

## İkinci Dil Öğrenenlerin ve Üçüncü/Daha Fazla Dil Öğrenenlere karşı Türk Üniversite Bağlamında Dillerarası Geçiş Pedagojisine Yönelik Tutumları

### Attitudes of L2 vs. L3 / L3+ Learners to Translanguaging Pedagogies in Turkish University Context\*

Emel Kucukali<sup>1</sup>, Dilara Koçbaş<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Sorumlu Yazar, Öğr. Gör. Dr., Dokuz Eylül University, emel.kucukali@deu.edu.tr,  
(<https://orcid.org/my-orcid?orcid=0000-0002-5162-6914>)

<sup>2</sup>Dr. Öğr. Üyesi, Yeditepe University, dilara.kocbas@yeditepe.edu.tr, (<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0807-6689>)

**Geliş Tarihi:** 07.08.2024

**Kabul Tarihi:** 06.04.2025

#### ÖZ

Bu karma yöntemli çalışma, ikinci dil, üçüncü dil ve üçüncü dilden fazla öğrenen öğrencilerinin Dillerarası geçiş pedagojilerine (DGP) yönelik tutumlarını hem nicel hem de nitel açıdan araştırmayı ve karşılaştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. TP, çeviri, dillerin karşılaştırılması ve birden çok dil ve kültür arasında geçiş gibi diller arası öğretim stratejilerini ifade eder. Katılımcılar/öğrenciler (N=157) uygun örnekleme yoluyla seçilmiştir ve bir Türk Üniversitesinde Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce (YDİ) (N=92) veya Rusça (N=13) veya SL (İkinci dil) olarak Türkçe (N=52) öğreniyorlar. Nicel veriler araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen bir anketle toplanmış ve Kruskal-Wallis H testi ile analiz edilmiştir. Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler ve görsellerden toplanan nitel veriler, CLAN (Bilgisayarlı Dil Analizi) Programı kullanılarak içerik ve görsel analiz yoluyla çözümlenmiştir. Elde edilen bulgular, TP'ye yönelik tutumları açısından üçüncü dil ve üçüncü dilden fazla öğrenenler arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını, ancak ikinci ve üçüncü dil öğrenenlerin nicel ve nitel olarak farklı olduğunu göstermiştir. İstatistiksel olarak, ikinci dil öğrenen öğrencileri, sınıfta üç ve daha fazla dili tercih eden üçüncü dil öğrenen öğrencilerine göre bir ve iki dilin dahil edilmesini önemli ölçüde daha fazla tercih etmektedir. Nitel bulgular, ikinci dil öğrenenlerin sadece Hedef diller (HD) veya Ana diller (AD) ve hedef dilin bir kombinasyonunu tercih ettiklerini ortaya koymuştur. Üçüncü dillerin dahil edilmesi, kafa karışıklığı ve hedef dilden dikkatin dağılması nedeniyle tercih edilmedi. Bununla birlikte, üçüncü dil öğrenen öğrencileri sınıfta üç veya daha fazla dili faydalı bulmaktadır çünkü daha iyi öğrenirler, diller arasındaki bağlantıları daha hızlı bulabilirler ve böylece hedef dilin zorluklarını aşabilirler. Elde edilen bulgulara dayanarak, çalışmanın sonunda pedagojik çıkarımlar önerilmiştir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Dillerarası geçiş pedagojileri, ikinci dil öğrenenler, üçüncü dil öğrenenler, dördüncü dil veya daha fazla öğrenenler, tutumlar.

#### ABSTRACT

The present mixed-method study aims to explore and compare the attitudes of L2 and L3 learners to Translanguaging pedagogies (TP) from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives. TP refer to cross-linguistic teaching strategies such as translation, comparison of languages, and shifting between multiple languages and cultures. The participants/students (N=157) were selected through convenient sampling and

\* This study is based on the first author's Ph.D. thesis.

were learners of English (N=92) or Russian (N=13) as a foreign language (FL) or Turkish (N=52) as a second language (SL) in a Turkish university. The quantitative data were collected from a questionnaire developed by the researcher and were analyzed through the Kruskal–Wallis H test. The qualitative data collected from semi-structured interviews and graphic elicitation tasks were analyzed through content and visual analysis using the CLAN (Computerized Language Analysis) Program. The findings indicated that in terms of their attitudes to TP, there is no significant difference between L3 and L3+ learners, however, L2 vs. L3/L3+ learners are quantitatively and qualitatively different. Statistically, L2 learners prefer the inclusion of one and two languages significantly more than L3/L3+ learners, who instead, favor three and more languages in class. The qualitative findings revealed that L2 learners preferred the integration of target languages (TL) only or a combination of Native languages (NL) and TL. Including third languages was not favored due to confusion and distraction from TL. However, L3/L3+ learners find three or more languages in class useful because they learn better, can find connections faster between languages and thus overcome the difficulties of TL. Based on the findings, pedagogical implications were suggested at the end of the study.

**Keywords:** Translanguaging pedagogies, L2 learners, L3 learners, L3+ learners, attitudes.

## INTRODUCTION

Due to the recent shift in language education ideology from monolingual to multilingual, researchers have recently concentrated on a relatively new teaching approach known as translanguaging (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). Research on translanguaging pedagogies (TP hereafter), increasingly centers on bilingual and multilingual education contexts with students from immigrant and minority groups (García & Wei, 2014; González-Davies, 2017; Makalela, 2018a, 2018b; Rivera & Mazak, 2017). Recent research has also focused on translanguaging pedagogies (TP) in foreign language (Liu & Fang, 2020; Phyak, 2018; Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2022), second language (Wang, 2019), and English-medium-instruction (EMI) contexts (Inci-Kavak & Kırkgöz, 2022; Kırkgöz et al., 2023). Even though the research comparing monolingual and multilingual learners is rich (Aronin & Ó Laoire; Cenoz, 2013; De Angelis, 2007; Dmitrenko, 2017; Sánchez, 2015), there is less research comparing translanguaging practices in monolingual and multilingual education contexts (Rosiers et al., 2018). Also, it seems that there is not much research that compares how monolingual and multilingual students in the same school, institution, or even classroom feel about translanguaging pedagogies. For this reason, more research on translanguaging pedagogies in different teaching and learning contexts with a range of student types is advised (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Gorter & Cenoz, 2017). Another matter to be investigated is the number of languages used in translanguaging, specifically whether to use monolingual (one language, i.e., TL), bilingual (two languages) or multilingual (three or more languages) pedagogies with emerging bi- and multilingual learners (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Hufeisen, 2004; Neuner, 2004). Learners' preferences for mono- / bi- / or multilingual pedagogy may vary depending on how many languages students know (Hufeisen, 2004; Neuner, 2004).

The current study intends to investigate and compare the attitudes of L2, L3, and L3+ learners to TP in the Turkish university context to close this gap in the literature. Specifically, the study aims to reveal what translanguaging strategy and how many languages each group of learners prefers to be included in the classroom, and the arguments behind their preferences. L2 learners are those who are monolingual and studying their first foreign language. L3 learners are those who have already studied two languages, whether in school or outside, and are acquiring FL as their third language. L3+ learners are those who have already learned/acquired three languages or more and are learning FL as L4, L5, or more.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1. Translanguaging

When students transition between receptive and productive skills, they are requested to move between English and Welsh. This pedagogical method is known as translanguaging, and it was initially utilized by Cen Williams (García & Wei, 2014; Williams, 1996). This was first used in a multilingual setting in Wales. Since then, the translanguaging approach has broadened its definition to include a cognitively more complex process of "making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding, and knowledge through the use of two or (more) languages" (Baker, 2011, p. 288) in order to support mental processes in the acquisition of the four skills (Lewis et al., 2012). Additionally, García and Kano (2014) expanded the notion of translanguaging by adding educational and ideological components. They describe translanguaging as a method by which educators and learners engage in intricate discursive practices that encompass every student's language use in the classroom in order to create new language habits and maintain existing ones, communicate and use knowledge appropriately, and give voice to emerging sociopolitical realities by examining linguistic inequality (García & Kano, 2014, p. 224).

Theoretically, TP centers on dynamic bilingualism and multilingual ideologies, which view bi/multilinguals' languages as one language system with integrated features as opposed to two separate language systems (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Garca & Wei, 2014). TP challenges the monolingual perspective, which separates the languages and focuses only on the target language. However, when teaching the target language in the classroom, TP advocates incorporating all of the students' languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020).

In the context of the current study, Translanguaging pedagogies (TP) refer to the process in which students and teachers display multilingual behavior in the classroom by using two or more languages to foster teaching and learning in the classroom. The pedagogies cover cross-linguistic strategies such as translation, comparison of languages/cultures and switching between multiple languages orally and in a written form (Baker, 2011; Canagarajah, 2011; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Council of Europe, 2020; García & Wei, 2014; Herdina & Jessner, 2002; Hufeisen & Neuner, 2004; Lewis et al., 2012).

The concrete implications of translanguaging pedagogies (TP) in the classroom are reflected in cross-linguistic strategies suggested by García and Wei (2014) and the Council of Europe (2020). These cross-linguistic teaching strategies include:

- 1) translation
- 2) comparison of two or three and more languages
- 3) shifting /code-switching between two or three and more languages
- 4) comparison of cultures.

As mentioned above, TP includes strategies such as code-switching and translation. On the other hand, the dynamic, cognitive and social aspects of translanguaging distinguish it from code-switching and translation. Translanguaging is beyond the shift between two languages in the sense that plurilinguals are cognitively and socially engaged when co-construct meanings to build a hybrid language repertoire (García & Wei, 2014). Differently from Grosjean's (2008) perspective on code-switching as a matter of activation of target and deactivation of non-target language system, García and Wei (2014) consider the constant activation of all languages on standby, in one single integrated and dynamic system, where they are ready to be selected mono or in combination for strategic use in different situations. For this reason, translanguaging practices are not separated into L1 and L2 but are an integrated system of students' plurilingual behavior in all

skills and modes in the classroom. Therefore, translanguaging pedagogy is more than code-switching and translation, because translanguaging adds language integration, cognitive transformation and wholistic learning. Code-switching and translation are sub-categories of translanguaging and are just some of the pedagogical strategies to be used in the classroom (García & Wei, 2014).

