A TRANSLINGUAL APPROACH AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR L2 WRITING

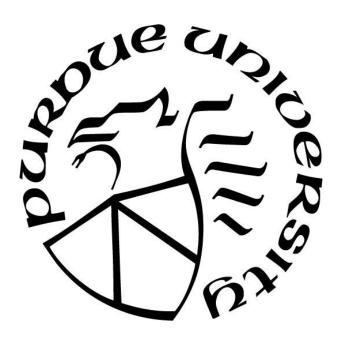by

Yachao Sun

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty of Purdue University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Department of English

West Lafayette, Indiana

May 2020

THE PURDUE UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL
STATEMENT OF COMMITTEE APPROVAL

Dr. Tony Silva, Chair

Department of English

Dr. Margie Berns

Department of English

Dr. Irwin Weiser

Department of English

Dr. April Ginther

Department of English

Approved by:

Dr. Manushag Powell

To my family

and

To those who have inspired me

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my doctoral advisor and dissertation committee chair, Dr. Tony Silva for your consistent and dedicated support and guidance throughout my graduate study and dissertation writing. This work would not have been possible without your persistent help and insightful comments and suggestions. My interest in my dissertation topic, a translingual approach and its implications for L2 writing, initiates from your classes. Your open-minded and rigorous attitude towards academic research has always inspired me to dive deeper and broader into my own study. By attending your classes, talking to you in your office hours, and working with you on research projects, I have benefitted substantially from your extensive knowledge and meticulous research. I am deeply grateful for your time and patience with me.

I would also like to thank the other members in my dissertation committee. Dr. Margie Berns, Dr. Irwin Weiser, and Dr. April Ginther. Thank you, Margie, for all the wonderful parties, which always provide us with relaxed and pleasant moments after the exhausting work of each semester. Your classes about language curriculum and World Englishes inspire me to reconsider language user agency and my own language ideologies, which is one of my initiatives in conducting my dissertation project. Your smile, care, support, and respect have always encouraged and motivated me throughout my graduate study at Purdue. Thank you, Bud, for always being available to, patient with, and helpful for me. You expose me to the theories and practices of composition studies, which opens another door for me to look at my own teaching and research. Your instruction, advice and suggestions have provided me with valuable guidance for my professional development. Thank you, April, for your generous time and patient help whenever I need it. The conversations with you always remind me of the importance of language

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

ABSTRACT

A translingual approach to writing as a new paradigm has been proposed to challenge English monolingualism, question traditional ideas on language difference, advocate for writer agency in shaping their own language, and legitimize additional languages/varieties as resources rather than deficits in the target language teaching, learning, and using. Though these central tenets are broadly valorized, the notion of "translingual" has elicited a number of concerns, such as the partial representation of language mixture ideas in sociolinguistics and second language studies, the pedagogical implications for language learners, the discouragement of discussion about similarities and differences among languages, and the missing discussion of language development. Given these concerns, a translingual approach has not been well-represented in the field of L2 writing.

In this dissertation, I introduced the development of the notion of a translingual approach to writing, summarized its conceptual debates, outlined its practical enactment, conducted a case study to examine a L2 writing process from a translingual approach, and discussed the possibilities and challenges of a translingual approach to L2 writing. To be specific, the notion of a translingual approach to writing has been continually extended by incorporating various concepts, such as a temporal-spatial approach, translation, spatial repertoires, and an ecological approach. This extension has elicited some debates on its conceptualization, e.g., code-switching vs. code-meshing vs. rhetorical sensibility, language competence vs. language performance, a multilingual approach vs. a translingual approach, and a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing. Despite these debates, a translingual approach to writing has been implemented in different contexts (such as EFL, ESL, ENL, and cross-cultural contexts) with different writer

10

groups (e.g., K-12 students, college students, and professional writers) and for different purposes (such as, improving teaching, motivating learning, and being more creative in writing).

The results from the conceptual debate synthesis, enactment summary, and the case study indicated that a translingual approach is possible to benefit L2 writing theoretically, ideologically, and pedagogically. However, the findings also showed the challenges of a translingual approach to L2 writing, such as the confusing definition of "translingual writing" with L2 writing, the resistance of language norms by a translingual approach, and the blurring differences between languages and language users. Hopefully, this dissertation could be a bridge between a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

The study of second language (L2) writing was initiated in the 1950s, increased substantially since the 1990s, and has steadily developed into a burgeoning, multi-faceted, and full-fledged discipline (Silva, 2016). L2 writing embraces any approach that can contribute to the understanding of the phenomenon of writing in a language that is not one's first language; hence, it is defined as "an international and transdisciplinary field of study that is concerned with any issues related to the phenomenon of writing in a language that is acquired later in life. Second language or L2 is a technical term that refers to any language other than the first language." (Atkinson et al., 2015, p. 384). This open definition allows for various approaches to L2 writing, such as the structural linguistic approach (Pincas, 1962), contrastive/intercultural rhetoric (Connor, 2002, 2004; Kaplan, 1966; Leki, 1991), the process approach (Zamel, 1976, 1982, 1983), English for academic purposes (Horowitz, 1986; Hyland, 2002a, 2006; Spack, 1988), the post-process approach (Atkinson, 2003), the genre approach (Hyland, 2002b, 2004, 2007; Jones, 2003; Tardy, 2006), the sociopolitical approach (Casanave, 2003; Severino, 1993), the sociocultural approach (Kong & Pearson, 2003; Yang, 2014), and the sociocognitive approach (Nishino & Atkinson, 2015), and welcomes additional theories, methodologies, and practices relevant to the study of L2 writing.

In the past decade, a new perspective on writing, i.e., a translingual approach, has been discussed in various academic fields, such as Composition Studies (Horner et al., 2011), Applied Linguistics (Canagarajah, 2015), TESOL (Flores & Aneja, 2017), Bilingual Education (Smith et al., 2017), and L2 Writing (Atkinson & Tardy, 2018). Some central tenets of a translingual approach to writing, such as its advocacy for writer agency, heterogeneity as the norm, and its

challenge to monolingualism (Horner et al., 2011), have been widely accepted and enacted in various contexts (e.g., ESL, EFL, and FL contexts) with diverse writer groups (such as ESL learners, Heritage Language learners, and FL learners) for different purposes (e.g., understanding writing practice, improving writing pedagogy, and facilitating teacher training). In the following section, I will introduce the conceptual development of a translingual approach to writing.

1.2. The conceptual development of a translingual approach to writing

The conceptual framework of a translingual approach to writing discussed in the present study is based on two concepts: "translingual approach" and "translingual practice". The fundamental difference between these two concepts is that a translingual approach refers more specifically to pedagogy (see Horner, Lu, Royster, & Trimbur, 2011), while translingual practice refers more generally to language use (e.g., Canagarajah, 2013b). They share alignment on several key points, albeit with the aforementioned difference (which will be discussed later in this chapter).

1.2.1. Translingual approach

A translingual approach to writing advocates for writer agency, language difference as a norm, additional languages/varieties as resources rather than impediments, and a challenge to monolingualism. These main tenets are inspired by the research on the differences in English varieties, such as "Standard" Written English (SWE) and African American Vernacular English (AAVE). (Horner, Lu, Royster, & Trimbur, 2011; Horner & Tetreault, 2017). The 1974 Conference on College Composition and Communication statement, *Students' Right to Their Own Language* (SRTOL), represents one of the early steps in supporting students' use of their own varieties of English in expressing meanings in academic writing. The statement underscores

students' right to apply their own dialects/English varieties to their written products, opposes a deficiency view of English varieties other than the prestigious varieties (such as Edited American English (EAE) or SWE), and legitimizes all English varieties in academic writing. Young (2004) depicts his experiences in teaching composition courses in different contexts and discusses his negotiation of identity conflict based on interactions with one of his African American students. He argues that the study on the differences between SWE and AAVE is not adequate due to the dominance of SWE in academic contexts; he, therefore, suggests considering AAVE as a legitimate resource in academic writing.

A translingual approach to writing is also enlightened by studies in TESOL and L2 writing (Horner & Tetreault, 2017), in which scholars advocate for the use of multilingual students' first language (L1) in their L2 writing process. Silva (1997) proposes an ethical approach to English as a second language (ESL) writers to stress writer agency and opposes a deficit orientation to L2 writing and writers based on the notion of respect. He defines ethics as "a system or code of conduct" (p. 359) and argues that ESL writers need to be respected in at least four basic ways, i.e., "they need to be (a) understood, (b) placed in suitable learning contexts, (c) provided with appropriate instruction, and (d) evaluated fairly." (p. 359). In short, the language and cultural resources that ESL writers bring to classrooms should be treated ethically. Silva, Leki, and Carson (1997) point out the limitations of composition studies and discuss how second language studies (primarily SLA and L2 writing) perspectives can help composition studies avoid being monolingual, monocultural, and ethnocentric and be more inclusive. Matsuda (1999) charts the historical development of ESL writing in composition studies and TESL and identifies a problem: the lack of second language elements (such as L2 writers' needs, learning styles, writing strategies, and their linguistic and cultural differences) in

14

composition studies. He encourages composition specialists to learn about ESL writers and writing, asks composition scholars to consider second language perspectives in their work, and suggests that graduate programs in composition studies incorporate second language writing into their curricula. These studies challenge English monolingualism in composition studies, advocate for an open-minded attitude towards unconventional language use in writing, underscore writer agency in shaping their writing with their own language and cultural resources, regard difference as a resource rather than a deficit, and consider heterogeneity as the norm.

The concept of contact zones (Pratt, 1991) is widely cited in translingual studies to denote the hybridity of languages and cultures for meaning-making and argue for empowering all language users to challenge dominant norms and shape their own language. Pratt (1991) contends that the understanding of languages as discrete, static, and monolithic entities does not reflect real language use in communities and societies; thus, she proposes and defines the term "contact zones" as "social spaces where cultures meet, clash, and grapple with each other, often in contexts of highly asymmetrical relations of power, such as colonialism, slavery, or their aftermaths as they are lived out in many parts of the world today" (p. 34) to highlight heterogeneity as a common feature of human interaction. Based on Pratt's (1991) concept of contact zones, Lu (1994) discusses a multicultural approach to writing. The phrase, "can able to," used by a Malaysian Chinese student in her classroom exemplifies the agentive use of language (Chinese and English) in contact zones. This phrase reflects three conflicting meanings of "can" and "able to" generated from the positions of an English native speaker, a dictionary, and a "foreign" student writer. The English native speakers in her classroom view this structure as an error based on the student's language knowledge; the random house dictionary shows that "can" has one more meaning than "to be able to", i.e., "have permission to"; and the "foreign" student

considers this structure as a rhetorical expression for negotiating and constructing meaning in a specific context through the text. In Lu's (1994) words, this structure connotes "ability from the perspective of external circumstances" (p. 452) and manifests writers' agency in shaping their own language. These studies defend agency for all writers in constructing their own language forms and encourage more negotiation of unconventional language use rather than simply viewing the unconventional language structures as errors or mistakes.

A translingual approach to writing is also informed by the debates on the English Only policy in composition studies. Horner (2001) sees the failure to address language legislation in SRTOL despite its title, *Students' Right to Their Own Language*. He contends that although SRTOL legitimizes English varieties/dialects in writing, it still follows an English Only policy in composition studies. Instead of viewing languages other than the target language as sources of interference, he argues for considering students' preexisting language and cultural knowledge as resources for learning. He states that cognitive approaches that regard language learners as deficient language users and linguistic structural approaches that render unconventional language structures as errors fail to "understand language as material social practice" (p. 742), i.e., language is contingent on purpose, audience, and context rather than fixed linguistic structures. Thus, he calls for increasing awareness of the issue of an English Only policy in composition studies and advocates for students' agency in using their own languages in writing. To challenge the English Only legislation in composition studies, Horner and Trimbur (2002) review the English Only debates in U.S. writing and composition studies and criticize English monolingualism, territorialization, and reification of languages. They argue that English Only or English monolingualism in composition studies fails to respond to the internationalization of writing studies and the dynamics of globalization. Therefore, they appeal for a heterogeneous

and dynamic approach to writing and composition studies. The challenge to English monolingualism in composition studies has become one of main tenets of a translingual approach to writing.

A collection edited by Horner, Lu, and Matsuda (2010) takes a step further towards the challenge to monolingualism in composition studies. The collection is divided into two parts: "Struggling with 'English Only' in Composition" and "Responses to Struggling with 'English Only' in Composition", with nine chapters in each part. In part 1, the nine articles introduce the history of English Only policy in composition studies in the U.S. and discuss its effects on different language groups (such as Chinese and Spanish users) and English variety groups (e.g., African American writers). In Part 2, the nine chapters respond to "English Only" policy and its effects mentioned in the articles in Part 1 by discussing ownership of language, accent as an asset, and language diversity. This edited collection reveals that the English Only policy that has permeated U.S. society and higher education undervalues language and cultural resources that multilingual and multicultural students bring to the classroom and underestimates the complexity and variability of students' language use. In addition, English Only policy, according to the authors, undermines indigenous languages and cultures (such as Native American languages and cultures) through viewing language learners as deficient language users; therefore, they call for resistance to English Only legislation and an open-minded and tolerant attitude toward language diversity in society in general and in higher education in particular.

In line with the study of language and language variety difference, the discussion on contact zones, and the debate on English Only policy, Horner, Lu, Royster, and Trimbur (2011) propose a translingual approach to writing in an opinion article published in *College English*. In this opinion piece, the authors redefine language fluency, proficiency, and competence, align a

translingual approach with ESL, bilingual education, and foreign language instruction, discuss language rights, immigration, and state language policy, and provide implications for writing programs. They propose three central arguments for a translingual approach to writing:

> (1) honoring the power of all language users to shape language to specific ends; (2) recognizing the linguistic heterogeneity of all users of language both within the United States and globally; and (3) directly confronting English monolingualist expectations by researching and teaching how writers can work with and against, not simply within, those expectations. (p. 305)

These three arguments have become the foundational tenets of a translingual approach to writing. Horner, NeCamp, and Donahue (2011) distinguish a monolingual model, a traditional multilingual model, and a translingual model (all of which will be discussed in the following chapter) and call for implementing a translingual approach in composition studies by motivating the learning of additional languages, encouraging individuals, institutions, journals, and conferences to have a more tolerant, open-minded, and patient attitude towards language difference, and urging compositionists to view heterogeneity as the norm of language use.

To further conceptualize a translingual approach, Lu and Horner (2013), based on Pennycook's (2010) study on language practice, propose a temporal-spatial approach to language difference to illustrate writer agency and difference as the norm of language use. They contend that "instead of treating these [language and language users, practices, conventions, and contexts] as discrete, preexisting, stable, and enumerable entities, a temporal-spatial frame treats all of them as always emergent, in process (a state of becoming), and sees their relations as mutually constitutive." (p. 587). This temporal-spatial approach to language difference treats all language use as contingent and synergistic with other elements, such as purposes, interlocutors, topics, and contexts, in different time and space. Therefore, difference is the norm in that language, language user, practice, convention, and context are always fluid in terms of time and

space. Grounded in this temporal-spatial understanding of language difference, they explain writer agency as "manifested not only in those acts of writing that we are disposed to recognize as different from a norm, but also in those acts of writing that are ordinarily recognized as producing simply 'more of the same': conventional, unoriginal, ordinary, conformist." (p. 584-585). From this perspective, writer agency is not only reflected in the language use that deviates from the norms but also represented in every utterance a writer produces. From a similar perspective, Horner and Tetreault (2016) elaborate on difference as the norm in all language use based on the concept of "translation". Instead of understanding translation as finding equivalent meanings between languages that a monolingual approach defines as distinct, static, and unified entities, the authors consider translation as "an inevitable feature of all language practice … insofar as, relocated in time as well as space, such utterances [reiterations of conventional English usages] now more clearly represent a choice by social historically located actors to both contribute to the sedimentation of the conventional and thereby also to recontextualize the conventional." (p. 15). These articles consolidate the concept of a translingual approach from temporal-spatial and translation perspectives and pave the way for the proposal of more tenets for a translingual approach.

In a recent article— the introduction of a special issue on a translingual approach to writing in *College English*— Lu and Horner (2016) recapitulate the crucial tenets of a translingual approach. They state that

> A translingual approach to composition is concerned with how to treat:
> • language (including varieties of Englishes, discourses, media, or modalities) as performative: not something we have but something we do;
> • users of language as actively forming and transforming the very conventions we use and social-historical contexts of use;

• communicative practices as not neutral or innocent but informed by and informing economic, geopolitical, social-historical, cultural relations of asymmetrical power;

• decisions on language use as shaping as well as shaped by the contexts of utterance and the social positionings of the writers, and thus having material consequences on the life and the world we live in;

• difference as the norm of all utterances, conceived of as acts of translation inter and intra languages, media, and modality during seeming iterations of dominant conventions as well as deviations from the norm;

• deliberation over how to tinker with authorized contexts, perspectives, and conventions of meaning making as needed and desired by all users of language, those socially designated as mainstream or minority, native or first, second, foreign speakers, published or student writers;

• all communicative practices as mesopolitical acts, actively negotiating and constituting complex relations of power at the dynamic intersection of the social-historical (macro) and the personal (micro) levels. (p. 208)

In sum, a translingual approach to writing that integrates the ideas from the studies of language/language variety difference, contact zones, English Only debates, and language practice views language use as performative, synergistic, emergent, contingent, ideological, contextual, and an act of translation.

1.2.2. Translingual practice

The term "translingual practice" that underscores the fluid and co-constructive features of semiotic resources (e.g., languages, colors, images, and symbols) in making meanings is mainly developed by Canagarajah (2013b, 2015, 2017, 2018).

The notion of translingual practice develops from Canagarajah's (2002) contentions regarding multilingual writers' critical relationship with the academic community. Canagarajah (2002) discusses the strengths and limitations of different pedagogical approaches in English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) in answering how multilingual writers should treat the relationship between their own vernacular communities and the academic community. He argues

that an English for academic purposes (EAP) approach that views the academic community as homogeneous with distinctive discourse features asserts boundaries between multilingual writers' vernacular communities and the academic community, which does not welcome the unconventional use of language and constrains the use of resources outside the academic community. The contrastive rhetoric (CR) approach that treats multilingual writers' language and cultural resources in academic contexts with more tolerance and appreciation respects the boundaries between vernacular and academic communities. However, CR that views cultures as in static and homogeneous communities restricts the possibilities of crossing the community boundaries albeit its respect for difference. The third approach that the author discusses is a social process (SP) approach. SP asserts that "the notions of truth or knowledge are not grounded in an underlying material reality … From this perspective, no discursive paradigm of any group can make a superior claim to truth." (p. 36). Therefore, any resources from any community can be used to move across community boundaries.

Nevertheless, SP, like EAP and CR, regards the discourses of communities as discrete, which underestimates the complexity of multilingual writers and communities. The transculturation model (TM) advocates merging boundaries to allow multilingual writers to make the most use of their vernacular resources in academic contexts; however, TM ignores power relations (such as a strict gate-keeping policy in scholarly publication) in academic practices. Finally, Canagarajah (2002) discusses the contact zones approach, which is proposed by Pratt (1991) and practiced by Lu (1994), to appropriate boundaries through "negotiating power while retaining the agency of writers to cross boundaries" (p. 39). The author concludes that the academic community should allow multilingual students to shuttle between communities and empower them with agency in using their own language, social, cultural, and ideological

resources in academic contexts. These ideas build a foundation for the conceptualization of translingual practice.

The idea of shuttling between communities has been further construed by discussing the negotiation between languages. Canagarajah (2006b) questions the monolingual approach to multilingual writing in that it "conceive[s] literacy as a unidirectional acquisition of competence, preventing us from fully understanding the resources multilinguals bring to their texts" (p. 589). Instead, he proposes a negotiation model to focus on the study of the movement of multilingual writers between languages, the process of writing in different languages, the resources from multilingual writers' own languages and cultures, the appropriation of resources for the contextual change, and the multilingual writers' agency in shuttling between discourses to reach their communicative goals. The author analyzes and compares introductions in research articles written in Tamil and English by a senior professor in Sri Lanka for local and international publications. He argues that what makes the greatest difference in the texts is not language or culture but the rhetorical context; therefore, multilingual writers should be allowed to use multiple rather than only the dominant language and cultural resources for achieving their communicative objectives in different rhetorical contexts.

Similarly, based on the debates on the dichotomies between grammar and pragmatics, determinism and agency, individual and community, purity and hybridity, fixity and fluidity, cognition and context, monolingual and multilingual acquisition in second language acquisition (SLA) studies, Canagarajah (2007) proposes a practice-based model to redefine language acquisition. He contends that language and language use are performative, emergent, and contingent; thus, "[l]anguage acquisition is based on performance strategies, purposive uses of the language, and interpersonal negotiations in fluid communicative contexts." (p. 936). These

studies challenge the constructs of form, cognition, and the individual in writing and SLA studies and underscore the negotiation between languages and language users in meaning-making in the continuously changing social and ecological context.

The idea of negotiation between languages has been developed into the meshing of codes for making meanings. Canagarajah (2006a) discusses the place of World Englishes (WE) in composition to challenge monolingualism and advocates for pluralizing academic writing and developing "polydialectal competence — i.e., familiarity with standard varieties, expert use of local variants, and the rhetorical strategies of switching" (p. 602). He defends the hybrid use of WE and SWE as a legitimate way for voice in academic writing by exemplifying and discussing the textual and pedagogical possibilities of merging AAVE with SWE for academic purposes. He calls this hybrid use of English varieties code meshing and explains that "[t]hough code meshing was used in rhetoric as a high-brow activity (i.e., inserting Greek or Latin without translation into English texts), [he is] presenting this notion as a popular communicative strategy in multilingual communities and developing it even for cases outside such elite bilingualism." (p. 598).

To further elaborate the term "codemeshing", Canagarajah (2009) analyses multilingual strategies of negotiating differences and discusses how conversational strategies can apply to writing. The strategies that he mentions include: multilinguals co-construct intersubjective norms (norms constructed by multilinguals during their conversation) for communication, multilinguals communicate through hybrid codes (such as languages and language varieties), multilinguals are consensus-oriented and supportive, multilinguals exploit ecology (such as physical environment, social context, gestures, and multimodal resources) for meaning-making, and that for multilinguals, language use and language learning are interconnected. Based on the analysis of a literacy narrative by one of his students, Buthainah, the author discusses how these strategies

provide implications for writing. Specifically, the agentive use of Arabic, English, and emoticons in Buthainah's writing reflects the importance of viewing languages other than the dominant one as resources rather than impediments and encouraging students to use their multilingual and multimodal resources for academic purposes. He, therefore, argues that codemeshing is not only multilingual but also multimodal (employing visual, aural, and tactile modalities). He concludes this article with a call for reconsidering errors, valuing multilingual strategies, writer agency in shaping their own language, and reader patience and tolerance of language difference in academic writing.

