

Examining Translanguaging Tendencies of Turkish Prospective Teachers of English Through Self-Reported Language Mixing Practices

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ABSTRACT

Translanguaging could be a valuable pedagogical tool for prospective teachers of English, enabling them to utilise their linguistic multi-competence repertoire in diverse contexts. In this line, this study examines the translanguaging tendencies of Turkish prospective teachers of English, with a focus on their self-reported inter-sentential, intra-sentential, and general language mixing practices. Data were collected from 76 participants using the Language Mixing Questionnaire and analysed quantitatively through descriptive statistics as well as within- and between-subject comparisons. Findings reveal a contextual preference, in which L1 Turkish dominates formal and informal communicative instances, whilst L2 English is largely restricted to formal settings like education. Proportional language use further underlines this divide, with Turkish comprising 74.8% and English 25.2% of interactions. A nuanced directional preference is observed for the within-subject comparison, as participants are more likely to borrow L2 English words when speaking L1 Turkish than vice versa, reflecting a cross-linguistic pattern shaped by translanguaging's dynamic and fluid nature. As for the between-subject comparison, there are no significant gender-specific differences in language mixing practices. Additionally, participants report various functional reasons for their language mixing practices, emphasising communicative and pedagogical dimensions of translanguaging as a cross-linguistic tool.

Keywords: Translanguaging, prospective EFL teachers, language mixing, L1 Turkish, L2 English,

INTRODUCTION

Bi/multilingualism is a complex and dynamic phenomenon, encompassing a wide range of cross-linguistic practices (Cook & Bassetti, 2011). As Francis (2004) argues, bi/multilingual proficiency reflects both autonomy and interconnectedness between languages, enabling bi/multilingual speakers to alternate between them in systematic and contextually appropriate ways. This fluid cross-linguistic interaction results in a compound state of mind with multi-competence (Cook, 1992) and is particularly relevant in educational and social contexts, where L2 users can draw on their entire linguistic repertoire for purposes of interpersonal communication and learning or teaching additional languages. Translanguaging, as delineated by Wei (2018), could serve as an umbrella term for such bi/multilingual practices, going beyond concepts of code-switching or code-meshing by conceptualising bi/multilingual speakers as users of a unified linguistic repertoire rather than separate and compartmentalised language systems.

As previous research shows, there are different terms and typologies put forth for defining bi/multilingual users' language mixing practices. A common classification stems from the code-switching literature, encompassing inter-sentential (i.e. L1-L2 mixing at sentence or at clause level) and

intra-sentential (i.e. L1-L2 mixing at phrase or word level) shifts between different languages (Poplack, 1980). Later, the former was referred to as code-switching, whereas the latter was also conceptualised as borrowing (Muysken, 2000). Nonetheless, recent studies highlight the nuanced distinction between translanguaging and other terminologies like code-switching, noting that translanguaging as a heteroglossic view of language involves seamless, holistic language use rather

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How to cite this article: Taş T, Mirici IH. Examining Translanguaging Tendencies of Turkish Prospective Teachers of English Through Self-Reported Language Mixing Practices, Pegem Journal of Education and Instruction, Vol. 15, No. 2, 2025, 139-152

Source of Support: No specific funding has been received for this study. However, the first author was supported by the TUBITAK 2211-A National PhD Scholarship Programme during the course of this research.

Conflicts of Interest: None

DOI:10.47750/pegegog.15.10.14

Received: 24.09.2024

Accepted: 15.12.2024

Published : 01.04.2025

than discrete alternations between languages often governed by external rules or norms (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021). In this respect, the concept of translanguaging has gained currency and increasing relevance in educational contexts, where it is valued for its potential to support multilingual learners (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a). Valdes (2020) positions translanguaging as an intentional pedagogical strategy aimed at enhancing learning by leveraging students' full linguistic resources. Cenoz and Gorter (2020a, 2020b) term this approach 'pedagogical translanguaging', highlighting its potential utility in creating inclusive and effective learning environments. Likewise, it is shown that translanguaging is a natural process for many bi/multilingual learners that not only facilitates classroom communication but also fosters scaffolding, critical thinking, and higher-order speech acts (Duarte, 2019, 2020).

The naturalness of translanguaging and language mixing has also been substantiated by psycholinguistic research. Kleinman and Gollan (2016) challenged the assumption that cross-language shifts and switches incur cognitive costs, demonstrating that such practices are often effortless and adaptive for bi/multilingual speakers. This aligns with the argument that language mixing is a defining characteristic of bilingualism, reflecting both creativity and systematic linguistic principles (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2008). These points emphasise the adaptability of the mind and cognition of a bi/multilingual speaker, whose linguistic flexibility serves not only as a communicative tool but also as a means of navigating complex cross-linguistic environments (Cook & Bassetti, 2011). Beyond its pedagogical and cognitive dimensions, translanguaging also holds transformative and empowering potential. Turner and Lin (2024) underline its capacity to foster inclusivity and self-expression in bi/multilingual settings, making it a powerful and empowering tool for educators and learners alike. It was demonstrated that by creating spaces where diverse linguistic resources are valued, translanguaging both enhances learning outcomes and promotes equity and (socio)linguistic justice (Caldas, 2019; Li et al., 2024). Accordingly, the current study builds on these foundations to examine the translanguaging tendencies of Turkish prospective teachers of English through examining their self-reported language mixing practices. By exploring these heteroglossic practices, it is aimed to reach a deeper understanding of translanguaging in contexts where English acts as a foreign language (EFL), particularly within the unique educational and sociolinguistic landscape of Türkiye.

