different languages into the creation of a book.

After addressing the stereotypes about Spanish people known as Mexicans in the U.S., T3 imagined herself implementing the strategies discussed in the article in her classroom. She wanted to incorporate all students' languages into instruction on a regular basis to emphasize that all languages are important. She believed that making connections between different languages and cultures was essential at creating harmonious and empowering relationships for all students.

> I see myself using this article in my classroom, by creating an activity that incorporates every child's language in my classroom. Also, I can add different languages to my lessons and interactions around the classroom. For example, we could say good morning in different languages every day. The major takeaway of this article is that every language is important.

Similarly, T6 wanted to eliminate misconceptions about bilingualism to create a more inclusive approach to classroom ecology. She propagated that:

> Bilingualism is a privilege and should not be perceived as a 'disability' or 'deficit.' Bilingualism should be embraced, and like you guys mentioned, the use of a students' native language, as well as English, should be encouraged on a regular basis. As teachers we have to help these students build connections between the languages, so they can become fluent in both..… I could use the little knowledge I do have in the Spanish language to incorporate Spanish-speaking in my classroom.

With these arguments, T6 countered the misconception that teachers must know MLs' HL very well to be able to support them in language learning. She also underlined an important message that all teachers are responsible for students' bilingual development, not just English language proficiency.

PSTs offered another strategy for classroom ecology as they discussed the importance of bringing rich cultural and linguistic resources from MLs' home into the classroom environment. When analyzing an article on translanguaging, T2 drew attention to the fact that "there is extensive individual variation in how families interact with texts" and then she added: "a student's home life and the family involvement (in literacy) have a great impact on a student's language and literacy." Therefore, she wanted to include everyone's language, not only certain languages, in her classroom teaching:

> I see myself using this article in my classroom, by creating an activity that incorporates every child's language in my classroom. Also, I can add different languages to my lessons and interactions around the classroom. For example, we could say good morning in different languages every day. The major takeaway of this article is that every language is important.

Then, more importantly, T2 proposed that "Having the students do a study of their own language use and the language used around the school or community is a great strategy for translanguaging." T2's argument showed her ability to establish relationships not only among languages but also among social contexts of languages such as school, home, and community.

Challenges in Translanguaging

PSTs acknowledged and adopted some strategies of translanguaging for MLs. However, they did not properly understand translanguaging and sometimes did not demonstrate a fully developed understanding of translanguaging.

A Gradual Release of Responsibility Model

PSTs understood translanguaging as a strategy or practice rather than a pedagogy. That is, they saw translanguaging as a scaffolding strategy that can support language practices and academic learning but something that needed to be set aside once the students acquired enough English proficiency. For example, in the analysis of a sample SIOP lesson plan, a group of PSTs consisting of T2 and T9 made suggestions as to how translanguaging could be incorporated into the lesson:

> The student could write one problem in their home language. Then write the next problem in their home language but with key vocabulary written in the learned language. After this the students would write the entirety of the problem in their learned language, this strategy will ease the students into writing in their learned language.

In this analysis, PSTs followed the principles of the gradual release of responsibility model. That is, they argued that translanguaging as a scaffold needed to be removed once students achieve more proficiency in English. Another group of PSTs with T6 and T11 also recommended the use of this model in their analysis of a different sample SIOP lesson plan: "the teacher could… have the [assessment] questions in English but also have the translation in the student's home language until they are comfortable enough with the English language." Both examples show that translanguaging is perceived as a crutch rather than a mainstay in-class instruction and activities for a more linguistically just pedagogy for MLs.

Monolingual Ideology

PSTs struggled to understand translanguaging in its critical and ideological dimensions. Although PSTs emphasized that the theory allowed students to use full language resources, they undermined the importance of ideological aspects of this pedagogy, which is about empowering MLs especially from immigrant backgrounds, advocating their rights, and disrupting issues of power and identity. In other words, their focus was not on the issues of identity, power, language politics, and ideology but was on the decontextualized methods of teaching such as providing word and sentence translations for MLs. In the article presentations, PSTs' questions and responses to peers revealed that some PSTs operated under a monolingual orientation, lacked a critical understanding of English as a hegemonic language, and failed to adopt multilingualism as language rights for MLs. For example, at the end of their article presentation, T2 and T9 asked questions that signaled their resistance toward translanguaging as a pedagogy:

> How is having students transition from English to another language helpful for the students? Would it not be better for the student to just speak one language at a time in order to not get confused? …. Do you think that this language strategy is more helpful or harmful for student learning?

These questions indicate that some PSTs did not seem to be fully convinced about the benefits of translanguaging, or they needed further information or validation from classmates or the professor. Regardless of the intention behind the questions, the proposition of "having students transition from English to another language" indicates that these PSTs considered one language as an aid for transition to another language, which is a similar view taken with the gradual release of responsibility model. Furthermore, the question, "Would it not be better for the student to just speak one language at a time in order to not get confused?" shows how PSTs separated languages as binary or dichotomous constructs, which reflect monolingual perspectives and confirms PSTs' understanding of translanguaging as a "language strategy" instead of a pedagogy.

Similarly, T5 with her question in her pair's article presentation, positioned MLs' language abilities against the monolingual standards prevalent in schools.

> How does translanguaging affect a student in the school setting, focusing especially on reading and writing in the early grades? As upcoming teachers, how would you approach a translanguaging student and help them achieve the same standards as a student who speaks the same language at home and school?

Her questions had underlying messages that English-only standards were the ultimate goal for MLs, and that MLs' multilingualism was a deficit that needs to be eliminated over time. Thus, T5 failed to challenge the inequitable assessment practices used for MLs in our school.

Maintaining the Hegemony of the English Language

Some PSTs did not understand the problematic discourses around English as a hegemonic language, which is a critical understanding that translanguaging requires to resist language hierarchy. T4 in her individual response to peers' article presentation explained how she did not understand why English is the most preferred language for most children who learn English as an additional language:

> I find it very interesting that the article states that most children learn English as a second language because English is the most valued linguistic medium. It's hard for me to grasp that concept because my home language is English... In my article, the author mentions that she once preferred English over her home language as well. I would really like to know and understand this more.

T4 believed that the reason for failing to understand English being the most preferred language was the fact that she spoke English as a HL. In other words, T4 did not seem to understand the power of the English language, English dominance, and hegemony compared to other languages, and the related reason for why all teachers should promote translanguaging and how this pedagogy could be empowering for minoritized learners.

Discussion

Teachers in language learning classrooms across the U.S. typically support the view that MLs should assimilate into an English monolingual paradigm in which the notion of literacy implies teaching and learning in English (García & Leiva, 2014). However, after PSTs in this course were introduced to translanguaging in the classroom, they recognized the use of translanguaging as a foundational resource to increase student learning and engagement and were willing to incorporate translanguaging into their emerging pedagogical frameworks. In many instances, the PSTs proposed various strategies to leverage students' HLs as an additional scaffold for learning new vocabulary and concepts across content areas, including science and math. Furthermore, PSTs promoted a classroom ecology in similar ways that other language teachers did (e.g., Deroo & Ponzio, 2019) as they all considered not only the inter-relationships between languages used in classrooms but also their relationship to the macro-level issues concerning languages such as educational policy and standards. From this perspective, the findings showed that the PSTs supported a move away from extant English-only paradigms that position HLs and literacy practices on the periphery, toward an asset-based notion of students' multilingualism as having advantageous value and worth in their learning process. In addition to conceiving HLs as alternative linguistic scaffolds, some PSTs recognized that students could rewrite class readings of children's literature in their HLs, thus embedding families' funds of knowledge in the curriculum and providing an emerging framework for equity and validation of students' cultural and linguistic resources in the classroom.

Despite this recognition, the findings also demonstrated that the PSTs' understanding of translanguaging pedagogy was limited to its use as a translation device to clarify concepts and reinforce ideas for classroom management purposes that served mainly to construct academic English fluency. Most PSTs did not frame their views within the critical intent of translanguaging as a pathway to resist asymmetries of linguistic hierarchies and power, re-constitute students' identities, or "involve and give voice" to students to foster social justice outcomes (García & Leiva, 2014, p. 210). An underlying theme suggests that PSTs needed additional support if they were to develop ideological clarity to validate minoritized students' funds of knowledge and fluid languaging practices in ways that do not re-inscribe English language hegemony (Martínez, 2010). Although the authors view this study as an initial foray into questioning the larger ideological goals of prescribed TESOL curriculum, questions arise about the critical efficacy and realistic expectations from an introductory sojourn into translanguaging pedagogy, especially considering that most PSTs came from an English monolingual background. Although some PSTs expressed their support for utilizing translanguaging pedagogy to create multilingual heteroglossic spaces and showed a willingness to validate students' culture, language, and bicultural identities, there are also indications that contrary to the instructor's goal, their views were limited in critical scope suggesting the need to frame the teaching of TESOL and translanguaging pedagogy within additional culturally and linguistically sustaining pedagogies that would provide a critical framework to the important work of fostering multilingualism within academic contexts (Paris, 2012). PSTs need sustaining support on translanguaging with a focus on language policies and ideologies which can provide a more humanizing learning environment for MLs.

Conclusion

In this study, we highlighted how PSTs negotiated the principles of the translanguaging pedagogy in a course that integrated SIOP-based instruction, which has underlying monoglossic assumptions about teaching and learning (Chang-Bacon, 2020). The study reinforces the recent findings on translanguaging in that introduction and implementation of translanguaging raises PSTs' consciousness for multilingualism, balances the monoglossic nature of SIOP principles, brings light to the heteroglossic nature of translanguaging, and helps PSTs to embrace the related strategies and practices for classroom use. Notwithstanding, the central issue is to encourage all teachers to focus more on the critical, ideological, and political agenda of the pedagogy. Future studies should examine how PSTs can reimagine monoglossic educational spaces in more radical ways and promote dialogic classrooms that treat bilingualism as the norm. Although this study adds to the growing body of literature about how TESOL professors create dialogic and heteroglossic spaces for translanguaging that promotes appreciation of linguistic diversity in curriculum despite restrictive English-only standards, more work is needed to create safer language environments in all schools. This study focused only on PSTs who

spoke English as their HL. Future studies should examine the responses of multilingual PSTs to translanguaging pedagogy, which can provide a better understanding of the issues related to the implementation of the translanguaging pedagogy. Future research should also investigate how PSTs can understand the classroom ecology in which different languages interact with their sociopolitical, economic, and cultural environments and how disregarding of this ecology may result in language loss that all teachers and human beings should prevent from happening.

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Chapter 30
Home and School-Language-Based Instruction to Train Government Primary School Teachers in the Indian Multilingual ESL Context

Mahananda Pathak

Abstract The wide-ranging use of English has resulted in a widespread public demand for more access to English within public-school education. Consequently, many Indian state governments have introduced English in all regional medium primary schools. The early introduction of English, while perceived as essential, is also problem-ridden. This is because of factors, such as English-zero/English-minimal environment, teachers with limited language proficiency, non-inclination of teachers to teach English, multi-subject and multi-grade teaching, lack of infrastructure. Furthermore, the teacher training courses by various District Institutes of Education and Training (DIET) for such teachers seem to be largely monolingual. These teachers' default possession of knowledge of/about more than one language is unexplored in the primary teacher education curricula. Rather these different languages are treated as a separate entity in the curricula. This is in stark contrast to the Indian multilingual society where various languages share mutual and complementary space outside of school. Therefore, efforts have already been made to build on the teachers' home and school/state languages for improving teachers' language teaching skills and eventually strengthening English language proficiency of learners. This chapter aims to report on such efforts to discuss the ways of developing the knowledge base of primary school teachers with the help of a mixture of home and school-language-based instructional practices. These practices may include the use of a cross-lingual discussion, parallel tasks, and the creation of bilingual lessons with clear methodological guidelines for purposeful alterations of languages. Such instructions are developed with a spirit of first language (L1) inclusivity within the task-based language teaching framework.

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Introduction

English, the second-most widely spoken language after Hindi in India, is used by 300–400 million people for a variety of purposes. It is used as an international and/or a national link language, a library language and also as a language of opportunity by many Indians across the country. Today in the twenty-first century, due to globalization and technological advances, English has also become a very powerful instrument for economic development and social mobility. This wide-ranging use of English has resulted in a widespread public demand for more access to English within the public-school education system. Consequently, many Indian state governments have decided to introduce English at the lower primary level (Meganathan, 2011). For example, in Maharashtra and Assam, the respective state governments have introduced English from Class 1 and 3, respectively. The early introduction of English, while perceived as essential, is also problem-ridden. This is because, in many parts of the country (rural and poor urban areas), the way English is taught/learnt cannot fulfill and/or rise to the variety of demands made on it (Kurrien, 2004; Meganathan, 2011).

This non-fulfillment is primarily due to the non-existence and/or absence of an English-speaking environment. Another reason is that teachers with little and/or zero knowledge of English are coerced into teaching the language. The way a teacher handles English reveals that she is forced to teach it without any training. For instance, a pilot study conducted in a rural area in Maharashtra revealed that many of these teachers do not have the minimum adequate proficiency in English, and consequently are not positively inclined to teach it (Krishnan & Pandit, 2003). This is true in many other Indian states as well. On a field visit to Assam, one of the North-Eastern states in India, Misra (2003), noticed that many teachers had forgotten how to write the letters of the English alphabet. It has also been observed that many teachers are not in a position to read and comprehend the 'Note to Teachers' which was included in the textbook as a guideline to the teaching of English in the classroom. Many teachers teach the spelling of 'picture' as 'pi' means 'pee', 'c' means 'k', and 'ture' means 'chaar' and teach the students 'peekchaar' (Misra, 2003). Furthermore, 'multi-subject' and 'multi-grade' teaching, a common enough occurrence in the country is a real and yet an added complication to the English teaching scenario. In most of the regional medium primary schools, a single teacher teaches all the subjects to a class including language skills. As such the teaching of English becomes an extra burden for them in this multi-subject/multi-grade scenario.

