

Mandarin/English dual language immersion teachers' understanding of translanguaging pedagogy

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Abstract

Translanguaging pedagogy has gained wide recognition in the field of education as an effective approach to educate emerging bilinguals. This study examines how bilingual teachers understand and adopt this approach in Mandarin/English dual language immersion programs. Four elementary school teachers employed at three different Mandarin/English dual language immersion programs in California were interviewed in-depth about their perspectives on the use of translanguaging pedagogy and their translanguaging stance in their instruction. Guided by the constructs in the Translanguaging Allocation Policy model (Sánchez et al., 2018), the analysis revealed that teachers held an incomplete understanding of translanguaging pedagogy, largely due to a lack of understanding of the theoretical basis upon which translanguaging practices are built in varying teaching contexts. Thus, the teachers mostly resorted to translations as one of their main translanguaging pedagogical practices and saw it as a means to bridge understanding across two languages. In order to support the accessibility of translanguaging pedagogy to a broader range of practitioners, recommendations for professional development and teacher training as well as suggestions for the Translanguaging Allocation Policy model (Sánchez et al., 2018) are provided.

Keywords translanguaging pedagogy, Mandarin/English dual language immersion, bilingual education, teacher education

1. Introduction

Translanguaging, which refers to the multilinguals' fluid use of linguistic features and modes to maximize communicative potential (Velasco & García, 2014), is considered to be an effective method of engaging in culturally and linguistically sustaining pedagogy with emerging fluent multilingual students (Bauer et al., 2020). Translanguaging pedagogy broadly refers to the concurrent use of two languages in the same class that goes beyond translation strategies (Baker, 2011). However, we know very little about how translanguaging pedagogy is implemented in different classroom contexts. Dual language immersion (DLI) classrooms, which provide academic instruction in English and a partner language, offer a rich context to examine how translanguaging practices can be taken up. Thus, this paper focuses on translanguaging pedagogy in Mandarin/English bilingual programs, one of the fastest-growing DLI programs in the world (Weise, 2019).

The DLI model has several requirements including immersion in the target language (e.g., Mandarin) for at least 50% of the school day and a clear and sustained separation of languages during instructional time to develop bilingualism/biliteracy, high academic achievement, and multicultural competence (CARLA,

2021; de Jong, 2016). Yet, because DLI enforces clear boundaries for English and target language usage by day, time of day, subject, and/or teacher (Sánchez et al., 2018), it may pose constraints on students to achieve full bilingual competency in all subject matters when only one language is allowed at a time (García & Lin, 2017). The dissonance between the goals of DLI and its parallel monolingual approach has raised concerns among researchers who argue that bilinguals are not two monolinguals in one body (García & Lin, 2017; Li, 2018). Bilinguals mix and switch languages to negotiate meanings and gain new understandings (García, Seltzer, & Witt, 2017).

Empirical evidence from DLI contexts has shown the benefits of translanguaging pedagogy in promoting bilingual development by validating and leveraging students' dynamic linguistic performances (Bauer et al., 2020; Esquinca et al., 2014; Somerville & Faltis, 2019). Though translanguaging pedagogy has been largely supported by academic scholars (e.g., Cummins, 2019; Galante, 2020; García, 2012), the monolingual teaching approach still dominates the professional discourse on the practices of language teaching (Leung & Valdés, 2019). It goes without saying that teachers play a vital role in how, if at all, translanguaging pedagogy is implemented in the classroom, yet not much is known about teachers' understanding of translanguaging and its implementation in pedagogy, especially among Mandarin/English

bilingual teachers. Thus, this study addresses the following research questions to gain insights into what support teachers may need to develop a fuller understanding of translanguaging pedagogy.

1) How do Mandarin/English DLI teachers who report using translanguaging practices in their classrooms define translanguaging pedagogy?

2) What specific translanguaging strategies do these teachers use?

2. Translanguaging Pedagogy

Translanguaging, from the Welsh word “trawsieithu”, was first used by Cen Williams (1994) to refer to processing input in one language and producing output in another (Williams, 2002). García and Kleyn (2016) specified translanguaging pedagogy as leveraging all the linguistic repertoires that students bring to school and showing them when, where, and why to use different features following social norms in the practice of teaching. Thus, a translanguaging classroom is where students’ multiple communicative repertoires are recognized and valued by teachers to enhance comprehension and learning outcomes (Hornberger & Link, 2012).