1.2. Previous Research on Translanguaging Practices

A brief review of the existing literature reveals that research highlights the prevalence and multifaceted nature of translanguaging and language mixing in EFL classrooms

(Andrei et al., 2020), underlining related communicative, pedagogical, and sociolinguistic significance. It was shown that these language mixing practices serve critical functions such as explaining complex concepts, clarifying content, and fostering solidarity, making them indispensable tools in bi/multilingual educational settings (Kumar et al., 2021). Cognitive and practical advantages of translanguaging were also documented in bilingual and multilingual contexts. Gosselin and Sabourin (2021) found that habitual code-switchers experience lower cognitive effort when moving between languages, suggesting that frequent code-switching may become an efficient and natural language mixing practice. Supporting this, Yim and Bialystok (2012) reported that frequent code-switchers exhibit greater effectiveness in employing translanguaging, reflecting enhanced cognitive adaptability. Furthermore, it is demonstrated that translanguaging facilitates cross-linguistic meaning-making, enabling language learners to connect their linguistic resources dynamically and creatively (Galante, 2024).

As for prospective language teachers, translanguaging plays a pivotal role in developing their professional competencies (Araujo et al., 2023; Caldas, 2019; Iversen, 2020; Li et al., 2024). In this line, Case (2024) exemplified how preservice teachers can use translanguaging to leverage their linguistic repertoires during practicum teaching with a view to boosting confidence and adaptability in multilingual classrooms. Caldas (2019) and Araujo and colleagues (2023) further argue that translanguaging empowers both (prospective) teachers and students, fostering linguistic self-confidence, critical awareness, and a deeper understanding of cross-linguistic content in educational environments. These studies highlight translanguaging as a transformative practice that should be incorporated into prospective teachers' developing pedagogical repertoire as part of their initial teacher education (Araujo et al., 2023; Deroo & Ponzio, 2019).

In terms of classroom interactions, creating a translanguaging space could enable higher-order cognitive and linguistic processes in prospective teachers (Li et al., 2024). For instance, Duarte (2019) found that translanguaging naturally activates high-order speech acts, facilitating exploratory talk, and collaborative knowledge construction amongst students. Research in mainstream classrooms showed that it could acknowledge and value marginalised languages, scaffold and facilitate learners' linguistic expertise, and enhance content and language learning through epistemological functions (Duarte, 2020). Correspondingly, Koyama and Kasper (2022) noted that bi/multilingual learners instinctively adopt heteroglossic practices, which reflects their natural ability to draw on diverse linguistic resources to engage with given content. It was, however, discussed that the nature and

prevalence of translanguaging may be shaped by contextual factors. Galante (2020) highlighted that translanguaging is often more common in informal settings, where learners feel freer to integrate their linguistic repertoires, whilst formal classroom environments might impose linguistic and ideological constraints. Regarding the relationship between mixed languages, Blom and colleagues (2024) also illustrated a sociolinguistic tendency for majority languages to be integrated into minority languages in bi/multilingual children, which calls further attention to patterns of linguistic dominance and sociocultural adaptation.

Ambivalence Towards Translanguaging

Although the afore-mentioned studies denote that translanguaging has transformative potential, attitudes towards it remain somewhat ambivalent. Liu and Fang (2022) document predominantly positive views amongst stakeholders, who see translanguaging as enhancing inclusivity. However, as Bacon (2020) aptly observes, ideologies based on monolingualism still prevail in most language teacher education programmes. When introduced to it as a pedagogical concept, Duarte (2020) noted that teachers often begin with scepticism but gradually embrace translanguaging. Comparable patterns are observed amongst prospective teachers. Gorter and Arocena (2020) and Iversen (2020) found that initial reluctance often gives way to acceptance after training or raising awareness about communicative and pedagogical functions of translanguaging. However, language mixing practices and translanguaging might also be conceived of as alien concepts, due to such reasons as institutional regulations prohibiting L1 use (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2016). Al-Bataineh and Gallagher (2021) highlighted the paradoxical attitudes exhibited by bi/multilingual prospective teachers, whose ambivalence is shaped by various language ideologies, leading to both acceptance and rejection of translanguaging in actual practice. Research also shows that this ideological ambivalence is likely to be under the influence of one's contextual factors (Bernstein et al., 2023) and discussing the concept of translanguaging with prospective teachers could spark contentious debates, reflecting the challenges of bridging scholarly theories with practical classroom applications (Andrei et al., 2020). Therefore, it is possible that various attitudes could be formed towards language mixing practices in educational settings. For instance, as Wang (2019) and Kafle (2020) revealed, university students may demonstrate mixed attitudes, with some avoiding language mixing practices due to perceived conflicts with monolingual standards and some showing initial scepticism about the concept altogether.

In the Turkish EFL context, language mixing practices are both prevalent and ambivalently received, which signifies

a complex interplay of pedagogical, communicative, and attitudinal factors. Kırkgöz and colleagues (2023) highlighted the strategic use of translanguaging in Turkish English-medium instruction (EMI) classrooms, demonstrating its critical role in addressing diverse learning and interactional needs. As the researchers showed, translanguaging in these settings was employed by both instructors and students and served pedagogical functions, such as scaffolding learning by clarifying complex concepts, as well as supporting communicative needs, such as facilitating peer interactions and fostering engagement in EMI lessons. Likewise, Ataş and Sağın-Şimşek (2021) underlined that language mixing practices like code-switching are natural and purposeful in Turkish EFL classrooms. In particular, their study revealed that these language mixing practices could enhance student learning and allow teachers to deliver content more effectively whilst managing classroom interactions, similarly fulfilling both communicative and pedagogical functions.

However, despite these reported advantages and benefits, the ambivalence unfolds in the Turkish EFL context due to varied attitudes towards translanguaging. For example, Yüzlü and Dikilitaş (2022) identified significant variability in teachers' perceptions, noting that professional development can also influence these mixed attitudes. It was further observed by Ulum (2024) that female speakers express more positive attitudes towards translanguaging than their male counterparts, which suggests the possibility of a gender-based factor in shaping perspectives about language mixing. Additionally, Karakaş (2023) revealed a stark contrast in attitudes between educators and students: whilst students in their sample generally held positive views of translanguaging as a tool for learning and emotional support, educators on the other hand often perceived it more negatively. These disparities highlight the contested nature of translanguaging in Turkish EFL classrooms, where it is simultaneously seen as a pedagogical resource and a departure from traditional language teaching norms.

