

## Examining the attitudes towards translanguaging and language positions of pre-service English language teachers

**Belle Beatriex M. Alemania<sup>1</sup>, Jannah Mae Y. Beltran<sup>2</sup>, Mark Ian L. Betancor<sup>3</sup>, Princess Jan Erika G. Eli<sup>4</sup>, Michael Angelo C. Escueta<sup>5</sup>, Mica Janelle T. Espiritu<sup>6</sup>, Henelsie B. Mendoza<sup>7</sup>**

*<sup>1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7</sup> Philippine Normal University, the Philippines*

<sup>1</sup> alemania.bbm@pnu.edu.ph, <sup>2</sup> beltran.jmy@pnu.edu.ph, <sup>3</sup> betancor.mil@pnu.edu.ph,

<sup>4</sup> eli.pje@pnu.edu.ph, <sup>5</sup> escueta.mac@pnu.edu.ph, <sup>6</sup> espiritu.mjt@pnu.edu.ph,

<sup>7</sup> mendoza.hb@pnu.edu.ph

### Abstract

The implementation of Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) in the Philippines compelled education stakeholders to integrate translanguaging in teaching and learning. The sudden shift to a multilingual language learning framework proved to be challenging to both teachers and learners since education policy discourses continue to support monolingual classroom methodologies (Lin, 2013). However, little work has been done to investigate the attitudes of pre-service English language teachers (ELTs) in using translanguaging and the extent to which they are willing to accommodate other languages in their future second language (L2) classes. Thus, the present study explores the translanguaging attitudes and language positions of pre-service ELTs in a Philippine state university and compares their translanguaging attitudes and language positions by gender, year level, and academic performance. Data from 120 pre-service ELTs were gathered using the translanguaging attitudinal survey of Fang and Liu (2020) and the language positions survey questionnaire of Anderson and Lightfoot (2018). The responses were analyzed using descriptive statistics, t-test, and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Findings revealed that the participants possess a positive view of translanguaging for content-oriented and classroom-oriented purposes. The majority of the participants also belong to the maximal position of Macaro's (2001) continuum of perspective. There is also a significant difference between the participants' translanguaging attitudes and language positions in relation to their year level. Overall, the results suggest a need for teacher education institutions (TEIs) to explicitly incorporate multilingual practices into their curriculum to increase the acceptance of using translanguaging in multilingual L2 classrooms.

**Keywords:** translanguaging, language position, maximal position, continuum of perspective

## 1. Introduction

With the increasing development of multilingualism across the world, educational institutions have become more inclusive in integrating the learners' linguistic resources into their second language (L2) instruction. This shift motivated language policymakers from different countries to formulate programs that build on teachers' and students' first languages (L1) (Hornberger, 2002). The recognition of local languages on a global scale debunked existing monolingual norms practiced in educational institutions, leading to the formation of a multilingual framework in pedagogy which allowed teachers to switch between their L1 and L2 during discussions (García & Wei, 2014) and provided learners with more avenues to express their ideas using their L1 (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2018).

The emergence of multilingual frameworks resulted in the development of a new practice in classrooms known as translanguaging (Hornberger & Link, 2012). The word *translanguaging*, or *trawsieithu* in Welsh, was termed by Williams (1994, 1996, as cited in García & Wei, 2014) to refer to the teaching and learning practice whereby learners alternate between two or more languages to gain knowledge, understanding, and experiences. Compared with bilingualism, which regards L1 and L2 as separate and independent units, translanguaging allows individuals to fully use their language resources so they can flexibly engage in different communicative contexts (Canagarajah, 2013; García & Wei, 2014). Therefore, translanguaging transcends bilingual language practices, like code-switching and code-mixing, to enable multilingual speakers to utilize their entire meaning-making systems (Adamson & Coulson, 2015; Makalela, 2015).

Along with the growing need to accommodate translanguaging in multilingual L2 classes is the need to adjust teacher education curricula to prepare and encourage pre-service teachers to implement them effectively in their classes. al-Bataineh and Gallagher (2018) highlighted that equipping pre-service ELTs is vital in raising awareness of the benefits of using L1 in classrooms. Promoting the use of the mother tongue in teacher education institutions (TEIs) and higher education institutions (HEIs) can influence pre-service ELTs' instructional approaches and prepare them to teach in multilingual classrooms during their field placements (Iversen, 2019).

Teacher education universities, however, remain reluctant to fully integrate this practice into the curriculum. Barros et al. (2020) and Probyn (2015) stated that higher education universities overlooked the training of pre-service ELTs and paid little to no attention to equipping them to integrate multilingual strategies. Goodwin (1997) noted that the typical response of TEIs is to add one or two courses and leave the rest of the curriculum intact. This will only be effective when reinforced and expanded on in other courses. As a result, pre-service ELTs tend to adopt the monolingual practices promoted in their school institutions and undermine the importance of using L1 in L2 acquisition (Musanti & Rodríguez, 2017). They are not apt to embrace translanguaging as part of their pedagogical repertoire, especially since the idea clashes with "entrenched monolingual teaching practices" (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 297) that can be observed in most TEIs. Practice teachers also face difficulties leveraging their L1 in their academic and professional discourse, thus urging them not to use translanguaging practices (Musanti & Rodríguez, 2017).

Understanding their attitudes and language positions can provide information on the possible constraints and misapprehensions that impede them from using translanguaging in their future multilingual L2 classes. At the same time, exploring their perspectives is vital in recognizing how the different contextual differences, such as language, societal aims, and personal and educational background, may impact their L1 views.