## **2.2. L2 Learners (Monolinguals) vs. L3/L3+ Learners (Bi-/Multilinguals)**

The dynamic model of multilingualism (DMM) proposed by Herdina and Jessner (2002) explains the distinction between L2 learners (monolinguals) and L3/L3+ learners (bi-/multilinguals) via the use of the M-factor. The impact of the M-factor intensifies as the number of known languages grows, leading to a higher cognitive demand for language monitoring. The cognitive effort of multilinguals to control numerous languages enhances their meta- and cross-linguistic awareness, which are sub-components of the M-factor and distinguish the multilingual from the monolingual learner. These properties of multilinguals' metasystem involve at least two languages and "specific meta-skills" (Herdina & Jessner, 2002, p. 129), which contribute to bi- and multilinguals' cognitive systems and make them advantageous over monolinguals in language learning. That is why, as a property of the multilinguals' metasystem, the M-factor is claimed to have a "priming or catalytic effect" in L3/L3+ learning (Herdina & Jessner, 2002, p. 129). On the other hand, L2 learning is different and related to a monolingual norm which separates the languages of the multilingual and interprets multilingualism as "multiple monolingualism" (Herdina & Jessner, 2002, p. 58).

The factor model (Hufeisen, 2004) explains the difference between L2 and L3/L3+ learners with the cognitive leap between the learning of the first (L2) and the second foreign language (L3). L3 learners learn differently from L2 learners because the former has the cognitive and linguistic experience of learning another foreign language. After their first experience with the first foreign language (L2), L3 learners have upgraded to significantly high metalinguistic and metacognitive level learners have upgraded to significantly high metalinguistic and metacognitive levels. The following stages of learning the subsequent languages (L3+) also contribute to cognitive leaps afterward but with little significance. In other words, while there is little cognitive distinction between L3 and L3+, the gap between L2 and L3 learners is crucial due to the significant cognitive transformation between the L2 and L3 learning process (Hufeisen, 2004).

Similarly, Cenoz (2013) suggests that L3 learning is different from L3/L3+ because L3 learners have a more diverse and broader linguistic and cognitive repertoire. They make use of prior language and cognitive knowledge. They reactivate and relate all their languages and adapt strategies from previous learning experiences. L2 learning focuses on the learning of a specific language in separation. In contrast, bilingualism, multilingualism, and L3/L3+ learning are unified under the umbrella of involving the additional languages of multilingual in the learning process (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011, 2020).

## **2.3. Mental Lexicon of Bi- and Multilinguals**

This section will discuss two psycholinguistic models on the organization of the bi-/multilingual lexicon. To begin with, Kroll and her colleagues established the Revised Hierarchical Model (Kroll & Stewart, 1994; Kroll & Tokowicz, 2005), which suggests that the first (L1) and second (L2) languages' lexical and conceptual representations are distinct but related. This psycholinguistic model states that beginning bilinguals use first language translation equivalents to make indirect connections to access the meaning of L2 words (L2 → L1 → Conceptual system), whereas proficient bilinguals have established direct links to L2 (L2 → Conceptual system) and can access the meanings of L2 words without relying on their L1 (Ellis, 2008, p. 375).

An alternative model posits that bilinguals have linked languages inside a unified vocabulary system, (Kirsner et al., 1993). Based on this approach, the links between languages in the lexical system are determined by the resemblances between words in terms of their form and meaning. Hence, the connections among related languages that include common characteristics like typology, orthography, and cognates are proposed to be more robust than those between unrelated languages (Goral et al., 2006). Moreover, the studies on individuals who speak multiple languages and the lexical associations between their native and non-native languages have provided evidence for direct lexical connections between two non-native languages. These studies have also shown that both cognate and non-cognate words are activated during word recognition. (Goral, 2002; Goral et al., 2006; Lemhöfer et al., 2004). Furthermore, a study (Goral et al., 2006) discovered robust lexical associations and interlanguage activations in an aphasic multilingual individual who had officially learned two closely related languages, namely French and English. The cross-activation between these two languages exhibited a greater intensity than the cross-activation between each of these non-native languages and the participant's native language (Hebrew). The authors of the study (Goral et al., 2006) concluded that a third language (L3) may be learned in relation to a previously learned non-native language (L2), by building and making use of strong lexical connections with that language (Goral et al., 2006).

#### **2.4. Previous Research**

The research comparing and contrasting L2 vs. L3/L3+ learners suggests that bilingual individuals have a comparative edge over monolinguals in acquiring a foreign language (Cenoz, 2013; De Angelis, 2007). Cenoz (2013) outlines the benefits of bilingual individuals, including their enhanced metalinguistic and cross-linguistic awareness, advanced learning techniques, extensive language learning experience, diverse linguistic abilities, and greater performance in previously learned languages. Additional research has shown that multilingual individuals who have a first language (L1) in Spanish or Catalan and a second language (L2) in German have an easier time acquiring a third language (L3) in English (Sánchez, 2015). Furthermore, De Angelis (2007) and related sources discuss the beneficial impact of prior knowledge of other languages on language acquisition. These benefits include improved performance in translation tasks (Gibson & Hufeisen, 2003) and increased awareness of grammar and language structure (Kemp, 2001). In addition, Dmitrenko (2017) examined the differences in learning strategies between multilingual adults and L2 learners in Spain. She found a significant correlation between the learners' use of multilingual language learning approaches and their degree of multilingualism. The main differentiating factor between L2/L3/L3+ learners and L2 learners, as stated on page 16, is the use of similarities across related languages to build connections. Dmitrenko (2017) states that the diversity in learners' language proficiency may be attributed to factors such as the range and quantity of languages they are familiar with, their learning experiences, and their level of metalinguistic awareness (p. 17). In addition, a study conducted by Aronin and Ó Laoire (2003) found that trilingual students from Israel and Ireland want their L3 teachers to be fluent in three languages and to use all three languages in the classroom. This preference is based on practical and empowering grounds. According to the research, a student said that teachers find it simpler to explain and that they themselves find it easier to comprehend (Aronin & Ó Laoire, 2003, p. 212). Korkmaz (2013) investigated the language acquisition techniques used by university students studying English Language Teaching (ELT) who are acquiring German or French as their third language (L3). The author discovered that students used a guessing technique by drawing connections between prior learning experiences and new ideas when acquiring L3. Thus, in order to comprehend unfamiliar L3 terms, the students established connections using their understanding of L2 (i.e., English).

The research which focuses on multilingual learners in multilingual environments, revealed that multilingual learners report positive attitudes to translanguaging. Multilingual students reported that TP had developed positive learning experiences and multilingual identities (Makalela, 2018a, 2018b; Rivera & Mazak, 2017). Also, research shows that TP improves

students' morphological awareness (Lyster et al., 2013), vocabulary in the target language (Makalela, 2018a), cognitive and socio-affective learning techniques, and ability to function in several languages and cultures (González-Davies, 2017). According to Pujol-Ferran et al. (2016), TP promoted student involvement, teamwork, linguistic diversity, and exposure to different cultures. In addition, by encouraging cross-linguistic comparisons and connections between past knowledge and firsthand experiences, TP advanced deeper content, academic, and metalinguistic awareness (Pujol-Ferran et al., 2016).

The research in second language (SL) classrooms with L3 students also revealed positive attitudes toward TP. Positive sentiments toward translanguaging from English to Chinese were found in a study (Wang, 2019) conducted in Hong Kong in which adult international learners studied in a Chinese language classroom. According to student reports, learning in English improves comprehension, speeds up learning, eases anxiety, promotes relaxation, and maintains motivation and interest in the subject matter. Using English as the common language facilitated communication and engagement, increased readability, and made classroom procedures more efficient and practical. Additionally, students adopted translanguaging as a creative way to communicate with each other because English provides a *lingua franca* for all students from different linguistic backgrounds to share their learning experiences, feelings and concerns. Finally, students reported needing English for complicated concepts and grammar and to overcome orthographic difficulties in the Chinese language (Wang, 2019).

Studies on TP in EFL monolingual contexts have shown that TP has advantages and disadvantages (Liu & Fang, 2020; Phyak, 2018). Phyak (2018) states that emergent bi- and multilingual English learners find a monolingual approach inconvenient, which is why TP is preferred in EFL environments. Additional advantages mentioned in Japanese EFL (Turnbull, 2018) include task management, comparing TL and L1, asking and answering questions, and a greater grasp of grammar and vocabulary. Nevertheless, Liu and Fang (2020) also noted many drawbacks of TP, including a language policy that is only applicable to one language, excessive usage of L1 by students, and confusion brought on by cross-linguistic interference (Liu & Fang, 2020, pp. 4-5).

Unlike most of the research on translanguaging, a comparative study conducted in Belgium (Rosiers et al., 2018) examined and contrasted the use of translanguaging in both multi- and monolingual classrooms. The comparative findings showed that translanguaging was used in both settings for rigid, transitional, and less formal activities, serving social and identity-related objectives. However, the adoption of these behaviors by both the instructor and the students for educational objectives only occurred in the multilingual classroom. Another distinction is that the inclusion of French or Arabic in the multilingual classroom signifies a departure from the conventional use of standard Dutch. However, translanguaging in the monolingual classroom signifies a shift towards the standard use of formal Dutch (Rosiers et al., 2018).

The research on translanguaging in the Turkish context is mainly in EFL and EMI contexts, limited to the integration of two languages only (L1 and TL). In the EFL context (Yuvayapan, 2019), English language teachers' perceptions and actual use of L1 in class were examined through a questionnaire, class observations and interviews. Teachers believed that including Turkish (L1) in class contributes to classes with low-proficiency students in terms of participation, clarifications, vocabulary description, classroom management, interaction and teacher-student rapport. However, teachers also mentioned the constraints of translanguaging in their EFL context. Sometimes they avoid inclusion of L1 in class due to the expectations of their institutions, colleagues and the monolingual policy. (Yuvayapan, 2019). Another study in the EFL context (Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2022) measured the effect of planned translanguaging pedagogies on EFL learners' four language skills, and their perceptions towards its in-class implementation as a pedagogy involving L1 (Turkish) and TL (English) in high-schools. The findings indicated that planned translanguaging pedagogies had a positive effect on improving students' four English

language skills overall. Also, students reported constructive, cognitive, interactive, and affective benefits of translanguaging pedagogy, such as promoting meaning-making, autonomous learning, meta and bilingual awareness, learning, negotiation, clarification, a sense of comfort, and a sense of motivation to use and learn English (Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2022). Similarly, in the Turkish EMI most instructors and students strategically employ translanguaging to varied degrees and for various purposes by integrating L1 Turkish with English (Kırkgöz et al., 2023). Students believe the English-only policy is the best option, but their practices often diverge significantly from their stated opinions. They tend to view L1 as a useful tool in their daily and academic contacts and education, even if they require constant and focused exposure to English to improve their English skills and specialized field repertoire (Inci-Kavak & Kırkgöz, 2022).

