Translanguaging Realities: The Use of First Language in Microteaching Practices vs. Young Learner Classrooms

Hatice Ergül [a]*

a Dr., Hacettepe University, https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0494-432X *hatice.ergul@hacettepe.edu.tr

Abstract

This study focuses on language teacher education and adopts the microanalytic lens of conversation analysis to analyze the use of L1 (students' first language) in microteaching and real classroom teaching practices of pre-service English teachers (PSETs), specifically in young learner classrooms. The use of L1 is approached from a translanguaging perspective. Translanguaging refers to the use of the entire linguistic repertoire without separating languages, promoting multilingualism and leveraging students' linguistic resources for deeper comprehension and enhancing meaning-making (Canagarajah, 2011, Garcia & Wei, 2014, 2015). The research design involves three groups of participants: pre-service English teachers, in-service preschool teachers, and young learners aged from 4 to 6. Data consists of the video recordings of micro-teaching sessions at a state university in Turkey and video recordings of actual classroom teaching sessions by the same PSETs in a young learner classroom. The video-recorded data is transcribed using the Jefferson system of transcription. The analysis shows that in microteaching, where students have advanced English proficiency, L1 is rarely used and activities progress smoothly in the target language. However, in real young learner classrooms, students tend to use L1 more often which leads to disruption of the progressivity of the activities. The findings suggest the need for teachers to make principled decisions regarding their use of L1 and their acceptance of students' L1 use. Teacher education programs should address the differences between microteaching and real classroom contexts to prepare teachers for managing translanguaging practices effectively.

Keywords: Translanguaging, L1 use, microteaching, teacher education, young learners

Dillerarasılık Gerçekliği: Mikro-öğretim Ortamlarında ve Çocuklara Yabancı Dil Öğretimi Sınıflarında Anadil Kullanımının Karşılaştırılması
Öz

Bu çalışma, dil öğretmeni eğitimine odaklanmakta ve İngilizce öğretmeni adaylarının (İÖA) mikro öğretim ve gerçek sınıf öğretimi uygulamalarında, özellikle de erken dönem öğrenci sınıflarında öğrencilerin ana dili kullanımını analiz etmek için konuşma analizinin mikroanalitik merceğini benimsemektedir. Dil öğretimi sınıflarında anadil kullanımına translanguaging perspektifinden yaklaşılmıştır. Translanguaging, dilleri ayırmadan tüm dil repertuarının kullanılması, çok dilliliğin teşvik edilmesi ve daha derin anlama ve anlam oluşturmayı geliştirmek için öğrencilerin dilsel kaynaklarından yararlanılması anlamına gelir (Canagarajah, 2011, Garcia & Wei, 2014, 2015). Araştırma tasarımı üç katılımcı grubunu içermektedir: İngilizce öğretmen adayları, hizmet içi okul öncesi öğretmenleri ve yaşları 4 ile 6 arasında değişen erken yaş öğrenciler. Veriler, Türkiye'deki bir devlet üniversitesinde gerçekleştirilen mikro-öğretim oturumlarının video kayıtları ile aynı öğretmen adaylarının erken yaş öğrencilerin sınıflarında gerçekleştirdikleri gerçek sınıf içi öğretim oturumlarının video kayıtlarından oluşmaktadır. Videoya kaydedilen veriler Jefferson transkripsiyon sistemi kullanılarak yazıya dökülmüştür. Analiz, öğrencilerin ileri düzeyde İngilizce yeterliliğine sahip olduğu mikro öğretimde, anadilin nadiren kullanıldığını ve etkinliklerin hedef dilde sorunsuz ilerlediğini göstermektedir. Bununla birlikte, gerçek erken yaş öğrenci sınıflarında, öğrenciler anadili daha sık kullanma eğilimindedir ve bu da etkinliklerin ilerlemesinin bozulmasına neden olur. Bulgular, öğretmenlerin anadil kullanımına ilişkin ilkeli kararlar almaları gerektiğini göstermektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Translanguaging, anadil kullanımı, mikro öğretim, öğretmen eğitimi, genç öğrenciler

INTRODUCTION

Translanguaging is a relatively new concept first introduced by Williams (1994) rooted in the Welsh word, *trawsieithu*. Williams (1994) used the term to refer to systematically alternating between languages in Welsh classrooms to achieve various purposes. Translanguaging shifts the traditional way of perceiving languages and thus it presents a new understanding of second language learning and teaching. Canagarajah (2011) defines translanguaging as a phenomenon that refers to using the entire linguistic repertoire that one possesses by engaging in dynamic language use without separating languages in monolingual modes. Garcia & Wei (2014) defines translanguaging as the use of full linguistic repertoires by both individuals and communities for meaning-making and communicating. Creese & Blackledge (2010) also emphasize that translanguaging embraces language hybridity, fluidity, and richness.

