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### Author

Özkaynak, Onur

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# Translanguaging in Applied Linguistics: A Comprehensive Systematic Review

ONUR ÖZKAYNAK

*The Ohio State University*

E-mail: [ozkaynak.2@osu.edu](mailto:ozkaynak.2@osu.edu)

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This article presents a comprehensive and systematic review of empirical studies on translanguaging in the field of applied linguistics, covering the period between 2008 and 2022. The review focuses on the characteristics of the studies, including the contexts and educational stages in which they were conducted, and the linguistic diversity of the participants. The review also examines the research methodologies and conceptual frameworks utilized by the studies. The major findings of the review reveal that translanguaging practices were employed for educational, social, and sociopolitical purposes. The article concludes with a critical discussion of the findings, recommendations for future research, and limitations of the review.

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## INTRODUCTION

The term translanguaging has gained significant attention in academic circles over the past few decades, especially in the fields of second language acquisition (SLA) and bilingual education. This interest is reflected in the number of hits for the term on the internet, which have increased from 300,000 in September 2017 (Jaspers, 2018) to nearly 816,000 in May 2022. Scholars have also produced a substantial body of empirical research on translanguaging (Canagarajah, 2011; Flores & García, 2013; Kiramba, 2017; Martin-Beltrán, 2014; Sayer, 2013; Velasco & García, 2014; Li Wei, 2011a). Given this popularity and the volume of empirical research, it is important to provide a comprehensive systematic review of translanguaging studies in the field of applied linguistics. Therefore, in this article, I will present a detailed review of these studies. I will begin by offering a brief background on the concept of translanguaging and its theoretical and pedagogical framework. Next, I will describe the methodology I used to identify and select the studies reviewed in this article. Subsequently, I will present a thematic analysis of the studies. Finally, I will offer suggestions for future research on translanguaging and acknowledge the limitations of this systematic review.

### Translanguaging

Translanguaging emerged from the bilingual education practices in Wales, where Cen Williams coined the term *trawsieithu* to describe a pedagogical approach of reading in one language and writing in another (Baker, 2001). Later, Colin Baker translated this Welsh term into English as *translanguaging*. Translanguaging as an approach gained scholarly interest after the publication of García's (2009a) *Bilingual Education in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century: A Global Perspective*, which highlighted the importance and potential of fluid languaging practices in education. Since then, scholars have proposed various definitions of translanguaging. Baker and Wright (2017) consider it a process of making meaning and gaining knowledge through the use of two languages, while Canagarajah (2011) views it as the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages and treat their repertoire as an integrated system. However, García and Li Wei (2014) take a

more dynamic and holistic view of bilingualism, regarding translanguaging as an act of languaging between systems that are beyond separate. They argue that translanguaging should not be seen as a combination of different language systems but rather as encapsulating the various discursive practices that bilinguals use to make sense of their worlds. This perspective emphasizes the movement across one's full communicative repertoire, encompassing not only linguistic resources but also a diverse array of semiotic means, including visual, gestural, and spatial forms of communication (Li Wei, 2011b). This aspect of translanguaging allows for the exploration of the multifaceted nature of communication, which becomes particularly evident in intricate multilingual settings (García & Li Wei, 2014).

The epistemological roots of this view can be traced back to Bakhtin's (1981) heteroglossia, which refers to the coexistence of diverse and varied voices, languages, and discourses within a single speech community or text. It emphasizes the dynamic and dialogic nature of language, where multiple voices and perspectives interact and influence each other (Bailey, 2007). Bakhtin's introduction of the concept of heteroglossia in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century presented a departure from the structuralist perspective on language advocated by Saussure, as well as the predominantly mentalist view put forth by Chomsky. Bakhtin's approach brought language back into the context of its practical application, challenging the notions of language as a purely abstract structure or a mental construct disconnected from real-world usage (García & Li Wei, 2014). In this respect, translanguaging and heteroglossia are connected through their shared emphasis on the dynamic and socially situated nature of language. Both concepts challenge traditional views of language as static and emphasize the role of context, interaction, and diverse linguistic resources in shaping communication.

## METHOD OF REVIEW

According to Norris and Ortega (2006), it is not uncommon “to engage in secondary research ... to review the available literature at important watershed points in the progress of a research domain” in the social sciences (p. 5). Secondary research informs us about the history, current state, and future directions of a particular research topic. However, conducting a review is not a task that can be accomplished without relying on a methodological framework. Thus, in this review, I followed the criteria outlined for synthesizing research systematically by Norris and Ortega (2006, 2007) and I benefitted extensively from Cooper (2015).

### Literature Search and Selection and Exclusion Criteria

It is essential to establish clear search and selection criteria for systematic reviews (Norris & Ortega, 2007). In line with this, for the present study, I opted to include only peer-reviewed empirical articles published in refereed journals from the first quarter of 1995 to the fourth quarter of 2022. I decided to initiate the search from 1995, as it is the year when Williams introduced the term translanguaging into applied linguistics research. However, my initial search revealed that the oldest article that included the term was the study conducted by Blackledge et al. in 2008. Hence, this study marked the beginning of translanguaging research in applied linguistics and was included in this review.

To conduct the search, I utilized four academic databases, including Education Full Text (Wilson), Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA), PsycINFO (APA), and ERIC (EBSCO). I started by using the keyword translanguaging, which yielded 896 references in the first step. As recommended by Cooper (2015), I evaluated the immediate relevance of

articles by reading their abstracts. Next, I scanned through the titles and abstracts of the articles, looking for other keywords related to the study, such as English as a second language, English as a foreign language, languaging, content-learning, translingual, codemeshing, language learning, bilingual, and bilingualism. I excluded articles that did not contain any of these keywords and focused only on empirical research studies.

Through this process, I identified 207 studies, which were further reduced by eliminating duplicates, articles not in English, and secondary research studies, leaving 144 studies for full-text screening. To categorize the studies thematically, I developed a coding guide based on the categories suggested by Cooper (2015). See the Appendix for the coding guide. I utilized a web-based note-taking application called Avidnote to categorize and tag all the studies systematically. I carefully read each article, taking notes and tagging each article for ease of access and categorization.

As I reviewed the articles, I attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the salient features of the studies on translanguaging within the field of applied linguistics?
2. What are the primary outcomes and discoveries of the research conducted on translanguaging in applied linguistics?

