

**Systematic Literature Review:**  
**The Outcomes of *Translanguaging* on English Second Language Learners attending  
Secondary Education in Europe**

Naomi Goedhart

5734223

MA English: Education and Communication

MA Thesis

First Supervisor: Trenton Hagar

Second Supervisor: Elena Tribushinina

30-01-2023

9428 words (excl. abstract and references)

## **Abstract**

This thesis has conducted a Systematic Literature Review (SLR) to look at the potential outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language (ESL) learners attending secondary education in Europe. The history of the term translanguaging, how it can be used as a pedagogical practise in second language education, and its reception among educators will be discussed first. Throughout this thesis, the definition of PTL by Otheguy et al. (2015) will be used, namely “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages” (p. 283).

Moreover, throughout the thesis, a strict protocol was followed to reduce reviewer bias and promote replicability. Thus, selection criteria, a critical appraisal, and codes were used to search for, select, and analyse articles, which resulted in a total of four articles that matched all criteria. The main findings of these four studies were meshed and linked to information from the theoretical background in the form of a configurative synthesis as part of the discussion.

The thesis will conclude by reviewing the results of PTL on the four language learning domains (i.e., constructive, cognitive, affective, and interactive) of ESL learners. Moreover, based on these overall findings, recommendations will be made for successfully implementing PTL in the Dutch ESL-context. Lastly, the limitations of the current thesis will be discussed and suggestions for future research will be given.

## 1. Introduction

In 2021, the European Commission (EC) published a report on innovative practises for language education in Europe (Le Pichon-Vorstman et al., 2021). In this report, six case studies were discussed that focused on implementing a new language pedagogy and/or policy in schools in Europe. The primary focus of all these innovative practises was to promote bi- and/or multilingualism in schools, as the EC sees multilingualism as “one of eight key competences needed for personal fulfilment, a healthy and sustainable lifestyle, employability, active citizenship and social inclusion” (European Council, n.d., para. 1).

The EC concludes its report with a general key finding for developments in language education in Europe. They state that to innovate, there should be a shift in perception in relation to languages and their role in the language learning process (Le Pichon-Vorstman et al., 2021). The studies discussed in the report could be used as a starting point to realise this shift, as they have “great potential for adaptation to other countries and contexts” (Le Pichon-Vorstman et al., 2021, p. 10). Among them, the pedagogy of translanguaging is mentioned in the case study Studi/Binogi as students got the chance to bring their own plurilingual repertoires to school and apply them to support the acquisition of the target language(s).

Otheguy et al. (2015) define pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) as “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages” (p. 283). Using this definition, PTL fits the recommendations made for language education by the EC, namely by shifting the focus from named or school languages to the implementation of the student’s own (home-) language(s) in the classroom (Le Pichon-Vorstman et al., 2021). However, the results of only one study and a single definition related to the recommendation for language education made by the EC do not cover all the (potential) outcomes of PTL on

second language learners' learning domains (i.e., the constructive, cognitive, affective, and interactive domain).

Therefore, by conducting a Systematic Literature Review (SLR), the current thesis aims to give an overview of the most current research on PTL and its effect on second language learners' learning, as well as identify any gaps in the existing literature (Newman & Gough, 2020). First, PTL will be further explained as part of the theoretical background by (1) discussing its origins and primary pedagogical goal, (2) mentioning the different definitions used to describe translanguaging, (3) clarifying how PTL differs from the often interchangeably used term code-switching, (4) discussing multilingualism and its current state in Europe, and lastly (5) by looking at the response of educators to PTL.

Moreover, five search engines were used to find articles that mentioned (pedagogical) translanguaging, and selection criteria were applied to assess the selected articles' quality and reliability to the research question. Also, codes were developed to analyse the articles and extract the data into Excel to maintain replicability and order. The databases, selection criteria, and codes that were used will be explained in more detail in the methodology section below.

The thesis will conclude with recommendations for the use of PTL in the Dutch secondary educational system in particular, and language education in Europe in general. It will also mention the limitations of the current thesis and offer suggestions for future research. The Dutch context was chosen specifically as the reviewer is from the Netherlands and thus understands the Dutch secondary educational system the best from personal experience. Moreover, the number of citizens with a migration background (i.e., including first- and second-generation migrants) in the Netherlands has been steadily increasing over the past ten years, from 20.2% in 2010 to 25.2% in 2022 (CBS, 2022). So, if this trend continues, more students will attend secondary education with a different home-language than Dutch in the following decades. PTL could be used to implement these (new) home-languages into the (English)

second language classroom. It would, thus, be interesting to examine what changes educators in the Netherlands should make to make this implementation of PTL possible. In short, the current thesis would like to fill the gap on PTL research in Europe by answering the following research questions using a systematic approach:

*What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language (ESL) learners attending secondary education in Europe:*

1. *What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' constructive learning domain?*
2. *What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' cognitive learning domain?*
3. *What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' affective learning domain?*
4. *What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' interactive learning domain?*
5. *What changes should educators make to the English as a second language (ESL) classroom in the Netherlands to successfully implement PTL?*

## **2. Theoretical Background**

### *2.1 History and Definition(s) of Translanguaging*

With its roots in Welsh bilingual education in the 1980s (Conteh, 2018), the term *Trawsieithu* (later translated to *translanguaging* in English by Baker (2011)) was first introduced by Cen Williams to refer to a cross-curricular strategy for “the planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson” (Lewis et al., 2012a, p. 3). In other words, the use of two monolingual languages for different in- and output purposes (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; Bonacina-Pugh et al., 2021; García & Kleifgen, 2019; Lewis et al., 2012a).

English, for example, was used to read a text, while students were required to write a summary in Welsh (Mazzaferro, 2018).

During that time, Welsh had been in decline for years, and the separation from the other monolingualism, English, had not only led to a disparity in status (Lewis et al., 2012a) but also to a typical instructional model “that required strict language separation to avoid interference” (García & Kleifgen, 2019, p. 555). However, this traditional view of separating languages in education was questioned when Welsh-speakers declared that they wanted to develop and preserve their bilingualism (Vogel & García, 2017). Hence, the initial aim of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) was to “reinforce both languages and to increase understanding” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017, p. 903). A definition that Lewis et al. (2012b) still uphold, stating that translanguaging is “using one language to reinforce the other in order to increase understanding and augment the pupil’s activity in both languages” (García & Lin, 2017, p. 119).

Yet, in recent years, the meaning of translanguaging has broadened depending on the type of research that is conducted (i.e., linguistic, educational, social studies, etc.). García (2009), and Creese and Blackledge (2011), for example, use the term to “refer to how bilingual people fluidly use their linguistic resources -without regard to named language categories- to make meaning and communicate” (Vogel & García, 2017, para. 10). They emphasise the fact that the language practises of multilinguals *go beyond* the use of named languages, which are socially constructed and characterised by the political, ethnic, or social background of the speaker (i.e., Dutch or English). Instead, researchers that uphold this definition of translanguaging put the multilingual at the heart of the interaction (Otheguy et al., 2015; García & Wei, 2014; Wei, 2011; Mazzaferro, 2018; Heller, 2007).

However, this does not mean that named languages are dispensable. Instead, multilingual students will still need them to navigate and use their full linguistic repertoire when interacting (Zhang & Chan, 2022; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Leung & Valdés, 2019).

Alternatively, then, one must look at a named language as the unit of analysis, as “it is far more productive analytically to focus on the very variable ways in which linguistic features with identifiable social and cultural associates get clustered together whenever people communicate” (Blommaert & Rampton, 2011, p. 1). According to Wei (2011), then, translanguaging is:

both going between different linguistic structures and systems, including different modalities (speaking, writing, signing, listening, reading, remembering) and going beyond them. It includes the full range of linguistic performances of multilingual language users for purposes that transcend the combination of structures, the alternation between systems, the transmission of information and the representation of values, identities and relationships. (p. 1223)

In short, according to the definitions of García (2009), Creese and Blackledge (2011), and Wei (2011) translanguaging requires students and educators to step away from focusing on languages as distinct codes (Hornberger & Link, 2012). Instead, teachers should “recognize, value, and build on the multiple, mobile communicative repertoires of students and their families” by emphasising the student’s agency as they create, interpret, and use their own language(s) (Creese & Blackledge, 2015, p. 26). Moreover, translanguaging in the classroom should draw on the entire linguistic repertoire of a student “to maximise understanding and achievement” (Lewis et al., 2012b, p. 655).

In addition, Hélot (2014) sees translanguaging “as a means to counteract linguistic insecurity in the classroom” (Creese & Blackledge, 2015, p. 27). In other words, translanguaging can help teachers understand that balanced bilingualism does not exist and instead can be used as a linguistic resource for bilinguals to interact in a creative and purposeful manner. Therefore, translanguaging, as a pedagogy, does not only *go beyond* the use of named languages but also liberates “the voices of language-minoritized students” (Creese & Blackledge, 2015, p. 26).

The current thesis, however, will use the definition given by Otheguy et al. (2015), which describes translanguaging as “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages” (p. 283). This definition, again, goes beyond the idea of named languages as mentioned by García (2009), Creese and Blackledge (2011), and Wei (2011), yet also looks at the entire linguistic range of the speaker as mentioned by Baker (Lewis et al., 2012b). It, however, does not apply to *only* two languages and thus moves beyond the original idea of *Trawsieithu* by Williams (Conteh, 2018).

## *2.2 Spontaneous and Pedagogical Translanguaging (PTL) versus Code-switching*

To further understand the concept of PTL, it is important to differentiate between (1) spontaneous translanguaging, (2) pedagogical translanguaging, and (3) code-switching. Firstly, spontaneous translanguaging can take place inside and outside of an educational setting and is therefore considered the more universal form of translanguaging (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). It refers to the natural use of multiple languages in contexts where there are no clear language boundaries. Instead, languages are used fluidly (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017).

PTL (i.e., intentional translanguaging), however, is specifically focused on translanguaging in school(s). It originally, as mentioned before in the Welsh context, related to the “planned alternation of the languages for input and output,” but now also refers to instructional strategies that focus on the use of more than two languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017, p. 904). Moreover, code-switching and translanguaging have often been used interchangeably when discussing bi/multilingual language practises in education (Conteh, 2018). Yet they are not the same.

Code-switching refers to the external linguistic behaviour of bi/multilinguals as they shift from one clear linguistic code (i.e., named language) to another (García & Wei, 2014; Otheguy et al., 2015; MacSwan, 2019; Auer, 1999). Translanguaging, on the other hand, takes

the internal view when looking at the fluid use of languages by bi/multilinguals, which goes beyond “the socially constructed boundaries of named languages” (Vogel & García, 2017, para. 20; García & Kleifgen, 2019; García & Wei, 2014; Otheguy et al., 2015). So, while code-switching maintains named languages, translanguaging deconstructs these categories and recognises that, rather than speaking a single named language, bi/multilinguals fluidly select and deploy features from multiple languages depending on their immediate context (Vogel & García, 2017).

Therefore, translanguaging cannot only be used as a pedagogy but also to answer questions relating to social justice in the case of language hierarchies (i.e., target, standard and minoritized language), and “the ways in which linguistic resources are deployed in our societies and how this deployment of resources reproduces, negotiates and contests social difference and social inequality” (Blackledge et al., 2014, p. 193; Vogel & García, 2017). This makes translanguaging *transformative*, as it shows that the boundaries between languages of bilinguals are not clear-cut but rather emerge from social practises that are not linked to a single ethnic or national identity (García, 2010). Or, as Makoni and Pennycook (2007) state “languages do not exist as real entities in the world and neither do they emerge from or represent real environments; they are, by contrast, the inventions of social, cultural and political movements” (p. 2).