One possible way to cope these teachers teaching in difficult circumstances could be allowing them to use the fund of language knowledge they possess to teach English. This chapter explores the possibility of exposing government primary school teachers to the multilingual ways of teaching English during their training programs, and how this can make them feel motivated, confident, and eventually grow as professionals in the field. Also, it will strengthen attempts to establish the multilingual ways of teaching English as one of the legitimate practices in teacher training programs.

Context

The regional medium primary schools normally function in rural, low resource contexts catering to the needs of the learners from lower socio–economic strata. The clientele of such schools is comprised of shop owners, domestic workers, daily wage workers, fruit vendors, carpenters, mechanics, and electricians. The preferred method of teaching is "whole-class instruction" following a set lesson. The learning pedagogies involve rote memorization, drill, and practice. Very often the teachers in these schools find it difficult to function because of a lack of resources, their limited exposure and proficiency in English, and the dearth of professional training and development activities. In other words, as Kurrien (2005) stated, the TP (Teaching proficiency) and the EE (Exposure to English) are very low in this type of scenario.

Significantly, the 2019–20 Unified District Information System for Education Plus (DISE+) data shows that 90% of the schools (out of 15 million) in India are located in rural areas. The teachers working in such areas have a sense of negativity toward English because of their lack of language proficiency and confidence. Therefore, it is important to evaluate and validate the "funds of knowledge" they bring to the class, and if needed, train them in such a way that they feel confident, become proficient, and eventually develop a positive attitude toward English and the teaching profession. However, what remains a tension is that when designing teacher training tasks or activities, "speak in English to learn English" approach continues to dominate in the curriculum which excludes other language resources in instruction. To address this deficit approach, there is a need to take a multilingual approach to teacher training to use available language capability in the mother tongue and home/school/regional language to improve teachers' language teaching skills and enable their English language capability.

The argument being made in this chapter is that in order to ensure that societal multilingualism is reflected in the school space, it should also be visible in teacher training programs. Also, by denying and ignoring language capability in the first language, we are increasing the affective load and putting pressure on teachers to use only one language for all communicative activities. It is felt that without reducing first language (L1) to a mere "translation/explanation" vehicle, it can be profitably used with teachers during their training to increase their teaching skills and proficiency in English. This will enable teachers to adapt and/or adopt these training experiences and, as a result, use students' knowledge of L1 in their own English classrooms. Therefore, an attempt made in this chapter is to present a few sample tasks to illustrate how this exploration of language resources can be realized in actual contexts. To do this, a variety of plausible parallel tasks, concept-based word grouping tasks, lesson excerpts, and teacher narratives are presented which will utilize teachers' knowledge of L1 (Assamese) and keep dual objectives in mind: to empower them as language teachers and enable their English language capability/proficiency. The tasks are preceded by a discussion on theoretical foundations for the chapter.

Theoretical Underpinnings

Languages in Societal Space

India is a multilingual country at an individual and societal level. In such plurilingual contexts, widespread societal bilingualism has ensured “mutually intelligible” and “continuous zones of communication” where different languages have never been seen as a barrier to communication but viewed as facilitators. These languages “perform complementary functions” in that multilingual setting. In other words, languages are “facts of life” (Pattanayak, 1984 as cited in Mohanty, 1990, p. 55). In contrast to this orientation of grass-root multilingual societies, predominant monolingual societies have always perceived two languages “as a nuisance, three languages uneconomic and many languages as absurd” (Pattanayak, 1984 as cited in Mohanty, 1990, p. 55).

Within the context of formal education, where schooling prescribes three languages as the minimum requirement (Pattanayak, 1986), the relationships between mother tongue/L1 and second or foreign language (L2/FL) can be perceived in different ways. Firstly, in some situations, the L1 is completely neglected in L2 teaching while in other situations it is tolerated and respected. Rarely does the L1 share a mutual place in L2 teaching where it nurtures the teaching of an L2. Secondly, L1 and L2 are considered as two separate language systems to be learnt and mastered. Thirdly, language is seen as a communicative tool and not as a system where L1 and L2 are two parts of that tool.

Languages in School Space

Within the context of formal education, languages feature in the school curriculum either as a subject or as a medium of instruction. Most schools adopt one or more language(s) as the medium of instruction, which results in four types of instructional mediums, namely English, regional language, Hindi, and English plus Hindi, where English is used to teach science subjects and Hindi is used to teach social sciences.

In all these streams, one or more languages are used as the medium(s) of instruction and more importantly taught as separate subjects. When these languages are taught as subjects, they are treated like other subjects such as mathematics and social studies, and become part of what can be termed as subject curriculum. These languages are taught as separate entities without exploring their interrelatedness and the scope of using one language as a scaffolding device to teach/learn another. However, this mutually exclusive treatment within the school curriculum does not reflect the myriad use of languages in plurilingual India.

Languages in Teacher Education Curriculum at the Primary Level

This division is reflected in primary teacher education curriculum as well. For example, in Assam, District Institutes of Education and Training (DIET) have followed a curriculum for a six-month course which has nine components. Language Learning is one of the components along with Mathematics Learning, Health and Physical Education, and other subjects. Interestingly, within Language Learning, there are separate sections for the "Teaching of English" and the "Teaching of Mother Tongue" (Sarma, 2004). The fact that the teaching of the mother tongue and English are placed within the umbrella term "Language Learning" implies that an attempt has been made to reflect the multilingual reality of Indian society in schools. However, in the training sessions, these two are perceived as separate entities; providing tips to handle the English textbook and the mother tongue textbook.

The main objective of the "Teaching of English" component in the curriculum is to make the trainee teacher feel confident while handling the English textbook in the classroom. To enable them to do so, they are exposed to reasonably acceptable pronunciations of the letters of the alphabet and then they are asked to take part in conversation, in extemporaneous speech. The trainees are also encouraged to write personal diaries and narrate stories in English. These activities are interesting and useful in themselves, but as a part of the language teacher training program, the exposure remains at that level and does not get translated into actual use in the classroom. This is because it is demanding in nature owing to the low English proficiency of the primary trainee teachers. As a result, the language practice becomes counterproductive; teachers choose to remain silent rather than follow the "use English alone" rule. This is because English is a language that is "frightening" for most government primary school teachers in rural areas (Hayes & Raman, 2015). One possible way to reduce the fear of English could be to use teachers' more comfortable/enabled language in the training program to expose them to the multilingual ways of teaching English.

Purposeful Alterations of Languages

The idea of focused, systematic, strategic, and simultaneous use of two languages in the same classroom to enhance proficiency and content learning in one or both languages is rooted in the Welsh model of translanguaging, involving careful and planned use of Welsh and English (Williams, 1996). In Hong Kong, such concurrent use happened between the home/local language and English, known as 'purposeful translanguaging' (Heugh, 2015). García and Li (2014) proposed translanguaging as a pedagogical approach that reflects and supports students' capacity to use multiple language resources for communication. For them, like any other existing pedagogical approaches, translanguaging pedagogy makes a case for appreciating students'

familiar linguistic and cultural resources. It views the transaction of languages in the classroom as deliberate, beneficial, and purposeful. In India, purposeful alterations of languages have been conceptualized in pedagogical practices "rooted in multilinguality" (Agnihotri, 2007, p. 80). Multilinguality is a capacity of the human mind that can "fine tune linguistic behaviour" (Agnihotri, 2020, p. 60) in learners' language learning trajectory. Furthermore, Mukhopadhyay (2020) framed a translingual pedagogy with a principled alternation of Telugu, English, and Hindi in an Indian ESL classroom. Thus, the purposeful alterations of languages and its relevance for classroom instructions attracted various researchers across countries. This has also resulted in various attempts to expand its scope in teacher education contexts.

Translanguaging Pedagogy in Teacher Education Contexts

Various studies have investigated the introduction, integration, and implementation of translanguaging in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) pre- and in-service teacher education curriculum, the understanding of translanguaging and perceptions, and the beliefs around translanguaging among various stakeholders. Tian (2020) in his qualitative case study reported how one teacher educator and her students engaged in translanguaging in a TESOL teacher preparation course in the United States with emergent bilinguals. The findings showed the teacher educator's various ways of integrating translanguaging as course content and creating translanguaging spaces in her classrooms. Deroo et al. (2020) also reported the journeys of understanding translanguaging as a theory and pedagogy through case studies of pre-service and in-service teachers at a Midwest university in the United States. They also cited examples and offered recommendations for structuring teacher preparatory course and fieldwork through a translanguaging lens. Yuan and Yang (2020) explored a teacher educator's perceptions and resulted practice of translanguaging in his education classrooms as a teacher of English in an EMI context. Their study revealed that the teacher educator used three translanguaging strategies, namely integrating academic discourse with everyday discourse, linking verbal and other semiotic resources, and using the students' first language. Barros et al. (2021) examined the impact of translanguaging theory on the language beliefs of a group of US mainstream pre-service teachers pursuing a semester-long TESOL undergraduate course. The findings of the study foregrounded the challenges and potential benefits of including translanguaging theories in mainstream and TESOL teacher preparation curricula.

Translanguaging Pedagogy in Indian Teacher Education Contexts

Responding positively to the global call for a paradigm shift in language pedagogy to infuse translanguaging in the curriculum, researchers working in Indian English as a second language (ESL) contexts try to include a multilingual orientation which is inherent in translanguaging perspectives to teacher preparation programs. They urge

teachers to share multilingual classroom practices. This is visible in Durairajan's (2017) call for a mandatory course in multilingual education practices in all teacher education programs. Resonating with the work of Durairajan (2017), Anderson and Lightfoot (2018) argued for an explicit focus on the use of other languages (OLs) in Indian English language teacher education. In an attempt to propose a model of multilingual pedagogy for teacher education in India, Bedadur (2013) examined the pedagogical implications of multilingualism to develop state government school teachers' capacity in English. She also mentioned the challenges that the vast canvas of regional languages and dialectic variations in India poses in this capacity building exercise.

Ways of Developing the Knowledge Base of Primary School Teachers: An Exploration

Looking at the research work done in both global and Indian contexts, one can notice the modest initiation to the use of translanguaging pedagogy for ESL teachers rooted in Indian multilingual contexts. Such research needs to go beyond the theoretical level and provide practical ways of infusing translanguaging pedagogy to manage classroom language learning more effectively. Therefore, parallel tasks, concept-based word grouping tasks, lesson excerpts, and teacher narratives are presented in the remainder of this chapter. These tasks highlight translanguaging strategy like using students' first language to develop the skills in English in the classrooms. Both the parallel and the concept-based word grouping tasks are bilingual in two ways: first in the format of the task, i.e., first the teachers were given the task in L1 (Assamese), followed by the parallel L2 task (English). Secondly, in the administration of the L2 tasks, all the instructions to these tasks (oral and written) were in L1. The deliberate attempt to use parallel tasks was to filter the declarative knowledge of the teachers in the best possible way to ensure that the knowledge gain in the L1 task can be put into use immediately to perform the task in L2. The lesson excerpts analysis and the teacher narrative study tasks are reflective, trainee-directed in nature (in line with the recommendations made in the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education, 2009, p. 77). These tasks were piloted with a group of 5 Assamese-English teachers: 3 male and 2 female. They teach in three different rural upper primary schools run under the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Mission (SSA)—India's "Education for All" initiative, situated in Assam's Bajaali district. They have varied teaching experience ranging from 2 to 15 years. Unlike their L1 (Assamese), they are not very proficient in English. All of them have bachelor's degrees in Mathematics, Geography, History, and Economics.

Parallel Tasks

Task 1 (a)
Description

This word inference task in Assamese focuses on identifying words from context. It was assumed that by being familiar with the context and background knowledge, the reader would get an idea about the target word. The task instruction reads like: *Read the following sentences. Select the correct option from the words given in brackets and write them down in the gaps provided*. The first set of sentences state Anil's businessman father and his properties: having two cars and a bus. The teachers are expected to find out from the context whether Anil's father can be called a *rich* or *poor* man. The second set of sentences is about finding out *earthquake* or *rain* from the contextual clues such as dark clouds and sky with thunder and lightning.

Commentary

The teachers had no problems figuring out the words. This type of multiple-choice activities are familiar to them. Also, content and instructions are given in L1. Teachers were encouraged to design similar activities for the other two options ["dukhiyaa" (poor) and "bhumikampa" (earthquake)].

Task 1 (b)

Description

This word inference task in English is a literal translation of the Assamese word inference task [1(a)]. However, in the first set of sentences, the male name Anil was replaced by a female name Mitali. The focus was to identify appropriate words by reading sentence clues and with the help of readers' background knowledge.

- Mitali's father is a businessman. He has two cars and one bus. Her mother is a teacher. Mitali comes from a ———-family. (**rich/poor**)
- There are dark clouds in the sky. There is also thunder and lightning. It is going to ———- soon. (**earthquake/rain**)

Commentary

The teachers had no problem figuring out the words because of the instructions in L1. As expected, they took a longer time to read the sentences. They even underlined the important words while reading to get the correct answer. They were scaffolded providing the Assamese equivalent of "earthquake."

