

The role of translanguaging in the multilingual turn: Driving philosophical and conceptual renewal in language education

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ABSTRACT

EN The multilingual turn refers to a recent series of shifts in the core philosophical underpinnings in traditional foreign and second language classroom practice. These changes promote the normalization of processes and practices characteristic of bi-/multilingual speakers. This, in turn, has stimulated new ways of teaching and learning in the classroom. The goal of this article is twofold: first to chart the central developments that have led to the emergence of the multilingual turn thus far, and second to provide an account of how classroom translanguaging is fundamental to present and future developments. We present the conceptual framework undergirding the multilingual turn, before providing an overview of traditional tenets of foreign and second language education. We then examine translanguaging and its implications for language education, and end with a presentation of strategies that may facilitate the implementation of the multilingual turn in the additional language classroom.

Key words: TRANSLANGUAGING, FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION, SECOND LANGUAGE EDUCATION, ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE EDUCATION, MULTILINGUAL TURN

ES El giro multilingüe hace referencia a una serie de cambios que afectaron a los fundamentos filosóficos de las prácticas pedagógicas en la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras o segundas. Estos cambios promueven la normalización de los procesos y las prácticas propios de los hablantes bi-/multilingües, estimulando nuevas maneras de enseñar y aprender en el aula. El objetivo de este artículo es doble: en primer lugar, se delinear las principales causas que han llevado a que el giro multilingüe se fuera afirmando; en segundo lugar, se ofrece un resumen de como el translingüismo es fundamental para los desarrollos presentes y futuros. Antes de ofrecer un panorama general de los principios de la enseñanza de las lenguas extranjeras y segundas, se presenta el marco conceptual en el que se apoya el giro multilingüe. Se examina después el translingüismo y sus repercusiones para la educación lingüística y, para concluir, se presentan las estrategias que podrían facilitar la implementación del giro multilingüe en una clase de lengua adicional.

Palabras clave: TRANSLINGÜISMO, ENSEÑANZA DE LENGUAS EXTRANJERAS, ENSEÑANZA DE SEGUNDAS LENGUAS, ENSEÑANZA DE LENGUAS ADICIONALES, GIRO MULTILINGÜE

IT La svolta multilingue si riferisce a una serie di cambiamenti riguardanti fondamenti filosofici nelle pratiche didattiche delle lingue seconde e straniere. Questi cambiamenti promuovono l'uniformazione dei processi e delle pratiche caratteristici dei/delle parlanti bi-/multi- lingue e al contempo stimolano nuovi modi di insegnare e apprendere. L'obiettivo del presente articolo è duplice: in primo luogo, tracciare gli sviluppi principali che, fino a questo momento, hanno portato all'emergere della svolta multilingue, e in secondo luogo fornire un resoconto di come il *translanguaging* nella classe sia fondamentale per gli sviluppi presenti e futuri. Presentiamo qui il quadro teorico che sottende alla svolta multilingue per poi fornire una panoramica dei principi tradizionali della didattica delle lingue seconde e straniere. Quindi esaminiamo il *translanguaging* e le sue implicazioni per l'educazione linguistica. Il lavoro si conclude con la proposta di strategie per facilitare l'implementazione della svolta multilingue nell'aula di lingua aggiuntiva.

Parole chiave: TRANSLANGUAGING, DIDATTICA DELLE LINGUE SECONDE, DIDATTICA DELLE LINGUE STRANIERE, DIDATTICA DELLE LINGUE AGGIUNTIVE, SVOLTA MULTILINGUE

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1. Introduction

Recent years have witnessed the beginning of a gradual paradigm shift, often labeled as the ‘multilingual turn’ (e.g., Conteh & Meier, 2014; May, 2013), towards the incorporation of multilingual and translanguaging perspectives in foreign (FL) and second (L2) language learning environments. This shift has provided us with new tools to critically analyze common practices, typologies, and assumptions that continue to guide language teaching and learning. Crucially, to move forward and reflect this emerging paradigm shift in an expanded FL/L2 classroom typology, teachers, curriculum designers, policy makers, and teacher trainers will need to reposition themselves and reformulate their practices in an organic expansion, rather than linear addition. In exploring strategies to facilitate such a change, we argue that translanguaging—or “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard to watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named languages” (Otheguy, García & Reid, 2015, p. 281)—may serve to articulate multilingual education philosophy and praxis in what have been traditionally considered FL and L2 classrooms. This comes as we incorporate recent proposals that cut across ecological understandings of bi-/multilingualism, equity and social justice, and an overall decentralization of monolingual practices as a standard (e.g., Canagarajah, 2014; Carreira & Kagan, 2018; García, 2009; Ortega, 2017; Shohamy, 2011; Turnbull, 2018).

The possibilities of this form of multilingual thinking are wide-ranging, creating room for expansion on (at least) four levels: an ontological one (i.e., processes of categorization), an epistemological one (i.e., the further development of knowledge), a methodological one (i.e., the ways to explore and expand knowledge) (Schulze & Smith, 2015), and an ethical one (whom or what our research benefits) (Ortega & Zyzik, 2008). Fundamentally, these different levels are not mutually exclusive, as engaging, for example, epistemological change calls for new ways of investigation (methodologies). In this theoretical paper we explore the possibilities of multilingual thinking in the language classroom, particularly in what are normally conceptualized as L2 and FL classrooms, and we focus on the potential role and possibilities of translanguaging in materializing the philosophy of this paradigm shift in pedagogy. We acknowledge that debate does exist about translanguaging theory regarding traditional system-based notions of language and its role in language pedagogy (see, for example, MacSwan, 2017). However, alongside other scholars (e.g., Otheguy, García & Reid, 2018), also counter such claims on the basis that psycholinguistic research has shown that all of a bi-/multilingual speaker’s languages remain active to some degree, even when only one is in verbal use (Kroll & Bialystok, 2013) and that lexical items belong to an expanded holistic network (Costa, 2005). A speaker’s languages, therefore, cannot belong to separate internal systems that can be “set aside” at will, but rather, are part of a single unitary system on which speakers draw selectively and strategically to navigate communicative contexts.