Moreover, as code-switching scholars continue to identify named languages as separate entities, they maintain the “monoglossic view that bilinguals have two separate linguistic systems” (García & Lin, 2017, p. 120). Translanguaging specialists, however, suppose that multilinguals have one “unitary repertoire of linguistic features, regardless of whether these are said to be defined sociopolitically as belonging to one language or another” (i.e., the heteroglossic view) (García & Kleifgen, 2019, p. 557; García & Lin, 2017; Velasco & García, 2014). Hence, translanguaging takes the language of bi/multilinguals as the norm and not that

of named languages (i.e., standard grammar) as it exists in a single language unit (Vogel & García, 2017). Yet, code-switching heavily relies on the notion of bilinguals using two separate linguistic codes (i.e., named languages), which are used independently and do not refer to one another (Celic & Seltzer, 2013).

Also, code-switching is often used specifically for three pedagogic functions in education, namely: (1) for interpersonal communication and humanization of the classroom climate; (2) for building and transferring knowledge in the form of a scaffolding technique; and (3) for classroom management (García, 2009). In these instances, the switches between the language of instruction and the other language (i.e., home language) are relatively short (Probyn, 2015). Translanguaging, on the other hand, is a pedagogy that allows students to use their full linguistic repertoire throughout the lesson rather than just for short and rapid switches or as a mere scaffolding tool (García & Kleyn, 2016; García & Wei, 2014; Lewis et al., 2012a; MacSwan, 2019).

### *2.3 Multilingualism Education in Europe*

According to Wei (2008), a multilingual is defined as “anyone who can communicate in more than one language, be it active (through speaking and writing) or passive (through listening and reading” (p. 4). In the European educational context, this translates to English often being acquired as a second or third language, in addition to the speaker’s first language (Seidlhofer, 2011; Jenkins, 2015; Sridhar & Sridhar, 2018). Yet, despite the known positive effects of multilingualism (e.g., slower cognitive decline and better metalinguistic performance) and the rapid increase of multilingualism due to migration and European mobility worldwide (Cenoz, 2013; Bolton, 2018), European language policies, assessment practices, and curricula remain rooted in monolingualism (Hall & Cook, 2012; Conteh, 2018; Wei, 2018). Separate classes, teachers, and/or hours of the week are still devoted to a single language to avoid confusion among (second) language learners, hinder their achievement(s), and protect the ‘purity’ of

languages (Creese & Blackledge, 2011; Yilmaz, 2021; Wei & Ho, 2018). A purity that is still reflected nowadays in bilingual educational models that are built on the idea of additive and subtractive bilingualism (Lambert, 1974).

According to the model of additive bilingualism, an individual (often a speaker of the majority language in society) adds a second language to their linguistic repertoire besides the language they are already proficient in, maintaining both (Vogel & García, 2017; Cenoz, 2013). Subtractive bilingualism, on the other hand, has often been imposed on minoritized groups around the globe as their home language is replaced by the dominant language of the society they grew up in (e.g., Berber is replaced by Dutch in the Netherlands) (Vogel & García, 2017; Cenoz, 2013). In these instances, people are forced to change their minoritized linguistic identity, which pushes them to integrate into the identity of the majority language, as the latter will be seen as more valuable by society (García & Otheguy, 2020).

Although the additive model appears to have more respect for the L1 (i.e., minority language) of the individual, both models still operate within the monolingual view of named languages and thus expect bilinguals to “perform exactly as would a monolingual speaker of each language” (Vogel & García, 2017, para. 7; Grosjean, 1982). Yet, a bi/multilingual is not two (or more) monolingual speakers in one, but rather a unique language user that might have a different experience with each language than other bi/multilinguals (Grosjean, 1982; MacSwan, 2019).

Multilinguals, for example, have richer and more dynamic linguistic trajectories than monolinguals due to their higher level of experiences in different linguistic situations (Douglas Fir Group, 2016; Wei & Ho, 2018; Celic & Seltzer, 2013; García & Leiva, 2014). Also, multilinguals have learned to adjust and develop their linguistic repertoire to accommodate learning an additional language (Canagarajah, 2018). Lastly, multilinguals “navigate between languages and do not use each of their languages for the same purposes in all communicative

situations, in the same domains, or with the same people” (i.e., language modes) (Wei & Ho, 2018, p. 303; Moore & Gajo, 2009; Cenoz, 2013; Grosjean, 2010).

Yet, strict language separation remains in the classroom, and language policies continue to refer to and assess bi/multilinguals’ language practises against the norms of the ideal monolingual speaker (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013; Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Otheguy, 2016; Kubota, 2018; Ortega, 2014). In addition, this way of thinking about languages promotes the idea of diglossia (Ferguson, 1959; Fishman, 1967) as it associates one variety of a language (i.e., named language or target language) with high prestige while the other (i.e., minority language) is valued for low purposes (Yilmaz, 2021). In other words, the identity of students is targeted based on the variety of a language that they speak.

Yet, translanguaging will take away this hierarchy of languages as it breaks down the ideological and false boundaries between them (i.e., minority versus majority, target versus home language) (Wei, 2018). So, a translanguaging pedagogy will not only empower students and teachers to use their full linguistic repertoire without repercussions but also focuses “the process of teaching and learning on making meaning, enhancing experience, and developing identity” (Wei, 2018, p. 15 ; García, 2009; Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Otheguy et al., 2015).

Furthermore, the ideology of monolingualism not only has a negative impact on bi/multilingual identity but also affects the level of anxiety bi/multilinguals experience whenever they use one of their languages and try to meet the monolingual norm (Wei & Ho, 2018). This is especially true now that the emphasis in second language classrooms has shifted from being able to communicate in a different language to correcting errors and removing interference from a different language in order to meet the native norm (García & Otheguy, 2020).

So, language education keeps holding on to traditional theories of bilingualism, such as the *Separate Underlying Proficiency* (SUP) model, while continuing to ignore the home

languages of students (Vogel & García, 2017; Conteh, 2018). For example, according to the SUP-model and the dual correspondence theory (MacSwan, 2019), bi/multilinguals have a separate language system for each language that corresponds to a named (or standard) language (i.e., English, Dutch, Spanish, etc.) in their minds (Vogel & García, 2017). As a result, it was previously assumed that only instruction and exposure in the second language (L2) would result in L2-proficiency, rather than instruction in the first language (L1) (Cummins, 1980).

In addition, these statements led to misconceptions about the language acquisition of bilinguals, which are still prevalent today. Firstly, SUP gave the idea that bilinguals had limited linguistic capacity in their brains and therefore had less proficiency in each language if they had to share this capacity with other languages, also known as the balance effect (Vogel & García, 2017). This concept is still present today in the form of target-language only classrooms where the L1 and L2 are consciously kept separate to avoid interference and overburdening the students' linguistic capacity (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020).

Secondly, if a bilingual became more proficient in one language (i.e., growth), this meant that the proficiency in the other language would shrink just like a balloon (Cummins, 1980). Furthermore, according to the dual correspondence theory, if a student was required to use only one of their named languages for a specific task, that one should be active while the other was not (Otheguy et al., 2018). Yet, this theory has been contradicted previously by the “overwhelming evidence that both languages are active to some degree when bilinguals are using one of them” (Kroll & Bialystok, 2013, p. 498).

Therefore, in recent years, research on multilingualism has stopped viewing languages as separate identities and instead started to see communication as a way “in which language users employ whatever linguistic features are at their disposal to achieve their communicative aims as best they can” (Creese & Blackledge, 2015, p. 21; Jørgensen et al., 2011). So, instead of two separate ‘balloons’ in the bi/multilingual’s mind, Cummins (1979) used the iceberg

metaphor to describe their interaction. Hence, externally (i.e., at the surface), it might seem as if a bi/multilingual uses two (or more) separate (named) languages, yet internally (i.e., below the surface), “there is “a common underlying proficiency,” the development of which gets promoted through reading, writing, listening, and speaking in one or both of the languages” (Vogel & García, 2017, para. 16).

According to the *Linguistic Interdependence Theory* (LIT), then, (meta-)linguistic practises can even be transferred from one learned language to the other (Cummins, 1979; Vogel & García, 2017). Moreover, to maximise bi/multilinguals’ learning, they, according to the *Continua of Biliteracy* (CoB) (Hornberger, 2003), should be “allowed and enabled to draw from across all their existing language skills (in two+ languages), rather than being constrained and inhibited from doing so by monolingual instructional assumptions and practices” (Hornberger, 2005, p. 607). So, both the LIT and CoB underlie translanguaging practises by “doing away with the distinctions between the languages of bilinguals” and instead allowing students to draw from their existing language skills using their entire linguistic repertoire and transfer these to their other language(s) (García & Lin, 2017, p. 123; Cummins, 1979; Hornberger, 2005; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). So, instead of looking at named languages as the norm in second language education, language policies should consider the unitary linguistic language view of translanguaging, which goes beyond named languages and “considers the fluid language practices of language-minoritized students both as the norm and the overall objective in achieving interaction in an increasingly multilingual world” (Yilmaz, 2021, p. 438; García, 2009).

Still, if teachers decide to implement PTL in their second language classrooms based on the LIT (Cummins, 1979) and CoB (Hornberger, 2003), they might meet resistance. Translanguaging could, but should not, contradict the regulations of a school, and thus requires educators to take on an active role in promoting and liberating the voices of the restricted

bi/multilingual in a monolingual educational setting (García & Lin, 2017). How this can be achieved will be further discussed in the next section.

#### *2.4 Educators' Response to Translanguaging*

In Europe, there are four types of multilingual education (García & Flores, 2012): (1) *foreign language instruction* (i.e., learning an additional language to be used in national contexts); (2) *second language pedagogy* (i.e., developing a second (or additional) language to be used besides the national language); (3) *bilingual/monoglossic instruction* (i.e., strict separation of two languages which are used for instruction); and (4) *plurilingual or heteroglossic instruction* (i.e., develops minority language(s) besides national and foreign languages) (Duarte & Kirsch, 2020). In theory, PTL could be used in any classroom. However, as mentioned before, educators who would like to incorporate a translanguaging pedagogy into their language instruction might meet resistance.

For example, a school's beliefs and regulations about bi/multilingualism (i.e., additive or subtractive models, strict language separation, etc.) are not the only types of defiance one can encounter. In some cases, there are other educators who might disrupt a colleague's plan for incorporating translanguaging in the (second) language classroom. Some of these opposed educators claim that translanguaging puts too much emphasis on students' bilingualism (Vogel & García, 2017), which could "threaten the diglossic arrangements and language separation traditionally posited as necessary for language maintenance and development" (Vogel & García, 2017, para. 4). These types of educators, who would either like to eradicate bi/multilingualism completely or believe that bi/multilingualism can only be fully developed in two (or more) languages when having diglossic arrangements, see translanguaging as a threat (Vogel & García, 2017).

Even teachers who essentially believe in the concept of translanguaging and display it in their classrooms may at times prefer to refer to standard varieties (i.e., named languages) and

thus hold on to language separation (Vogel & García, 2017; Ek et al., 2013). Haukås (2016), for example, found that educators often “have positive beliefs about multilingualism and think that multilingualism should be promoted, but they do not often foster multilingualism (i.e. make use of learners’ previous linguistic knowledge) in their own classrooms” due to a feeling of guilt when they rely on their L1 in a L2-educational (or even L3) setting (p. 4; Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; Safont, 2022). Thus, many teachers stick to the monolingual norm when teaching or only rely on their L1 when “a breach in comprehension is feared or has already occurred” (e.g., unfamiliarity with a L2-word) (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017, para. 49; Arocena et al., 2015). So, what does this mean for the incorporation of PTL in educational contexts?