While there have been several attempts to study the underlying attitudes of pre-service ELTs on translanguaging (Carroll & Sambolín Morales, 2016; Wang, 2016), there is still a dearth of research that investigates this topic, especially among pre-service ELTs in TEIs and HEIs (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2018; Adamson & Coulson, 2015; Palfreyman & Al-Bataineh, 2018). Most research on this topic is centralized in bilingual and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. With more varied linguistic experiences available to multilinguals than bilingual speakers, additional investigation is essential to establish how translanguaging is experienced in different contexts (De Los Reyes, 2018; Ticheloven et al., 2019).

In the Philippines, the implementation of Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) mandated the use of learners' L1 as an auxiliary language of instruction in basic education. Nolasco (2008) noted that pre-service teachers are unequipped to teach in multilingual environments. They are not adept at using their L1 as the mode of instruction (MOI) due to a lack of teacher training and the unavailability of materials in the mother tongue. Pre-service ELTs are also unaware of the benefits of translanguaging, which led to their indifference and silent resistance to implementing the program, as well as the formulation of classroom practices that are inconsistent with the country's mother tongue-based policies (Martin, 2005). Probyn (2015) emphasized that insufficient teacher training hindered the potential of translanguaging as a means to accommodate multilingual speakers in the classroom. Their unpreparedness and lack of confidence in using translanguaging resulted in their opposing views towards utilizing their L1 as a medium of instruction in basic education.

The prevailing issues that hinder translanguaging from being fully maximized in the classroom imply an immediate need to evaluate the attitudes and language positions of multilingual pre-service ELTs. Knowing their views on using native languages is beneficial in eliminating monolingual biases that are still prevalent in the education system (Espino et al., 2021; Martin, 2018). Hence, research is still required to shed light on this phenomenon.

## 1.1 Attitudes of teachers on translanguaging

Studies that measure the translanguaging attitudes of teachers have been conducted in recent years. These attitude studies provided information on the views of teachers that may inform their L1 use in classrooms (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2018). Gorter and Arocena (2020) discussed that exploring their perspectives is essential in determining the factors influencing their attitudes.

Generally, teachers are in favor of translanguaging practices in language classrooms. They perceive native languages as advantageous in promoting classroom interactions (Carroll & Sambolín Morales, 2016; Gorter & Arocena, 2020), teaching a new concept or language (De Los Reyes, 2018), and shaping classroom activities (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2018).

Educators also observed that using the native language allows students to understand their lessons better, contributing to their positive L1 views (Duarte, 2018; Probyn, 2015). They believe that integrating students' linguistic skills in language classrooms can enhance their cognitive processing, communication skills, and learning experience (Adamson & Coulson, 2015; Cenoz, 2017; Clark, 2017).

On the other hand, some studies also revealed that teachers maintain a neutral stance in fully incorporating translanguaging in language classrooms (Lima Becker et al., 2021). Anderson and Lightfoot (2018) pointed out that their impartial attitude is caused by guilt whenever they use native languages in their classrooms. Although education stakeholders see translanguaging as beneficial for L2 development, they are restricted by the current educational policies that hinder them from fully implementing translanguaging spaces in their classrooms (Musanti & Rodriguez, 2017; Nguyen, 2019; Palfreyman & Al-Bataineh, 2018).

The prevailing monolingual framework present in educational institutions has contributed to the negative stance among teachers. Educators are against translanguaging because it can result in students' lesser exposure to the target language (TL) (al-Bataineh & Gallagher, 2018; Mendoza & Parba, 2018). Galante (2020) and Makalela (2015) stated that college instructors expressed concern that learners would neglect their TL if they used translanguaging strategies. Their inability to accept translanguaging demonstrates that education stakeholders still uphold a monolingual bias toward the dominant languages that restricts them from maximizing their advantages. These biases can then be further informed by the language positions held by most teachers.

## **1.2 Language positions of teachers**

The translanguaging attitudes of most teachers can be better understood when one also understands the extent to which teachers will use L1. Previous studies (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2018; Fang & Liu, 2020) that explored translanguaging attitudes utilized Macaro's (2001) continuum of perspective to identify the underlying reasons that influenced the views of education stakeholders towards L1 use. Moreso, the language positions proposed by Macaro (2001) intended to measure the tolerance of pre-service teachers in integrating native languages in second language instruction. Macaro (2001) suggested that pre-service teachers may fall into any language position depending on the degree to which they prefer to apply L1 in the classroom.

Three theoretical language positions were presented in the continuum of perspective, including the virtual, maximal, and optimal positions. The virtual position refers to the total exclusion of L1 in the classroom. Those who belong to this position believe that there is no pedagogical value in using native languages; thus, they should be excluded from L2 instruction. Meanwhile, the maximal position pertains to the occasional use of L1 under specific conditions. This position states that there is no perfect condition for language learning and that L1 use is unavoidable. Lastly, the optimal position denotes the full integration and acceptance of L1 into L2 instruction.

The model has been utilized in several studies to plot the language positions of education stakeholders. For instance, Gorter and Arocena (2020) found that most educators

fall under the maximal position. Teacher-participants believe there are specific conditions under which L1 should be employed (Polio & Duff, 1994, as cited in Kim, 2020). These situations occur when the learners fail to understand the topic and comprehend a linguistic concept. Macaro (2001) also observed that educators only use their native languages for particular reasons, such as to improve teaching efficiency and discipline students. Hence, these studies show that L1 utilization only occurs when needed.