## 2.5. Research Questions

The following research questions were posed for the present study:

**RQ1.** Is there a significant difference between L2, L3 and L3+ learners in their attitudes to TP?

**RQ2.** In what ways do the attitudes to TP differ between L2, L3 and L3+ learners?

## METHODOLOGY

### 3.1. The Participants

In this study; convenience sampling was used to choose the participants for the questionnaire session, and participation was voluntary for the interview. In total, the participants consisted of 157 students from Turkish State University's School of Foreign Languages (Cohen et al., 2000). The participants were either SL students studying Turkish or FL students studying English or Russian. FL learners are of Turkish nationality, while SL learners are of non-Turkish, foreign status in the country. Tables 1 and 2 provide detailed information about students' backgrounds based on self-reported data in the questionnaire.

**Table 1**

*Students' Gender and Age*

TL		Gender		Age			Total
		F	M	18-29	30-39	40-53	
EN	N	40	52	89	0	0	92
TUR	N	23	29	48	4	0	52
RUS	N	3	10	5	4	4	13
Total	N	66	91	14	8	4	157
	%	42.0%	58.0%	92.2%	5.2%	2.6%	100%

**Table 2***Students' Nationality and Number of Classes in Each Group*

TL	Nationality			Classes	
		Tr	Foreign	N	Total
ENG	N	91	1	5	92
TUR	N	0	52	1	52
RUS	N	13	0	1	13
Total	N	104	53	7	157
	%	66.2%	33.8%		100%

Table 3 below shows students' language background, or the chronological order of learning TL i.e., being L2, L3, L3+ learners. L3+ includes learners of L4, L5 and L6.

**Table 3***Students' Chronological Order of Learning TL i.e., Being L2, L3 or L3+ Learners*

TL		L2	L3	L3+	Total
EN	N	80	10	2	92
	%	87.0%	10.9%	2.2%	100.0%
TUR	N	2	8	42	52
	%	3.8%	15.4%	80.8%	100.0%
RUS	N	0	6	7	13
	%	0.0%	46.2%	53.8%	100.0%
Total	N	82	24	51	157
	%	52.2%	15.3%	32.5%	100.0%

In order to maintain the confidentiality of the participants, the research used codes rather than actual names. The table below presents the roster of participants together with their respective codes, as seen in Table 4.

**Table 4***The List of Participants and Their Corresponding Codes*

<b>Sn</b>	Student, n= 1, 2, 3... e.g., S1=Student1, S2=Student2, S3= Student3...
<b>SnL2</b>	Student (n), L2 learner e.g., S1L2
<b>SnL3</b>	Student (n), L3/L3+ learner, e.g., S1L3

### 3.2. Data Collection Instruments

The quantitative data were collected from a questionnaire (Wei & Moyer, 2008). Qualitative data was gathered through an interview (Maxwell, 2012; Wei & Moyer, 2008) and visual tasks (Bagnoli, 2009). The questionnaire and interviews were developed by the researcher and built upon the cross-linguistic translanguaging strategies suggested by García and Wei (2014) and the Council of Europe (2020). These cross-linguistic teaching strategies include:

- 1) translation
- 2) comparison of two or three and more languages

3) shifting /code-switching between two or three and more languages

4) comparison of cultures.

The questionnaire development underwent three main procedures: (1) constructing content and items, (2) translation of content and items from English to Turkish and (3) piloting. The questionnaire was piloted following three steps: pre-piloting, initial piloting, and final piloting. After several revisions in the content and the number of items, the final piloted version of the questionnaire was accepted with satisfactory validity and reliability results. During the development process, the researcher was assisted by an expert in questionnaire development and an expert in translation.

The questionnaire consists of two parts. While Part 1 elicited background information, Part 2 required students to report their attitude toward the cross-linguistic strategies listed above. Part 2 included ten items in the format of “I like it when my teacher uses/does.....in class” statements with answers on a Likert-scale from 1 ‘No, I strongly disagree’ to 4 ‘Yes, I strongly agree’ (See App. A for students’ questionnaire).

The interview questions aimed to gain a deeper understanding of the participants' attitudes towards TP. Interview questions were developed from the questionnaire statements as ‘How/Why’ versions of the items. The visual elicitation task aimed to get non-verbal data on students' language awareness and their perceptions of TP. This technique is used to extract visual, non-verbal, and emotional information from the participants via the act of creating diagrams and symbols. Graphic elicitation is a useful method for gathering comprehensive information on participants' identities, experiences, and views. Graphic elicitation is a technique that helps individuals communicate sensitive and subconscious ideas that may be hard to put into words. It creates a sense of ease and allows for a deeper understanding of these perspectives (Bagnoli, 2009). The objective of the interview and visual task was to provide a qualitative understanding of the questionnaire results.

### **3.3. Data Collection Procedures**

Data collection procedures followed a mixed-method design and involved two sessions.

(1) Questionnaire session,

(2) Interview & visuals session.

Questionnaires, interviews/visual tasks were administered right after the end of the academic year in April and May 2019 in the School of Foreign Languages at a Turkish State University. The Turkish version of the questionnaire was administered to students of Turkish nationality, while for foreign students, both English and Turkish versions were supplied. This was followed by interviews and visual sessions, which were audio recorded. For the interview and visual sessions, the participants were selected voluntarily among the students who had completed the questionnaire. During the visual activity, students were instructed to create visual representations of their emotions towards the languages they are familiar with and the languages utilized in class. They were encouraged to include symbols, phrases, speech bubbles, arrows, and any other visual elements. The students explained in a written or oral form the meaning of their pictures. Table 5 below summarizes the procedures and participants during the sessions.

**Table 5***Data Collection Procedures*

TL	Students / Questionnaire	Students / Interview & Visuals tasks	Classes
EN	92	27	5
TUR	52	13	1
RUS	13	10	1
Total	157	50	7

Before collecting the data, ethical permission was obtained from Yeditepe University, Pedagogical Sciences Institute Ethical Committee (with the reference number 21568116-302.14.01-E.342) on 30/07/2019.

**3.4. Data Analysis**

Two normality tests were run for the distribution of questionnaire data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk (Greasley, 2007; Razali et al., 2012). The results revealed that data is not normally distributed ( $p < .05$ ). Therefore, non-parametric (Kruskal-Wallis) tests were used for the quantitative data analysis (Urdan, 2005). To avoid redundancy, the questionnaire items ( $N=10$ ) were grouped into four variables parallel with the grouping of the factor analysis. The variables are:

- 1) Att.2Ls (Attitudes to the integration of two languages, e.g., translation, comparison of/speaking in two languages in class)
- 2) Att.3Ls (Attitudes to integration of three languages, e.g., comparison of /speaking in three languages in class)
- 3) Att.Cul (Attitudes to the integration of cultures, e.g., comparison of local to target language/world cultures in class)
- 4) Att.1L.TL (Attitudes to monolingual strategies e.g., speaking only in the target language in class)

The CLAN (Computerized Language ANalysis) Program (MacWhinney, 2000) was used to analyze the interviews because it provides uniform transcription and coding criteria, which improves the study's reliability (Wei & Moyer, 2008). The CHAT Transcription Format (<https://talkbank.org/manuals/CHAT.pdf>) was used for codes and transcription norms, and the CLAN (Computerized Language ANalysis) Program manual (<https://talkbank.org/manuals/CLAN.pdf>) was utilized to choose the commands to perform the analysis. The transcribed utterances were labeled with the key concepts (DeCuir-Gunby et al., 2011). The frequency of the important concepts was then listed using the `FREQ` command. After the RQs and the main ideas were matched, the ideas were recast as codes (Saldaña, 2021). The codes were then categorized into themes that address the research questions of the current study.

In addition to the verbal data from the interviews, the visual tasks were examined using both content and visual analysis. The codes from the visual data were extracted through text- and visual-based analysis contextualized with the interviews (Bagnoli, 2009). To respond to the research questions, the final codes from the visual and verbal data were compared, combined, and categorized into themes.

### 3.5. Validity and Reliability

The tools and data were quantitatively assessed for reliability and validity using statistical tests. A reliability test was used to assess the internal consistency of the students' questionnaire. A Cronbach Alpha correlation coefficient value of 0.72 is regarded to be an acceptable result for assessing the reliability of a questionnaire (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Furthermore, a Factor analysis was conducted on the attitude items in the students' questionnaire, which revealed a theoretical categorization (four groups) of the items (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). In order to determine the agreement between two separate data coders for the interviews, the Kappa statistic was used (Landis & Koch, 1977). The inter-coder reliability for the initial 35 codes of interview data was found to be  $Kappa = 0.85$  ( $Sig = 0.00$ ;  $p < 0.00$ ). Similarly, for the first 29 codes of the visual data, the inter-coder reliability was  $Kappa = 0.82$  ( $Sig = 0.00$ ;  $p < 0.00$ ). The findings are statistically significant and demonstrate a great level of agreement between the two coders (Viera & Garrett, 2005). The research was qualitatively validated by member checking, triangulation, and standard coding (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009).

## FINDINGS

### 4.1. Findings Related to RQ1: Is There a Significant Difference between L2, L3 and L3+ Learners in Their Attitudes to TP?

Kruskal-Wallis tests were run to search for significant differences in students' attitudes to teachers' pedagogies depending on their language background, that is, the chronological order (Ln) of TL being learnt (L2, L3, L3+ learner). Kruskal-Wallis results in Table 6 below displayed evidence of a significant difference ( $p < .05$ ) between L2, L3 and L3+(L4, L5, L6) learners on their attitudes to translanguaging pedagogies such as the integration of two ( $H(2) = 16.31$ ,  $p = .00$ ) and three languages ( $H(2) = 11.56$ ,  $p = .00$ ), and on a monolingual teaching strategy such as teaching only in TL ( $H(2) = 12.53$ ,  $p = .00$ ).