Teachers were encouraged to design a similar activity for the other two options ("poor" and "earthquake"). They were asked to identify the difficult words, e.g., "thunder and lightning," "clouds," and the meaning of these words. But they failed to do so. Then, the teachers were further scaffolded by instructing them to look at the Assamese task. After a while, they recognized the Assamese equivalents of the difficult words. This suggests that a simple prompt such as "look at the Assamese task" could help the teachers to understand difficult words in context.

A follow-up language awareness task, by using teachers' metalinguistic knowledge in L1, was done with the teachers. For example, "dark clouds" where *dark* is an adjective and *cloud* is a noun. Teachers were encouraged to develop the same type of combination in L1, e.g., "nilaa aakash" (blue sky), "kalaa aakash" (dark sky), and "farkaal/mukaali Aakash" (clear sky). Then, these were translated with the help of the teachers, e.g., "blue sky" and "dark sky." This task seems rather trivial given that it was meant for adult teachers. However, it serves the purpose to demonstrate how to design word inference tasks for primary school children studying in rural resource-poor schools.

Concept-Based Word Grouping Tasks

Description

This is a task to help developing new words in English with the help of conceptual translation. The words chosen were thematically related, e.g., *hit*, *kick*, *slap*, and *poke*. A discussion was held with the teachers about the similarities and differences (features) of these words. The outcome of it was presented on the board in Assamese as follows:

HIT	KICK	SLAP	POKE
+ bol prayog (force)	+ bol prayog (force)	+ ghopok koi mara (quick hit)	+ hesi diya (push)
+ sporxo kora (touch)	+ bhorire (with **foot**)	+ haatere (with **hand**)	+ aangulire (with **finger**)
+ haatere (with **hand**)		+ sepetaa bastu (flat object)	+ aan jonga bastu (other pointed objects)
			+/ - bol prayog (force)

(Adapted from Schreuder & Weltenis, 1993)

Commentary

The teachers created sentences in Assamese by using the target English words (*hit*, *kick*, *slap*, *poke*). An example is given below:

He mor **stomach**-t **poke** korile (*He* ***poked*** *me in my stomach*).

A quick examination of these four words reveals that force is the common theme with different realizations in terms of agent (foot or hand) and nature of pressure. The idea in this task is to present the target words in English and the core meaning senses in teachers' L1 (Assamese). This facilitates the understanding of the target words. The teachers were asked to do the same with the various verbs of "seeing": *gaze*, *stare*, *peep*, *wink*, *blink*.

Lesson Excerpt Analysis Task

The lesson excerpt below is from a lesson demonstration for Class 4 children in a regional medium school located in Assam. As a group, the 5 trainee-teachers were instructed to analyze it (with the help of the researcher) to answer the following questions:

1. How did the teacher start the lesson?
2. How did she use students' L1 throughout the lesson?

3. How did she introduce the target vocabulary in English?
4. How did she explain the target vocabulary in English?
5. Why did the teacher use students' L1?
6. What were the classroom resources she used?

Lesson objective:	To teach vocabulary related to "time" (e.g., morning, noon, evening, night).
Teacher:	tumaaloke samaya-k ingraajit ki buli koi jaanaa na? (*Do you know the English word for SAMAYA?)*
Children:	jaanu sir, **TIME** (*Yes, sir. **TIME).***
Teacher:	**TIME**-r lagat samparka thaakaa kibaa aaru words jaanaa neki? (*Do you know any other words related to TIME?)*
Children:	najanu sir. (*No, sir. We don't know).*
Teacher:	(When *the teacher realized that the students did not know the target vocabulary, she showed the following pictures of sunrise, sunset, a moon appearing in the sky and related typical activities*).

See (Fig. 30.1).

With the help of the picture prompts, the students were able to recognize and describe them in their L1. However, they were unable to provide the English equivalents for the above Assamese words. Therefore, the teacher provided them with target vocabulary in English (e.g., *morning*, *noon*, *evening*, and *night*) and linked L1 knowledge with L2 lexis.

Fig. 30.1 Picture prompts

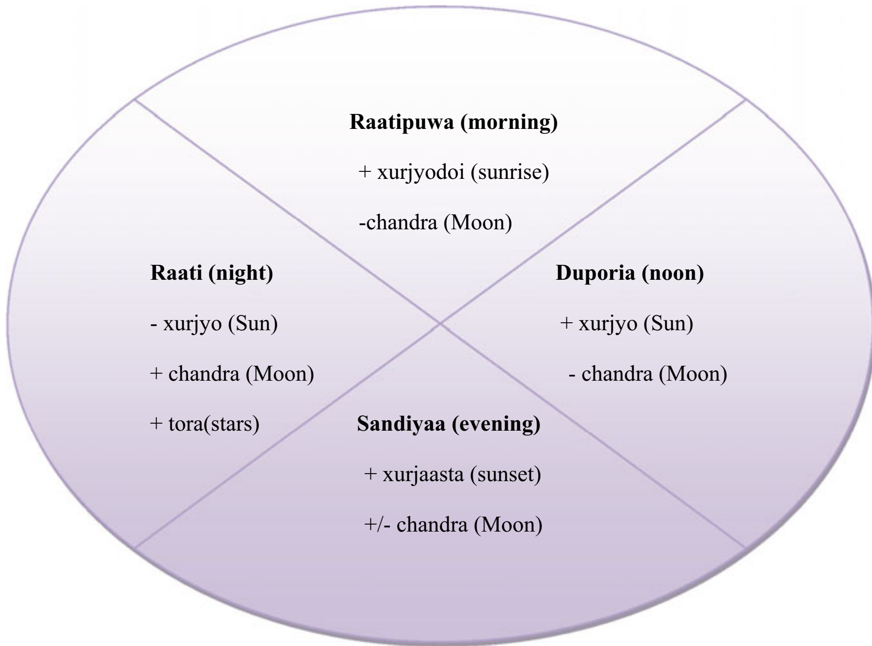

Fig. 30.2 Diagram drawn on the blackboard

Children:	raatipuwa (**morning**)	duporia (**noon**)
	sandiyaa (**evening**)	raati (**night**)

The teacher then described these time periods in connections with the sun and the moon and with the help of Fig. 30.2 drawn on the board. Explanations given were:

- in the **morning** the sun rises,
- at **noon** the sun is high up in the sky and
- at **night** the sun sets and the moon appears.

Commentary

Children produced the following sentences after the teacher's explanation:

- moi **morning** daat brush karu**.** *(I brush my teeth in the morning)*
- **evening** besi khelile **night-t** xonkale tupani dhare**.** *(If I play too much in the evening, I feel sleepy at night)*

Children were just beginning to pick up words and to use them in sentences. The basic structure of their sentences was still in Assamese, interspersed with the newly learnt English words. We observe here an attempt by the children to incorporate

Table 30.1 Use of translanguaging in the lesson excerpt

Translanguaging strategies	Purposes	Translanguaging resources
1. Use of topic-related questions in L1 as a warmer	1. To activate students' schema, generate interest in the topic	
2. Use of topic-related culturally familiar pictures and associated activities as part of the presentation phase	2. To generate discussion in the class and to make students feel at ease to contribute in the discussion	A set of topic-related culturally known pictures
3. Use of teacher-led collaboratively developed diagram with mathematical symbols as part of the explanation phase	3. To teach time-related words with the help of the presence and absence of the sun, the moon, and stars	A teacher-led collaboratively developed diagram in the blackboard
4. Include students' responses in L1 and English in the diagram	4. To expose students to the variety of language inputs	

the newly acquired L2 vocabulary in utterances, which are primarily in Assamese. This is a universally acknowledged strategy used by early L2 learners, where the syntax comes from the L1, and the vocabulary is from the L2. There is an attempt to be faithful to the L1 morphological structure. Note that they have used a time postposition as a suffix 't' (equals to "in the" in English) to "night" in the third instance but not with "morning" and "evening." This indicates a higher level of mixing of L2 lexis and postposition in L1 to make the item as a borrowed word in L1 from L2. We also find that the placement of the adverbs is in accordance with Assamese.

After the critical analysis of the lesson, the trainee-teachers' responses to the guiding questions were summarized in the form of the use of translanguaging strategies, purposes, and resources (Hesson et al., 2014) in Table 30.1. They shared their new-found ability to use and integrate students' L1 in the various stages of the lesson in teaching English.

Teacher Narrative Study Task

This narrative account is about a lesson to teach language functions to Class 4 children in a remote village in Assam. The trainee-teachers were asked to study this individually and figure out the translanguaging strategies.

Vignette

Within the short span of twenty classes, I was able to introduce some basic elements of functional English as in how to use English in various social contexts—to introduce oneself, to greet people, to thank, etc. Here again, I was able to draw from their understanding of language functions in Assamese to develop some awareness of language functions in English.

In order to do this, I asked the students to introduce themselves in Assamese to the class. They began by saying '*namaskaar*' to the class and then saying who they were, where they lived, etc. After that we discussed the ways in which introductions were done. The students said that the way they greet people depended upon the age of the person they were greeting and the relationship with the person. For example, they said they greeted their elders (parents, teachers, uncles, and aunts) by saying "*namaste,*" and that just a smile was enough when they met their friends. They also felt it was necessary to say something more after the greeting— "*bhaal-ne*?" or "*tumaar/aaponaar bhaal-ne*"? (How are you?), and the other person would then reply "*bhaal*" or "*beyaa*" or "*mor bhaal/beyaa*" (I am fine or I am not well), followed by "*dhanyabaad*" (thank you), etc. From this it was obvious that they knew the general social conventions of greeting people in Assamese. I used this knowledge as a base to teach them introductions and greetings in English. The advantage of this cross-lingual discussion was that the social norms of these situations could be taken for granted.

In one class, one of my students said "thank you" and I replied "welcome," immediately they wanted to know what the word 'welcome' meant. In order to help them understand the word "welcome," I first began to draw from their previous knowledge of that word, I drew a picture of a gate on the blackboard. This was because I knew that the word "welcome" is generally written on gates in the village. Immediately, the students came up with the response that in their village, especially during weddings, people wrote something like "*xubha bibaah*" (happy marriage), "*aadariso*" (welcome), at the main door. I used this association to introduce the word welcome (*aadariso).*

During the course, the students made remarkable progress in terms of using English for functional purposes. Earlier, when I had asked the students to introduce themselves in English they were tongue-tied, now, the same set of students were able to do so confidently, saying "*good morning*" followed by "*my name is*___," and "*I live in* ___." Students greeted me with a "*good morning, sir*" every day and at the end of the class a "*thank you sir.*" Sometimes they used "(*You're*) *welcome sir*" too.

Commentaries

The teacher narrative shows the gradual shift of the Assamese children of Class IV in a remote village in Assam from "non-English," tongue-tied condition to a feeling of comfort with using English for functional purposes. It also highlights a variety translanguaging strategies used to elicit knowledge of language functions from students. Some of these are:

- asking to give a demonstration of the language function by the students in the same way they do in their own culture,
- demonstrating the function by the teacher, and
- citing the local ceremony or context in L1.

Discussion

The participatory, task-based trialing out sessions which included experiencing pedagogic tasks as trainee-teachers, analyzing lesson excerpts given to the teachers, and close reading of teacher narratives were very fresh experiences for the teachers. They were surprised to get task sheets rather than textbooks or training manuals

and these sessions were counter to their normal, familiar training practices packed with trainer-directed activities. Teachers were shown how translanguaging pedagogy could be infused into the lesson using bilingual texts, promoting flexible language use, and providing instructions in Assamese and English. In fact, teachers' dialect (home language) was used occasionally in delivering the content (in line with the recommendations made by Hayes & Raman, 2015). All the tasks used in the training were bilingual in nature. This reduces the anxiety and fear of doing the activity only in English. Gradually, they realized that training and teaching can happen without textbooks and manuals. These tasks also provide an indirect estimate of teachers' existing proficiency in both L1 and English. By negotiating the tasks in the training sessions, it was hoped that the teachers' proficiency in L1 and L2 will increase. This can help teachers to become independent language learners who can continue on the path of professional development.

Furthermore, the lesson excerpt analysis and the critical reading of teacher narratives indirectly helped the teachers to reflect on the usefulness of using L1 as a resource in the ESL teacher training contexts. However, this alone may not suffice. Conscious and deliberate use of the first language in teacher education programs is essential. Teachers' meta-cognitive awareness of L1 can be tapped to enhance their own L2 proficiency; their L1 can be used as a language for reflection to help them grow professionally.

Conclusion

In conclusion, an attempt has been made to include home and school-language-based instruction within the existing teacher education program for non-native rural primary teachers in India. By doing so, a different role of L1 has been envisaged: L1 as a scaffolding device. It is assumed that this kind of reoriented teacher education curriculum leads to professional growth of the teachers in the long run which will make them better language users in the classroom. It is also assumed that this kind of strategic inclusion of L1 will help teachers use these methods in their own language classrooms with their students. This is to eventually ensure that the L1 is equally respected along with English. Therefore, it is extremely important for TESOL to recognize its multilingual teachers' home languages and acknowledge the role their home languages can play to build a professional, personal, and procedural knowledge base of teachers in a global society (Kumaravadivelu, 2012).