It is essential to distinguish between code-switching and translanguaging. Codeswitching emphasizes the differences between languages by accepting borders between them, and it treats each language as a different linguistic system. Additionally, codeswitching might imply that switching between languages is not desirable for language learners and receives criticism in language classrooms. From a translanguaging perspective, on the other hand, language is a social practice, and it is "an assemblage of meaning-making resources" (Tai & Dai, 2023, p. 7). As such, switching between languages is a genuine practice for the speakers, and it is encouraged if it will provide more opportunities for language learning and meaning-making.

Tai & Dai (2023) emphasize that translanguaging goes beyond alternating between languages and it involves multilingual resources, such as dialects, styles, or registers as well as multimodal resources, which include "switching between speaking and writing, or coordinating gestures, body movements, facial expressions, and visual images for shaping their verbal talk" (Tai &Dai, 2023, p.7). In a similar vein, Wei (2018) refers to translanguaging as "using one's idiolect, which is one's linguistic repertoire, without regard for socially and politically defined language names and labels" (p. 19).

In the twenty-first century, language classrooms are moving from a setting where monolingualism is encouraged to a translingual setting where students' prior linguistic knowledge is acknowledged and employed as a resource for teaching foreign or additional languages (Wang, 2016). Language teachers must be well-prepared to use translanguaging practices most effectively in language classrooms. This study will highlight the importance of including education on translanguaging practices in teacher education by demonstrating the differences between microteaching practices and real classroom teaching experience of a PSET in a young learner classroom using the micro-analytic lens of conversation analysis.

Translanguaging in Language Classrooms

Using L1 in language classrooms has generated much debate over a long period. Initially, it was argued that L1 should be excluded entirely from L2 classes (Turnbull, 2001; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). This approach was widely acknowledged based on what Phillipson (1992) refers to as the 'monolingual fallacy', which implied that using L1 in language classrooms would limit the exposure to the target language and hinder output opportunities (Lightbown, 1991; Liu, 2008). As such, L2 should only be taught in the target language. More recently, the exclusion of L1 from language classrooms has been challenged. There have been many studies that suggest that L1 inclusion in L2 classrooms can be helpful for teachers, students, and teaching and learning activities (Canagarajah, 2013, 2018; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Forman, 2010, 2012; Pennington, 1995; Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005). Translanguaging can be seen as a 'theoretical lens' that presents an alternative perspective on bilingualism & multilingualism as a pedagogical strategy for teaching languages that value and use learners' varied and dynamic language usage (Vogel & García, 2017). Conez and Gorter (2021, 2022) state that educational translanguaging aims to promote multilingualism and underlines the merits of using the entire available linguistic repertoire of the students and the teachers in classrooms for both input and output. They further argue that permeable borders among languages enable students to use their previous knowledge while learning a second language by utilizing their entire linguistic repertoire which has two vital benefits for the language learning process: (1) Learners can comprehend language learning materials better than when they can use their linguistic background, and (2) The ability to use many languages allows learners to access more information as they can use their entire linguistic repertoire.

Similarly, Fang and Lui (2020) argue that translanguaging in educational contexts helps teachers explain complex concepts and ideas. Teachers can use translanguaging to ensure that complicated ideas, essential concepts,

and grammar are clarified and explained clearly. They further claim that translanguaging can enhance the bond between the teachers and students while at the same time it can be employed for classroom management purposes.

Chicherina and Strelkova (2023) also emphasize that translanguaging-based approaches allow students to utilize their mother tongue knowledge, making challenging language materials more accessible. Putrawan (2022), on the other hand, claim that translanguaging can be beneficial in problem-solving tasks or during brainstorming before a group activity or a writing task by facilitating understanding, preventing confusion, clarifying complex concepts, and providing a more pleasant learning environment in the classroom.