**Table 6**

*Kruskal-Wallis Test Results for Differences in Attitudes to Translanguaging Pedagogies between L2, L3, and L3+ Learners*

	Att.2Ls	Att.3Ls	Att.Cul	Att.1L.TL
Kruskal-Wallis H	16.31	11.56	1.73	12.53
df	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.00	.00	.42	.00

Table 7 below reported the post hoc test (Dunn's Multiple Comparison, p values adjusted by the Bonferroni correction) results for the three pairs of groups. Table 7 reveals that L3 and L3+ learners are similar but significantly different from L2 learners. L2 learners favour the integration of two languages (MR=92.56) and monolingual teaching (MR=88.92) more than L3 learners (MR=64.90; 62.17) and L3+ learners (MR=63.83; 66.13) with a significant difference ( $p < .05$ ). On the other hand, L3 (MR=95.63) and L3+ learners (MR=87.84) prefer the integration of three languages more than L2 learners (MR=66.70) at a significant level ( $p < .05$ ).

**Table 7**

*Post Hoc Test Results for Differences in Attitudes to Translanguaging Pedagogies between L2, L3, and L3+ Learners*

Attitude	Group Info			Post Hoc Test Statistics		
	Ln group	N	Mean rank	Gr1 -Gr2	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Att.2Ls	L2	82	92.56	L2-L3+	.00	.00
	L3	24	64.90	L2-L3	.00	.02
	L3+	51	63.83			
Att.3Ls	L2	81	66.70	L2-L3+	.00	.02
	L3	24	95.63	L2-L3	.00	.01
	L3+	50	87.84			
Att.1L.TL	L2	81	88.92	L2-L3+	.00	.00
	L3	24	62.17	L2-L3	.00	.02
	L3+	49	66.13			

Note. Only the pairs with significant difference between mean ranks are listed

To conclude, there is a significant difference in students' attitudes according to their language background, that is L2 and L3/L3+ learners prefer different teaching pedagogies. While bi- and multilingual students favor the integration of three and more languages, monolingual learners have an inclination to bi- and monolingual pedagogies.

#### **4.2. Findings Related to RQ2: In What Ways Do The Attitudes to TP Differ between L2, L3 and L3+ Learners?**

The quantitative difference between L2 and L3 learners was also evident in the qualitative results. Similarly, in their interviews, L2 and L3/L3+ learners displayed some differences in their attitudes to TP such as the comparison of languages. Both parties agree that language comparison is useful for grammar and vocabulary. However, while L2 learners prefer a comparison between NL and TL only, L3/L3+ learners favor the incorporation of a third or fourth language in class. L2 learners explained their preference for NL-TL combination for several reasons. They reported understanding better abstract concepts, grammar, vocabulary and cognates this way because they look for logic and equivalents in their NL, a language they know and speak well. Also, thus they write better by understanding the differences in the way of thinking of TL speakers. For them, NL is a pre-stage link to TL, that is, without knowing the NL version, you cannot understand the English one. However, L2 learners are not open to comparisons between TL and other languages apart from NL due to low or lack of proficiency in L3. They accept they have never experienced such a method, but they believe that teaching cognates and similarities between three or more languages may lead to confusion about the meanings of similar concepts:

**S1L2:** Karşılığını tam olarak anlayamıyoruz İngilizce kelimenin ama Türkçe deki anlamını anlayabiliyoruz, gramer de böyle kıyaslayınca daha iyi anlıyorum.

*(S1L2: We do not fully understand the equivalent of the English word, but we can understand its meaning in Turkish, I understand better when compared to grammar.)*

**S2L2:** Writing'te Türkçe düşünüyorum ama İngilizcede öyle geçmemesi gerekiyor aslında ama farkı anlayınca aaa İngilizler böyle düşünürdü.

*(S2L2: I think in Turkish while writing, but it shouldn't be like that in English, but when you realize the difference, aa English would think like that.)*

**S3L2:** Bildiğimiz konuştuğumuz dille kıyaslınsın ve insan mantık aramaya başlıyor İngilizce bir şey için Türkçenin karşılığı nedir ve oturuyor biraz, abstract kelimeler için özellikle. Öyle yöntem görmedim önceden ama üç dil kıyaslamak kafa karıştırdı diye düşünüyorum, birbirine yakın diller ve anlamı yakın kelimeler daha çok kafa karıştırır.

(S3L2: Compared to the language we know and people start to look for logic, what is the equivalent of Turkish for English something and it fits a little, especially for abstract words. I haven't seen such a method before but I think comparing three languages would be confusing, languages that are close to each other and words with similar meanings are more confusing mixes.)

**S4L2:** Türkçe İngilizce kıyaslama faydaları Türkçe anlamadığımız bir şeyin İngilizcesini anlayamıyoruz.

(S4L2: Turkish English comparison benefits, we cannot understand something in English that we cannot get Turkish.)

Conversely, multilingual learners (L3/L3+) get benefit and enjoyment from comparing grammar and vocabulary across three or more languages, particularly when this is a shared experience among all classmates. Providing cognates and vocabulary in many languages is beneficial for reinforcing word meanings and facilitating more effective and efficient learning. Students from ethnic minority backgrounds have acknowledged the importance of using their minority language in comparisons, especially when it may be compared to the TL, as this would improve their level of comfort. However, they demonstrate empathy towards their classmates who are unable to benefit from this method owing to their limited understanding of that specific language.

**S1L3:** Üç dilde kıyaslayınca grameri daha rahat öğrendim. Türkçe'de daha iyi anlarız extra bildiğimiz dille karşılaştırma da yaparsanız bu daha da iyi pekişir, yani minimum iki dil kullanmanız gerekir tür ve İngilizce ve yanında bildiğimiz dilden örnek verirseniz daha da iyi pekişir, özellikle 3.dili sınıfta herkes biliyorsa.

(S1L3: I learned grammar in a better way compared to three languages. We understand better in Turkish, and if you make a comparison with the language we know, it reinforces even better, so you have to use a minimum of two languages, English and Turkish, and if you give an example from the language we know, it will reinforce even better, especially if everyone in class knows the 3rd language)

**S2L3:** İsterdim kelimenin Lazcası da yazılsın verilsin anlamı bana faydası olurdu hoşuma giderdi ama sınıftaki diğer insanlara faydası olmazdı hedef İngilizce öğrenmek olduğu için.

(S2L3: I wish the word was written in the language of Laz and would be helpful to me but it would help other people in the classroom since the target is learning English).

**S3L3:** İngilizce ve Kürtçe grameri yakındır kıyaslama yapılsın derste, olabilir yakın dilleri kıyaslamak biliyorsak daha bir rahatlık sağlar.

(S3L3: English and Kurdish grammar are close. In the lesson, it will be more convenient if we know how to compare close languages.)

In addition, L3/L3+ learners, unlike L2 learners, see the comparison between the target language and other foreign languages as more significant than comparing it to their native language (NL). An L3 student indicated that his awareness of his foreign languages is greater than that of his native language. Foreign languages and target languages are acquired by deliberate learning processes, unlike native languages which are acquired naturally. Therefore, it is important to place emphasis on grammar and make explicit comparisons between different FLs. Another L3 student, who had prior experience with comparing English and German in their German class, acknowledged the usefulness of this approach. They found that studying both foreign languages simultaneously allowed for the improvement of both. Additionally, learning concepts in both languages and making associations with Latin root words proved to be a more successful method for remembering vocabulary:

**S4L3:** Kıyaslamamız gerekir üç dil gramer konusunda kıyaslanacaksa tahtaya yazarak onu anadilden ziyade sonradan öğrenilmiş bir dille kıyaslanmak daha iyi olur karşılaştırmayı daha

net görebilirim, çünkü anadildeki grameri çok iyi bilmeyebilirim, hayatta kullanıyorum ama bilincinde değiliz odaklanmıyoruz gramer yapısının ana dilin.

*(S4L3: We need to compare three languages if we are to compare grammar, it would be better to compare it with a language learned later than the mother tongue by writing on the board, I can see the comparison more clearly, because I may not know the grammar in the mother tongue, I use it in life, but we are not conscious, we do not focus on the grammatical structure of the mother tongue.)*

**S5L3:** Üçüncü dil açısından lisede Almanca hocamız kelimeleri hem Almanca hem İngilizce verirdi iyi oldu hem İngilizcemiz hem Almancamız gelişti Türkçesini bildiğim için iki kelime birden öğrenmiş oldum Latin kelimeler çağırışım yapıp daha kalıcı olur.

*(S5L3: In terms of the third language, in high school, our German teacher gave the words both German and English, which was good, and since I know English and German have improved, I have learned two words, Latin words will create association and become more permanent).*

In addition to the aspect of comparison, L2 and L3/L3+ learners exhibit contrasting attitudes towards teachers speaking languages other than the TL and NL. L2 learners believe that the inclusion of German or French by the instructor is unsuitable for monolingual students, such as themselves, who are learning English. They claim that this might potentially lead to confusion due to the linguistic similarities between these languages and TL, since students may lack the necessary proficiency to comprehend them. Furthermore, they do not provide any advantages and may potentially cause distraction from TL.

**S1L2:** Almanca veya Fransızca katarsanız pek iyi olmazdı çünkü İngilizce öğreniyoruz, karışabilirdi, ve Almancayı katmamalıyız çünkü Almanca seviyemiz sınıfça olarak yeterli değil, ve araya girince kafalar karışabilir, katkıda bulunmazdı, ve aynı dil ailesi olduğundan, biz tek dil biliyoruz sadece.

*(S1L2: It wouldn't be very good if you could add German or French because we were learning English, it could get confusing, and we shouldn't include German because our level of German is not enough as a class, and when we intervene, they might get confused, they wouldn't contribute, and since it's the same language family, we only know one language.)*

On the other hand, L3 students believe that the similarity between languages spoken by the teacher is an advantage. They claimed to benefit from it because when one of the languages spoken matches TL, they understand better and overcome the difficulties of TL.