Our argument is rooted in current conceptualizations of multilingualism and incorporates the epistemological perspectives characterizing them (e.g., Cenoz & Genesee, 1998). Broadly speaking, Li Wei (2013) defines multilingualism as the “coexistence, contact and interaction of different languages” (p. 26). Crucially, bi-or multi-lingual individuals and contexts are qualitatively variable, with different degrees of discursive and socio-pragmatic values defining speakers, communities, and practices. Such conceptualizations of multilingualism follow what Otsuji and Pennycook (2010) refer to as *metrolinguism*: the “creative linguistic conditions across space and borders of culture, history and politics” (p. 244) that allow language users to incorporate their own hybrid, fluid linguistic practices to communicate and create meaning. Accordingly, the boundaries between named-languages are viewed as transient social-, cultural-, political-, and historical-constructs of the nation state (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007), and language itself is understood as a non-monolithic set of linguistic features, styles, and resources that speakers mobilize in accordance with communicative events.

The multilingual turn in FL/L2 teaching and learning reflects the above working definition of multilingualism and brings this complex perspective into the classroom setting. This conceptualization of the FL/L2 classroom as multilingual, therefore, asks us to move from thinking of multilingualism as an object of pursuit to consider it as a central strategy to pursue (and to promote), stimulating philosophical renewal. This renewal is not without obstacles. These obstacles are in keeping with traditional views of language separation, ideologies regarding language purity, and the centralization of monolingual speakers as the standard for linguistic mastery. Traditionally, FL and L2 education have suffered from the dogma of the *monolingual bias*, or the aim of ultimately developing double monolingualism, with the native speaker constituting the idealized target model (Auer, 2007), particularly in countries where monolingualism is the perceived norm. Since the 1990s, Grosjean’s (1989) staple argument about “the bilingual” not being “two

monolinguals in one person” has gradually grown into a foundational notion in applied linguistics research, however it has remained peripheral to language classroom practice. The conceptual limitations characterizing the native versus non-native speaker contrast have been addressed in the literature (e.g., Llurda, 2009; Rampton, 1990), with recent proposals for the use of LX in lieu of labels of second-, third- (etc.) language speaker (Dewaele, 2017) as well as critical takes on the epistemological bases of popular taxonomies (Meier, 2018). These conceptual developments bring to light what we identify as the second obstacle: FL/L2 learning as linked to processes of (self-)otherization.

Otherization refers to the “binary of us versus them” (Jamal, 2008, p. 116) and assumes (racial, religious, cultural) teachable/learnable differences between the learner’s world and the world of the target language natives. When languages are presented as foreign or second, learners are socialized into the notion that the target language is less pertinent to their everyday realities. Perhaps more importantly, this presentation bolsters the notion that L2/FL learners are second to native speakers, as they are epistemologically construed as ever-learners whose communicative potential is summarized by their status as L2/FL speakers. Similarly, this nomenclature also ignores the realities of those learners who have “multiple native languages” (Rothman & Treffers-Daller, 2014, p. 1), perpetuating misconceptions that do not coincide with today’s societies, and continuing to promote the one-fits-all view of learner profiles in the FL/L2 language classroom. Regarding this issue, we adhere to Dewaele’s (2017) perspective and operate under the assumption that terms such as FL and L2 teaching and learning, as well as FL and L2 learner and speaker represent obstacles to conceptualizing and articulating the *multilingual* classroom. While the terms FL and L2 are commonly used interchangeably, there have been distinctions between the two, mostly bearing on differences regarding context. L2 learning, for example, occurs in contexts where learners are exposed to the target language (TL) both inside the classroom and out (e.g., students learning English in the US or UK); whereas FL learning, on the other hand, refers to contexts in which students learn a language in the classroom that is not widely spoken by the outside community (e.g., students learning Japanese in Canada).

We instead propose to refer to contexts of additional language (AL) teaching and learning. This label functions not only as an umbrella term to encompass FL and L2, but as a conceptual tool to capture our problematization of conceptualizing languages and speakers as foreign or second versus native speakers. Moreover, importantly, we incorporate in our understanding of AL Dewaele’s (2017) argument that order of acquisition does not correlate with fluency or communicative abilities, given that individuals learning ALs may experience shifts in dominance resulting from life events such as relocation or immigration (e.g., Montrul, 2016). What is more, at times, individuals may identify with an AL more closely than with the first language they were exposed to/acquired, in terms of functionality, communicative skills, or sociocultural fluency. For these and other reasons, we find that AL teaching and learning promotes a more organic understanding of language learning than chronological order or foreignness to the geographical learning context, incorporating a systemic, dynamic view as opposed to the additive/linear one that characterizes current perspectives. These obstacles often combine with other context-specific ideological, attitudinal, and political-historical factors, which taken together bring linguicism to the fore in many decisions shaping language education. *Linguicism* refers to the “ideologies and structures which are used to legitimate, effectuate and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and non-material) between groups which are defined on the basis of language (i.e., their mother tongues)” (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988, p. 13).