## RESULTS

After conducting a comprehensive analysis of the selected articles in the context of the aforementioned research questions, several key themes emerged, namely, *Contextual features*, *Research methodologies*, *Theoretical and conceptual frameworks*, and *Major findings*. I further subdivided each of these themes into a number of subthemes, which I will explain in detail below.

### Contextual Features of Translanguaging Studies

In this section, I employed a coding process to categorize the studies based on their contextual, linguistic, and educational characteristics. Firstly, I carefully tagged the papers based on the cities and countries in which the studies were conducted. Next, I collated the cities and countries into broader geographical regions to provide a comprehensive overview. Secondly, I documented the languages that were mentioned in the studies to identify the multilingual contexts in which the research was conducted. Finally, I listed the educational stages at which the studies were carried out to provide a clear understanding of the contexts in which translanguaging practices were observed.

#### *Regional Distribution of Translanguaging Studies*

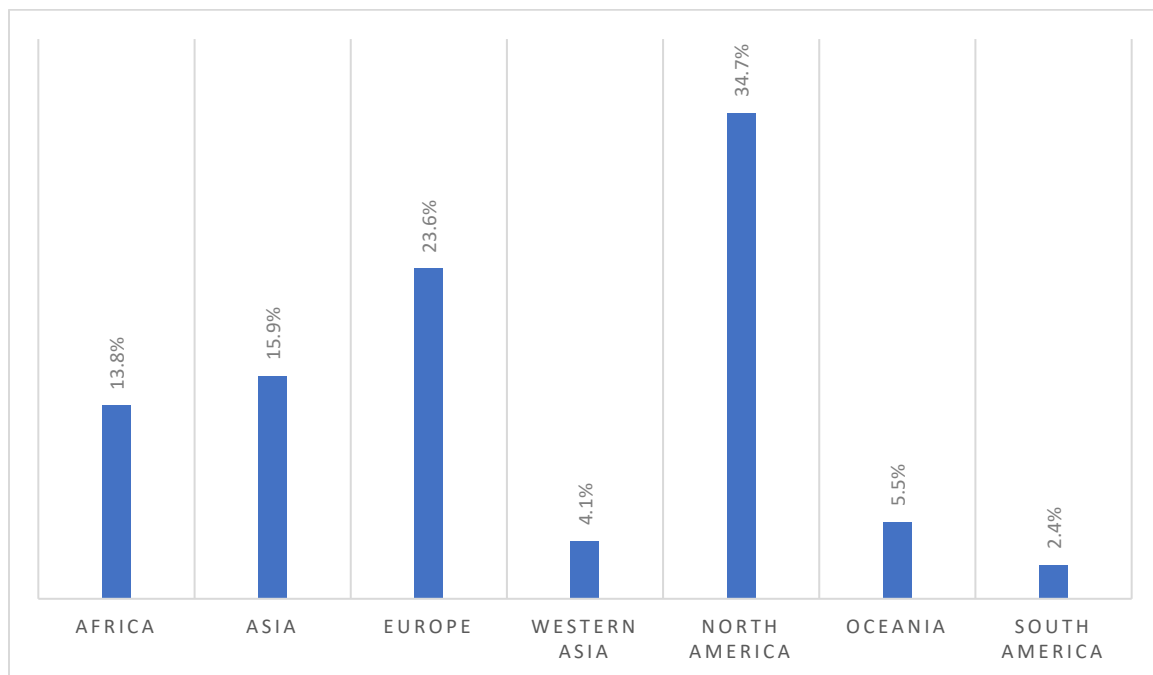
Coding the data for geographical settings revealed that translanguaging studies were conducted in 7 different geographical contexts. The percentages represented in this section are the overall distribution of the regions in the total number of 144 translanguaging studies. Figure 1 presents a summary of the regional distribution of the studies.

Out of 7 regions, North America, with 34.7% of the studies, came first. It is also important to mention that in addition to the USA and Canada, the studies conducted near the Mexico-USA border also fall under this category. The second geographical context on the list was Europe, comprising 23.6% of the studies. Translanguaging studies have also been on the rise in the Asian context (15.9%). China, being at the top of the list, has produced a remarkable

number of studies focusing on translanguaging. Apart from China, studies from Bangladesh and Japan came to the fore where English is taught as a foreign language. Additionally, countries such as India, Malaysia, Mongolia, and Pakistan have made varying contributions to the body of research on translanguaging. As a highly multilingual and multicultural context, Africa was 4<sup>th</sup> on the list (13.8%). In this region, South Africa was home to the highest number of studies comprising 70% of the 20 studies conducted. Most of these studies focus on the inclusion of learners' home languages in their learning process. The rest of the studies were from Kenya, Zimbabwe, Tanzania, and Zambia respectively. Although to a lesser degree, a respectable amount of translanguaging studies were also conducted in Oceania (5.5%), Western Asia (4.1%), and South America (2.4%). Australia and New Zealand make up all the studies from Oceania. In Western Asia, Iraq, Israel, and the United Arab Emirates share an equal number of studies (2 studies from each country). Lastly, Chile and Colombia were the countries where translanguaging studies in South America were carried out.

**Figure 1**

*Regional Distribution of the Studies*



### *Linguistic Diversity in Translanguaging Studies*

In terms of languages, the studies turned out to be expectedly diverse as well. In total, 71 languages were mentioned in the articles. In 106 of the studies, English was the language that participants were either learning or using as their home or native language. Apart from English, Spanish (44), Arabic (19), and Chinese (16) (7 Mandarin, 4 Cantonese, 5 unspecified) were among the dominant languages. Also, several visual languages such as Yucatec Mayan, American, Norwegian, and Swedish sign languages were mentioned in the studies. Table 1 represents the languages and their frequencies.