**S1L3:** Hoca üç dilde ders anlatıyor ve bunu kesinlikle faydalı buluyoruz çünkü çok daha iyi anlayabiliyorum Rusça benim ikinci yabancı dilim ben zorlanıyorum harflerinde ve kalıplarında ama İngilizce ile match ettiğim zaman benim birinci yabancı dilim olarak ben çok daha kolay anlıyorum.

*(S1L3: The teacher teaches lessons in three languages and we find it absolutely useful because I can understand it much better, Russian is my second foreign language, I have difficulties in characters and structures, but when I match with English, I understand it much more easily as my first foreign language.)*

L3 students also mentioned that their teacher's code-switching is needed for some difficult and ambiguous grammatical issues that require explanation. Students who speak languages other than TL and NL should also have the opportunity to receive clarification in those languages:

**S2L3:** There are some points which have to be clarified then it is useful to use English or other languages French, Arabic for students who know these languages well, when explaining grammar teacher should use several languages.

As for speaking to the teacher in languages other than TL and NL, L2 learners reported it not to be sensible in their context, where most of the students are monolingual and TL and NL

are the only languages shared by everybody in the class. Therefore, students anticipated some issues, for instance, they may miss and not understand that question of their classmates and it may lead to unnecessary repetition of the same questions and answers in different languages so that everybody could understand:

**S2L2:** Arapça konuşmamın anlamı olmazdı eğer sadece ben bilseydim. Arapça mesela kalan sınıf bilmediği için belki aynı soruyu bir kaç kere alabilirsiniz ve hepsine aynı cevabı vermek zorunda kalabilirsiniz.

*(S2L2: It would not make sense to speak Arabic if only I knew... for example, because the remaining class doesn't know Arabic, maybe you can take the same question several times and have to give the same answer to all of them.)*

**S3L2:** Üçüncü bilmediğim dilde başka öğrenci soru sorsaydı hocaya biz anlamazdık, soruyu kaçırdık.

*(S3L2: If another student asked a question in the third language that I do not know, we would not understand the teacher, we would miss the question.)*

However, unlike their L2 counterparts, L3/L3+ learners revealed positive attitudes toward the freedom of speaking three languages themselves in class because this activates their language repertoire and they can find connections faster and easier between these languages, and can process the comparisons easier:

**S5L3:** Biz üç dili Türkçe Rusça İngilizce hepsini konuşuyoruz sınıfta bu iyi bir şey çünkü bağlantı yapıyoruz daha kolay kavriyoruz anlıyoruz mesela Almanca konuştuğunuzda karşılaştırdığımızda daha hızlı algılanıyor.

*(S5L3: We speak all three languages, Turkish and Russian in English. This is a good thing in the classroom because we make connections, we understand it more easily, for example, when you speak German, it is perceived faster when you compare.)*

Contrary to multilingual learners, many L2 learners prefer monolingual teaching methods and specifically request vocabulary explanations or synonyms only in the target language. Their argument is that tests and reading texts include synonyms, which will be advantageous for their exam grades:

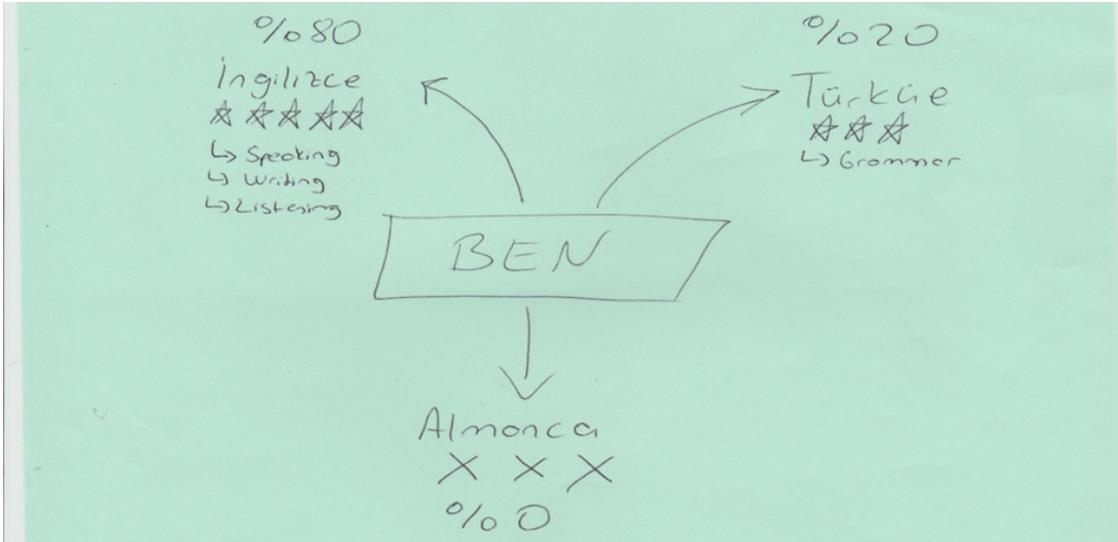
**S2L2:** Kelimeleri sinonim versin hoca çünkü sınavda sinonimler veya bir benzerini görme şansımız oluyor yani o kelimeyi göremiyoruz bir benzerini görüyoruz bizim için daha kolay oluyor, farklı metinlerde eş anlamlı kelimeler gelebiliyor.

*(S2L2: We want teacher to give the synonymous of the words, because we have the chance to see synonyms or similar ones in the exam, so we cannot see that word, we see a similar word, it is easier for us, synonyms can be found in different texts.)*

The graphic data provided by the students also indicated the distinctions between L2 learners and L3/L3+ learners. The first drawing in Fig.1 belongs to an L2 learner who prefers bilingual TP but with priority to TL. The picture reveals that English (TL) is preferred as the dominant language, covering 80% of the lectures. NL (Turkish) is suggested to occupy only 20 % and for grammar sessions only. Third languages, in the case of German, are definitely not favoured, with 0% inclusion in the class.

**Figure 1**

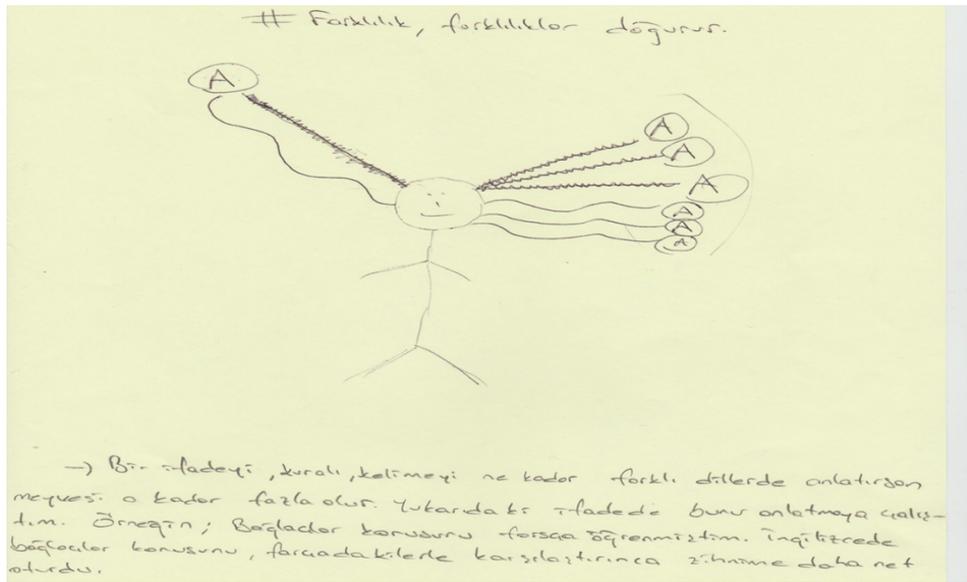
*L2 Learner' Graphic Elicitation Task Expressing His/Her Attitude to TP*



On the other hand, in Fig.2 below is the drawing of an L3/L3+ learner of English. Unlike the picture of an L2 learner, this drawing emphasizes both visually and verbally the preference for multiple languages in class, which is in line with the interview and questionnaire data of L3/L3+ learners. The verbal notes say that differences bring differences and that the more languages are used to explain a phrase, rule or word, the more fruitful, and productive it is for students. The visual clues remind the fruits of multiple language input, and specifically of languages different from NL. A separate bunch of circles and lines seem to represent the grouping and organization of the languages in multilinguals' mental lexicon. This student clarified that his goal was to compare and contrast his languages, both within themselves and with TL, by drawing some lines similarly and some lines differently.

**Figure 2**

*L3/L3+ Learner's Graphic Elicitation Task Expressing His/Her Attitude to TP*



#### **4.3. Summary of Findings Related to L2 Vs. L3/L3+ Learners' Attitudes to TP**

The quantitative findings indicate that L2 and L3/L3+ learners prefer different teaching pedagogies. While bi- and multilingual students favor the integration of three and more languages, monolingual learners have an inclination to bi- and monolingual pedagogies. L2 learners explained their preference for NL-TL combination for several reasons. First, they understand abstract concepts, grammar, vocabulary and cognates better this way, because they look for logic and equivalents in their NL. Also, thus they understand the different mentality of TL speakers. For them, NL is a pre-stage, link to TL. However, L2 learners are not open to the integration of other FLs apart from TL. It may cause confusion because these languages are similar to TL and students do not have (enough) competence to understand them. In addition, they are not beneficial and might cause distraction from TL. They may miss and not understand the questions of their classmates in L3 and it may lead to unnecessary repetition of the same questions and answers in different languages so that everybody understands. Some L2 learners prefer even monolingual pedagogies and want vocabulary to be explained or given synonyms only in TL to be helpful for their exams.

On the other hand, L3/L3+ learners find the integration of three or more languages enjoyable and useful to consolidate the meaning of the words and to learn better and more easily. What is more, unlike L2 learners, L3/L3+ learners find the comparison of TL to other FLs more meaningful than to NL, because they have higher language awareness of their FLs than that of their NL. FL and TL are both learned, not automatically acquired and used like NL. Multilingual learners also reported that teacher's code-switch is very beneficial because when one of the languages spoken matches TL, students understand better and overcome the difficulties of TL. Also, this activates their language repertoire, and they can find connections between these languages faster and more easily.