The idea of meshing of codes for oral communication, usually called "translanguaging" (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García, 2009; García & Li, 2014) in bilingual education, has been discussed for use in writing studies. Canagarajah (2011b) summarizes the main assumptions of translanguaging, i.e., languages are not discrete but integrated in a repertoire; languages are just a part of one's repertoire; multilingual competence grows out of the negotiation of multiple languages; competence does not consist of separate competences for each language but a multicompetence for all languages in one's repertoire; and multilingual proficiency is the ability to appropriate different languages in various rhetorical situations rather than the total mastery of separate languages. He claims that translanguaging has the potential to apply to writing studies despite its main focus on conversation. Through a further analysis of Buthainah's (the student that Canagarajah mentions in several of his articles) hybrid use of languages (such as English, Arabic, and French) and visual symbols (such as motif (⌒◯⌒ ◯⌒ ◯⌒)), emoticon (☺), and elongation (doon't)), he argues that translanguaging provides a holistic understanding for multilinguals' writing through viewing all codes or semiotic resources as in one's systemic repertoire for voice.

Canagarajah (2011a) refers to translanguaging as "the general communicative competence of multilinguals" and codemeshing as "the realization of translanguaging in texts" (p. 403) and provides pedagogical strategies for translanguaging in writing, i.e., recontextualization strategies, voice strategies, interactional strategies, and textualization strategies. Again, based on Buthainah's use, negotiation, and reflection of semiotic resources in writing, he elucidates these four strategies. He states that recontextualization strategies— "gauging the congeniality of the context for codemeshing and shaping ecology to favor one's multilingual practices"— help multilinguals prepare the ground for negotiating difference by taking audience, genre, and purpose into consideration; voice strategies— "basing communication on one's own positionality and making textual spaces for one's linguistic strengths and resources"— empower multilinguals with agency in deciding the way and extent of code meshing based on their personal interests and identities; international strategies— "negotiating meaning on an equal footing with readers and helping them negotiate effectively"— facilitate multilinguals co-construction of meanings with their readers; and textualization strategies— "orientating to the text as a multimodal social practice and adopting process-oriented composing strategies for effective text development"— motivate multilinguals to adopt different resources (such as languages and visual models) for different purposes in different contexts (p. 404). Although these studies attempt to put more focus on the process of multilinguals' use of various semiotic resources in writing, the research on codemeshing and translanguaging are mainly product-based.

To move the focus from product to process, the term "translingual practice" is proposed to explicate the process of meaning-making. Canagarajah (2013b) theorizes translingual practice by discussing and comparing different emergent theoretical orientations (such as integrationist

linguistics, the school of language ideology, the contact zones perspective, communities of practice, dynamic systems theory, and the sociocognitive perspective). He states that the term translingual practice highlights hybridity, fluidity, and diversity in the process of meaning-making. Canagarajah (2015) argues that translingual practice "perceives a synergy between languages which generates new grammar and meanings … transcends individual languages, and goes beyond language itself to include diverse modalities and semiotic systems … reminds us that language and meaning are always in a process of becoming, not located in static grammatical structures." (p. 419). In short, translingual practice is a synergistic, emergent, contingent, and adaptive behavior for individuals to align themselves with the everchanging social and ecological world.

Canagarajah (2018) defines translingual practice as spatial repertoires. He modifies Pennycook and Otsuji's (2015) concept of spatial repertoires— "link[ing] the repertoires formed through individual life trajectories to the particular places in which these linguistic resources are deployed." (p. 83)— "to move spatial repertoires beyond the methodological individualism, human agency, and verbal resources the definition favors. Spatial repertoires may not be brought already to the activity by the individual but assembled *in situ*, and in collaboration with others, in the manner of distributed practice." (p. 37, emphasis in original). This modified definition of spatial repertoires denotes that repertoires are not what individuals bring to the particular places in response to corresponding activities but are synergistically, contingently, and emergently constructed by the assemblage of individual life trajectories, related others, and the temporal-spatial elements (such as time, space, surrounding environments, and physical materials). He argues that languages as mobile signifiers are always situated in specific time and space for particular activities; as he states that

> Words are mobile signifiers located in space and time. How they gain meaning and grammatical status is explained by the processes of indexicality … Indexicality is a spatiotemporal process, as meanings sediment over time to develop grammatical status and norms. However, these norms have to be kept open to change as words participate with other semiotic assemblages to construct meaning. (p. 34-35)

In this sense, language has its own norms which are sedimented over time, but the norms are not fixed in that language always co-constructs meaning with other resources in different time and space. These ideas show that the current notion of translingual practice, in a manner of speaking, highlights the significance of spatial materials and diminishes or decentralizes the roles of language and human agency in meaning-making.

To sum up, the conceptualization of translingual practice develops from Canagarajah's contentions regarding multilingual writers' critical relationship with the academic community, negotiation between languages, codemeshing in transnational relationships, and translanguaging. In short, the notion of translingual practice evolves from negotiation between languages to meshing of codes and then to the assemblage of spatial repertoires.

1.3. Summary

Although these two concepts, translingual approach and translingual practice, have their own historical trajectories of conceptual development, there are overlaps between their main tenets. Horner (2018) outlines the alignment among the alternative concepts (such as translingual approach, translingual practice, translingualism, translanguaging, code-meshing, and transliteracy) to the monolingualist ideology in six key points:

> First, they signal the presence of more than one language as the norm of communicative rather situations. Second, they signal the fluidity of the defining identities and relations among these languages. Third, they position language use as entailing the mixing and changing of different languages, and, fourth, and relatedly, they grant agency to language users to do so, than seeing such mixing and changing as evidence of linguistic failure, incompetence, or threat. Fifth, they

27

posit the identities of not only individual languages but also individual language users as fluid. Finally, they locate language not outside material social history but in material social practices as the always emerging outcome of language practices rather than the universals against which language practices are to be measured … . (Horner, 2018, pp. 78-79)

In a nutshell, these concepts are proposed in response to the rapid development of globalization in language studies; therefore, they accentuate the normal presence of language difference, underscore the contingent and emergent features of language, advocate for a more open-minded and tolerant attitude towards language difference, question the monolingual paradigm in language teaching and research, and view additional languages as resources rather than impediments in teaching, learning, and using a target language. Given their alignment, the term, "translingual approach", is selected in the present study to indicate the shared critical points among these terms. A "translingual approach" rather than other terms (such as translingualism, translingual practice, and translinguality) is used because (i) it is mainly applied to discuss writing phenomena, and (ii) it is only one of a number of approaches to writing studies rather than an umbrella framework to understand all writing phenomena.

1.4. Overview of Chapters

Before ending this introductory chapter, I would like to briefly outline the major chapters of this dissertation. This dissertation consists of seven chapters. The first chapter, Introduction, describes the conceptual development of a translingual approach to writing studies. The second chapter, Research Gap and Research Questions, depicts the current issues of a translingual approach to writing, provides the research questions, and illustrates the significance of the current study. The third chapter, Methodology, introduces in detail how the data were collected and analyzed for the current study. Chapter Four, Five, and Six report on results of the conceptual review, the empirical studies synthesis, and a case study, respectively. Chapter Seven

discusses the possibilities and challenges of a translingual approach to L2 writing based on the

results in Chapter Four, Five, and Six and summarizes the major findings of the current study.

CHAPTER TWO: RESEARCH GAP AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The translingual tenets introduced in the previous chapter provide writing researchers and practitioners with implications for reconsidering writing norms and the relationship between the dominant language and other languages in writing instruction and research, for example, conventional norms are not presupposed and fixed but socially constructed and always open to change, writing researchers and practitioners should be more open-minded and tolerant towards students' unconventional language use in academic writing, and languages other than the target language are resources rather than impediments in writing. Although these main tenets of a translingual approach are widely valorized, they have generated a number of concerns.

2.1. Statement of the Problem

The valorization of a translingual approach to language studies has elicited concerns and questions, about such issues as the misunderstanding of the relationship between a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing. For example, Matsuda (2014) points out that the concept of "translingual writing" is not always fully understood, and some scholars use it "not for its intellectual value but for its valorized status." (p. 479). He argues that the term "translingual writing" mainly refers to ideas such as "English monolingualism is prevalent and problematic, the presence of language differences is normal and desirable, languages are neither discrete nor stable; they are dynamic and negotiated, and practicing translingual writing involves the negotiation of language differences." (p. 479); and that these ideas that have long been discussed in descriptive linguistics, historical linguistics, and sociolinguistics are loosely connected and "not fully or accurately represented in the discussion of translingual writing" (p. 479). Similarly, Severino (2017) contends that a translingual approach to writing that borrows ideas from second

language acquisition and second language writing often conflates a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing. For instance, Tannenbaum (2014) defines "translingual writing" as "writing in a language different from one's mother tongue" (p. 99), which is usually how L2 writing is defined. Through investigating her learning processes when writing in Spanish (advanced level) and in Chinese (beginning level), Severino (2017) stresses the importance of different degrees of language differences and individual proficiency levels, which are often ignored in discussions of translingual approaches to writing in a second language.

A translingual approach to language studies also causes concerns due to its flattening of language differences— languages are different in the same temporal-spatial way, i.e., languages are different because they are always used in different time and spaces (Gilyard, 2016). After introducing codemeshing and a translingual approach and analyzing the texts of Jamaican multilingual students in U.S. classrooms, Milson-Whyte (2013) posits her three concerns about a translingual approach in multilingual contexts, i.e., "problems regarding valorizing, yet not legitimizing, minoritized languages; problems arising from language users' inability to code-switch effectively; and the potential for ignoring sameness and difference while attempting to address difference in language use" (p. 115). The ignoring of sameness and difference while addressing language differences is called "sameness of difference" (p. 286) or "the flattening of language differences" by Gilyard (2016, p. 284). Gilyard (2016) argues that viewing language as an abstraction flattens language differences and further prevents critical and informed discussions on language similarities and differences.

Another concern is the ignoring of power relations and social inequality in translingual studies. Flores (2013) and Kubota (2016) criticize the hybrid turn (hybridity used here is very similar with translingualism) in TESOL and applied linguistics, stating that this turn "paralleled"

31

the ascendance of neoliberalism. Flores (2013) contends that this turn serves political and economic purposes and erases the language history of nation-states and subaltern societies. He appeals for more attention to power relations and social inequality in TESOL at both institutional and individual levels. Kubota (2016) argues that this turn espouses plurality, hybridity, and fluidity while ignoring marginality, inequality, and linguistic imperialism. She considers the "plural" or "trans" turn as the celebration of "neoliberal multiculturalism", which valorizes "individualism, difference-blindness, and elitist cosmopolitanism rather than critical acknowledgement of power" (p. 487). She cautions that, "[c]oncepts such as hybridity and cosmopolitanism can undermine the positive effects of rootedness to form local solidarity among minoritized groups, and instead promote neoliberal capitalism" (pp. 482-483). Kubota (2016) also calls for increased attention to power relations and social inequality in applied linguistics.

It has been suggested that the use of the term "translingual" to represent existing ideas might exacerbate rather than mitigate the disciplinary division of labors. Matsuda (2013, 2014), Severino (2017), and Tardy (2017) argue that most ideas related to a translingual approach (e.g., the challenge to English monolingualism, the view of languages as resources, and multimodalities, etc.) are not new in multilingual studies, and the use of a neologism for established ideas is predisposed to hamper the understanding of an issue from relevant disciplinary perspectives, which might not bridge divides but exacerbate disciplinary divisions (e.g., between Composition Studies and L2 Writing). Matsuda (2014) cautions that "[i]nflating a term and concept has serious consequences —the term can lose its descriptive and explanatory power, leading to the trivialization and eventual dismissal of the concept. Overextending a term makes it vulnerable to co-option by contrary ideological positions" (p. 478).

In addition to the conceptual concerns mentioned above, how a translingual approach could facilitate L2 writing learning and teaching is also questioned. Ferris (2014) reviews three books, i.e., *Cross-Language Relations in Composition* (Horner, Lu, & Matsuda, 2010); *Shaping Language Policy in the U.S.* (Wible, 2013); and *Writing in the Devil's Tongue* (You, 2010) to discuss the policy, philosophy, and practice of "English Only" and multilingualism in composition studies. She contends that these three books shared philosophical ideas in challenging the problematic nature of monolingualism, but that they lack pedagogical implications for teachers' classroom practice. In an open letter to writing studies editors and organization leaders published in *College English*, Atkinson et al. (2015) clarify the relationship between L2 writing and "translingual writing" by delineating their overlaps and distinctions and present their concerns about "translingual writing" in preparing students to survive and thrive in their social and academic lives. In line with these pedagogical concerns, Matsuda (2014) warns that a translingual approach to writing that pursues interesting examples for intellectual curiosity might result in "linguistic tourism"—a fascination with the unknown and the selection of attractive but unrepresentative linguistic features— in teaching and learning an additional language.

Translingual pedagogies also generate questions about language development. Gevers (2018) revisits translingualism, discusses the pedagogical and ideological limitations of a translingual approach to writing, and argues that writing instructors and teacher-scholars who are interested in translingual pedagogies have to take the different developmental features of spoken and written forms into consideration. Atkinson and Tardy (2018) discuss their understandings of SLW and its relationship with translingualism and written corrective feedback (WCF). In their conversation, they stress the roles of language in the learning and teaching of writing and

highlight students' needs and desire for learning the dominant norms. They convey their worries about the lack of attention given to language development in translingual pedagogies addressing multilingual student writers. By tracking the transition of Latina/o multilingual students from high school to college/university, Ruecker (2014) also warns that translingual pedagogies might delay meeting students' needs in learning a privileged standardized variety of English.

The current discussions of a translingual approach to writing can be divided into two camps: one for it and one against it. Scholars support a translingual approach to writing for its challenge to monolingualism, its advocacy for writer agency, its defense of languages other than the target language as resources rather than interferences, and its promotion of viewing difference as the norm. Other scholars are concerned about it because of its conflation with L2 writing, its flattening of language differences, its ignoring of power relations and social inequality, its exacerbation of disciplinary division, its weak pedagogical implications for language learners, and its lack of a discussion of language development in the learning and teaching of writing. Although some articles have discussed how translingual perspectives could help L2 writing (such as Donahue, 2016; and Horner, 2018), translingualism, as Atkinson and Tardy (2018) note, has not been well-represented in the field of L2 writing. Under these circumstances, a comprehensive review and synthesis of translingual studies on writing and an examination of the writing process from a translingual perspective is reasonable and necessary. This has motivated me to conduct a study to scrutinize the conceptual and practical development of a translingual approach to writing and investigate whether it could benefit L2 writing practice and pedagogy.

2.2. Research Questions

A translingual approach to writing, as mentioned in the previous section, has elicited many concerns and questions with regard to its conceptualization and pedagogical implications. Evidence has been provided on each side to suggest how a translingual approach could facilitate or undermine multilingual students' writing. The question, however, is whether some ideas from a translingual approach to a certain extent can help multilingual/L2 students' writing without failing to address their needs and interests? This question should be answered because it can help mitigate the misunderstandings between translingual approaches to writing and L2 writing (e.g., confusing "translingual writing" with L2 writing (Tannenbaum, 2014), viewing L2 writing as "ghettoized" (Canagarajah, 2013c), "isolationist, and protectionist" (Canagarajah, 2015), and considering SLW as "standard language writing" rather than second language writing (Atkinson & Tardy, 2018)), and be a bridge between a translingual approach and L2 writing. In an effort to answer this question, the present study is guided by the following research questions:

1. How a translingual approach to writing has been conceptually discussed?
2. How a translingual approach to writing has been practically enacted?
3. What are the challenges and possibilities of a translingual approach to L2 writing?

2.3. Significance of the Study

The present study has potential theoretical and practical significance. Theoretically, the present study, to the best of my knowledge, is the first study that comprehensively analyzes the conceptual debates of a translingual approach to writing and reviews its enactment in various contexts with diverse writer groups and for different research purposes. Despite the fact that translingual studies continually appear with the aim of developing and refining translingual concepts (such as translingual practice (Canagarajah, 2013, 2018), translingual pedagogy

(Horner et al., 2011; Lu & Horner, 2016), translingualism (Canagarajah, 2015; Jordan, 2015), and translinguality (Horner & Tetreault, 2016)), they primarily respond to specific concerns (such as disciplinarity of writing fields (Horner, 2018), confusing definitions with L2 writing (Canagarajah, 2015; Donahue, 2016; Lu & Horner, 2016), and the scarcity of pedagogical implications (Horner & Tetreault, 2017)). As far as I know, there are no studies that yet provide an overview of the overall conceptual debate surrounding translingual perspectives and their enactment.

Practically, the present study will provide writing practitioners who are interested in a translingual approach to writing with a picture of its conceptual development and pedagogical implications. This picture can help them learn the main tenets of and major concerns about a translingual approach to writing when considering practicing it in their own contexts with their own students and for their own teaching goals. The present study examines two PhD students' conference proposal writing processes from a translingual perspective. Conference proposal writing is a genre which most scholars and graduate students have to familiarize themselves with to survive and thrive in academia. As far as I know, however, there are not any studies that explore how translingual perspectives could affect (positively or negatively) the process of proposal writing for academic conferences. The present study provides scholars and practitioners with a different angle (conference proposal writing) from which to understand translingual approach to writing.

For writing practitioners who are confused about the difference between a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing, the present study will contribute to the clarification of the difference between the two by discussing issues regarding theory and practice in a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing, e.g., their conceptual foundations and pedagogical

implications. The present study will also contribute to L2 writing studies by discussing how a translingual approach can enrich L2 writing practice and pedagogy. For example, a translingual approach might bring about more ideological discussion, motivate more negotiation of unconventional language use, and encourage more use of oral genres for written genres in L2 writing practice and pedagogy.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Synthesis

The research tool that I apply for answering the first two research questions is research synthesis. Research synthesis (Cooper, Hedges, & Valentine, 2009; Johnson, 2017; Norris & Ortega, 2006; Riazi et al., 2018) can provide an overview of a given domain by integrating and analyzing related studies and enhance the understanding of the domain (Cooper, Hedges, & Valentine, 2009; Norris & Ortega, 2000, 2006). In L2 writing, research synthesis has been applied as an analytical tool to identify the trends of L2 writing studies and discuss its future directions. Prior syntheses, such as Silva, (1990); Matsuda (2003); Leki, Cumming, & Silva (2008); Pelaez-Morales (2017); and Riazi et al. (2018), have consolidated an understanding of L2 writing from theoretical, methodological, and ideological perspectives. Therefore, a synthesis of the conceptual and practical development of a translingual approach to writing can provide an overview and help comprehend the difference between a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing.

3.1.1. Study selection

Conceptual and empirical studies were searched and selected, respectively, to answer the first two research questions. This collection of studies, by no means exhaustive, was located by using online databases (such as Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA)), Google Scholar, and various journals and books. The studies were located through the following combination of keywords: writing, translingualism, translinguality, translingual approach, translingual practice, transcultural literacy, transliteracy, and translanguaging. Although these terms have different connotations,

they share alignment on some critical points, as mentioned in chapter 1.3. Due to my resource availability and language ability, the unpublished articles and studies written in languages other than English were not included in the present study. Works focusing on conceptual discussions on a translingual approach to writing were synthesized and analyzed to answer the first research question. Empirical studies on a translingual approach to writing were reviewed and discussed to answer the second research question. Through initial review, further screening, and careful reading, the conceptual and empirical studies were categorized separately to identify the trends in how a translingual approach to writing has been discussed conceptually and enacted practically. Some studies (such as Canagarajah, 2013a; Severino, 2017) were included in the reviews and analyses of both conceptual and empirical categories because they make both conceptual and empirical contributions to a translingual approach to writing.

3.1.2. Coding procedures

The conceptual studies were coded based on the current debates on a translingual approach to writing, i.e., code-switching vs. code-meshing vs. rhetorical sensibility, language competence vs. language performance, a multilingual approach vs. a translingual approach, and a translingual approach to writing vs. L2 writing. I firstly divided the conceptual studies into corresponding category of debate based on their central arguments. Then, I compared the studies in different categories to find out their consensus and disagreements. Next, I identified the patterns and trends in how a translingual approach to writing has been conceptually discussed in each category. Last, I summarized the conceptual discussions on a translingual approach to writing based on the findings from all categories.

The empirical studies were first coded based on the contexts, including macro-contexts (countries or regions) and micro-contexts (courses or genres), in which the studies were

39

conducted. Then, the studies were categorized based on the participants, including the participants' educational status (such as learners and instructors) and educational levels (such as K-12, undergraduate, and graduate students), which the studies involved. Next, the empirical studies were coded based on their research foci, such as instruction, writing practice, writer agency and identity, and the relationships between writing, reading, and speaking. Last, the trends of the enactment of a translingual approach to writing were summarized based on the findings from all categories.

3.2. A Case Study

The research tool that I adopted to answer the third research question is a case study. A case study was used to examine a translingual approach to writing because it is a methodological approach "in which the investigator explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) [bounded by time and place] or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection …, and reports a case description and case themes." (Creswell, 2013, p. 97).

3.2.1. Participants

Two doctoral students at a large Midwestern university in the U.S. were invited to participate in the current study. Mary and Jake (pseudonyms) were part of the same year doctoral cohort, both were from Mainland China, and both spoke Mandarin as their L1. Mary earned her B.A. and M.A. in Chinese universities, and at the time of collecting data, she was in her second year in her Ph.D. program. Her main research interest was in language testing. Jake earned both his B.A. (two years in China, two years in the U.S.) and M.A. in another American university, and he was pursuing his doctorate in the same program with Mary. His main research interests

included corpus linguistics and natural language processing. Both Mary and Jake's B.A. and M.A. were English related degrees. Jake had been working as a writing instructor for about two years at the university, and Mary had worked as a writing instructor for one year and then worked as a testing assistant for a professor in an oral language proficiency program for another year. Before being in the same year cohort, they had never met each other. When asked about their writing styles, Mary stated that she was a visual person, liked tangible things, preferred supportive and solid proof instead of discussing abstract concepts, and liked to plan everything ahead before writing; Jake said that he had been learning English for more than 15 years, at least 5 of which in the American higher education context, so he was used to writing in English, and he was more comfortable writing academic papers rather than narratives.

3.2.2. Context

Mary and Jake were both interested in quantitative studies. Because of their interest in combining language testing and corpus linguistics, Jake invited Mary to work together on a research project pertinent to data-driven learning (DDL) and stance adverbials— the adverbials that express stances (such as perhaps, clearly, frankly, and sadly). This was the second research project they cooperated on. They had been working on this project for around four months and were composing a proposal for a submission to an academic conference. All the research materials were stored in both Mary's and Jake's laptops. Asked about why they decided to collaborate again on a new project, Mary said that, first, she was also interested in corpus linguistics; second, they had experience working together; third, the topic was in their "comfort zone"; fourth, they had to do research in grad school; and fifth, Jake's educational, social, cultural, language background as well as personality facilitated their collaborative research and writing. Jake reported that, first, they were both interested in quantitative studies, so it's easier

41

for them to communicate; second, Mary's expertise in language testing could facilitate their research; third, they were familiar with each other not only in academic but also in social life; and fourth, they were at the same stage in their academic careers.