In her research which explores Swedish multilingual classrooms, Torpsten (2018) shows how students' language abilities improve as a result of translanguaging practices. Galante (2020) has found that learners' metacognitive awareness increases through translanguaging practices. Creese & Blackledge (2015) investigate translanguing practices in classroom settings in the United Kingdom. The research demonstrates that classroom translanguaging practices foster deeper understanding and sociopolitical engagement, foster critical thinking and cross-linguistic flexibility, and enhance metalinguistic awareness.

Tai and Wong (2022) emphasized that translanguaging can be a source for providing scaffolding for the students, and it will also enhance students' well-being as their bilingual identities will be acknowledged and appreciated. In line with these findings, Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021) highlights that translanguaging practices yield "increased learner classroom participation, multiliteracy development, cultural preservation and learners' identity affirmation" (p.1).

METHOD

Research Design

This study adopts the micro-analytical tools of conversation analysis. Conversation Analysis (CA) is a methodology and a theory of social interaction developed by Harvey Sacks and his collaborators, Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson, in the late 1960s and 70s (see, e.g. Sacks 1995; Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974; Schegloff & Sacks, 1973; Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977, for early seminal CA papers). CA research focuses on the systematic analysis of naturally occurring talk and other social actions. Thus, one of the principle objectives of CA is "to discover and explicate the practices through which interactants produce and understand conduct in interaction" (Drew, 2005: 75). Conversation analytic research requires very detailed transcriptions of spoken interaction. Detailed transcriptions of the video-recorded data from both the micro-teaching corpus and the actual teaching corpus were transcribed using the Jefferson transcription system (see Appendix 1).

Each transcription has three lines: the first line in bold presents the original Turkish data; the second line is a word-by-word gloss, which provides word-by-word translations as well as grammatical information in some cases; the third line aims to translate the overall meaning of the original sentence into English as closely as possible. Transcripts also include numbers linking spoken interactions with multimodal features such as gesture and facial expression, as indicated in the accompanying figures.

Data Collection

Data were collected following the teacher education model developed for university teacher education by Sert (2015). The study had 128 preservice English teachers (PSETs) in total. PSETs were initially introduced to the theoretical concepts in TEYL in the first semester. Then, they were briefly introduced to the Classroom Interactional Competence concept (CIC) (Walsh, 2011, 2013). Students were each assigned a unit from the course book, Tiny Talk, published by Oxford Publishing. Each PSET carried out a 12-minute micro-teaching session for the assigned unit which was video and audio recorded. This step's video recordings constitute the first data set (the microteaching corpus).
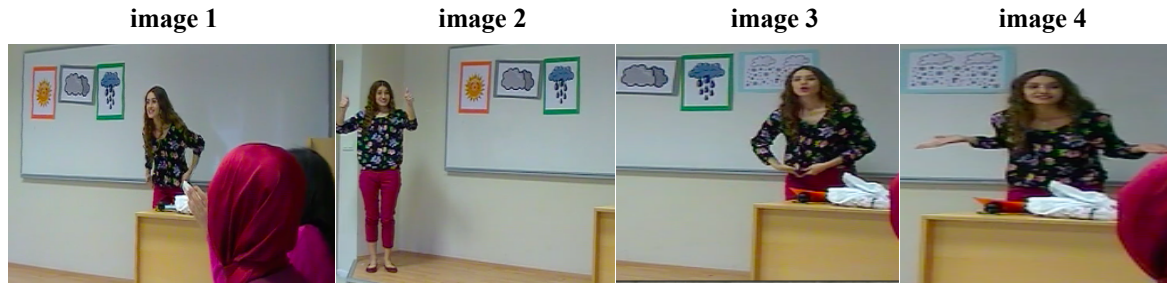
25 hours of video-recorded data were collected for the microteaching corpus. After this step, reflective practice was carried out, however, as this data is separate from this study the details of reflective practice will not be elaborated on. After reflective practice, PSETs taught their assigned unit (with the revisions made in their lesson plans based on the dialogic reflection) in a real classroom environment. Real teaching sessions lasted for 20 minutes and were video-recorded, constituting the second data set for this study (the actual teaching corpus). 42 hours of video-recorded data were collected in the actual teaching corpus. For this study, only one case will be analyzed. It should be noted that this case is very similar to the other microteaching and real classroom teaching corpus.