At the strategy level, translanguaging pedagogy requires teachers to creatively design class activities to provide translanguaging spaces (Kaufhold, 2018; Lang, 2019) where translanguaging, that is the integration of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoires, is nurtured. Previous studies have documented translanguaging strategies that include but are not limited to: asking questions in one language and requesting answers in another language (Williams, 2002); verbal modeling of dynamic bilingual language practices in instruction (e.g., code-switching) (Palmer et al., 2014; Sayer, 2013); juxtaposing written words or audio recordings of the same content in two languages for comparison and contrast (García, Seltzer, & Witt, 2017); and celebrating metalinguistic knowledge and drawing attention to language crossing (Palmer et al., 2014). Schwartz and Asli (2014) maintained that teachers strategically adopted translanguaging as tools to 1) learn certain words or phrases (e.g., words for body parts and greetings for kindergarten class; 2) define new concepts; 3) build context; and/or 4) clarify direct language instruction (e.g., paraphrasing the given instruction in another language). Apart from enhancing comprehension in content and language learning, translanguaging pedagogy can also promote a bilingual identity (García-Mateus & Palmer, 2017), increase participation (Daniel et al., 2019), and create rapport in the classroom (Wang, 2019a, b).

Studies focusing on teachers’ take-up of translanguaging pedagogy in DLI programs are limited. Also, most translanguaging studies address English/Spanish translanguaging practices (Hamman, 2018; Mateus & Palmer, 2017; Palmer et al., 2014), while only a few have discussed non-Spanish/English contexts such as Mandarin/English DLI (Du, 2022; Liaw et al., 2023; Tian, 2022; Tian & Lau, 2023; Zheng, 2021). For example, Zheng (2021) examined the translanguaging discourse of a 4th/5th-grade Mandarin teacher. The teacher offered significant autonomy for students to

choose their preferred languages and modalities, which led to enhanced language and subject learning outcomes. Liaw et al. (2023) also collaborated with a 5th-grade Mandarin teacher in developing an interactive history curriculum where translanguaging pedagogy was adopted to help students better contextualize content knowledge and assemble all available resources for their writing. The study suggested that teachers made moment-by-moment pedagogical adjustments as they drew on students’ first language in the learning of a second/additional language. However, Tian and Lau (2023) found that although teachers were interested in taking up a translanguaging approach, concerns were raised about minimizing Mandarin practice and fostering the overuse of English in the Mandarin spaces. Moreover, from the students’ perspectives, Du (2022) studied the naturally occurring translanguaging discourse of three 4th-grade students in a Mandarin/English DLI program and found that students were engaged in highly flexible and dynamic language use. These translanguaging practices supported content learning by facilitating students’ interaction as they co-constructed knowledge with others (Du, 2022).

These studies show that in Mandarin/English DLI, both teachers and students performed agentive, dynamic translanguaging practices. Translanguaging was beneficial as it facilitated meaning-making, engaged children’s multilingual perspectives, and fostered complex language use that a monolingual approach cannot produce (Liaw et al., 2023). However, the studies also revealed the hesitancy of teachers to implement translanguaging pedagogy as they tried to negotiate the tension between maintaining separate spaces for each language and providing instructional space for translanguaging practices (Tian & Lau, 2023; Zheng, 2021). All the teachers in these previous studies were in contexts where they co-taught with an English partner teacher (Liaw, 2023; Tian, 2022; Tian & Lau, 2023; Zheng, 2021). This present study focuses on Mandarin/English bilingual teachers of self-contained classes where they teach all subjects in two languages by themselves.

3. Theoretical Framework

Translanguaging theory has two major forms: the strong version and the weak version of translanguaging (García & Lin, 2017). While the strong version of translanguaging holds that bilinguals have a unified linguistic repertoire in mind from which they draw linguistic features selectively, the weak version of translanguaging recognizes named languages and calls for softening language boundaries (García & Lin, 2017). This study adopts the weak version of translanguaging as it allows teachers to allocate separate spaces for named languages while also embracing flexible instructional strategies that nurture translanguaging practices (Cummins, 2007).