3.2.3. Data collection

The proposal composing process lasted three weeks with Mary and Jake holding three face-to-face writing sessions on three consecutive Saturday afternoons. The data for the present study was collected during their three face-to-face meetings. In their first meeting, they planned the proposal, in Jake's words "an outline", and in Mary's term "a skeleton". In their second meeting, they drafted the proposal, and in their third meeting, they revised the proposal. They decided to meet on Saturday around 2 p.m. in the grad lab of the department of English. The lab housed computers, chairs, tables, printers, scanners, a TV, and a couple of books. Because they met on weekends, there were no other students in the lab. After each meeting, they would improve the draft on weekdays through Google Docs separately to prepare for the next meeting. After the third meeting, they told me that they would not meet any more for composing the proposal; they might fix some subtle issues online, but they would not have more face-to-face meetings.

Since they had worked on this project for four months and had previous collaborative experience, their collaboration for composing the proposal was efficient and productive. Each meeting lasted for 25-35 minutes. All three meetings were video- and audio-recorded for research purposes. To triangulate data, a stimulated recall interview with each participant was conducted in English by watching the video as a stimulus immediately after each writing session as their memory was still fresh. The videos unraveled the participants' language performance, and the stimulated recall interviews uncovered their language competence, identity, and

ideology. The stimulated recall interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. Since the

participants interacted with each other in the writing sessions in both Mandarin and English, the

interviews were conducted in English on purpose for examining their language competence and

investigating how they used language resources in different contexts with different interlocutors

for different purposes. The drafts of their academic conference proposal in three meetings were

also collected. The data were categorized into (1) textual documents: three drafts of the proposal;

(2) video documents: the three videos recorded during the three writing sessions; and (3) audio

documents: the six audio files recorded during the stimulated recall interviews.

3.2.4. Data Analysis

The participants' use of language resources (Mandarin and English) in their conference

proposal writing process was analyzed by processing the video, audio, and textual documents.

First, I transcribed the video recordings from the three meetings and counted the numbers of

Mandarin and English words that the participants used in different meetings. Mandarin was

counted based on words rather than characters. For example, 写作 (writing), with two Chinese

characters, was one Chinese word instead of two words. Second, I identified the patterns of their

use of different language resources based on the video-recordings. Third, audio-recordings were

transcribed and analyzed based on their interpretation of their language performance,

competence, and ideology. Fourth, the coded data from both the video- and audio- recordings

were grouped into recurrent patterns. Fifth, the coded data from both video and audio files were

analyzed together with participants' three proposal drafts. In order to validate the comprehension

of the data, the coded data were written out and sent to each participant for review to make sure

that their responses were understood and represented accurately. To ensure the confidentiality of

data, a pseudonym was used to refer to each participant. Any identifiable information related to

the participants that occurred in their responses, such as the official names of their program, institution, etc. were deleted or replaced with pseudonyms. The use of video, audio, and textual data was consented to by the two participants. The video and audio recordings from the three meetings, the six interview recordings, and the three proposal drafts were stored in password-protected devices, and so was the data analysis of the present study.

3.3. Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I described the research methods of the present study. Research synthesis was used as an analytical tool to respond to the first two research questions, and a case study was adopted to answer the third research question. Data were collected from both a secondary research source (research synthesis) and a primary research source (case study). Data analysis featured the conceptual discussions, practical enactment, and two doctoral students' language use, identity, and ideology. The next chapter will be devoted to answering the first research question: how a translingual approach to writing has been conceptually discussed? The following chapter introduces and discusses the current debates on a translingual approach to writing, such as code-switching (Matsuda, 2013) vs. codemeshing (Canagarajah, 2011a, 2013b) vs. rhetorical sensibility (Guerra, 2016; Leonard & Nowacek, 2016), language performance (Lu & Horner, 2013, 2016) vs. language competence (Gilyard, 2016), a multilingual approach (Severino, 2017; Tardy, 2017) vs. a translingual approach (Horner, NeCamp, & Donahue, 2011; Horner & Tetreault, 2017), and translingual writing (Canagarajah, 2013c, 2015, 2016) vs. L2 writing (Atkinson et al., 2015; Matsuda, 2014; Williams & Condon, 2016).

CHAPTER FOUR: THE CURRENT DEBATES ON A TRANSLINGUAL APPROACH TO WRITING

A translingual approach has been discussed in different research areas of writing, such as basic writing (Horner, 2011), the genre approach to writing (Bawarshi, 2016), writing assessment (Dryer, 2016; Lee, 2016), reading and writing (Trimbur, 2016), language ideology and policies in writing (Kilfoil, 2015), writing and transfer (Leonard & Nowacek, 2016), writing teacher training (Canagarajah, 2016; Flores & Aneja, 2017), Writing across the Curriculum (WAC)/Writing in the Disciplines (WIC) (Horner, 2018), and L2 writing (Atkinson et al., 2015; Severino, 2017). With this increasing interest, the notion of translingualism that follows postmodern, poststructural, and postcolonial theories has been widely discussed to question the traditional understandings of language, language difference, language use, language user, and context and advocate for blurring their boundaries due to their synergistic, emergent, and contingent features in meaning-making. The extension of the notion of translingualism has elicited some debates. The following sub-sections will introduce these debates.

4.1. Code-switching, codemeshing, and rhetorical sensibility

The debate on code-switching, codemeshing, and rhetorical sensibility reflects the development of the notion of a translingual approach to writing. The term code-switching is usually used in sociolinguistic studies to indicate the interaction between languages, language varieties, or speech styles (Hymes, 1974), between interlocutors who share the same multilingual background (Baker & Jones, 1998), or between multilingual and multimodal speaking and writing (Sebba, 2013). From a sociolinguistic perspective, selecting one language or language variety over the other indexes the communicative context (such as the speaker, the audience,

their statuses, and the purpose), in which multilinguals or monolinguals use their language, gestural, or prosodic resources to indicate their emotions, affects, and identities (Gumperz, 1982; Ochs, 1990). Therefore, code-switching is not only used to illustrate the phenomenon of language use between multilinguals but also applied to interpret conversation between monolinguals according to the social relationship between the speaker and the interlocutor in the corresponding context (Sebba & Wootton, 1998). The concept of code-switching is also used to understand different groups of "translinguals" (Kellman, 2000, 2003), such as "ambilinguals"— writers who write in more than one language and "monolingual translinguals"—writers who write in a single language but not their first language (Kellman, 2000, p. 12).

Code-switching that assumes languages or language varieties are linguistic entities with presupposed rules in separate language systems has been criticized by scholars who advocate for codemeshing, also written as code meshing or code-meshing (see Canagarajah, 2006a; and Young, 2004). Codemeshing was first used by Young (2004) to legitimize the use of English varieties (such as AAVE) in academic writing. He, as his article exhibits, exemplifies the hybrid use of English varieties (SWE and AAVE) in both social and academic contexts and argues that code switching that advocates for using one variety (such as SWE) in school and the other (such as AAVE) at home does not reveal the language use in real life. He, hence, proposes the term codemeshing and contends that "true linguistic and identity integration would mean allowing students to … combine dialects, styles, and registers" and that codemeshing "means allowing black students to mix a black English style with an academic register … This technique not only links literacy to black culture, it meshes them together in a way that's more in line with how people actually speak and write." (p. 713). From this perspective, English varieties or registers or

styles are always combined for meaning-making; therefore, the nondominant varieties or registers should be legitimized in any contexts, including the academic one.

The idea of codemeshing has been further developed by Canagarajah (2006a, 2009, 2011a, 2013a) and Young (2007, Young & Martínez, 2011) to advocate for the merging of codes in written products. As opposed to code-switching, codemeshing presupposes that languages exist in a single integrated system for meaning negotiation and construction. Canagarajah (2013a) defines codemeshing as "a form of writing in which multilinguals merge their diverse language resources with the dominant genre conventions to construct hybrid texts for voice" (p. 40). To provide pedagogical implications for codemeshing, Canagarajah (2013a) revises the four strategies (i.e., recontextualization strategies, voice strategies, interactional strategies, and textualization strategies) that Canagarajah (2011a) proposed for enacting translanguaging (mentioned in the previous chapter). The four revised strategies are envoicing strategies, recontextualization strategies, interactional strategies, and entextualization strategies. He explains that "[e]nvoicing strategies set the conditions for negotiation, since a consideration of voice motivates writers to decide the extent and nature of code-meshing; recontextualization strategies prepare the ground for negotiation; interactional strategies are adopted to co-construct meaning; and entextualization strategies reveal the temporal and spatial shaping of the text to facilitate and respond to these negotiations." (p. 49-50). In these two versions, the first three sets of strategies (i.e., recontextualization strategies, voice/envoicing strategies, and interactional strategies) are not much different but the last set of strategies (i.e., from textualization to entextualization strategies) change from "orientating to the text as a multimodal social practice and adopting process-oriented composing strategies for effective text development" (Canagarajah, 2011a, p. 404) to "reveal[ing] the temporal and spatial shaping of the text to

facilitate and respond to these [interactional] negotiations" (Canagarajah, 2013a, p. 50). It shows

that this revised version emphasizes the emergent and contingent features of writing based on

writer, reader, text, context and their interaction.

Although codemeshing also reflects an ideological understanding of language and

language difference, it is mainly product-oriented, and, as such, elicits criticism. Guerra (2016)

asks two questions in his response to the discussion on codemeshing and translingualism:

> (1) When we as teachers take a translingual approach to difference, are we
> expecting students to produce a particular kind of writing that mimics what we
> call code-meshing, or do we want students to develop a rhetorical sensibility that
> reflects a critical awareness of language as a contingent and emergent, rather than
> a standardized and static, practice? (2) To what extent, if any, should we engage
> our students in explicit conversations about translingualism in the context of other
> approaches to language difference, and what consequences are likely to emerge
> from such conversations? (p. 228)

The first question is a rhetorical question. The author stresses the importance of increasing

students' rhetorical sensibility through discussing one of his students' self-reflective and

midterm essays. He suggests that teacher-scholars should avoid leading students to think of a

translingual approach to writing as codemeshing and help students understand it as a rhetorical

sensibility that views language as emergent and contingent. In response to the second question,

the author advocates for introducing various approaches to language difference (including a

translingual approach) to students and engaging them in discussing how different approaches

affect their use of resources in writing.

Similarly, Lu and Horner (2016) and Horner and Tetreault (2017) assert that what is more

important for a translingual approach is not how many languages are meshed in texts but how

and why writers attempt to challenge conventions. Leonard and Nowacek (2016) elucidate the

relationship between transfer and "translingualism" and argue that a translingual approach is not

only pertinent to writing skills but also bound up with rhetorical strategies that are used to make

those writing skills visible and valuable. Gilyard (2016) agrees and states that he "would not expect students to mimic any specific strategy, so-called code-meshing or not, and that rhetorical astuteness is always the aim relative to emergent *and* standardized language, standardizing also being a process of emergence" (p. 286, emphasis in original). The debates on code-switching, codemeshing, and rhetorical sensibility have moved the translingual approach from a product-based to a rhetorical orientation. This indicates that a translingual approach to writing should not be considered as any specific form of writing (such as codemeshing) but as a rhetorical tool to understand the negotiability, permeability, and fluidity of boundaries of language, language difference, and language use. Though the notion of a translingual approach has been reconceptualized based on these discussions, new debates have arisen, about such concepts as language performance versus language competence.

4.2. Performance and Competence

Performance versus competence has long been a debate in language studies (Chomsky, 1965, 1966), and it has become one of the main debates in translingual studies as well. Based on the MLA Ad Hoc committee document released in 2007, Pratt et al. (2008) discuss the importance of translingual and transcultural competence in transforming college and university foreign language departments. They define translingual and transcultural competence as "the multilingual ability to *operate between languages*" (p. 289, emphasis in original). They suggest situating language study in cultural, historical, geographical, and cross-cultural frames to help students understand the differences of meaning, mentality, and worldview between languages. They argue that the incorporation of transcultural content and translingual reflection in foreign language teaching could help students improve their ability in operating between languages and shuttling between cultures. Competence that reflects "the powers of the intellect and the

49

imagination, the ability to reflect on one's place in the world with depth and complexity, and understanding of the degree to which culture and society are created in language" (p. 288) in their discussion stresses the cognitive capability of individuals in processing and operating in language and culture; therefore, their definition of translingual and transcultural competence indicates multilinguals' mental ability in shuttling between languages and cultures to help them broaden their views and form a critical understanding of the world.

The focus on mental abilities of operating languages and cultures has been shifted to language performance in contexts in translingual studies on writing, which can be seen in some scholars' explanation of competence. For example, Horner, Lu, Royster, & Trimbur (2011) redefine language competence to help readers understand a translingual approach to writing. They contend that competence should not be defined as the mastery of language forms or conventions but include the revision and creation of multilinguals in language use; thus, they illustrate competence as the ability to master and revise language conventions for adapting to complex contexts. Canagarajah (2013b) references Atkinson et al. (2007) and Atkinson's (2011) concept of alignment— "the complex means by which human beings effect coordinated interaction, and maintain that interaction in dynamically adaptive ways" (Atkinson et al., 2007, p. 169)— to understand cognition from a translingual perspective. He claims that "the meaning-making potential of language and human competence emerges through processes of alignment and adaptation, and does not reside in the system of language or cognition" (p. 32). From a translingual approach, languages are situated in contexts as a part of performance rather than in stable grammatical systems in the human brain/mind. The performative nature of writing has been expounded and instantiated from temporal-spatial (Lu & Horner, 2013) and spatial (Canagarajah, 2013b, 2018) perspectives.

Lu and Horner (2013) appeal for a temporal-spatial understanding of writing and explicate that "instead of treating these [language, language users, practices, conventions, and contexts] as discrete, preexisting, stable, and enumerable entities, a temporal-spatial frame treats all of them as always emergent, in progress (a state of becoming), and their relations as mutually constitutive" (p. 587). From this perspective, all writing elements are emergent, contingent, and synergistic in terms of both time and space. The authors cite Pennycook's (2010) concept of sedimentation— an "ongoing process … in which engagement of language practices participates, a process of building up over time." (p. 588)— to understand a temporal-spatial perspective. They argue that agency is evinced not only when writers intend to deviate from the norms but also when they simply iterate or repeat the seemingly same but actually different language resources. The reason is that writers are, consciously or unconsciously, contributing to the language sedimentation in temporal-spatial locations. In addition, Pennycook's (2010) illustration of the proverb that we can never step into the same river twice is also referenced to understand sameness and difference. The "same" river, us, and action are different in both temporal and spatial perspectives, just as languages, language users, practices, conventions, and contexts are; therefore, difference is the norm of all utterances, and language as a part of performance for meaning negotiation and construction is sedimented in temporal-spatial locations. This temporal-spatial understanding of writing that underscores language performance in contexts rather than mental process of language concurs with Canagarajah's (2018) elaboration of assemblage of spatial (or spatiotemporal) repertoires.

Canagarajah (2018) illustrates translingual practice as the assemblage of spatial repertoires from a poststructual perspective to emphasize the fluid, synergistic, and contingent features of meaning-making. He argues that viewing languages as static and monolithic linguistic

51

entities from a structural perspective and considering language structures as parts of an internalized mental grammar from a Chomskian perspective set languages apart from spatiotemporal context, which includes various historical, social, cultural, and political elements. Therefore, he promotes the transcendence of boundaries (such as language, social, cultural, geographical, and disciplinary boundaries) and the transgression of powers (such as linguistic, political, and human powers) in understanding the process of meaning-making. Through analyzing interviews with 24 Chinese scholars, the research practices and communication of a South Korean postdoctoral research fellow, the literacy practices of a Turkish doctoral student, and the video recordings of four 1-hour episodes of classroom instruction of two Chinese Math teaching assistants, he finds that any communicative practice is the assemblage of spatial repertoires, i.e., the synergy of semiotic resources, artifacts, and environmental affordances in specific time and space for a particular purpose, and languages and humans are just parts of the assemblage. Based on this spatial understanding of communication, he calls for reconsidering the structuralist notion of competence "[t]hat is, one does not start with a picture in the mind or the required words for accurately representing those ideas and images on the page. The resources that are assembled generate the ideas and words for the publication in situated interactions." (p. 47). From this perspective, performance or doing generates the cognitive process of language use rather than the other way around.

The emphasis on performance in language studies has been regarded with caution because of its ignoring of the invisible elements in language use, such as the historical development of language and language users' emotions, motivations, and identities and the language competence differences among individuals. The term "temporal" is used in theorizing a translingual approach, but, as Kramsch (2018) points out, "it [temporal] does not really consider

history, or the passing of time. … Priority is given to visibility, a 'space of appearance', … that risks excluding those who are, through coercion, fear, or necessity, living outside the reach of the visual frame" (p. 110-111). Obviously, language competence that reflects the mental ability in using languages is one of the elements living outside the research of the visual frame and should not be ignored in translingual studies. Similarly, Gilyard (2016) questions the view of languages as abstractions and argues that "people do *have* language competences and do, in fact, have languages. ... Particular language competences, not the easiest mechanisms to study, residing as they do in regions of the brain, make possible particular language performances, though competences themselves are an inadequate explanation of actual performances." (p. 287). He contends that overemphasis on performance and ignoring of the roles of competence in language studies might result in the flattening of differences, i.e., all differences are different in the same way such as the temporal-spatial way and impede discussions on similarities and differences between languages, language users, and contexts. He advocates for more focus on competence in translingual studies. These discussions indicate that language performance, on the one hand, is important to study for its temporal-spatial/spatiotemporal features in challenging structural and monolingualist ideologies in translingual studies, but language competence, on the other hand, should not be ignored to avoid an overemphasis on visibility and the flattening of differences.

Though competence that is closely related to history is not adequate to explain performance, it helps illustrate why individuals perform differently in the same space. Nonetheless, how competence works with multiple languages is still in dispute, such as whether languages are in a single mind and community (Cook, 1991, 1999, 2012, 2016), in a single integrated repertoire (García, 2009; García & Li, 2014; Li, 2018; Li & Zhu, 2013; Otheguy et al, 2015), in an integrated multilingual system (MacSwan, 2017), or in an evolving repertoire— the

overlap between L1 and L2 increases as learners' language proficiency increases (Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2016). The debates on language performance and competence show that competence is not adequate to elucidate language, language difference, and language use, and performance is not sufficient to elaborate on them either. It is foreseeable that the debate on language performance and competence will not end, at least in the near future, and this dissonance in understanding language has brought about the controversy between a multilingual approach and a translingual approach to writing.

4.3. A multilingual approach and a translingual approach

A translingual approach has been delineated as a new paradigm through comparing it with monolingual and multilingual approaches. Horner, NeCamp, and Donahue (2011) discuss English monolingualism in composition studies based on journal submission requirements, frequency of references to articles written in languages other than English, and bibliographical resources. They argue that composition studies as a field of study is still dominated by English monolingualism, and English monolingualism is problematic. They point out the problems of English monolingualism and call for moving composition studies from monolingual and traditional multilingual models to a translingual model by comparing these three models. According to the authors, from a monolingual perspective, languages are viewed as static, discrete, and monolithic linguistic entities; fluency in other languages threatens the fluency in the target language; language learners have to achieve a native or native-like standard to be considered as fluent in the target language; fluency in different languages impedes mutual intelligibility; language is a crucial element in social identity and citizenship; and a multilingual is considered as multiple monolinguals in one person. From a traditional multilingual model that is rooted in a monolingual model, multilinguals have separate fluencies for discrete languages;

54

fluencies in different languages are achieved by meeting native standards; language fluency affects identity and citizenship; and a multilingual is viewed as additive monolinguals in one person.

While in a translingual model, languages are regarded as fluid, emergent, and contingent; multilinguals have one fluency across all language resources rather than different fluencies in discrete languages; the focus is not to meet native standards but to achieve mutual intelligibility; the norm is not the native standard but the mixed-use of language resources; language use is the assemblage of language resources and an act of translation; and a multilingual is considered as a unique person who uses multiple language resources. Based on the differences between these three models, the authors advocate for transnational connectivities and language use as translation in composition studies. They claim that a translingual approach could help raise teachers' and students' awareness of language diversity in this more and more diversified teaching and learning context, resist English monolingual ideologies, and form a more open-minded and tolerant attitude towards difference (no matter whether it is language, language user, social, cultural, or rhetorical difference).

Similarly, Canagarajah (2015) revisits the dichotomy between native and nonnative language users, challenges a monolingual approach to language studies, and distinguishes a translingual model to other bi/multilingual models (i.e., subtractive, additive, and recursive models). He argues that the dichotomy between native and nonnative language users simplifies the phenomenon of language use. Based on his own experience of acquiring languages (English, Tamil, Arabic, and Sinhala), Canagarajah (2015) questions the distinction of L1, L2, L3, and L4. Because he was socialized with these languages from infancy, it is hard for him to say which language is first and which is second, third, or fourth. Thus, he advocates for a translingual

orientation to language studies that emphasizes the synergistic, fluid, and adaptive features of language resources in use. He compares different language models and states that a subtractive model that views separate languages as conflictual, i.e., the acquiring of one language impedes the mastery of the other, hindering the learning of the heritage languages when acquiring the dominant language. An additive model considers languages as co-existent rather than conflictual, and a recursive model regards languages as in one's repertoire to facilitate the mastery of each other. Although a recursive model provides a more dynamic and complex understanding of the relationship between languages, it also views languages as discrete linguistic entities which can be acquired separately.

To underscore the fluidity, hybridity, complexity, and adaptivity of languages in meaning-making, Canagarajah (2015) appeals for applying a translingual orientation to language studies. He contends that (1) the languages are intertwined rather than separated; (2) language acquisition is multidirectional rather than linear; (3) language competence is holistic for all languages rather than multiple competences for separate languages; and (4) language competence and proficiency are always evolving and never complete. This understanding of language and language difference, i.e., all languages are intertwined in a single integrated repertoire, is also reflected in Horner, Lu, Royster, & Trimbur's (2011) translingual approach to language difference, as they state that "some identified as 'multilingual' might nonetheless take a monolingualist approach to language difference" (p. 310). Contrary to both monolingual and traditional multilingual approaches, a translingual approach conceives of writing as performative, emergent, contingent, ideological, contextual, an act of translation, and a notion for viewing language difference as the norm (Horner & Tetreault, 2017; Lu & Horner, 2016).

This fluid and hybrid understanding of language and language difference is known as the "unitary model of multilingualism" (MacSwan, 2017) and has been challenged by scholars (e.g., Atkinson et al., 2015; Cummins, 2017; Flores, 2013; Gilyard, 2016; Kubota, 2016; Matsuda, 2014; Milson-Whyte, 2013). Some of the main questions are about language history in nation-states and subaltern societies (Flores, 2013), marginality, inequality, and language imperialism (Kubota, 2016), sameness and difference of languages (Gilyard, 2016; Matsuda, 2013; Milson-Whyte, 2013), neologism for existing ideas (Tardy, 2017), term inflation and linguistic tourism (Matsuda, 2014), ignoring of language learning experiences (Severino, 2017), missing discussion of language development (Atkinson & Tardy, 2018), and lack of discussion of language proficiency (Matsuda, 2014, Severino, 2017). To respond to these questions, concepts, such as translation (Horner, 2017; Horner & Tetreault, 2016), postcolonial ideology (Canagarajah, 2017; Cushman, 2016), and spatial repertoires (Canagarajah, 2018), are adopted to denote that a translingual approach does not deny the ontology of named languages and geopolitical boundaries but underscores the transcendence of boundaries and transgression of powers in writing. Nevertheless, no matter the response, individual difference in cognitive transformation of sociocultural heritage (both concrete and abstract) and sociohistorical differences of named languages are not taken into consideration, which might result in the discouragement of discussing similarities and differences among languages and language users. This unitary model of multilingualism, as "translinguality" (Horner & Tetreault, 2016, 2017; Lu & Horner, 2013) and "translingualism" (Canagarajah, 2013a, 2015, 2016), that views all language users as indistinguishable translinguals and all forms of writing as undifferentiated translingual writing, flattens languages and individual differences and leads to the debate between translingual writing and L2 writing.