Data Analysis

Data analyzed in this paper were recorded during one specific classroom activity called "What is missing"? The main objective of this activity is to provide practice of newly learned vocabulary items. The teacher presents flashcards with pictures of newly learned vocabulary items in the activity. The flashcards are placed on the floor in front of the learners, who are asked to close their eyes. While students' eyes are closed, the teacher takes one flashcard and hides it. Then the students are asked to open their eyes and answer 'what is missing.' The analysis of the same activity in a microteaching practice and real classroom teaching is compared.

The following excerpt shows how the activity 'what's missing' unfolds in the microteaching data.

Excerpt 1

image 1	image 2	image 3	image 4

1	T1:	¹open your eyes
2		(0.8)
3	T1:	°what's missing°
4		(0.2)
5	Ss:	°sno[wy°
6	S2:	[SNOWY::
7	T1:	²<u>sn</u>owy <u>yes:</u> g↑reat thank you
8		(1.0)
9	T1:	³close your eyes
10		(0.7)
11	T1:	close your eyes
12		(4.5)
13	T1:	open your eyes↓
14		(0.6)
15	T1:	⁴°what's missing°
16		(0.3)
17	Ss:	sunny
18	T1:	sunny (.) ²yes <u>great</u>↑ close your eyes

This excerpt demonstrates that this activity unfolds without any need to resort to L1 by the teacher or the students in microteaching. Classroom interaction during this activity shows that the students can follow the instructions given by T1 without any problems. In line 1, an instruction 'open your eyes' is given, and students follow this instruction even before T1's turn is completed. Following a 0.8-second pause, T1 moves on to the next instruction, 'what's missing'. After a very short pause (0.2 seconds), some of the students start answering the question and in an overlap with the the students' answer, one student in line 6, shouts the answer 'SNOWY::' while elongating the utterance. In a latched turn, T1 repeats the answer and provides some positive feedback, displaying that she has received the expected answer and that they are ready to move on to the next part of the activity (image 2). This pattern is followed throughout the activity: T1 gives an instruction that is followed successfully by the students and T1 provides positive feedback, which signals the successful completion of one part of the activity. Excerpt 1 is an example of a typical progression of teaching activities during microteaching. There is no disruption in the progressivity of the activities, and L1 is used neither by T1, nor the students.

The following excerpts show us how the very same activity with the same PSET unfolds in a real young learner classroom.

Excerpt 2

| image 1 | image 2 | image 3 | image 4 |

1.		(5.5) ((T1 is preparing))
2.	T1:	[1]close your eyes
3.		(.)
4.	Ss:	close your eyes
5.	T1:	close your [2]eyes
6.	Ss :	close your eyes
7.		[3](0.8) ((T kneels down closing eyes with her hand))
8.	T1:	°close your eyes°
9.		(.)
10.	T1:	[4]CLOSE your ↓eyes
11.		(0.2)
12.	Sx:	close your eyes
13.		(.)
14.	T1:	°kapatin gozlerinizi kapatin!°
15.		(3.2)
16.	T1:	°>kapat kapat kapat kapat<

In line 1, T1 puts the flashcards on the floor (as there is no whiteboard in YL classrooms). During T1's preparation, students are talking among themselves. T1 gives her first instruction in the target language while turning her back to the students, holding the flashcards in her hands (image 1). Following a very short pause, the students repeat the instruction in L2 (line 4). While repeating the first instruction, students do not follow the instruction. Their repetition in lines 4 and 6 shows a lack of understanding of the instruction. Instead of following the instruction, students follow the pattern they learnt in the previous vocabulary teaching activity (repeat after T1). There is a mis-match between what the teacher would like students to do (close their eyes) and what they actually do (follow what they perceive to be a drill).

In overlap with Ss' repetition, T1 walks towards the students and repeats her initial instruction in L2 (image 2). At the end of her turn, T displays the instruction by covering her eyes with one hand and kneeling down to the same level as the learners (image 3). While she is kneeling down and closing her eyes, one student repeats the instruction in English. T1's second attempt in giving the same instruction accompanied with embodiment is treated differently by the Ss as only one student repeats the instruction while the other students watch T1's movements. The moment she kneels, only one student (with the white top) closes his eyes with his hand (image 3).