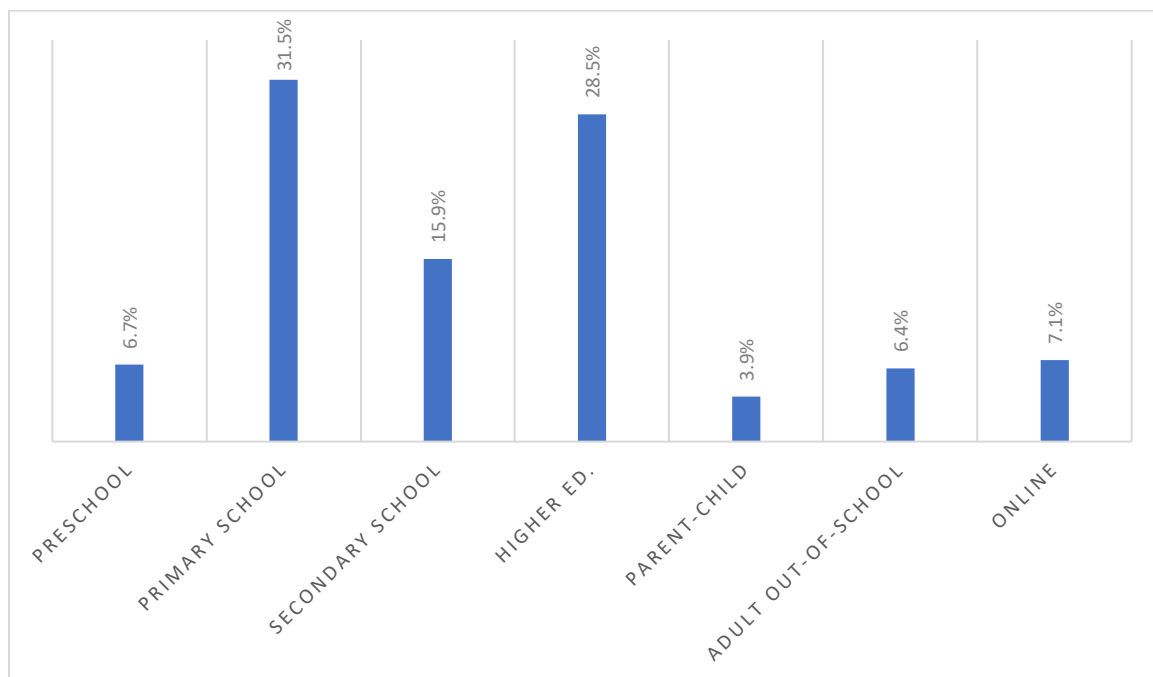
**Table 1***Languages and their Frequencies in Translanguaging Studies*

| Language            | Frequency | Language      | Frequency | Language      | Frequency |
|---------------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|
| Aboriginal English  | 2         | isiXhosa      | 5         | Samoan        | 1         |
| Afrikaans           | 1         | isiZulu       | 6         | Sepedi        | 5         |
| Albanian            | 1         | Italian       | 7         | Serbian       | 1         |
| Alsatian            | 1         | Japanese      | 5         | Sesotho       | 3         |
| Australian Kriol    | 1         | Meru          | 1         | Setswana      | 2         |
| Bemba               | 1         | Kiswahili     | 3         | siSwati       | 1         |
| Bengali             | 1         | Korean        | 7         | Tamil         | 1         |
| Bosnian             | 1         | Kurdish       | 2         | Swedish       | 2         |
| Bulgarian           | 1         | Latin         | 1         | Tagalog       | 1         |
| Cape Verdean Creole | 1         | Leboa         | 1         | Māori         | 1         |
| Catalan             | 1         | Luxembourgish | 2         | Tex-Mex       | 1         |
| Danish              | 1         | Maasai        | 1         | Thai          | 1         |
| Dari                | 1         | Malay         | 1         | Tonga         | 1         |
| Dutch               | 3         | Mongolian     | 2         | Tshivenda     | 2         |
| Farsi               | 3         | Nepali        | 1         | Turkish       | 4         |
| French              | 9         | Norwegian     | 2         | Urdu          | 1         |
| German              | 3         | Nyanja        | 1         | Vietnamese    | 3         |
| Greek               | 1         | Pashto        | 1         | Welsh         | 1         |
| Gujarati            | 1         | Hungarian     | 2         | Xitsonga      | 3         |
| Hebrew              | 1         | Polish        | 1         | Yucatec Mayan | 2         |
| Hindi               | 1         | Portuguese    | 3         |               |           |
| Hungarian           | 2         | Russian       | 5         |               |           |

### *Educational Stages*

Educational stages refer to the divisions of learning where the studies took place. Analyzing the coded data revealed that translanguaging studies were conducted at a wide variety of education stages (see Figure 2). These stages include early childhood education (6.7%) at preschools or kindergartens, primary education (31.5%) at primary or elementary schools, secondary education (15.9%) at secondary or high schools, and higher education (28.5%) at universities or colleges. Apart from these stages, some of the studies were conducted outside of the school context. To illustrate, 3.9% of the studies were parent-child studies that focused on translanguaging practices employed by both parents and children in various contexts such as museums (Kwon, 2022). Also, 6.4% of the studies were carried out with adult participants who attend meetings in public places (Brownlie, 2021) and live in remote communities (Oliver & Exell, 2020). These are categorized as adult out-of-school studies. Finally, the contexts of 7.1% of the studies were online platforms such as YouTube (Benson, 2015) or online chatrooms (Melo-Pfeifer & Araújo e Sá, 2018). Figure 2 shows the percentages of the educational stages where the studies were conducted.

**Figure 2**  
*Educational Stages*



### **Research Methodologies Employed in Translanguaging Studies**

Investigation of the methodology sections of translanguaging studies revealed that translanguaging studies adopted qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches to inquiry to varying degrees. In line with the methods they employed, the studies also engaged in various data collection and analysis techniques. Among the three approaches, however,

qualitative research methods were highly favored by researchers constituting 89.5 % of the studies. This is followed by mixed-methods (8.5%) and quantitative (2%) studies.

Among approaches to qualitative inquiry, ethnographies and case studies were the most popular ones in translanguaging studies. Additionally, some of the studies adopted interpretive approaches such as linguistic ethnography as a particular type of ethnography (Dryden et al., 2021). The quantitative studies, on the other hand, mostly utilized surveys and interventions that are used in quasi-experimental studies. To compare the outcomes of their interventions, they also used pre- and post-tests. The mixed-methods studies, in addition to their qualitative data, also collected quantitative data to corroborate their findings.

I coded the data regarding the data collection methods utilized in the studies. I found that almost every qualitative study relied on conventional qualitative data-gathering methods such as classroom observations, participant observations, field notes, semi-structured interviews, video recordings, and audio recordings. The researchers who conducted quantitative studies gathered data by using structured interviews and questionnaires that aimed to reveal the perceptions or attitudes of the participants toward translanguaging practices.