Few studies showed conflicting perspectives among educators in the continuum of perspective due to ideological constraints that affect their L1 use. Particularly, Wang (2016) revealed that half of the teacher-participants fall under the virtual and optimal positions, which shows the hesitancy of educators to mix their L1. Their unpreparedness to teach in multilingual classrooms causes their reluctance to integrate translanguaging into academic discourse.

Meanwhile, Fang and Liu (2020) discovered that college instructors belong to maximal and optimal positions. They admitted that translanguaging is advantageous in scaffolding language learning. However, using their L1 is accompanied by a sense of guilt, referred to as guilty translanguaging. This emotion is caused by the prevailing stigma on L1 use that limits teachers from utilizing their native languages during discussions due to institutional policies and national directives that require them to use only the dominant languages in their classrooms (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2018). Aside from the aforementioned social pressures, personal factors also contribute to guilty translanguaging. Ticheloven et al. (2019) argued that teachers are hesitant to use their students' home language since they fear it might cause confusion and impede the learners from acquiring the TL.

### **1.3 Differences in translanguaging attitudes and language positions in relation to gender, year level, and academic performance**

The variations in translanguaging attitudes in relation to gender, year level, and academic performance suggest that these contextual variables can influence how pre-service teachers perceive the use of L1. It is worth investigating how different factors may affect their translanguaging attitudes and positions toward native languages. Thus, studies about translanguaging attempted to expound on connections between translanguaging attitudes and language positions in terms of gender, year level, and academic performance.

In the discussions about genders, studies show that female participants tend to be more open to translanguaging than male participants (al Bataineh & Gallagher, 2018; Palfreyman & Al-Bataineh, 2018). In their reports, Ajepe (2014) and Shi and Cui (2020) stressed that women are more curious and tolerant of integrating other languages in their classrooms, which results in a more positive attitude. However, these findings contradict the study by Zhang (2011) that claimed females are inclined to dominant languages and do not perceive any value in using local languages. Other studies also discovered that the interrelation between gender and translanguaging attitudes yielded minimal differences (Alieto, 2018; Tonio & Ella, 2019).

With regard to year level and its relation to translanguaging attitudes, studies indicated that undergraduates in their first and second years manifest stronger translanguaging attitudes compared to those in higher years (Palfreyman & Al-Bataineh, 2018; Shi & Cui,

2020; Wang, 2016). To support this claim, studies by Ajepe (2014) and Makalela (2015) stated that African students in their lower years have a more favorable attitude toward translanguaging. In Spain, Musanti and Rodríguez (2017) affirmed that first-year Spanish college students have a positive instructional stance on translanguaging since it aided them in strengthening their bilingual competencies. However, Tonio and Ella (2019) debunked the said findings, as they argued that year level does not influence translanguaging attitudes.

Research on the connection between academic performance and translanguaging attitudes exhibits contrasting results, especially in discussions among developing students. In particular, Adamson and Coulson (2015) claimed that low-achieving learners lean towards translanguaging perspectives after their study revealed that translanguaging improved their participants' critical academic writing skills. Wang (2016) also supports this argument after he found that the participants in beginner classes exhibit positive attitudes towards using translanguaging. Furthermore, low-achieving learners showed significant improvements in their macro skills, increasing their perception and appreciation of L1. In contrast to this argument, Mendoza and Parba (2018) found that students who performed poorly in their academics negatively perceived the integration of L1-inclusive practices in L2 instruction. They see translanguaging as a short-term mechanism in language learning.

#### **1.4 Implications of translanguaging in multilingual classrooms and English as a Second Language (ESL) teaching**

Translanguaging holds pedagogical value, especially in multilingual classrooms. It provides learners with meaningful linguistic inputs necessary for their cognitive and social development (Lima Becker et al., 2021; Lewis et al., 2012). Probyn (2015) tackled how translanguaging practices have been utilized for a broad range of tasks that may arise deliberately or spontaneously depending on the immediate situations. Ferguson (2009) and García and Wei (2014) classified these functions as content-oriented, classroom-oriented, and student-oriented.

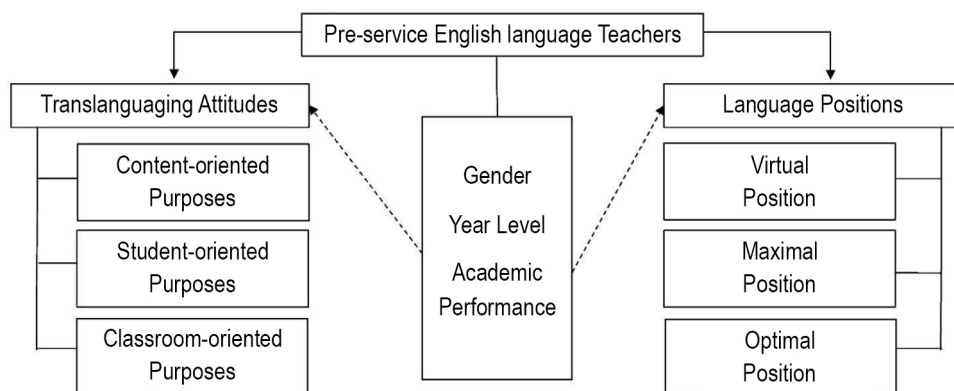
Content-oriented purposes pertain to the teachers' use of various translanguaging strategies to relay academic content and augment students' L2 learning (Ferguson, 2009; García & Wei, 2014). Particularly, teachers strategically shift to their L1 to elaborate discussions and expound on untranslatable concepts in L2 (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2014). Martin (2018) and Probyn (2015) argued that translanguaging is used for scaffolding learning by providing comprehensible language input to the learners. This process occurs through a pedagogic bridging discourse wherein teachers use L1 to transfer knowledge until they have fully mastered the linguistic concept. Teachers also negotiate meaning with their learners using their mother tongue (Fang & Liu, 2020). This happens when teachers communicate with learners by alternating and moving fluently between L1 and L2 so they can reach a common understanding.