The recognition of monolingual normativity has increased in the last few years, leading to discussions concerning its implications. This normativity operates across levels, from socio-political (Cruikshank & Wright, 2016) to the educational (Ortega, 2014; Meier, 2018; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2006), permeating research, practice, and policy. In order to facilitate the reproduction of multilingualism as currently defined in the multilingual turn in AL classrooms and support a move away from the monolingualism-as-standard default model, a set of changes is required. This monolingualism-as-standard default model partly builds on a set of assumptions, which, fundamentally draws on attitudes and ideologies about linguistic purity, language ownership, and unrealistic expectations for learners (e.g., Makoni & Pennycook, 2007; Pascual y Cabo & Prada, 2018). Crucially, we call for a shift from treating languages as discrete, bound objects to an understanding of language as a social construct belonging to a speaker’s integrated linguistic system (Otheguy, Garcia, & Reid, 2015). A multilingual classroom with such an orientation would also incorporate Cook’s (2002) view of language *learners* as language *users* with multicompetence: a notion that helps us rethink the negative connotations associated with the deficiency of being a learner, as well as a shift of focus away from idealizing the native speaker as the target model of

successful communicative competence. Against this background of epistemological renewal, in this paper we set out to provide an overview of the multilingual turn and its core components, with an emphasis on the role(s) of and possibilities for classroom translanguaging in further centralizing or normalizing multilingualism.

Having introduced the epistemological underpinnings of our argument, the following three sections offer (1) an overview of traditional FL and L2 education; (2) a description of translanguaging and its implication for AL teaching and learning; and (3) a presentation of strategies/protocols/stages that may facilitate an alignment philosophy defining the multilingual turn and classroom praxis that mobilizes translanguaging. The article closes with a brief conclusion and suggestions for future developments and possibilities.

2. Philosophical underpinnings of traditional FL and L2 education

L2 and FL teaching practices have traditionally perpetuated the concept of double monolingualism as their primary aim (Scott, 2010). As a result, the languages in which learners possess competence have been treated separately with little or no acknowledgement of the natural interaction between them, both internally (cognitively) and externally (interpersonally) (Cook, 2001). The dominant AL teaching methodologies throughout the late 20th century, including the Direct Method and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), tended to ignore, discourage, or actively exclude the use of learners' home languages in favor of exclusive use of the TL (Cummins, 2007; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009). This exclusion has been fundamental to the aforementioned notion of the native speaker as the idealized target model: a seemingly impossible and unnecessary goal for learners to approximate. However, the term *native speaker* not only connotes an individual who has grown up speaking a certain language since birth, but also one who has experienced a monolingual upbringing (Ortega, 2014; also see Rothman & Treffers-Daller, 2014). In contrast, AL learners may encompass individuals from an array of backgrounds and linguistic contexts, who bring with them a diverse set of language experiences and knowledge.

In idealizing the monolingual native speaker, AL learners' lived linguistic experiences are not recognized, nor are learners viewed as the emergent bilinguals that they are. Rather, they are viewed as deficient for not reaching native-like competence in the TL (Grosjean, 1989); in other words, they are framed in terms of what they are *not*, rather than what they have already achieved. Critically, in addition to underscoring deficiency, rather than proficiency, this perspective promotes the achievement of monolingual-like standards among speakers who are, by definition, not monolingual to begin with (Pascual y Cabo & Prada, 2018). It is, at least partly, based on this pursuit of monolingual proficiency that target-language only policies find their philosophical rooting. FL and L2 teaching has been guided by the maxim that teachers should use only the TL and avoid students' dominant language (Chambers, 1991; Littlewood & Yu, 2011). As a reaction to this, we position AL teaching as a conceptual turn that takes as its point of departure the multilingual nature of the AL learner.

The last 20 years have seen an acknowledgement of the possibilities of using students' dominant language in the classroom. Although some scholars (e.g., Antón & DiCamilla, 1999; Butzkamm, 2011; Lin, 2015; Littlewood, & Yu, 2011; Macaro, 2005; Scott & De La Fuente, 2008; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009) have advocated for the use of what is commonly referred to as the learners' home language in the FL/L2 classroom, these arguments remain based predominantly in monolingual perspectives of language separation. Fundamentally, as we see it, the mere inclusion of the learners' home language(s) in the AL learning environment does not necessarily work to frame said learning as a bilingual event. In keeping with this issue, Turnbull (2018) advocated for an epistemological reform in traditional FL education, claiming it to be a form of bilingual education. He argued for a change in the mindset surrounding FL learners to recognize their emergent bilingual status in an attempt to disrupt the construction of FL learners as unsuccessful monolinguals.

In a response, García (2017) took a critical, poststructuralist approach to further suggest that the active use of translanguaging practices is a key concept to facilitate this turn. She added that cross-linguistic pedagogies are required to leverage the entire linguistic repertoires of emergent bilinguals in AL learning contexts and facilitate their development and assimilation of bilingual languaging¹ strategies. However, AL

¹ *Languaging* refers to the continuous process of becoming oneself through the use of language and interaction in one's linguistic and environmental surroundings. Translingual practices, then, are those languaging practices that transcend between and beyond the socially constructed boundaries of languages in which a speaker holds multi-competence.

education has traditionally failed to accept the notion of developing language skills in cooperation with preexisting language knowledge, focusing instead on language separation and language development in competition. The overarching goal of AL learning is not merely to obtain linguistic competence in the TL as a monolingual of that language, but to *appropriate* new bilingual languaging strategies in association with old ones for use in an individual's everyday life. Hence, our emphasis is on organic expansion, as opposed to linear addition. It is ironic, then, that attaining a level of functioning bilingual ability through AL education is so firmly rooted in monolingual encounters with the TL (Scott, 2010). Butzkamm and Cadwell (2009) blame this on the instructor, who they suggest fails to “master the sophisticated and powerful bilingual techniques necessary to harness the linguistic resources of the learners” (p. 16). To their argument we add that teacher-training programs are a critical piece in the perpetuation of these ideologies, and the educational enterprise as a whole has exerted too sharp a focus on teaching the language (and its associated elements: cultural, ideological, postcolonial), instead of developing the learner (as an individual citizen). In fact, changes on this front have begun to be incorporated in mainstream thinking. For example, the centennial issue of *Hispania*, the journal of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP) has included current works that reference, if still through a language separation lens, the potential of using Spanish as a pivot language in the teaching of third languages within the US context (Donato, 2018), and in doing so, brings to bear tenets of the multilingual turn.