Problem statement and research questions

The ever-expanding body of literature on the concept of translanguaging demonstrates that it is a natural process for bi/multilingual speakers (Gosselin & Sabourin, 2021), characterised by the fluid integration of linguistic resources from multiple languages to fulfil wide-ranging communicative and cognitive needs (Duarte, 2019, 2020; Kleinman & Gollan, 2016). It reflects the dynamic and holistic nature of bi/multilingualism (Wei, 2018), allowing speakers to draw on their full linguistic repertoires in diverse contexts (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2008). In educational settings, translanguaging

offers significant potential by fostering inclusivity and critical thinking (Caldas, 2019; Turner & Lin, 2024), in addition to being a pedagogical tool (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020b). Turkish EFL classrooms are no exception, as translanguaging is increasingly observed to fulfil both communicative and pedagogical functions (Kırkgöz et al., 2023; Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2022). Despite its prevalence, ambivalence surrounds the attitudes of L2 users and educators towards heteroglossic views of language and translanguaging. As the review unveils, mixed perceptions have been reported, with some stakeholders embracing translanguaging for its inclusivity and communicative efficacy whilst others resisting it due to entrenched monolingual norms or concerns about linguistic purity (al-Bataineh & Gallagher, 2021; Li et al., 2024; Wang, 2019). The Turkish EFL context is also prone to this ambivalence. Previous research shows that whereas students often hold positive views about translanguaging, educators tend to demonstrate scepticism, reflecting conflicting attitudes towards language mixing practices (Karakaş, 2023).

Considering that monolingual ideologies persist in teacher education programmes (Bacon, 2020), this may create a disconnect between the research advocating translanguaging and the practices adopted by actual practitioners (Andrei et al., 2020). Given these challenges, it is important for prospective teachers to expand their pedagogical repertoires by engaging with heteroglossic practices like translanguaging (Araujo et al., 2023; Case, 2024; Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021). However, bi/multilingual speakers may differ regarding their approach towards translanguaging (Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2022), and only limited research has explored the translanguaging tendencies of Turkish L2 users of English, particularly regarding their inter-sentential (code-switching) and intra-sentential (borrowing) language mixing practices. To address this gap, the current study aims to investigate the self-reported language mixing practices of Turkish prospective teachers of English, focusing on their translanguaging tendencies across various dimensions, including situational language use, proportional language use, and the dynamics of inter-sentential and intra-sentential shifts (in-)between L1 Turkish and L2 English. Accordingly, the following research questions have been formulated to guide the current study:

- RQ1: In which situational contexts do participants use L2 English and L1 Turkish in their daily interactions?
- RQ2: What are the self-reported proportions of L2 English and L1 Turkish usage in participants' daily interactions?
- RQ3: To what extent do participants employ language mixing practices in L2 English and L1 Turkish according to their self-reported tendencies?
- RQ4: Is there a significant difference between participants' self-reported:

RQ4a: inter-sentential language mixing patterns (TR to EN vs. EN to TR)?

RQ4b: intra-sentential language mixing patterns (TR in EN vs. EN in TR)?

RQ5: Is there any gender-based difference in participants' self-reported language mixing practices?

RQ6: For which reasons do participants engage in language mixing practices?

METHODOLOGY

Research design

This study employs a quantitative, one-shot non-experimental design to investigate the translanguaging tendencies of Turkish prospective teachers of English. This design involves collecting data at a single point in time without manipulating variables or assigning participants to experimental conditions, making it particularly suitable for exploratory or descriptive studies. Therefore, its primary aim is to describe and understand the characteristics or behaviours of a specific group in a natural context, focusing on existing conditions or relationships (Phakiti, 2014). By analysing self-reported language mixing practices and behavioural patterns through a questionnaire focusing on the mixing of Turkish and English, this design allows us to identify cross-linguistic patterns and trends involving speakers of L1 Turkish and L2 English. Furthermore, it provides an efficient method to gather comprehensive data, especially suited for capturing descriptive data with exploratory purposes, which offers a snapshot of translanguaging tendencies and language mixing patterns exhibited by Turkish prospective teachers of English.

Setting and participants

The research was conducted in the English Language Teaching (ELT) department of a Turkish state university. Within the Turkish educational context, English is primarily taught as a foreign language in formal settings, with limited opportunities for naturalistic exposure. It is, hence, possible to state that for the majority of Turkish L1 speakers, English becomes a foreign language mainly spoken as an L2 in limited contexts. This highlights the study setting as an ideal opportunity for exploring how EFL speakers integrate L1 and L2 in their language use, notably in academic and social contexts where sequential bi/multilingualism is prevalent and is contingent upon formal foreign language education.

The participant group consisted of 76 first-year prospective English teachers, enrolled in the same ELT department. The sample included 48 females and 28 males, with an average age of 19.8 years ($SD=1.2$). All participants were native speakers of Turkish (L1) and had sequentially learnt English as an additional language (L2). Their reported

English proficiency levels ranged from B2 to C1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. No participant reported any abroad learning experience or major linguistic competence (B1 or higher) in another language. This relatively homogeneous and uniform educational background and proficiency levels ensured a consistent basis for analysing their translanguaging tendencies. Prior to data collection, participants provided informed consent through a written form after being briefed about the research aims and ethical considerations.

Instrument and data collection

The primary data collection tool for this study was the Language Mixing Questionnaire (Byers-Heinlein, 2013), adapted specifically for the Turkish-English context. This questionnaire was chosen due to its ability to capture nuanced patterns of language mixing (Kaščelan et al., 2022) as well as to reflect the specific dynamics of Turkish (L1) and English (L2) interactions. The instrument consisted of several sections: situational language use, where participants identified the situational contexts in which they used L1 Turkish and L2 English (e.g. at home, with friends, during lessons) through predefined categories; proportional language use, where participants estimated the percentage of their daily interactions conducted in L1 Turkish and L2 English to highlight their specific language use dominance; translanguaging tendencies, assessed through a 7-point Likert scale to measure agreement with statements about language mixing behaviours, such as switching languages between sentences or borrowing words from one language when speaking the other; and reasons for such language mixing practices, explored through checkbox items that included predetermined and open-ended options like not being able to find equivalent translations or pronunciation difficulties.