Translanguaging pedagogy requires teachers to adopt a translanguaging stance or in other words, a critical stance (García, Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017). This stance positions all linguistic and cultural knowledge that emerging bilinguals bring to class as assets for learning

rather than a deficit to fix (García, Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017). With such a perspective, teachers aim to achieve bilingualism among students by embracing the flexible use of language in fluid and dynamic spaces (Ramírez & Garza Ayala, 2021). In addition, this stance assumes that learning is considered a joint collaboration (“juntos”) of teachers and students as they co-create knowledge, where both parties are deemed to have the expertise to bring to the table in order to create more equitable learning environments (García, Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017, p. 50).

These perspectives lay the foundation for the Translanguaging Allocation Policy, a model that has been proposed to guide teachers on how translanguaging pedagogy can be applied in DLI classes (Sánchez et al., 2018). It identifies three modules of work teachers need to do to reframe an immersion classroom into a translanguaging classroom: 1) translanguaging documentation (pre-teaching assessment) which helps teachers assess what students know and can do when they use all their linguistic resources together; 2) translanguaging rings (on-site scaffolding) which are ways of scaffolding instruction that allow teachers to use students’ home languages as resources in learning the target language; and 3) translanguaging transformation (the ultimate goal) which includes actions that create opportunities for bilingual students to use all their linguistic resources to read, write, and think in ways that challenge existing linguistic hierarchies in school and society overall (Sánchez et al., 2018). Critical orientation in translanguaging transformation is what makes translanguaging pedagogy distinct from other approaches in that it aims to challenge the strict language separation policies and monolingual norms in language education (Tian 2022).

4. Methods

4.1. Participants

This study adopts a multi-case study approach (Creswell & Poth, 2018) to understand the translanguaging practices and beliefs of Mandarin/English DLI teachers in California who self-reported their use of translanguaging pedagogy in classroom instruction. To recruit participants, elementary Mandarin DLI teachers in the largest public school district in California with the most Mandarin immersion programs (13 programs) within the state (Weise, 2022) were invited to respond to a screening survey that was used to identify teachers who believed they were engaging in translanguaging pedagogy. Ten teachers voluntarily completed the survey, among whom seven reported using translanguaging pedagogy. These seven teachers were asked to participate in an interview on a voluntary basis. Four teachers (Claire, Sue, Yukio, Yujing as pseudonyms) completed the interview and were recruited to be the participants of the study.

All four teachers were California-certified multiple subject teachers with Mandarin bilingual authorization. They earned their credentials from different institutions in

southern California. While Claire, Yukio, and Yujing earned their credentials three years ago, Sue had been teaching for over 10 years. Except for Yukio who identified herself as a native speaker of both languages, the other three teachers identified themselves as native speakers of Mandarin and fluent second-language speakers of English.

The four teachers worked in three different 50/50 Mandarin English DLI programs. Yukio and Yujing came from the same school serving the World Language Immersion (WLI) program which designed for English speakers (LAUSD MMED, 2021). Claire and Sue came from two different schools but both served in the Two-Way Immersion (TWI) program which designed for English learners and English speakers (LAUSD MMED, 2021). The four teachers taught in K-2nd grade self-contained classes. At each of their schools they were hired to teach language arts in English, Mandarin in Mandarin, and the remainder of the subjects in both languages, alternating the language of instruction by day. However, the four teachers acknowledged using English and Mandarin interchangeably and strategically throughout the day. They also permitted students to use their home languages such as Spanish in their classes.

The students enrolled in their programs were either Latinx or Chinese English-dominant speakers. They were learning Mandarin as a third or heritage language in a multilingual (English, Mandarin, and Spanish) environment. The students’ Mandarin proficiency was rated at the novice level (based on the ACTFL scale¹) by their teachers.

4.2. Data Collection and Analysis

The hour-long interview with each participant was semi-structured and conducted via Zoom in English. Mandarin was also used at times by the participants. Recordings were transcribed by the first author and later verified for accuracy with the four interviewees. The transcripts were examined to identify responses that captured what the teachers believed to be translanguaging pedagogy. Their responses were coded for evidence of a conceptual basis of translanguaging stance (i.e., asset-based and co-constructed learning) as well as the three modules (i.e., translanguaging documentation, translanguaging rings, and translanguaging transformation) that make up the Translanguaging Allocation Policy model (Sánchez et al., 2018). We looked for specific examples of pre-assessment practices, translanguaging scaffolds, and metacognitive activities that displayed different levels of translanguaging practice in classrooms.