Aside from communicating content, translanguaging is used for a broad range of classroom-oriented purposes. This practice refers to when teachers use their native languages to give instructions, disseminate announcements, discipline learners, and get the class's attention (García & Wei, 2014; Lima Becker et al., 2021). Educators also resort to their L1 to develop class rapport (Ticheloven et al., 2019). Burton and Rajendram (2019) affirmed this



function by reporting that ESL instructors in a Canadian university engage in translanguaging to develop social and affective relationships in their classrooms. Fang and Liu (2020) and Wang (2016) also observed that professors in universities build friendly relations with their students by using their L1 to inject humor into their discussions. In the Philippine setting, Martin (2018) and Paez (2018) noticed that teachers use translingual strategies to elicit responses, sustain interests, and build enthusiasm among Grade 6 pupils.

**Figure 1. Conceptual Framework**



The model above is informed by the dynamic systems theory of Herdina and Jessner (2002). It indicates that the tasks and environment affect the choices and attitudes of individuals regarding their language use. Figure 1 illustrates how the various contexts of pre-service ELTs can affect their attitudes toward the use of translanguaging for content-oriented, student-oriented, and classroom-oriented purposes (Ferguson, 2009; García & Wei, 2014).

Moreover, this study examined the language positions of pre-service ELTs in line with Macaro's (2001) continuum of perspective to determine whether they belong in the virtual, maximal, and optimal positions. Their language positions were also compared to the contextual variables indicated above. However, there has been an indirect relationship between these variables since studies on the translingual attitudes and language positions among pre-service ELTs remain ambivalent.

Thus, the purpose of this research is to determine the translanguaging attitudes and language positions of pre-service ELTs in a Philippine state university. Specifically, it seeks answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the attitudes of pre-service ELTs towards the use of translanguaging practices for:
  - 1.1. content-oriented purposes;
  - 1.2. student-oriented purposes; and
  - 1.3. classroom-oriented purposes?

2. What are the language positions of pre-service ELTs as suggested by their translanguaging practices?
3. Is there a significant difference between the translanguaging attitudes and language positions of pre-service ELTs and the following variables:
  - 3.1. gender;
  - 3.2. year level; and
  - 3.3. academic performance?

## **2. Method**

### **2.1 Research Design**

This descriptive research study utilized a survey questionnaire method to determine pre-service ELTs' translanguaging attitudes and language positions. Two instruments were distributed to the participants, namely the translanguaging attitudinal survey (Fang & Liu, 2020) and the language positions survey questionnaire (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2018). A quantitative analysis was employed to examine the differences in the participants' translanguaging attitudes and language positions in relation to their gender, year level, and academic performance.

### **2.2 Participants and setting**

The participants of this research were second to fourth-year ESL learners and pre-service ELTs in a Philippine state university. They were selected through a stratified random sampling technique wherein 40 respondents per year level ( $n=120$ ) represented the population ( $N=279$ ). Griffiee (2012) indicated that this type of probability sampling is appropriate given the following conditions: (1) if the groups of interest are of unequal size, and (2) if the small groups cannot be accounted for using the simple random sampling method. Given the unequal number of students per year level, this sampling technique would ensure that all groups are equally represented.

Further, the age of the participants ranges from 19 to 24 years old, with a mean of 20.86. They were also of regular scholastic status, with a general weighted average (GWA) ranging from 1.00 (highest) to 3.00 (lowest) in the first term of A.Y. 2021-2022. Out of the 120 respondents, 94 are females, while 26 are males.

The selected research site is a university that specializes in teacher education programs and offers courses that prepare pre-service teachers for elementary and secondary school-level teaching. It is also declared the Center of Excellence for Teacher Education by the Commission on Higher Education (CHED). Hence, the respondents should have sufficient knowledge of the current pedagogical and learning practices in the Philippine education system.



## 2.3 Instruments

The survey questionnaire is divided into three parts (see Appendix A). The first part aims to gather the respondents' demographic profiles, such as their gender, year level, and GWA during the first term of A.Y. 2021-2022. This information served as a point of comparison to assess the differences in the participants' translanguaging attitudes and language positions.

The second part of the survey questionnaire is the translanguaging attitudinal survey by Fang and Liu (2020), which seeks to identify the attitude of the respondents towards translanguaging. It is a 20-item, 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The instrument is also divided into three categories that assess the participants' attitudes on translanguaging for content-oriented (items #1 - #7), classroom-oriented (items #8 - #14), and student-oriented (items #15 - #20) purposes.

Minor modifications were made to the aforementioned instrument. Particularly, the term "translanguaging" was changed to "the use of native languages" for the benefit of the participants who were unfamiliar with the concept. The word "class" was also specified as "English class" since the study was conducted in an ESL setting. Statements #2 and #6 of the instrument were also rephrased into positive statements for uniformity and easier tabulation.

The last part is the language positions survey questionnaire, which was adapted from the study of Anderson and Lightfoot (2018). It determines the language position of the respondents based on Macaro's (2001) continuum of perspective. It consists of 4 questions wherein the participants select a statement from "A" to "C" that best fits their L1 beliefs. The first, second, and third statements refer to virtual, maximal, and optimal positions, respectively. Statement D was omitted from the original questionnaire because they were added to refer to an inclusive position, which is not included in the scope of this study. Furthermore, specific terms in the instrument were altered, such as changing "India" to "the Philippines" and "your student" to "the student" to suit the research locale and the participants' context.