In order to analyze qualitative data, the researchers employed content, discourse, conversation, and thematic analyses. Although some of them explicitly indicated the qualitative data analysis programs they utilized such as NVivo and Dedoose, most studies did not mention the use of such programs. Some other studies (see Kim et al., 2021; Ramos & Sayer, 2017) employed grounded theory to analyze field notes and transcriptions from participant observations. The quantitative data in the studies were analyzed via statistical software packages such as SPSS. The analyses included frequency analysis of translanguaging practices (Schwartz & Asli, 2014) and mean differences between the scores of the participants (Mgijima & Makalela, 2016).

## **Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks Undergirding Translanguaging Studies**

Before we delve into focusing on the theoretical and conceptual aspects of the studies, it is important to provide operational definitions of these terms. It is true that in most studies, either one of these terms is used interchangeably to describe the overall structure of the study. However, Ravitch and Riggan (2017) note that they refer to two different things. To them, a theoretical framework, which is “a combination or aggregation of formal theories”, must be regarded as one of the components of the conceptual framework (p. 12). A conceptual framework, on the other hand, is “an argument about why the topic one wishes to study matters, and why the means proposed to study it are appropriate and rigorous” (p. 7). In this respect, a conceptual framework consists of three central constituents: personal interests, topical research, and a theoretical framework.

An investigation conducted in light of the above approach to theoretical and conceptual frameworks showed that nearly half of the studies (45.1%) made an explicit reference to a theoretical or conceptual framework that undergirded their study. Out of thirteen frameworks, Translanguaging Theory and Sociocultural Theory (SCT) were the most frequently adopted frameworks. For example, Sayer (2013) exemplifies how the translanguaging framework can be adopted to demonstrate how minority language speakers can utilize translanguaging as a means to decipher the meanings of complex lexical items and socialize into the classroom “as competent members of the group” (p. 70). Similarly, by taking up the translanguaging framework, Seltzer (2019) problematizes standard and native language



ideologies and creates spaces for students to expand their existing linguistic repertoires critically. Also, utilizing SCT, Martin-Beltrán et al. (2017), identify fluid discursive patterns manifesting through translanguaging in teacher-student interactions that foster the collective ZPD of learners.

The analysis also revealed that some scholars utilized frameworks that have commonalities with the translanguaging framework. These frameworks were Community Translanguaging (Kim et al., 2021), Holistic Bilingualism (García & Godina, 2017), Plurilingualism (Ortega, 2019), Sustainable Translanguaging (Seals & Olsen-Reeder, 2020), and Continua of Bilinguality (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2014). Other frameworks that the studies drew from are as follows: Funds of Knowledge (1), Genre (1), Intertextuality (1), Language Commodification (1) Language Legitimacy (1), Symbolic Competence (1), and Spatial Practices (1).

## Major Findings in Translanguaging Studies

The third theme that emerged from the data pertains to the findings in translanguaging studies, specifically focusing on how individuals utilize translanguaging practices. In other words, I coded the data in an attempt to understand for what reasons participants in the studies engaged in translanguaging. As a result, the following subthemes emerged: *Translanguaging as a pedagogical tool*, *Bilingual identity construction*, *Creating translanguaging spaces*, *Teacher and student perceptions*, and *Language maintenance and revitalization*. Below, I will expound upon these themes giving examples from certain studies for each theme.

### *Translanguaging as a Pedagogical Tool*

As a result of coding the major findings in translanguaging studies, it became evident that translanguaging practices were predominantly utilized as a means of teaching and learning. In the majority of the studies (57.4%), translanguaging practices were used to teach and learn languages. Also, in a good number of studies (24.1%), other school subjects such as mathematics and science were taught and learned in addition to languages. Teachers used translanguaging to scaffold their students' learning. Learners, on the other hand, engaged in translanguaging practices to make sense of what was being taught to them. To name a few studies that focused on learners' translanguaging for language learning, Bauer et al. (2017) explored two focal participants' writing development. Their study revealed that translanguaging allowed language buddies to mediate one another's learning and "negotiate their writing during their multilingual discussions" (p. 32). In another study conducted in Luxembourg, Kirsch (2018) found that preschool and primary school children translanguaged to communicate and construct knowledge while collaboratively producing oral texts. Students' translanguaging is documented in EFL contexts, too. Yuzlu and Dikilitas (2022) reported that students' translanguaging enabled them to develop both receptive and productive language skills. Their mixed-methods study revealed that pedagogical translanguaging can be more effective than the grammar-translation method and communicative language teaching.

In addition to improving the four language skills, translanguaging practices were found to significantly contribute to the development of learners' metalinguistic awareness. Leonet et al. (2017) observed that since students shuttled between multiple languages through translanguaging, they were able to make cross-linguistic comparisons which raised their metalinguistic consciousness. Similarly, Velasco and Fialais (2018) explored the use of cognates

in simultaneous biliteracy practices for multilingual children. The results indicated that translanguaging can support learners' metalinguistic understandings of two writing systems. Arteagoitia and Howard (2015) also focused on English and Spanish words that share morphological features. Their intervention-based study showed that translanguaging can help learners enhance their academic vocabulary and reading skills.

In certain studies, researchers examined how teachers utilized translanguaging practices for language instruction. Palmer et al. (2014), for instance, explored the instructional practices of two teachers in a dual-language classroom. They found that teachers' translanguaging enabled them to model dynamic bilingualism and position their students as emergent bilinguals. In another study, Pontier and Gort (2016) examined how two teachers worked together and simultaneously drew their own and each other's dynamic bilingualism to teach vocabulary and narrative genre. Martin-Beltrán et al. (2017) also revealed that teachers can use translanguaging as a mediational tool to meet their multilingual learners' needs.

Translanguaging practices were also frequently employed in classes that integrate content and language learning (CLIL) classes. In such classes, the content or subject matter is taught in the language that learners are supposed to acquire. Mazak and Herbas-Donoso (2014) observed and interviewed professors teaching science in Puerto Rico. They reported that the professors used translanguaging to create bilingual texts and talks to explain key scientific terms. Tsuchiya (2017) explored the translanguaging practices of multicultural students in an intercultural communication module. By shuttling between Japanese and English, the students were able to ask for linguistic assistance and clarification. In another study that took place in a CLIL biology class in Hong Kong, Lin and Lo's study (2017) revealed that both teachers and students employed translanguaging practices during the triadic dialogue patterns (Initiation-Response-Feedback) for the construction of knowledge.