4.4. Translingual writing and L2 writing

The term "translingual writing" has been adopted by some scholars to indicate a translingual understanding of writing. However, there is not yet a consensus on what "translingual writing" is. Tannenbaum (2014) defines translingual writing as "writing in a language different from one's mother tongue" (p. 99), which is confused with the definition of L2 writing (see chapter 1.1). Matsuda (2014) addresses his concerns about the term "translingual writing" in that the ideas that this term borrows from sociolinguistics and second language studies (such as the fluidity, hybridity, and negotiability of language) are not fully and accurately represented in translingual writing studies. He explains translingual writing as loosely related sets of assumptions:

- English monolingualism is prevalent and problematic.
- The presence of language differences is normal and desirable.
- Languages are neither discrete nor stable; they are dynamic and negotiated.
- Practicing translingual writing involves the negotiation of language differences. (p. 479)

Atkinson et al. (2015) delineate translingual writing as "a particular orientation to how language is conceptualized and implicated in the study and teaching of writing." (p. 384). Canagarajah (2016) defines translingual writing as "a form of situated literate practice where writers negotiate their semiotic resources in relation to the dominant conventions of language and rhetoric." (p. 266). These definitions of the term "translingual writing" show scholars' disagreement on its connotations. As Atkinson et al. (2015) state, there are many that ideas overlap (such as writer agency, challenge to monolingualism, and difference rather than deficit as the norm) between translingual writing and L2 writing.

The overlapping ideas between translingual writing and L2 writing and the advocacy for a translingual approach in composition studies lead to the discussion about conflating L1 writing

(or composition studies) and L2 writing (Canagarajah, 2013c) as translingual writing for understanding writing across disciplines. Actually, the co-effort of disciplines for understanding writing phenomena has long been advocated in L2 writing, such as L2 Writing and Composition Studies and Applied Linguistics (Silva & Leki, 2004), L2 Writing and Basic Writing (Matsuda, 2003), L2 Writing and Culture (Atkinson, 2003, 2016; Connor, 2004), L2 Writing and Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Manchón, 2016; Manchón & Williams, 2016; Ortega, 2012), L2 Writing and Reading (Carson & Leki, 1993; Hirvela & Belcher, 2016), and L2 Writing and Composition Studies (Horner, Lu, & Matsuda, 2010; Horner & Tetreault, 2017; Matsuda, 1999). One of the reasons for valorizing translingual writing is the problem of the native/nonnative dichotomy in writing and composition studies in terms of globalization and the permeability of language boundaries (Canagarajah, 2013a, 2013b, 2015; Lu & Horner, 2013, 2016). Terms such as "nativity" (Bloomfield, 1933; Chomsky, 1986), "nativeness" (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 2001; Faez, 2011), "translingualism" (Canagarajah, 2015; Jordan, 2015) and "translinguality" (Horner & Trtreault, 2016) display the shift from a monolingual to a multilingual and then to a translingual paradigm; however, the extension of the notion of translingual writing (Matsuda, 2014) makes it vulnerable to criticisms (such as those mentioned in chapter 1.2). Therefore, the idea of conflating L1 and L2 writing as translingual writing is disavowed by both L2 writing scholars (Atkinson et al., 2015) and other translingual researchers (Donahue, 2016; Lu & Horner, 2016).

One reason that translingual writing could not replace L2 writing is that they are not parallel, competing or opposing concepts. Donahue (2016) discusses a translingual approach to composition studies and clarifies the difference between a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing and states that

the discipline of L2 writing and the translingual model do not so much intersect as run parallel; to entwine L2 writing in oppositional translingual discussions or vice versa is to misunderstand both L2 work and the translingual model, which I believe is a rhetorical model important to the work of composition broadly speaking, rather than a model destined to supersede L2 writing (its "next phase") or to redirect current transformative, essential models of L2 writing instruction. (p. 148)

Similarly, Bruce Horner (2018) discusses the development of writing disciplines (such as composition studies, L2 writing, basic writing, and writing across the curriculum (WAC)/writing in the disciplines (WIC)) from a translingual perspective and argues for an understanding of a translingual approach as an orientation to different writing disciplines to reconceptualize rather than replace or remove different writing disciplines. These discussions support Atkinson et al.'s (2015) clarification of the difference between L2 writing and translingual writing as they state that L2 writing is a field of study with "various theoretical, methodological, and ideological perspectives" and translingual writing is "a particular orientation to how language is conceptualized and implicated in the study and teaching of writing." (p. 384).

Another reason that translingual writing could not replace L2 writing is that history is critical in understanding writing phenomena. The spatial understanding of a translingual approach (Canagarajah, 2013b, 2018; Lu & Horner, 2013) stresses the assemblage of spatial repertoires but ignores history that reflects individual and sociocultural development of language and language difference. Kramsch (2018) cogently contends that:

language is not only a social semiotic that brings humans and other inhabitants of the planet together but an historical institution that we have constructed precisely to deal with the ethical, legal, and political aspects of our life together. As an institution language ensures continuity, mutual intelligibility, and understanding, but it also preserves our uniquely human capacity to embrace both the thrills of space and the vulnerabilities of time. (p. 114)

In this sense, language is not only a social semiotic but also a historical institution that exhibits how different writing styles, strategies, and ideologies start, develop, change, and even

disappear, as the shift from monolingual to multilingual to translingual paradigm shows us. Notwithstanding its importance, history which reflects the sociocultural differences of writing and writer should not be viewed as a barrier or constraint in language studies and education. Therefore, the labels that index sociohistorical differences of writing and writer, such as L1, L2, ESL, EFL, generation 1.5, are problematic when they are treated as implications for cognitive capacity and language ability. In fact, these implications have been critiqued vehemently by scholars who study these labels (e.g., Leki, 2000, 2001; Matsuda, 1999, 2006; Silva, 1997; Tardy & Whittig, 2017). It has been clarified that these labels do not represent cognitive deficits, any forms of deficiency, or static, separate, and monolithic linguistic entities but indicate the similarities and differences of languages and language users in regard to their social, cultural, ideological, political, and educational backgrounds (Hyland, 2013); thus, difference rather than deficit is the norm with respect to these labels (Silva et al., 1997; Matsuda, 2006). Although clarifications of the difference between translingual writing and L2 writing have been made as aforementioned, misunderstandings still exist, which results in translingualism not being well-represented in the field of L2 writing (Atkinson & Tardy, 2018).

4.5. Chapter Summary

The current debates about a translingual approach to writing, such as code-switching vs codemeshing vs rhetorical sensibility, language competence vs language performance, a multilingual approach vs a translingual approach, and translingual writing vs L2 writing, have provided both reasons for and concerns about adopting a translingual approach to L2 writing. The reasons for employing a translingual approach to L2 writing are that it can empower L2 students with agency in shaping their own language, help L2 writing teachers and students challenge monolingualism and view additional languages other than the target language as

61

resources rather than impediments, and allow L2 writing practitioners to form a more open-minded and tolerant attitude towards unconventional language use. The concerns are that a translingual approach flattens language differences, undervalues individuals' competence in acquiring a language, ignores power relations and social inequality, and lacks pedagogical implications for L2 writing learners. These debates show that every approach to writing studies contributes to the progress of understanding the multi-faceted complex writing phenomenon; hence, a translingual approach to writing should not reject or supersede other approaches (such as L2 writing, basic writing, and composition studies approaches); otherwise it might not catalyze but undermine writing studies through linguistic tourism (Matsuda, 2014), neoliberal multiculturalism (Kubota, 2016), and exacerbation of disciplinary division (Tardy, 2017). A translingual approach is continuously refined, and it has been implemented with research of writing practice and instruction as a theoretical lens or a pedagogy, albeit with concerns. In the next chapter, I will introduce the enactment of a translingual approach to writing practice and pedagogy.

CHAPTER FIVE: THE ENACTMENT OF A TRANSLINGUAL APPROACH TO WRITING

With the growing interest in a translingual approach to writing studies, a translingual approach (including the other "trans-" terms, such as translingualism, translinguality, translingual approach, translingual practice, transcultural literacy, transliteracy, and translanguaging as they align on some key points (Horner, 2018) mentioned in Chapter 2) has been adopted as a theoretical lens or a pedagogy to investigate what it can imply for writing practice and instruction. Empirical research on a translingual approach to writing has provided implications for the implementation of a translingual approach to L2 writing practice and pedagogy. In this chapter, I will review and discuss the empirical studies on a translingual approach to writing in terms of contexts, participants, and research foci on which these studies concentrate.

5.1. Contexts

A translingual approach has been employed to understand writing practice and guide writing teaching in various contexts, such as U.S., non-U.S., and cross-cultural contexts. In the following subsections, I will introduce and discuss empirical studies conducted in different contexts.

5.1.1. Enactment of a translingual approach in U.S. contexts

The discussion and enactment of a translingual approach to writing, as Tardy (2017) and Atkinson & Tardy (2018) have noted, is heavily based in U.S. contexts. A translingual approach has been applied to teach students in various writing courses (such as composition, L2 writing,

ESL writing, basic writing, and heritage language writing courses) and study writing practice in different genres (such as online and professional writing). For example, a translingual approach has been adopted in composition courses to investigate how English as a first language and English as a second language students differ in using multimodal, multilingual, and rhetorical resources (Gonzales, 2015), how English monolingual students consider and use unfamiliar languages as resources in their writing processes (Hanson, 2013), how English native speakers perceive "marked" sentences produced by Korean ESL students and expert writers of English (Hwag & Hardman, 2014), how reading facilitates writing (Kinernan et al., 2017; Sohan, 2014), and how languages, cultures, and experiences in writing affect multilingual and multicultural students' learning (Malcolm, 2017). In L2 writing courses, a translingual approach has also been enacted to examine how it can facilitate a Saudi student's construction of meaning in L2 writing (Canagarajah, 2011, 2013a) and a Japanese student's negotiation of voice with her instructor (Canagarajah & Matsumoto, 2017) and how it can influence an English native speaker's learning of advanced Spanish and beginning Mandarin writing (Severino, 2017).

In addition, a translingual approach has also been employed in basic writing courses to help teachers reconsider errors in tense, incorrect word choice, and sentence boundary issues (Krall-Lanoue, 2013) and facilitate students ability to challenge standard English norms and ideologies (Wang, 2017). In ESL writing courses, it has been adopted to raise students' awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity in the classroom (Jain, 2014; Lee & Canagarajah, 2018) and help instructors value students' language and cultural resources (Pacheco et al., 2019; Zapata & Laman, 2016). In English Language Learners (ELLs) writing courses, it has been applied to understanding writing as a synergy of multilingual and multimodal resources (Pacheco & Smith, 2015; Smith et al., 2017). A translingual approach has also been adopted to increase

children's audience awareness (Durán, 2017) and develop bilingual students' academic writing (Velasco & García, 2014) in bilingual writing courses. To learn how a translingual approach affects heritage language learners, Mendoza and Parba (2018) investigate how a translingual approach can support the development of Filipino as a heritage language learners' academic writing skills and help them challenge dominant language ideologies in a Filipino course. These studies show that a translingual approach has been adopted to understand writing practices and teach writing in various courses in the U.S.

Moreover, a translingual approach has also been discussed in teacher education and writing practices outside classrooms. For instance, Flores and Aneja (2017) and Ruecker et al. (2018) investigate how a translingual approach can impact non-English speaking (NNES) instructors' teaching practice. Martínez et al. (2015) explore how instructors' everyday language use and their language ideologies match and contradict each other in two Spanish-English dual language elementary classrooms. Zheng (2017) researched two international teaching assistants' (ITAs) formation of translingual identities. Writing practices outside classrooms, such as online writing (Han, 2018; Panos, 2017), professional writing (Lorimer, 2013), and writing for speeches (Cvazos, 2017), have also been discussed from translingual perspectives. These empirical studies reflect the growing interest of a translingual approach to writing studies in U.S. contexts, which inspires translingual studies on writing in non-U.S. and cross-cultural contexts.

5.1.2. Enactment of a translingual approach in non-U.S. and cross-cultural contexts

Research has been conducted to explore how a translingual approach can help instructors and students in non-U.S. contexts (such as Kenya, Canada, Sri Lanka, and Saudi Arabia) reconsider language and cultural resources in writing. Kiramba (2017) examines the writing practices in a multilingual, rural, fourth-grade classroom in Kenya and appeals for legitimizing

multilingual resources in academic writing to make instruction more inclusive. Milu (2018) investigates the translingual practices of three Kenyan hip-hop artists in the processes of constructing their emergent ethnicities. She argues for a translingual approach to help African youth form positive linguistic identities and emergent ethnicities. Hartse et al. (2018) apply a translingual approach to develop assignments for a writing-intensive course at a Canadian university. They contend that a translingual approach benefits students' knowledge of language, literacy, and literature and helps students realize their language resources other than English in academic writing. Canagarajah (2006) discusses how a senior professor in Sri Lanka writes academic papers in Tamil and English for local and international publications and argues for allowing multilingual writers to use their own language and cultural resources in English academic writing. Albawardi (2018) explores the use of Arabic and English by female college students in Saudi Arabia on WhatsApp from a translingual perspective and contends that translingual practices on social media facilitate young Saudis' use of language, construction of social relationships, and negotiation of cultural identities.

A translingual approach has also been applied in other contexts, such as Israel, Lebanon, Sweden, and Serbia. For example, Tannenbaum (2014) analyses four Israeli Arab novelists and poets' use of Hebrew in their works from linguistic, social, psychological, and political perspectives and states that a translingual approach broadens the context of Jewish-Arab and majority-minority relationships in Israeli society. Fraiberg (2017) traces the literacy practices of an Israeli soldier, discusses how the soldier's multilingual and multimodal practices facilitate his cognitive and performative progress in writing, and calls for a translingual and transmodal approach to composition studies. A translingual approach has been adopted to investigate how language ideologies (such as monolingual and translingual ideologies) are responded to by

composition students (Ayash, 2016) and multilingual writing faculty (Arnold, 2016) at universities in Lebanon. They both discuss the challenges and benefits of applying a translingual approach to composition studies in Lebanese contexts. Kaufold (2018) analyzes two graduate students' use of multiple language and register resources in their master's thesis writing processes at a Swedish university and claims that the students' language ideologies and writing experiences facilitate or limit their use of various repertoires. Schreiber (2015) investigates how a Serbian university student use multilingual and multimodal resources to build an online identity and establish membership in local and international online communities and argues that a translingual approach should be adopted to expand EFL pedagogy and make the pedagogy more inclusive.

In line with the advocacy for crossing boundaries in language studies, a translingual approach has been employed to explore writing practice and pedagogy across contexts. With the use of technology (such as computers, the internet, and social media), a translingual approach has been implemented in cross-cultural contexts, such as U.S.-Hong Kong, Mongolia-Japan, Belgium-the Netherlands, and Egypt-Argentina contexts. Lee and Jenks (2016) analyze students' writing in a cross-cultural classroom partnership between a U.S. university and a Hong Kong university designed to help students to construct translingual dispositions. They argue that this cross-cultural investigation from a translingual approach facilitates the negotiation between multiple language, cultural, and rhetorical identities and ideologies. Canagarajah and Dovchin (2019) discuss the everyday language use by youth from Mongolia and Japan on Facebook and argue for a translingual approach to language use, ideology, and policy. Blommaert (2019) analyzes the Dutch-language Tweets with the English hashtag #justsaying from Belgium and the Netherlands and calls for viewing translingual practice as the norm of language use. Kulavuz-

Onal and Vásquez (2018) designed an EFL course on Facebook to cross the cultural contexts between Egypt and Argentina and contend that a translingual approach helps both students and instructors recognize multiple repertoires and establish intercultural sensibility for their EFL writing learning and teaching.

These empirical studies are evidence that a translingual approach has been enacted in various contexts both in and outside the U.S. These studies also indicate that technology has been playing an increasingly important role in exploring a translingual approach across contexts. As mentioned above, all the translingual studies across contexts apply online tools (e.g., Twitter (Blommaert, 2019), Facebook (Canagarajah & Dovchin, 2019; Kulavuz-Onal & Vásquez, 2018, and Google Docs (Lee & Jenks, 2016)). Online tools (such as WeChat (Han, 2018), WhatsApp (Albawardi, 2018), and Facebook (Schreiber, 2015)) and computers as facilitators for writing learning and teaching (e.g., Pacheco & Smith, 2015; Panos, 2017; Smith et al., 2017; and Wang, 2017) have provided a particular space in which learners and instructors cross linguistic, cultural, geographical, and rhetorical boundaries to enrich their writing practice and pedagogy.

5.2. Participants

A translingual approach has been adopted to investigate how it can facilitate writing teaching and learning with different writer groups. The writer groups include learners, instructors, both learners and instructors, and others (such as professors, scholars, and musicians). Among these writer groups, the study of writing learners (including K-12, undergraduate, graduate, and adult learners) from a translingual approach occupies the largest space.

5.2.1. Enactment of a translingual approach for writing learners

Writing instructors have employed a translingual pedagogy to enrich their teaching and facilitate their students' learning. Due to the advocacy for translanguaging in bilingual education, a translingual approach has been adopted in K-12 writing classrooms. Kiramba's (2017) research on writing practices in a fourth-grade classroom in Kenya shows that a translingual approach helps mitigate unequal voices and language hierarchies by challenging dominant norms in academic writing. Velasco and García (2014) analyze five samples from the K-4th grade classrooms in Spanish-English and Korean-English dual-language bilingual education (DLBE) in New York and argue that a translingual approach allows students to take advantage of different language resources to produce texts and express voices. Pacheco and Smith (2015) examine the writing practices in an eighth-grade English class with English language learners (ELLs). Their findings show the mixed-use of multilingual and multimodal resources in students' digital composing processes. To provide a deeper and broader understanding, Smith et al. (2017) further analyze and discuss three students' writing processes in this eighth-grade English class with more statistics and examples. These studies implement a translingual approach to bilingual education and provide empirical evidence to demonstrate its benefits in teaching K-12 writing learners.

With the increasing interest in a translingual approach in writing studies, researchers and instructors have adopted it to understand writing practices of undergraduate students and enrich their teaching. Ayash (2016) examines writing practices of first-year-composition (FYC) students at the Americanized University in Lebanon and discusses how a translingual approach can affect students' language ideology and writing practice. Albawardi (2018) studies Saudi female college students' writing on social media and analyzes the mixed use of language resources for building students' social relationship and cultural identities from a translingual

perspective. Canagarajah and Dovchin (2019) report on Mongolian and Japanese college students' everyday use of language resources on social media and argue for a translingual approach to language studies to resist dominant language ideologies and norms. Fraiberg (2017) traces the literacy practices of an Israeli soldier who was a student in his class at college and advocates for understanding writing as translingual practice with multilingual and multimodal resources. Hanson (2013) enacts a translingual pedagogy in a FYC class by asking English monolingual students to use unfamiliar languages as resources in English academic writing.

A translingual approach has also been implemented to help L2 undergraduate students challenge monolingualism and make use of their language and cultural resources for writing (see Hartse et al., 2018; Hwad & Hardman, 2014; Jain, 2014; Kiernan et al., 2017; Krall-Lanoue, 2013; Lee & Canagarajah, 2018, Malcolm, 2017; Sohan, 2014; and Wang, 2017). Gonzales (2015) researches the difference in using multilingual and multimodal resources by English L1 and ESL students in her FYC class and also calls for a translingual approach to composition studies. Other empirical studies on a translingual approach to undergraduate student writing practice and instruction include FYC students in a cross-cultural class designed for collaboration between students from the U.S. and Hong Kong (Lee & Jenks, 2016), college heritage language learners in a Filipino class in a U.S. university (Mendoza & Parba, 2018), and Serbian EFL undergraduate students on social media (Schreiber, 2015). These studies reflect the practical and pedagogical interest of a translingual approach in facilitating multilingual and monolingual undergraduate students to write with agency.

Graduate and adult learners' writing has also been investigated from a translingual perspective. For example, Canagarajah (2011b) investigates the writing process of a Saudi graduate student Buthainah in his L2 writing class in a U.S. institute and discusses what

translanguaging implies for writing studies. Canangarajah (2013a) further analyzes Buthainah's writing with multilingual and multimodal resources and revised his translingual strategies (i.e., envoicing, recontextualization, interactional, and entextualization strategies) to understand writing phenomena and enrich writing pedagogy. Canagarajah and Matsumoto (2017) analyze the writing development of a Japanese graduate student in Canagarajah's graduate-level course on L2 writing and state that designing a classroom as a contact zone helps both instructors and students negotiate voices and provide ecological affordances for students to challenge dominant norms and create new norms. Flores and Aneja (2017) study three NNES preservice teachers' teaching and learning from a translingual approach and argue that a translingual approach to TESOL teacher education can help preservice teachers construct positive multilingual identities and create pedagogies with their own language and cultural resources. Kaufhold (2018) explores the development of postgraduate students' academic writing in the multilingual context of a Swedish university and states that a translingual approach allows students to cross language codes and registers for meaning-making. Lorimer (2013) investigates immigrants' writing across languages by interviewing three adult participants about their literacy memories, practices, and opinions as multilingual individuals and calls for viewing writing as fluid and contingent. Severino (2017) examines her own experiences of learning writing in Spanish (advanced level) and Mandarin (beginning level), conveys her concerns about translingualism, and stresses the importance of learning writing norms in different languages. These studies provide empirical evidence to show how a translingual approach can benefit or undermine different student writer groups. In addition to learners, a translingual approach has also been discussed with regard to how it can affect instructors and other writer groups (such as scholars, musicians, and creative writers).

71

5.2.2. Enactment of a translingual approach for instructors and other writer groups

A translingual approach has been employed in classrooms to explore how it can affect K-12 instructors' teaching practice. Martínez et al. (2015) investigate the language ideologies of instructors who were in Spanish-English dual language elementary classrooms by observing those instructors' everyday language use and instructional practices and asking them about their own language ideologies. They argue that embracing a translingual pedagogy can help instructors realize language resources other than their target language and motivate instructors to encourage students to take advantage of their own language and cultural resources in writing. Pacheco et al. (2019) explore a third-grade teacher's participation in writing practices through translingual strategies (i.e., entextualizing, envoicing, and recontextualizing strategies). They claim that a translingual pedagogy can help instructors strategically participate in translingual practices and that this participation is beneficial for students to meaningfully engage in writing practices. Panos (2017) examines the teaching practices of a sixth-grade teacher in a white-majority, English-only, high-poverty, and rural classroom in the Midwestern United States and argues that a translingual pedagogy that engages students with digital tools and international peers in transcultural contexts (such as the U.S. and Sweden in her case) provides monolingual students with a space for translingual practices. Zapata and Laman (2016) and Durán (2017) discuss how a translingual pedagogy can help elementary writing instructors raise students' awareness of audience and languages other than English as resources. These studies show the potential of translingual pedagogies in facilitating K-12 instructors' teaching of writing.