Firstly, it is important to realise that translanguaging is inherent, as students are always doing so when they select certain features from their linguistic repertoire to communicate with each other (Vogel & García, 2017). Yet, if teachers keep on evaluating their bi/multilingual students’ languages against monolingual norms, they will continue to foster linguistic insecurity and not develop their students’ bilingualism (Vogel & García, 2017).

Secondly, if teachers do want to improve their students’ bilingualism, they should take a critical stance on named languages. They can start by understanding that their students’ full linguistic repertoire is a valuable resource from which they can learn as well, thus creating co-learning spaces (García & Kleyn, 2016; Vogel & García, 2017; Pacheco & Miller, 2015). Moreover, educators can help their bi/multilingual students by teaching them which features of their linguistic repertoire are appropriate for different academic contexts (García & Wei, 2014).

Thirdly, translanguaging pedagogy requires a strategic design from teachers that “engages multilingual students as active learners assembling the different forms of semiosis that make up their entire repertoire,” yet also leaves room for in-the-moment changes (García & Kleifgen, 2019, p. 559; García et al., 2017). Thus, educators require their bi/multilingual students to take on an active role in steering their individual input, as translanguaging pedagogy

“stems from the speaker up and not from the language down” (García & Kleyn, 2016, p. 23; Ticheloven et al., 2021; Canagarajah, 2011). Furthermore, when assessing the linguistic ability of their bi/multilingual students, teachers could begin assessing them on their overall language abilities rather than comparing them to the monolingual norm (García & Otheguy, 2020). In short, PTL invites educators to take up the position of a co-learner, let go of total teacher control, and have faith in their students’ linguistic repertoire (Celic & Seltzer, 2013).

### **3. Methodology**

To conduct a SLR, a detailed protocol must be followed to reduce the risk of possible reviewer bias, starting with the construction of selection criteria for the articles (Torgerson, 2003; Newman & Gough, 2020). Therefore, it was decided to only focus on PTL in English second language education in secondary schools in Europe as the current thesis aims to answer the following research question:

*What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language (ESL) learners attending secondary education in Europe?*

In addition, PTL is a relatively new concept in second language education. Therefore, a time period of the last five years was chosen to get the most up-to-date results. Also, to raise validity and readability (i.e., the researcher is a native Dutch speaker of English), only published journal articles written in English were included in the SLR. In addition, the current thesis merely focused on PTL in *regular* secondary education, excluding Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), private, immigrant, and adult education. The decision to exclude CLIL was made because the current thesis wanted to examine just the outcomes of PTL in an English second language (ESL) learning context, and thus not include content-related (i.e., different subjects like mathematics or science) education. Private and immigrant education were also excluded from this study because these types of education do not have to follow the same curriculum as the public sector according to European law (Tooley, 2002). Findings could thus

be affected by (small) differences in programs. Lastly, adult education was excluded based on the participants' ages, as the current thesis focuses solely on students attending secondary education. In sum, this resulted in the formulation of the following eight selection criteria:

- Published over the past 5 years (2017-2022).
- Articles are written and published in English.
- Articles contain an abstract, title, and/or keyword that mentions (pedagogical) translanguaging.
- Only published journal articles (i.e., excluding MA-theses, PhD's, book reviews, and/or chapters).
- Articles are freely accessible online or by using the University of Utrecht's library proxy/link.
- Articles are focused on secondary education in a language classroom context (e.g., second language classroom, EFL/ESL, minority language classroom).
- Participants are students.
- Studies are conducted in Europe (thus excluding studies from (South) America, Africa, Asia, Oceania, and the Middle East). Articles are also excluded from analyses if the place of study is unclear from the abstract and/or text.

Furthermore, to be able to search for articles that matched the research question and conduct comprehensive research, the open-access 'grey' literature source Google Scholar was used, as well as the following academic databases: JSTOR, Web of Science, and Education Resources Information Centre (ERIC). These sources were chosen for the following four reasons: (1) a broader array of research articles from different backgrounds (i.e., multidisciplinary, literature, science, and education); (2) user-friendliness; (3) open access to (almost) all articles using the University of Utrecht library's proxy/link; and (4) high reliability of quality (Newman & Gough, 2020).

As each database has a different way of searching for articles, some including a button to search within a specific field, key terms were formed based on the possibilities and limitations per database. In the case of Google Scholar, this meant that the combination of key terms was differentiated three times to ensure more hits, yet always included the main term (pedagogical) translanguaging. Moreover, during the search for articles, the box that includes quotes and patents on Google Scholar was unchecked. The key terms that were chosen for each database can be found in Appendix A, as well as the number of hits before applying the selection criteria (except for year of publication, which was immediately implemented during the preliminary search). The article search was conducted between the 9th of September and 30th of November 2022.

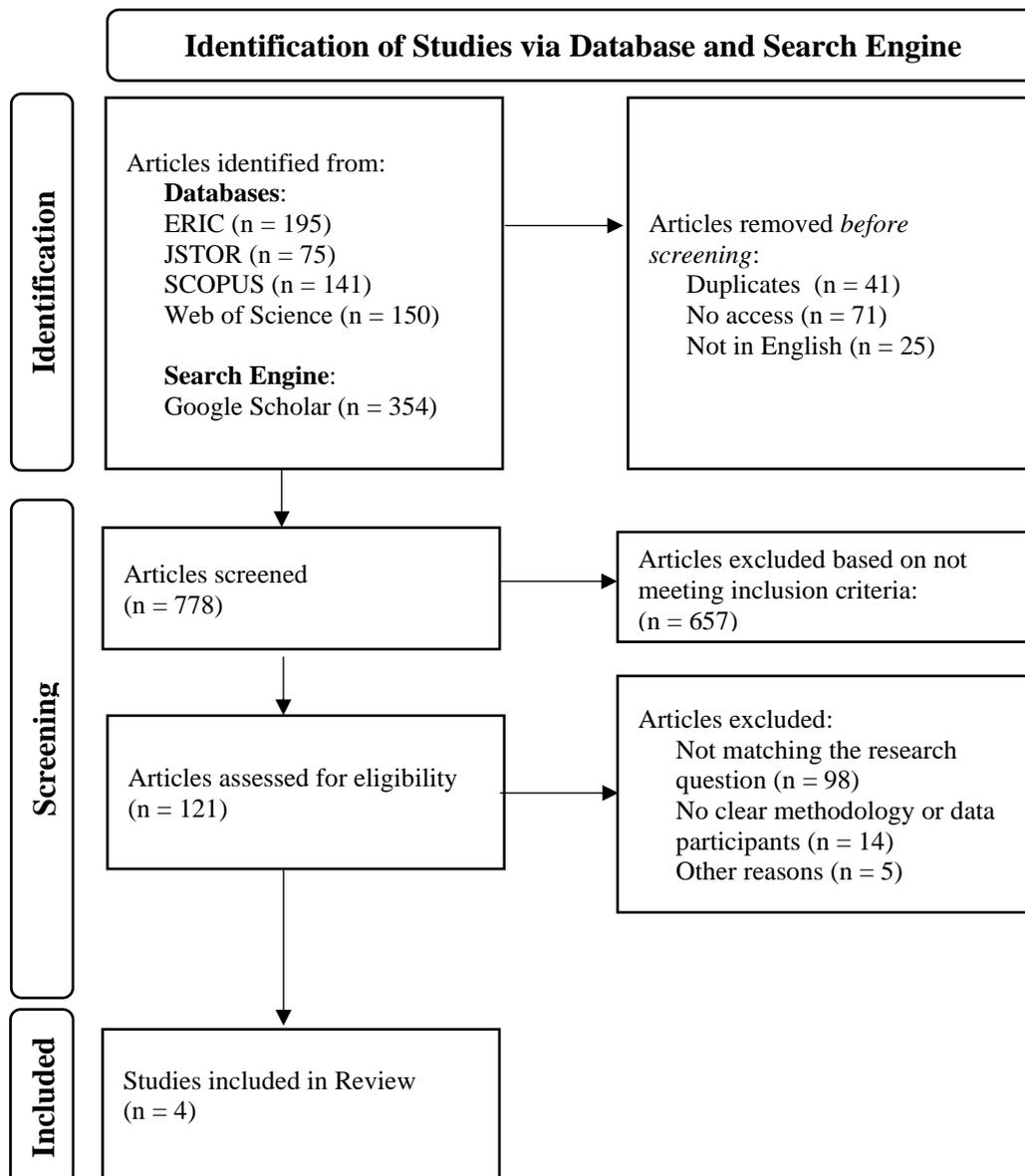
After the preliminary search, the other selection criteria were applied to the remaining articles, resulting in a total of 88 articles eligible for analysis. However, as the number of articles dramatically decreased after this first selection process, it was decided to include another academic database to ensure more possible hits: SCOPUS. In the end, this resulted in a total of 121 articles that underwent a critical appraisal in the form of a screening (i.e., reading the abstract, methodology, and conclusion of the study) to ensure that they matched the research question.

The factors that were considered during the screening were (1) the study method used in relation to the current thesis' research question (i.e., mixed-method, qualitative, and/or quantitative), (2) a full description of execution (i.e., including data participants, context, and design), and (3) the relevance of the study to the current thesis (i.e., secondary education, ESL/EFL, and European context) (Gough, 2007). The articles that remained after the critical appraisal formed the basis of the SLR and were used to answer the research question during analysis. A PRISMA flow diagram (Page et al., 2021) was used to map out the number of

studies included and excluded based on the selection criteria and critical assessment during the identification process (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1.**

*PRISMA Flow Diagram of Articles Included and Excluded in the SLR per Step*



Furthermore, to analyse the articles, a coding system was applied to ensure replicability, which, among other factors, included the details of the participants and language context (Newman & Gough, 2020). The data of each article was extracted by means of an Excel spreadsheet and can be found in Appendix B. The codes that were used to analyse the studies

are: (1) date of study; (2) details of participants; (3) language(s) examined in context (i.e., secondary education); (4) place of study; (5) method(ology); (6) findings; and (7) conclusion.

In addition, the findings of each study were connected and meshed in search for commonality and differences as part of the discussion by focusing on outcomes related to four learning domains: the constructive, cognitive, affective, and interactive domain. In other words, to answer the current research question, a configurative synthesis was conducted, which was narrative-driven and used to give a critical evaluation of the included studies (Almeida & Goulart, 2017; Thomas et al., 2017). This way, the patterns and disparities found in the data between the studies were not only interpreted and used to answer the research question but also helped identify any possible gaps in current research on PTL as well as its strengths, weaknesses, and limitations.

Lastly, careful recommendations were made regarding the implementation of PTL in the Dutch educational context, which are informed by the current second language policy (i.e., use of target language only) in the Netherlands, the findings and limitations of the discussed studies, and the personal experiences of the researcher as an ESL-teacher-in-training. Moreover, as the researcher is aware of the fact that personal experiences can be biased, recommendations were only made if they were supported by earlier findings from research or the current SLR.