Since this was a multi-case study, both within-case and cross-case analyses were completed (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The first round of analysis focused on each case to develop a thick description of how each teacher understood and practiced translanguaging. The second round of analysis compared the four cases to synthesize shared characteristics of their translanguaging practices. The findings presented below are organized by major themes summarized from the shared characteristics

¹ The ACTFL Proficiency Scale was developed to meet the need for academically oriented proficiency guidelines which has five main

levels (Novice, Intermediate, Advanced, Superior, and Distinguished).

among the four teachers regarding their translanguaging practices.

5. Findings

5.1. Teachers' Understanding of Translanguaging Pedagogy

The teachers for the most part presented a basic understanding of translanguaging pedagogy. Except for Yujing who was unsure about the definition of translanguaging pedagogy, the other three teachers (Claire, Sue, and Yukio) reported that they understood translanguaging pedagogy as using two languages interchangeably in the same class to enhance comprehension from an asset-based translanguaging stance. For example, Yukio explained that she valued bringing students' home language into her classroom:

I try to be inclusive in all the languages that they are speaking. During Mandarin times, they need to speak English, or they want to express themselves in English, that's fine.

However, their asset-based approach seemed to be limited to allowing students to use their home language rather than including opportunities for “co-constructing” an understanding and connection with students about their expertise or relevance in their learning. Thus, this led to limiting teachers' practices to teacher-centered lectures, which is not aligned with one of the central aims of translanguaging, that of challenging traditional class hierarchies (García, Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017).

Additionally, these teachers all believed that translanguaging pedagogy is used as a transitional scaffolding tool to help students make connections between the two languages so that they can eventually achieve separate and proficient use of each language. In Yukio's definition, she said that “translanguaging is to help students understand the meaning of each language and transition from one language to another”. Specifically, the teachers related teachers' translanguaging use with the proficiency levels of students. As Claire reported, “for elementary students, especially kindergarteners and first graders, translanguaging pedagogy is a must to help them make sense of classroom routines and basic content knowledge. When students advance to the secondary level with higher proficiency in both languages, it is better to learn the two languages separately.” However, this is in conflict with the critical orientation of translanguaging pedagogy which underscores the liberation of multilingualism. In other words, translanguaging should be a standard of bilingual classes across grade levels rather than just considered a transitional assistance measure (Sánchez et al., 2018).

Lastly, the teachers' approach to translanguaging pedagogy was not just limited to language use, but also included gestures and uses of artifacts that can help bridge understanding. That is, translanguaging requires teachers to embrace not only linguistic varieties as well as cultural, material, and bodily representations that students bring from home (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Li, 2022). For

instance, both Yujing and Claire mentioned that they adopted Total Physical Response (TPR) in their teaching where they asked students to point or make gestures to physically present the meanings. Yukio also reported that she used animal crackers that students usually had at home to teach words of animals and whoever got right with the name of the animal can eat the cracker. Although when describing their practices, it was evident that they used a broader range of strategies that went beyond linguistic structures, in their definitions, they only referred to translanguaging pedagogy as a linguistic practice.

5.2. Translanguaging Pedagogy in Practice

When teachers were asked to describe their translanguaging practices, they reported that translanguaging was mainly used as a scaffolding practice to ensure students' comprehension of the content or instructional directions. To do so, the teachers mentioned using four translanguaging strategies: translation, juxtaposition, translanguaged Q&A, and code-switching.