## **5. DISCUSSIONS**

### **5.1. There are Quantitative and Qualitative Differences between L2 and L3/L3+ Learners**

The primary finding of the present study is that there is a quantitative and qualitative difference between L2 learners and L3/L3+ learners. The difference between L3 and L3+ learners is not significant. While L2 learners prefer monolingual pedagogies, a focus on TL only and the integration of two languages (L1 + TL), L3/ L3+ learners like the inclusion of three and more languages in class. The positive transfer of both linguistic similarities and cognitive features like learning strategies from previously learnt languages brings cognitive advantages to L3/L3+ learners. This difference between L2 and L3/L3+ learners could be explained with the factor model (Hufeisen, 2004) and the dynamic model of multilingualism (DMM) (Herdina & Jessner, 2002). According to the models, bi-/multilinguals have specific meta-skills or significantly high metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness, which contribute to bi- and multilinguals' cognitive systems and make them different from monolinguals in language learning (Hufeisen & Neuner, 2004) (Herdina & Jessner, 2002). L3/L3+ learners are more advantageous than L2 learners because the former have a more diverse and broader linguistic and cognitive repertoire and use prior languages and cognitive knowledge. They reactivate and relate all their languages and adapt strategies from previous learning experiences and that is why they prefer the integration in class of three and more languages that they know (Aronin & Ó Laoire, 2003; Cenoz, 2013; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; De Angelis, 2007; Dmitrenko, 2017; Rosiers et al., 2018).

### **5.2. L2 Learners Use NL as a Link to TL**

According to the quantitative findings, L2 learners prefer integrating two languages. The qualitative findings revealed that these two languages are students' native language (NL) and the target language (TL). L2 learners reported using NL as a pre-stage, link to TL to understand abstract concepts, grammar, vocabulary and cognates. This finding could be explained with the Revised Hierarchical Model (Kroll & Stewart, 1994; Kroll & Tokowicz, 2005). This model of bilingual lexicon suggests that in order to access the meaning of L2 words, emergent bilinguals use indirect connections via first language translation equivalents. This finding is also supported by the cognitive, emotional, and social advantages of linking NL and TL that are reported by L2 learners in other studies (Inci-Kavak & Kırkgöz, 2022; Kırkgöz et al., 2023; Yuvayapan, 2019; Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2022).

### **5.3. L2 Learners Prefer also Monolingual Pedagogies**

According to other findings in the present study, some L2 learners prefer even monolingual pedagogies and want vocabulary to be explained or given synonyms only in TL to be helpful for their exams. Apart from the cognitive reasons listed above, the monolingual policy of teaching and assessment (Inci-Kavak & Kırkgöz, 2022; Liu & Fang, 2020; Yuvayapan, 2019) also might have had an influence on students' attitudes toward TP. This should lead the researchers to another significant issue of TP, assessment, which is out of the scope of the present study and is suggested for further research.

### **5.4. L3/L3+ Learners Tend to Connect TL to Other FLs**

On the other hand, unlike L2 learners, L3/L3+ learners find connecting TL to other FLs more meaningful than to NL because they have higher language awareness of their FLs than that of their NL. FL and TL are both learned, not automatically acquired and used like NL. This is in line with the multilingual model of Kirsner and their colleagues (Kirsner et al., 1993). Kirsner's model suggests that the links between similar languages with shared features such as typology, orthography and cognates are stronger than the links between different languages. What is more, the research (Goral et al., 2006) on similar non-native, FLs of multilinguals found very strong lexical connections and interlanguage activations between these languages, when compared to the

connections between FLs and NL of different typology. Another study in the Turkish context also supports this connection by indicating that L3 learners of French (TL) make use of English (FL) much more than Turkish (NL) as support for learning TL (Korkmaz, 2013).

## CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study indicated that L2 and L3 learners are quantitatively and qualitatively different. L2 learners are monolingual and prefer to learn TL by integration of TL and NL, or even by using TL only. On the other hand, L3 learners, who are multilingual, make use of three or more languages when learning TL, such as their NL, TL and third foreign languages. L3 learners' higher cross-linguistic awareness and motivation make them favor more multilingual TP when compared with their L2 counterparts. Hence, the primary purpose of TP is to initiate the activation of all languages that learners possess, promoting better connections between different languages in their mental lexicon. Additionally, TP aims to facilitate positive transfer and enhance the acquisition of the target language by actively involving students on emotional, cognitive, and social levels. However, teachers should take students' context differences into account when adopting TP. Depending on students' attitudes and language background, they should switch between bi- and multilingual TP.

The present study recommends that teacher educators raise and foster teachers' awareness of using TP in the classroom. Also, the study suggested some tips for teachers on how to adopt TP in accordance with L2 vs L3 contexts of language education (See Table 8 below):

**Table 8**

*Suggested Tips for Implementation of TP in L2 and L3/L3+ Learners Contexts*

TYPE OF LEARNER	MON PED	BIL TP	MUL TP	ISSUES OF TP
L2 LEARNERS	✓ TL only	✓ L1+ TL	✗ Depends on students' language background & attitude	*Distraction from TL, *Overuse of L1, *Confusion *Negative transfer,
L3/L3+ LEARNERS	✗	✓ Lingua franca + TL	✓ L1(s) + Lingua franca(s) + TL	*Low risk of distraction from TL

To sum up, Table 8 above summarizes the tips and suggestions for pedagogical implications of TP in two contexts: (1) L2 learners, and (2) L3/L3+ learners. In the context of monolingual L2 learners, although mono- and bilingual pedagogies are often advocated, the adoption of multilingual pedagogies warrants careful reconsideration due to a variety of potential issues. In the L3 learner context of multilingual students, bi-/and multilingual pedagogies are highly suggested due to the small risk of negative effects.

The present study has several limitations such as a lack of in-class observations, in-class recordings, true experimental design and think-aloud techniques. Qualitative data from students to be compared with the teacher was also missing. It is suggested that more TP research be conducted in various settings using various designs and instruments. For instance, it is advised to compare TP in L2 vs. L3 classrooms using a real experimental design using the same TL. Additionally, consideration needs to be given to TP's reflection in the evaluation and instruction of language proficiency. Furthermore, language analysis of instructors' and students' recorded

multilingual speech in TP classrooms (Wei & Moyer, 2008) is needed for further understanding of translanguaging as a pedagogy and practice.

## REFERENCES

- Aronin, L., & Ó Laoire, M. (2003). Multilingual students' awareness of their language teacher's other languages. *Language Awareness, 12*(3–4), 204–219.
- Bagnoli, A. (2009). Beyond the standard interview: The use of graphic elicitation and arts-based methods. *Qualitative Research, 9*(5), 547–570.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794109343625>
- Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th ed.). Multilingual Matters.
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal, 95*(3), 401–417.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01207.x>
- Cenoz, J. (2013). The influence of bilingualism on third language acquisition: Focus on multilingualism. *Language Teaching, 46*(1), 71–86.  
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444811000218>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2011). Focus on multilingualism: A study of trilingual writing. *The Modern Language Journal, 95*(3), 356–369. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01206.x>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2020). Teaching English through pedagogical translanguaging. *World Englishes, 39*(2), 300–311. <https://doi.org/10.1111/weng.12462>
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research methods in education* (5th ed.). Routledge Falmer.
- Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment – Companion volume*. Council of Europe Publishing.  
<https://www.coe.int/lang-cefr>
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The Modern Language Journal, 94*(1), 103–115.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x>
- De Angelis, G. (2007). *Third or additional language acquisition* (Vol. 24). Multilingual Matters.
- DeCuir-Gunby, J. T., Marshall, P. L., & McCulloch, A. W. (2011). Developing and using a codebook for the analysis of interview data: An example from a professional development research project. *Field Methods, 23*(2), 136–155.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X10388468>
- Deroo, M. R., & Ponzio, C. (2019). Confronting ideologies: A discourse analysis of in-service teachers' translanguaging stance through an ecological lens. *Bilingual Research Journal, 42*(2), 214–231. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2019.1589604>
- Dmitrenko, V. (2017). Language learning strategies of multilingual adults learning additional languages. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 14*(1), 6–22.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2017.1258978>

- Dörnyei, Z., & Taguchi, T. (2010). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- Ellis, N. C. (2008). Words and their usage: Commentary on the special issue on the bilingual mental lexicon. *The Mental Lexicon*, 3(3), 375–385.
- Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2009). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (7th ed.). McGraw-Hill Education.
- García, O., & Kano, N. (2014). Translanguaging as process and pedagogy: Developing the English writing of Japanese students in the US. In J. Conteh & G. Meier (Eds.), *The multilingual turn in languages education: Opportunities and challenges* (pp. 258–277). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783092246>
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Palgrave Macmillan UK. <https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137385765>
- Gibson, M., & Hufeisen, B. (2003). Investigating the role of prior foreign language knowledge: Translating from an unknown into a known foreign language. In J. Cenoz, B. Hufeisen, & U. Jessner (Eds.), *The multilingual lexicon* (pp. 87–102). Springer.
- González-Davies, M. (2017). The use of translation in an integrated plurilingual approach to language learning: Teacher strategies and best practices. *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching*, 4(2), 124–135. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23247797.2017.1407168>
- Goral, M. (2002). *Lexical access and language proficiency of trilingual speakers*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). City University of New York.
- Goral, M., Levy, E. S., Obler, L. K., & Cohen, E. (2006). Cross-language lexical connections in the mental lexicon: Evidence from a case of trilingual aphasia. *Brain and Language*, 98(2), 235–247. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandl.2006.05.004>
- Gorter, D., & Cenoz, J. (2017). Language education policy and multilingual assessment. *Language and Education*, 31(3), 231–248. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2016.1261892>
- Greasley, P. (2007). *Quantitative data analysis using SPSS: An introduction for health & social science*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Grosjean, F. (2008). *Studying bilinguals*. Oxford University Press.
- Herdina, P., & Jessner, U. (2002). *A dynamic model of multilingualism: Perspectives of change in psycholinguistics* (Vol. 121). Multilingual Matters.
- Hufeisen, B. (2004). A brief introduction to the linguistic foundations. In B. Hufeisen & G. Neuner (Eds.), *The plurilingualism project: Tertiary language learning: German after English* (pp. 7–11). Council of Europe.
- Hufeisen, B., & Neuner, G. (2004). *The plurilingualism project: Tertiary language learning: German after English*. Council of Europe.
- Inci-Kavak, V., & Kırkgöz, Y. (2022). Attitudes towards translanguaging practices: A comparative study of literature and food engineering classes. *Sustainable Multilingualism*, 21(1), 105–142. <https://doi.org/10.2478/sm-2022-0015>
- Kemp, C. (2001). *Metalinguistic awareness in multilinguals: Implicit and explicit grammatical awareness and its relationship with language experience and language attainment* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Edinburgh.