## **4. Results**

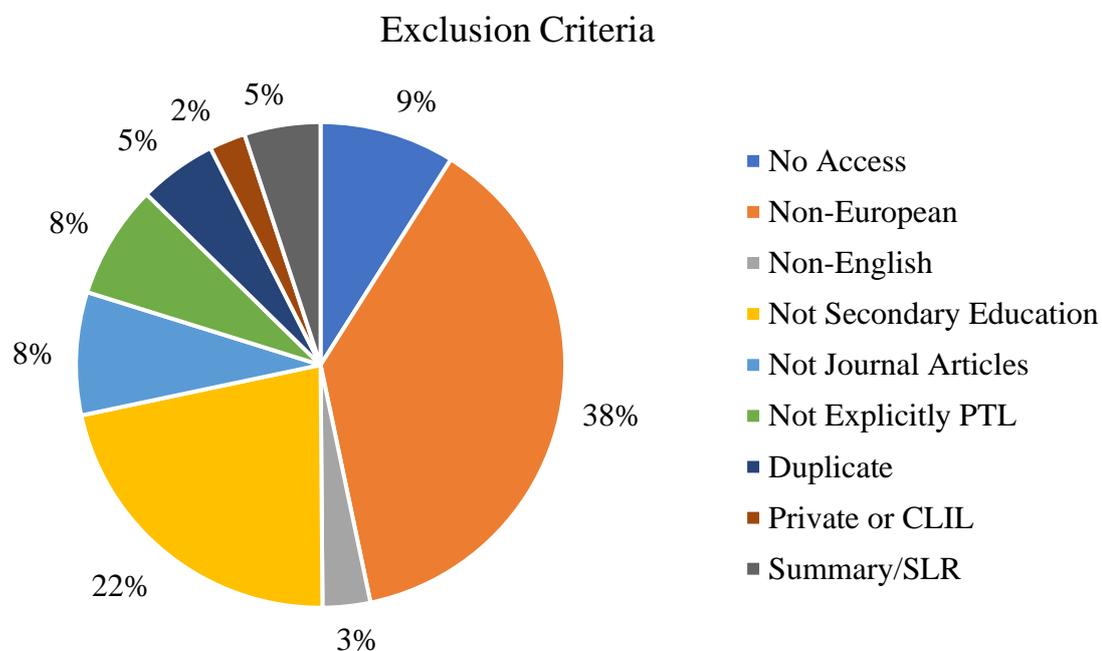
### *4.1 Article Selection and Exclusion Criteria*

An initial database search turned up a total of 915 articles. After applying the selection criteria, only 121 articles remained for critical evaluation. Most of the articles were excluded based on (1) the place of study (i.e., 38% were non-European), (2) the level of education (i.e., 22% did not focus on secondary education), and (3) accessibility (i.e., 9% had no access). The percentages of the other exclusion criteria, such as written language, type of document, and

making no explicit reference to PTL (i.e., spontaneous translanguaging, translation, etc.), can be found in Figure 2.

**Figure 2.**

*Percentage of Articles Excluded per Exclusion Criteria*



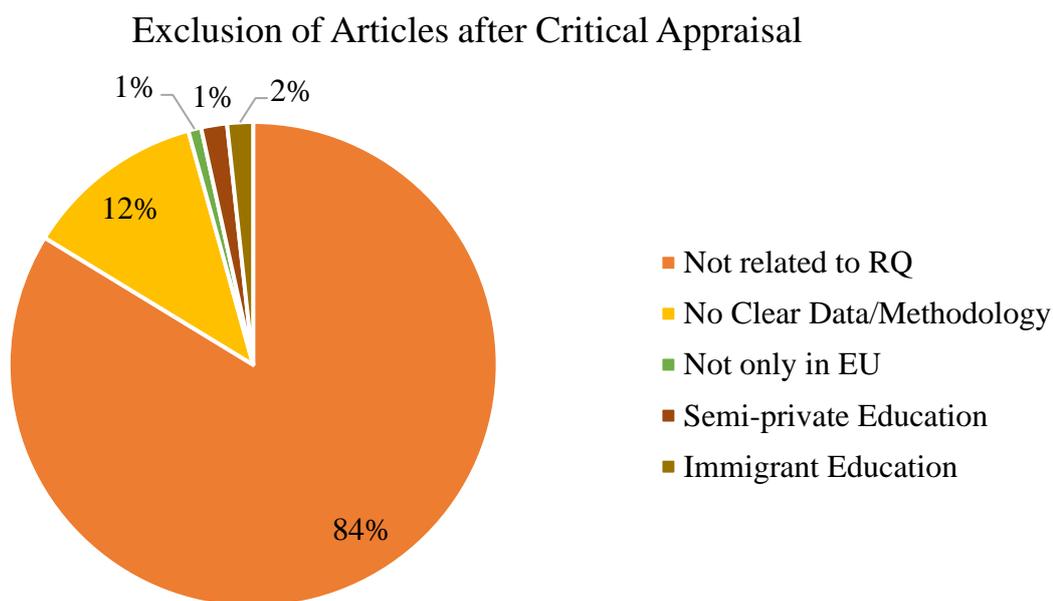
During the critical appraisal, only four articles were found to match the research question as they focused on PTL in a second language classroom. Those that did not match the research questions focused on the technological benefits of TL and/or PTL in science, mathematics, or other second language classrooms, home environments, and deaf education (i.e., 84% did not relate to the research question). Articles were also excluded if they had (1) no clear data on the participants and/or methodology (i.e., 12%), (2) focused on a different type of secondary education (e.g., semi-private and immigrant education), and/or (3) were conducted in more than one region (i.e., not just in Europe) (see Figure 3).

The four articles that remained were conducted in Turkey (2 studies) and Norway (2 studies) and included the named languages: English, Turkish, and Norwegian. Moreover, the participants of each study attended standard lower and upper secondary education, had a mean

age of 15.7 years, and were part of an EFL/ESL class. However, the number of students, date of research, methodology, and learning domain that was researched, differed per study (see Table 1). A more elaborate overview of the data from each specific study, including the earlier mentioned codes (6) findings and (7) conclusion, can be found in Appendix B.

**Figure 3.**

*Percentage of Articles Excluded after Critical Appraisal per Criteria*



Two studies took on a qualitative approach as they used interviews, students' documents, observations, (classroom) audio, reflective journals/papers, and/or fieldwork notes to research the outcomes of PTL in secondary education (Yüzlü & Dikilitas, 2022b; Beiler, 2020). Two other studies used a mixed-method approach, combining statistical analysis (i.e., convenience sampling) and interviews (Yüzlü & Dikilitas, 2022a) or a four-point scale questionnaire with open-ended questions (Prilutskaya & Knoph, 2020) to come to their results. In other words, all four studies had at least (some form) of a qualitative approach albeit in combination with statistical analysis in two cases.

**Table 1.**

*The Characteristics of Each Study Divided per Category.*

<b>Researcher(s) (Date)</b>	<b>Place of Study</b>	<b>Languages</b>	<b>Age Participants (n)</b>	<b>Methodology</b>	<b>Learning Domain</b>
Yüzlü & Dikilitas (2022a)	Turkey	Turkish, English	14-15 (60) 16-17 (60)	Mixed Method	Constructive, Cognitive, Affective, Interactive
Yüzlü & Dikilitas (2022b)	Turkey	Turkish, English	15 (3)	Qualitative	Constructive
Beiler (2020)	Norway	Norwegian, English	17 (54)	Qualitative	Affective, Interactive
Prilutskaya & Knoph (2020)	Norway	Norwegian, English	15-16 (200)	Mixed Method	Cognitive

In addition, the mixed-method studies reported findings regarding all four learning domains and had at least 60 participants per study, while the qualitative studies only focused on the constructive and affective outcomes of PTL with a maximum of 54 students. Also, three out of four studies did not look at all four categories but instead focused on a single domain (see Table 1). Lastly, two out of four studies were conducted in Scandinavian Europe; the other two (by the same researchers) took place in southeastern Europe (i.e., Turkey). So, in the first two studies, a Germanic language (i.e., Norwegian) formed the participant's L1. However, the Altaic language Turkish was the L1 in the other two studies. Lastly, the L2 in all four contexts was English, which belongs to the same language family as Swedish and Norwegian (i.e., Germanic).

In the next four sections, studies will be further analysed based on their findings (and conclusion) relating to the outcomes of PTL on second language learners' constructive, cognitive, affective, and interactive domain in an attempt to answer the following research questions:

1. *What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' constructive learning domain?*
2. *What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' cognitive learning domain?*
3. *What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' affective learning domain?*
4. *What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' interactive learning domain?*

#### *4.2 Constructive Domain*

Constructive abilities emphasise the meaning-making process of students (i.e., how they make sense of their experiences, the self, knowledge, and relationships) and promote autonomous learning. Only two out of four studies (50%) reported on the effects of PTL regarding this domain. Firstly, by using a mixed-method approach, Yüzlü and Dikilitas (2022a) found that translanguaging instruction made the teaching materials more *understandable* for students, which eased their reading comprehension and improved their writing. Moreover, students felt *empowered* to learn autonomously due to the ability to freely choose which language they wanted to use when studying, which helped them understand the material better and facilitated their learning process.

Secondly, in their other qualitative research on translanguaging in a hybrid course design, Yüzlü and Dikilitas (2022b) found that translanguaging also promotes deep learning by raising students' self-awareness (i.e., self-reflection and self-criticism). They stated that

translanguaging stimulates the development of *criticality* and *creativity*, namely in the form of transcontextualising (i.e., praxis), linguistic emancipation, and symbiotic relatedness (i.e., culture). In the case of transcontextualising, students were able to reflect on and evaluate the hybrid course design by “removing linguistic and contextual barriers” (Yüzlü & Dikilitas, 2022b, p. 10) and showing their creativity. Thus, creating a fluid language classroom where students not only freely switched between languages but also speaking modes (i.e., face-to-face and online communication).

Moreover, by removing said barriers, students were able to critically self-reflect on the use of their full linguistic repertoire and felt empowered enough to question the monolingual language view they had previously had before embracing a heteroglossic reality (i.e., linguistic emancipation). In the end, some students even chose a heteroglossic stance over the monoglossic view they grew up with as they were given the space to critically reflect on their language use (i.e., symbiotic relatedness). Yet, for others, this ability to use their whole linguistic repertoire only led to a conflict between the monoglossic culture they were taught at school and the inherent translanguaging practises of being an emergent bilingual. These students felt like they moved between two worlds, and although they had a desire to use their whole linguistic repertoire, they still submitted to the L2-monoglossic view (i.e., only using the L2 in class) that was practiced at school in the end.

#### *4.3 Cognitive Domain*

Two out of four studies (50%) reported on abilities relating to the cognitive domain, which focuses on raising a student’s (meta-)linguistic awareness and developing the four language skills (i.e., reading, writing, speaking, and listening). Firstly, Yüzlü and Dikilitas (2022a) found in their mixed-method research on the effects of translanguaging instruction on second language learners that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on all four language skills after having received TL instruction. The data they collected using interviews

regarding the perception of students towards translinguaging confirmed these results, as students stated that by being allowed to access their full linguistic repertoire, students were able to discover their own language learning potential. Moreover, translinguaging instruction raised the student's interest in the overall language system and made them more positively aware of their own bilingualism, likely even promoting pride in their growing language skills.

Likewise, Prilutskaya and Knoph (2020) found in their mixed-method research on translinguaging in Norwegian pupils' writing that students switch between language modes during "different stages of the composing process" (p. 3). Most students report starting in the L2 (i.e., English) monolingual mode as they begin writing, yet their first language (i.e., Norwegian) becomes activated during the content-organizing, text-structuring, and idea-generating activities. However, there is also a small group that uses both languages (i.e., bilingual mode) throughout the whole writing process. Those that did engage in translinguaging practises gave four reasons for why they chose to translanguage, namely: (1) to use and try out different languages because it was allowed and they wanted to take advantage of this possibility; (2) for rhetorical and stylistic purposes; (3) to work out grammar and/or vocabulary problems; and (4) to come up with as many ideas as possible regardless of the language they thought in.