### ***Bilingual Identity Construction***

A considerable number of studies (25.5%) mentioned the effect of translanguaging on individuals' bilingual/multilingual identity construction along with its uses for teaching and learning academic content and languages. In one such study focusing on the nonacademic purposes of translanguaging, Sayer (2013) indicated that translanguaging can act as an effective means of enacting an ethnolinguistic identity. He reported the use of Tex-Mex by children in conversations functioned as an identity performance. Canagarajah (2011) examined the narrative writing of a graduate student whom he called Buthaniah and showed how she was able to negotiate her bilingual identity through the use of translanguaging which manifested as using Arabic words and emoticons. In a way, translanguaging gave Buthaniah a voice through which she could represent her bilingual identity. In another study focusing on the identity construction of bilingual 5th-grade pupils, Poza (2018) explains how young children strategically deploy their entire linguistic repertoire to contest or reify stereotypes associated with Latinos, immigrants, and emergent bilinguals.

### ***Creating Translanguaging Spaces***

The third theme that emerged out of the data was creating translanguaging spaces, which was explored in 17.02% of the studies. These spaces were named translanguaging spaces (Li Wei, 2011a), safe spaces (Capstick & Ateek, 2021; Dryden et al., 2021), or third spaces (Flores & García, 2013; Martin-Beltrán, 2014) in the studies. They all refer to the alternative and hybrid

spaces that are created by and for translanguaging. Therefore, studies that focus on such spaces were grouped under the same theme. The most lucid example of these spaces is seen in Li Wei's study where he observed three Chinese youths in Britain navigating in a society where monolingual ideologies predominate through translanguaging. The youths create social spaces, what Li Wei calls translanguaging space, with the creative and critical use of the full range of their sociocultural resources. In such spaces, the participants were able to engage in multilingual practices that foster the exchange of personal and cultural viewpoints freely (Dutton & Rushton, 2021). Additionally, translanguaging spaces provided safe refuge to displaced English language learners in war-torn regions. To illustrate, Capstick and Ateek (2021) state that translanguaging spaces created by the embodied linguistic repertoires of the displaced learners could have positive psycho-social effects on learners. They investigated the translanguaging practices of NGO coaches in their English classes where they created safe spaces for their refugee students. In another study, Martin-Beltrán (2014) provides a reconceptualization of *third space* that “generates a space for collective development and expanded learning” by bridging discourses and navigating the boundaries of languages (p. 210). In this space, the students engaged in translanguaging practices to invite one another to co-construct knowledge and co-construct meaning.

### ***Teacher and Student Perceptions***

The perception studies explored the attitudes of both students and teachers toward translanguaging practices (14.1%). While most studies revealed a positive frame of mind about translanguaging, some of them also mentioned the challenges pertaining to translanguaging practices as well as a neutral attitude toward them. To illustrate, Galante (2020) examined the implementation of translanguaging in an English language program at a university in Canada. She collected qualitative data from teachers and students regarding their attitudes toward translanguaging. Results revealed that despite their willingness to allow for pedagogical translanguaging, teachers expressed their concerns about their lack of familiarity with translanguaging. In another comprehensive study, Ticheloven et al., (2019) interviewed three different stakeholders, language education researchers, teachers, and multilingual learners to elicit practical and pedagogical issues of translanguaging. Some of these issues included the ‘awkwardness’ that translanguaging may cause for students who do not understand the language(s) spoken by the students who engage in translanguaging. Another concern was about learning the medium of instruction. In this regard, the teachers who participated in the study stated they were unsure about how they could strike a balance between translanguaging and the medium of instruction. Some studies focused on prospective teachers. Pontier (2022) investigated teacher candidates’ beliefs about bilingualism and bilingual education drawing on translanguaging. The results showed that despite their courses on dynamic bilingualism, most teacher candidates preserved their assumptions and beliefs about monolingualism. In the South African context, Makalela (2015) also studied teacher candidates’ perceptions of translanguaging practices. The results of his qualitative study revealed that South African teacher candidates were convinced that translanguaging may enhance metalinguistic awareness, break language and cultural enclaves, and increase multilingual self-efficacy.

### ***Language Maintenance and Revitalization***

The last theme that emerged from the data was language maintenance and revitalization. Although they make up a fraction of the data, I decided to include the studies that focus on the maintenance and/or revitalization of minoritized languages due to the recent discussions about the role of translanguaging in language policy (see MacSwan, 2020; Nicholas & McCarty, 2022). In one such study, Leonet et al. (2017) investigated the role of translanguaging in maintaining and developing Basque. They found that translanguaging allowed for spaces to use the Basque language, which rendered it at the same level as English and Spanish. In the Welsh context, where translanguaging first emerged as a pedagogical strategy, Jones (2017) provides instances of Welsh-English translanguaging occurring in Welsh bilingual classrooms. Jones claims that translanguaging can and indeed does create and protect a space for the minoritized language where dominant and minoritized language can interact with one another. The final study conducted under this theme is from the New Zealand context where Seals and Olsen-Reeder (2020) show how spontaneous translanguaging practices can contribute to the creation of translanguaging materials that can be used to support language revitalization and maintenance efforts for the Samoan and Māori languages.

## DISCUSSION

### Contextual and Linguistic Characteristics

Data analysis in light of the research questions revealed that translanguaging has transcended the borders where it was first used and popularized. Translanguaging studies have been conducted in diverse linguistic settings around the world, demonstrating its global reach. Today, “two-thirds of the world’s population is bilingual” (Baker & Wright, 2017, p. 10). This is a significantly higher figure than Grosjean’s (1989) estimate from over three decades ago. Given that translanguaging is a norm in bilingual communities (García, 2009b), it is not surprising to find abundant contextual and linguistic diversity in translanguaging studies. Besides, the recent multilingual turn in second language acquisition that criticizes the monolingual assumptions upheld by nation-states has opened a new study area. In connection with this, studies that value and recognize the importance of fluid linguistic practices of individuals have gained momentum all around the world. Thus, it is not surprising that a concept advocating for equity and opportunity for bilingual individuals attracts a great deal of scholarly attention.