- Kirsner, K., Lalor, E., & Hird, K. (1993). The bilingual lexicon: Exercise, meaning and morphology. In R. Schreuder & B. Weltens (Eds.), *The bilingual lexicon* (pp. 215–248). John Benjamins.
- Kırkgöz, Y., Inci-Kavak, V., Karakaş, A., & Panero, S. M. (2023). Translanguaging practices in Turkish EMI classrooms: Commonalities and differences across two academic disciplines. *System, 113*, 102982. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2023.102982>
- Korkmaz, Ş. Ç. (2013). Third language learning strategies of ELT learners studying either German or French. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 28*(28–1), 92–104.
- Kroll, J. F., & Stewart, E. (1994). Category interference in translation and picture naming: Evidence for asymmetric connections between bilingual memory representations. *Journal of Memory and Language, 33*(2), 149–174. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jmla.1994.1008>
- Kroll, J. F., & Tokowicz, N. (2005). Models of bilingual representation and processing: Looking back and to the future. In J. F. Kroll & A. M. B. De Groot (Eds.), *Handbook of bilingualism: Psycholinguistic approaches* (pp. 531–553). Oxford University Press.
- Landis, J. R., & Koch, G. G. (1977). The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics, 33*(1), 159–174. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2529310>
- Lemhöfer, K., Dijkstra, T., & Michel, M. (2004). Three languages, one ECHO: Cognate effects in trilingual word recognition. *Language and Cognitive Processes, 19*(5), 585–611. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01690960444000007>
- Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 18*(7), 641–654. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718488>
- Liu, Y., & Fang, F. (2020). Translanguaging theory and practice: How stakeholders perceive translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *RELC Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688220939222>
- Lyster, R., Quiroga, J., & Ballinger, S. (2013). The effects of biliteracy instruction on morphological awareness. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education, 1*(2), 169–197. <https://doi.org/10.1075/jicb.1.2.02lys>
- MacWhinney, B. (2000). *The CHILDES project: Tools for analyzing talk. transcription format and programs* (Vol. 3). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Makalela, L. (2018a). Moving out of linguistic boxes: The effects of translanguaging strategies for multilingual classrooms. In C. Kerfoot, & A. M. Simon-Vandenberg (Eds.), *Language in epistemic access* (pp. 24–41). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315229744>
- Makalela, L. (2018b). Teaching African languages the ubuntu way: The effects of translanguaging among pre-service teachers in South Africa. In P. V. Avermaet, S. Slembrouck, K.V. Gorp, S. Sierens, & K. Maryns (Eds.), *The Multilingual Edge of Education*. (pp. 261–282). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2012). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (Vol. 41). Sage publications.
- Neuner, G. (2004). The concept of plurilingualism and tertiary language didactics. In B. Hufeisen & G. Neuner (Eds.), *The plurilingualism project: Tertiary language learning: German after English* (pp. 13–34). Council of Europe.

- Phyak, P. (2018). Translanguaging as a pedagogical resource in English language teaching: A response to unplanned language education policies in Nepal. In K. Kuchah & F. Shamim (Eds.), *International perspectives on teaching English in difficult circumstances* (pp. 49–70). Palgrave Macmillan. [https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-53104-9\\_3](https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-53104-9_3)
- Pujol-Ferran, M., DiSanto, J. M., Rodríguez, N. N., & Morales, A. (2016). Exploring plurilingual pedagogies across the college curriculum. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 72(4), 530–549. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.3306>
- Razali, N. M., Shamsudin, N. R., Maarof, N. N. N. A., & Ismail, A. (2012). A comparison of normality tests using SPSS, SAS and MINITAB: An application to health-related quality of life data. *2012 International Conference on Statistics in Science, Business and Engineering (ICSSBE)*, Langkawi, Malaysia. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICSSBE.2012.6396570>
- Rivera, A. J., & Mazak, C. M. (2017). Analyzing student perceptions on translanguaging: A case study of a Puerto Rican university classroom. *How*, 24(1), 122–138.
- Rosiers, K., Van Lancker, I., & Delarue, S. (2018). Beyond the traditional scope of translanguaging: Comparing translanguaging practices in Belgian multilingual and monolingual classroom contexts. *Language & Communication*, 61, 15–28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langcom.2017.11.003>
- Saldaña, J. (2021). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. (4th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Sánchez, L. (2015). L2 activation and blending in third language acquisition: Evidence of crosslinguistic influence from the L2 in a longitudinal study on the acquisition of L3 English. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 18(2), 252–269. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1366728914000091>
- Turnbull, B. (2018). Is there a potential for a translanguaging approach to English education in Japan? Perspectives of tertiary learners and teachers. *JALT Journal*, 40(2), 101. <https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ40.2-3>
- Urdan, T. C. (2005). *Statistics in plain English* (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Viera, A. J., & Garrett, J. M. (2005). Understanding interobserver agreement: The kappa statistic. *Fam Med*, 37(5), 360–363.
- Wang, D. (2019). *Multilingualism and translanguaging in Chinese language classrooms*. Springer International Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-02529-8>
- Wei, L., & Moyer, M. G. (Eds.). (2008). *The Blackwell guide to research methods in bilingualism and multilingualism*. Blackwell Pub.
- Williams, C. (1996). Secondary education: Teaching in the bilingual situation. *The Language Policy: Taking Stock*, 12(2), 193–211.
- Yuvayapan, F. (2019). Translanguaging in EFL classrooms: Teachers' perceptions and practices. *Dil ve Dilbilimi Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 15(2), 678–694. <https://doi.org/10.17263/jlls.586811>
- Yüzlü, M. Y., & Dikilitaş, K. (2022). Translanguaging as a way to fostering EFL learners' criticality in a hybrid course design. *System*, 110, 102926. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2022.102926>

## Appendixes

### Appendix A

The questionnaire attitude items:

English version:

<b>B.</b>	<b>Please, give your <u>personal opinion</u> and your answers sincerely about your teacher's teaching practices in class.</b>	<b><i>1 – No. I do not agree at all!</i></b>
	<b>Please, <u>circle the number</u> that expresses your view from 1 – 4 for each item.</b>	<b><i>4 – Yes. I agree completely!</i></b>
<b>1.</b>	In class, <i>I like it when</i> my teacher <u>uses sentence translation activities</u> .	<i>1 2 3 4</i>
In class, <i>I like it when</i> My teacher <u>compares and uses similarities and differences between...</u>		
<b>2.</b>	... Turkish and English.	<i>1 2 3 4</i>
<b>3.</b>	... Turkish, English and other foreign languages (e.g., French, Spanish, Arabic...).	<i>1 2 3 4</i>
In class, <i>I like it when</i> My teacher <u>speaks...</u>		
<b>4.</b>	... only English	<i>1 2 3 4</i>
<b>5.</b>	... Turkish + English.	<i>1 2 3 4</i>
<b>6.</b>	... Turkish + English + other foreign languages (e.g., French, Spanish, Arabic...).	<i>1 2 3 4</i>
In class, <i>I like it when</i> My teacher <u>let us ask/answer questions in...</u>		
<b>7.</b>	... Turkish + English.	<i>1 2 3 4</i>
<b>8.</b>	... Turkish + English + other foreign languages (e.g., French, Spanish, Arabic...).	<i>1 2 3 4</i>
In class, <i>I like it when</i> My teacher <u>compares Turkish culture with...</u>		
<b>9.</b>	...English/American culture.	<i>1 2 3 4</i>
<b>10.</b>	...those from around the world.	<i>1 2 3 4</i>

Turkish version

	<b>Ders uygulamaları hakkında lütfen kişisel ve samimi görüşlerinizi belirtiniz.</b>	
	<b>Bölüm B. Hocalarım aşağıdaki aktiviteleri sınıfta <u>kullanmasını isterim:</u></b> <b>Lütfen görüşünüzü ifade eden <u>sayıyı her madde için 1-4 arasında daire içine alın.</u></b>	<b>1- Hayır. Hiç katılmıyorum!</b> <b>4- Evet. Tamamen katılıyorum!</b>
1.	Öğretmenimin <u>cümle çevirisi içeren alıştırmalar kullanmasını</u> isterim.	1 2 3 4
Öğretmenimin..... <u>karşılaştırıp arasındaki benzerlik ve farklılıkları kullanmasını</u> isterim.		
2.	...İngilizce ile Türkçeyi	1 2 3 4
3.	...İngilizce, Türkçe ve diğer bildiğim yabancı dilleri (ör. Fransızca, İspanyolca, Arapça...)	1 2 3 4
Öğretmenimin ders anlatırken ..... <u>konusmasını</u> isterim.		
4.	...sadece İngilizce	1 2 3 4
5.	...İngilizce + Türkçe	1 2 3 4
6.	...İngilizce + Türkçe + diğer yabancı dilleri diğer bildiğim yabancı dilleri (ör. Fransızca, İspanyolca, Arapça...)	1 2 3 4
Öğretmenimin ..... <u>soru sormamıza / cevaplamamıza izin vermesini</u> isterim.		
7.	...İngilizce + Türkçe	1 2 3 4
8.	...İngilizce + Türkçe + diğer bildiğim yabancı dilleri (ör. Fransızca, İspanyolca, Arapça...)	1 2 3 4
Öğretmenimin <u>Türk kültürünü</u> ..... <u>ile karşılaştırmasını</u> isterim.		
9.	...İngiliz / Amerikan kültürü	1 2 3 4
10.	...Dünya kültürü	1 2 3 4

## GENİŞLETİLMİŞ ÖZ

### Giriş

Yabancı dil öğretimine tek dilli bakış açısı, öğrencilerin dil geçmişini dikkate almaz, tek dilli ve çok dilli öğrenciler arasındaki öğrenme ihtiyaçları arasında ayırım yapmaz. Ancak çok dilli bakış açısı, bu görüşe karşı çıkmakta ve tek dilli ve çok dilli öğrencilerin yabancı dilleri farklı yollarla öğrendiklerini iddia etmektedir. Bu karma yöntemli çalışma, ikinci dil, üçüncü dil ve üçüncü dilden fazla öğrenen öğrencilerinin Dillerarası geçiş pedagojilerine (DGP) yönelik tutumlarını araştırmayı ve karşılaştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. DGP, çeviri, dillerin karşılaştırılması ve birden çok dil ve kültür arasında geçiş gibi diller arası öğretim stratejilerini ifade etmektedir.