In line with this way of thinking, new voices have begun to advocate for the inclusion of translanguaging practices in the FL/L2 classroom, supporting our conceptualization of an AL classroom. In broad terms, translanguaging refers to the flexible linguistic practices multilingual individuals engage in their interactions (García & Li Wei, 2014). In acknowledging the value of such fluid practices, the implications and possibilities seem vast. Indeed, a translanguaging approach to AL extends beyond the classroom as it aims at the “development of different language practices to varying degrees in order to interact with increasingly multilingual communities in a global world” (García & Sylvan, 2011, p. 388). For us, it is important that the ability to engage in multilingual practices in “contact zones” (Pratt, 1991) move to the forefront of AL education, which we conceptualize below as the inclusion and promotion of “*translanguaging as (meta)skill*.”

Similarly, Cenoz and Gorter (2011) proposed a Focus on Multilingualism (FoM) as an alternative to the traditional perspective of language separation in the AL classroom, hinging on three distinct elements: (1) the multilingual speaker; (2) the linguistic repertoire as a whole; and (3) the social context. When combined, these three components offer a framework that captures the multilingual speaker employing their complete linguistic system to create meaning in various social contexts. Just like we used AL teaching and learning as a conceptual tool to rearrange assumptions about the chronological axis and its implications, we view FoM as a holistic lens to approach the learner as a speaker in context. Taken together, AL and FoM offer a philosophical bedrock to entertain the possibilities of translanguaging as a legitimate and potentially transformative classroom practice. Cenoz (2017) notes that the inclusion of translanguaging practices lies at the heart of the multilingual turn, and although recent publications have supported this in a specifically FL learning context (e.g., Turnbull, 2018), the notion has yet to become widespread on a global scale. Against this background, we identify the possibilities of classroom translanguaging not only as a central component in the reconfiguration of FL and L2 into AL in terms of linguistic practice, but we also stress the transformative potential in terms of ideologies and attitudes among learners and teachers. Moreover, we highlight the role of classroom translanguaging to open the classroom to real-life discourses and needs that characterize our multilingual world.

While a deep discussion of the social justice component is beyond the scope of this discussion, we consider it a critical issue in traditional conceptualizations of FL and L2 education. The brief examination of some of the philosophical underpinnings of FL/L2 education presented above unveils ways in which L2/FL users are often constructed as ever-learning, underperforming individuals who seek to meet a standard that is external to their experience. These conceptualizations, however, are usually extended to also encompass speakers who have already achieved multilingual fluency. These individuals include, but are not limited to, speaker categories taxonomically incorporating some degree of built-in subordination and/or a need of further development, such as English language learners (in US bilingual education settings), heritage speakers, new speakers, and members of linguistically-diverse communities who seek literacy development in an official language. Just like we support bottom-up (as opposed to deficit-based) conceptualizations of these speaker types through their bi-/multi-lingual profiles, our argument accommodates the idea that those individuals who display communicative proficiency but have traditionally been construed as FL/L2 learners are best understood as AL users/speakers. This conceptual shift helps materialize a will to move stigmatized

and unprivileged practices from marginalized positions to discursive spaces where acknowledgement, understanding, and empowerment become possible.

3. Translanguaging in the AL classroom

Before delving into a more detailed account of translanguaging as a facilitator of the multilingual turn in language classrooms, an overview of classroom translanguaging as presented in the current literature is in order. The term *translanguaging* originated from Welsh educationalist Cen Williams's notion of *trawsieithu*, a central element to his (1994) unpublished doctoral dissertation. Williams framed translanguaging as the "planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012, p. 643), whereby languages were deliberately alternated for receptive and productive use (Baker, 2011). For example, learners could read a text in Welsh and discuss it in English or listen to a passage in English and write about it in Welsh. This is what García and Lin (2017) refer to now as *weak translanguaging*, whereby both languages are employed to various degrees and the barriers between them are softened but remain intact. In contrast, they propose the term *strong translanguaging* as a conceptual expansion that accounts for the complex, semiotic language practices and pedagogies of bi-/multi-lingual communities who transcend between and beyond the systems that make up their complete linguistic repertoires (also see Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Li Wei, 2014; Hornberger & Link, 2012). Within a strong translanguaging framework, language is viewed not as a closed, bound structure in the speaker's mind, but as a fluid practice in which speakers engage to make meaning (Pennycook, 2010). The barriers between these languages, those that have traditionally fueled the idea of language separation in FL and L2 learning, are considered a construction of the nation-state (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007), and the languages in which a speaker possesses competence as a set of linguistic features. These features belong to a single, integrated linguistic system on which bilingual speakers draw in accordance with the rules of socially-constructed languages to make meaning of their bilingual world, to express themselves, and to learn.