The most common strategy was providing direct English translations of Mandarin academic terms (e.g., “等” is equal”) or translating the rules of Chinese games so that students could learn to play them quickly. In doing so, teachers efficiently explained the words so students could quickly make connections with the concepts that they already knew in English. Visual juxtaposition was used as a note-taking technique by writing down word translations to remind students of the meanings while reading (García, Seltzer & Witt, 2017). For instance, students were asked to write down “just kidding” on top of “开玩笑 (kidding)” in their Mandarin textbook. Additionally, Yujing used verbal juxtaposition wherever she taught the same song in two languages and encouraged students to sing songs like “Happy Birthday”, “Head Shoulders Knees and Toes”, and “Twinkle Twinkle Little Star in both languages” in two languages. Translanguaged Q&A was described as asking questions in one language while students answered in another (Williams, 2002). For example, in math, when it came to word problems, Sue would ask “How many books?” in English, and students were expected to answer in Mandarin. Lastly, teachers reported that they strategically code-switched Mandarin to English to ensure comprehension. Yukio explained that then she would gradually remove all English words and transition to full Mandarin expressions. In Yukio's own words:

I'm trying to get them to understand the characters set in a story. I will say “谁是 (who is) character?”. And then slowly, I'll change to “故事里的人物有谁? (who are the characters in the story?)”

Unlike translation, code-switching was not used to repeat the content in the other language, but rather to provide an alternative explanation or description for what was said in the less dominant language.

Based on the Translanguaging Allocation Policy model (Sánchez et al., 2018), however, it appears that the teachers mostly utilized strategies that align with the Translanguaging Rings category. These practices were not connected with translanguaging documentation that

should precede translanguaging practice or translanguaging transformation that should be the outcome of translanguaging practices, according to the Translanguaging Allocation Policy model (Sánchez et al., 2018). In other words, in order to fully optimize the full benefits of translanguaging pedagogy, it is necessary that teachers first engage in assessing and documenting the ways in which students may benefit from translanguaging, and then based on their findings, integrate translanguaging strategies that would lead students to develop a transformative critical stance. This would be a much more systematic way to implement translanguaging pedagogy. Yet for these teachers, they approached translanguaging pedagogy mainly as a means to ensure comprehension among students without consideration of the deeper level of how such engagement in translanguaging could develop criticality in language use among students.

In sum, teachers did not engage in translanguaging practices to assess and get to know students' level of competence in using all of their linguistic resources. Moreover, they did not report using any strategies to achieve translanguaging transformation such as verbal modeling of dynamic bilingual language practices in instruction, or celebrating metalinguistic knowledge (Palmer et al., 2014; Sayer, 2013). The teachers' responses made it evident that translanguaging pedagogy was a transitional tool to achieve language competence in two separate languages. That is, their choice of translanguaging policies was governed by their belief in parallel monolingualism. Hence, teachers' translanguaging practices were limited to instances of scaffolding techniques that used the dominant language to support understanding in the weaker language while the students were developing proficiency in the weaker language.

6. Discussion

From the teachers' interpretations of translanguaging pedagogy, we conclude that the use of translanguaging is not an option, but a necessity for lower Mandarin proficiency levels. For instance, Claire stated that it was impossible for her to break down some Mandarin words (e.g., 回收利用) to explain the meaning of each character in the word. Due to concerns for lack of time and students' low proficiency level, she had to give the direct translation of the whole word (e.g., 回收利用 is recycling) and move on. However, by doing so, the teachers did not realize the full benefits of translanguaging pedagogy.

6.1. Reasons for Incomplete Translanguaging Stance

As shown in the findings, the teachers were working with an incomplete understanding of the goals and methods of translanguaging pedagogy, because they did not get the chance to learn and understand the concept systematically in their teacher training. The goal of teacher education programs should be to provide teachers with not only a strong theoretical understanding of why certain practices may be beneficial for different kinds of students, but also a deep grasp of the state-of-the-art teaching

practices that research has shown to benefit students. However, translanguaging pedagogy was not introduced to the four teachers in their teacher credential programs. They learned about it from a one-time professional development workshop provided by the district. In addition, there were no language-specific instructions provided on how to use translanguaging in Mandarin/English bilingual classrooms. As Sue reported, translanguaging pedagogy was briefly introduced during a recent professional development introducing some benefits of using both languages. But there were no demonstrations using specific language examples and thus, it was difficult for teachers to fully grasp what translanguaging pedagogy looks like in the classroom. Yujing said she can't even recall any specific Mandarin/English teaching strategies offered in her training. She commented that she had to figure out how to teach a bilingual class from her field supervisor who was a Vietnamese/English teacher. What is clear is that teachers need a full explanation and language-specific demonstration of translanguaging pedagogy. They also need continual support and development of translanguaging pedagogy when they start teaching to be able to fully execute it in a manner that is meaningful and optimal for their students' learning.