Still, although students stated that they felt that translinguaging had a positive effect on their writing (i.e., grammar, vocabulary, text structure, and content), they did prefer to only use English for the whole writing process. They argued that they found the mixing of languages (1) confusing and demanding, (2) rather preferred to write in English as much as possible, and (3) did not understand the goal of mixing languages in terms of learning results. Students that did see the benefit of translinguaging, however, pointed out its creative side, the possibility of writing longer texts in English when more languages are used, and "its potential to make texts more engaging and exciting" (Prilutskaya & Knoph, 2020, p. 11). In addition, one student stated

that “it could be fun to mix languages” (Prilutskaya & Knoph, 2020, p. 11) yet was also aware of the extra cognitive demand it takes to use two (or more) languages simultaneously.

#### *4.4 Affective Domain*

Emotional security, a positive classroom climate, and student motivation are all effects that relate to the affective domain. Two out of four studies (50%) reported on how translanguaging practises can influence the abilities relating to this domain. Firstly, Yüzlü and Dikilitas (2022a) found that PTL teaches students to overcome the monolingual constraints of second language learning and language separation, which improved the relationship with their teacher and made the lesson more meaningful. Moreover, students felt increasingly motivated and confident to participate and speak in the L2 (in this case, English) during the lesson due to having the freedom to use more than one language. In this sense, translanguaging had a positive effect on student motivation, classroom climate, and emotional security. Also, students experienced a sense of comfort and even voluntarily participated as they were learning English instead of feeling forced to perform activities or pretend to understand the lesson. In addition, students mentioned that they enjoyed learning English when using a translanguaging approach, commenting on the difference between this method that felt authentic and honest to themselves and previous superficial or artificial standard course materials.

Yet, Beiler (2020) found in her qualitative study, which compared the translanguaging practises in three ESL-classes with various L2-levels (i.e., sheltered, mainstream, and accelerated) in Norway, that translanguaging practises “were least marked in the sheltered class, based on students’ greater perceived need to construct meaning through translanguaging, as well as the desirability of increasing their Norwegian proficiency” (p. 131). Thus, in this case-study, translanguaging was only seen as a tool for task accomplishment.

Moreover, although the use of Norwegian besides the L2 was permitted in the sheltered class, speaking a minoritized language was looked down upon as not everyone would be able

to understand it. Therefore, students from a minority background self-policed their language practises out of fear of stigmatisation or exclusion (i.e., either by excluding others or being excluded themselves for not speaking a language everyone could understand). However, not all students felt this need to self-police. One student even stated that they saw translanguaging as an integral part of their multilingual identity.

#### *4.5 Interactive Domain*

Again, half of the selected studies (50%) reported on abilities relating to the interactive domain, which focuses on authentic language use and students' communicative abilities (i.e., selecting the appropriate and effective verbal and non-verbal language skills depending on context). For example, students in Yüzlü and Dikilitas' (2022a) mixed-method research mentioned the interactional use of translanguaging by having the opportunity to switch between languages (i.e., English and Turkish) and practise the L2 (i.e., English) with their peers and teacher. They enjoyed talking to each other, which encouraged the development of communicative abilities. One student even pointed out the scaffolding and complementary aspects of translanguaging as students learned from and taught each other through discussions and dialogues in both languages. Lastly, some students emphasised the authentic language use that is a component of translanguaging pedagogy and how it reflects daily life. As a result, real language learning was promoted, as it made the need for learning a L2 "a more tangible and concrete concept" (Yüzlü & Dikilitas, 2022a, p. 184).

In addition, in her qualitative study, Beiler (2020) found that students' interactional language use (i.e., communicative abilities) relied heavily on the school context. In other words, students would only translanguage outside of curricular activities (e.g., personal conversations). Beiler (2020), thus, explains that students "reproduced societal discourses defining minority language communication as antisocial" (p. 124). However, students also mentioned the

possibility of scaffolding, like in the study of Yüzlü and Dikilitas (2022a), claiming that using shared minoritized languages could provide additional learning support.

## 5. Discussion

Educators are like chefs in a kitchen; they decide which ingredients (i.e., pedagogy) they will need to be able to cook the best meal (i.e., learning outcomes) for their guests (i.e., students). In other words, they play a vital role in the language learning process of their students and are first-hand experiencers (along with their students) of the (potential) learning outcomes of any pedagogy. Therefore, to give these chefs a new ingredient, namely pedagogical translanguaging (PTL), the current thesis has conducted a Systematic Literature Review (SLR), which discussed four studies focused on PTL in secondary education in Europe. Four learning domains were found to be affected by PTL: the constructive, cognitive, affective, and interactive domains. The outcomes of PTL on each of these domains and a critical evaluation of the selected studies will be discussed in more detail below to answer the broader research question:

*What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language (ESL) learners attending secondary education in Europe?*

*5.1 What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' constructive learning domain?*

Firstly, it was found that PTL had a positive effect on students' understanding of the teaching materials, which facilitated their learning process (Yüzlü & Dikilitas, 2022a; 2022b). Thus, students' use of one language reinforced "the other in order to increase understanding and augment the pupil's activity in both languages" (García & Lin, 2017, p. 119). Moreover, students felt empowered to use multiple languages, which made them more self-aware and raised their criticality (i.e., a heteroglossic versus monoglossic language view) and creativity.

However, it is important to keep in mind that the two studies that reported these results were conducted by the same researchers (i.e., Yüzlü and Dikilitas), which could affect the

reliability and validity of their findings. For example, the results of their first study could have (unconsciously) affected the design or conclusions of the second one. However, each study used a different methodological approach (i.e., mixed method and qualitative design) and the number of participants differed vastly (i.e., 200 versus 3 students), yet the results were fairly the same. Therefore, based on the combined findings of both studies, it can be said with relative certainty that PTL empowers students and positively facilitates their learning process.

### *5.2 What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' cognitive learning domain?*

The results of the study by Yüzlü and Dikilitas (2022a) showed that students who had received PTL instruction outperformed the control group on all four language skills. In addition, the PTL group explained that they felt in control over their own language learning as they were allowed to access their full linguistic repertoire. Furthermore, by emphasising their agency, students not only became more interested in their own bilingualism but also the overall language system (Creese & Blackledge, 2015).

The study by Prilutskaya and Knoph (2020), on the other hand, showed that although students do switch between language modes during the writing process in a translanguaging setting, they also stated that they preferred to use only the L2. The students' clear L2-preference could be (unconsciously) affected by the dominant language ideology in most European second language classrooms, namely using the target language only. However, students might also have felt like using the L2 was the only appropriate language in this specific context, as multilinguals “do not use each of their languages for the same purposes in all communicative situations, in the same domains, or with the same people” (Wei & Ho, 2018, p. 303; Moore & Gajo, 2009; Cenoz, 2013; Grosjean, 2010).

So, the prominent language ideologies for second language education in each country might explain the difference in results. Perhaps Turkey (Yüzlü & Dikilitas, 2022a) has a more

flexible language ideology than the Scandinavian countries for second language education. On the other hand, a different methodological approach could also explain why students in the last study by Prilutskaya and Knoph (2020) did show a switch between language modes in the experimental group, yet also preferred using only the L2. In the latter, students were expected to translanguage as part of the study design (i.e., the translanguaging group). Yet, in the study by Yüzlü and Dikilitas (2022a), translanguaging instruction was given, but students were not explicitly made aware of the concept of translanguaging. Therefore, students in Prilutskaya and Knoph's (2020) study might have felt 'forced' to translanguage during their assignment, while in the other study, pupils did not need to translanguage themselves and were only asked their opinion of the concept. Hence, the different conditions under which students were introduced to translanguaging in both studies may have influenced how students perceive the potential use of PTL.

### *5.3 What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' affective learning domain?*

A switch between language modes was also present in the findings regarding the affective domain. Beiler (2020), for example, found that translanguaging was used to promote task accomplishment. However, the term code-switching might better suit these instances, as the switches were relatively short and the use of the full linguistic repertoire was not promoted throughout the whole lesson (García & Wei, 2014; Otheguy et al., 2015; MacSwan, 2019; Auer, 1999).

Moreover, in the same study, students showed awareness of the lower position their minority language held in the classroom, which resulted in self-policing as they were afraid to be excluded or stigmatised by their classmates. Thus, proving that they understand the language hierarchy in educational settings as well as the appropriate language modes for each specific context. It can even be said that these students are subdued to the idea of subtractive

bilingualism as they give up their minoritized linguistic identity in favour of the majority language, which is seen as more valuable by society (Vogel & García, 2017; Cenoz, 2013; García & Otheguy, 2020). Still, not all students self-policed, and one student even stated that translanguaging was a vital part of their multilingual identity.

In contrast, Yüzlü and Dikilitas (2022a) concluded that PTL can help students overcome these monolingual constraints of language separation. Moreover, it was found that PTL improved the relationship between teacher and pupil, which resulted in increased self-confidence, enjoyment, and motivation. In the end, students even voluntarily participated in the translanguaging lesson.

However, study design could once again have affected these differences in results. Students in Beiler's (2020) study, for example, did not openly receive PTL instruction like the pupils in Yüzlü and Dikilitas' (2022a) study did. Instead, the translanguaging practises of teacher and student were simply observed (i.e., through ethnography by the researcher) without informing the participants of the concept of PTL. Moreover, Beiler (2020) explicitly focused on the markedness of translanguaging in the ESL-classroom, while Yüzlü and Dikilitas (2022a) examined all outcomes of PTL instruction on students. In other words, Beiler's (2020) interest in the negative (i.e., markedness) response to translanguaging practises could have resulted in her overlooking its positive aspects, especially since her findings are based on ethnography, personal observations, and semi-structured interviews (i.e., could be biased).

#### *5.4 What are the (potential) outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on English second language learners' interactive learning domain?*

Firstly, PTL led to students enjoying the language lesson more, which increased communication among pupils and between teacher and student. In addition, students also referred to the complementary aspect of PTL and its scaffolding possibility as they were allowed to use multiple languages in the classroom to make sense of the teaching materials (Yüzlü & Dikilitas,

2022a). Moreover, the use of authentic language in the L2-classroom made the concept of learning a second language more realistic.

Yet, the language(s) used to communicate in Beiler's (2020) study depended heavily on the context (e.g., minoritized language use only in extra-curricular activities). So, students were aware of the interactive potential of PTL, yet also seemed to understand "the ways in which linguistic resources are deployed in our societies and how this deployment of resources reproduces, negotiates and contests social difference and social inequality" (Blackledge et al., 2014, p. 193; Vogel & García, 2017). Again, different language ideologies might have influenced these results. However, a difference in methodologies could also play a part, namely in the way that translanguaging is examined. In Beiler's study (2020), translanguaging was observed in a regular classroom context, so it appeared naturally (or rather did in specific contexts), while in Yüzlü and Dikilitas' (2022a) case, students received translanguaging instruction before conducting a task, which could have promoted a more freely held opinion of PTL. So, what can these findings teach us about how PTL can be implemented in the Dutch second language classroom?

### *5.1 Dutch Secondary Language Education*

The number of multilingual migrant students attending secondary school in Europe is steadily increasing, as is the number of (new) minority languages (Duarte, 2020; Aronin & Hufeisen, 2009; Vertovec, 2007). For example, since the early 2000s, the number of HAVO (senior general secondary education) and VWO (pre-university education) students with a migration background in the Netherlands alone has increased from 28,6% in 2005/06 to 39,9% in 2020/21 (NJI, 2021; Rijksoverheid, n.d.). Yet, when it comes to second language education, Dutch schools still hold on to the idea of immersion in the target language, which promotes monoglossic pedagogies (i.e., language separation) (Kroon & Spotti, 2011). Even pre-service

teachers are still being schooled in these language separation pedagogies as part of their teacher training (Duarte, 2020).