Focusing on regions particularly showed that North America is home to the majority of the studies. This result is not surprising because translanguaging has been one of the most popular research trends in the region since it was popularized by García in 2009. Additionally, the region is home to great linguistic diversity in terms of the official and recognized languages of the countries located there. Translanguaging was also a popular research topic in Europe. Although some European countries are officially bi/multilingual, most continental Europe consists of unitary states that adopt state monolingualism. Nevertheless, initiatives taken by the European Union to promote plurilingualism in the Union seem to have contributed to the recognition of continental linguistic diversity (Council of Europe, 2001), paving the way for the increase in translanguaging studies. The high number of studies indicates the embracement of the linguistic diversity adopted under the name of plurilingualism and studied within the framework of translanguaging.

Nevertheless, despite the prevalence of translanguaging studies, South America, Western Asia, and Oceania were among the least represented contexts. One of the reasons for

this may be that translanguaging is still perceived merely as a language-teaching method in these contexts and the fact that language-teaching methods have been historically informed by monolingual assumptions (Howatt & Smith, 2014). Another reasonable explanation is that these regions are underrepresented in applied linguistics publications that are written in English (Canagarajah, 1996), making it likely that they are underrepresented proportionally in total applied linguistics empirical work.

Regarding the educational stages, it was found that the majority of the studies were conducted with young children (41.9%). An explanation of this rate could be attributed to several factors. First, early education functions as the basis of academic education where children gain basic literacy skills that they will utilize further throughout their lives (Bialystok, 2018). Second, in today's increasingly globalized world, more and more people are becoming aware of the value of bilingualism (de Houwer, 2019). Therefore, researchers might have been interested in focusing on the translanguaging practices of children regardless of their being simultaneous or sequential bilinguals.

Young adults and university students were also among the most studied groups. These age groups mostly came from CLIL classes (Lin and Lo, 2017; Tsuchiya, 2017) and English medium instruction (EMI) institutions (Tai & Li Wei, 2020). CLIL is an approach for learning a content area (e.g., history, science, mathematics) and an additional language (mostly English). EMI, on the other hand, emerged as a result of the increasing internationalization of the universities in which the first language of the greater population is not English. In this respect, although categorically they differ from each other, both CLIL classes and EMI institutions aim to 'kill two birds with one stone' by integrating content learning and language learning. The related studies in this review approach CLIL and EMI from a translanguaging perspective and explore translanguaging practices in such classes. By doing so, they open up new spaces for translanguaging in content and language learning (García & Li Wei, 2014). The studies show that learners or teachers use their native language(s) to scaffold learning languages and content.

## Methodological Characteristics

Characteristics of translanguaging studies regarding research paradigms revealed that most studies adopted qualitative inquiry methods to study translanguaging practices. Qualitative inquiry is a type of research that focuses on humans with the aim of observing and explaining interesting social phenomena they engage in (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Patton, 2015). Considering the highly social and linguistic nature of translanguaging, it is not surprising why a great majority of studies adopted qualitative research methods. Translanguaging is a socially occurring phenomenon and a norm in bilingual contexts (García, 2009a), thus it also needs to be explored through a socially based line of inquiry. The emancipatory nature of translanguaging is also a good fit for qualitative research which enables researchers "to empower individuals to share their stories, hear their voices, and minimize the power relationships" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 84). Translanguaging can act as a means of resistance to monolingual assumptions about education and it can give voice to the voiceless. Another explanation could be that qualitative research is one of the most suitable research methodologies to conduct research in a classroom setting (Fasse & Kolodner, 2000). Since most studies in the data set were conducted in classroom contexts, the researchers might have wanted to gain an in-depth understanding of the linguistic practices of participants through qualitative research.

In terms of the types of qualitative research, the data analysis indicated that most qualitative translanguaging studies were ethnographic case studies. According to Fraenkel et al., (2012), some topics lend themselves well to ethnographic research, as they can be best observed in the natural setting where they occur. Undoubtedly, translanguaging is one such topic. Additionally, the iterative, recursive, and abductive logic of ethnography urges the researcher to adopt an inductive approach with which they begin with as minimum assumptions as possible about what they are to explore (Agar, 2006). Investigating the dynamic linguistic behaviors of individuals necessitates a comparable approach to inquiry because the specific linguistic practices participants will employ at the study's outset are uncertain. Therefore, to discover these practices, the researchers observed their participants and took field notes. They sometimes relied on video and audio recordings and conducted semi-structured interviews with their participants, which are all a part of ethnographic research.

In this section, I believe that I should also briefly mention linguistic ethnography, which was explicitly stated in only one study (see Dryden et al., 2021). Although the majority of the studies did not adopt this method or did not conceptualize their research methodology based on linguistic ethnography, by definition and nature, what they were engaging in can be construed as linguistic ethnography. According to (Creese, 2010), "linguistic ethnography argues that ethnography can benefit from the analytical frameworks provided by linguistics, while linguistics can benefit from the processes of reflexive sensitivity required in ethnography" (p. 139). Taking this argument into account, along with the data collection and analysis techniques employed in ethnographic research and linguistics, it may be feasible to highlight the convergence of these paradigms in translanguaging studies, even though it is not explicitly stated in the studies.

## Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

Most translanguaging studies frequently interchanged the terms theoretical and conceptual framework. However, their treatment of the concept of a framework also indicated that they regarded it as the foundational structure underpinning their research. Out of various theoretical and conceptual frameworks, the translanguaging framework and SCT stood out as the most adopted ones. There are several explanations for why these frameworks are epistemologically consistent with translanguaging studies. According to Vogel and García (2017), the translanguaging theory is undergirded by three core premises:

1. It posits that individuals select and deploy features from a unitary linguistic repertoire in order to communicate.
2. It takes up a perspective on bi- and multilingualism that privileges speakers' own dynamic linguistic and semiotic practices above the named languages of nations and states.
3. It still recognizes the material effects of socially constructed named language categories and structuralist language ideologies, especially for minoritized language speakers.

Looking at these propositions, it is not unexpected for a great deal of studies to be based on the translanguaging framework. The translanguaging framework does not only capture the dynamic nature of the linguistic practices of individuals but also emphasizes the use of the entire linguistic repertoire of the person. It challenges the prevalent monolingual models of teaching and learning as well as the traditional understanding of bilingualism (i.e.,

two monolinguals in one person) and concepts such as “standard language.” By doing so it recognizes and embraces all the linguistic practices and identities of individuals and supports the understanding that they should be used to leverage learning.