## 2.4 Data-collection procedure

For ethical purposes, the researchers sought consent from the original developers of the instruments to use their survey questionnaires. Afterwards, permission from the research adviser and the associate dean of the Faculty of Arts and Languages (FAL) was granted before disseminating the survey questionnaire to the respondents. The focal persons from each section were then provided with a link to the Google forms sent to their emails and Facebook Messenger, and they were instructed to disseminate the survey links to their classmates. The researchers also reached out through individual messages and emails until the target number of participants was reached.

The agreement forms and confidentiality details were explained in the first section of the survey questionnaire. Respondents who agreed to take part in the study were required to affix their full names in lieu of their signatures before answering the survey. The researchers' contact information were also included on the forms in case the participants had questions and concerns regarding the survey questionnaire.

Subsequently, the data were tabulated and organized using Google sheets. The results were then analyzed using Microsoft Excel and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). A statistician guided the researchers to avoid technical errors.

## 2.5 Method of analysis

Numerical values were assigned to the participants' responses. For Fang and Liu's (2020) translanguaging attitudinal survey, the numerical equivalences are as follows: "strongly disagree" = 1, "disagree" = 2, "neutral" = 3, "agree" = 4, and "strongly agree" = 5. For the survey questionnaire of Anderson and Lightfoot (2018), the following are the values assigned to the choices: "A" = 1, "B" = 2, and "C" = 3. The results for both instruments were computed to obtain the mean scores, and they were interpreted based on the guidelines presented in Table 1.

**Table 1**

***Interpretation of Fang and Liu's (2020) translanguaging attitudinal survey and Anderson and Lightfoot's (2018) language position survey questionnaire***

Translanguaging attitudes	
Range of values	Verbal interpretation
1.00 – 2.99	Negative attitude
3.00 – 3.90	Neutral attitude
3.91 – 5.00	Positive attitude
Language positions	
Range of values	Verbal interpretation
1.00 – 1.50	Virtual position
1.51 – 2.49	Maximal position
2.50 – 3.00	Optimal position

Codes replaced the categorical variables of the study, namely gender, year level, and academic performance (see Table 2). The stratification of the participants' GWA, as shown in the table below, was based on the five levels of academic proficiency stipulated in the Department of Education (DepEd) Order No. 21 s. 2019. It has also been frequently adapted by CHED to group the students' numerical grades (Cahapay, 2020). The categorization is as follows: *advanced* (1.00-1.40), *proficient* (1.41-1.80), *approaching proficiency* (1.81-2.20), *developing* (2.21-2.60), and *beginner* (2.61-3.00).

**Table 2**  
*Coding schemes of the research's categorical variables*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Gender	Male	Female			
Year level	2 <sup>nd</sup> year	3 <sup>rd</sup> year	4 <sup>th</sup> year		
Academic performance	Beginner	Developing	Approaching proficiency	Proficient	Advanced

To compare the translanguaging attitudes and language positions of the male and female participants, the data were treated using t-test with a 0.05 level of significance ( $p < 0.05$ ). Furthermore, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a significance or  $p$ -value of 0.05 ( $p < 0.05$ ) was employed using SPSS to compare the respondents' translanguaging attitudes and language positions in relation to their year level and academic performance. Additional support from a reliable statistician was also sought to avoid errors and validate the quantitative results.

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 Translanguaging attitudes for content-oriented, student-oriented, and classroom-oriented purposes

Table 3 presents the mean, standard deviation, and percentage of pre-service ELTs' translanguaging attitudes for three main pedagogical and learning tasks, namely, content-oriented, student-oriented, and classroom-oriented purposes.

**Table 3**  
*Pre-service ELTs' translanguaging attitudes for content-oriented, classroom-oriented, and student-oriented purposes*

	Mean	Standard deviation	Percentage	Verbal interpretation
Content-oriented purposes	3.95	0.92	49.17%	Positive
Classroom-oriented purposes	4.03	0.99	62.50%	Positive
Student-oriented purposes	3.74	1.08	46.67%	Neutral

*Note.* Scale: Negative= 1.00-2.99; Neutral= 3.00-3.90; Positive= 3.91-5.00

For classroom-oriented purposes, pre-service ELTs have a “positive” translanguaging attitude with a mean of 4.03/5.00. This implies that they have seen the effectiveness of using L1 in giving feedback, managing activities, engaging the class during discussions, building healthy classroom relationships, and developing rapport with their classmates and teachers. By utilizing their native languages, the participants believed that they could relay instructions better to their peers since it can reduce misunderstandings between interlocutors who share the same L1 (see Items 9, 13, and 14 of Appendix A). They also perceived that using L1 is effective when giving constructive criticisms and expressing emotions, such as affirmation and punishment (see Items 10, 11, and 12 of Appendix A). These findings might indicate that pre-service ELTs’ positive stance is rooted in their shared sociolinguistic context, wherein they find it more advantageous to use L1 for fulfilling social and affective functions. Clearly, the use of translanguaging is done to keep the interaction flowing and maintain classroom socialization. It corroborates with the previous study by De Los Reyes (2018) that observed multilingual students in ESL classrooms prefer using L1 because they can express themselves better and relate more during conversations. Wang (2016) and Martin (2018) also recorded that students favor utilizing their L1 for fulfilling interpersonal goals and maintaining a warm and natural classroom atmosphere.