In the case of English, which is a compulsory subject for all Dutch secondary school students, this means that pupils are only allowed to speak English during their ESL lessons, also known in Dutch as the *doeltaal=voertaal-principle* (West & Verspoor, 2016). However, as mentioned before, this idea of using only the target language is based on the traditional bilingual theory of the *Separate Underlying Proficiency* (SUP) model, which has previously been disproven (Vogel & García, 2017; Conteh, 2018).

Instead, this idea of two separate language systems has recently been replaced by the concept of a common underlying proficiency, “which gets promoted through reading, writing, listening and speaking in one or both of the languages” (Vogel & García, 2017, para. 16; Cummins, 1979). In other words, multilinguals possess a single unitary repertoire from which (meta-)linguistic practises can be transferred from one language to the other (i.e., *Linguistic Interdependence Theory*) (Cummins, 1979; Vogel & García, 2017). So, if educators would like to maximise multilingual learning, they should allow them to “draw from across all their existing language skills (in two+ languages), rather than being constrained and inhibited from doing so by monolingual instructional assumptions and practices” (Hornberger, 2005, p. 607).

Furthermore, data shows that students who are “socialised in more than one language are often underperforming in European schools” (Duarte, 2020, p. 232). In other words, students with a migration background will fall behind on their non-migrant peers, which will only contribute to the achievement gap (OECD, 2016). So, to improve multilingual students’ learning outcomes and support the Dutch multilingual society, it might be time for a different educational approach, namely multilingual education, which is described as “the use of two or more languages in education, provided that schools aim at multilingualism and multiliteracy” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015, p. 2).

PTL fits this description precisely because it enables students to use their full linguistic repertoire in the classroom, thus stepping away from the monoglossic pedagogies that are currently permeating second language education. However, the introduction of PTL does require a change of stance among Dutch educators. In other words:

*What changes should educators make to the English as a second language (ESL) classroom in the Netherlands to successfully implement PTL?*

Firstly, educators (i.e., teachers, policymakers, and school administrators) should actively support multilingual students by promoting the use of their full linguistic repertoire in the ESL-classroom (García & Lin, 2017). They can begin by accepting the fact that students always translanguage when they select certain features from their linguistic repertoire to communicate and that this can be a valuable resource from which teachers can learn themselves as well (García & Kleyn, 2016; Vogel & García, 2017; Pacheco & Miller, 2015).

However, educators fear that by allowing students to use their home languages in the classroom, they will only do so for non-educational purposes, which will lead to teachers losing control over their students (Jordens, 2016; Van Praag et al., 2017). Yet, research proves that this fear is unfounded, and pupils just use their home languages to discuss classroom content or to progress in their task (Bührig & Duarte, 2013; Duarte, 2019; Jordens, 2016; Van Praag et al., 2017).

Also, the current thesis' findings showed that multilingual students are aware of which languages are appropriate for specific contexts (i.e., curricular versus extra-curricular), even self-policing in some cases, as discussed in the studies by Beiler (2020) and Prilutskaya and Knoph (2020). So, the fear that teachers will lose control over their classroom is neither confirmed in earlier research nor in the current results. Instead, allowing students to use their full linguistic repertoire and teaching them which features of their linguistic repertoire are appropriate for different contexts (García & Wei, 2014), will lead to an improved student-

teacher relationship, increased self-confidence, enjoyment, and classroom participation (Yüzlü & Dikilitas, 2022a).

Secondly, the reality of language hierarchies should no longer be ignored, and educators need to become aware of their own use of named languages. So, language separation policies should be re-examined to avoid stigmatisation of minority languages (Yilmaz, 2021). This way, students who speak a minority language can show their multilingual identity without having to fear repercussions (e.g., exclusion). Moreover, by drawing attention to and removing said language hierarchies, multilingual students will not only be able to freely express themselves in the second language classroom, but it will also promote self-reflection. In some cases, according to the study by Yüzlü & Dikilitas (2022b), it can even empower them to question the monolingual language ideology they have been subjected to for years and adopt a heteroglossic stance instead.

Thirdly, students should no longer be assessed against the norms of the ideal monolingual speaker (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013; Otheguy, 2016; Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Kubota, 2018; Ortega, 2014). Instead, language policies should take the fluid language practises of multilingual students as the norm and make achieving interaction the sole objective in this changing multilingual world (Yilmaz, 2021; García, 2009). If they do not, they will continue to foster the linguistic insecurity of multilingual students, which will hold them back from developing their second (or third) language (Vogel & García, 2017). Moreover, as mentioned in the results, allowing students to use their full linguistic repertoire will not negatively impact the four language skills but instead lead to an improvement compared to current language pedagogies (Yüzlü & Dikilitas, 2022a).

To summarize, to successfully implement PTL in the Dutch secondary ESL context, the current thesis recommends educators to: (1) actively support multilingual students to use their full linguistic repertoire; (2) re-examine language hierarchies to avoid stigmatisation of

minority languages; and (3) stop assessing multilingual students against a monolingual norm. If these changes are incorporated into Dutch second language education, multilingual students can, based on the earlier findings, start gaining the constructive, cognitive, affective, and interactive second language learning benefits of PTL.

## **6. Conclusion and Limitations**

The current thesis has attempted to answer the following research question and show the outcomes that PTL in the European context has on students' abilities within the constructive, cognitive, affective, and interactive domains using a systematic approach:

*What are the potential outcomes of pedagogical translanguaging (PTL) on second language learners attending secondary education in Europe?*

An analysis of four studies has indicated that PTL improves students' understanding of the L2 and its four language skills, empowers and develops their multilingual identity, raises their self- and meta-linguistic awareness, and increases their enjoyment, motivation, and classroom participation (Yüzlü & Dikilitas 2022a, 2022b; Prilutskaya & Knoph, 2020). However, one study also found that students did a lot of self-policing as the idea of language hierarchies was still present in that specific educational context (Beiler, 2020).

In the Dutch context, PTL could be introduced to the (English) second language classroom to accommodate for the rising number of multilingual students that will attend secondary education in the next few years as a result of migration. However, to make the implementation of PTL successful, educators should change the current monoglossic pedagogy of language separation in three ways. Firstly, by allowing and empowering multilingual students to use their full linguistic repertoire. Secondly, by re-examining the concept of language hierarchies to avoid stigmatisation of minority languages in the classroom, and lastly, by no longer assessing multilingual students against a monolingual norm. If these requirements are met, the outcomes documented in this thesis regarding the constructive, cognitive, affective,

and interactive learning domains may be achieved in the ESL-classroom in the Dutch educational context as well.

However, it is important to acknowledge that selection bias could have influenced the current findings based on the devised inclusion/exclusion criteria. For example, the current SLR excluded articles that focused on any subject besides ESL, such as science or mathematics. PTL may have vastly different effects on multilinguals' learning domains in these classroom contexts than in the language classroom for which it was originally designed (i.e., bilingual education in Wales).

Also, the current thesis was conducted by a single researcher, which could have resulted in researcher bias even if a strict selection protocol was followed. For example, due to the reviewer's limited proficiency in multiple languages (i.e., a native Dutch speaker of English (L2)), several eligible studies written in other languages were already excluded before screening took place (Almeida & Goulart, 2017). If the SLR was conducted by multiple reviewers, on the other hand, it would not only ensure a more diverse language background but also solve possible disagreements that might arise about the inclusion/exclusion of specific articles based on the devised selection criteria. In the current thesis, for example, studies that did not completely match the inclusion criteria (i.e., ESL-class consisting of only immigrant students) would be excluded just to be sure. Yet, another researcher might have chosen to include these studies instead. Therefore, to avoid possible selection bias, future research should include studies conducted in non-language classrooms (e.g., science), and review should take place in a team of at least three reviewers in case of disagreement and a tiebreaker is required.

Moreover, although the focus of the SLR was on the outcomes of PTL on second language learners in all of Europe, only two out of fifty European countries were represented in the research data, which were either based in the north (i.e., Norway) or southeast (i.e., Turkey) of the continent. A huge part of Europe is, therefore, not represented in the findings,

and generalisations that account for the outcomes of PTL on second language learners in all of Europe should, therefore, be made with caution. Furthermore, the selected studies included only two other languages in addition to the Germanic language English, which served as the L2 in all classroom contexts. Also, Turkish was the only non-Germanic language studied, despite the fact that Europe is made up of countless other languages from different language families than English, which could influence the results of translanguaging.

Future research should, therefore, broaden this limited selection of studies on PTL in Europe by including more educational contexts (i.e., primary, immigrant, and adult education), school subjects, countries, and languages (from different language families) to see whether the results are the same throughout. Lastly, an analysis of the different language ideologies that permeate second language education (or schools in general) per nation could be interesting to investigate to see whether they make any difference regarding the constructive, cognitive, affective, and/or interactive learning outcomes of PTL on ESL-students.

## References

- Almeida, C. P. B. D., & Goulart, B. N. G. D. (2017). How to avoid bias in systematic reviews of observational studies. *Revista CEFAC, 19*, 551-555.
- Arocena, E., Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2015). Teachers' beliefs in multilingual education in the Basque country and in Friesland. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education, 3*, 169-193.
- Aronin, L., & Hufeisen, B. (2009). *The Exploration of Multilingualism: Development of Research on L3, Multilingualism and Multiple Language Acquisition*. John Benjamins Publishing.
- Auer, P. (1999). *Code-switching in Conversation: Language Interactions and Identity*. Routledge.
- Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. Multilingual Matters.
- Beiler, I. R. (2020). Marked and unmarked translanguaging in accelerated, mainstream, and sheltered English classrooms. *Multilingua, 40*(1), 107-138.
- Blackledge, A., Creese, A., & Takhi, J. K. (2014). Beyond multilingualism: Heteroglossia in practice. In S. May (Ed.), *The Multilingual Turn* (pp. 191-215). Routledge.
- Blommaert, J., & Rampton, B. (2011). Language and superdiversity. *Diversities, 13*(2), 1-22.
- Bolton, K. (2018). World Englishes and second language acquisition. *World Englishes, 37*, 5-18.
- Bonacina-Pugh, F., da Costa Cabral, I., & Huang, J. (2021). Translanguaging in education. *Language Teaching, 54*(4), 439-471.
- Bührig, K., & Duarte, J. (2013). Zur Rolle lebensweltlicher mehrsprachigkeit für das lernen im fachunterricht—ein beispiel aus einer videostudie der sekundarstufe II. *Gruppendynamik und Organisationsberatung, 44*(3), 245-275.

- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 401-417.
- Canagarajah, S. (2018). Materializing 'competence': Perspectives from international STEM scholars. *The Modern Language Journal*, 102, 1-24.
- CBS. (2022, June 9). *Bevolking; migratieachtergrond, generatie, lft, regio, 1 jan; 2010-2022* [Data file]. Retrieved from <https://opendata.cbs.nl/statline/#/CBS/nl/dataset/84910NED/table?ts=1674744569920>.
- Celic, C. M., & Seltzer, K. (2013). *Translanguaging: A CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators*. Cuny-Nysieb.
- Cenoz, J. (2013). Defining multilingualism. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 33, 3-18.
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2013). Towards a plurilingual approach in English language teaching: Softening the boundaries between languages. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47, 591-599.
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2015). *Multilingual Education: Between Language Learning and Translanguaging*. Cambridge University Press.
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2017). Minority languages and sustainable translanguaging: Threat or opportunity?. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 38(10), 901-912.
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2020). Teaching English through pedagogical translanguaging. *World Englishes*, 39(2), 300-311.
- Conteh, J. (2018). Translanguaging. *ELT journal*, 72(4), 445-447.
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2011). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching?. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(1), 103-115.
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2015). Translanguaging and identity in educational settings. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 35, 20-35.

- Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, 49(2), 222-251.
- Cummins, J. (1980). The construct of language proficiency in bilingual education. In J. Alatis (Ed.), *Current Issues in Bilingual Education* (pp. 81-103). Georgetown University Press.
- Doiz, A., & Lasagabaster, D. (2017). Teachers' beliefs about translanguaging practices. *Translanguaging in Higher Education: Beyond Monolingual Ideologies*, 157-176.
- Douglas Fir Group. (2016). A transdisciplinary framework for SLA in a multilingual world. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100, 19-47.
- Duarte, J. (2019). Translanguaging in mainstream education: A sociocultural approach. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(2), 150-164.
- Duarte, J. (2020). Translanguaging in the context of mainstream multilingual education. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 17(2), 232-247.
- Duarte, J., & Kirsch, C. (2020). Introduction: Multilingual approaches for teaching and learning. In J. Duarte & C. Kirsch (Eds.), *Multilingual Approaches for Teaching and Learning* (pp. 1-11). Routledge.
- Ek, L. D., Sánchez, P., & Quijada Cerecer, P. D. (2013). Linguistic violence, insecurity, and work: Language ideologies of Latina/o bilingual teacher candidates in Texas. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 7(3), 197-219.
- European Council (n.d.). *Multilingualism as a Key Competence*. European Education Area. <https://education.ec.europa.eu/focus-topics/improving-quality/multilingualism/multilingualism-as-a-key-competence>.
- Ferguson, C. A. (1959). Diglossia. *Word*, 15(2), 325-340.
- Fishman, J.A. (1967). Bilingualism with and without diglossia; diglossia with and without bilingualism. *The Journal of Social Issues*, 23(2), 29-38.

- García, O. (2009). *Bilingual Education in the 21st Century: A Global Perspective*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- García, O. (2010). Languaging and ethnifying. In J. A. Fishman & O. García (Eds.), *Handbook of Language and Ethnic Identity. Disciplinary and Regional Perspectives, Vol. 1* (pp. 519-534). Oxford University Press.
- García, O., & Flores, N. (2012). Multilingual pedagogies. In M. Martin Jones, A. Blackledge, & A. Creese (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Multilingualism* (pp. 232-246). Routledge.
- García, O., Johnson, S., & Seltzer, K. (2017). *The Translanguaging Classroom. Leveraging Student Bilingualism for Learning*. Caslon.
- García, O., & Kleifgen, J. A. (2019). Translanguaging and literacies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 55(4), 553-571.
- García, O., & Kleyn, T. (2016). *Translanguaging with Multilingual Students: Learning from Classroom Moments*. Routledge.
- García, O., & Leiva, C. (2014). Theorizing and enacting translanguaging for social justice. *Heteroglossia as Practice and Pedagogy*, 199-216.
- García, O., & Lin, A. M. (2017). Translanguaging in bilingual education. *Bilingual and Multilingual Education*, 117-130.
- García, O., & Otheguy, R. (2020). Plurilingualism and translanguaging: Commonalities and divergences. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(1), 17-35.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, Bilingualism and Education*. Palgrave Macmillan Pivot.
- Gough, D. (2007). Weight of evidence: a framework for the appraisal of the quality and relevance of evidence. *Research Papers in Education*, 22(2), 213-228.

- Grosjean, F. (1982). *Life with Two Languages: An Introduction to Bilingualism*. Harvard University Press
- Grosjean, F. (2010). *Bilingual: Life and Reality*. Harvard University Press.
- Hall, G., & Cook, G. (2012). Own-language use in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching, 45*(3), 271-308.
- Haukås, Å. (2016). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and a multilingual pedagogical approach. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 13*(1), 1-18.
- Heller, M. (2007). *Bilingualism: A Social Approach*. Springer.
- Hélot, C. (2014). Rethinking bilingual pedagogy in Alsace: Translingual writers and translanguaging. *Heteroglossia as Practice and Pedagogy, 217-237*.
- Hornberger, N. (2003). Continua of biliteracy. In N. Hornberger (Ed.), *Continua of Biliteracy: An Ecological Framework for Educational Policy, Research and Practice in Multilingual Settings* (pp. 1-34). Multilingual Matters.
- Hornberger, N. (2005). Opening and filling up implementational and ideological spaces in heritage language education. *Modern Language Journal, 89*, 605-612.
- Hornberger, N. H., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging in today's classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *Theory into Practice, 51*(4), 239-247.
- Jenkins, J. (2015). Repositioning English and multilingualism in English as a Lingua Franca. *English in Practice, 2*, 49-85.
- Jordens, K. (2016). *Turkish is not for Learning, Miss. Valorizing Linguistic Diversity in Primary Education*. KU Leuven.
- Jørgensen, J. N., Karrebæk, M. S., Madsen, L. M., & Møller, J. S. (2011). Polylinguaging in superdiversity. *Diversities, 13*(2), 23-38.
- Kroll, J. F., & Bialystok, E. (2013). Understanding the consequences of bilingualism for language processing and cognition. *Journal of Cognitive Psychology, 25*(5), 497-514.

- Kroon, S., & Spotti, M. (2011). Immigrant minority language teaching policies and practices in The Netherlands: Policing dangerous multilingualism. In V. Domović (Ed.), *Europäische Bildung: Konzepte und Perspektiven aus Fünf Ländern* (pp. 87-103). Waxmann.
- Kubota, R. (2018). Unpacking research and practice in world Englishes and second language acquisition. *World Englishes*, 37, 93-105.
- Lambert, W. E. (1974). Culture and language as factors in learning and education. In F. E. Aboud & R. D. Meade (Eds.), *Cultural Factors in Learning and Education* (pp. 91-122). 5th Western Washington Symposium on Learning.
- Le Pichon-Vorstman, E., Siarova, H., & Szönyi, E. (2021). The future of language education in Europe: case studies of innovative practices. *European Journal of Language Policy*, 13(1), 114-120.
- Leung, C., & Valdés, G. (2019). Translanguaging and the transdisciplinary framework for language teaching and learning in a multilingual world. *The Modern Language Journal*, 103, 348-370.
- Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012a). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 641-654.
- Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012b). Translanguaging: Developing its conceptualisation and contextualisation. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 655-670.
- MacSwan, J. (2019). A multilingual perspective on translanguaging. In D. Macedo (Ed.), *Decolonizing Foreign Language Education* (pp. 186-219). Routledge.
- Makoni, S., & Pennycook, A. (2007). Disinventing and reconstituting languages. In S. Makoni & A. Pennycook (Eds.), *Disinventing and Reconstituting Languages* (pp. 1-41). Multilingual Matters.

- Mazzaferro, G. (2018). Translanguaging as everyday practice. An introduction. In G. Mazzaferro (Ed.), *Translanguaging as Everyday Practice* (pp. 1-12). Springer.
- Moore, D., & Gajo, L. (2009). Introduction-French voices on plurilingualism and pluriculturalism: Theory, significance, and perspectives. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 6, 137–153.
- Newman, M., & Gough, D. (2020). Systematic reviews in educational research: Methodology, perspectives and application. *Systematic Reviews in Educational Research*, 3-22.
- NJi. (2021, June 7). *Cijfers over jeugd met een migratieachtergrond*. Nederlands Jeugdinstituut. <https://www.nji.nl/cijfers/jeugd-met-een-migratieachtergrond>.
- OECD. (2016). *PISA 2015 Results (Volume I). Excellence and Equity in Education*. Author.
- Ortega, L. (2014). Ways forward for a bi/multilingual turn in SLA. In S. May (Ed.), *The Multilingual Turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL and Bilingual Education* (pp. 32-52). Routledge.
- Otheguy, R. (2016). The linguistic competence of second-generation bilinguals. In C. Tortora, M. den Dikken, I. L. Montoya & T. O'Neill (Eds.), *Selected Papers from the 43rd Linguistic Symposium on Romance Languages (LSRL)* (pp. 301-320). John Benjamins.
- Otheguy, R., García, O., & Reid, W. (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 6(3), 281-307.
- Otheguy, R., García, O., & Reid, W. (2018). A translanguaging view of the linguistic system of bilinguals. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 10(4), 625-651.
- Pacheco, M. B., & Miller, M. E. (2015). Making meaning through translanguaging in the literacy classroom. *The Reading Teacher*, 69(5), 533-537.
- Page, M. J., McKenzie, J. E., Bossuyt, P. M., Boutron, I., Hoffmann, T. C., Mulrow, C. D., Shamseer, L., Tetzlaff, J. M., Aki, E. A., Brennan, S. E., Chou, R., Glanville, J.,

- Grimshaw, J. M., Hróbjartsson, A., Lalu, M. M., Li, T., Loder, E. W., Mayo-Wilson, E., McDonald, S., Moher, D. (2021). The PRISMA 2020 statement: An updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *PLOS Medicine*, *18*(3), e1003583. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1003583>
- Prilutskaya, M., & Knoph, R. (2020). Research on three L2 writing conditions: Students' perceptions and use of background languages when writing in English. *Cogent Education*, *7*(1), 1-19.
- Probyn, M. (2015). Pedagogical translanguaging: Bridging discourses in South African science classrooms. *Language and Education*, *29*(3), 218-234.
- Rijksoverheid. (n.d.). *Senior General Secondary Education (HAVO) and Pre University Education (VWO)*. [https://www.government.nl/topics/secondary-education/different-types-of-secondary-education/senior-general-secondary-education-havo-and-pre-university-education-vwo#:~:text=nl%20Start%20search-,Senior%20general%20secondary%20education%20\(HAVO\)%20and%20pre%20university%20education%20\(,while%20VWO%20takes%20six%20years](https://www.government.nl/topics/secondary-education/different-types-of-secondary-education/senior-general-secondary-education-havo-and-pre-university-education-vwo#:~:text=nl%20Start%20search-,Senior%20general%20secondary%20education%20(HAVO)%20and%20pre%20university%20education%20(,while%20VWO%20takes%20six%20years).
- Safont, P. (2022). 'In English!' teachers' requests as reactions to learners' translanguaging discourse. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *35*(3), 317-333.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a Lingua Franca*. Oxford University Press.
- Sridhar, S. N., & Sridhar, K. K. (2018). Coda 2: A bridge half-built: Toward a holistic theory of Second Language Acquisition and world Englishes. *World Englishes*, *37*, 127-139.
- Thomas, J., O'Mara-Eves, A., Harden, A. & Newman, M. (2017). Synthesis methods for combining and configuring textual or mixed methods data. In D. Gough, S. Oliver & J. Thomas (Eds.), *An Introduction to Systematic Reviews* (pp. 181-211). Sage.

- Ticheloven, A., Blom, E., Leseman, P., & McMonagle, S. (2021). Translanguaging challenges in multilingual classrooms: scholar, teacher and student perspectives. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 18(3), 491-514.
- Tooley, J. (2002). Private education in the European Union. *Economic Affairs*, 22(2), 54-54.
- Torgerson, C. (2003). *Systematic Reviews*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Van Praag, L., Agirdag, O., Van Avermaet, P., & Van Houtte, M. (2017). De meerwaarde van de thuistalen van leerlingen in praktijk omgezet: het Validiv-project in het kort. *Meertaligheid en Onderwijs*, 66-78.
- Velasco, P., & García, O. (2014). Translanguaging and the writing of bilingual learners. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 37(1), 6-23.
- Vertovec, S. (2007). Super-diversity and its implications. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 30(6), 1024-1054.
- Vogel, S., & García, O. (2017). Translanguaging. In *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education*. Retrieved from [https://academicworks.cuny.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1448&context=gc\\_pubs](https://academicworks.cuny.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1448&context=gc_pubs).
- Wei, L. (2008). Research perspectives on bilingualism and multilingualism. *The Blackwell Guide to Research Methods in Bilingualism and Multilingualism*, 3-17.
- Wei, L. (2011). Moment analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(5), 1222-1235.
- Wei, L. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics*, 39(1), 9-30.
- Wei, L., & Ho, W. Y. J. (2018). Language learning sans frontiers: A translanguaging view. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 38, 33-59.