Although the original concept of translanguaging was specifically designed for use in bilingual education settings—see Williams' (1994) explanation in the Welsh bilingual context—, translanguaging practices can also be implemented in a multitude of learning contexts with slight conceptual differences. Whereas traditional bilingual education programs have varied goals and structures, they are generally united by the notion that learning is conducted in two languages with bilingualism as the intended goal. Other contexts that have not traditionally been considered as sites of bilingual education, such as those in which a target language is presented/learned as second or foreign, have conventionally operated under the assumption that immersion is most beneficial for students' learning, with translanguaging practices being construed as problematic and deviant. Against this baseline, recent counterarguments have emerged. For example, Kleyn (2016) suggests that translanguaging is a "multiway street to learning and integrating language practices" (p. 217) in a variety of different contexts. She identifies a number of different classroom types (including English as a second language, Content and Language Integrated Learning, and foreign language learning) as well as program types (including those bridging content areas and grade levels) as potential sites of pedagogical experimentation, although few specific details concerning how to enact translanguaging practices in such contexts are provided.

García and Li Wei (2014) emphasize that, regardless of context, language learners are not learning a separate language; instead, they are taking control of their own learning to appropriate and assimilate new languaging strategies and unique meaning-making resources. They identify seven ways in which translanguaging practices can be used to leverage students' learning in the AL classroom: (1) to differentiate among student levels and adapt instructional approaches accordingly; (2) to build background knowledge; (3) to deepen understandings and develop new knowledge and critical thinking; (4) to encourage cross-linguistic transfer and metalinguistic awareness; (5) to promote cross-linguistic flexibility for competent language use; (6) to encourage identity investment; and (7) to disrupt linguistic hierarchies and social structures. In the case of AL learning, teachers and students alike should consider how they can leverage their home language(s) and linguistic experiences to facilitate the development of languaging skills in the TL. Translanguaging practices can be used in situations even when instructors cannot speak the learners' home languages (García & Li Wei, 2014) so long as they are willing and able to relinquish some power to students, enabling them to take control of their own language development. This results in the development of a translanguaging classroom, which García, Ibarra Johnson and Seltzer (2017) describe as "a space built collaboratively by the teacher and bilingual students as they use their different language practices to teach and learn in deeply creative and critical ways" (p. 2). In allowing for creativity and criticality (see Li Wei, 2011), a translanguaging classroom

is a place in which learners of linguistically diverse backgrounds can integrate social spaces and language codes previously practiced in separation. Moreover, in the process, they may contest the language separation ideologies of traditional monolingual-based AL education. Turnbull (2017) also refers to the way in which translanguaging practices may be used in the AL classroom for assessment purposes from structural-, task-, and knowledge-based perspectives. In an attempt to dismantle the construct of AL learners as double monolinguals, he argues against the summative monolingual-based assessment formats that have thus far dominated traditional FL/L2 education, instead underscoring the importance of translanguaging models that holistically evaluate AL learners' complete linguistic repertoires. Such models help to reveal the ways in which students employ their unique linguistic repertoire to make meaning of their bilingual world, to express themselves as emergent bilinguals, and to learn in various bilingual contexts.

García (2017) perhaps summarizes the issue best: "As long as language learning is conceptualized as L2 skills, we will be left with L2 learners, and not with emergent bilinguals who are constructing and expanding their own bilingual repertoire" (p. 9). So long as traditional practices grounded in educated monolingual native-speakers as the idealized target model continue to reign prevalent in AL classrooms, we will not be able to make the jump required to modernize AL education by way of the multilingual turn. The inclusion of translanguaging practices can be adapted to fit the state of every language classroom regardless of the kind of learners, teachers, and/or educational context involved. Translanguaging practices teach us that AL learning is not simply additive, nor is it dual; bilingualism is resignified as unitary, connoting a single integrated system to which all linguistic features of so-called "named languages" are stored (García, 2009). It is important that we harness the integrated power of AL learners' complete linguistic repertoires to leverage their current and newly emerging bilingual languaging strategies as they aim to assimilate and develop new practices in combination with old ones, hence our focus on an organic ecological expansion of the speakers' communicative abilities, as opposed to a linear additive approach. Currently, practices emphasizing organic expansion are rarely encountered in the traditional AL classroom, but that is not to say we cannot realize this goal. The multilingual turn in AL education is the bridge between traditional monolingual-based forms of AL education and a future in which AL learners are recognized holistically as emergent bilinguals with particular personal trajectories and multiple experiential resources. This understanding stimulates ideological restructuring that equips learners to be sociolinguistically fluent in a plural and diverse world.

Considering the above account of classroom translanguaging, we identify three core factors to bear in mind when endeavoring to translate theorizations of classroom translanguaging into praxis: (1) deforeignizing the AL learner; (2) understanding hybrid forms as emergent; and (3) developing translanguaging as skill (Figure 1). We now provide a brief description of these three areas and their interfaces.

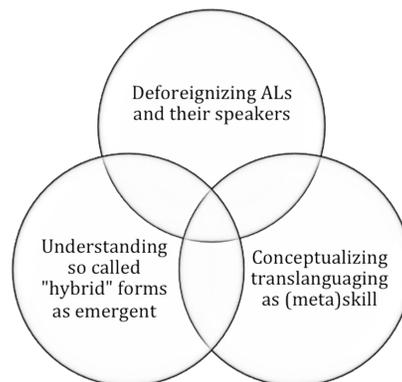


Figure 1. *Three areas of activity to support/enable classroom translanguaging.*

The first area to address revolves around the de-foreignization of ALs and their speakers. This notion is not new. The teacher training literature, for example, has developed a solid line of argumentation concerning the pedagogical abilities and communicative value of non-native language teachers (e.g., Braine, 2013; Llorca, 2006). Similarly, research on English as a lingua franca (e.g., Cenoz, 2017) and World Englishes (e.g., Canagarajah, 1999, 2006; Nikula, 2007) as well as heritage speaker bilingualism (e.g., Pascual y Cabo & Rothman, 2012; Rothman & Treffers-Daller, 2014) have asked us to rethink speaker types that have traditionally fallen outside of the native speaker standard through a multilingual perspective. A commonality