### Araştırma Soruları

Çalışmaların araştırma soruları aşağıda belirtilmiştir.

1. İkinci dil öğrenen, üçüncü dil öğrenen ve üçüncü dilden fazla öğrenen öğrencileri arasında DGP'ye karşı tutumlarında anlamlı bir fark var mı?

2. İkinci dil öğrenen, üçüncü dil öğrenen ve üçüncü dilden fazla öğrenen öğrencileri arasında DGP'ye yönelik tutumlar hangi yönlerden farklılık göstermektedir?

## **Yöntem**

Bu karma yöntemli çalışma, ikinci dil, üçüncü dil ve üçüncü dilden fazla öğrenen öğrencilerinin DGP'ye (Dillerarası geçiş pedagojileri) yönelik tutumlarını hem nicel hem de nitel açıdan araştırmayı ve karşılaştırmayı amaçlamaktadır.

## **Çalışma Grubu**

Katılımcılar/öğrenciler (N=157) uygun örnekleme yoluyla seçilmiştir ve bir Türk Üniversitesinde Yabancı dil (YD) olarak İngilizce (N=92) veya Rusça (N=13) veya İkinci dil (İD) olarak Türkçe (N=52) öğrenmektedir.

## **Veri Toplama Araçları ve Prosedürü**

Nicel veriler araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen bir anketten toplanmış ve Kruskal-Wallis H testi ile analiz edilmiştir. Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler ve görsellerden toplanan nitel veriler, CLAN (Bilgisayarlı Dil Analizi) Programı kullanılarak içerik ve görsel analiz yoluyla çözümlenmiştir.

Nicel veriler bir anket çalışmasından toplanmıştır (Wei ve Moyer, 2008). Nitel veriler bir görüşme yoluyla toplanmıştır (Maxwell, 2012; Wei ve Moyer, 2008) ve görsel görevler (Bagnoli, 2009). Anket ve görüşmeler araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilmiş ve Garcia ve Wei (2014) ve (Avrupa Konseyi, 2020) tarafından önerilen diller arası dil çevirisi stratejileri üzerine inşa edilmiştir. Diller arası öğretim stratejileri şunları içerir:

- 1) Çeviri
- 2) İki veya üç ve daha fazla dilin karşılaştırılması
- 3) İki veya üç ve daha fazla dil arasında geçiş / kod değiştirme
- 4) Kültürlerin karşılaştırılması.

Anket iki bölümden oluşmaktadır. 1. Bölüm öğrenciler ile ilgi bilgileri ortaya çıkarırken, 2. Bölüm öğrencilerin yukarıda listelenen diller arası stratejilere yönelik tutumlarını bildirmelerini gerektiriyor.

Mülakat soruları, ankette yer alan maddelerin 'Nasıl/Neden' şeklindedir. Görsel görevi, öğrencilerin dil farkındalıkları ve DGP algıları hakkında sözel olmayan veriler ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamıştır. Bu yöntem, diyagramlar ve semboller çizerek katılımcılardan görsel, sözel olmayan ve duygusal veriler elde etmek için kullanılır. Grafik ortaya çıkarma, katılımcıların kimlikleri, deneyimleri ve algıları hakkında bütünsel veriler elde etmek için etkilidir. İnsanları rahat hissettirdiği için, grafik ortaya çıkarma, kelimelerle ifade edilmesi zor olabilecek hassas ve bilinçaltı bakış açılarını uyandırır (Bagnoli, 2009). Görüşmenin ve görsel görevin amacı, anket verileri hakkında nitel bir fikir vermektir.

Veri toplama prosedürleri karma yöntemli izlemiş ve iki oturumdan oluşmuştur.

- (1) Anket oturumu,
- (2) Röportaj ve görseller oturumu.

## **Veri analizi**

Anket verilerinin dağılımı için Kolmogorov-Smirnov ve Shapiro-Wilk olmak üzere iki normallik testi yapılmıştır (Greasley, 2007; Razali ve ark., 2012). Elde edilen bulgular verilerin normal dağılım göstermediğini ortaya koymuştur ( $p < .05$ ), bu nedenle nicel veri analizi için parametrik olmayan testler (Kruskal-Wallis testleri) kullanılmıştır (Urdan, 2005).

Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler ve görsel görevlerinden toplanan nitel veriler, CLAN (Computerized Language ANalysis) Programı kullanılarak içerik ve görsel analiz yoluyla analiz edilmiştir.

### **Bulgular**

Elde edilen bulgular, DGP 'ye yönelik tutumları açısından üçüncü dil ve üçüncü dilden fazla öğrenenler arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını, ancak ikinci ve üçüncü dil öğrenenlerin nicel ve nitel olarak farklı olduğunu göstermiştir. İstatistiksel olarak, ikinci dil öğrenen öğrencileri, sınıfta üç ve daha fazla dili tercih eden üçüncü dil öğrenen öğrencilerine göre bir ve iki dilin dahil edilmesini önemli ölçüde daha fazla tercih etmektedir.

Nitel bulgular, ikinci dil öğrenenlerin sadece Hedef Diller (HD) veya Ana Diller (AD) ve hedef dilin bir birleşimini tercih ettiklerini ortaya koymuştur. Üçüncü dillerin dahil edilmesi, kafa karışıklığı ve hedef dilden dikkatin dağılması nedeniyle tercih edilmemiştir. Bununla birlikte, üçüncü dil öğrenen öğrenciler sınıfta üç veya daha fazla dili faydalı bulmaktadır çünkü daha iyi öğrenirler, diller arasındaki bağlantıları daha hızlı bulabilirler ve böylece hedef dilin zorluklarını aşabilirler.

İkinci dil öğrenen öğrenciler, çeşitli nedenlerle Hedef Diller-Ana Diller birleşimini tercih ettiklerini açıklamışlardır. Birincisi, soyut kavramları, dilbilgisini, kelime dağarcığını ve benzer kelimeleri bu şekilde daha iyi anlarlar, çünkü ana dillerinde mantık ve eşdeğerlerini ararlar. Ayrıca, böylece hedef dilli konuşanların farklı zihniyetini anlarlar. Onlar için ana dil, hedef dili için bir ön aşama, bağlantıdır. Ancak, İkinci dil öğrenen öğrencileri hedef dili dışındaki diğer yabancı dillerin entegrasyonuna açık değildir. Bu dillerin hedef diline benzemesi ve öğrencilerin bunları anlamak için yeterliliğe sahip olmaması nedeniyle kafa karışıklığına neden olabilir. Ayrıca faydalı değildirler ve hedef dilinden dikkatin dağılmasına neden olabilirler. Çok dil bilen sınıf arkadaşlarının sorularını kaçırabilir ve anlayamayabilirler ve bu, herkesin anlaması için aynı soru ve cevapların farklı dillerde gereksiz yere tekrarlanmasına neden olabilir. Bazı İkinci dil öğrenen öğrencileri, tek dilli pedagojileri bile tercih eder ve sınavlarına yardımcı olması için kelime dağarcığının açıklanmasını veya eş anlamlılarının yalnızca hedef dili cinsinden verilmesini ister.

Öte yandan, üçüncü dil öğrenen ve üçüncü dilden fazla öğrenen öğrencileri, kelimelerin anlamlarını pekiştirmek ve daha iyi ve daha kolay öğrenmek için üç veya daha fazla dilin entegrasyonunu eğlenceli ve yararlı bulmaktadır. Dahası, ikinci dil öğrenen öğrencilerinden farklı olarak, üçüncü dil öğrenen ve üçüncü dilden fazla öğrenen öğrencileri, hedef dilin diğer yabancı dillerle karşılaştırılmasını ana dilden daha anlamlı bulmaktadır, çünkü dilleri hakkında ana dilinden daha yüksek dil farkındalıklarına sahiptirler. Yabancı ve hedef dilin her ikisi de öğrenilir, ana dili gibi otomatik olarak edinilmez ve kullanılmaz. Çok dilli öğrenciler de öğretmenin kod değiştirmesinin çok faydalı olduğunu, çünkü konuşulan dillerden biri hedef dili ile eşleştiğinde öğrencilerin hedef dilinde daha iyi anladığını ve zorlukların üstesinden geldiğini bildirmiştir. Ayrıca bu, dil repertuarlarını harekete geçirir ve bu diller arasında daha hızlı ve daha kolay bağlantılar bulabilirler.

### **Sonuç**

Bu çalışmanın bulguları, tek dilli ve çok dilli öğrenenlerin nicel ve nitel olarak farklı olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu nedenle, DGP 'nin işlevi, öğrencilerin repertuarındaki tüm dilleri harekete geçirmek, öğrencilerin zihinsel sözlüklerinde daha güçlü diller arası bağlantılar kurmak, olumlu aktarımı teşvik etmek ve öğrencileri duygusal, bilişsel ve sosyal olarak meşgul ederek hedef dili öğrenimine katkıda bulunmaktır. Bununla birlikte, öğretmenler DGP 'yi benimserken öğrencilerin bağlam farklılıklarını dikkate almalıdır. Öğrencilerin tutumlarına ve dil geçmişlerine bağlı olarak iki ve çok dilli DGP arasında geçiş yapılmalıdır. Tek dilli öğrenenler bağlamında, DGP sorunlarının bir listesiyle birlikte tek ve iki dilli pedagojiler önerilir. Çok dilli

öğrenenler bağlamında, olumsuz etki riskinin küçük olması nedeniyle iki/ve çok dilli pedagojiler önemle tavsiye edilmektedir.