In her third repetition of the same instruction in L2, T1 is kneeling and closing her eyes with both hands (image 4). This time, about half of the class (7 students) close their eyes with their hands, while one student in line 12 repeated the instruction once more.

Following a minimal pause, T1 instructs Turkish in line 15 using a quiet voice (indicated as °kapatin gozlerinizi kapatin!°). At the start of her turn, she opens her eyes and checks whether all the students could follow her instructions. The moment T1 has completed her instruction in Line 15, all students, except student Z, close their eyes with their hands. Only when she provides the instruction in Turkish do all students follow the instructions.

In the following 3.2 seconds, T lays the flashcards on the floor. During this pause, T notices that SZ is not closing her eyes, leading to an instruction in line 17. T produces her instruction differently than the previous instructions as she repeats the word 'kapat' (close) four times, delivered in a lower voice and very quickly.

Excerpts 1 and 2 demonstrate that instruction-giving sequences unfold differently in microteaching and the real YL classroom. In the first example, T1 only uses English and she repeats the same instruction in the target language. In contrast, in the actual young learner classroom, she uses repetition, changes her intonation, changes her embodied display of the instruction, and eventually, she translates the instruction to L1 and repeats the instruction in L1. The comparison made between the microteaching corpus and the real teaching corpus in terms of instruction-giving sequences confirms that in the microteaching sessions, students follow the instructions without any difficulty in understanding. In some cases, pre-service teachers repeat the instruction in L2 accompanied by very similar embodied instructions in each repetition to get all of the students' attention. However, in real young learner classrooms, following instructions can be challenging for the students. The analysis shows that problems in following instructions are due to problems in understanding the instructions. As such, PSETs need to use different strategies to convey their intended meaning. These strategies include 1. repetition of the instruction in L2, 2. The use of a range of embodied resources (such as hand gestures, body orientation, gaze), 3. Instruction-giving in L1.

Excerpt 3

| image 1 | image 2 | image 3 | image 4 |
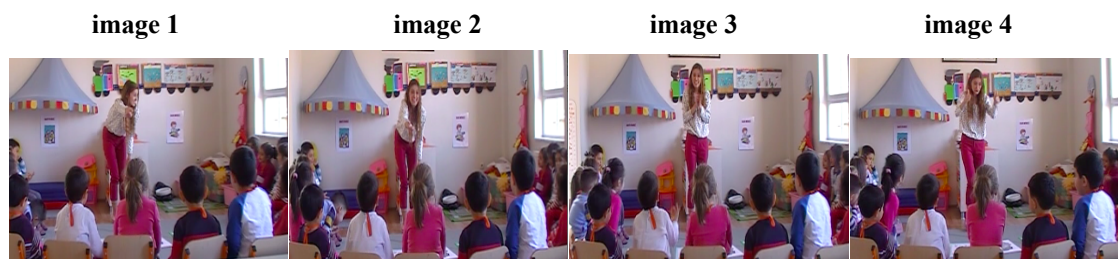
1.	SP:	[GUNES YOK
2.	T1:	[1] (0.4)
3.	SP:	[gunes
4.	SX:	[2][°gunes yok
5.	T1:	[SUNNY (0.2)SUNny[3]
6.		(.)
	T1:	[4]thank you great

Excerpt 3 is the continuation of Excerpt 2. In contrast with SZ's attempt to answer the question, SP answers line 1; however, the answer is provided in L1. T1 acknowledges this answer by pointing to the student and snapping her finger (image 1). In the following lines, we can see that other students repeat SP's answer which is previously treated as the correct answer by T1. In line 6, T1 gives the English equivalent of the answer in a louder voice and after a minimal pause, she repeats the answer while clapping her hands (image 3). It is important to note that none of the students repeat the answer in English. However, T1 still gives them positive feedback '*thank you great*' and thumbs up (image 4). Then, T1 changes the missing flashcard, which leads to the following excerpt.