The reliability of the questionnaire was assessed through Cronbach's alpha, yielding a value of 0.74 (95% CI [0.652, 0.833]), which indicates an acceptable level of internal consistency (Field, 2018). Data collection procedure was conducted face-to-face and took place in a classroom setting during a scheduled class hour. Initially, the participants were briefed on the study's purpose and given detailed instructions. Then, the questionnaires were distributed to those who had given their informed consent to take part in the study. Completing the questionnaire took approximately 15–20 minutes, with the first researcher being present to address any questions or concerns throughout the process.

Data analysis

The data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistical methods to summarise and compare

translanguaging tendencies and language mixing behaviours, with the results organised under distinct headings in the results section. For situational cross-language use (Section 3.1) and reasons for language mixing (Section 3.4), data from checkbox items were analysed through frequency counts and percentages, revealing common situational contexts and underlying reasons for reported language mixing practices. Proportional language use (Section 3.2) was calculated using percentages, illustrating the distribution of L1 Turkish and L2 English use in participants' daily interactions.

As for self-reported translanguaging tendencies, 7-point Likert-scale items that focus on mixing L1 Turkish and L2 English (Section 3.3) were analysed in terms of mean scores, standard deviations, and other relevant descriptive statistics to provide an overview of inter-sentential and intra-sentential language switches. Likewise, responses related to perceived tendencies for language mixing (Section 3.3) were analysed using similar descriptive statistical measures to determine self-reported tendencies towards translanguaging. In particular, inferential statistical analyses involving within- and between-subjects comparisons were conducted to explore potential cross-linguistic and gender-based differences in language mixing practices.

Subsequent to descriptive statistics (Table 2), a paired samples T-test was conducted to investigate language-based differences in language mixing practices, as well as an independent-samples T test to explore potential gender-based differences in these tendencies, with comparisons made between male (n=28) and female (n=48) participants. All the statistical analyses were performed using JASP (version 0.19) to ensure precision and reliability in processing and interpreting the quantitative data. The findings were presented in tabular and narrative formats in the following sections, offering a detailed and comprehensive understanding of translanguaging tendencies amongst Turkish prospective teachers of English through their self-reported language mixing practices.

RESULTS

Situational cross-language use

Table 1 presents the frequency and percentage of L2 English and L1 Turkish use across six different situational contexts: personal interactions, at home or dorm, with friends, with family members, in lessons, and outside. A total of 76 participants were surveyed, revealing their general language use habits.

L2 English is most frequently used in lessons, where 100% (n=76) of the participants reported using L2 English. This is followed by interactions with friends and one-to-one personal

Table 1: Situational Contexts for L2 English and L1 Turkish Use

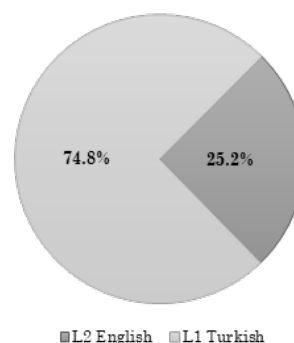
	<i>Personal interactions</i>		<i>At home or dorm</i>		<i>With friends</i>		<i>With family members</i>		<i>In lessons</i>		<i>Outside</i>	
<i>N=76</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
L2 English	45	59.2	26	34.2	50	65.8	9	11.8	76	100	10	13.2
L1 Turkish	76	100	76	100	75	98.7	75	98.7	63	82.9	73	96.1

interactions, where 65.8% (n=50) and 59.2% (n=45) of the participants reported favouring L2 English. In other contexts, it was found that L2 English is notably less common, such as at home or dorms (34.2%, n=26), outside (13.2%, n=10), and with family members (11.8%, n=9). These results suggest that participants predominantly use L2 English in formal and educational settings, including lessons, but less frequently in informal or personal contexts, especially outside or within family interactions. Conversely, L1 Turkish is ubiquitously used across all contexts, with 100% (n=76) of the participants using it in personal interactions and at their homes or dorms. High percentages are also observed with family members (98.7%, n=75), friends (98.7%, n=75), and interactions taking place outside (96.1%, n=73). Notably, 82.9% (n=63) of the participants reported using L1 Turkish in lessons, which indicates a naturally lesser degree of reliance upon their native language in formal educational environments considering that they are enrolled in an ELT department. These findings highlight the situational dynamics of cross-language use by Turkish prospective teachers of English and reveal distinct patterns regarding the roles of L2 English and L1 Turkish in their daily interactions. L2 English is predominantly used in lessons and amongst friends, reflecting its role in academic and semi-formal contexts. However, L1 Turkish remains the dominant language in nearly all contexts, including those where L2 English is used to some extent. This underlines the continued centrality of Turkish in the participants' daily lives and interactions and aligns well with the foreign language status of English in the Turkish context.

Proportional language use

Figure 1 illustrates the proportional use of L2 English and L1 Turkish in the participants' (n=76) daily interactions, which is calculated based on self-reported estimates. The chart highlights a clear dominance of L1 Turkish in linguistic behaviour, accounting for 74.8% of overall interactions, whereas L2 English constitutes only 25.2%.

This distribution corroborates the centrality of L1 Turkish in the participants' daily interactions, aligning with the earlier findings that L1 Turkish is predominantly used across various

**Fig. 1: Proportional Language Use of L2 English and L1 Turkish**

situational contexts. Despite being prospective teachers of English, the participants appear to use L2 English sparingly in their interactions, possibly limiting its application primarily to formal or semi-formal settings such as lessons, micro-teaching sessions, or conversations with peers in academic contexts. The limited proportion of L2 English use suggests that, at least for the current study sample, L1 Turkish remains the default language for personal and informal interactions. This pattern is also reflective of the broader educational and sociolinguistic context in Türkiye, where English is taught as a foreign language and is mostly confined to classroom settings. In this respect, English is often seen as an academic or professional tool rather than a language for everyday use, contributing to its limited integration into the participants' daily lives.