cutting across these proposals, which move away from deficiency descriptions, is a challenge to the assumption that non-(monolingual)-native speakers are somehow incomplete. More importantly, this perspective lays out epistemological foundations to tackle traditional ontological building blocks. For example, notions such as World/Global/New English(es) refer to multilingual English varieties spoken across the world in places such as Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean (for an in-depth treatment see Jenkins, 2006). This line of work allows us to approach the multilingual individual through a multilingual perspective—a notion that, while seemingly commonplace, has generally eluded AL practitioners. This epistemological change, while seemingly theoretical, offers multiple applications in terms of classroom policy, objectives and goals, and thematic components for classroom discussions (we discuss some of these in Section 4). Recent proposals such as Gorter and Cenoz's (2011) FoM, described in Section 1, become useful conceptual tools that can guide language practitioners and researchers in repositioning themselves and their AL students in light of the multilingual turn. By incorporating the multilingual profile of AL learners in our conceptualization, we seek to move away from perpetually representing them through deficit and otherness.

The second area is focused on the flexible linguistic practices engaged in by bi-/multi-lingual speakers and their sociolinguistic value. There is a vast body of research on *hybrid* (for lack of a better term) varieties such as Spanglish (Ardila, 2005; Otheguy & Stern, 2011; Zentella, 1997) and Chinglish (Qiang & Wolf, 2003; Wenzhong, 1993). While the scholarly literature on this topic—despite its theoretical orientation—often treats such practices as communicatively valuable, this is arguably the case at the broader social level (MacSwan, 2000). These practices are most often construed as a sign of deficiency, a lack of education, or an effect of linguistic impairment (Fuller, 2013). It is, therefore, fundamental that AL students in particular (and language (arts) students in general) be exposed to and have opportunities to explore these practices from an informed perspective. By training future teachers in the emergent nature of linguistic repertoires and, therefore, linguistic practices, we can position them to create learning spaces where students can investigate and normalize multilingual practices. Along these lines, the third area centers on enabling AL learners to acknowledge their own emergent multilingualism as a resource. Ruiz (1995), in connection with the previous conceptual works of others (e.g., Fishman, 1991; Jernudd, 1999) and by drawing on Khun's work, proposes the understanding of language-as-societal resource. Over the years, the understanding of language-as-resource has become a site of contradictory perspectives, whereby some (e.g., Petrovic, 2014; Ricento, 2005) argue that positioning bilingualism as a resource unveils (and bolsters) a neoliberal perspective in which language constitutes a commodity. More recently, Ruiz (2010) revisited his language-as-resource corollary to explicitly move away from this neoliberal vein. In light of these discussions, we posit a translanguaging-as-resource perspective, whereby the ability to manipulate linguistic repertoires and semiotic resources becomes a central component of dexterous multilingual communicators in the 21st century. This particular ability, which we refer to as *translanguaging as skill*, is the third area of activity that we identify.

At the core of *translanguaging as skill* is the ultimate goal of helping language learners develop translanguaging abilities to successfully navigate contact zones. Pratt (1991) defined contact zones as “social spaces where cultures meet, clash and grapple with each other, often in contexts of highly asymmetrical relations of power” (p. 34). At present, a more organic understanding of these *clashes* has been advanced, partly due to increased global mobility and the internet as a site for everyday interactions. Canagarajah (2013) offered a compelling theorization of translanguaging abilities for contact zones in his proposal that viewing writing as translanguaging requires a shift in our orientation to literacy (i.e., from autonomous to negotiated). We align with this perspective and situate an understanding of translanguaging as skill as a signature element in AL education within the multilingual turn. Importantly, translanguaging as skill transcends methodological boundaries among traditional AL skills in pedagogy, enabling learners to mediate among and move beyond them. It revolves around the meaning-making capacity of multilinguals, understood holistically, instead of restricting practices that frame skills according to proficiency (and therefore deficiency) scales.

In light of the above discussion, it should be easier to understand the potential of classroom translanguaging and its implications and possibilities for AL educational contexts in particular, and for education and policy-making in general. Before turning our attention to explicit ways whereby translanguaging acts as a facilitator of the multilingual turn, a recap of some central points is in order. First, traditional (and current mainstream) perspectives on FL and L2 teaching and learning position the language of study as foreign to the learner's needs and repertoire, accentuating the belief that FL and L2 learners/speakers and their experiences are secondary to those of monolingual native speakers. Second, the use of alternative categories, such as AL teaching and learning, situates learners' repertoires as central to

processes of teaching and learning. Third, moving away from imagined monolingual standards requires the undoing of post-colonial structures that sustain everyday conceptualizations about what is good and right in language use and teaching. AL classrooms (and the training of AL teachers and language arts² teachers in general) would do well to contest old/static paradigms that position the AL learner as receiver and mimicker of monolingual patterns, thereby creating spaces for multilingual interaction and stimulating new ways of using language critically, creatively, and accurately. Finally, at its core, translanguaging teaches learners not only about language, but also about how to use language effectively (i.e., how to *language*) in different contexts. To this end, the promotion of cross-language learning and the use of related strategies in AL classrooms to which learners are sensitized can work to address a real need in today's society. We are not arguing that translanguaging represents as a more necessary skill than the ability to, for example, access monolingual texts in the target language, or produce narratives in the target language; rather, we argue that, as a communicatively purposeful activity with the potential to transform social spaces, it can promote multilingual practices (and their speakers). We now offer a detailed discussion of how translanguaging may help facilitate the multilingual turn in the AL classroom.