College composition instructors have shown a growing interest in adopting a translingual approach in their classrooms. Arnold (2016) reports on an interview-based study on writing faculty's responses to a translingual approach to composition studies. The findings reflect both advocacy (of languages other than English as resources) for and concern (the actual practice in

classrooms) about a translingual approach to writing pedagogy in the multilingual and multicultural context of the American University in Beirut in Lebanon. Ruecker et al. (2018) survey 78 and interview 11 out of the 78 college composition instructors in the U.S. and, as with Arnold's (2016) study, their findings show both benefits of (such as building confidence and challenging English monolingualism) and worries about (such as "linguistic tourism" (Matsuda, 2014) and "neoliberal multiculturalism" (Kubota, 2016)) applying a translingual approach in college composition classrooms. Zheng (2017) explores ITAs' translingual identities as pedagogical resources and contends that ITAs' translingual identities are affected by their linguistic membership and competence (such as accent, nationality, ethnicity, and religion). She advocates a translingual approach for linking identity and pedagogy in order to benefit both teachers and students in composition classrooms. The findings of these studies show that a translingual approach to writing pedagogy has been accepted, but how this pedagogy should be enacted and how it will affect both teachers and students are still in dispute.

The writing practices of scholars, professors, creative writers, musicians, and social media users have been analyzed from translingual perspectives. Cavazos (2017) discusses the relationship between speaking and writing. By analyzing a plenary address, a ceremony speech, and an interview from three multilingual scholars, she states that a translingual approach can help involve more oral genres as resources in writing practices. Han (2018) investigates the language use of Chinese visiting scholars in U.S. universities and claims that a translingual approach to language use is not only related to linguistic issues (the mixed use of Chinese and English in her case) but also pertinent to social, cultural, and political issues. Canagarajah (2006a) examines a senior professor's academic writing from both local and international publications and argues for allowing writers to shuttle between languages and legitimizing oral

resources in academic writing. Tannenbaum (2014) analyzes four Israeli Arab novelists and poets' writing in Hebrew and calls for a translingual understanding of the assemblage of the writers' linguistic, social, psychological, and political aspects in writing. Milu (2018) discusses three Kenya musicians' language use in their lyric composing process and contends that a translingual approach allows the musicians to use language resources more flexibly, but he also cautions that a translingual approach needs to allow writers to shuttle among different types of multilingualism. Blommaert (2019) examines the use of Dutch and English hashtag #justsaying by Twitter users and claims that translingual is the norm of language use.

The studies reviewed in this subsection show that a translingual approach has been applied to understand the writing practices of different writer groups including learners, instructors, and scholars. Among these studies, three focus on writers who write in languages other than English, i.e., Dutch (Blommaert, 2019), Filipino (Mendoza & Parba, 2018), and Spanish and Mandarin (Severino, 2017); two (Hanson, 2013; Panos, 2017) concentrate on English monolingual writers' writing processes; and all the other studies examine multilingual writers' and instructors' writing and teaching practices in English as an additional language (EAL). These studies are evidence that a translingual approach has been applied to help both monolingual and multilingual writers in and outside classrooms; and the studies that focus on multilingual writers are much more frequent than those that concentrate on monolingual writers. In sum, a translingual approach to writing has been enacted with various writer groups; however, the findings of these studies differ. In next subsection, I will discuss the research foci of the empirical studies on a translingual approach to writing.

5.3. Research Foci

A translingual approach has been applied with different research foci, including instruction, writing practice in classrooms and on social media, writer agency and identity, and writing, reading, and speaking. Amidst these research foci, exploring writing instruction from translingual perspectives has attracted more attention.

5.3.1. Enactment of a translingual approach to instruction

Although a translingual approach is questioned because of its implications for language learners (see chapter 2 for the concerns about a translingual approach to writing), it has been applied to see how it can affect writing instruction. Canagarajah (2011b, 2013a) discusses students' translingual strategies in his L2 writing class and argues that a translingual pedagogy can empower students with agency in conveying voices and creating norms, motivate students to use multiple language and modal resources in writing, and challenge monolingual ideologies. Gonzales (2015) examines the writing practices of English L1 and ESL students from two different universities. Her findings show that ESL students are more effective in constructing meanings with multimodal resources in that ESL students usually have the experiences of combining and crossing multimodal resources to convey meanings when they cannot entirely depend on English for communication. Therefore, she calls for a translingual pedagogy to increase students' awareness of and ability in using multilingual and multimodal resources in writing. How a translingual pedagogy can affect writing instruction has also been investigated in college English intensive courses (Hartse et al., 2018; Jain, 2014; Malcolm, 2017), FYC courses (Keall-Lanoue, 2013; Lee & Jenks, 2016), basic writing courses (Wang, 2017), K-12 English writing courses (Velasco & García, 2014; Zapata & Laman, 2016), and college Filipino courses (Mendoza & Parba, 2018). These empirical studies manifest the central tenets which a

translingual approach valorizes (i.e., advocacy for writer agency, heterogeneity as the norm, languages other than the dominant language are resources rather than impediments, and a challenge to monolingualism) and exhibit evidence for how a translingual pedagogy can facilitate instruction to multilingual students.

A translingual pedagogy has also been discussed in teaching English monolingual or English only students. For example, Panos (2017) examines writing practices of students from a white-majority, English-only, high-poverty, rural sixth-grade classroom in Midwestern United States. In the classroom, the instructor creates a transcultural space by creating a Skype conversation between the class in the U.S. and a class in Sweden and asks students to do ePal emails and blog writing. The researcher contends that the transcultural communication provides students with opportunities for translingual practices. Therefore, she calls for a translingual approach to writing pedagogy. Hanson (2013) asks her English monolingual students to use translation tools (such as Google Translate) to translate the search terms into languages with which they are not familiar, and then the students paste the terms into a web browser for searching non-English resources. Through searching information related to their research topics on non-English-language websites, most students realize the language resources other than English and change their attitudes from negative to positive towards non-English-language resources. However, some students consider the activity as a waste of time because they think all the information they need is available in English. These studies show different ways of enriching writing pedagogy in teaching monolingual students, albeit with their different findings.

In addition to the investigation of students' responses to translingual activities, writing instructors' feedback on a translingual approach to writing practice and pedagogy has also been explored. Ruecker et al. (2018) survey and interview NNES composition instructors in the U.S.

and, based on the participants' responses, they state that a translingual approach helps NNES instructors build confidence as writing teachers, value language diversity, and challenge language hierarchy, but they also caution about "linguistic tourism" and "neoliberal multiculturism" (p. 635) in implementing a translingual approach to writing. Arnold (2016) interviews writing faculty at the American University in Beirut about their responses to composition scholarship primarily published in North America in general and a translingual approach to composition studies in particular. The findings show that the writing faculty welcomes a translingual approach as an ideology to legitimate languages other than English as resources but has concerns about how a translingual approach as a pedagogy can facilitate their classroom teaching. Flore and Aneja (2017) trace three preservice TESOL teachers' learning and teaching practices and contend that a translingual approach can support preservice teachers in establishing positive multilingual teacher identities, challenging English monolingual ideologies, and developing writing pedagogies with multiple language and cultural resources. They also state that the core of a translingual approach should be the balance between accommodation and resistance; therefore, language norms should be viewed as resources rather than targets of resistance. These studies show both the benefits and concerns of enacting a translingual approach to writing instruction. Despite the concerns, the empirical studies have indicated that a translingual approach has the potential to enrich writing instruction in terms of its central tenets. Besides instruction, a translingual approach has been adopted to understand writing practices in classrooms and on social media.

5.3.2. Enactment of a translingual approach to writing practice

Writing practices in and outside classrooms have been discussed from translingual perspectives. Fraiberg (2017) traces the literacy development of an Israeli soldier who was in his

English class. The findings show that the participant's literacy practices include gaming, movie, drawing, role play, reading, and writing. All these practices contribute to the soldier's literacy development and construction of literacy identity. The researcher calls for a translingual approach to composition studies to understand students' composing processes with fluid multilingual and multimodal resources. Kaufhold (2018) investigates the thesis writing processes of two master students in the multilingual context of a Swedish university. Her findings show that students' language ideologies can restrict or enable their use of varied language repertoires. When students view languages as separate linguistic entities, it is hard for students to translate their writing into another language for a different audience. On the contrary, students utilize their repertoires to make meanings when the language boundaries are broken. Therefore, she argues for a translingual approach to create a space for students to take advantage of their varied language repertoires and collaborate with their peers and professors.

Similarly, Kiramba (2017) examines the writing practices in a multilingual, rural, fourth-grade classroom in Kenya and calls for a translingual pedagogy to challenge dominant language ideologies and legitimize indigenous languages in academic writing. Pacheco and Smith (2015) and Smith et al. (2017) explores writing practices in an eighth-grade English class in the U.S. and argues for a translingual approach to motivate students to write with multilingual and multimodal resources. Lee and Canagarajah (2018) discuss the relationship between translingualism and transculturalism and analyze a multilingual student's writing. Their findings indicate that the student's transcultural experiences enable and facilitate their translingual practices. They advocate for a translingual approach to help readers and writers have a more open-minded and tolerant attitude towards language and cultural differences. Severino (2017), as an English L1 writer, studies her own writing practices in Spanish and Mandarin and expresses

her concerns about a translingual approach due to its ignoring of language proficiencies and norms in meaning negotiation and construction in writing in an additional language. Most of these empirical studies denote that a translingual approach might enrich writing studies through viewing writing as fluid, hybrid, and contingent. Nevertheless, other concerns, as Severino's (2017) study indicates, need to be taken into consideration when enacting a translingual approach to writing practice and pedagogy.

With the increasingly important role of technology in education, writing practices on social media have been examined from translingual perspectives. Albawardi (2018) analyzes Saudi female college students' use of Arabic and English on WhatsApp and states that the students' translingual practices do not make them give up Arabic or Saudi identities but help them form a new set of identities that include different language, social, and cultural factors. The researcher advocates a translingual approach for a holistic and flexible understanding of writing practices on social media. Blommaert (2019) discusses translingualism as the norm of language use by analyzing the Dutch-language Tweets with English hashtag #justsaying by people from Belgium and the Netherlands. Canagarajah and Dovchin (2019) research the everyday language use of Mongolian and Japanese youth on Facebook. Han (2018) explores Chinese visiting scholars' use of Chinese and English on WeChat. Kulavuz-Onal and Vásquez (2018) investigate writing practices of students from Egypt and Argentina on Facebook. These studies show that social media has provided a space for translingual practices, and these translingual practices can help students and instructors challenge monolingualism, view languages other than the dominant one as resources, and consider difference (no matter whether it is a linguistic, social, cultural, or rhetorical difference) as the norm in writing. To challenge monolingual ideologies, a translingual approach has been employed to understand writer agency and writer identity.

79

5.3.3. Enactment of a translingual approach to writer agency and identity

In light of the advocacy for encouraging multilingual writers to shape their own language, a translingual approach has been adopted to empower student writers with agency in writing with their own language, cultural, and rhetorical resources. Canagarajah (2006), based on a senior professor's academic writing in Tamil and English for local and international publications, argues for writer agency in using indigenous languages and oral genres as legitimate resources in academic writing. Canagarajah and Matsumoto (2017) analyze a Japanese ESL student's writing practices and state that it is important to encourage writer agency in making voices through translingual practices. Writer agency has also been discussed from translingual perspectives by examining everyday language use in different rhetorical situations (Lorimer, 2013) and analyzing the use of Hebrew in Israeli Arabs' novels and poetry (Tannenbaum, 2014).

Ayash (2016) discusses the agency of FYC students at an American-style university in Lebanon in writing with different languages (such as English, Arabic, Spanish, French, and Italian). The findings show that students have contradictory feelings about making meanings with multiple language resources in academic writing. On the one hand, translingual practices enhance students' competence in meaning negotiation and construction through expanding the use of language repertoires in academic writing. On the other hand, students feel ambivalent and insecure about translingual practices in high-stakes writing situations due to institutional policies and teaching practices. She argues for a postmonolingual approach to writer agency to take both monolingual impacts and translingual practices and ideologies into consideration in composition and writing studies. These studies show that a translingual approach is conducive to motivating students to use their various language repertoires for meaning negotiation and construction; however, as Ayash (2016) points out, it is also important to consider monolingual impacts when enacting a translingual approach to writing.

The valorization of writer agency in shaping their own language has elicited discussions about how a translingual approach can affect writer identities. Zheng (2017) conducted two case studies to investigate how two ITAs in a U.S. university construct their translingual identities (identities with translingual ideologies) and what is the relationship between teacher identity and writing pedagogy. The findings show that the construction of translingual identities is affected by the ITAs' language competence and social and cultural membership, and the ITAs' translingual identities are directly related to their teaching practices. She concludes that the relationship between teacher identity and writing pedagogy should be explicitly conveyed and supported for helping ITAs form translingual identities, which can facilitate both teaching and learning in writing classrooms. Schreiber (2015) discusses multilingual identities and digital translingual practices of a Serbian university student and states that the student's digital translingual practices with multilingual and multimodal resources help her establish a simultaneously global and local identity. This identity helps her engage in local and global hip-hop communities.

Likewise, Milu (2018) examines three Kenyan hip-hop artists' cultural identities and translingual practices. She argues that translingual practices assist the artists in understanding their identities as emergent and contingent, which helps them be more inclusive in creating music. However, Milu (2018) also states that the artists' linguistic, cultural, and ethnic identities are not always integrated but separate or even conflicting at times. Therefore, she endorses a translingual approach for helping African youth form positive linguistic identities, but she also cautions that a translingual approach should allow room for one to move between different types of multilingualism. These studies indicate that a translingual approach can empower writer agency and help establish positive linguistic, cultural, and professional identities; nonetheless, it should be enacted with caution. To be more inclusive of different semiotic resources in writing,

the relationships between writing and speaking and reading have been explored from translingual perspectives.

5.3.4. Enactment of a translingual approach to writing, reading, and speaking

The relationship between writing and reading has been discussed from translingual perspectives. Durán (2017) explores the literacy development of bilingual Latina/o first-grade students from a translingual perspective and argues that children's awareness of intended readers affects their use of languages (such as Spanish and English), rhetorical strategies, and design choices in writing. This audience awareness, as the researcher states, supports a translingual approach that views difference as an asset or a resource rather than as interference. Hwag and Hardman (2014) surveyed English native speakers' responses to "marked" sentences from essays of Korean FYC students and interviewed Korean students who provided the original essays about their opinions on the English native speakers' responses. The survey findings show that the marked sentences are mainly responded to negatively by English native speakers based on grammaticality and intelligibility. The interview findings reveal that it is not the grammaticality and intelligibility but the attitude that have the most influence of how English native speakers respond to the marked sentences. The authors ask general readers, particularly native language readers, to have a more open-minded and tolerant attitude towards language difference in writing.

In a similar vein, Sohan (2014) discusses how monolingual and multilingual readers should respond to language difference in writing and, based on a translingual approach to writing, she contends that readers should avoid viewing language as static and monolithic, consider difference as the norm of language use, regard repetition as a difference in language use in terms of time and space, and empower writers with agency in shaping their own language.

Kiernan et al. (2017) examines international FYC students' challenges in reading and writing English essays by asking the students to do translation assignments. The findings show that the translation assignments that lead to translingual practices help develop students' reading and writing skills. In addition, the translingual practices increase the students' awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity and motivate them to make use of their language and cultural resources in writing with the target language (i.e., English). These studies show that the understanding of the relationship between writing and reading can be enriched by a translingual approach through encouraging readers to be more open-minded to and tolerant of language difference and motivating writers to use multiple language and cultural resources in writing.

Oral genres as resources for written genres have also been discussed from a translingual view. For example, Cangarajah (2006) discusses how oral genres help a senior professor in Sri Lanka write academic papers in Tamil and English for local and international publications. He states that "[o]ral discourse and oral traditions of communication may find a place in writing as they provide useful resources for narrative and voice for students from multilingual backgrounds. They can also help deconstruct the values behind literate traditions and expand the communicative potential of writing." (p. 603). Cavazos (2017) analyzes a plenary address, a ceremony speech, and an interview from three multilingual scholars and argues that a translingual approach to writing helps the negotiation of meanings through viewing oral genres as resources for written genres. She claims that multilingual writers' rhetorical sensibilities increase when they take into consideration audience, language resources, and contexts in oral language practices. Both studies call for more research on the relationship between writing and speaking.

5.4. Chapter Summary

The empirical studies reviewed in this section show that a translingual approach has been investigated in various contexts with diverse writer groups and for different research foci. In terms of contexts, the study of a translingual approach to writing is still heavily based in U.S. contexts, but it has attracted more attention in non-U.S. contexts (such as Saudi Arabia, Kenya, Israel, Mongolia, Japan, Hong Kong, Serbia, Belgium, the Netherlands, Egypt, Argentina, and Sweden). To be more specific, a translingual approach has been employed as a pedagogy in different writing courses (such as FYC, ESL writing, EFL writing, ELL writing, Heritage Language writing, L2 writing, basic writing, and bi/multilingual writing) or as an element of writing practices (e.g., digital writing, music composing, professional writing, and instructional practices). These studies also indicate that technology plays an increasingly important role in enriching translingual studies on writing by providing a space in which to cross contexts.

With respect to participants, a translingual approach has been applied to explore writing and instructional practices of writers from different educational levels (such as K-12, undergraduate, and graduate students). The participants involved in most of the reviewed studies are students or instructors who write in multiple languages. As mentioned in section 4.2, only two studies reviewed in this dissertation examine English monolingual student writers' writing processes from a translingual approach (Hanson, 2013; Panos, 2017). Three studies research writers who write in languages other than English, such as Dutch (Blommaert, 2019), Filipino (Mendoza & Parba, 2018), and Spanish and Mandarin (Severino, 2017). Most studies explore EAL writing and instructional practices from a translingual orientation. The writing practices of writers other than students and instructors, such as scholars (Han, 2019; Cavazos, 2017), hip-hop artists (Milu, 2018), novelists and poets (Tannenbaum, 2014), and social media users (Albawardi, 2018; Blommaert, 2019), have also been investigated from a translingual

perspective. The advocacy for translingualism in composition studies, translingual practices in applied linguistics, and translanguaging in bilingual education has elicited a growing interest in examining how a translingual approach can exert effects on diverse writer groups.

As for research foci, writing instruction in different educational levels, writing practice in classrooms and on social media, writer agency and identity in multilingual and multicultural contexts, and the relationship between writing, reading, and speaking have been discussed from translingual perspectives. Generally speaking, these empirical studies manifest the central tenets for which a translingual approach advocates, i.e., writer agency in shaping their own language, languages other than the target language as resources rather than impediments, difference as the norm of language, language use, and language user, and a challenge to monolingualism. Specifically, these central tenets of a translingual approach to writing have been enacted in writing courses through translingual strategies (such as envoicing, recontextualization, interaction, and entextualization (Canagarajah, 2011b, 2013a; Cavazos, 2017; Flores & Aneja, 2017; Pacheco et al., 2019)) and activities (including translating (Hanson, 2013; Kiernan et al., 2017), multimodal composing (Ganzales, 2015; Pecheco & Smith, 2015; Smith et al., 2017), cross-cultural collaborating (Kulavuz-Onal & Vásquez, 2018; Lee & Jenks, 2016; Panos, 2017), and reflective writing (Hartse et al., 2018; Wang, 2017)).

Some empirical studies also evidence concerns about adopting a translingual approach to writing. For example, Ruecker (2014) traces the transition of Latina/o immigrant students from high school to college/university and contends that a translingual approach should take multilingual students' needs of learning writing norms for their academic success into consideration; otherwise, it might not facilitate but delay students' learning processes. Ruecker et al. (2018) surveyed 78 NNES composition instructors and conduct follow up interviews with 11

85

out of the 78 participants and provided their suggestions for supporting NNES composition

instructors and diminishing language prejudice. Their study proffers empirical evidence for the

concerns about "linguistic tourism" (Matsuda, 2014) and "neoliberal multiculturalism" (Kubota,

2016). Severino (2017) discusses her own processes of writing in Spanish (advanced level) and

Mandarin (beginning level) and argues that linguistic and cultural norms are important for both

teachers and students to understand language and cultural differences, and these differences can

improve their writing and teaching performances. She cautions that a translingual approach to

writing that ignores learners' language development and proficiency might not benefit but

undermine students' learning. Studies show different findings about how a translingual approach

could affect writing practice and instruction, and the debate is still going on. In the following

chapter, I introduce the results from a case study.

CHAPTER SIX: A CASE STUDY

A case study was conducted to examine two doctoral students' L2 writing processes from a translingual perspective, please see chapter 3.2 for details of the research methodology. In this chapter, I present results from the case study. Results were achieved by analyzing the textual, video, and audio data collected from the two doctoral students' research proposal writing process. Findings showed what different language resources they used, why they used different language resources, how they used different language resources, and how and why they used language resources differently in different writing stages. In the following sections, I introduce the results with data examples.

6.1. What language resources were used and why?

The three written drafts from the three meetings showed that the L1 was not used at all in the written products. The three drafts were composed exclusively in English (please see the three drafts in the appendices). However, the video data revealed that the two doctoral students used both their L1 (Mandarin) and L2 (English) to compose their research proposal throughout the writing process. For example, in their first meeting, they discussed the conference which they would target and how to revise the title (they had a tentative title for their research project) to make it fit the conference. During their conversation, they used both L1 and L2 resources to communicate and exchange ideas, as shown in the following excerpt:

Excerpt 1 from the first meeting
01 M: 首先, 如果我们要往 *AACL* 投的话
    First, if we submit it to "AACL"
02 J: 嗯
    Right
03 M: 那肯定是以 *corpus* 为主, 对吗?

It has to be based on the "corpus", right?

04 J: 嗯

Right

05 M: 所以, 你先看看这两个点, 什么叫做 *stance adverbials*? 什么叫 *DDL*?

So, you look at these two points first, what is "stance adverbials"? what is "DDL"?

06 J: 嗯

Right

07 M: 对吧

Right?

08 J: 嗯, 反正我觉得可能 *AACL*, 那个会更偏方法论一点

Right, anyway I think "AACL" might focus more on methodology

09 M: 对

Right

10 J: 然后像这种 *pedagogical* 这种 *implication*

Then like this kind of "pedagogical", this kind of "implication"

11 M: *implication* 可以少讲

Can talk less about "implication"

12 J: 所以说是不是这个 *title* 要稍微 *fix* 一下?

So, does the "title" need to be slightly "fixed"?