Mixing Turkish and English

Table 2 summarises the participants' self-reported language mixing practices, which reflect their translanguaging tendencies across various contexts involving L2 English and L1 Turkish. Since higher mean values on the 7-point Likert scale indicate a greater tendency to engage in language mixing and translanguaging (i.e. 7=very true, 1=not at all true), the results offer insights into the heteroglossic behavioural patterns.

Descriptive statistics showed that the participants exhibit a low-to-moderate tendency to switch between

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Inter-Sentential, Intra-Sentential, and General Language-Mixing Practices

<i>Language mixing</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Coefficient of variation</i>
Switching (inter-sentential)					
From EN to TR	76	3.40	1.51	0.17	0.45
From TR to EN	76	3.12	1.52	0.17	0.49
Borrowing (intra-sentential)					
TR when using EN	76	3.25	1.57	0.18	0.48
EN when using TR	76	4.32	1.75	0.20	0.41
General					
TR-EN mixing tendency	76	3.84	1.65	0.19	0.43

Note: Results from 7-point Likert-scale items (1= Not at all true, 7=Very true).

Table 3: Comparison of Cross-Language Pairs (Paired Samples T-Test)

<i>Language mixing</i>		<i>Mean dif.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Cohen's d</i>	<i>95% CI for Cohen's d</i>	
							<i>SE Cohen's d</i>	<i>Lower Upper</i>
Switching (inter-sentential)								
From EN to TR	From TR to EN	.276	1.355	75	.180	0.155	0.135	-0.071 0.381
Borrowing (intra-sentential)								
TR when using EN	EN when using TR	-1.066	-4.687	75	<.001	-0.538	0.146	-0.777 -0.295

languages, with a slightly higher mean score for switching from English to Turkish ($M=3.40$, $SD=1.51$) compared with switching from Turkish to English ($M=3.12$, $SD=1.52$). These findings suggest that participants are slightly more likely to incorporate L1 Turkish into their L2 English discourse than vice versa, which potentially reflects an asymmetrical cross-language configuration. Moreover, the coefficients of variation ($CV=0.45$ for English to Turkish and $CV=0.49$ for Turkish to English) reveal moderate consistency amongst the sample, indicating some variability in self-reported switching behaviour. In terms of borrowing, the participants showed a greater tendency to borrow L2 English words when speaking L1 Turkish ($M=4.32$, $SD=1.75$) compared with L1 Turkish words borrowed when speaking L2 English ($M=3.25$, $SD=1.57$). The higher mean score for borrowing English words suggests that the participants often rely on their L2 English language to fill lexical or cultural gaps whilst using L1 Turkish. Conversely, the lower mean for borrowing Turkish words reflects a relatively lower tendency to integrate L2 English into L1 Turkish conversations, likely due to the formal or semi-formal contexts where they use English. Variability in borrowing tendencies is slightly higher for borrowing L1 Turkish words ($CV=0.48$) than borrowing

L2 English words ($CV=0.41$), indicating more individual differences in the former. Lastly, the overall language mixing tendency ($M=3.84$, $SD=1.65$) highlights a moderate level of engagement in translanguaging practices, which is slightly above the midpoint of the 7-point Likert scale. Comparable to switching and borrowing, the coefficient of variation for general language mixing tendency ($CV=0.43$) shows moderate consistency amongst the participants.

Table 3 presents a language-based comparative analysis of participants' translanguaging tendencies, specifically focusing on switching between L2 English (EN) and L1 Turkish (TR) and borrowing words from one language whilst speaking the other. The comparison between switching from L2 English to L1 Turkish and switching from L1 Turkish to L2 English yielded no statistically significant difference (mean difference=0.276, $t(75)=1.355$, $p=.180$). This result suggests that the participants exhibit a comparable tendency to switch between these two languages regardless of directionality. The small effect size (Cohen's $d=0.155$, 95% CI [-0.071, 0.381]) further reinforces the absence of a meaningful difference, indicating that both forms of switching are relatively equally utilised in the participants' translanguaging practices. In contrast, the comparison of borrowing L1 Turkish words

when speaking L2 English versus borrowing L2 English words when speaking L1 Turkish revealed a statistically significant difference (mean difference=-1.066, $t(75)=-4.687$, $p<.001$). This result indicates that the participants are significantly more inclined to borrow English words when speaking Turkish than the reverse, suggesting a cross-linguistic directional preference for intra-sentential language mixing practices. The moderate effect size (Cohen's $d=-0.538$, 95% CI [-0.777, -0.295]) also supports the strength of this tendency.

Table 4 presents a comparative analysis of translanguaging tendencies between the female and male participants, focusing on inter-sentential and intra-sentential language mixing behaviours. In terms of switching from L2 English to L1 Turkish, the female participants reported a slightly higher tendency ($M=3.60$, $SD=1.32$) than the males ($M=3.04$, $SD=1.78$). However, this difference was not statistically significant ($t(74)=-1.594$, $p=.115$), and the effect size (Cohen's $d=-0.379$) was small, indicating that any observed difference is minimal. As for switching from L1 Turkish to L2 English, although the male participants ($M=3.29$, $SD=1.80$) reported a higher tendency than the females ($M=3.02$, $SD=1.35$), there was no statistical difference between two groups, accompanied by negligible effect size (Cohen's $d=0.173$). These results indicate that both female and male participants engage in inter-sentential code-switching practices at comparable levels, with no clear difference concerning cross-linguistic directionality based on gender. As regards borrowing L1 Turkish words when speaking L2 English, the female participants reported a slightly higher mean score ($M=3.44$, $SD=1.46$) than the males ($M=2.93$, $SD=1.72$). However, the difference did not reach statistical significance