Pre-service ELTs also expressed a “positive” translanguaging attitude for content-oriented purposes, with a mean of 3.95/5.00. The result suggests that the participants recognize that L1 integration can be an effective strategy to negotiate meaning during classroom discussions, expound on complex concepts, and bridge the gap between their native languages and TL. This result may be explained by the fact that pre-service ELTs, as multilingual speakers, utilize translanguaging strategies by drawing from their existing language resources to increase their L2 proficiency and activate their metalinguistic awareness. Their fluid switching between L1 and L2 allows them to acknowledge that native languages can be used to scaffold instruction and “enhance both content and language knowledge” (Duarte, 2018, p. 13). This finding aligns with the study of Perfecto (2020), which discovered that multilingual speakers favor using L1 to mediate learning and improve their performance in their language learning activities. Therefore, translanguaging practices encourage pre-service ELTs to engage academically.

On the other hand, the participants only have a “neutral” attitude ( $M = 3.74/5.00$ ) in using translanguaging for student-oriented purposes. Items #19 and #20 (see Appendix A) garnered the lowest rating under this category, wherein most English majors “disagree” that translanguaging should be used when answering teachers’ questions and seeking permission from their instructors. Through these findings, it can be assumed that pre-service ELTs viewed translanguaging as an informal practice, which should not be utilized when talking to others in higher positions, such as professors and school administrators. This is consistent with the results of Kuteeva (2019), who found that multilingual university students perceive using English when communicating with superiors as a form of respect and professionalism. Moreover, pre-service ELTs’ neutral stance is informed by their belief that English is more formal and applicable when communicating with their superiors in the academe. It can also be deduced that the neutral stance may reflect the lack of awareness or exposure of the use of translanguaging for student-oriented purposes. Another possible reason could be that the language policy discourse in the country still subscribes to a monolingual framework where the use of the official languages, which are English and Filipino, is favored as MOI in tertiary

education. While it is clear that they are willing to accommodate L1 in their future L2 classes, the extent to which they would be can be a point of reflection as language positions are explored in the next section.

### 3.2 Language positions

Table 4 shows pre-service ELTs' language position under Macaro's (2001) continuum of perspectives. Out of the 120 respondents, 46.7% of the respondents had a maximal view ( $M = 2.41/3.00$ ) toward using L1 in ESL classrooms.

**Table 4**  
*Pre-service ELTs' language positions*

	Mean	Standard deviation	Percentage	Verbal interpretation
Language position	2.41	0.57	46.67%	Maximal

*Note.* Scale: Virtual= 1.00-1.50; Maximal= 1.51-2.49; Optimal= 2.50-3.00

The results reflect that the participants favor translanguaging, but it should only be used under certain circumstances. It further implies that consideration of L1 is present; however, it is still beneficial if students aim at using English instead of relying on their native languages for aid. The prevalent concepts and perceptions toward English in education can indicate why future teachers prefer a maximal viewpoint in language teaching inside classrooms. Considering the role of English as a second language and the prestige that society attaches to English proficiency, pre-service ELTs may depend on using TL for their future classroom instruction instead of exploring translanguaging strategies. Hence, they are oriented toward utilizing English in discussions and limiting the use of L1 only to inevitable or urgent situations. Similarly, Palfreyman and al-Bataineh (2018) found that Emirati pre-service teachers associate prestige and opportunity with the English language, which, unfortunately, restricts them from fully integrating their mother tongue into L2 instruction.

Despite factors that hold teachers from using translanguaging, it is interesting to note that pre-service ELTs do not fall under the virtual position (Macaro, 2001). This notion infers that they sense the possible benefits of translanguaging to English teaching. A contributing factor to this could be that these pre-service ELTs have been somehow exposed to the idea of translanguaging especially that most of the respondents are in the upper class. The amount of exposure, however, is still insufficient for their views to penetrate the optimal position or full L1 incorporation into target language teaching (Macaro, 2001). Espino et al. (2021) explained that this might be aligned with the habitual school policies and programs familiar to the pre-service teachers. Since the concept of L1 use and translanguaging is new in the field, the education sector still relies on and believes in practices that honor full L2 use.

On the other hand, Delos Reyes' (2018) analysis of translanguaging utilization in a non-EOP public school exhibited a higher regard for translanguaging as the teacher-participants recognized its role in enhancing understanding, monitoring behavior, and accomplishing assessment work. These results signify how school regulations affect pre-

service teachers' language positions. Nonetheless, pre-service ELTs are inclined to use L1 but are resistant to maximizing its potential in ESL teaching due to possible language learning views, policies, and programs that push them to experience “guilty translanguaging” (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2018; Fang & Liu, 2020; Wang, 2016).

### 3.3 Differences between the translanguaging attitudes and language positions in terms of gender, year level, and academic performance

#### 3.3.1 Gender

A t-test with a significant value ( $p$ ) smaller than 0.05 was used to determine the significant difference between pre-service ELTs' translanguaging attitudes and language positions in terms of gender. The t-test results in Table 5 reveal no significant difference between the translanguaging attitudes ( $p = 0.73$ ) and language positions ( $p = 0.10$ ) of male and female pre-service ELTs participants.