4. Facilitating the multilingual turn in AL education through translanguaging

We view translanguaging as a metaprocess that connects linguistic practices, promotes sociolinguistic equity, allows AL learners to express their true identities, and leverages their overall bilingualism so they may act as whole people in their bilingual worlds. Practical guides for enacting translanguaging practices in bilingual classrooms have been provided in the past (see, for example, García, Ibarra Johnson & Seltzer, 2017; García & Kley, 2016); however, these guides are normally offered within the framework of bilingual education and are less common for AL learning contexts. The main difference between AL classrooms and other forms of bilingual education (including heritage and minority language classrooms, in which, traditionally, translanguaging practices have arguably been more common), is that the goal of the latter is specifically to teach one named target language (García, 2017), conventionally through the exclusive use of said language (see Leeman & Serafini, 2016; Pascual y Cabo & Prada, 2018). However, that is not to say that translanguaging practices cannot be employed in AL activities as support for the development of the TL. As García et al. (2017) suggest, "If we limit students to the use of only part of the linguistic repertoires—especially the part that is considered their *weaker* language—we also limit their ability to learn" (p. 105). Research has shown that translanguaging pedagogical and learning strategies can be used in activities involving any or all of four main language skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing) in the AL classroom to enhance the learning and development of the TL by students of all ages and proficiency levels—see Poza's (2017) review of previous studies on translanguaging. In fact, translanguaging is, perhaps, a most powerful resource at the interface of different skills, as it stimulates skill transfer from the more dominant (more rehearsed/practiced/automatized) language(s) to support the weaker one(s).

In the AL classroom, the acceptance and enactment of a *translanguaging instructional design* (i.e., the strategic way in which teachers plan and implement a lesson within a translanguaging space) is a pivotal step toward facilitating the multilingual turn in AL education. A translanguaging instructional design connects students' home language practices and identities with those typical of the TL. García, Ibarra Johnson, and Seltzer (2017) refer to five key stages of the translanguaging instructional design cycle: (1) *explorar*; (2) *evaluar*; (3) *imaginar*; (4) *presentar*; and (5) *implementar*, which form the basis of a model from which teachers can plan and create translanguaging spaces in support of the multilingual turn. In this framework, *explorar* refers to having learners explore new content and themes from a variety of viewpoints and in multiple languages as a means to spark interest in a given topic. *Evaluar* refers to the assessment of what learners have learnt and the simultaneous encouragement of their creativity and criticality, a step that contributes to the next stage of the translanguaging instructional design cycle: *imaginar*. *Imaginar* encourages AL learners to employ various translanguaging practices to process and integrate new information in multiple languages, and to support and foster the development of new and imaginative ways of thinking in their bilingual worlds. In the fourth stage, *presentar*, AL learners are able to engage in peer-feedback, group discussion, and finally presentation of their work to pairs, groups, teachers, or the entire class so that they

² The term *language arts* refers to the study of the systems and structures of language and of language conventions, including grammar, punctuation, and spelling. Additionally, students explore how language conventions vary across contexts. In this context, language encompasses visual communication, spoken and written forms of expression (NCTE & IRA, 1996).

may reflect on, and become aware of, their learning and language practices and adapt them to relevant circumstances and interlocutors. Finally, the *implementar* stage provides AL learners with a space to show all that they know and can do through the employment of their complete linguistic repertoires for meaningful and authentic purposes. Students learn contextualized ways of using their language practices to communicate and make meaning with various interlocutors and in various contexts, thus showing themselves to be effective emergent bilinguals.

In terms of productive language activities within this model, translanguaging can be employed as students build background knowledge on a given topic before demonstrating this knowledge in the TL (i.e., in the *explorar* stage of the translanguaging instructional design cycle). For example, AL learners may discuss a topic in groups or pairs, or interview people in their community, in their home language(s) (referring to the structures and features the learner mobilizes at home and in the community beyond named languages) to gather ideas and develop an outline before giving an oral presentation in the TL. They may also write stories with bilingual characters using two languages, search on websites in their various languages to research a topic, or annotate texts with important vocabulary and ideas in their home language(s) before composing an essay or report in the TL. Translanguaging allows AL learners to brainstorm, plan, draft, edit, and revise oral presentations or written compositions in one language, or a combination of languages, before producing them in the target language; translanguaging practices can also be used during receptive language activities in AL contexts of learning. Learners may, for example, listen to a passage in the TL and then discuss the meaning in their home language(s), or watch a TL video with subtitles in their home language. They may also read and compare different texts on a given topic in various languages or discuss the meaning of a given TL text in their home language(s) after reading it to deepen their overall comprehension (also see activity guides by García et al., 2017; García & Kleifgen, 2018; García & Li Wei, 2014).