In addition, the participant teachers' inability to optimize the use of translanguaging pedagogy may be related to not knowing about the importance of going through the translanguaging documentation process with students. According to Sánchez et al. (2018), careful documentation of students' translanguaging competencies is an important step in assessing and validating their dynamic language use. Specifically, teachers need to ascertain (a) how students use language for classroom communication and academic purposes (regardless of the appropriateness of language features of their selection); (b) what the students know; and (c) whether the students can express concepts using only one language (Sánchez et al., 2018). It is through these critical steps that teachers can make informed decisions about the use of translanguaging and develop their translanguaging stance (Sánchez et al., 2018). However, this process was missing in teachers' self-reported understanding and practice of translanguaging pedagogy. They assessed students by their proficiency levels in each language instead of examining their ability to use all linguistic repertoires to communicate and make meaning, without which teachers were restricted to a limited understanding of what translanguaging can achieve in teaching and learning.

Moreover, it seems that teachers had difficulty adopting a stance that supports the co-construction of learning with their students. There was mostly direct delivery of meanings via teachers' translation or code-switching as reported by the teachers. However, an accompaniment model where the teachers and students are co-constructing their learning is a crucial aspect of translanguaging pedagogy. Hence, without a shift in teaching orientation from teacher-centered to student-centered, teachers may need more support to enact a co-constructed learning model that is a fundamental component in translanguaging pedagogy.

6.2. Reasons for Limited Translanguaging Practice

Without a fully developed critical translanguaging stance, the teachers' translanguaging practice was limited to transitional scaffolding for the purposes of enhancing comprehension and teaching efficiency. First, teachers' partial practice was a result of their static way of seeing bilingualism. The teachers viewed translanguaging as a transition to achieve separate competencies of each language. As Yujing stated, she still believed that separate language immersion was the best way to learn languages, but translanguaging was needed to help students at the initial stage to establish a basic understanding of classroom management and academic terms. However, translanguaging ability is inherent in bilinguals (Sánchez et al., 2018). Bilinguals learn to achieve a higher level of translanguaging where they have the ability to choose the best linguistic/non-linguistic combination for different communicative purposes (Sánchez et al., 2018). The development of bilingualism is a dynamic process where translanguaging is at work throughout instruction. Teachers need to move away from their static, language-purity orientation to be able to see the fluid nature of bilingual competencies and more possibilities in translanguaging applications.

Secondly, none of the teachers were familiar with the Translanguaging Allocation Policy model which is developed upon the understanding that translanguaging is an inherent skill among bilinguals who learn to choose the best linguistic/non-linguistic combination for different communicative purposes (Sánchez et al., 2018) or any other concrete translanguaging model that can guide their practices. According to the Translanguaging Allocation Policy model (Sánchez et al., 2018), teachers need to first assess students' translanguaging ability, then use translanguaging to scaffold the learning of each language, and lastly enable students to make their own choice of languages or conduct different forms of translanguaging based on communicative needs. Without systematic instruction and demonstration of when, where, and why to apply translanguaging pedagogy, it is not hard to see why and how teachers may use translanguaging pedagogy in the narrowest sense— one that reflects the language separation and language purity orientation that most DLI programs operate on.

Thirdly, teachers were not given enough instructional time and space to go beyond content knowledge teaching and touch on metalinguistic and social justice topics. Their teaching was mostly test-oriented and focused on immediate learning outcomes. Sue reported that she did not have enough time to even complete the learning objectives in the subject matter let alone setting aside time for more metalinguistic activities. Claire also stated that translanguaging as direct translation was to save more time in achieving the teaching goals set by the school district. Hence, the driving force behind using translanguaging was to have students understand content knowledge in both languages while teaching once. This may benefit teaching in the short term, yet students are deprived of metalinguistic and cross-cultural learning opportunities in the long run.

Last but not least, as Yukio reported, many DLI programs do not allow adopting translanguaging pedagogy, that is, DLI programs recommend the separation of languages in instruction. However, Claire commented that all teachers broke the rule in one way or another since she believed that it was impossible to teach two languages separately, especially at lower grade levels. Thus, there is still an unresolved tension between the goals of translanguaging pedagogy and language separation rules in DLI contexts.