($t(74)=-1.373$, $p=.174$), and the effect size was relatively small (Cohen's $d=-0.327$). Conversely, for borrowing L2 English words when speaking L1 Turkish, the male participants reported slightly higher scores ($M=4.57$, $SD=2.03$) than the females ($M=4.17$, $SD=1.58$). Again, this difference was not statistically significant (Welch's $t(46.11)=0.909$, $p=.368$) and exhibited a small effect size (Cohen's $d=0.223$). Akin to code-switching, the results suggest that both female and male participants utilise intra-sentential borrowing ways in similar ways, without any meaningful distinction based on gender. Lastly, in terms of general self-reported language mixing tendencies, the female participants showed a slightly lower mean ($M=3.79$, $SD=1.35$) compared with the males ($M=3.93$, $SD=2.09$). However, the difference was again not statistically significant (Welch's $t(40.42)=0.311$, $p=.758$), and the effect size was extremely small (Cohen's $d=0.078$). It was found that both groups perceive themselves as engaging in language mixing practices to a similar extent.

Reasons for language mixing

Table 5 summarises the participants' self-reported reasons for language mixing practices, notably focusing on borrowing linguistic elements from L1 Turkish and L2 English. The findings presented below illustrate the situational factors underlying participants' language mixing practices, revealing nuanced motivations that vary depending on the direction of intra-sentential borrowing.

When speaking L2 English, the most common reason for borrowing L1 Turkish words was the participants' intuitive choices without a clear purpose, with 69.7% of respondents reporting this as a reason ($f=53$). This suggests

Table 4: Comparison of Male and Female Participants (Independent Samples T-Test)

	Females ($n=48$)		Males ($n=28$)		<i>t</i> or statistic	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD				
Switching (inter-sentential)								
From EN to TR	3.60	1.32	3.04	1.78	-1.594	74	.115	-0.379
From TR to EN	3.02	1.35	3.29	1.80	0.729	74	.468	0.173
Borrowing (intra-sentential)								
TR when using EN	3.44	1.46	2.93	1.72	-1.373	74	.174	-0.327
EN when using TR ^a	4.17	1.58	4.57	2.03	0.909	46.11	.368	0.223
General								
TR-EN mixing tendency ^a	3.79	1.35	3.93	2.09	0.311	40.42	.758	0.078

Note: ^aWelch test results were reported because the homogeneity of variances assumption was not met for these variables.

Table 5: Reasons for Language Mixing (Intra-Sentential Practices)

	<i>Not sure</i>		<i>Lack of equivalent translation</i>		<i>Difficult pronunciation</i>		<i>Teaching or learning new words</i>		<i>Other</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Borrow TR when using EN	53	69.7	34	44.7	24	31.6	23	30.3	23	30.3
Borrow EN when using TR	23	30.3	34	44.7	8	10.5	25	32.9	34	44.7

that uncertainty plays a significant role in language mixing behaviours, particularly when the participants feel unsure about their lexical options in an L2. The second most frequent reason was the lack of an equivalent translation in English, reported by 44.7% of the participants ($f=34$). This reflects the inherent challenges in mapping cultural and linguistic concepts between these two languages. Interestingly, 31.6% of the participants ($f=24$) attributed their borrowing of L1 Turkish words to the difficulty of pronouncing certain L2 English terms, highlighting phonetic and phonological barriers some sequential bi/multilingual speakers experience in their L2. Additionally, 30.3% ($f=23$) of the respondents indicated that borrowing L1 Turkish words occurred when they were teaching or learning new vocabulary, highlighting the functional and pedagogical role of translanguaging in educational contexts. An equal proportion (30.3%, $f=23$) cited 'other' reasons, which might include personal preference or contextual factors.

In contrast, borrowing L2 English elements when speaking L1 Turkish revealed a somewhat different distribution of reasons. The most commonly reported reason, cited by 44.7% of the participants ($f=34$), was the lack of an equivalent translation in Turkish. This suggests that, similar to borrowing L1 Turkish, gaps in linguistic equivalency are one of the most important factors for borrowing L2 English words. Another 44.7% ($f=34$) of the participants reported 'other' reasons, indicating diverse and possibly situation-specific motivations for integrating L2 English into their L1 Turkish speech. Teaching or learning new words was also a prominent factor, with 32.9% of the participants ($f=25$) mentioning it as a reason for borrowing L2 English words when using L1 Turkish. Again, this points to the use of translanguaging as a pedagogical tool for education and interactional development in bi/multilingual contexts. However, only 30.3% ($f=23$) of the participants reported uncertainty behind their intra-sentential language mixing practices, which might suggest a more determined pattern of language mixing behaviours

when predominantly using their native language. Notably, only 10.5% ($f=8$) mentioned pronunciation difficulties as a factor, indicating that phonetic and phonological challenges are less of an issue when using L1.

DISCUSSION

The current study has offered noteworthy contributions to the field of translanguaging by revealing self-reported language mixing tendencies of Turkish prospective teachers of English. The first research question explored the contextual situations in which the participants used L2 English and L1 Turkish. The findings showed that L2 English was largely confined to semi-formal and formal contexts (e.g. lessons), whereas L1 Turkish was ubiquitously used in every context. This illustrates what a typical EFL context might look like from a cross-language perspective, indicating the predominant role of L1 Turkish versus the limited space allocated for L2 English in the participants' daily lives. It should, however, be noted that, despite the difference in frequency, both languages were reported to be used in each context, with some of the participants even stating that the main use of L2 English for them was gaming and communication on digital platforms like Discord. This wide range of contexts in which concurrent L1-L2 use was reported might denote an inevitable state of interconnectedness within their bi/multilingual linguistic competence (Cook, 1992; Cook & Bassetti, 2011; Francis, 2004). Therefore, despite the more frequent use of L1 Turkish in such situational contexts, L2 English also remains available in the background and could be employed if a particular communicative circumstance necessitates a cross-linguistic shift.