AL teachers may also assign translanguaging tasks such as projects in which learners may, for example, produce bilingual posters or books/pamphlets about a given topic and present to the class in the TL or language inquiry tasks where learners metalinguistically compare and contrast different aspects of their home language and the TL. Learners could also be required to engage in problem solving through translanguaging, both academically (e.g., textual analysis) and practically (e.g., acting out a response for various situations, such as being lost in a city), with the potential to extend translanguaging strategies beyond the AL classroom to other subjects, such as problem solving in math and science (also see Lin & Lo, 2017; Nikula & Moore, 2016, for work on translanguaging in CLIL classroom contexts). For a more holistic approach to assessment in the classroom, teachers may provide learners with a deeper sense of the class direction and goal by means of translations of lesson objectives and key words distributed prior to activities. They could also employ translanguaging following activities, in the *evaluar* stage of the translanguaging instructional design cycle. For example, assessment instructions or questions may be provided in learners' home language(s), with answers requested in TL. Alternatively, learners could be asked to paraphrase information they have learnt in one language in the other. Furthermore, various forms of translanguaging-based alternative assessments, including bilingual portfolios, journals, reading logs, role plays, and exhibits, can work to explore the process of languaging as well as learners' development as emergent bilinguals, challenging the traditional "one-answer" notion of standardized monolingual-based assessment in the AL classroom.

Another possibility is the exploration of the multilingual *linguistic landscape* of a street, town or neighborhood. Broadly speaking, linguistic landscape refers to the publicly displayed signs, billboards, and posters in a particular area (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Elola and Prada (forthcoming), propose a course of action for the implementation of a linguistic landscape-based unit in an advanced composition Spanish course at a US University, and explore its effects in terms of critical (socio)linguistic awareness. More specifically, a mixed group (composed of L2 and heritage language learners) worked in pairs or triads to explore the Spanish linguistic landscape of the surrounding city. In doing so, many of the students noticed and reported how Spanish and English were used in combination, beyond simple translations, to create complete messages. Strategies such as this expose students to the linguistic practices of others and facilitate their development of informed perspectives on bi-/multilingualism, and ultimately working to normalize multilingualism in the classroom.

Due to the continued dominance of traditional perspectives that position L2 and FL education as a monolingual event, the bilingual status of AL education and the emergent bilingual status of AL learners are too often overlooked. Moreover, the individual trajectories and experiences of learners are neutralized, and at times, problematized, particularly in the case of students from diverse racial and linguistic backgrounds and low socio-economic status. The undoing of the archaic constructs of monolingual-based pedagogies is

dependent upon a focus on multilingualism (see Cenoz & Gorter, 2011), an understanding of the AL learner as a multilingual speaker who employs their full linguistic repertoire to create meaning in various social contexts, and the introduction of a translanguaging instructional design cycle in the AL classroom. Teachers, teacher trainers, curriculum designers, policy makers, and AL students themselves should come to recognize the development of bilingualism as the ultimate goal of AL learning. It is only through the employment of translanguaging in the AL classroom that we can facilitate the over-due multilingual turn in AL education and move towards a holistic understanding of AL learners as emergent bilinguals. In doing so, we engage the *transformative* nature of translanguaging (see Prada & Nikula, 2018; Li Wei & Zhu Hua, 2013) to promote social justice in the classroom, that is, a non-threatening equality between bi-/multi-lingual speakers' languages and associated identities. This is important for AL learning as it "brings together different dimensions of the multilingual speakers' linguistic, cognitive, and social skills, their knowledge and experience of the social world and their attitudes and beliefs" (Li Wei & Zhu Hua, 2013, p. 4; also see García & Leiva, 2014; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009). In the process, we promote equality and harmony between the languages in which learners hold multicompetence and their associated identities, allowing them to draw upon their full linguistic repertoires in developing the TL, to express themselves as individuals, to make meaning of their bilingual worlds, and to learn.

5. Conclusions

The bilingual education arena, as addressed by the work of García and colleagues has pioneered the use of flexible language policies in the classroom. Similarly, in the UK, Creese and Blackledge documented translanguaging in complementary schools in Birmingham, and Canagarajah's work has focused on translanguaging practices in English literacy development. Building on their ideas and those of others, and drawing on our own previous research, this article has presented the potential role, possibilities for implementation, and opportunities for learners that translanguaging may mobilize to facilitate the multilingual turn in the AL classroom. We have focused on *AL teaching and learning*, a concept aimed to encompass but also to transcend the conceptual and philosophical boundaries of FL and L2 education. We understand translanguaging as a metaprocess and view it as fundamental to the reconceptualization of old perspectives, the normalization of bi-/multilingual practices and experiences, and the leveraging of sociolinguistic backgrounds and skills in the classroom and beyond. Three issues were identified as key to the adoption of a translanguaging pedagogy: a need to deforeignize the AL learner (their practices, their identities, and their experiences), to understand translanguaging as (meta)skill (and the ability to engage in meaning-making processes that may align with monolingual patterns but are communicatively purposeful and nuanced), and to understand so called hybrid language forms as emergent (as opposed to the addition of incomplete parts, or strategies to counterbalance semilingualism). The development of translanguaging as a metaskill in AL contexts does not preclude the employment of traditional practices in other contexts, such as the language arts classroom, where monolingualism and monolingual ideologies are perpetuated. Changes in other spaces, however, may occur over time. In developing our argument, we have emphasized the role of existing conceptualizations of being and becoming bi-/multi-lingual in educational contexts. In doing so, we described how standard monolingual ideologies may impede the cultivation of translanguaging in language classrooms.

There is a need for early socialization into models of sociolinguistic behavior that are representative of 21st century global citizenship in our connected world. Global citizenship (Banks, 2014; Lewin, 2010) builds on the normalization of the linguistic practices that are authentic (and ordinary) in globalized societies through the development of multilingual(ly aware) profiles. Consequently, it is important that ideologies underlying the translanguaging perspective permeate language arts curricula and, in the process, promote the value of diverse experiences during the early stages of language education. The multilingual turn (and with it, translanguaging) can only begin to take root as the normative paradigm not only in research but in education when teachers and students normalize the use of diverse repertoires in the language classroom.

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