Excerpt 4

| | image 1 | image 2 | image 3 | image 4 |

1.	T1:	[1]open your eyes (.) [2]°what's mis[sing°
2.	s :	[<KAR YOK>
3.	Ss :	<kar yo:k> kar [yok
4.	T1:	[3] [in ↑English
5.		(0.2)
6.	s :	°kar yok°
7.	T1:	<snow>
8.	s :	GUNES VA:R
9.	s :	[GUNES VA:R
10.	T1:	[4][<snowy>
11.	Ss :	gunes va::R gunes va::R
12.	T1:	s↑nowy:: ((thumb up))(.) ye:s
13.		>what's missing< snowy aAA::
14.		[snowy is here ((showing the pic))

In line 1, T1 has changed the flashcard, and she asks, 'What's missing?' As this is the third flash card, the students can follow the instructions without long pauses. In overlap with T1's question, one student provides the answer in Turkish with a high intonation in line 2. This answer is then repeated by the other students again in L1. It is important to remember that in the previous part of this activity (see Excerpt 2), T1 acknowledged students' answers in L1, and she provided some positive feedback, displaying that this answer is accepted as the correct answer. Students are following the same pattern. T1 asks the question and they provide an answer in their L1 telling which flashcard is missing. However, in Excerpt 4, instead of accepting their answer, T1 gives a new instruction in L2: 'in English'. Through this instruction in line 4, T1 is doing 'language policing', which aims to generate an answer in L2 (see Amir, 2013: Amir & Musk, 2014; Hazel, 2015). Following a 0.2-second pause, one student repeats the answer in L1 in a quieter voice. T1, then, provides the expected answer in Line 7, which is delivered slowly. However, students do not show any uptake. Instead of repeating the answer provided by T1, the students modify their initial answer. One of the students changed the answer from '*kar yok',* which translates as '*snow is missing* to '*gunes var'* which translates as '*sun is there'* in a very loud voice repeated by other students in the class. Following the next turn proof procedure, we can claim that students do not understand the meaning of '*in English'* as they modify their answers in Turkish instead of answering in English.

In lines 10 and 12, T1 gives the correct answer in English. She delivers the answer at a very slow pace in line 10 and increases her intonation and elongates the answer in line 12. However, the students do not repeat the answer in English. In line 13, T1 provides the question-answer sequence and brings the missing flashcard.

There are two focal points regarding the use of L1 in the corpus: 1) L1 use by the students and 2) how the teacher treats it. Excerpts 3 and 4 demonstrate examples of the use of L1 by the students. In Excerpt 3, the answer is given in L1 by one of the students and T1 treats it as the correct answer. Excerpt 4, however, shows how accepting an answer in L1 can project further problems in the progressivity of the activity. In Excerpt 4, the students can easily follow the instructions and provide the correct answer in L1. However, instead of receiving positive feedback as in the previous example, they encounter a different and new instruction that they have yet to hear during the activity. As seen in the excerpt, the students need to follow this new instruction which hinders the progression of the activity. The underlying reason for this trouble in the progression of the activity is a need for

established rules/ways of using L1 in the classroom. T1 initially (Excerpt 3) accepts the answer in L1 as the expected correct answer.

When we compare the examples in real young learner classrooms with the microteaching data, it can be seen that T1 has yet to have the experience or training to tackle L1 use by the students. As such, interactional and pedagogical problems arise at different stages of classroom activities.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Previous research has mostly focused on the L1 used in language classrooms by teachers (see, for example, Hall and Cook, 2012). However, in this study, we focus on students' use of L1 as the PSET mostly avoids using L1. Of particular relevance are the ways in which teachers respond to L1 use; in Excerpt 2, for example, students provide the answer in Turkish which the PSET then acknowledges as the correct answer (by giving embodied positive feedback). In the following part of the activity, the students follow the same pattern: the PSET asks the question and students provide the answer in Turkish. However, the PSET does not display an acknowledgment but instead gives a new instruction doing 'language policing' (i.e. insisting on L2 use) which subsequently hinders the progressivity of the activity. In both excerpts, the pedagogical objective of the activity (getting students to identify the missing flashcard in English) is not achieved. The following table compares the two data sets in terms of L1 use.