13 M: 我觉得没有必要问什么 *teachers teach* 不 *teach* 或者 *students learn* 不 *learn*

I think it is not necessary to ask "teachers teach" don't "teach" or "students learn" don't "learn"

14 J: 对

Right

15 M: 就可以说什么 *DDL, application of DDL learning*

It could be said like "DDL", "application of DDL learning"

16 J: 那基本就是说, 额, *DDL to teach stance adverbial*

Basically speaking, um, "DDL to teach stance adverbial"

17 M: 或者你要说一点 *teach* 不想要直接就是 *application of DDL in stance adverbial*

learning? 对.

Or if you do not what to mention "teaching", directly say "application of DDL in stance adverbial learning?" Right.

18 J: *OK*

"OK"

Excerpt 1 exhibits the common use of different language resources during the two doctoral

students' communication for composing a research proposal in their L2. They used their L1 and

L2 resources to negotiate and construct meanings to reach their rhetorical goals. In Excerpt 1, the

two doctoral students decided to submit their proposal to the *American Association of Corpus*

Linguistics (*AACL*) and revised their title based on the purposes and requirements of *AACL*.

Mary said "首先, 如果我们要往 *AACL* 投的话" *(First, if we submit it to "AACL),*

"那肯定是以 *corpus* 为主, 对吗?" *(It has to be based on the "corpus", right?)*, and Jake

responded and asked "所以说是不是这个 *title* 要稍微 *fix* 一下?" (*So, does the "title" need to*

be slightly "fixed"?). These sentences exemplify the use of both L1 and L2 for meaning

negotiation and construction throughout the two doctoral students' L2 writing process. Such a

phenomenon is also reflected in their second and third meetings, as shown in the following

Excerpts.

Excerpt 2 from the second meeting
01 J: 那我们就从 *research design* 开始吧
　　Let's start from "research design"
02 M: 好
　　OK
03 J: 基本上前边背景都介绍差不多了, 额, *research design* 的话, 那就先介绍咱们要有多
　　人?
　　Basically, background information has been introduced above, um, in term of "research design", introducing how many participants first?
04 M: 嗯
　　Ok
05 J: 然后, 之后, 要写, 开始咱们说是三十人是吧?
　　Then, after, will write, at the beginning we said thirty people, right?
06 M: 对
　　Right
07 J: "*So*", um, mm, 这个怎么说 *will, study will*
　　"So", um, mm…, how to say this "will, study will"
08 M: 你可以说 *participants from the study will come from three sessions*
　　You can say "participants from the study will come from three sessions"

09 J: *the participants of the study*
  "the participants of the study"

10 M: 嗯, 嗯
  Right, right

11 J: 要不要加一个 N 等于多少? 我看你老加那个, 四十五? 是这么搞的嘛?
  Want to add the number of how many? I always see you add that, forty-five? Is it like this?

12 M: 额
  Um

13 J: 还是给它?
  Or let it

14 M: 我觉得先不用加括号, 你可以说 *each session has 15 students or 15 participants register for each session.*
  I think it is not necessary to add parentheses, you can say "each session has 15 students or 15 participants register for each session"

15 J: Ok
  "Ok"

16 M: *Registered for each session*? *with* 你可以把前边 *each session* 给 *each session has* 我
  说吧
  "Registered for each session"? "With", you can put the previous "each session", give, "each session has", let me do it "and"

17 J: 行
  Ok

Excerpt 3 from the third meeting

01 J: 哦, 咱们这么着把, 别 *technology* 了, 就是, 就是 *computerized corpora*, 会不会好一点?
  technology 应该觉得有点太大了
  Oh, let's do this, don't use "technology", it's, it's "computerized corpora", is it better? I feel "technology" is too broad

02 M: 或者这么改, 额, 你刚才说的啥?
   Or revise it like this, um, what did you say?

03 J: 就是把那个 *technology*
  It's to replace "technology"

04 M: 改成?
  With?

05 J: 改成 *computerized corpora* 或者 *online corpora*
  With "computerized corpora" or "online corpora"

06 M: *the fast development of computer*
  "the fast development of computer"

07 J: *computerized corpora*

"computerized corpora"

08 M: *computer-rize?*
"computerize"?

09 J: 嗯
Right

10 M: /raiz/ 怎么写啊?
How to spell /raiz/?

11 J: 就是 computer 然后
It's "computer" then

12 M: 哦
Oh

13 J: *r-i-z-e*, 就是 *computerized* 我是老看有人这么用
"r-i-z-e", it's "computerized", I always see others use it like this

14 M: 明白明白
I see I see

Like Excerpt 1, Excerpts 2 and 3 also show the similar use of different language resources in the two doctoral students' research proposal writing process in L2, although no L1 occurred in their written drafts. In Excerpt 2, they discussed how to compose the research design, and in Excerpt 3, they negotiated how to revise a term used in their proposal. All three Excerpts from three meetings instantiate the use of L1 and L2 in the L2 writers' proposal composing process.

When asked about why they used different language resources in their L2 writing process, both Mary and Jake said that they used different language resources during their face-to-face communication due to their common identities and convenience of communication. Mary and Jake's common identity as Chinese who speak the same L1 (Mandarin) is one of the reasons that they incorporate their L1 into their L2 writing process. For instance, Jake said, "there are two Chinese people, and there is no point to communicate with each other in English. Both of us communicate efficiently (in Mandarin), so I am more comfortable to speak Chinese with another Chinese.". Mary also stated that "it (using Mandarin to communicate with another Mandarin

speaker) is more straightforward, and it's just so weird that two Chinese are talking in English."
The common language and cultural identities between the two interlocutors affect their use of language resources for communication, as Mary said she would not use Mandarin to talk to a Japanese or English speaker. Another common characteristic of Mary and Jake is that they are from the same-year cohort and shares a similar educational background. Mary and Jake both mentioned that they were in their second year in a doctoral program at a large public university in the U.S., and they took some courses (such as courses in their major and some statistics courses) together because of their common research interest (a quantitative approach to language study). This common identity as members of the same year cohort makes them comfortable using L2 (English) together with L1 (Mandarin) during their communication because they learned new terms, concepts, and other relevant knowledge together with English as the medium of instruction, and they knew the other could understand their mixed-use of language resources without further explanation.

Another reason the two doctoral students used different language resources was the convenience of communication. Jake said "[communicating in Mandarin] definitely releases the cognitive burden in my mind, because if we speak English, we have the competence to communicate in English, but we have to process you know the language in our mind at the same time we process the content so we just release the language burden from our mind and focus on the content." Mary agreed and stated that "it's easier to communicate in our native language." When asked, if it was easier and convenient to communicate in their L1, why they still used L2 during their communication; they both said because their topic was pertinent to some concepts that they learned in the context in which English was the medium of instruction and that they did not know the corresponding meanings of those concepts in Mandarin. Therefore, in that case, it

was easy and convenient for them to communicate in L2 directly rather than trying to translate those concepts or terms into Mandarin.

Responding to the question why they used L2 for communication, Mary said "we came up with these corpus linguistics terms entirely in English. When we came to the field, it's entirely in English. So, it's hard to translate them into Mandarin. That's also why people argue about the translation of [words describing] Chinese food into English; they don't exist in English culture." She added that

> Because, I would say, the statistics knowledge, I learn all the statistics here at states, so there are a lot of lexicon problems (when learning those terms), but at this time these lexicons probably, it's not probably, it's absolutely that Chinese equivalents exist. But I just didn't learn them in China. We (Mary and Jake) were taking classes together, so it would be easier for us to communicate in English terms.

Jake also mentioned that he learned those statistics and corpus terms in English and knew the literal translation in Mandarin, but he stressed that "I am not sure whether Chinese linguists use the Chinese terms the same way we use the corresponding English terms, so it is easier to use English terms to avoid misunderstandings."

The Excerpts and examples show that the two doctoral students used both their L1 and L2 to make meaning in their L2 writing process, albeit with no L1 used in their written products. The results also indicate that they used L1 and L2 correspondingly based on their common identities and convenience of communication. If that is the case, the next question could be how they used different language resources in their L2 writing process? In the subsequent section, I will answer this question.

6.2. How different language resources were used?

As shown in the previous section, the two doctoral students used both their L1 and L2 to make meaning in their L2 writing process. As Excerpts 1, 2, and 3 show, most of time, they mixed different language resources for meaning negotiation and construction. For example, in Excerpt 1, when Jake asked "所以说是不是这个 *title* 要稍微 *fix* 一下?" (*So, does the "title" need to be slightly "fixed"?*), Mary answered "我觉得没有必要问什么 *teachers teach* 不 *teach* 或者 *students learn* 不 *learn*" (*I think it is not necessary to ask "teachers teach" don't "teach" or "students learn" don't "learn"*). In this turn, both Jake and Mary meshed Mandarin and English into one sentence to convey and exchange their ideas. The integrated use of language resources could be found in most of their utterances. For instance, in Excerpt 2, when Jake said "*So*, 这个怎么说 *will, study will*" (*"So", how to say this "will, study will"*), Mary responded "你可以说 *participants from the study will come from three sessions*" (*You can say "participants from the study will come from three sessions"*). In Excerpt 3, when Mary asked "/raiz/ 怎么写啊? (*How to spell /raiz/?*), Jake said "就是 *computer* 然后" (*It's "computer" then*). These examples indicate that different language resources were intertwined with each other during the two doctoral students' communication for their L2 writing.

When asked about how they selected language resources for communication in their L2 writing processes, both of them stated that they "naturally" rather than intentionally meshed or separated language resources. Jake stated that "I think we (Mary and Jake) just do code switching and that makes us comfortable. We don't really worry about using English words or Chinese words, just naturally say something." Mary shared a similar idea and said, "I do it (using

Mandarin and English together to make meanings) naturally, especially in this multilingual and multicultural context." When Jake asked, 也就是说 *workshop procedure* 这样?" (*So, "workshop procedure is like this?"*), Mary answered "*yeah*". When Jake continued to ask, "那就是一个 *pre-draft* 一个 *post-draft*?" (*so, that is one "pre-draft" one "post-draft"?*), Mary said "对" (*yes/right*). In terms of the use of different language resources (*yeah* and 对) to respond to different questions, Mary said that "that's tricky to me sometimes, when I am talking with Americans, sometimes I use "对" as well." She further explained that "I think because it (using different language resources) is direct and primitive, it's unprocessed. It's like when the emotion is very intense, L1 just comes out." The two doctoral students' use of language resources and their explanations of this phenomenon indicate a natural process of meaning-making with different language resources. If this was the case, another question arises, which is why they did not use L1 in their written text?

To answer this question, both Mary and Jake mentioned the different purposes and audiences between their face-to-face communication and their written text. With respect to their face-to-face communication, the purpose was to compose a research proposal for an academic conference, and the audience was each other. Therefore, they used both L1 and L2 in their L2 writing process due to their common identities and convenience of communication. In regard to their written text, the purpose was to show the potential of their research and persuade reviewers to accept their proposal, and the potential audience was conference proposal reviewers who might not know Mandarin (*AACL* is mainly held in the U.S., and the proposal is required to be written in English). Given the purpose and audience of their written proposal, L1 was not used in the text. Mary stated that the mixed-use of Mandarin and English was not a problem for her, "but we have to consider the feelings of the listeners (audience/reviewers), it's really difficult, well if

I am a listener who doesn't know Mandarin, I will have a difficult time. If the listener is a

Japanese, I would keep the English only, because if I just mix Chinese or something, it would

just confuse people, right?" Jake shared a similar idea and said that this research proposal was

written for an academic conference held in the U.S., so "[he] was comfortable with using

English".

When asked about different language resources used in different contexts, both Mary and

Jake said they were more familiar with and preferred to use Mandarin in social contexts and

English in academic contexts. Jake said, "I have been in the U.S. for six years. So, I get used to

writing something in English. If you want me to write something in Chinese, it's gonna be in

social contexts, and for academic contexts, I just use English." Mary claimed that "In an

academic aspect, most of the academic vocabulary I learn are in English at the first place. For

Chinese, probably, more daily life related." She gave an example about her use of English in a

social context:

> something that is connected with my car, like, I would hesitate a lot, if I would
> like to express this to the car dealer. The oil and gas, we would say 换机油, 换汽
> 油, but I don't know, like for the first place, probably oil is 机油 gas is 汽油. So,
> when my car dealer told me I have two free chances to change the oil, I thought it
> was gas at first place, yeah, and he said no, it's oil.

These results denote that the use of language resources is closely connected with rhetorical

situations, the purpose, audience, and context affect the use of different language resources.

6.3. How different language resources were used in different writing stages?

As shown in previous sections, Mary and Jake used both their L1 and L2 to negotiate and

construct meanings in different rhetorical situations, which include writing purposes, audiences,

and contexts. However, they used their L1 and L2 differently in different meetings in terms of

amounts of L1 and L2 being used. Mary summarized their L2 writing process and said that they

"make a short-term goal for each meeting, I think we have accomplished all of those goals. Like the first time, it's the goal of the skeleton, the second time just to put flesh in, put some contents in, and the third time it's trying to polish all the parts, organization, vocabulary, syntax." The smoothness of their cooperation and the completeness of their research proposal partially derived from their clear and feasible goals for each meeting in their L2 writing process. Thus, their L2 writing process could be considered as three writing stages, i.e., planning, drafting, and revising. The two doctoral students used less and less Mandarin and more and more English from planning to drafting and then to revising in their L2 writing process, as shown in the following table.

Table 1. The Use of Mandarin and English in Different Writing Stages.

	Planning	**Drafting**	**Revising**
Total words	3031	1591	1100
Mandarin words	2647 (87.33%)	1201 (75.48%)	805 (73.18%)
English words	384 (12.66%)	393 (24.51%)	295 (26.81%)

Given the amounts of L1 and L2 used in different stages, both Mary and Jake stated that the difficulty or the complexity of writing activities affected the use of L1 and L2. Both Mary and Jake said that the planning stage was the most difficult for them because they needed to exchange, negotiate, or even compromise on their ideas to reach a consensus in structuring their research proposal. Jake stated that "I can see some mismatch between me and Mary when planning this proposal. But when drafting and revising it, it's more like these two guys are more consistent, yeah, because there is not a lot of negotiation." He continued and said that "I think the hardest one is the first one (planning), because we have to figure out the general structure, for which we need to negotiate a lot. but it (drafting) is more like how to express the idea, so it's relatively easy, yeah. The easiest one is this one (revising), it's just to revise the grammar." Mary

agreed and said that "the first session (planning) is trying to figure out some very important questions, and we have these bullet points and highlighted things. … [when drafting] we are trying to integrate ideas to complete draft to see how we can do the transitions. This [revising] is not difficult, we clarify things." They both view planning as the most difficult part and revising as the easiest section in their L2 writing process, the different levels of difficulty in different writing stages influence the use of their L1 and L2.

In respect of L1 and L2 used in different writing stages, both of them said that the L2 writing goals and their writing proficiency exert effects on their use of different language resources. Jake said that because they had "different ideas about contents", it was not easy for them to reach an agreement on what should be included in this proposal. However, as long as they achieved a consensus, it was not difficult for them to put thoughts into words. As Jake stated that "both of us are PhD students, and we know English linguistic forms pretty well." Mary conveyed that "It (drafting or revising) is not very difficult. I think it's universal, because we have been trained to do things like this. We know how these things should be done in English, so we are familiar with these [linguistic] conventions." She also said that Mandarin "helps me to clarify some things, like the comprehensive framework and things that I want to include". That was why she used more Mandarin in the planning stage and less and less Mandarin in the drafting and revising stages when English linguistic forms played more roles in their L2 writing process. These results indicate that the use of L1 and L2 in the process of L2 writing is also affected by writing goals and writers' L2 writing proficiency.

CHAPTER SEVEN: THE POSSIBILITIES AND CHALLENGES OF A TRANSLINGUAL APPROACH TO L2 WRITING

The results of the case study show that L1 can facilitate L2 writing, though L1 may not occur in L2 written text. Therefore, L1 or languages other than the target language can be viewed as resources rather than impediments in learning, teaching, and using L2. In addition, the findings indicate that the two doctoral students intertwine different language resources "naturally" to negotiate and construct meanings during their oral communication; however, the English linguistic forms or writing conventions contribute much to the production of their L2 written text. In this sense, linguistic forms and writing conventions are effective resources in producing L2 written text. Moreover, the findings suggest that the attunement between language resources and other rhetorical factors (such as writing purposes, audiences, and contexts) has to be considered to understand language use. These findings add supporting evidence to both the endorsements and concerns mentioned in previous chapters and also provide implications for a translingual approach to L2 writing. In the following sections, I will discuss the possibilities and challenges of a translingual approach to L2 writing.

7.1. Possibilities of a translingual approach to L2 writing

A translingual approach has been discussed in various research areas of writing, such as basic writing (Horner, 2011), genre (Bawashi, 2016), writing assessment (Dryer, 2016; Lee, 2016), reading and writing (Trimbur, 2016), language ideology and policies in writing studies (Kilfoil, 2015), and transfer in writing (Leonard & Nowacek, 2016). In addition, the translingual tenets have been implemented in various contexts such as ESL writing in the U.S. (Jain, 2014; Lee & Canagarajah, 2018; Pacheco et al., 2019), bilingual writing in Kenya (Kiramba, 2017),

and EFL writing in Egypt and Argentina (Kulavuz-Onal & Vásquez, 2018), for diverse writer groups such as K-12 students (Pacheco & Smith, 2015; Smith et al., 2017), undergraduates (Lee & Jenks, 2016; Malcolm, 2017), graduates (Flores & Aneja, 2017; Kaufhold, 2018), and college composition instructors (Arnold, 2016; Zheng, 2017), and with different research foci such as writer agency (Canagarajah, 2013a; Lorimer, 2013), writing instruction (Malcolm, 2017; Wang, 2017), and writing teacher training (Arnold, 2016; Flores & Aneja, 2017). This growing conceptualization and implementation of a translingual approach in writing studies also provide implications for L2 writing. In the following subsections, I will discuss the theoretical, ideological, and pedagogical possibilities of a translingual approach to L2 writing.

7.1.1. Theoretical possibilities

It is theoretically possible for a translingual approach to contribute to L2 writing due to the broad definition of L2 writing as a field of study. L2 writing embraces any approach that helps understand the phenomenon of writing in a language that is not one's L1. As mentioned in chapter 1, L2 writing is defined as "an international and transdisciplinary field of study that is concerned with any issues related to the phenomenon of writing in a language that is acquired later in life." (Atkinson et al., 2015, p. 384). This broad definition of L2 writing makes a translingual approach possible to contribute to L2 writing studies.

The theoretical possibility of a translingual approach to L2 writing has been reflected in some clarifications of the difference between a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing. For example, Donahue (2016) and Horner (2018) note that a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing are not competing or opposite but mutually supplementary and complementary. As Horner (2018) argues that a translingual approach is proposed not to replace or conflate other

writing disciplines but to reconsider language, language difference, and language use in different writing disciplines (such as composition studies, L2 writing, basic writing, and WAC/WID). These discussions support Atkinson et al.'s (2015) distinction between L2 writing and a translingual approach to writing. These studies indicate that a translingual approach, as a theoretical lens for understanding language, language difference, language users, and language use, has the potential to benefit L2 writing.

This potential has been examined in some studies that explore how a translingual approach as a theoretical framework can help understand multilingual/L2 writing. For example, Smith et al. (2017) applied a translingual framework (they called it multilingual codemeshing) to investigate how three eighth-grade students used their multilingual and multimodal resources in their digital composing processes. Their findings showed that students employed linguistic resources (such as English and their heritage languages), composing tools (such as PowerPoint and website programs), and visuals (such as colors and images) and collaborated with peers to construct their writing. They argued that a translingual approach as a theoretical lens helps teachers recognize and validate the language and cultural resources that students bring to the classroom, raises both teachers' and students' awareness of the language and cultural diversity in current teaching and learning contexts, and encourages students to adopt their multilingual and multimodal resources for their writing. Kiernan et al. (2017) investigated first-year composition students' reading and writing development from a translingual perspective by analyzing students' translating, comparing, and reflecting activities in their reading and writing processes. They contended that a translingual approach as a theoretical orientation helps make invisible elements (such as the relationships between reading, writing, and audience and awareness of languages and cultures as resources) visible, which aids students' academic and cognitive

development. These studies show that embracing a translingual approach as a theoretical orientation to L2 writing, to a certain extent, is useful for L2 writing teachers and learners.

7.1.2. Ideological possibilities

A translingual approach that challenges monolingual ideologies has the potential to help enrich the language ideology discussion in L2 writing. Silva (1997) proposed an ethical approach to ESL writers to stress writer agency and oppose a deficit ideology on L2 writers and writing. He argued that ESL writers need to be respected in at least four fundamental ways, i.e., "they need to be (a) understood, (b) placed in suitable learning contexts, (c) provided with appropriate instruction, and (d) evaluated fairly." (p. 359). Twenty years later, Tardy and Whittig (2017) restressed Silva's (1997) ethical treatment of ESL writers and added one more element, i.e., advocacy for English as an additional language (EAL) writers, to call for treating L2 writers ethically. To challenge monolingual ideologies in writing studies, Silva, Leki, and Carson (1997) discussed how second language studies (primarily SLA and L2 writing) perspectives could help composition studies avoid being monolingual, monocultural, and ethnocentric and have an open-minded attitude towards unconventional language use in writing. Similarly, Matsuda (1999, 2006) discussed English monolingualism in composition studies and advocated for heterogeneity as the norm in composition classrooms. Although these ideological discussions are insightful and inspiring, they are scattered ideas proposed in different projects for different purposes in L2 writing and composition studies. A translingual approach that integrates these ideas (as mentioned in the previous section) provides a bigger picture of language ideologies in writing studies and can help develop language ideologies in L2 writing studies.

This possibility has been discussed by comparing different language ideologies in different language models. Horner, NeCamp, and Donahue (2011) compared monolingual,

traditional multilingual, and translingual models and stated that a monolingual model views a language as a static, discrete, and monolithic linguistic entity with presupposed rules and regards all languages other than the target language as threats or impediments to the acquisition and use of the target language; a traditional multilingual model that is rooted in the monolingual model considers such linguistic entities as existing in separate language systems in one mind; while a translingual model renders languages as resources rather than threats in a single repertoire that are always in contact for meaning-making. Canagarajah (2015) differentiated a translingual model from three other bi/multilingual models by dividing writing competence into four models (i.e., subtractive, additive, recursive, and translingual models). He contended that (1) the languages are intertwined rather than separated; (2) language acquisition is multidirectional rather than linear; (3) language competence is holistic for all languages rather than multiple competences for separate languages; and (4) language competence and proficiency are always evolving and never complete. These language ideologies have been enacted in writing classrooms.

A translingual approach as an ideological orientation to language and language difference has been explored in writing teaching and learning. For instance, Flores and Aneja (2017) investigated preservice NNES teachers' learning and teaching from a translingual perspective and argued that a translingual approach helps preservice NNES teachers challenge dominant language ideologies, construct positive multilingual teacher identities, and develop pedagogical approaches with their multiple language and cultural resources. Through introducing and explaining examples of using different English varieties in different contexts, Jain (2014) discussed the importance of validating students' languages/language varieties in teaching ESL writing and contended that applying a translingual approach to writing helps increase the

awareness of language and cultural diversity in the classroom. Similarly, Malcolm (2017) encouraged her multilingual students to challenge monolingual ideologies by allowing students to apply their language and cultural resources to writing. These studies demonstrate the possibilities of employing a translingual approach as an ideological orientation to L2 writing.