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Chapter 31
Multilingual Pedagogies for Anticolonial TESOL? An Analysis of Pre-service Teachers' Voices from Finland

Johanna Ennser-Kananen, Päivi Iikkanen, and Kristiina Skinnari

Abstract In this chapter, we bring together critical perspectives on the position of English in Finnish society and in the world with data and experiences from a Finnish teacher education context. We show how pre-service English teachers reflect on their experiences as multilingual language users and future educators and interpret this data from a focus group interview against the backdrop of the position of English in Finland and the larger context of the colonial enterprise that Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is. We align with anticolonial scholars like Motha (2014), who have who have outlined the entrenchedness of coloniality in the field of TESOL and ask about the potential of teacher education studies like LAMP (Language Aware Multilingual Pedagogy) to equip teachers with tools to turn their classroom into spaces where multiple languages are not merely tolerated but actively promoted, and where the difficult heritage of TESOL is acknowledged and dealt with in ways that open spaces for decolonizing practices. Our study shows that language awareness and cultural sensitivity are normalized and familiar ideas to the students and could support an effort to challenge images of Finns as white and Finnish-speaking. This could in turn normalize an image of Finland that is racially and linguistically diverse and promote pedagogies and materials that support teachers in dismantling whiteness and Finnish-speakerism as social and educational norms.

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Introduction

In Finland, English is typically seen as a valuable global skill that opens doors for a successful future. Accordingly, it is the most commonly learned language in schools and enjoys a prestige status among the most highly valued school subjects (Leppänen et al., 2008). Institutionally, the learning of languages other than English has declined in recent years, partly due to budget cuts in language education, but also due to the pervasive belief that learning English is "enough" (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2019). A narrowing of personal and societal language repertoires corroborates the marginalized status of less commonly used or less highly valued languages, such as those spoken at home by many learners from underrepresented groups.

The Finnish curricula (e.g., FNCCBE, 2014/2016; LOPS, 2019) introduce multilingualism as a valuable resource and emphasize the asset multilingual practices are for language education. Although multilingual pedagogies are not merely the responsibility of language teachers, given the relatively secure status of their area in the subject canon, English teachers are in a suitable position to spearhead the discussion on diverse languages and their sociopolitical and sociohistorical role in society and in the world. This, as well as the increasingly multilingual Finnish context, may urge and motivate future English teachers to deepen their knowledge about language awareness and their understanding of the role of English in social and societal contexts. Here, teacher education has an important role in accomplishing transformation toward a more linguistically and educationally just society and world (Shepard-Carey & Gopalakrishnan, 2021).

A number of scholars, for instance Pennycook (2017, p. 11), have problematized an uncritical celebration of a discourse that views the spread of English as a "natural, neutral and beneficial" phenomenon. This discourse, as Pennycook argued, fails to take into account a number of deeper, underlying inequities that are connected to the learning, teaching, and use of English as an international language. These include, for example, access to English, the effects of social class and educational background on people's opportunities for learning English and pursuing further education, and the relationship of English to larger global trends such as the spread of capitalism, developmental aid, and so-called western media (Pennycook, 2017, p. 13). In other words, Pennycook and others (e.g., Hultgren et al., 2014; Pennycook & Candlin, 2017; Pennycook & Makoni, 2019) are calling for approaches to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) that view the global spread of English more critically in light of underlying factors connected to "social and economic power within and between nations, to the global expansion of various forms of culture and knowledge, and to various forces that are shaping the modern world" (Pennycook, 2017, p. 23). In this chapter, we bring together such critical perspectives on the position of English in society and in the world with data and experiences from a Finnish teacher education context. We conclude by suggesting some ways for implementing language aware multilingual pedagogies in the training of future teachers.

Multilingual Pedagogies and English in Finland

In Finland, English is by far the most widely studied "foreign" language in schools, enjoys a high status in several societal domains including working life and popular/social media, and is typically met with positive attitudes (Leppänen et al., 2011). English has become an integral part of many domains of life, such as education, business, and media, so much so, that it has been referred to as "the third national language" in addition to the two national languages, Finnish and Swedish (Leppänen et al., 2008). In fact, many societal actors today see English language proficiency as an essential working life skill that is used in combination with other competencies such as teamwork and project management skills, rather than as a distinct (school) subject to be studied.

The common use of English in Finland has, however, not only been met with enthusiasm. For example, in their study on language ideologies as they feature in newspaper articles, Leppänen and Pahta (2012) showed that most arguments expressed serious concerns about English being a threat not only to the "purity" of Finnish language and culture, but, ultimately, to the very existence of the Finnish nation state. In a similar vein, Saarikivi (2021) fueled such debates by publicly commenting on how the use of English, for instance in academic contexts and in the service sector, is increasing at the expense of Finnish. Furthermore, the Institute for the languages in Finland ("Kotimaisten kielten keskus," Kotus), a national expert institute devoted to the study and language planning of Finnish and Swedish, published a language policy document titled "The future of the Finnish language" (Hakulinen et al., 2009), in which the authors outlined what kind of societal measures should be taken in order to promote and advance the use of the Finnish language in Finnish society, particularly in (higher) education, business, and media contexts. Given that such discourses of English threatening Finnish are hardly new nor typically grounded in empirical data, they receive a remarkable amount of attention in the Finnish media and publication outlets.

We consider these debates against the backdrop of global discourses that surround English, which are being recycled and adapted to the Finnish context. Among other things, English has been termed a threat, a "killer language" (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2003), and a "lingua frankensteinia" (Phillipson, 2008) that is responsible for the death of other languages and knowledges (Phillipson, 1992, see also Hultgren, 2020 for a synthesis and reframing of these discourses). While such concerns may be informed by an intention to promote linguistic diversity and equity, they tend to disregard the socially constructed nature of attitudes toward English (Hyrkstedt & Kalaja, 1998), simplify the complex position of English that has also been claimed, adapted, and localized by many communities (see, e.g., Canagarajah, 1999; Saarinen & Ennser-Kananen, 2020; Pennycook & Makoni, 2019), including communities in Finland (Hyrkstedt & Kalaja, 1998; Jódar Sánchez & Tuomainen, 2014; Leppänen, 2007), and risk an underestimation and erasure of the transformative agency of decolonizing approaches to TESOL (e.g., Meighan, 2020; Motha, 2014; Rubdy, 2015; Shin, 2006). Rather than promoting such simplistic understandings of English, we

hope to shift the debate toward what is truly at stake: a multilingual, equity-focused approach to teaching English.

Multilingual Pedagogies in Finland—The Case of LAMP

Ample research exists for the Finnish context that documents multilingual practices in educational contexts, both as a natural way of communicating and participating in classes with multilingual students (Moore & Nikula, 2016) and as a practice that is recognized and at least tolerated by teachers (Alisaari et al., 2019a; Nikula & Moore, 2019). The teachers' perspective offers a mixed picture (Alisaari et al., 2019a; Repo, 2020): on the one hand, recent research has found teacher attitudes toward multilingualism to be largely positive and described some teachers as skillful supporters and promoters of multilingualism and language learning (Viesca et al., 2022). On the other hand, studies have also shown that teachers' beliefs were shaped by monolingual ideologies, and many did not, for instance, support the idea of using multiple languages for learning at school (Alisaari et al., 2019a). Specifically, in Alisaari et al.'s study, 39.2% of teachers stated that students' home languages (languages other than Finnish or Swedish) should not be used during class, and 57.7% agreed that multilingual families should use Finnish at home whenever possible. In addition to this mixed picture of teacher beliefs, Finnish policies influence attitudes toward multilingual education. The Finnish national core curriculum (FNCCBE, Finnish National Agency for Education, 2014), recent research (Alisaari et al., 2019b), and a research report on multilingualism to the Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture (Pyykkö, 2017) emphasize the value of multilingual repertoires and could be seen as wind in the back of multilingual pedagogies. However, the FNCCBE has also been criticized for remaining too vague in terms of needed or desired pedagogies and reinscribing ideologies of multilingualism as accumulation of otherwise separate languages (Ennser-Kananen et al., 2021) rather than as a pool of linguistic (and other) resources for meaning-making (Garcia & Li, 2014). Teacher education and teacher education research have made important contributions to the promotion of multilingualism in education, for example, with work that promotes (future) teachers' language awareness, which is understood as "knowledge of languages, language use in education, and subject-specific literacy skills" (Szabó et al., 2021, para 2). Although most teacher education programs in Finland include only one mandatory course related to linguistic and/or cultural diversity in schools, optional modules and courses are usually available (Szabó et al., 2021) and local initiatives and community-based research studies (e.g., Jakonen et al., 2018; Lehtonen, 2015; Lehtonen & Räty, 2018) have been successful in promoting positive attitudes toward multilingual pedagogies.

At our institution, the University of Jyväskylä, Language Aware Multilingual Pedagogy (LAMP) studies were established in cooperation with two faculties and three departments in 2019 after piloting them for one year. The studies reach across

the areas of Early Childhood Education and Care, Class Teacher Education (classroom generalists for grades 1–6), and Language Teacher Education to respond to the challenges of multilingual societies and to enhance the participation of all learners through systematic collaboration of teachers on topics of language awareness across educational trajectories and particularly at the transitional points of education. The annual intake of the students for these studies is forty. For those LAMP students who are part of the Department of Language and Communication Studies, LAMP is a full-fledged Teacher Education for Language Awareness and Multilingualism Bachelor's and Master's Programme that gives them the opportunity to work in the future both as language teachers and class teachers. The students interviewed for this chapter belong to this cohort.

English in Finland and in the Finnish Curriculum

In their article, Jaatinen and Saarivirta (2014) outline a history of Finnish "foreign" language education, specifically how the status of languages has changed against the backdrop of reforms of the educational system and shifts in pedagogical approaches. With the introduction of "foreign" language education for all students in the 1970s, English became (apart from the national languages) the most widely studied language in Finnish schools. The authors describe how, from these early beginnings, pedagogical approaches shifted from the Grammar Translation to the Audio-Lingual Method and to pedagogies subsumed under the Communicative Approach, which includes sociocultural perspectives on language learning and explain that English in Finland has typically been taught as a lingua franca (ELF) and/or in CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) contexts. They further state that, as part of the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for languages), Finnish "foreign" language education has become more oriented toward "plurilingualism, pluriculturalism and student autonomy" (p. 37).

On the status of English in Finland, Taavitsainen and Pahta (2003) note that English enjoys a strong position in Finland—in fact it has been called a second language in Finland (Jódar Sánchez & Tuomainen, 2014; Leppänen et al., 2008)—not only in the area of research and internationally connected people and businesses, but also facilitated by English entering the everyday lives of many via mass media and popular culture. In their update on the situation, they describe the situation as follows: "On a global scale, the current trend is toward a multilingualism where English has become a natural part of everyday life, a language resource, for a large number of people" (Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2008, p. 26). They emphasize that rather than English becoming a threat, also other languages keep gaining ground in media and social media contexts (e.g., Arabic, German), new approaches to teaching and learning English are becoming established (e.g., English as a Lingua Franca, Global Englishes), and categories such as "foreign" or second language have become blurred, so that rather than moving toward English dominance, the current situation is a

complex multilingual one. With reference to Friedman (2005), the authors emphasize the importance of "glocalizing," i.e., the human ability to "[absorb] foreign ideas and global best practices and [mold] them with its own tradition" (p. 27), which concerns also linguistic practices. Based on their observations that English is influencing Finnish in a variety of ways, including in the areas of media, professional life, and public spaces, they conclude that "[t]he English language has increasingly become a natural part of language resources for Finns. It is a new kind of second language, used as a lingua franca for international communication, but at the same time glocalized, appropriated for local uses and meanings" (p. 37). Despite this normalized glocal use of English in Finland, it is important to remember that a part of the population does not use or learn it for a variety of reasons (Leppänen et al., 2008).

LAMP Students' Voices on Multilinguality, English, and Equity-Based Education

Our data stem from a focus group interview with four third-year MA pre-service teachers in the LAMP program, all majoring in English. The interview was carried out in an informal manner at the university with all three authors present and lasted for 65 min. We were specifically interested in why the students had applied for the LAMP program in the first place, what had sparked their interest in the program, and what they were hoping to gain from it. We also asked them to share experiences they had had with regard to multilingual practices, and how they were hoping to connect the teaching of English to a multilingual approach in their future work. As a final point, we asked them what message they would like to send to teacher educators. For reporting on the findings, we listened to the audio-recordings of the interviews multiple times to identify relevant passages for verbatim transcription and further analysis. All students have been given pseudonyms in the following excerpts.

From Multilingual Encounters to Transformative Education

For the interviewed students, the double qualification as a language teacher and a classroom teacher was a practical reason for applying for the LAMP studies. Studying English was seen as a commodity that could guarantee future employment as a language teacher and as a teacher in international contexts:

> I would like sometime to live abroad, maybe teach abroad, then I thought that it would be like in a good way a portal to that if you had to use in a way as a L1 another language than Finnish, in teaching or you could kind of use, that enchanted me. (Venla)

In addition to advancing or securing their own careers, another main reason for entering the LAMP program was the students' interest in multilingualism, which

they looked at from different perspectives. First, they mentioned societal changes, specifically an increase of students whose first language (L1) is not Finnish, which require new pedagogical tools for teachers to be able to respond to the needs of these learners. In addition, personal experiences of multilingual and multicultural encounters, either in everyday or institutional settings, and oftentimes involving multimodal ways of communication, triggered reflections and interest in multilingual and multimodal interaction. Most of the students reported on multilingual practices as something they were accustomed to, particularly in interaction with their peers or in their professional lives, and one student made a connection between such experiences and the raised language awareness they received through their LAMP studies, which helped them to see themselves as multilingual:

> I have lots of acquaintances who are like multilingual people, then it has always been interesting to be able to talk in two mother tongues and change directly [...] with our friends it has become like automatically that we can talk for example English at times, there's no problem […] you haven't in a way thought about being multilingual and then, at least I have nowadays paid more attention due to this teacher training to how multilingual I am. (Venla)

Such raised awareness is not only one important goal of LAMP; it could also be a starting point for developing a multilingual professional identity of a future teacher, who recognizes their own and their students' diverse multilingual resources that are appreciated and enhanced in education. The development of teacher identity also included the idea of being able to facilitate change for a more language aware and equity-supporting school.