6.3. Implications for Teacher Preparation

In order to develop a translanguaging stance, so that teachers can develop a comprehensive understanding of translanguaging pedagogy, we offer the following suggestions. First, teacher credential programs should be restructured with a translanguaging lens (Tian et al., 2020) to eliminate monolingual bias that has been held historically (Ortega, 2019). Teachers need to understand and see the ways in which a monolingual bias can restrict the teaching and learning processes with multilingual learners. They need to be trained to develop a translanguaging stance that can guide them to strategically soften the boundaries of named languages, leverage dynamic bilingual language practices, and embrace the linguistic assets students bring from home to school to promote students' agency in their learning (España & Yadira Herrera, 2021).

Second, at the pedagogical level, teacher credential programs need to offer training in translanguaging pedagogy with explicit examples of different target language combinations that include language-specific strategies. That is, translanguaging pedagogy can not only be introduced as just a theoretical concept but it must be modeled and demonstrated. It is necessary to provide meaningful and authentic opportunities for pre-service teachers to engage in scenarios that they are likely to encounter in bilingual classrooms (Palmer & Martínez, 2013). For instance, Tian (2020) introduced the three-dimensional framework which not only provided teachers with texts on the topic of translanguaging pedagogy to read and reflect on ("Learning about translanguaging"), but also asked teachers to observe and experience translanguaging practices in and after class ("Modeling translanguaging") and to apply translanguaging strategies in lesson plan designs ("Practicing translanguaging").

Third, for optimal implementation of translanguaging pedagogy, professional development for teachers must include continual opportunities where teachers can dive more deeply into how such practices can be integrated and further understand the impact of the utilization of translanguaging pedagogy. For instance, Deroo and colleagues (2022) suggest that teachers and teacher educators form a community of practice where they can discuss translanguaging as a theory and practice of language, clarify inaccuracies or misunderstandings about translanguaging pedagogy, and translanguage among themselves as a metacognitive learning process. Additionally, professional development should provide teachers with sufficient language-specific resources as well as ready-to-use materials to save time for teachers in

implementing translanguaging practices in classrooms.

Finally, whether it is in teacher credential programs or professional development, a central model of translanguaging pedagogy is needed. To date, the Translanguaging Allocation Policy model (Sánchez et al., 2018) is one that has great potential to guide teachers in the optimal use of translanguage pedagogy. However, in light of the unique features of a DLL context as well as the findings from this study, some further refinements to this model may provide clearer guidance for DLI teachers to set up a translanguaging classroom where translanguaging spaces are designated. Since the participant teachers reported that they found it hard to understand translanguaging documentation and translanguaging transformation just by viewing the Translanguaging Allocation Policy model (Sánchez et al., 2018), the first suggested change is to rename the first and last modules to denote the specific role or action of the translanguaging practice in each of the modules so that the goals of the modules are clearer to the users. As shown in Figure 1, we renamed the first and last modules by directly describing what teachers do at the first step, assessing the bilingual ability and the ultimate goal of translanguaging to achieve bilingual identity and criticality.

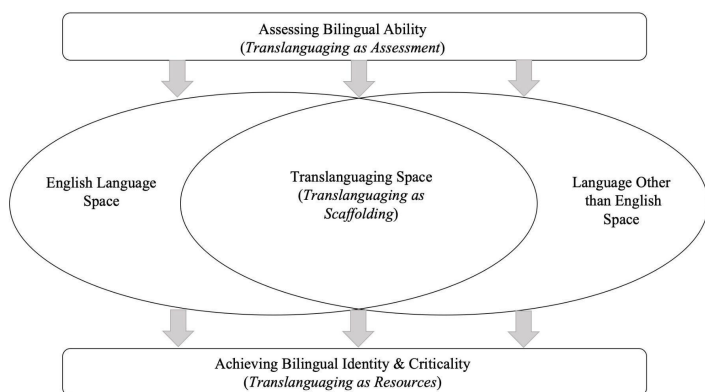


Figure 1. Translanguaging Transformation Model

The content of the first module stays unchanged where translanguaging is used as an assessment to test students’ proficiency in each language and how flexibly students can use each language interchangeably. To do that, teachers can generate translanguaged conversations or provide translanguaged texts to test understanding. Teachers can also assign written works to students allowing them to use their full linguistic repertoire. In these ways, teachers can glean students’ receptive and expressive knowledge of each language, their ability to understand translanguaging inputs and generate translanguaging outputs, as well as the extent to which they translanguage and the preferred patterns of their translanguaging. It is based on this information that teachers can strategically tailor translanguaging scaffoldings and instructions in the next module.