7.1.3. Pedagogical possibilities

The different theoretical approaches (including a translingual approach) to L2 writing have various pedagogical implications. What translingual pedagogies could imply for the teaching of multilingual writers has been investigated in various contexts, for diverse writer groups, and with different research foci (as mentioned at the beginning of this section). Translingual pedagogies that reflect the central tenets of a translingual approach to writing (i.e., writer agency, languages and modalities as resources, heterogeneity as the norm, and a challenge to monolingualism) have been implemented in writing courses through translingual strategies (such as envoicing, recontextualization, interaction, and entextualization (Canagarajah, 2011a, 2013; Flores & Aneja, 2017; Pacheco et al., 2019)) and activities (including translating (Hanson, 2013; Kiernan et al., 2017), multimodal composing (Gonzales, 2015; Pecheco & Smith, 2015; Smith et al., 2017), cross-cultural collaborating (Kulavuz-Onal & Vásquez, 2018; Lee & Jenks, 2016; Panos, 2017), and reflective writing (Hartse et al., 2018; Wang, 2017)).

Canagarajah (2011a) proposed four translingual strategies (i.e., recontextualization strategies, voice strategies, interactional strategies, and textualization strategies) based on his student Buthainah's hybrid use of languages and visual symbols in writing. Canagarajah (2013a) revised the four strategies as envoicing strategies, recontextualization strategies, interactional strategies, and entextualization strategies. He explained that "[e]nvoicing strategies set the conditions for negotiation … ; recontextualization strategies prepare the ground for negotiation;

interactional strategies are adopted to co-construct meaning; and entextualization strategies reveal the temporal and spatial shaping of the text to facilitate and respond to these negotiations." (p. 49-50). The revised version puts more emphasis more on the emergent and contingent features of writing based on writer, reader, text, context, and their interaction. These four translingual strategies have been implemented in writing classrooms. For example, Pacheco et al. (2019) examined how a third-grade teacher (the teacher was in the authors' ESL endorsement program, and this program offered instruction on translingual pedagogies) strategically participated in translingual practice and guided her bilingual students in shaping their writing. Their findings showed that the teacher used these translingual strategies to engage in students' writing practice and helped students to construct writing with their multilingual resources (such as English, Arabic, and Spanish). Flores and Aneja (2017) introduced translingualism to their students (NNES preservice teachers) and encouraged them to apply translingual pedagogies in their teaching practice. They argued that the translingual strategies implemented in their teaching and their students' teaching helped both teachers and students to challenge dominant ideologies and construct positive multilingual identities. These studies called for translingual pedagogies in writing classrooms.

Translingual pedagogies have also been enacted in writing classrooms by engaging students in writing activities. These activities include translating (Hanson, 2013; Kiernan et al., 2017) in which students compare their reading and writing across languages, multimodal composing (Gonzales, 2015; Pecheco & Smith, 2015; Smith et al., 2017) in which students apply multiple languages and modalities to produce writing, cross-cultural collaborating (Kulavuz-Onal & Vásquez, 2018; Lee & Jenks, 2016; Panos, 2017) in which students from different geographical, linguistic and cultural backgrounds (such as Egypt and Argentina, U.S. and

Hongkong, and U.S. and Sweden) co-construct meanings with different language and cultural resources, and reflective writing (Hartse et al., 2018; Wang, 2017) in which students negotiate different linguistic, rhetorical, and cultural differences. Translingual pedagogies have the potential to benefit L2 writing pedagogy through employing these writing strategies and activities to empower students with agency in using different language and cultural resources for writing, encourage students to challenge dominant norms and ideologies, motivate students to view writing as synergistic, emergent, and contingent, and increase students' and teachers' awareness of language and cultural diversity in the more and more diversified teaching and learning contexts. Although it is possible for a translingual approach to contribute to L2 writing studies theoretically, ideologically, and pedagogically, there are also challenges in adopting a translingual approach to L2 writing. In the subsequent section, I will discuss the challenges of a translingual approach to L2 writing.

7.2. Challenges of a translingual approach to L2 writing

As discussed in chapter 2, the increasing interest in a translingual approach to writing also elicits many concerns including misrepresentation of sociolinguistic and second language studies ideas (Matsuda, 2013, 2014; Severino, 2017), ignoring of similarities and differences between languages (Gilyard, 2016; Matsuda, 2014), missing discussions of marginality, inequality, and language imperialism (Flores, 2013; Kubota, 2016), and lack of pedagogical implications for language learners (Atkinson & Tardy, 2018; Atkinson et al., 2015; Ferris, 2014; Severino, 2017). Based on these concerns, I, in this section, will discuss three challenges of employing a translingual approach to L2 writing, i.e., the confusion of definitions of "translingual writing" and L2 writing, the resistance to language norms, and the blurring of differences between languages.

7.2.1. The confusion of definitions of "translingual writing" and L2 writing

The different understandings of "translingual writing" and the overlapping ideas between "translingual writing" and L2 writing challenge the acceptance and employment of a translingual approach to L2 writing. The term "translingual writing" has been used by some scholars to understand writing from a translingual perspective (such as Atkinson et al., 2015; Canagarajah, 2016; Lee, 2016; Matsuda, 2014; and Tannenbaum, 2014). Tannenbaum (2014) defined translingual writing as "writing in a language different from one's mother tongue" (p. 99), which is the typical definition of L2 writing. This definition manifests Matsuda's (2014) concern that the concept of translingual writing is not always fully understood, and some scholars use it "not for its intellectual value but for its valorized status." (p. 479). Matsuda (2014) viewed the concept of translingual writing as a loosely related sets of ideas, such as "English monolingualism is prevalent and problematic, the presence of language differences is normal and desirable, languages are neither discrete nor stable; they are dynamic and negotiated, and practicing translingual writing involves the negotiation of language differences." (p. 479). Atkinson et al. (2015) regarded translingual writing as "a particular orientation to how language is conceptualized and implicated in the study and teaching of writing." (p. 384). Canagarajah (2016) defined translingual writing as "a form of situated literate practice where writers negotiate their semiotic resources in relation to the dominant conventions of language and rhetoric." (p. 266). These definitions indicate the disagreements among scholars about what "translingual writing" is and show that some ideas (such as advocacy for writer agency, a challenge to monolingualism, and heterogeneity as the norm) overlap in understandings of translingual writing and L2 writing.

This overlap leads to the discussion of conflating L2 writing and translingual writing. Canagarajah (2013c) discussed the possibility of conflating L1 and L2 writing as translingual

writing based on the changed understandings of languages and their relationships, language competence, and the nature of writing. Atkinson et al. (2015) pointed out this tendency and clarified the difference between translingual writing and L2 writing, as mentioned above. Some translingual scholars (such as Donahue, 2016; Horner, 2018; and Lu & Horner, 2016) have also contended that "translingual" is a rhetorical model or a theoretical, ideological, or pedagogical orientation that can be applied to understand, learn, and teach writing rather than a specific form of writing (such as code meshing). In this sense, a translingual approach can benefit rather than undermine L2 writing. However, the confusion between a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing still exists (Atkinson & Tardy, 2018); and how a translingual approach can coexist or cooperate with other approaches (such as cognitive, sociocultural, and genre approaches) to understand L2 writing needs further exploration, which also elicits the next challenge of a translingual approach to L2 writing, i.e., language norms that L2 writing scholars and instructors try to help students to acquire become the targets of resistance in translingual studies.

7.2.2. The resistance to language norms

Another challenge of a translingual approach to L2 writing is its resistance to language norms and its lack of discussion of language norms as resources. Translingual studies (such as Canagarajah, 2011a; Jain, 2014; and Smith et al. 2017) have investigated how multilingual students use their L1s or heritage languages as resources to challenge the dominant language norms. The studies about the language structure of "can able to" (Lu, 1994), the mixed-use of AAVE and SWE (Young, 2004), and the meshing of English, Arabic, French, and visuals (Canagarajah, 2013a) have also reflected writers' resistance to the dominant language norms. However, language norms are what L2 writing scholars (such as Atkinson & Tardy, 2018; Ferris, 2014; Matsuda, 2014; Ruecker, 2014; Severino, 2017; and Tardy, 2017) think multilingual

students need to acquire to survive and thrive in their academic and social lives. For example, Ruecker (2014) investigated the transitions of Latina/Latino students from a high school to a college or university and argued that multilingual writers need to learn a privileged standardized variety of English for their academic success. Severino (2017) examined her experiences of learning advanced Spanish and beginning Mandarin and contended that learning language norms facilitated not only her own learning processes but also her understanding of her multilingual students' writing. This focus on language norms in teaching and learning L2 writing, however, as Atkinson and Tardy (2018) stated, makes some scholars view "SLW" as "standard language writing" rather than "second language writing" and consider L2 writing as "ghettoized" (Canagarajah, 2013c), "isolationist, and protectionist" (Canagarajah, 2015). This criticism of the focus of language norms in L2 writing leads to the discussion about how the resistance to language norms could benefit language learners.

The resistance to language norms in translingual studies has been questioned for its pedagogical implications for language learners. For example, Ferris (2014) reviewed three books that discussed translingual ideas in composition studies and argued that these three books shared philosophical ideas in challenging monolingualism, but they lacked pedagogical implications for teachers' classroom practice. Atkinson et al. (2015) and Atkinson and Tardy (2018) worried that a translingual approach that challenges dominant language norms but ignores multilingual writers' language development might fail in preparing and facilitating students to succeed in contexts that still valorize dominant language norms. In line with these pedagogical concerns, Matsuda (2014) cautioned that a translingual approach to writing that pursues interesting examples for intellectual curiosity might result in "linguistic tourism"—a fascination with the unknown and the selection of attractive but unrepresentative linguistic features— in teaching and

learning an additional language. These discussions show two different approaches to language

norms: the L2 writing approach advocates for accommodating students to the dominant language

norms, and a translingual approach encourages students to resist the dominant language norms.

For both L2 writing and a translingual approach to writing, the challenge is how to balance

accommodation and resistance.

7.2.3. The blurring differences between languages

A translingual approach that attempts to blur or flatten traditional differences (no matter

whether they are linguistic, social, or cultural differences) between languages through viewing

languages as resources in one's single integrated repertoire and considering every language act

as different in terms of time and space (Canagarajah, 2015, 2018; Lu & Horner, 2013) challenges

the legitimacy of L2 writing as a field of study (Canagarajah, 2013c) and the existence of L1 and

L2 (Canagarajsh, 2015). Although clarifications of the difference between a translingual

approach to writing and L2 writing have been made above, this understanding of language

difference still challenges the definitions of L2 (a language other than one's mother tongue or

first/native language) and L2 user (one who uses an L2 differently from his/her L1) in L2

writing. This temporal-spatial understanding of language difference has been questioned for its

ignoring of the similarities and differences between languages. Milson-Whyte (2013), for

example, posited three concerns about a translingual approach in multilingual contexts, i.e.,

"problems regarding valorizing, yet not legitimizing, minoritized languages; problems arising

from language users' inability to code-switch effectively; and the potential for ignoring sameness

and difference while attempting to address difference in language use" (p. 115) by introducing

codemeshing and a translingual approach and analyzing the examples of Jamaican multilingual

students in U.S. classrooms. The ignoring of linguistic, social, and cultural differences between

languages while addressing language difference is called "sameness of difference" (p. 286) or "the flattening of language differences" by Gilyard (2016, p. 284). Gilyard (2016) argued that viewing language as an abstraction flattens language differences and further prevents critical and informed discussions on language similarities and differences.

The blurring of differences between languages in translingual studies also results in the discussion of its ignoring of power relations and social inequalities. Flores (2013) and Kubota (2016) criticized the hybrid turn in TESOL and applied linguistics. Flores (2013) claimed that this turn erased the language history of nation-states and subaltern societies; hence, he appealed for more attention to power relations and social inequality in TESOL from both institutional and individual levels. Kubota (2016) stated that this turn espoused plurality, hybridity, and fluidity while ignoring marginality, inequality, and language imperialism. She considered the "plural" or "trans" turn as the celebration of "neoliberal multiculturalism", which valorizes "individualism, difference-blindness, and elitist cosmopolitanism rather than critical acknowledgement of power" (p. 487). She cautioned t "[c]oncepts such as hybridity and cosmopolitanism can undermine the positive effects of rootedness to form local solidarity among minoritized groups" (pp. 482-483). These studies show that, from a L2 writing perspective, language differences (such as linguistic, social, and cultural differences) are necessary to address similarities and differences between languages (e.g., English, Spanish, and Japanese) and language users (e.g., L1 and L2 users) and to increase the awareness of power relations and social inequality in language studies. From a translingual perspective, language differences (such as languages as separate linguistic entities) might interfere with multilinguals' formation of hybrid identities and agentive use of language resources. The challenge for a translingual approach to L2 writing is

111

how to clarify a temporal-spatial understanding of language differences while also taking the linguistic, social, and cultural differences between languages into consideration.

7.3. Conclusion

A translingual approach to writing has experienced a burgeoning development both conceptually and practically in the past decade, and it continues to attract attention in different academic fields. This dissertation introduces the conceptual development of a translingual approach to writing, reviews empirical studies from a translingual approach, and discusses the possibilities and challenges of a translingual approach to L2 writing. In sum, it is possible for a translingual approach to contribute theoretically, ideologically, and pedagogically to L2 writing studies because of its challenge to monolingualism, its advocacy for writer agency, its defense of languages other than the target language as resources rather than impediments, and its promotion of viewing heterogeneity as the norm. A translingual approach to writing also faces challenges in facilitating L2 writing studies due to its conflation with L2 writing, its resistance to language norms, and its blurring of differences between languages. As a potential approach to responding to the rapid development of globalization in writing studies, the notion of a translingual approach is continuing to be refined. It might be conducive to embracing a translingual approach to L2 writing if these challenges can be overcome. Hopefully, this dissertation serves as a modest attempt to induce some researchers to come forward with their valuable contributions to bridging the gap between a translingual approach to writing and L2 writing.

APPENDIX A. RESEARCH PROPOSAL DRAFT ONE

The application of DDL in learning stance adverbials

As the fast development of technology in 1990s, corpora began to be integrated in the context of the second language education. Influenced by this trend, data-driven learning (DDL), has receives increasing attention. DDL is categorized into (1) inductive DDL, referring to language learners directly interacting with corpora, and (2) deductive DDL, meaning that students use paper-based materials designed based on corpora to learn language (Romer, 2006). Even though DDL brings many benefits to second language classrooms (e.g., authentic learning materials), its effectiveness is still doubted: as teachers only play a role of facilitator, it gives students too much time to study independently and inductively. Do teachers teach and do students learn in DDL classrooms?

DDL advantages & inductive vs deductive

Research design: 1 2 3 (details: 50 mins → participants)

ENG 106i → **argumentative**, interview, proposal, synthesis

Model: Hyland Vs. **Biber (adjustment)**

Whether we should consider quantifying the differences of stance use?

Descriptive Vs. Inference

Framework

Pedagogy

Research design

APPENDIX B. RESEARCH PROPOSAL DRAFT TWO

The application of DDL in learning stance adverbials

As the fast development of technology in 1990s, corpora began to be integrated in the context of the second language education. Influenced by this trend, data-driven learning (DDL), has receives increasing attention. DDL is categorized into (1) inductive DDL, referring to language learners directly interacting with corpora, and (2) deductive DDL, meaning that students use paper-based materials designed based on corpora to learn language (Romer, 2006). Even though DDL brings many benefits to second language classrooms (e.g., authentic learning materials), its effectiveness is still doubted: as teachers only play a role of facilitator, it gives students too much time to study independently and inductively. Do teachers teach and do students learn in DDL classrooms? Biber's model for stance adverbials will be used in the study, altogether there are 6 categories of stance adverbials (e.g., models, adverbials), because the model is from corpus-driven analysis.

The participants of the study will come from three sessions of ENG106i, a first-year composition course, with 15 students registered for each session. Three different workshops will be hold for each individual class. The first workshop is based on traditional language teaching method—where the instructor would explain stance verb usages based on selected grammar books. DDL deductive and inductive 50-minute workshops are the main content for the other two class sessions: (1) for deductive DDL workshop, students will be instructed by pre-designed and paper-based materials; (2) for inductive DDL workshop, students will interact with the online corpus to explore the use of stance adverbials, assisted by the instructor. Before the workshops, students will complete the 1st draft of the argumentative assignment. After the workshop, they will revise their draft to write a second draft. Two coders will manually code the

cases of stance adverbials in the two drafts. The overall frequencies and frequencies of each category will be calculated for both drafts. The differences of the two types will be compared among the three groups.

Multi-angle comparisons can be seen from the study (i.e., deductive DDL, inductive DDL, and traditional teaching method), which is different from previous studies. The study can indicate the pros and cons of data-driven learning method. In terms of stance adverbials, the study will suggest the importance of using diverse stance adverbials in argumentative papers.

APPENDIX C. RESEARCH PROPOSAL DRAFT THREE

The application of DDL in learning stance adverbials

the fast development of computerized corpora has helped their integration into the context of second language education. Influenced by this trend, data-driven learning (DDL), has received increasing attention. DDL is categorized into (1) inductive DDL, referring to language learners directly interacting with corpora, and (2) deductive DDL, meaning that students use paper-based materials designed with corpora to learn language (Romer, 2006). Even though DDL brings many benefits to second language classrooms (e.g., learning materials in authentic contexts and pragmatic usages), its effectiveness is still questionable: as teachers only play with the role of facilitator, it gives students over amount of time to study independently and inductively. Do teachers teach? Do students learn in DDL classrooms?

This proposed study is classroom-based, with the aim to explore the effectiveness of DDL in learning stance adverbials with 6 categories of linguistic features such as models and adverbials (Biber, 1998). Participants come from three sessions of Introductory Composition course for international students, with 15 students registered for each session. Three different workshops will be hold for each individual session, the first of which is based on traditional language teaching method and lasts for 50 minutes. The instructor would explain stance verb usages according to selected grammar materials. DDL deductive and inductive workshops with equal length of time are the main content for the other two class sections. For the deductive DDL workshop, students will be instructed by pre-designed and paper-based materials; (For inductive DDL workshop, students will interact with the online corpus to explore the use of stance adverbials, assisted by the instructor. Students would be required to complete the 1st draft of the argumentative assignment before the workshop and l revise their draft afterwards. Two

researchers s will manually code the cases of stance adverbials within the two drafts. The overall frequency as well as that of each stance adverbial category will be calculated for both drafts, with the pair-wise comparisons made between individual types compared among the three groups.

REFERENCES

Albawardi, A. (2018). The translingual digital practices of Saudi females on WhatsApp. *Discourse, Context & Media, 25*, 68-77.

Arnold, L. R. (2016). "This is a field that's open, not closed": Multilingual and international writing faculty respond to composition theory. *Composition Studies, 44*(1), 72-88.

Atkinson, D. (2003). Writing and culture in the post-process era. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 12*(1), 49-63.

Atkinson, D. (Ed.). (2011). *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition.* Oxford: Routledge.

Atkinson, D. (2016). Second language writing and culture. In R. Manchón, & P. K. Matsuda (Ed.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 545-565). Berlin; de Gruyter.

Atkinson, D., Churchill, E., Nishino, T., & Okada, H. (2007). Alignment and interaction in a sociocognitive approach to second language acquisition. *Modern Language Journal, 91*(2), 169–188.

Atkinson, D., Crusan, D., Matsuda, P. K., Ortmeier-Hooper, C., Ruecker, T., Simpson, S., & Tardy, C. (2015). Clarifying the relationship between L2 writing and translingual writing: An open letter to writing studies editors and organization leaders. *College English, 77*(4), 383-386.

Atkinson, D., & Tardy, C. M. (2018). SLW at the crossroads: Finding a way in the field. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 42*, 86-93.

Ayash, N. (2016). Conditions of (im)possibility: Postmonolingual language representations in academic literacies. *College English, 78*(6), 555-577.

Baker, C., & Jones, S. (1998). *Encyclopedia of bilingualism and bilingual education*. Clevedon; Philadelphia, Pa.: Multilingual Matters.

Bawarshi, A. (2016). Beyond the genre fixation: A translingual perspective on genre. *College English, 78*(3), 243–249.

Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. (2012). *Written corrective feedback in second language acquisition and writing*. New York and London: Routledge.

Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Brutt-Griffler, J., & Samimy, K. (2001). Transcending the nativeness paradigm. *World Englishes, 20*(1), 99-106.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2002). Multilingual writers and the academic community: Towards a critical relationship. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 1*(1), 29-44.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2006a). The place of world Englishes in composition: Pluralization continued. *College Composition and Communication, 57*(4), 586–619.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2006b). Toward a writing pedagogy of shuttling between languages: Learning from multilingual writers. *College English, 68*(6), 589-604.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2007). Lingua Franca English, multilingual communities, and language acquisition. *Modern Language Journal, 91*(5), 923-939.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2009). Multilingual strategies of negotiating English: From conversation to writing. *JAC, 29*(1/2), 17-48.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2011a). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *Modern Language Journal, 95*(3), 401–417.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2011b). Translanguaging in the classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy. *Applied Linguistics Review, 2*, 1–28.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2013a). Negotiating translingual literacy: An enactment. *Research in the Teaching of English, 48*(1). 40–67.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2013b). *Translingual practice: Global Englishes and cosmopolitan relations*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2013c). The end of second language writing? *Journal of Second Language Writing, 22*(4), 440-441.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2015). Clarifying the relationship between translingual practice and L2 writing. *Applied Linguistics Review, 6*(4), 414-440.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2016). Translingual writing and teacher development in composition. *College English, 78*(3), 265–273.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2017). *Translingual practices and neoliberal policies: Attitudes and strategies of African skilled migrants in Anglophone workplaces*. SpringerBriefs in Linguistics.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2018). Translingual practice as spatial repertoires: Expanding the paradigm beyond structuralist orientations. *Applied Linguistics, 39*(1), 31-54.

Canagarajah, A. S., & Dovchin, S. (2019). The everyday politics of translingualism as a resistant practice. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 16*(2), 127-144.

Canagarajah, A. S., & Matsumoto, Y. (2017). Negotiating voice in translingual literacies: From literacy regimes to contact zones. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 38*(5), 390-406.

Carson, J., & Leki, I. (Ed..). (1993). *Reading in the composition classroom: Second language perspectives*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.

Casanave, C. (2003). Looking ahead to more sociopolitically-oriented case study research in L2 writing scholarship (But should it be called "post-process"?). *Journal of Second Language Writing, 12*(1), 85-102.

Cavazos, A. (2017). Translingual oral and written practices: Rhetorical resources in multilingual writers' discourses. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 21*(4), 385-401.

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. MA: MIT Press.

Chomsky, N. (1966). *Topics in the theory of generative grammar*. The Hague: Mouton.

Chomsky, N. (1986). *Knowledge of language: Its nature, origin and use*. New York: Praeger.

Conference on College Composition and Communication. (1974). "Students' right to their own language." Special issue, *College Composition and Communication 25*. http:// www.ncte.org/ library/ NCTEFiles/ Groups/ CCCC/ NewSRTOL.pdf.