> So then I was interested in it [translanguaging] and the thought then about being able, as a teacher, to give all the children similar possibilities when we now have this rising immigration in Finland and also elsewhere in the world, so that not all of the children are such that they could speak Finnish at all, so I was enchanted about being that kind of a teacher who could teach everybody. (Venla)

As exemplified in the excerpt, the students saw multilingual pedagogies as a way to respond to the increased immigration, growing multilingualism, and inequities between speakers of the dominant languages and Finnish L2 users at school. In all, the students' wish to study in the LAMP program was informed by a variety of experiences, plans, and questions, including a desire to make sense of multilingual interactions in their social environment and their own multilinguality. In addition, experiences or observations of inequity were entry points for deciding to contribute to equity-based education via multilingual pedagogies. As one student explained:

> It [an experience of work place discrimination] also affected my decision why in the future I will be a language teacher, and a multilingual teacher can then start to teach acceptance of language identity and multilingualism from very early on, that was one of the biggest things for me. (Venla)

As this statement shows, experience of linguistic injustice in working life contributed substantially to some students' understanding of multilingual approaches to teaching for educational justice, and thus potentially acting as a transformative force in the society.

English as a Part of Wider Multilingual Resources

Despite the prevalence of English as *the* "foreign" language in Finland (e.g., Leppänen et al., 2011), the students were acutely aware of the fact that it is often not communicatively effective to use only English as a mediating language in circumstances where there is no shared language between the interlocutors.

> When we gave lessons, we had a Finnish as a second language group, it was really eye-opening, there were really many different languages. Some spoke English, some didn't speak either English or Finnish, when there's not necessarily a common language, it was challenging and really interesting. Our topic was feelings, it was challenging [...] they wanted to tell in their own language. (Jenna)

Sometimes, these experiences originated from working life, as in the following example:

> Aino: I was working at a logistics centre and they hired some 15 people from Africa who had to be taken to induction training provided by the company, they did not speak much Finnish, but they almost spoke better Finnish than for example English, and when I took them to the training, they [the people providing the training] said that they could do it in English if necessary, and I was like yeah, because there were quite a lot of issues related to safety and such things, because we worked high up, luckily they did use some pictures in the induction, when I looked a the workers, I just saw them smiling and nodding, even though they did not understand anything about anything, and I was a bit puzzled about how we would be able to work together, but I thought it was kind of nice to try and figure out ways to work together without a shared language.

Interviewer: How did it work in practice then?

> Aino: We used quite a lot of pictures, and it was funny because there was always someone, who could speak Finnish a bit better than the others, and someone else who was able to speak English better, and then I spoke Finnish, and this person translated and interpreted it to the others, and then I spoke English and the other one who understood these things and this person started interpreting.

The above dialogue with Aino illustrates her awareness of the fact that English is not always the default lingua franca in multilingual interaction, but rather one resource within a larger repertoire in situational multilingual practices. The example demonstrates how heightened language awareness, and a more multilingual, or rather, multisemiotic, approach to utilizing one's entire communicative repertoire was a common practice among the students even before applying to the LAMP program. As a future English teacher, this student, rather than resorting to mantras on the importance of English that are commonly repeated in the Finnish context (e.g., Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003), demonstrated a critical understanding of the power relations between languages and especially the conflicting and ambivalent positions of Englishes in varying contexts (Saarinen & Ennser-Kananen, 2020).

In a similar vein, students mentioned multilinguality (not English proficiency) as an important goal of their lives and their teaching. This was also the case when another student, coming from a small town of Finland in an area that is commonly perceived as monolingual and, thus, as offering limited opportunities for developing

multilingual skills, talked about taking advantage of all available affordances in their school context in striving toward a multilingual identity:

> I feel like I have myself gone out for all multilingual projects, especially at school, in lower and upper secondary, I took part in really many such projects and I felt that they gave me so much, so perhaps through that too, I wanted to start this (LAMP) so that I could in the future pass it on to my own pupils. (Essi)

Importantly, none of the students saw English as a threat to the Finnish language, which is in contrast to some contemporary discourses spread by Finnish academics (e.g., Saarikivi, 2021), but possibly to other languages, especially because of the narrowing of the selection of languages that are offered at schools. In the future, the students envisioned new lingua franca, such as Chinese or Spanish, to appear and the role of English to diminish. At the same time, they understood that their role as English teachers would change as they would need to keep up with the change and potentially learn new languages.

Multilingual Pedagogy Belongs to All Teachers and Teacher Educators

For the interviewed LAMP students, it was obvious that different languages and multilingual practices should be included in their future lessons, especially since they had observed that multilingual repertoires were visible in the schools they had visited during their studies. Importantly, they emphasized that enhancing multilingualism is not only the responsibility of English teachers or language teachers, but the task of all teachers across subject areas. Through their fieldwork at schools, the students had noticed that the newer English textbooks included some multilingual tasks, for example, activities that listed or compared different languages or linguistic features. The students also suggested that comparing different languages could be a useful pedagogical tool for raising language awareness, and were excited about the idea of including the learners' home languages in their future English lessons. One of the students shared a key moment from a workshop at a multilingual school that was witnessed by a group of pre-service teachers at the site:

> I still remember a small group session, where there was an immigrant child in our group, and this child's country of origin, the students were making posters on different countries, and this child's home country was chosen, and the child was able to write in their own language, the child said they will never forget that day, something like that stays in your mind [..] [multilingualism] creates a new dimension [to the work] since especially for someone whose language or culture is not visible anywhere in everyday life, when people suddenly appreciate it, and it is on display. (Jenna)

This experience had been very powerful for all the pre-service teachers who were involved in the workshop and were bearing witness to the young student's obvious appreciation and joy for having the opportunity to celebrate their origins with the other students in the classroom.

Although the students had observed good practices and language aware teachers and seen books including multilingual tasks at schools, they had also encountered cultural insensitivity during their pedagogical studies. For example, they reported an incident that occurred during their practical studies, where they had been instructed to use teaching material and perform activities that were racist and degrading to Indigenous people.

> I always thought that teacher training is supposed to be about equality and so on, but there have been some incidents on specific courses, for example in [a] class, everyone could choose an Indian name and a head piece for themselves, [when this happened] I was especially thinking about a friend of mine who belongs to an American Indigenous population, and I was wondering how this person might have felt in such a class as a child when other students are holding their hands on their mouths and mimicking Indians, I was thinking that is this really what they are teaching us here. (Aino)

Sharing this experience during the interview, the students were still visibly upset and confused because they did not know how to take up the issue with their teacher educators. (We addressed the situation after the interview.) In situations like these, the students came to understand the larger issues that surround language awareness, for instance existing cultural hegemonies and racism that permeate the contexts that are supposed to prepare them to challenge precisely such ideologies. This experience and the conversations ensuing from it amplify the plea "that teacher educators, specifically language teacher educators, must prepare future teachers to critically examine the intersectional influences of power, language, and race in language teaching contexts" and more generally, in all educational contexts (Shepard-Carey & Gopalakrishnan, 2021).

The Way Forward

Inspired by our students, we offer the following considerations for moving forward. The student group we interviewed was quite aware of the role language plays in identity building processes as well as in societal equity issues. They seemed comfortable and confident in sharing their perspectives on these topics. As teacher educators, this should encourage and urge us to design and implement instruction that builds on this awareness and offers new challenges to our students. Starting points could be, for instance, a problematization of the equation of "migrant"/"non-Finn" with "multilingual" and an examination of the role racialization and racial identities play in such labeling: Who is "Finnish" and how is this Finnishness enacted in linguistic ideologies, practices, and policies? Such a discussion could support an effort to challenge images of Finns as white and Finnish-speaking, normalize an image of Finland that is racially and linguistically diverse, and introduce pedagogies and materials that support teachers' roles in dismantling whiteness and Finnish-speakerism as social and educational norms.

Not only did translanguaging seem to be a normalized and familiar practice to the students we interviewed, their statements also illustrate their familiarity with the idea

that English is one of many languages, and in fact one of many means of communication. In the spirit of translanguaging theory, they referred to situational demands as guiding the choice of linguistic practices. We understand this as a call to us teacher educators to spend less time introducing our students to translanguaging theory and instead confront them with some (potentially) more challenging ideas, for example, an approach to teaching English that not only draws on learners' full linguistic repertoire but is also situated in a paradigm that recognizes its sociohistorical and sociopolitical heritage as a product of historical colonialism and contemporary coloniality. Motha's concept of "Provincialized English" that promotes teachers' "intense awareness of the effects of English's colonial and racial history on current-day language, economic, political, and social practices" (2014, p. 129) could guide such an effort. Teaching Provincialized English would start from learning and teaching about race and what Motha has termed "Empire," the contemporary processes of coloniality that manifest themselves as economic (and we would add, cultural and epistemic) hegemonies. Given our students' experiences and their reflections on them, we think there is an urgency to implement such approaches to TESOL and education in general in Finland. We implicate ourselves as teacher educators in this call for change.

In attempts to do anticolonial work, the call for concrete teaching strategies is common and, although often understandable, sometimes used to undermine deep engagement with the larger ideas of teaching for equity. What Shin (2006) has said about her important article that reclaims Indigenous knowledges for TESOL is also true for this piece:

> Classroom practitioners [and we add: teacher educators] seeking a 'cook book' of post-colonial pedagogy will no doubt be dissatisfied with this paper, but that is, actually, how it should be. For a post-colonial pedagogy is not about following recipes or teaching by numbers: it is about questioning common sense assumptions, privileging the situatedness of the local knowledge (and pedagogy), and understanding that one size does not fit all." (p. 162)

In the end, we take our students' curiosity and openness as well as the growing body of critical approaches to language education and multilingualism as wind in our sails toward a pedagogy of decolonizing TESOL, in which we are learners together with our students.

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Chapter 32
Showcasing Multilingual TESOL in Practice: Case Studies from a Regional Australian University

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Abstract Multilingualism, or its more recent variation, plurilingualism, underscores the strong recognition of the multiple languages and varieties of language in any speech community. The deficit view of language learners' linguistic competence has been increasingly giving way to the acknowledgment of first or multiple languages as valuable funds of knowledge which they bring to the language learning classroom. At the same time, the multiple language and cultural backgrounds of language teachers are acknowledged as an asset for professional practice. Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) teacher education programs need to critically engage with this turn to multilingualism/plurilingualism to effectively prepare our student-teachers for these changes. The University of New England (UNE) is a public university in Australia with approximately 22,000 higher education students. In 2019, UNE recorded the highest student satisfaction rating out of all the public universities in New South Wales (NSW) with an 83.2% overall satisfaction rating. In this chapter, we report on how in the School of Education at UNE, we have incorporated emerging theoretical and research findings around multilingualism/plurilingualism into the program design, delivery, and assessment of our TESOL teacher education programs and how this will prepare our students for working in a variety of educational contexts.

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Introduction

This chapter will focus on how the principles of multilingualism/plurilingualism provide the foundations for our Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) teacher education programs and inform our discipline, curriculum, and pedagogical knowledge within the units that the students complete. By developing a model of Plurilingual Teacher Education at the University of New England (UNE), we will showcase our programs through the following:

Component 1: Language engages with the context of language teaching: "local" theories and knowledges which are generated in the Outer and Expanding circles in teaching the method units.

Component 2: Teacher utilizes resources to enhance teaching, for example, drawing on neophyte language teachers' identities.

Component 3: Student enables teacher professional development drawing on the plurilingual repertoire of the students of neophyte language teachers.

Figure 32.1 demonstrates these ideas by showing these three components circling the central concept of UNE Plurilingual Teacher Education.

As Fig. 32.1 shows, our multilingual plurilingual practices at UNE consist of three components: language, teacher, and student. These components are interrelated; while they continuously interact with each other, they inform our TESOL practices and our TESOL practices inform them.

Graduate students at UNE are all prepared to teach English to speakers of other languages in various contexts. These contexts relate to Kachru's (1986) categorization of World Englishes consisting of the Inner circle, Outer circle, and Expanding circle. The consideration of these contexts is the first component of our model. The Expanding circle is used as an example of this component. The second component

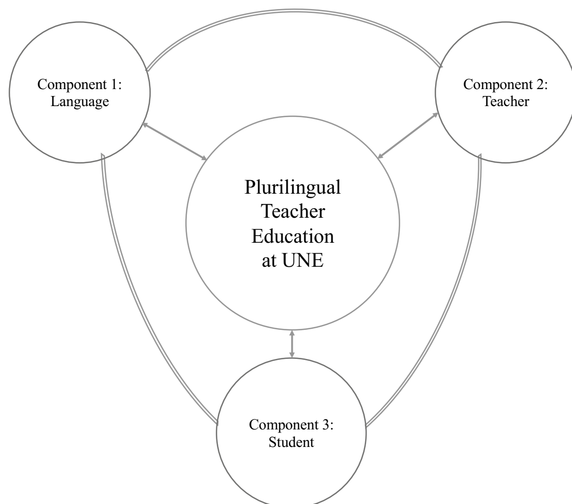

Fig. 32.1 Conceptual framing of plurilingual teacher education at UNE

refers to our neophyte language teachers including teachers of English as an Additional Language or Dialect (EAL/D). In particular, this component will be used to showcase the ways in which the identities of the neophyte language teachers are taken into consideration in our TESOL practices. The last component in the model is related to the students of our neophyte language teachers and how these students' plurilingual repertoires are included in our multilingual plurilingual TESOL practices.