**Table 5**

*Difference of the translanguaging attitudes and language positions between male and female*

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference	95% confidence interval	
								Lower	Upper
Translanguaging attitudes	.18	.67	.35	118	.73	.04	.12	-.20	.29
Language positions	.37	.55	-1.65	118	.10	-.08	.05	-.19	.02

*Note.* p-value is significant at 0.05

Based on the table, it can be inferred that gender is not a factor in determining pre-service ELTs' translanguaging attitudes and language positions. Particularly, both male and female pre-service ELTs yielded a “positive” stance on integrating translanguaging practices in ESL classrooms, with a mean of 3.95/5.00 and 3.91/5.00, respectively. This result can be explained since the participants share similar academic backgrounds as pre-service teachers. Therefore, they are exposed to discussions that make them fully aware of the benefits of using native languages, which may influence their inclusive views towards translanguaging.

The results support the previous findings of Alieto (2018) and Tonio and Ella (2019). They found that gender does not directly influence pre-service teachers' attitudes, and their knowledge of MTB-MLE helped them realize the positive implications of using L1 in L2 learning. The courses in teacher education programs also raised recognition among pre-service ELTs on the potential of translanguaging in English language classrooms (Musanti & Rodríguez, 2017).

With regard to language position, both male ( $M = 2.35/3.00$ ) and female ( $M = 2.43/3.00$ ) participants fall in the maximal position. This suggests that although pre-service ELTs acknowledge the positive benefits of L1, they are still hesitant to fully integrate them into their actual instruction in the future. It is assumed that the prevailing monolingual ideologies in school institutions caused the participants' resistance to apply L1 in their English lessons. Espino et al. (2021) noted that multilingual teachers are restricted by the monolingual curriculum design, assessment policies, and institutional practices that only favor native English speakers. A similar finding was discovered by al-Bataineh and Gallagher (2018), wherein they found that Arab student-teachers instruction was influenced by institutional policies that limit them from using their native language, which in turn affects how they prefer to deliver their instruction.

### 3.3.2 Year level

To identify the significant difference between the translanguaging attitudes and language positions in terms of the respondents' year level, a one-way ANOVA was used, wherein the difference is deemed significant at 0.05 (see Table 6). The test revealed a statistically significant difference between the participants' translanguaging attitudes ( $p = .002$ ) and language positions ( $p = .004$ ).

**Table 6**  
*Difference between translanguaging attitudes and language positions in relation to year level*

Translanguaging attitudes					
	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	1531.62	2	765.81	6.74	.002
Within groups	13297.98	117	113.66		
Total	14829.59	119			
Language positions					
	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	9.150	2	4.58	5.69	.004
Within groups	94.15	117	.81		
Total	103.30	119			

Note. p-value is significant at 0.05

For translanguaging attitudes, the results showed that third year pre-service ELTs have the highest average ( $M = 4.16/5.00$ ). This indicates that third years are more receptive to integrating native languages in ESL classrooms than the second ( $M = 3.73/5.00$ ) and fourth years ( $M = 3.87/5.00$ ). The results are not surprising because the third-year respondents have just taken a language policy course, where the use of translanguaging in facilitating L2 learning among multilingual students is encouraged.



Students' awareness of translinguaging as a pedagogical and learning strategy enabled them to appreciate the relevance of native languages in English classrooms, which contributed to their positive attitude. This coincides with the study of Makalela (2015) among African pre-service teachers, who found that participants who took courses on multilingualism became more open and amenable to using their home languages. Barros et al. (2020) also reiterated the importance of implementing teacher preparation programs so that pre-service teachers can gain positive insights into promoting their students' L1. By implementing language awareness programs in teacher education institutions, pre-service teachers would be less skeptical to implement translinguaging in their classrooms (Hélot & Young, 2006).

The language positions of pre-service ELTs significantly differ per year level, with third years ( $M = 2.49/3.00$ ) having the highest mean, followed by fourth years ( $M = 2.42/3.00$ ) and second years ( $M = 2.33/3.00$ ). The maximal tolerance of students to use L1, as evident in the aforementioned results, is determined by the extent of their teacher's inclusion in integrating their mother tongue into their discussion (Anderson, 2022; Makalela, 2015). Since third-year pre-service ELTs are exposed to multilingual discourse and realities through some of the courses they have taken, they have become more tolerant of enforcing translinguaging in their future classrooms. This finding is similar to Caldas (2019), who found that pre-service teachers who had undergone language preparation programs view translinguaging as fundamental to enhancing their learners' language proficiency and allowing them to make cross-linguistic connections between their L1 and L2. Furthermore, their perception of translinguaging as functional and natural in multilingual settings enabled them to embrace its benefits for ELT (Palfreyman & Al-Bataineh, 2018).

### 3.3.3 Academic performance

Table 7 presents the difference between the translinguaging attitudes and language positions of pre-service ELTs regarding their academic performance. A one-way ANOVA with a significance level of 0.05 was used to assess the differences. The ANOVA results revealed that academic performance does not influence the participants' translinguaging attitudes ( $p = .87$ ) and language positions ( $p = .53$ ).

**Table 7**

*Difference between translinguaging attitudes and language positions in relation to academic performance*

Translinguaging attitudes					
	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	.09	2	.05	.14	.87
Within groups	36.99	117	.32		
Total	37.07	119			

Table 7 continued...

Language positions					
	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	.07	2	.04	.63	.53
Within groups	6.39	117	.06		
Total	6.46	119			

Note. p-value is significant at 0.05

The results imply that tertiary-level students, whether they belong to approaching proficiency ( $M = 3.97/5.00$ ), proficient ( $M = 3.89/5.00$ ), or advanced ( $M = 3.94/5.00$ ) groups, are aware of the multilingual realities that they may encounter outside the classroom as future ELTs, which contribute to their positive translanguaging attitudes. It is also assumed that their context as university-level participants in TEIs made them realize that language varieties exist in the classroom, and that there is a need to use translanguaging practices that cater to learners with different linguistic backgrounds.