- West, L., & Verspoor, M. (2016). An impression of foreign language teaching approaches in the Netherlands. *Levende Talen Tijdschrift*, 17(4), 26-36.
- Yilmaz, T. (2021). Translanguaging as a pedagogy for equity of language minoritized students. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 18(3), 435-454.
- Yüzlü, M. Y., & Dikilitas, K. (2022a). Translanguaging in the development of EFL learners' foreign language skills in Turkish context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 16(2), 176-190.
- Yüzlü, M. Y., & Dikilitaş, K. (2022b). Translanguaging as a way to fostering EFL learners' criticality in a hybrid course design. *System*, 110, 102926.
- Zhang, R., & Chan, B. H. S. (2022). Pedagogical translanguaging in a trilingual context: the case of two EFL classrooms in a Xinjiang university. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 25(8), 2805-2816.

## Appendix A

### Key Terms per Database/Search Engine and Number of Articles

**Table 2.**

*Key Terms per Database/Search Engine and Number of Articles before and after Selection Criteria*

Database/Search Engine	Key Terms	Number of Articles before Selection Criteria	Number of Articles after Selection Criteria
ERIC	“translanguaging” “pubyearmin2017” (sorted by second language learning and English (second language))	195	20
Google Scholar	(1) "pedagogical translanguaging", "classroom", "education", "translingual", "efl" "esl" (2) "pedagogical translanguaging" "second language" “foreign language” -"canada" -"asia" -"south-africa" -"middle-east" -"china" -"saudi-arabia" -"indonesia" -"india" -"japan" -"hong-kong" -"usa" -"us" -"australia" -"new-zealand" -"america" (3) "translanguaging" "second language" "teacher" "perceptions" "beliefs" –“united states” –“new-zealand” -"pre-service" -"south-africa" -"saudi-arabia" -"china" -"asia" -"hong kong" -"usa" -"australia" -"japan"	354	34
JSTOR	pedagogical translanguaging (sorted by education)	75	8
SCOPUS	KEY ( translanguaging ) AND ( LIMIT-TO ( OA , "all" ) ) AND ( LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR , 2022 ) OR LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR , 2021 ) OR LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR , 2020 ) OR LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR , 2019 ) OR LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR , 2018 ) OR LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR , 2017 ) ) AND ( LIMIT-TO ( AFFILCOUNTRY , "United Kingdom" ) OR LIMIT-TO ( AFFILCOUNTRY , "Spain" ) OR LIMIT-TO ( AFFILCOUNTRY , "Sweden" ) OR LIMIT-TO ( AFFILCOUNTRY , "Norway" ) OR LIMIT-TO ( AFFILCOUNTRY , "Finland" ) OR LIMIT-TO ( AFFILCOUNTRY , "Germany" ) ) AND ( LIMIT-TO ( EXACTKEYWORD , "Translanguaging" ) )	141	33
Web of Science	pedagogical translanguaging (sorted by Education Educational Research document types: Article)	150	26
Total	N/A	915	121

**Appendix B**  
**Details of Selected Studies in the SLR**

**Table 3.**

*Detailed Overview of Included Studies according to a Coding System*

<b>Researcher(s) (Date of Study)</b>	<b>Details Participants (number, age, and occupation)</b>	<b>Languages in Context</b>	<b>Place of Study</b>	<b>Method(ology)</b>	<b>Findings</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>
Yüzlü & Dikilitas (2022a)	60 participants, 14-15 years old, pre-intermediate students exposed to 2 years of Grammar-Translation Method  60 participants, 16-17 years old, upper- intermediate students exposed to 2 years of Communicative Language Approach	L1: Turkish L2: English	Turkey	<u>Focus</u> : effect of translanguaging on the development of the four language skills.  Mixed method: - Quasi-experimental design using convenience sampling. - Classes randomly selected for experimental (translanguaging) or control group (traditional EFL/ESL instruction) at each level. - Data collected using a skills-test (i.e., speaking, listening, reading, and writing) and an interview to document students' perception towards translanguaging.	Pre-tests showed that students performed equally on all four language skills before the intervention.  Learner's performances in the experimental group in both conditions (pre- an upper- intermediate) improved significantly (large effect) after the translanguaging intervention.  Student's perception towards PTL: (1) promotes meaning- making, (2) promotes autonomous learning (3), accessing full linguistic repertoire, (4) discovering language system, (5) raises bilingual awareness, (6) facilitates learning, (7) promotes interactional language use, (8) promotes authentic language use and communicative abilities, (9)	"In conclusion, these results imply that translanguaging might be a more effective pedagogical approach than monoglossic teaching approaches. We also concluded that translanguaging impacts students' learning processes and overcomes the constraints of monolingual instruction and language separation." (p. 186)

					increases feeling of security during in-class communication, (10) develops sense of comfort when learning English, (11) sustains motivation to speak and volunteering to participate, (12) increases the enjoyment of learning a language, and (13) develops sense of “real” language learning.	
Yüzlü & Dikilitas (2022b)	3 participants, 15 years old, students of Erasmus Project	L1: Turkish L2: English	Turkey	<p><u>Focus:</u> development of criticality in three EFL students via a hybrid course design including translanguaging space involving the two language skills reading and listening.</p> <p>Qualitative:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Multi-case study (one case-study per student providing 14 hours of data in the form of interviews, classroom observations, and reflective journals and papers).</li> <li>- Course-design: (1) asynchronous, (2) various activities targeting skills (i.e., inference, deduction, interpretation, evaluation, induction, and analysis).</li> </ul>	Benefits of the hybrid course design including translanguaging, were (1) development of criticality, (2) promoting deep learning by raising self-awareness, and (3) increased reflection.	<p>“It thus reveals translanguaging as a catalyst in self-reflection and self-criticism contributing to criticality.” (p. 9)</p> <p>“Translanguaging and hybrid design of the course operated in fluid spaces leading to linguistic emancipation and transcontextualising, i.e., removing linguistic and contextual barriers.” (p. 10)</p>

				- Data coded using MAXQDA.		
Beiler (2020)	54 participants, 16 years old, upper-secondary school students  1 participant, no age stated, secondary school teacher	L1: Norwegian (+ several minoritized languages) L2: English	Norway	<p><u>Focus:</u> Significance of translanguaging in three instructional settings while investigating markedness.</p> <p><u>Qualitative:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Comparative design: three classes (i.e., high-achieving, mixed achieving, and sheltered) taught by the same teacher.</li> <li>- Linguistic ethnography.</li> <li>- Participant observation.</li> <li>- Semi-structured interviews with additional student, and stimulated recall interviews with focus students and teacher.</li> <li>- Data collection: (1) field notes, (2) video-recordings of classroom instruction, (3) video- and audio-recordings of student interaction, (4) student notes and texts, (5) teacher feedback, (6) photographs classroom artifacts, and (7) student's language portraits (also</li> </ul>	<p>Translanguaging less common and more marked in accelerated and mainstream settings compared to the sheltered classroom.</p> <p>Teacher variations in regulation of language use indicated translanguaging as a support tool to foster understanding and engagement for task-accomplishment.</p> <p>Variation in monolingual orientations during writing among students (sheltered class leaned more on their L1 than the other two classes).</p> <p>All three classes defined communication in the minority language as antisocial, thus reproducing societal discourses and self-policing (to avoid exclusion/stigmatization). However, one student specifically chose not to self-police and saw translanguaging as an inherent part of their multilingual identity.</p>	<p>"I found that translanguaging occurred in opposition to two largely separate discourses: a discourse of monoglossic English performance and a discourse of inclusion through conformity to majority linguistic practices." (p. 131)</p> <p>"The current study suggests that there are at least two issues that potentially constrain translanguaging in language classrooms, which may overlap to a greater extent in some contexts than others: monoglossic ideologies of effective additional language learning and marginalization of certain speakers based on an ideology of national linguistic homogeneity, which may also mark minoritized speakers unequally based on their</p>

				<p>described in written or audio form)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Eclectic coding →</li> <li>focused coding →</li> <li>triangulation and preliminary assertions →</li> <li>final assertions.</li> </ul>		<p>racialized position.” (p. 131)</p>
Prilutskaya & Knoph (2020)	200 participants, 15-16 years old, secondary school students	L1: Norwegian L2: English	Norway	<p><u>Focus:</u> use of linguistic resources (self-reported) as students write a text in English under three writing conditions (i.e., English-only, translanguaging, and translation).</p> <p>Mixed method:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Experimental: 15 English classes randomly assigned to one of three writing conditions: (a) translation group wrote a text in Norwegian and asked to translate to English, (b) English-only group wrote only in English, and (c) translanguaging group could choose any language for the draft, which they then used to write a text in English.</li> <li>- Task: write a narrative fantasy essay.</li> </ul>	<p>Several language modes are employed at different steps in the composing process (e.g., majority in English monolingual mode when writing, yet use the L1 for content-organizing, idea-generating, and text-structuring activities)</p> <p>44% of the students that were part of the translanguaging group reported that the only language of choice in their drafts was English, they gave the following reasons explaining why: (a) using one language for the draft and final product was faster and easier, (b) natural choice as prompt was partly in English, (c) personal preference, and (d) English-only was used to avoid bad translation.</p>	<p>“Our analysis showed that English as a metacognitive language of choice had a strong presence in all writing conditions. It is reasonable to assume that thinking in English had to be a prerequisite of composing a final product in English even when other language(s) was/were employed at a draft stage in the translation and translanguaging writing conditions.” (p. 11)</p> <p>“The results indicate a strong presence of English as a metacognitive language of choice in all three writing conditions, the participants’ strategic use of L1 for organizing ideas and structuring information, and their willingness to experiment</p>

				<p>- Questionnaire (Norwegian open-ended questions, 4-point Likert scale).</p>	<p>25% of the students that were part of the translanguaging group reported using only Norwegian for the drafting stage, because (a) promotes idea-generating , (b) to augment the manifestation of the author’s personality in the text, (c) to avoid mixing languages, and (d) to use the opportunity to write in a local Norwegian dialect as it was faster and easier.</p> <p>30% of the students that were part of the translanguaging group reported mixing Norwegian and English, or Norwegian, English and (an)other additional language(s). They gave the following reasons: (a) stylistic and rhetorical purposes, (b) to solve grammar and/or vocabulary issues, (c) to come up with as many ideas as possible regardless of the language that was thought in, and (d) to take advantage of the rare opportunity to use different languages.</p> <p>Many students stated that translanguaging had a positive</p>	<p>with languages to enhance certain aspects of writing.” (p. 13)</p> <p>“Based on the results, we argue that translation and translanguaging may help balance the goal to develop students’ English writing skills with their need to explore and utilize their linguistic resources, and thus engage in more holistic multilingual practices.” (p. 13)</p>
--	--	--	--	--	---	--

					<p>effect on their grammar, content, vocabulary, and text-structure. Yet, preferred to stick to using only English for the entire writing process. Those that reacted positively to translanguaging stressed (a) its potential to make texts more exciting and engaging (i.e., creative side of the process), (b) that it could help students write longer texts in English, and (c) that it could be fun to mix languages.</p>	
--	--	--	--	--	---	--