Connor, U. (2002). New directions in contrastive rhetoric. *TESOL Quarterly, 36*(4), 493-510.

Connor, U. (2004). Intercultural rhetoric research: Beyond texts. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 3*(4), 291-304.

Cook, V. J. (1991). The poverty-of-the-stimulus argument and multicompetence. *Second Language Research, 7*(2), 103-117.

Cook, V. J. (1999). Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(2), 185-209.

Cook, V. J. (2012). Multi-competence. In C. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 3768–3774). England: Wiley-Blackwell.

Cook, V. J. (2016). Premises of multi-competence. In V. J. Cook & L. Wei (Ed.), *The Cambridge handbook of linguistic multi-competence* (pp. 1-25). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cooper, H., Hedges, L., & Valentine, J. (Eds.). (2009). *Handbook of research synthesis and meta-analysis* (2nd ed.). New York: Russell Sage.

Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching?. *Modern Language Journal, 94*(1), 103–115.

Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Cummins, J. (2017). Teaching minoritized students: Are additive approaches legitimate? *Harvard Educational Review, 87*(3), 404-425.

Cushman, E. (2016). Translingual and decolonial approaches to meaning making. *College English, 78*(3), 234-242.

De Costa, P., Singh, J., Milu, E., Wang, X., Fraiberg, S., & Canagarajah, S. (2017). Pedagogizing translingual practice: Prospects and possibilities. *Research in the Teaching of English, 51*(4), 464-472.

Donahue, C. (2016). The "trans" in transnational-translingual: Rhetorical and linguistic flexibility as new norms. *Composition Studies, 44*(1), 147-150.

Dovchin, S. (2020). *Language, social media and ideologies: Translingual Englishes, facebook and authenticities*. SpringerBriefs in Linguistics.

Dryer, D. (2016). Appraising translingualism. *College English, 78*(3), 274-283.

Durán, L. (2017). Audience and young bilingual writers: Building on strengths. *Journal of Literacy Research, 49*(1), 92-114.

Faez, F. (2011). Reconceptualizing the native/nonnative speaker dichotomy. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 10*(4), 231-249.

Ferris, D. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Truscott (1996). *Journal of Second Language Writing, 8*(1), 1-11.

Ferris, D. (2014). "English only" and multilingualism in composition studies: Policy, philosophy, and practice (Book Review). *College English, 77*(1), 73-83.

Flores, N. (2013). The unexamined relationship between neoliberalism and plurilingualism: A cautionary tale. *TESOL Quarterly, 47*(3), 500-520.

Flores, N., & Aneja, G. (2017). "Why needs hiding?": Translingual (re)orientations in TESOL teacher education. *Research in the Teaching of English, 51*(4), 441-463.

Fraiberg, S. (2017). Pretty bullets: Tracing transmedia/translingual literacies of an Israeli soldier across regimes of practice. *College Composition and Communication, 69*(1), 87-117.

García, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

García, O., and Li, W. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. New York: Palgrave Pivot.

Gilyard, K. (2016). The rhetoric of translingualism. *College English, 78*(3), 284–289.

Gonzales, L. (2015). Multimodality, translingualism, and rhetorical genre studies. *Composition Forum, 31*, 1. Retrieved from http://search.ebscohost.com.ezproxy.lib.purdue.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=lkh&AN =101610411&site=lrc-plus

Guerra, J. C. (2008). Cultivating transcultural citizenship: A writing across communities model. *Language Arts, 85*(4), 296-304.

Guerra, J. C. (2016). Cultivating a rhetorical sensibility in the translingual writing classroom. *College English, 78*(3), 228–233.

Gumperz, J. (1982). *Discourse strategies*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Han, Y. (2019). Translanguaging as transnational spaces: Chinese visiting scholars' language practices on WeChat. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 1-22.

Hanson, J. (2013). Moving out of the monolingual comfort zone and into the multilingual world: An exercise for the writing classroom. In A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Literacy as translingual practice: Between communities and classrooms* (pp. 207-214). New York, NY: Routledge.

Hartse, J. H., Lockett, M., & Ortabasi, M. (2018). Languaging about language in an interdisciplinary writing intensive course. *Across the Disciplines, 15*(3), 89-102.

Hawkins, M. (2018). Transmodalities and transnational encounters: Fostering critical cosmopolitan relations. *Applied Linguistics, 39*(1), 55-77.

Hirvela, A., & Belcher, D. (2016). Reading/writing and speaking/writing connections: The advantages of multimodal pedagogy. In R. Manchón, & P. K. Matsuda (Ed.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 587-612). Berlin; de Gruyter.

Horner, B. (2001). "Students' Right," English only, and re-imagining the politics of language. *College English, 63*(6), 741-758.

Horner, B. (2011). Relocating basic writing. *Journal of Basic Writing, 30*(2), 5-23.

Horner, B. (2017) Teaching translingual agency in iteration: Rewriting difference. In B. Horner, & L. Tetreault (Ed.), *Crossing divides: Exploring translingual writing pedagogies and programs* (pp. 87-97). Boulder, Colorado: Utah State University Press.

Horner, B. (2018). Translinguality and disciplinary reinvention. *Across the Disciplines, 15*(3), 76-88.

Horner, B., Lu, M-Z., Jones Royster, J., & Trimbur, J. (2011). Language difference in writing: Toward a translingual approach. *College English, 73*(3), 303-321.

Horner, B., Lu, M-Z., & Matsuda, P. K. (Ed.) (2010). *Cross-language relations in composition.* Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois UP.

Horner, B., NeCamp, S., & Donahue, C. (2011). Toward a multilingual composition scholarship: From English only to a translingual norm. *College Composition and Communication, 63*(2), 269–300.

Horner, B., & Tetreault, L. (2016). Translation as (global) writing. *Composition Studies, 44*(1), 13-30.

Horner, B., & Tetreault, L. (2017). Introduction. In B. Horner, & L. Tetreault (Ed.), *Crossing divides: Exploring translingual writing pedagogies and programs* (pp. 3-16). Boulder, Colorado: Utah State University Press.

Horner, B., & Trimbur, J. (2002). English only and U.S. college composition. *College Composition and Communication, 53*(4), 594-630.

Horowitz, D. (1986). Process, not product: Less than meets the eye. *TESOL Quarterly, 20*(1), 141-144.

Hwag, J., & Hardman, J. (2014). Rethinking markedness: Grammaticality judgments of Korean ESL students' writing. In B. Horner & K. Kopelson (Eds.), *Reworking English in rhetoric and composition: Global interrogations, local interventions* (pp. 179-190). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

Hyland, K. (2002a). Authority and invisibility: Authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics, 34*. 1091-1112.

Hyland, K. (2002b). Genre: Language, context, and literacy. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 22*, 113-35.

Hyland, K. (2004). *Genre and second language writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Hyland, K. (2006). *English for academic purposes: An advanced resource book*. London: Routledge.

Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 16*(3), 148-164.

Hyland, K. (2013). Second language writing: The manufacture of a social fact. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 22*(4), 426-427.

Hymes, D. (1974). *Foundations in sociolinguistics; An ethnographic approach*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Jain, R. (2014). Global Englishes, translingual identities, and translingual practices in a community college ESL classroom: A practitioner researcher reports. *TESOL Journal, 5*(3), 490-522.

Johns, A. (2003). Genre and ESL/EFL composition instruction. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Exploring the dynamics of second language writing* (pp. 195-217). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Johnson, M. (2017). Cognitive task complexity and L2 written syntactic complexity, accuracy, lexical complexity, and fluency: A research synthesis and meta-analysis. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 37*, 13-38.

Jordan, J. (2015). Material translingual ecologies. *College English, 77*(4), 364-382.

Kaplan, R. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education. *Language Learning, 16*(1), 1-20.

Kaufhold, K. (2018). Creating translanguaging spaces in students' academic writing practices. *Linguistics and Education, 45*, 1-9.

Kellman, S. G. (2000). *The translingual imagination*. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Kellman, S. G. (2003). Preface. In S. G. Kellman (Ed.), *Switching languages: Translingual writers reflecting on their craft* (pp. ix-xix). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Kiernan, J., Meier, J., & Wang, X. (2017). Translingual approaches to reading and writing: Centering students' languages and cultures within reflective practices of translation. *L1-Educational Studies in Language and Literature, 17*, 1-18.

Kilfoil, C. B. (2015). Beyond the 'foreign' language requirement: From a monolingual to a translingual ideology in rhetoric and composition. *Rhetoric Review, 34*(4), 426-444.

Kiramba, L. K. (2017). Translanguaging in the writing of emergent multilinguals. *International Multilingual Research Journal, 11*(2), 115-130.

Kong, A. & Pearson, D. (2003). The road to participation: The construction of a literacy

practice in a learning community of linguistically diverse learners. *Research in the Teaching of English 38*(1). 85-124.

Krall-Lanoue, A. (2013). "And yea I'm venting, but hey I'm writing isn't I": A translingual approach to error in a multilingual context. In A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Literacy as translingual practice: Between communities and classrooms* (pp. 228-235). New York, NY: Routledge.

Kramsch, C. (2018). Trans-spatial utopias. *Applied Linguistics, 39*(1), 108-115.

Kubota, R. (2016). The multi/plural turn, postcolonial theory, and neoliberal multiculturalism: Complicities and implications for applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics, 37*(4), 474-494.

Kulavuz-Onal, D, & Vásquez, C. (2018). "Thanks, shokran, gracias": Translingual practices in a Facebook group. *Language Learning & Technology, 22*(1), 240-255.

Lee, E., & Canagarajah, S. (2019). The connection between transcultural dispositions and translingual practices in academic writing. *Journal of Multicultural Discourses, 14*(1), 14-28.

Lee, J. (2016). Beyond translingual writing. *College English, 79*(2), 174-195.

Lee, J. W. (2017). *The politics of translingualism: After Englishes*. New York: Routledge.

Lee, J. W., & Dovchin, S. (2019). *Translinguistics: Negotiating innovation and ordinariness*. New York: Routledge.

Lee, J., & Jenks, C. (2016). Doing translingual dispositions. *College Composition and Communication, 68*(2), 317-344.

Leki, I. (1991). Twenty-five years of contrastive rhetoric: Text analysis and writing pedagogies. *TESOL Quarterly, 25*(1), 123-143.

Leki, I. (2000). Writing, literacy, and applied linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 20*, 99-115.

Leki, I. (2001). "A narrow thinking system": Nonnative-English-speaking students in group projects across the curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly, 35*(1), 39-67.

Leki, I., Cumming, A., & Silva, T. (2008). *A synthesis of research on second language writing*. London: Routledge.

Leonard, R. L., & Nowacek, R. (2016). Transfer and translingualism. *College English 78*(3), 258–264.

Li, W. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics, 39*(1), 9-30.

Li, W., & Zhu, H. (2013). Translanguaging identities and ideologies: Creating transnational space through flexible multilingual practices amongst Chinese university students in the UK. *Applied Linguistics, 34*(5), 516-535.

Lorimer, R. (2013). Writing across languages: Developing rhetorical attunement. In A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Literacy as translingual practice: Between communities and classrooms* (pp. 162-169). New York, NY: Routledge.

Lu, M-Z. (1994). Professing multiculturalism: The politics of style in the contact zone. *College Composition and Communication, 45*(4), 442-458.

Lu, M-Z. (2009). Metaphors matter: Transcultural literacy. *JAC, 29*(1/2), 285-293.

Lu, M-Z., & Horner, B. (2013). Translingual literacy, language difference, and matters of agency. *College English, 75*(6), 582–611.

Lu, M-Z., & Horner, B. (2016). Introduction: Translingual work. *College English, 78*(3), 207–218.

MacSwan, J. (2017). A multilingual perspective on translanguaging. *American Educational Research Journal, 54*(1), 167-201.

Malcolm, K. (2017). Disrupting monolingual ideologies in a community college: A translingual studio approach. In B. Horner & L. Tetreault (Eds.), *Crossing divides: Exploring translingual writing pedagogies and programs* (pp. 101-118). Boulder, Colorado: University Press of Colorado.

Manchón, R. (2016). Language and L2 writing: Learning to write and writing to learn in academic contexts. In K. Hyland & P. Shaw (Ed.), *Handbook of English for Academic Purpose* (pp. 139-151). London: Routledge.

Manchón, R., & Williams, J. (2016). L2 writing and SLA studies. In R. Manchón, & P. K. Matsuda (Ed.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 567-586). Berlin; de Gruyter.

Martín, C. S., Hirsu, L., Gonzales, L., & Alvarez, S. P. (2019). Pedagogies of digital composing through a translingual approach. *Computers and Composition, 52*, 142-157.

Martínez, R., Hikida, M., & Durán, L. (2015). Unpacking ideologies of linguistic purism: How dual language teachers make sense of everyday translanguaging. *International Multilingual Research Journal, 9*(1), 26-42.

Matsuda, P. K. (1999). Composition studies and ESL writing: A disciplinary division of labor. *College Composition and Communication, 50*(4), 699-721.

Matsuda, P. K. (2003). Basic writing and second language writers: Toward an inclusive definition. *Journal of Basic Writing, 22*(2), 67-89.

Matsuda, P. K. (2006). The myth of linguistic homogeneity in U.S. college composition. *College English, 68*(6), 637-651.

Matsuda, P. K. (2013). It's the wild west out there: A new linguistic frontier in U.S. composition. In A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Literacy as translingual practice: Between communities and classrooms* (pp. 128-138), New York: Routledge.

Matsuda, P. K. (2014). The lure of translingual writing. *PMLA, 129*(3), 478–483.

Matsuda, P. K., & Silva, T. (1999). Cross-cultural composition: Mediated integration of U.S. and international students. *Composition Studies, 27*(1), 15-30.

Mendoza, A., & Parba, J. (2018). Thwarted: Relinquishing educator beliefs to understand translanguaging from learners' point of view. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 1-16.

Milson-Whyte, V. (2013). Pedagogical and sociopolitical implications of code-meshing in classrooms: Some considerations for a translingual orientation to writing. In A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Literacy as translingual practice: Between communities and classrooms* (pp. 115-127), New York: Routledge.

Milu, E. (2013). Translingual practices in Kenyan hiphop: Pedagogical implications. In A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Literacy as translingual practice: Between communities and classrooms* (pp. 104-112). New York, NY: Routledge.

Milu, E. (2018). Translingualism, Kenyan hip-hop and emergent ethnicities: Implications for language theory and pedagogy. *International Multilingual Research Journal, 12*(2), 96-108.

MLA Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages. (2007). Foreign languages and higher education: New structures for a changed world. *Profession*, *2007*(1), 234-245.

Nishino, T., & Atkinson, D. (2015). Second language writing as sociocognitive alignment. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 27*, 37–54.

Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning, 50*, 417–528.

Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (Eds.). (2006). *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Ochs, E. (1990). Indexicality and socialization. In J, Stigler, R. Shweder, and G. Herdt (Ed.). *Cultural Psychology: Essays on comparative human development* (287–308). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Ortega, L. (2012). Epilogue: Exploring L2 writing-SLA interfaces. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 21*(4), 404-415.

Otheguy, R., García, O., & Reid, W. (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review, 6*(3), 281-307.

Pacheco, M. B., Daniel, S. M., Pray, L. C., & Jiménez, R. T. (2019). Translingual practice, strategic participation, and meaning-making. *Journal of Literacy Research, 51*(1), 75-99.

Pacheco, M. B., & Smith, B. E. (2015). Across languages, modes, and identities: Bilingual adolescents' multimodal codemeshing in the literacy classroom. *Bilingual Research Journal, 38*(3), 292-312.

Pennycook, A. (2010). *Language as a local practice*. New York: Routledge.

Pennycook, A., & Otsuji, E. (2015). *Metrolingualism: Language in the city.* Abingdon: Routledge.

Panos, A. (2017). Towards translingual and transcultural practice: Explorations in a white-majority, rural, midwestern elementary classroom. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 38*(5), 422-437.

Pelaez-Morales, C. (2017). Short communication: L2 writing scholarship in JSLW: An updated report of research published between 1992-2015. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 38*, 9–19.

Pincas, A. (1962). Structural linguistics and systematic composition teaching to students of English as a second language. *Language Learning, 12*(3), 185-194.

Polio, C. (2012). The relevance of second language acquisition theory to the written error correction debate. *Journal of Second Language Writing 21*(4), 375-389.

Pratt, M. L. (1991). Arts of the contact zone. *Profession, 91*, 33-40.

Pratt, M. L., Geisler, M., Kramsch, C., McFinnis, S., Patrikis, P., Ryding, K., & Saussy, H. (2008). Transforming college and university foreign language departments. *Modern Language Journal, 92*(2), 287-293.

Reichelt, M., & Silva, T. (1996). Cross-cultural composition. *TESOL Journal, 5*(2), 16-19.

Riazi, M., Shi, L., & Haggerty, J. (2018). Analysis of the empirical research in the journal of second language writing at its 25th year (1992–2016). *Journal of Second Language Writing, 41*, 41-54.

Rinnert, C., & Kobayashi, H. (2016). Multicompetence and multilingual writing. In R. Manchón, & P. K. Matsuda (Ed.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 366-385). Berlin; de Gruyter.

Ruecker, T. (2014). Here they do this, there they do that: Latinas/Latinos writing across institutions. *College Composition and Communication, 66*(1), 91-119.

Ruecker, T., Tseptsura, M., & Frazier, S. (2018). Language difference can be an asset: Exploring the experiences of nonnative English-speaking teachers of writing. *College Composition and Communication, 69*(4), 612-641.

Schreiber, B. R. (2015). "I am what I am": Multilingual identity and digital translanguaging. *Language Learning & Technology, 19*(3), 69-87.

Sebba, M. (2013). Multilingualism in written discourse: An approach to the analysis of multilingual texts. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 17*(1), 97-118.

Sebba, M., and Wootton, T. (1998). We, they, and identity: Sequential versus identity-related explanation in code-switching." In P. Auer (Ed.). *Code-switching in conversation: Language, interaction and identity* (262–286). New York: Routledge.

Severino, C. (1993). The sociopolitical implications of response to second language and second dialect writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 2*(3), 181-201.

Severino, C. (2017). "Multilingualizing" composition: A diary self-study of learning Spanish and Chinese. *Composition Studies, 45*(2), 12-31.

Shipka, J. (2016). Transmodality in/and processes of making: Changing dispositions and practice. *College English, 78*(3), 250–257.

Silva, T. (1990). Second language composition instruction: Developments, issues, and directions in ESL. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom* (pp. 11- 23). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Silva, T. (1997). On the ethical treatment of ESL writers. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*(2), 359-363.

Silva, T. (2016). An overview of the development of the infrastructure of second language writing studies. In R. Manchón, & P. K. Matsuda (Ed.), *Handbook of second and foreign language writing* (pp. 19-43). Berlin; de Gruyter.

Silva, T., & Leki, I. (2004). Family matters: The influence of applied linguistics and composition studies on second language writing studies - past, present, and future. *Modern Language Journal, 88*(1), 1-13.

Silva, T., Leki, I., & Carson, J. (1997). Broadening the perspective of mainstream composition studies: Some thoughts from the disciplinary margins. *Written Communication, 14*(3), 398-428.

Silva, T., Yang, K., Shin, J., Sun, Y., & Tran, P. (October 2018). Scholarship on L2 writing in 2017: The year in review. *TESOL SLW News*

Silva, T., Sun, Y., Lucas, K., Panahi, P., & Zhang, Q. (October 2019). Scholarship on L2 writing in 2018: The year in review. *TESOL SLW News*

Smith, B. E., Pacheco, M. B., & De Almeida, C. R. (2017). Multimodal codemeshing: Bilingual adolescents' processes composing across modes and languages. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 36*, 6-22.

Sohan, V. K. (2014). Relocalized listening: Responding to all student texts from a translingual starting point. In B. Horner & K. Kopelson (Eds.), *Reworking English in rhetoric and composition: Global interrogations, local interventions* (pp. 119-206). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

Spack, R. (1988). Initiating ESL students into the academic discourse community: How far should we go? *TESOL Quarterly, 22*(1), 29-51.

Stornaiuolo, A., Smith, A., & Phillips, N. (2017). Developing a transliteracies framework for a connected world. *Journal of Literacy Research, 49*(1), 68-91.

Tannenbaum, M. (2014). 'With a tongue forked in two': Translingual Arab writers in Israel. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 18*(2), 99-117.

Tardy, C. M. (2006). Researching first and second language genre learning: A comparative review and a look ahead. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 15*(2), 79-101.

Tardy, C. M. (2017). Crossing, or creating, divides? A plea for transdisciplinary scholarship. In B. Horner, & L. Tetreault (Ed.), *Crossing divides: Exploring translingual writing pedagogies and programs* (pp. 181-189). Boulder, Colorado: Utah State University Press.

Tardy, C. M., & Whittig, E. (2017). On the ethical treatment of EAL writers: An update. *TESOL Quarterly, 51*(4), 920-931.

Thomas, S., Joseph, C., Laccetti, J., Mason, B., Mills, S., Perril, S., & Pullinger, K. (2007).

Transliteracy: Crossing divides. *First Monday*, *12*(12). http://firstmonday.org/ojs/index.php/fm/article/view/2060/1908

Trimbur, J. (2016). Translingualism and close reading. *College English, 78*(3), 219-227.

Velasco, P., & García, O. (2014). Translanguaging and the writing of bilingual learners. *Bilingual Research Journal, 37*(1), 6-23.

Wang, X. (2017). Developing translingual disposition through a writing theory cartoon assignment. *Journal of Basic Writing, 36*(1), 56-86.

Wible, S. (2013). *Shaping language policy in the U.S. the role of composition studies*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

Williams, J., & Condon, F. (2016). Translingualism in composition studies and second language writing: An uneasy alliance. *TESL Canada Journal, 33*(2), 1-18.

Yang, L. (2014). Examining the mediational means in collaborative writing: Case studies of undergraduate ESL students in business courses. *Journal of Second Language Writing 23*. 74-89.

You, X. (2010). *Writing in the devil's tongue a history of English composition in China*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

Young, V. A. (2004). Your average nigga. *College Composition and Communication, 55*(4), 693-715.

Young, V. A. (2007). *Your average nigga: Performing race, literacy, and masculinity*. Detroit: Wayne State UP.

Young, V. A., & Martínez Y. (2011). *Code-meshing as world English: Pedagogy, policy, performance*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Zamel, V. (1976). Teaching composition in the ESL classroom: What can we learn from the research in the teaching of English. *TESOL Quarterly, 10*(1), 67-76.

Zamel, V. (1982). Writing: The process of discovering meaning. *TESOL Quarterly, 16*(2), 195-209.

Zamel, V. (1983). The composing processes of advanced ESL students: Six case studies. *TESOL Quarterly, 17*(2), 165-187.

Zapata, A., & Laman, T. (2016). "I write to show how beautiful my languages are": Translingual writing instruction in English-dominant classrooms. *Language Arts, 93(*5), 366-378.

Zheng, X. (2017). Translingual identity as pedagogy: International teaching assistants of English

in college composition classrooms. *Modern Language Journal, 101*(Supplement 1), 29-44.