Table 1. A Comparison of L1 Use by the Students And How it is Responded to in Microteaching vs. Young Learner Classroom

Microteaching	Young Learner Classroom
PST: Question in L2	PST: Question1 in L2
Ss: Answer in L2	Ss: Answer in L1
PST: positive feedback	PST: Answer in L2 Positive feedback
PST: Next instruction	PST: Question 2 in L2
	Ss: Answer in L1
	PST: Language Policing
	Ss: A different answer in L1
	PST: Answer in L2 Positive feedback

As shown in Table 1, in the microteaching data, question-answer adjacency pairs are produced in L2 and the pedagogical aim is achieved without resorting to L1; hence, we can say that the progression of the activity is not interrupted. In the real young learner classroom, on the other hand, we can see that students prefer to answer the questions in L1. The PSET accepts the first answer in L1, but in the second question, she does not accept it as the correct answer which subsequently leads to more confusion and hinders the progression of the activity. PSET eventually follows the same pattern, provides the answer in L2 herself, and then gives positive feedback. In both questions, the students did not produce the expected answer. As such, it can be claimed that the pedagogical aim of the activity is not achieved. Indeed, we might even go as far as to say that language use and pedagogical goals are incompatible, and that the teacher's acceptance of L1 obstructs learning opportunities (Walsh 2002). There is then a case to be made within the construct of CIC for teachers to make principled decisions concerning both their use of L1 and their acceptance of students' use of L1. We use the term 'principled' here to suggest that there are times, when L1 use, might be appropriate, but, equally, there are times when only L2 use is acceptable. Student teachers need opportunities to identify how their language use may create or restrict 'space for learning' (Walsh and Li, 2012).

Based on the evidence presented in this article, it is obvious that there are enormous differences between the classroom practices which can be developed through micro-teaching and those that can be developed in real classrooms. While the aim is not to suggest that micro-teaching should be removed from teacher education programs, more work is needed, to highlight the differences between the two contexts. Teachers in training need to be made aware of these differences to avoid the false sense of security which might be engendered through micro-teaching practices. This is especially acute with translanguaging practices; what options are available to teachers, for example, when learners persistently use L1 in their responses?

There are several ways in which the differences between micro-teaching sessions and real classroom teaching might be demonstrated. There is, today, enormous scope for the use of video in teacher education and this has huge potential for raising awareness and promoting more reflective approaches to teacher education. Making a video recording and using that as the basis for reflection and change is relatively easy. Walsh and Mann (2015) make the case for using reflective tools to help teachers in training and more experienced practitioners to develop and learn from their everyday classroom experiences. There is a clear and pressing need for beginning teachers to be trained in using appropriate tools and reflective practices to help them understand their local context more fully and develop translanguaging practices suited to that context. While micro-teaching may not offer such potential, comparing micro-teaching sessions with real classrooms would enhance understanding of classrooms and increase a teacher's repertoire of suitable practices.

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APPENDIX

Adapted from Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008)

(1.8)　Numbers enclosed in parentheses indicate a pause. The number represents the number of seconds of duration of the pause, to one decimal place. A pause of less than 0.2 seconds is marked by (.)

[ ]　Brackets around portions of utterances show that those portions overlap with a portion of another speaker's utterance.

=　An equal sign is used to show that there is no time lapse between the portions connected by the equal signs. This is used where a second speaker begins their utterance just at the moment when the first speaker finishes.

::　A colon after a vowel or a word is used to show that the sound is extended. The number of colons shows the length of the extension.

(hm, hh)　These are onomatopoetic representations of the audible exhalation of air)

.hh　This indicates an audible inhalation of air, for example, as a gasp. The more h's, the longer the in-breath.

?　A question mark indicates that there is slightly rising intonation.

.　A period indicates that there is slightly falling intonation.

,　A comma indicates a continuation of tone.

-　A dash indicates an abrupt cut off, where the speaker stopped speaking suddenly.

↑↓　Up or down arrows are used to indicate that there is sharply rising or falling intonation. The arrow is placed just before the syllable in which the change in intonation occurs.

Under　Underlines indicate speaker emphasis on the underlined portion of the word.

CAPS　Capital letters indicate that the speaker spoke the capitalized portion of the utterance at a higher volume than the speaker's normal volume.

°　This indicates an utterance that is much softer than the normal speech of the speaker. This symbol will appear at the beginning and at the end of the utterance in question.

> <, < >　'Greater than' and 'less than' signs indicate that the talk they surround was noticeably faster, or slower than the surrounding talk.

(would)　When a word appears in parentheses, it indicates that the transcriber has guessed as to what was said, because it was indecipherable on the tape. If the transcriber was unable to guess as to what was said, nothing appears within the parentheses.

£C'mon£　　Sterling signs are used to indicate a smiley or jokey voice.