Since the teachers also reported their confusion about where to translanguage after viewing the Translanguaging Allocation Policy model (Sánchez et al., 2018), we proposed a second modification to mark out translanguaging spaces. Hence the second module in the refined model has a designated space for translanguaging

in the overlapping area between separate language spaces. This makes it clearer to teachers that adopting translanguaging does not hurt the integrity of DLI programs, but softens language boundaries so that parallel monolingualism is not upheld as the goal. Given that, a translanguaging space is created where the same linguistic or content knowledge is taught. Translanguaging is used here as scaffolding to enhance cross-linguistic understanding. For instance, when both English language art and Mandarin classes talk about animal words, some translation or translanguaged discussion on translation equivalents can be provided.

Lastly, by renaming the last module, the goal of the translanguaging classroom is clearer which is to develop a positive bilingual identity and criticality. Bilingual identity refers to how bilinguals think about their bilingual ability and the social position of self and others (García-Mateus & Palmer, 2017). Positive bilingual identity relates to asset-oriented self-representation of bilinguals who hold positive attitudes toward their linguistic backgrounds and current social lives (Hamman-Ortiz, 2023). Criticality refers to the critical awareness of monoglossic ideologies in schooling and society (Hamman-Ortiz, 2023). To achieve this transformation, metalinguistic activities that involve multimodal translanguaging are needed. For example, the use of cultural portraits (Tian, 2022), translanguaging post-reading discussion (García-Mateus & Palmer, 2017), and bilingual journals of school life (Hamman-Ortiz, 2023) can be helpful. In the third module, translanguaging is used as a resource that students can draw on to fully express themselves in negotiating their bilingual identity and critically assessing the equity issues in language planning. Since there is a need for teachers to extend their understanding of translanguaging to the ideological transformation level, teachers need to help students become positive bilingual beings with their critical awareness of language use. For lower grade levels, emphasis can be given to shaping a positive bilingual identity. As students advance to higher grade levels, critical prompts can be given gradually based on students’ developmental readiness.

With these slightly adjusted modules, a different title of the model may be warranted: Translanguaging Transformation Model. As its name suggests, the Translanguaging Transformation Model transforms a DLI class into a translanguaging class with a designated translanguaging space for cross-linguistic scaffolding. It also emphasizes the transformation function of translanguaging pedagogy in achieving positive bilingual identity and critical thinking. This refined model may help teachers to better navigate the implementation of translanguaging pedagogy across all three modules. However, since this is a working model based on how teachers in this study performed and reasoned translanguaging pedagogy, more research is needed to test and adjust it in broader applications.

7. Conclusion

This study revealed how four Mandarin/English DLI teachers self-reported challenging the current immersion

model by engaging in some translanguaged instructional strategies in class. These teachers' understanding and practice of translanguaging pedagogy were limited to transitional scaffolding in the way of translation and code-switching. Going beyond instructional support, translanguaging pedagogy has greater potential to liberate bilingual education from the constraints of language normativity (Sánchez et al., 2018). Translanguaging pedagogy holds much potential and thus must be integrated as essential and necessary content in all teacher training programs to help both pre-service and in-service teachers form a more comprehensive understanding and develop diverse practices of translanguaging pedagogy. The findings also suggest the need to refine the Translanguaging Allocation Policy model (Sánchez et al., 2018) based on the expressed needs of the teachers. The Translanguaging Transformation Model proposed in this study designates a concrete translanguaging space with a clearer navigational plan that guides teachers on what they need to do and the role of translanguaging in each module of teachers' work. However, classrooms are black boxes; we do not know without classroom observation what kinds of teaching practices go on and how those teaching practices shape students' learning outcomes. Therefore, more empirical studies are needed to test the efficacy of the refined model and to identify other ways to better serve students in Mandarin/English DLI contexts and beyond.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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