The second research question investigated the participants' proportional uses of L2 English and L1 Turkish. Corroborating the results from the previous question, it was found that L2 English was used at nearly one-fourth the frequency of L1 Turkish, based on self-reported estimates. Considering their reliance upon L1 Turkish in daily life, as

well as its cultural and social prevalence, the relatively low percentage of L2 English use highlights potential challenges in achieving high levels of L2 practice in broader communicative contexts. This finding yields two contradictory standpoints in keeping with the participants' operational identity as prospective teachers of English. First, they could be in need for more immersive and contextualised opportunities for L2 English use in and outside classroom settings, if in the future they will be required to follow a monolingual policy in their classrooms. Second, they could turn this situation into an advantage by utilising the potential benefits of pedagogical translanguaging (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020b). By leveraging the co-existence of L1 Turkish and L2 English, which is likely the case both for them and for their future students, these prospective teachers might be involved in environments where language mixing practices between L1 and L2 are used in a principled and purposeful manner. Although both standpoints might have proponents, the latter could unlock the educational potential of translanguaging, which aims to let the participants capitalise on their entire linguistic repertoire (Wei, 2018), turning the asymmetrical cross-language use into a potential advantage.

The third research question revealed the descriptive statistics about the participants' inter-sentential, intra-sentential, and general language mixing tendencies. Noting that the instrument consisted of 7-point Likert items, L1-L2 and L2-L1 code-switching practices, and borrowing L1 Turkish elements when using L2 English were below the scale's midpoint. This finding implies a degree of scepticism exhibited towards translanguaging and language mixing practices by the prospective teachers, in part supporting the previous research that exemplified mixed views, ambivalence, and initial scepticism (Duarte, 2020; Gorter & Arocena, 2020; Iversen, 2020; Kafle, 2020; Wang, 2019). The highest score was observed in borrowing L2 English elements when using L1 Turkish ($M=4.32$, $SD=1.75$), which is followed by general tendency for mixing L1 Turkish and L2 English ($M=3.84$, $SD=1.65$). Both of these values are above the midpoint but do not suggest a strong inclination towards the end of embracing translanguaging. Overall, these findings indicate that the participants do not comprehensively engage in language mixing practices but demonstrate a relatively selective approach towards translanguaging. For instance, it was revealed that they uphold intra-sentential borrowing over inter-sentential code-switching in the context of L1 Turkish and L2 English use, implying paradoxical attitudes that might have been shaped by various language ideologies (al-Bataineh & Gallagher, 2021). Amongst other feasible explanations behind this phenomenon might be the monolingualism entrenched in teacher education programmes (Bacon,

2020), a lack of awareness or training concerning the diverse functions of pedagogical translanguaging (Duarte, 2020; Kırkgöz et al., 2023), or possibly negative perceptions about mixed linguistic codes leading to fused lects (Auer, 1999; Auer & Hakimov, 2021), such as Turklish (i.e. the juxtaposition of Turkish and English) (Lambert, 2018).

In the fourth research question, the findings from the within-subjects comparisons revealed interesting cross-linguistic patterns. First, although the participants had a seemingly higher tendency for switching from L2 English to L1 Turkish, the directional difference of inter-sentential language mixing was not found to be statistically significant, suggesting a relatively low but equally comfortable transitioning between these two languages. This result was in alignment with the above-mentioned findings, signifying the participants' cautious stance and mixed attitudes towards code-switching practices. In this regard, there is a room for further discussion as regards the need for equipping prospective teachers with necessary language mixing skills and strategies (Araujo et al., 2023; Caldas, 2019; Case, 2024) because the current findings did not suggest uniform support in favour of extensive code-switching expressed by the participants when compared with the previous research conducted in the Turkish EFL context (Ataş & Sağın-Şimşek, 2021). Second, it was found that the participants' likelihood of borrowing L2 English words when using L1 Turkish was significantly higher than vice versa. This finding suggests that they are more likely to integrate foreign language (L2 English) elements into their native language (L1 Turkish) during communication, which highlights another typical feature of EFL contexts. Although, for instance, the majority language (possibly L1) could be integrated into the minority language (possibly L2) in certain heritage language contexts (Blom et al., 2024); the opposite pattern was observed in the Turkish EFL context, since the participants exhibited a higher tendency for integrating L2 English (cf. minority language) into L1 Turkish (cf. majority language) at a statistically significant level. This unique borrowing pattern reveals a strong cross-linguistic preference for L2 to L1 directionality in terms of intra-sentential language mixing practices.

There may be multiple explanations for this directional preference for Turkish prospective teachers of English. First and foremost, it should be kept front of mind that the participants' native language is Turkish, and all members of this research sample reported to have learnt English as an additional language in sequential manner. This defining characteristic of sequential bilinguals might result in a cross-linguistic asymmetry in multi-competence. Because L1 is naturally the more dominant language, it acts in a manner more stable than L2, which might be conceived of as the

secondary and more flexible or volatile linguistic code in this regard. It is, therefore, possible to argue that sequential bi/multilinguals might feel more at ease when carrying 'flexible and volatile' L2 elements into L1 than trying to move 'dominant and stable' L1 elements into L2. Considering that bi/multilingual speakers do not, in fact, completely switch off languages functioning in the background (Grosjean & Li, 2013), the current findings suggest that it is a natural tendency for them to employ translanguaging by mixing L2 and L1 elements (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2008; Duarte, 2019; Kleinman & Gollan, 2016). Conversely, the relatively lower tendency to borrow L1 Turkish words when speaking L2 English suggests that participants are more self-reliant in their L2 English production, possibly striving for linguistic accuracy or fluency in their second language. This avoidance, on the other hand, could be explained by the participants' educational background. Learning English largely in instructed and formal settings might have shaped their L2 ideologies with a monolingual bias, which could be imposed by various contextual and institutional factors (Bacon, 2020; Bernstein et al., 2023; Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2016).