As the second most frequently employed framework, SCT lays emphasis on social interaction for the development of cognition (Vygotsky, 1978). In line with this, translanguaging studies using a sociocultural lens focus on how learning occurs and how learners scaffold their and one another’s learning through translanguaging. In other words, these studies explore how individuals advance in their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) through collaborative dialogues and mediation through translanguaging. In line with the assumptions of SCT, translanguaging enables learners to further their learning by “stretching [their] pre-existing knowledge” (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 645). In this way, learners can build upon what they already know instead of constructing knowledge from scratch.

Some studies drew upon Hornberger’s (1989) continua of biliteracy framework, which she also discussed in terms of the role of translanguaging in another work (2005). Hornberger (2005) asserts that “[b]i/multilinguals’ learning is maximized when they are allowed and enabled to draw from across all their existing language skills (in two+ languages)” (p. 607). Similarly, García and Li Wei (2014) also posit that “translanguaging offers a way for students to draw on the diverse aspects of the Hornberger continua” (p. 66). The continua of biliteracy challenges traditional dichotomies of bilingualism and monolingualism, recognizing that bilinguals can have a wide range of language and literacy practices that do not fit into a simple “either/or” categorization (Hornberger, 1989). In relation to translanguaging, the continua of biliteracy framework aligns with the idea that translanguaging emphasizes the fluid and dynamic nature of language use. Translanguaging recognizes that bilingual individuals often draw from their entire linguistic repertoire to communicate effectively. This is in line with the continua of biliteracy’s emphasis on the multiplicity of language uses and practices.

Certain frameworks were utilized in conjunction with others, exemplified by the integration of holistic bilingualism with the translanguaging framework. The roots of holistic (wholistic) bilingualism can be traced back to Grosjean’s (1989) critical article in which he suggested a holistic view of bilingualism that rejects the assumption that bilinguals are two monolinguals in one person. Grosjean claims “[t]he coexistence and constant interaction of the two languages in the bilingual has produced a different but complete linguistic entity” (p. 6) and analogizes the bilingual to a high hurdler to exemplify uniqueness and dynamicity of their linguistic practices. Correspondingly, translanguaging also rejects additive, subtractive, and recursive views of bilingualism encouraging communicative and dynamic bilingualism (García, 2009a). Consequently, the amalgamation of these two frameworks empowers researchers to explore a holistic entity formed by the interplay of multiple languages, transcending the understanding of each language in isolation (Hopewell & Escamilla, 2014).

Ubuntu translanguaging was another intriguing framework used in the studies. The framework draws heavily on the African value system, ubuntu, which emphasizes the interdependence and co-existence of entities (Makalela, 2016). Claiming that “translanguaging is a cultural competence found in the African worldview” (Sefotho & Makalela, 2017, p. 43), Makalela (2016) argues that “*a language is because another language is*” (p. 191). With this stance, ubuntu translanguaging eliminates the hierarchies among languages.

The last framework was sustainable translanguaging. This framework is worthy of attention, as it aims to reassure translanguaging’s stance about minority language maintenance and revitalization. As proposed by Cenoz and Gorter (2017), sustainable translanguaging recognizes and promotes the use of minority languages through translanguaging practices.

Particularly, their concept of *breathing spaces* underlies the need for the presence of the minority language along with the majority language.

### **Multifaceted Uses of Translanguaging**

The most common use of translanguaging was as a pedagogical tool. This use includes translanguaging to learn and translanguaging to teach. García and Li Wei (2014) refer to such use of translanguaging as pupil- and teacher-directed translanguaging, emphasizing its dual pedagogical use. Learners use translanguaging to make meaning and construct knowledge using their entire linguistic repertoire as a learning tool. They use their linguistic repertoire in a dynamic manner to mediate their cognitive processes to learn both languages and content (Lewis et al., 2012). Teachers, on the other hand, employed translanguaging practices to initiate teacher-student interactions by using multiple languages at the same time.

Another use of translanguaging was bilingual identity construction. Identity is socially constructed and is based on communication between people (Riley, 2007). Translanguaging, in this sense, can act as a communication tool that “supports the development of multiple linguistic identities” (García, 2009a, p. 119). It provides the individual with the potential to withstand “the historical and cultural positionings of monolingualism” (García & Li Wei, 2014, p. 43). These claims were supported by the studies that found translanguaging can indeed help individuals negotiate their multilingual, heritage, and ethnolinguistic identities (see Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Sayer, 2013; Schissel et al., 2021).

A considerable number of studies also explored the concept of ‘spaces’ constructed by translanguaging. As mentioned before, these spaces are mentioned differently in studies and mainly derive from the concept of space articulated by Bhabha (2004). However, they all refer to alternative linguistic spaces that have connotations of safety and security. In this sense, these spaces, as Li Wei (2011a) posits, are translanguaging spaces created for and through the act of translanguaging. These spaces enable the multilingual language users to “[bring] together different dimensions of their personal history, experience and environment, their attitude, belief and ideology, their cognitive and physical capacity into one coordinated and meaningful performance (p. 1223).

The final observed use of translanguaging in the data was related to language maintenance and revitalization in educational contexts. Translanguaging can serve as a means of empowering minoritized languages by creating a bilingual space where the minoritized language interacts with the dominant language (Jones, 2017). As a result of this interaction, the boundaries between the languages get blurred which ultimately elevates the status of the minoritized language (Leonet et al., 2017). Also, it has the potential to nurture “a language pedagogy that is conscious of power dynamics, consistently alert to the potential (re)invasion and erasure resulting from colonial language practices and policies” (Nicholas & McCarty, 2022, p. 242). This underscores the vital role that translanguaging can play in promoting the use and recognition of minoritized languages in educational contexts, challenging the dominance of colonial languages, and actively preserving linguistic diversity.