Component 1—Language

Kachru's (1986) categorization of World Englishes in three concentric circles provides a simple way of considering the sites that our students may find themselves teaching in. Table 32.1 summarizes the teaching contexts of our graduates corresponding to the three circles.

One example of TESOL education that draws on plurilingualism and World Englishes is in *EDLI504/505 TESOL II*, a unit of study offered to students who plan to work in Expanding circle settings. In addition to teaching mainstream TESOL practices, our unit also gets our students engaged with "local" theories and knowledges that account for learning experiences in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts. To achieve this outcome, we present the literature that reinterprets concepts created in Inner circle countries, introduce locally produced methods, and help our students understand the recontextualized use of pedagogical concepts. Specific examples are provided next.

Motivation as a driving force in student language learning has been variably theorized in TESOL education. For example, it is interpreted as investment in a social identity that students aspire to achieve as an outcome of their language learning (Norton, 2000). In his popular second language (L2) Learning Self System, Dörnyei (2009) broke motivation down into Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self, and learning experience. An earlier theorization of motivation by Gardner and Lambert (1972) in terms of integrative and instrumental orientation, despite being an influential framework,

Table 32.1 Kachru's (1986) circles and teaching sites

Circles	Teaching sites for graduated students
Inner circle	– Domestic settings: e.g., English Language Intensive Courses (ELICOS) catering to the language needs of international students; – Primary or secondary Australian schools where they focus on immigrant students; – Adult immigrants in programs like Adult Migrant English Programs (AMEP) offered by Technical and Further Education (TAFE)
Outer circle	– Non-Australian overseas institutions such as schools – Non-Australian overseas higher education institutions
Expanding circle	– Non-Australian overseas institutions such as schools – Non-Australian overseas higher education institutions

has been reinterpreted to account for EFL learners' experiences. The concept "international posture" was coined by Yashima (2002) to illuminate Japanese learners' willingness to communicate in English. That is, the students do not learn English because of a desire to identify with some native English people or culture (integrative orientation) but due to the incentive to become a member of an international community where English is the medium of communication (international posture). By exposing TESOL students to concepts developed on the basis of learning experiences in Expanding circle settings such as the reinterpretation of integrative orientation as international posture, our graduates are sensitized to the complexity of student motivation to learn another language. This discussion also dovetails with a consideration of different conceptions of learners, the norm to follow in communication (e.g., international English versus Inner circle varieties such as British, American, Australian English (Jenkins, 2009; Widdowson, 1997)) and native English- versus non-native English-speaking teacher development (Braine, 2010) in Expanding circle contexts.

We raise awareness in our TESOL students that TESOL researchers and practitioners in Expanding circle settings have yielded impressive methods for teaching English. One notable example is the "Continuation" writing technique for teaching writing to Chinese learners of English. This technique captures the dynamics between language reception and production by moderating the input to generate maximal and quality output (Wang, 2016). The method has been widely adopted in teaching English writing at Chinese universities and schools. It has also informed question types in high-stake examinations such as China's national university matriculation examinations. As many of our TESOL students teach or plan to seek employment at Chinese schools and universities, they are faced with Chinese EFL learners who have received training in Continuation writing. We guide our TESOL students to learn about such and similar techniques by reading the English abstracts of local language journal articles and the full texts of English medium publications (e.g., Wang & Wang, 2015, reporting studies following Continuation writing technique). While Chinese academics and their publications are cited for illustration purposes, the approach to incorporating local practices in TESOL education would be applicable to other Expanding circle settings.

Component 2—Teacher

Another example of the specialism in TESOL and applied linguistics at UNE and one which builds strongly on the well-established field of bilingualism and bilingual education is the unit *EDLA315/515 Teaching in a Bilingual Context*. The students who choose to enroll in this subject come from a range of classroom experiences and personal bilingual lives and are usually newly engaging in the theoretical field of bilingualism and applied linguistics. The study in this unit focuses on reading deeply into the recent literature around the nature of bilingualism (Baker, 2006), how the field has developed descriptive categories of bilingualism (Garcia, 2009; Garcia &

Kleifgen, 2010) and how this intersects the bilingual education policies and practices internationally (Cummins, 2000; Hornberger, 2003).

What is particularly noteworthy for the purposes of this chapter is how the theoretical understandings build students' sense of self as bilingual or plurilingual language users in a monolingual English-speaking education system and their growing understanding of their own teacher identity. This development is considered so important that it is built into the learning outcomes: *upon completion of the unit, the students will demonstrate an advanced understanding of themselves as users and teachers of more than one language and culture.*

A study by Ellis (2013) described the complexity of the linguistic landscape in Australia and how plurilingualism has been viewed as circumstantial and even elective for speakers of English in the country which has had its educational language policies described as being characterized by "a monolingual mindset" (Clyne, 2008). Writings by Durrant and Cox (2015) have investigated the vast plurilingualism which characterized much of pre-colonized Australia where the linguistic diversity around Sydney harbor has never been as complex and rich as it was in the eighteenth century. Subsequently, we have a teaching community who appear conflicted around whether their plurilingual repertoires should be celebrated, championed, or concealed as something private.

To support neophyte language teachers in exploring and developing their specific plurilingual identities in EAL/D classrooms, the unit *EDLA315/515* is focused on three tasks. Firstly, each student reads deeply into the contemporary theories surrounding bilingualism and builds a case study based on a bilingual learner that they have encountered. Following that, the student reviews and critiques the models using the case study and their own experiences. Finally, they prepare a lessons sequence where they integrate their emerging understandings about plurilingual learning into language education practice. This cycle of exploration, reflection, and lesson preparation takes the learning to a more significant level. Figure 32.2 demonstrates this learning process, particularly how the students build on their own and other's bilingualism prior to interacting with theoretical models to bring all this deep understanding to the planning process.

Another example that highlights the strengths of TESOL education at UNE, and one which explores plurilingual/multilingual speech communities, language use, and user identity, is *EDLA503: Perspectives on Language, Society and Culture*. Students enrolled in *EDLA503* consist of teachers of English working in overseas settings teaching EFL and within the Australian context teaching EAL/D.

The unit design supports teachers in their growing awareness of self and provides opportunities to reflect on identity, society, and culture, developing awareness of their personal "identity kit" (Gee, 1990, p. 142). The unit aims to develop critical awareness of the relationship between language, social factors, and culture; analyze regional and social language variation from sociolinguistic, eco-linguistic, and functional perspectives; investigate language use in multicultural and intercultural communities; and develop critical strategies for teaching intercultural competence in language education.

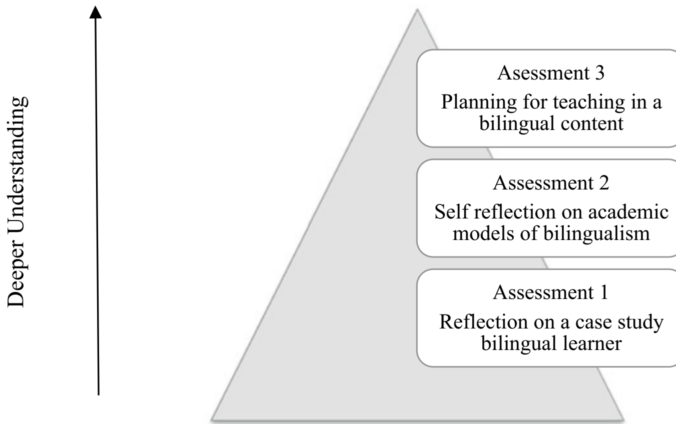

Fig. 32.2 Assessment items to encourage a deeper understanding of the issues in teaching in a bilingual context

The motivation to extend understanding and improve teaching practice for L2 students enrolled in this unit is often driven by students' personal experiences of L2 background and negative encounters of family members who migrated to Australia. These students, teaching and working in the Australian context, the Inner circle (Kachru, 1986), identify a strong need to improve language teaching for future generations, avoiding some of the adverse experiences their parents and grandparents suffered in the past.

Teachers, in the Australian context, are expected to follow the directions of the Australian Curriculum to help students develop their Standard Australian English (SAE) proficiency (ACARA, n.d.). For example, the EAL/D progression document (ACARA, 2015, p. 4) which guides the teaching of SAE in Australian schools has as one of its aims to "help teachers understand students' cultural and linguistic diversity, and the ways this understanding can be used in the classroom." So, in this document, the focus is on learning to read, write, and speak in SAE.

Students working in the Expanding circle (Kachru, 1992) are presented with a different scenario. These students are relatively inexperienced EFL teachers but have some teaching experience in the Australian EAL/D context. Challenges students of native English-speaking background face when working abroad include developing an awareness of local expectations and possible conflicting understandings and knowledge of the English language communication and ways to teach English.

A recent study by Marshall (2020) focusing on pedagogy for linguistically diverse classes provides a useful lens for our student-teachers who are teaching multilingual or plurilingual students in the Expanding circle (Kachru, 1986). He claimed that effective plurilingual instruction requires teachers to understand students' language use, which includes English and other languages, and how this may impact their performance at school or at work. Therefore, a challenge for students studying *EDLA503* is knowing that "looking through a plurilingual lens involves seeing and understanding

language users in certain ways" (Marshall, 2020, p. 144) to ensure that language identity is a valued resource.

At the start of the unit, most students could be labeled as what Picardo (2013 as cited in Ellis, 2013, p. 447) called "unaware plurilinguals," however, by the end of the unit, through the readings, online discussion and reflective assessment tasks, are able to draw on their personal "language histories" (Ellis, 2013, p. 447) to further appreciate their identity, culture, and language. Several students acknowledged and shared Indigenous heritage and experiences of teaching in remote parts of Australia where the use of SAE was seen to restrict access to the Australian Curriculum. Indigenous students, who speak Aboriginal English, a dialect of English, and in many cases speak multiple languages and dialects, often struggle to achieve proficiency in SAE (Eades, 2013).

Assessment tasks in *EDLA503* are designed to provide opportunities for students to explore their own language backgrounds and to develop a deeper understanding of the complexities of intercultural communications. Students are given the tools to investigate language use in plurilingual/multilingual and intercultural communities, and to consider the implications of their findings for language education. A feature of the assignments is a focus on students' own experiences in their immediate family, work, and local community. As Harper and Feez (2021, p. 13) pointed out, theories that have contributed to "how we use language to make meaning," such as Bernstein (2000), Vygotsky (1978), and Halliday (1978), can help us "to look closely at how language works moment-to-moment in smaller scale social situations—the micro level." These assignments do exactly that by focusing students' attention on language within their own circles.

Discussion forums provide a framework for sharing and contributing to a "community of practice" (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015, para. 2), building students' understandings of their own language identity and that of their students. Students are passionate about their students gaining a strong understanding of English and becoming engaged and successfully benefiting from and contributing to society. Likewise, the online Zoom sessions which occur on a weekly basis are a mix of lecture and open discussion where students are encouraged to engage and share information. The most useful discussions are those where students not only reflect on their own language backgrounds (Ellis, 2013), but also where they engage in real conversations and gain insights into others' experiences.

Component 3—Student

In addition to the language and teacher components in our model of multilingual/plurilingual TESOL practices at UNE, our practices are also molded in relation to the students who learn or will be learning the English language from our student-teachers. Within this component, we will showcase the TESOL practices in two units: *EDUC303 Teaching for Cultural Diversity-EAL/D Students* and *EDLA523 Second Language Acquisition: Theory into Practice.* Both units approach plurilingualism

emphasizing the importance of integrating the plurilingual repertoire students bring to the language classroom (Beacco & Byram, 2007; Coste et al., 2009).

The unit *EDUC303* addresses the preparation of pre-service teachers expected to teach EAL/D in Australian schools. Some of the pre-service teachers speak English as a first language (L1) while others as L2. They are plurilingual in nature. To be plurilingual enables one to bring experiences gained from learning other languages into the ways they plan and teach. One way of reporting these experiences is through narrative. Student-teachers are presented with accounts of three families who migrated from Kenya to Australia.

In the unit, narrative accounts gathered from immigrant families all with different lived language experiences are modeled. These families sent their children to schools in Sydney, and the three scenarios are narrated to pre-service teachers. It is expected that upon completion of the unit, the pre-service teachers would use narrative to model their own lived experiences to their students and consequently enable their students to engage in problem-solving experiences with language learning. One of them is presented in this chapter as Scenario 1.

Scenario 1: The Kibaki Kibaya Family

Kibaki Kibaya immigrated to Australia from Kenya in 1998 with his wife, Wothaya, and three children. Kibaki and Wothaya spoke three languages, Gîkûyû, Swahili, and English. This is a typical situation among the Kenyan educated elite. In Kenya, everyone has an indigenous language also called the mother tongue. For Kibaki and Wothaya, they had Gîkûyû as their first language. When Kenyan children commence schooling, they are introduced to Swahili which is the national language and English which is the language of instruction in the country. This family arrived in Australia in 1998 with their three children named Shiru (6), Rima (4), and Kena (1). The girls, Shiru and Rima, were of school-going age and they were enrolled in a public school. Shiru and Rima had Swahili as a first language. The boy, Kena, was just beginning to pick up Swahili as a first language. At school, the girls were absorbed into the ESL classroom. After school, Swahili and English became the languages spoken at home. The family was multilingual. It was the intention of the parents to continue using the Kenyan languages Gîkûyû and Swahili at home. However, with the passage of time, the children found themselves slowly gravitating toward speaking English, the language of school. While the parents Kibaki and Wothaya continued to speak the Kenyan languages at home, the children increasingly drifted to English. English was the dominant language at school, and it was also the language used in popular children's programs on television. Increasingly, the Kenyan languages were relegated to the periphery.