The fifth research question examined the translanguaging behaviour of the female and male participants through a between-subjects comparison. Accordingly, although the females had a higher tendency for switching from L2 English to L1 Turkish, borrowing L1 Turkish when speaking L2 English; and the males had a higher tendency for switching from L1 Turkish to L2 English, borrowing L2 English words when using L1 Turkish, and overall Turkish-English mixing tendency, the analysis yielded no statistically significant gender-based differences in these self-reported practices. Considering that both the female and male participants reported similar language mixing practices, the negligible difference highlights the universality of translanguaging tendencies in the Turkish EFL context. This finding may contradict previous research showing more positive attitudes towards translanguaging exhibited by female speakers (Ulum, 2024), revealing that gender does not seem to play a significant role in shaping such language mixing practices, at least for the current sample. Despite statistical insignificance, further investigation regarding gender-specific translanguaging tendencies might nonetheless be useful in explaining descriptive patterns, such as why the female participants favoured borrowing L1 Turkish when using L2 English ($M=3.44$, $SD=1.46$ vs. $M=2.93$, $SD=1.72$), whereas the male participants favoured borrowing L2 English when using L1 Turkish ($M=4.57$, $SD=2.03$ vs. $M=4.17$, $SD=1.58$).

Lastly, the sixth research question investigated self-reported reasons for language mixing practices. The participants expressed a much lesser uncertainty regarding

borrowing L2 English words when using L1 Turkish (30.3% vs. 69.7% for borrowing L1 Turkish when using L2 English). This result indicates that their intra-sentential language mixing practices are arguably more determined and purposeful when L2 is integrated into L1 speech, which corroborates the finding that revealed a higher tendency to use L2 English elements in L1 Turkish speech rather than the other way around (see Table 2). Lack of equivalent translations was another major factor, highlighting the fluid and dynamic use of bi/multilingual repertoire to cope with shortcomings of L1 or L2 competence (Cook & Bassetti, 2011; Wei, 2018). Importantly, teaching or learning new words was similar for both cross-linguistic directions, which suggests that translanguaging is a readily available tool that prospective teachers can use to enhance their pedagogical competence in both L1 and L2 contexts (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020b). Overall, the distribution unveils varied areas in which the participants make use of language mixing to meet specific communicative needs, emphasising the strategic and context-dependent nature of translanguaging (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a; Duarte, 2020). This may indicate that even if it is not always explicit, bi/multilingual speakers' translanguaging behaviour functions according to a deeper cognitive planning process serving various communicative and pedagogical functions.

Limitations

Despite its contributions, this study has several limitations that necessitate further consideration. First, the reliance upon self-reported data from the Language Mixing Questionnaire introduces a possibility of response bias, as the participants might have reported behaviours that align with expected or desirable perceived social and educational norms rather than their actual practices. Although the findings are discussed within the scope of EFL contexts, the study's focus on Turkish prospective teachers of English might limit the generalisability of the findings to other cultural or linguistic contexts. In addition, whilst the sample size of 76 participants was deemed suitable for robust insights in this case, a larger and more diverse sample, including bi/multilingual speakers from various educational levels or language configurations, could provide a more nuanced understanding of attitudes towards communicative and pedagogical uses of translanguaging. In this line, it should also be noted that the current study broadly defined the participants as sequential bilinguals and did not account for their individual exposure to English in detail, which might have shaped their translanguaging tendencies. Lastly, the paucity of observational data constrains the likelihood of drawing conclusions about real-time language mixing practices as well as their effects in actual classroom settings or micro-teaching sessions, highlighting the

complexity of translanguaging and the need for future mixed-methods research in this field.

CONCLUSION

In summary, this study has provided significant insights into the translanguaging tendencies of Turkish prospective teachers of English through their self-reported inter-sentential, intra-sentential, and general language mixing practices. The findings reveal a contextual differentiation between L1 Turkish and L2 English use, with Turkish dominating informal and daily interactions whilst English is confined to formal and semi-formal contexts, such as academic settings. In consonance with this, the proportional use of L1 Turkish (74.8%) and L2 English (25.2%) further highlights the limited scope of L2 English use in comparison with the pervasive presence of L1 Turkish, raising questions about the adequacy of English exposure in fostering balanced bi/multilingualism whilst highlighting typical cross-language usage patterns in an EFL context. In terms of directional preferences in language mixing practices, the study uncovered nuanced practices. Although switching between L1 Turkish and L2 English indicated no particular directional preference, it was highlighted that Turkish prospective teachers of English had a higher tendency to borrow L2 English words when speaking L1 Turkish, reflecting a cross-linguistic preference likely rooted in the dominance of their native language and a natural inclination to make use of their entire linguistic repertoire in a fluid and dynamic way. Contrarywise, borrowing L1 Turkish elements when speaking L2 English was comparatively lower, which may indicate a monolingual bias potentially shaped by formal English instruction. Subsequently, gender-based analyses revealed no statistically significant differences in translanguaging tendencies, supporting the commonality of these language mixing practices across genders whilst also pointing to subtle descriptive variations worth further exploration.

In light of these key findings, future research should aim to address several gaps identified in this study. First, longitudinal studies could explore how translanguaging tendencies evolve over time, particularly as prospective teachers transition into professional roles. Second, qualitative methods, such as classroom observations or in-depth interviews, could complement self-reported data to uncover deeper motivations and contextual factors behind inter-sentential, intra-sentential, and general language mixing practices, as well as accounting for the observed differences. Third, cross-contextual studies involving bi/multilingual participants from different linguistic and cultural settings could provide comparative insights into how particular

language configurations and educational systems may shape translanguaging behaviours. Lastly, experimental studies could investigate the cognitive and pedagogical implications of translanguaging practices, in which self-reported data could be checked against carefully controlled variables.

Acknowledgement

This article has been derived from the first author's PhD dissertation, entitled 'An Investigation of Pronunciation-Based Translanguaging Practices in English Language Teacher Education', which is conducted under the supervision of the second author at Hacettepe University, Graduate School of Educational Sciences.

Ethical considerations

The ethical approval for this study was obtained from the researchers' affiliated institution on 29 December 2023. All the participants were volunteers and signed an informed consent form.

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