### **Recommendations for Future Research and Concluding Remarks**

This systematic review was conducted to investigate the empirical translanguaging studies in relation to their characteristics, theoretical and conceptual foundations, and findings. In total, 144 empirical studies accessed using four databases comprise the data of the review. The



thorough analysis of the studies revealed that the concept of translanguaging still has the potential to inform further studies. One area that translanguaging can be incorporated into is learner assessment. Although there are studies in the corpus that employ translanguaging in the assessment of learners (see Baker & Hope, 2019; Schissel et al., 2021), their number is still low, and the findings are far from being convincing. In line with the paucity of such studies, García and Li Wei (2014) also point out the potential of translanguaging for learner assessment:

...if translanguaging were an accepted language practice, standardized assessments would be done in translanguaged ways, using the advanced adaptive technologies that have been developed. In these translanguaged-mode assessments, questions would be posed in many languages from which students would choose, and students would be free to reply with whatever multilingual multimodal practices that would display their understandings and knowledge. (p. 134)

As posited by García and Li Wei (2014), the integration of technology into the assessment process can effectively dispel monoglossic language ideologies among policymakers. Computerized adaptive testing has been a long-standing practice in education (Weiss & Kingsbury, 1984) and remains a viable option for implementation in contemporary times. By adopting innovative approaches to scrutinizing the linguistic practices of multilingual individuals, future research can substantially enhance the breadth and depth of knowledge in the field. In doing so, such studies can facilitate equitable educational practices that cater to the needs of diverse learners.

Another recommendation for future research is to reconceptualize translanguaging as a bilingual meaning-making tool rather than solely as a language-learning strategy. Such a shift in perspective could offer a more comprehensive understanding of the dynamic ways in which multilingual individuals navigate their linguistic repertoires to create meaning in various contexts. As suggested by García (2009a) and more recently by Li Wei and García (2022), translanguaging is not about acknowledging the first language use rather it is about “going *beyond* named languages” (p. 314), which indicates the wholeness of the linguistic repertoire of multilinguals. Nevertheless, the majority of the studies focusing on language learning through translanguaging simply document various uses of learners’ native language, which already has an established body of research in literature as the use of L1 (see Hall & Cook, 2012; Shin et al., 2020 for reviews of the L1 use). Therefore, instead of studying the compartmentalization the linguistic practices based on the number of languages, the transformative potential of translanguaging regarding the use of named languages can be explored in the coming studies.

Also, future research on translanguaging should explore innovative and unconventional methodologies to effectively capture the dynamic and nuanced nature of languaging. Translanguaging itself offers a compelling model for pushing the boundaries of conventional research methodologies (Lee, 2022). A case in point is Ndhovolu’s (2019) autoethnographic study, which deviates from “conventional academic narrative techniques” and provides a notable illustration of this approach (p. 3). In his work, Ndhovolu recounts interactions with a boy facilitated by the dynamic use of multiple languages, an aspect that conventional systematic research methodologies would have inadequately documented. This underscores the importance of researchers paying meticulous attention to the minutiae of everyday life, recognizing them as valuable opportunities to pose pertinent questions about language use. Such an approach aligns with Pennycook and Otsuji’s (2015) recommendation

for “sociolinguistic ethnographies of language in use that include local understandings of language and do not impose pre-given understandings of language and multilingualism” (p. 13). Embracing locally grounded epistemological approaches to understand people’s languaging practices and the dynamic nature of their interactions becomes particularly relevant, as fully capturing local understandings of language using Eurocentric epistemologies may not always be feasible.

This review, like any other, is subject to certain limitations. Notably, my search for relevant literature was confined to only four databases. Expanding the scope of the search to include additional databases may have yielded a more comprehensive selection of translanguaging studies, thereby enhancing the overall scope of the synthesis. Second, I could have narrowed down my topic such as focusing on only particular contexts (e.g., EFL, ESL), educational stages, and/or specific uses of translanguaging. However, doing so would not have allowed me to provide a general view of the status of translanguaging studies. Nonetheless, this limitation can be viewed as an opportunity for future reviews to delve into more specific aspects of translanguaging studies. Finally, it should be noted that this review is limited to studies published within the timeframe of 2008 to the fourth quarter of 2022, and as such, there is a possibility that additional studies on translanguaging beyond the scope of this review have been conducted. In consideration of its constraints, this review presents a comprehensive summary of translanguaging studies conducted across diverse contexts. As such, it has the potential to elucidate the intricacies of translanguaging and serve as a catalyst for future research endeavors.

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## APPENDIX

### Coding Guide

|                             |                         |  |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| <b>Study Identification</b> | <b>Title</b>            | <i>APA 7<sup>th</sup> edition citation format for the article.</i>   |
|                             | <b>Publication Year</b> | <i>When was the article published?</i>   |
|                             | <b>Database Source</b>  | <i>From which database was the article retrieved? (e.g., Education Full Text by Wilson, Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA), PsycINFO published by APA, or ERIC by EBSCO)</i> |

|                              |   |  |
|------------------------------|---|--|
|                              | <b>Author(s)</b>                            | <i>Who wrote the article?</i>  |
| <b>Study Characteristics</b> | <b>Context</b>                              | <i>In which setting was the study conducted? Was it within an academic institution or outside? At what educational level? Did it involve online or face-to-face interactions?</i>  |
|                              | <b>Sample size</b>                          | <i>What was the sample size of the study?</i>  |
|                              | <b>Study duration</b>                       | <i>What was the duration of the study? Was it a longitudinal or a cross-sectional study?</i>   |
|                              | <b>Geographic location</b>                  | <i>In which geographical region did the study take place?</i>  |
|                              | <b>Research design</b>                      | <i>What research design did the study utilize?</i>   |
|                              | <b>Theoretical/ conceptual framework(s)</b> | <i>What theoretical or conceptual frameworks were employed in the study?</i>   |
|                              | <b>Language(s)</b>                          | <i>In which language was the study authored, and which languages were the subject of the study?</i>  |
| <b>Participants</b>          | <b>Demographics</b>                         | <i>What demographic characteristics characterized the participants? Did they belong to specific groups, such as students, out-of-school individuals, or refugees? Were they predominantly young or adult learners?</i>   |
|                              | <b>Inclusion/ exclusion criteria</b>        | <i>Did the author(s) specify any inclusion or exclusion criteria for the participants? If so, what were these criteria?</i>  |
|                              | <b>Recruitment method</b>                   | <i>How were the participants recruited by the author(s), and what sampling strategies were employed in the study?</i>  |
| <b>Results/ Findings</b>     | <b>Main findings</b>                        | <i>What were the primary outcomes of the study? Did these outcomes carry significance? What insights, implications, or indications did the study offer? What conclusions and/ or recommendations can be derived from these findings, and were they connected to findings from other sources?</i> |
| <b>Quotes</b>                | <b>Important quotes</b>                     | <i>Any significant quotations or excerpts from the study that hold particular relevance or importance to the research.</i>   |