Concerned that their children risked losing their African languages, Kibaki and a few other Kenyans got together and started a Saturday community school teaching Swahili to children in Sydney. Through a community grants scheme, this group of Kenyans secured funding from the government of New South Wales in Sydney. The primary goal was to continue providing instruction in Swahili so that the Kenyan children do not lose their first language. The Swahili school operated continuously for about six months. However, the children had mixed responses about the community

school. Many of them were not as eager to continue to learn Swahili, and they largely categorized this as "the language of parents" and that was not necessarily what was front and center in their minds. Therein lies the dilemma—to teach or not to teach a community language to immigrant children. On the one hand, the parents understand the value of maintaining the first language. By contrast, the children who constitute the target group may not be as keen to learn and maintain that language. There were also other competing interests. Saturday sports for kids were one such item that constituted competing interests. Initially, the Swahili classes took place on Saturday afternoons as this was the available timeslot for many students. Unfortunately, the Saturday sports, which are typically for Saturday mornings in Australia, started spilling over into the afternoons. This complicated matters for both parents and their children. Gradually, the interest in the Saturday community schools waned.

Family languages are at risk of being lost or relegated to the peripheral (Fillmore, 2000). It is acknowledged that when students commence language learning in formal schooling, they bring their experience of learning home languages with them. This experiential knowledge could also be referred to as "funds of knowledge." Funds of knowledge theory argues that "instruction should be linked to students' lives, and the details of effective pedagogy should be linked to local histories and community contexts" (Gonzalez et al., 2006, p. ix). Students use narratives to ensure that their cultural knowledge is not lost. Within *EDUC303*, learners are encouraged to analyze the three scenarios and share their experiences by contributing to a weekly forum posts platform. This was captured by students navigating through their own narratives. Feedback from peers as well as from tutors was provided to contributors to the forum posts. The lecturer in *EDUC303* was keen to capture responses from the students. In reporting their learning experiences, students used the modeled narrative from their lecturer to explain their own lived experiences.

In *EDLA523*, the focus is second language education (SLA) research within the context of TESOL and the dual role of TESOL practitioners as both teachers and researchers (EDLA523, 2021). To develop the researcher within the TESOL teacher, our student-teachers engage with SLA and second language learning research and use the existing research in the literature to design their classroom-based research projects. The focus is on our student-teachers' reflective teaching practices placing their real or hypothetical teaching context in the core of their classroom-based research project design.

The *EDLA523* assessment tasks that are designed to guide the student-teachers through their research design are based on the action research cycle (Burns, 2010; Freebody, 2003; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988). Action research (AR) is considered in relation to two important concepts: change and collaboration, and it can simply be defined as the research that evolves through the research process and leads into accumulated learning through the AR cycle.

The assignments in *EDLA523* are based on an area of investigation identified by the student-teachers as problematic (EDLA523, 2021). This problematic idea is referred to as a *puzzle,* and the neophyte teachers are guided through the process. Following the identification of the puzzle, they prepare an annotated bibliography including the relevant research articles. They are expected to summarize the research

articles, highlighting their relevance to the puzzle. This initial stage of the AR plan prepares them for their project report which is the final assessment task. In the final assignment, the student-teachers are expected to include a clear statement of research questions, a review of relevant literature also referring to the research articles explored for the annotated bibliography and a narrative detailing the stages of the AR cycle.

One of our students in 2021 designed a remarkable AR project exploring the role of creative arts in working with refugee children. In his project, Riske (2021) focused on the trauma experienced by children who have immigrated to Australia on a humanitarian visa and investigated the options for including creative arts in helping those children improve their language skills in English. Inspired by Chang and Cress' (2014) research that shed light onto the exploration of language through more expensive representations of the world view of children and adults, Riske (2021) emphasized that learning, identity, and healing often go hand in hand and the unconscious area of the mind needs to be included in present-day teaching practices where children's stories before and after arriving in Australia are expressed through painting, centering around their identity and their plurilingual repertoire. This was emphasized with the following words in the assignment: "there is a huge potential and flexibility in creative arts practices being used to heal student trauma through positive 're-framings' of identity" (Riske, 2021, p. 9).

Conclusion

The five subjects discussed in this chapter form a core of the sixteen subjects around teaching EAL/D, TESOL, and languages that are offered within the School of Education at UNE. In showcasing the plurilingual TESOL practices, we have used a model consisting of three components: language, teacher, and student (Fig. 32.1).

The first component, language, illustrated by *EDLI504/505 TESOL II* referred to English language teaching (ELT) in relation to Kachru's (1986) concentric circles. The ELT methods that originate in the inner circle do not cover the needs of our neophyte teachers who will also be teaching in the Outer and Expanding circles. Therefore, notions of plurilingualism/pluriculturalism guide our TESOL program in relation to the contexts of ELT exemplified in this unit.

The second component in our model, teacher, was showcased by visiting two other TESOL units: *EDLA315/515* and *EDLA503*. Both units identify and highlight the importance of teachers' plurilingual/pluricultural identities and their own personal linguistic repertoire as they take their journey toward becoming English language teachers. The unit readings and the assessments are structured in a way that allows our student-teachers to demonstrate confidence and conviction around their own cultural and linguistic experiences and the perspectives that they bring to the classroom. We believe that empowering future TESOL teachers in this way is an indispensable value in our plurilingual/pluricultural approach.

The third component in our model, student, displayed the importance of language learners' plurilingual repertoires in our plurilingual language teacher education practices. In order to showcase how we educate our neophyte TESOL teachers so that they take their future students' needs into consideration, examples from *EDUC303* and *EDLA523* are shared. While the first subject achieves this aim in relation to the Australian Curriculum and provides access to the research literature which highlights the needs of EAL/D students using various real-life scenarios as cases, the other subject manages this through a trimester long AR project where neophyte teachers design the project by taking their future teaching context into consideration. Our strong belief in the value of what the language students bring into the classroom is foregrounded in our plurilingual teacher education practices.

In this chapter, we have showcased what plurilingualism/pluriculturalism means to us, why we prioritize these notions in our TESOL program, and how we incorporate these perspectives in relation to the context of language teaching, teacher identities, and the needs of our neophyte teachers' future students. Throughout this process, we have also engaged in the area of our shared passion and built our relationships as TESOL teacher educators, strengthening our community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

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Chapter 33
Translanguaging Practices to Express Emotion, Identity, Agency, and Social Justice

Ribut Wahyudi

Abstract Through critical autoethnography, in this chapter I elaborate my translanguaging practices in the *Introduction to Applied Linguistics* course and reveal that translanguaging practice is a favorable tool to dismantle the dominant monolingual concepts in the English-only classroom. It has not only supported my agency, emotion, deconstructive/decolonization project, and identity affirmation, but also enhanced students' comprehension of the course content. Two student representatives in my classroom confirmed that through their use of the Indonesian language, translanguaging created a more liberating space as English was no longer a "barrier" in the classroom learning. This suggests that translanguaging not only theoretically but practically creates a space for social justice. Even though constrained in the online context, teaching and learning through translanguaging have proved to remain meaningful for both lecturers and students.

Introduction

In this chapter, I discuss how I (as a multilingual instructor) used *translanguaging practices* in my *Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (IAL) course in the fifth semester between August and December 2020, a course conducted through a WhatsApp group due to the COVID-19 situation. This writing is the expansion of my chapter (Wahyudi, 2021c) which discussed my use of a critical approach in the IAL course to negotiate the teaching of dominant Englishes. In the IAL course, I gave students Li Wei's (2017) short paper to introduce them to translanguaging as a concept, make them *engage more emotionally* in the course (Baker, 2011 as cited in Lin, 2020; Wahyudi, 2021c), challenge the *monolingual approach* to English teaching (Garcia & Li, 2014), and exert "strong social justice implications" (Tian et al., 2020, p. 1). The lecturer and students in the class were mostly, if not all, multilingual speakers (see Wahyudi, 2018). Translanguaging mode was enacted, marked by the use of English, Indonesian, and sometimes a local language. I have discussed the details about this course

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in Wahyudi (2021c) and interested readers are welcome to consult it. The course is for fifth semester students who have passed the *Introduction to Linguistics* course. For applied linguistics materials, I made use of *Applied Linguistics* (Cook, 2003), a small introductory coursebook published by Oxford University Press. As for critical applied linguistics, I included topics such as translanguaging (Li, 2017), the revisit of linguistic imperialism (Canagarajah & Said, 2011), language learning and identity (Norton, 2011), post-method pedagogy (Kumaravadivelu, 2001), native speaker fallacy (Canagarajah, 1999), *English as an Islamic Language* (Mahboob, 2009), and English Language as *Naga* in Indonesia (Coleman, 2016) all of which have been discussed in (Wahyudi, 2021c).

Lin (2020) illustrated that research on translanguaging is still in its infancy as there is no single model of translanguaging. Back et al. (2020) argued that there is still a minimum amount of research which discusses the relationship between translanguaging and socioemotional experience. Dovchin (2021) has made *emotions* a critical component for her translanguaging research for female Mongolian immigrants in Australia. These three studies suggest that my critical autoethnographic research on translanguaging which, among others, discusses *emotions* and *agency* is a valuable contribution within the context of the current multilingual trend in TESOL (May, 2014). Emotion is important and is closely related to translanguaging because when I switch from English to Indonesian or Javanese (a local language), I can express my feelings in a better way. As for agency, my use of Indonesian in the classroom has helped me provide a deeper explanation of concepts to my students. Furthermore, my proposed chapter builds on and extends previous studies such as Raza et al. (2021) and Vaish (2020) that argue for a theoretical reorientation of TESOL as a multilingual field where local languages are utilized as resources to promote the target language like English and English is used to support the revitalization and maintenance of local languages.

Research Method

My research falls into the *critical auto-ethnographic approach*. The term *critical* comes from the way I research my own class which includes post-structural components such as politics, identity, and ideology (Pennycook, 2010) and the deconstruction of the dominant monolingual discourse (Yazan, 2018). My research is *auto-ethnography* as it deals with memories and experiences (Wahyudi, 2016) as well as the interplay between the culture and the self through writing the creative resources (Canagarajah, 2012). This approach makes use of multiple data sources (Wahyudi, 2021a) to enhance the robustness of the research. In analyzing the data, I will employ *critical reflexivity* and *story-telling* (Choi, 2013). I will also integrate teaching and research by making use of "teaching tools to do research and research tools to teach" (Jain, 2013, p. ii). In this regard, I position myself as *a practitioner* and *researcher*.

In this chapter, I will discuss selective examples of my uses of language as recorded via voice-note explanations available from our WhatsApp group. I transcribed my

uses of *spontaneous* translanguaging (Lin, 2020) (through a verbatim manner) for data analysis, which was based on: the *different contexts* in which my translanguaging emerged, the kind of *emotions* I felt when engaging in translanguaging practices, and their relation with *agency* and *pedagogical considerations* which triggered my translanguaging practices in those particular situations. In addition to analyzing the transcribed talk, I also explain *the reasons* why I used translanguaging in written texts *during the online class* (when giving instructions) as well as *when allowing students* to use the Indonesian language during discussions in the IAL class exam for 25% of the class time.

Moreover, I present case studies of two representatives of my former students (with their consent) who used translanguaging practices in their exam answers. I asked these students' opinions about my *translanguaging pedagogy* in the classroom (whether or not it was helpful for their classroom learning), their opinion when being permitted to use 25% Indonesian and 75% English in the midterm and final test, and their *emotions* and (agency) when practicing translanguaging in their answers. My research involves students' engagement which can be categorized as *a classroom-based study* (Storch, 1998).

Translanguaging Pedagogy as an Effective Teaching Strategy

To enhance students' understanding in the IAL course, a translanguaging mode is compulsory because the students can better understand the points being delivered in their own language (e.g., Indonesian) in addition to English. Garcia and Li (2014) defined translanguaging as "*new* language practices that make visible the complexity of language exchanges among people with different histories, and releases histories and understandings that had been buried within fixed language identities constrained by nation states" (p. 21). It is when lecturers' and students' experiences, located in their histories, match and create an engagement in the classroom. Vogel and Garcia (2017, p. 4) outlined three core premises of translanguaging theory:

- It posits individuals select and deploy features from a unitary linguistic repertoire in order to communicate;
- It takes up a perspective on bi- and multilingualism that privileges speakers' own dynamic linguistic and semiotic practices above the named languages of nations and states;
- It still recognizes the material effects of socially constructed named language categories and structuralist language ideologies, especially for minoritized language speakers.

In this chapter, I contextualize translanguaging theory in the broader term not for minoritized languages but to refer to Indonesian and local languages which are seen as undesirable to use in the dominant monolingual English ideology. Next, I present some examples of how translanguaging pedagogy was used in my classes and how it contributed to students' better understanding of the course content and discussions.

Translanguaging is Used to Problematize Deficit Thinking

There are different aspects entangled in translanguaging practices in a classroom such as emotions, agency, and pedagogical considerations. Following is the introductory explanation I provided to my students at the beginning of the semester and before exemplifying translanguaging as a practice.

> Thanks for the students who have answered my questions on (unfinished sentence).... I think some of you have been very careful in answering that that's not always the case. In some of the cases, yes, that Applied Linguistics can solve related problem. I can give you the example that Applied Linguistics can solve. This is especially for Critical Applied Linguistics, when we learn Critical Applied Linguistics, we can see for example the way we learn English language sometime yes, *yes of course learning language (English) is good but sometimes it goes beyond than that it has sometime a negative what's so called a negative impact*. For example, if you learn English and you have a good English, it is good *but when you have a kind of attitude to look down the Indonesian and local languages that's a kind of problem, that's a kind of attitude marginalizing local languages, national languages which we need to be very proud of*.

My introductory explanation is important to mention as it provides a particular context where translanguaging in my IAL classroom does not merely function as code-switching, but it is political (Flores, 2014) in that I encouraged the students, despite their language proficiency, not to marginalize local languages or a national language in educational spaces. At the same time, my explanation facilitated multilingual ecology (Wahyudi, 2021b) and functioned as a goal for multilingualism (Turner, 2019).

Translanguaging is Used to Deconstruct/Decolonize Dominant Concepts

Translanguaging can be helpful in the better explanation of difficult or complex concepts to students. As the content I was teaching was part of Critical Applied Linguistics materials inspired by Bunce et al. (2016), spontaneous translanguaging, as demonstrated in the excerpt below, was useful to develop students' understanding of the text as this pedagogy "deepens multilingual students' understanding of texts" (Garcia & Kleifgen, 2019, p. 1). But, at the same time, I used spontaneous translanguaging to exert my agency to deconstruct the usual emerging attitude of seeing languages (e.g., local languages) other than English as less significant (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2013; Wahyudi, 2018). My exercise of agency is facilitated by the acceptance of the creativity and active transfer, resemiotization and re-contextualization of "*pluri-versal* knowledge, thinking and being in diverse sociocultural context" (Lau, 2020, p. 10).

> Jadi kalau Applied Linguistik itu solve language related problem[1] itu iya betul itu dalam beberapa sisi iya tapi tidak selalu. Contohnya, solve related problem kita jadi tahu kalau di Critical Applied Linguistics for example kita belajar Bahasa Inggris itu bagus, bahasa Inggris kita bagus itu bagus, tetapi ketika itu memunculkan sebuah attitude untuk dan melihat Bahasa Indonesia and Bahasa lokal itu inferior a yang bahasa yang rendah daripada Bahasa Inggris itu adalah attitude yang tidak bagus and that's problem itu juga problem.
>
> [If Applied Linguistic is to solve language related problem that is right but it is not always. The example of to solve related problem is we can understand that in Critical Applied Linguistics for example to have good English is good but if it can arouse an attitude to see Indonesian and local language(s) as inferior that is a problem].

As for my act of *deconstruction* through the problematization of the common attitude to marginalize local languages, it resonates with the spirit of translanguaging to legitimize the use of minority languages (Flores, 2014) or, in my case, the unlegitimized use of Indonesian and/or local language in the English classroom. My use of translanguaging as a way to deconstruct these dominant practices is in line with the use of translanguaging to decolonize inequality and marginalization (Liberali & Swanwick, 2020) and teachers' acceptance of translanguaging in the postcolonial context of Malawi where translanguaging is used as a part of a decolonization project (Lau, 2020). Furthermore, my *deconstruction* act through translanguaging above addresses the call for translanguaging to maintain the political spirit (Flores, 2014) and remain situated within critical pedagogy. This is important because, as Poza (2017) argued, translanguaging is often simply misunderstood as code-switching.

Translanguaging can also be used to problematize deficit thinking about the role of AL as a field that deals with language-related problems only (Cook, 2003). In the excerpt below, I used translanguaging to problematize this misconception. This part also shows my critical position to not only take for granted the given lessons but also provide alternative explanations (see Wahyudi, 2021c). In that regard, I made use of translanguaging as a critical political project, disrupting the dominant understanding that AL is restricted to addressing language-related problems only (Cook, 2003).

> Nah…but, the use of…the area of AL does not always relate to language related problem for example my student and I in the past Ahmar Muhammad Qadafi salah satu murid saya meneliti iklan rokok gitu ya dari kajian bahasa pragmatic dan itu Applied Linguistics dan itu sebenarnya tidak ada language related problem disitu tetapi itu adalah penelitian seperti itu jarang dilakukan dalam konteks Indonesia, itulah kenapa kita penelitian melakukan penelitian misalnya yang dilakukan Qadafi murid saya itu karena belum pernah dilakukan, tidak harus itu berkaitan dengan masalah. Kita ingin menjelaskan suatu fenomena kebahasan secara ilmiah walaupun tidak ada masalah yang ya itu bagus-bagus saja, Jadi AL pada satu sisi ia berkontribusi to solve language problem but in other aspect it does not have to be so.
>
> [Nah…but, the use of…the area of AL does not always relate to language related problem for example my student and I in the past Ahmar Muhammad Qadafi one of my former student researched a cigarette advertisement from the perspective of Pragmatics, a branch of Applied Linguistics. There is no English related problem [in our research as is understood in Guy Cook's (2003) book], but our research was rarely done in the Indonesian context. That's why we did it. We wanted to explain the phenomena of [advertising] language scholarly so AL

[1] When explaining the function of Applied Linguistics in solving language related problem as written in the mainstream book (see Cook, 2003).

in one side contribute to solve language problem [as mentioned earlier] but in other aspect it does not have to be so [the problem solver].

To clarify the difference between translanguaging and code-switching and to reinforce the significance of translanguaging as a legitimate practice (Li, 2017), it was purposively demonstrated during lectures. This allowed both the lecturer and students to become more agentive and interactive due to the dynamic and creative linguistic practices that translanguaging promises, where multiple languages are included in classroom discourse (Creese & Blackedge, 2010; Flores, 2014; Garcia & Li, 2014).

Mari kita bahas yang pertama ya Translanguaging itu adalah penggunaan bahasa lebih dari satu misalnya dua bahasa tiga bahasa dalam kehidupan ini tanpa harus tersekat sekat ya jadi pemahaman sebelumnya itu misalnya code-switching itu dalam pemahamannya, orang berpindah dari satu bahasa ke bahasa lain kalau menurut translanguaging terjadi secara otomatis, batasan satu bahasa dengan bahasa lain itu ya fluid saja cair contoh saya kalau ngajar, bahasa Inggris, bahasa Indonesia, bahasa Jawa ini ini yang bisa terjadi secara otomatis dengan mudah, if I can use English, Indonesian and also local language, *translanguaging means going beyond the boundary* means that there is no rigid boundary from one language to another language. Nah itu fenomena dalam kehidupan sehari-hari…

[Let's discuss the first translanguaging is when we use more than one language, two or three in the real life without clear boundaries among the languages. It is unlike code-switching [which regards that there is a clear boundary between languages], so in translanguaging, the shift from one language to another happens automatically, fluid, for example I use English, Indonesian and a local language happen automatically with ease. if I can use English, Indonesian and also local language, *translanguaging means going beyond the boundary* means that there is no rigid boundary from one language to another language. Nah, that's the phenomena in daily live.

Using Translanguaging to Express Emotions, Identity, and Agency

Unlike previous explanation where translanguaging was used to bridge student's understanding toward a critical concept, the practice of translanguaging in this chapter is also presented to explain how it helped express *unhappy feelings* because many of my students were not contributive to classroom discussions. For example, they would write their names on the WhatsApp Group to mark themselves present in class but would not respond to my questions or contribute to in-class discussions. To give *a strong reminder* that their passiveness is discouraged in the class, translanguaging, as shown in the excerpt below, was utilized to express feelings of dissatisfaction. This further strengthens the argument that translanguaging is closely related to emotionality (Dovchin, 2021). Expressing unhappy feelings through translanguaging in my online class partly supports Mujiono's (2016) study which found that translanguaging was used to express *anger*. More than just showing unhappy feelings or anger, my *translanguaging instinct* (Li, 2018) emerged to show that I am *a firm lecturer*. This act of translanguaging represents an act of identity, the *space* created through translanguaging (Li, 2011).

> Terimakasih anak-anak yang sudah menjawab, saya lihat di login e-learning sudah banyak anak yang login tapi tidak semua anak aktif, saya anggap tidak aktif ya karena tidak muncul, dan itu *sangat mengurangi nilai kalian nanti diakhir semester*, itu sudah seringkali saya tekankan ini saya ada 50 dalam satu kelas, saya tidak mungkin memanggilnya satu per satu *too long* (*kesuwen*) itu kalau dalam bahasa Jawa.
>
> [Thanks for the students who have answered my question. I see from the e-learning login that there have been many students login but not all the students are active. I consider not active because they do not pop up (join) the discussion and that would really decrease your mark at the end of the semester. I have often emphasized this. There are 50 students in a class. It is impossible to call it one by one [too long = kesuwen[2]] in Javanese language.

Translanguaging is Used to Create Space for Social Justice

The translanguaging pedagogy I practiced in the classroom promoted social justice in terms of language use. This is because Indonesian, the language I share with students, was not excluded. For instance, students' translanguaging in the midterm and final tests where they were allowed to use 75% English and 25% Indonesian helped them to strengthen their intended answers in a more flexible way. This is where both the students and I were able to exercise agency and create emotional engagement. Tian et al. (2020) argued that translanguaging as a multifaceted lens can foreground "strong social justice implications" because it has the potential to "dismantle English as a monolithic entity, native-speakerism as a pervasive ideology and English only as a pedagogical orientation" (p. 1). In addition to this, my rule above was to implement multilingualism as a goal (Turner, 2019) as my instruction in the midterm and final exams enabled the use of multilingual spaces.

In the quotes below, I present two female students' testimonies, marked with pseudonyms, on my use of translanguaging in the IAL course.

> The fact that students were allowed to answer in English and Indonesian is the rule which eased students as all of them do not use English as their mother tongue. Through the rule, the students tended to have a freedom to convey what they wanted. Because what is implicitly in the brain and thoughts emerge in the mother tongue. Therefore that rule does not limit students' creativity space to convey their thoughts. In addition to that the use of 25% Indonesian in answering the questions can provide concrete and comprehensive understanding functioning as *penegas* (emphasis) for students' entire answer in the midterm and final exam. [Translated from Indonesian] (CA).

In the above quote, the student CA argues that in addition to facilitating students in answering the questions, the rule did not limit their creativity in expressing their ideas which could only be expressed through the first language. This signals that if the students were only allowed to use English, they could have been constrained in expressing their responses. This answer strongly suggests that translanguaging can promote social justice in terms of language use. This may refer to translanguaging as "languaging action that enacts a political process and subjectivity transformation which resists the asymmetries of power that language and other meaning making

[2] Kesuwen is Javanese term (a local language) which means too long.

code... produce" (Garcia & Li, 2014, p. 43). The social justice in terms of language use is due to the fact that rather than seeing other language practices as deficit, translanguaging serves as a new framework to understand all language practices as equal (Creese & Blackedge, 2010; Flores, 2014). Similarly, when multilingual learners translanguage, this instance shows "their agency by using their linguistic resources to communicate more effectively" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017, p. 313).

The second student HD said the following:

> Yes, that helped students. There are sometimes things that are difficult to elaborate even though we have mastered that language (e.g., English). Let alone when that is related to Indonesian or local socio-cultural contexts. So when the students were given a chance to use English and Indonesian, they could answer better [translated from Indonesian]. (HD)

In the above quote, HD said that the permission to use 25% Indonesian and 75% English in both the midterm and final exams helped students to provide better answers. For her, it was not easy to transfer all her ideas through English even though she had mastered the language (English). It was also sometimes difficult for her to translate particular concepts in the local language or from Indonesian to English. Therefore, translanguaging practice in the exam really helped her. The above quote confirms findings in the previous studies that translanguaging can enhance students' learning (Ennser-Kananen et al., 2021; Lau, 2020; Martin-Beltrand, 2014). Additionally, it points to the emergence of *uneasiness* of cultural translations from local or Indonesian language to English if translanguaging is not allowed.

Conclusion

Translanguaging, as shown in my class and from the testimonials from my students, can enhance student engagement in the learning process, boost teacher agency in teaching and deconstructing projects, foreground emotions (of both unhappiness and anger), and construct identity as a firm educator. It also facilitates students' effective communication and creates space for social justice for language use. The translanguaging exemplars presented in this chapter both confirm enhancing student's learning and add nuances (e.g., the use of translanguaging in relation to agency and identity, and deconstructive project) to previous translanguaging studies.

The benefits of translanguaging to enhance teaching and learning have been uncontested facts in many existing studies. However, the discussion of emotions such as unhappiness, anger, identity, agency, and decolonization/deconstruction project in spontaneous translanguaging is an under-explored area in the EFL context. I would argue that more research needs to be done by EFL teachers or lecturers followed by the enactment of more multilingual and ecological English classrooms. Furthermore, EFL teachers or lecturers need to be given a space to firmly ground their own research and to exercise the spirit of activism such as social justice. To put these into practice, the teachers and/or lecturers need to read widely and critically evaluate ELT readings to support their voices and their local aspirations to the global contexts. These

teachers and/or lecturers also need to build local and global alliances of EFL/ESL teachers and experts with similar visions to do *praxis*, a critical reflection and action (Kubota, 2021).

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