A similar case was recorded in Palfreyman and Al-Bataineh's (2018) study, wherein Arab pre-service teachers recognized the fluid practices between English and their native languages. These student-teachers have grown up in a multilingual community in which the interplay between their languages is deemed natural. Furthermore, their social experiences as multilingual speakers allowed them to acknowledge that incorporating flexible and natural processes in ELT can facilitate their English language learning (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2018).

Meanwhile, the language positions of pre-service ELTs revealed that students in approaching proficiency ( $M = 2.33/3.00$ ), proficient ( $M = 2.43/3.00$ ), and advanced ( $M = 2.40/3.00$ ) groups fall in the maximal position. It implies that despite their willingness to accommodate the use of L1 in L2 classrooms, they are still skeptical about using them in their actual instruction. Their response can be rooted in the lack of explicit instructional support among pre-service teachers when it comes to incorporating their mother tongue in ELT (Nolasco, 2008). Clark (2017) also stressed that insufficient training and inadequate materials in using the mother-tongue negatively affect how pre-service ELTs apply L1-inclusive strategies in their classrooms.

#### 4. Conclusion

The lack of research on translanguaging and L1 acceptance in the classroom motivated this study to explore the translanguaging attitudes and language positions of pre-service ELTs in a Philippine state university. The findings revealed that the participants recognized the benefits of using translanguaging for both content-oriented and classroom-oriented purposes. It was also discovered that most participants had a maximal position based on Macaro's (2001) continuum of perspective. This means that even though pre-service ELTs are willing to accommodate the use of other languages in their L2 multilingual classes, they are still cautious about fully integrating them into their actual instruction in the future.

The study also uncovered that gender and academic performance were not considered factors that may influence pre-service ELTs' translanguaging beliefs and language positions. However, year level is a contributing aspect that can shape their views towards L1. Their exposure to multilingual discourse in their junior year affected their positive stance on utilizing L1 for L2 instruction.

These findings pose important implications, especially in enriching the teacher education curriculum. First, there is a need for explicit instruction among pre-service ELTs on how they can employ translanguaging practices in their future instruction. It is crucial to equip pre-service ELTs in their undergraduate studies with the proper teaching strategies so they can effectively implement translanguaging spaces in their future classrooms and maximize their students' mother tongue. By integrating multilingual practices into their curricula, pre-service ELTs will know how to leverage students' linguistic resources in teaching and learning (Barros et al., 2020). Second, micro-level language policies in TEIs and HEIs should be implemented to strengthen the use of L1 in classrooms (Carroll & Sambolin Morales, 2016). These include debunking English-only policies that penalize learners for utilizing their mother tongue. Exposure to native languages allows pre-service ELTs to eliminate misconceptions about L1 and realize its significance in fulfilling their academic and communicative goals, especially in ESL classrooms. Lastly, training, materials, and institutional support on translanguaging and L1 usage should be consistently provided by the university to aid pre-service ELTs in dealing with the multilingual realities they can experience in the actual field.

Nevertheless, this study provided opportunities for future research to explore the area of translanguaging among pre-service teachers in teacher education programs. It is recommended to investigate other factors and variables related to this field. For instance, the number of respondents can be added to strengthen the generalizability of the results. Since the paper is also limited in obtaining pre-service ELTs' attitudes and positions, it is suggested to conduct a qualitative study to understand the factors influencing their views on L1 use. Future studies may also consider other research locales and participants, such as pre-service teachers in private universities. Examining further their attitudes towards mother tongue can open more discourse on the multilingual language preparation of pre-service teachers in TEIs and HEIs, especially in the area of translanguaging.

## References

- Adamson, J., & Coulson, D. (2015). Translanguaging in English academic writing preparation. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning*, 10(1), 24–37. <https://doi.org/10.1080/22040552.2015.1084674>
- Ajepe, I. (2014). Investigating the attitude of undergraduate students towards the use of mother tongue. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature*, 2(7), 122–130.

- 
- al-Bataineh, A., & Gallagher, K. (2018). Attitudes towards translanguaging: How future teachers perceive the meshing of Arabic and English in children's storybooks. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 24(3), 386–400. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2018.1471039>
- Alieto, E. (2018). Language shift from English to mother tongue: Exploring language attitude and willingness to teach among pre-service teachers. *TESOL International Journal*, 13(3), 134–146.
- Anderson, J. (2022). The translanguaging practices of expert Indian teachers of English and their learners. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2022.2045300>
- Anderson, J., & Lightfoot, A. (2018). Translingual practices in English classrooms in India: current perceptions and future possibilities. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 24(8), 1210–1231. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2018.1548558>
- Barros, S., Domke, L. M., Symons, C., & Ponzio, C. (2020). Challenging monolingual ways of looking at multilingualism: Insights for curriculum development in teacher preparation. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 20(4), 239 – 254. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2020.1753196>
- Burton, J., & Rajendram, S. (2019). Translanguaging-as-resource: University ESL instructors' language orientations and attitudes toward translanguaging. *TESL Canada Journal*, 36(1), 21– 47. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v36i1.1301>
- Cahapay, M. B. (2020). Attitudes toward mother tongue and academic performance: Evidence from monolingual context in the southern Philippines. *International Journal of Language Teaching and Education*, 4(1), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.22437/ijolte.v4i1.9174>
- Caldas, B. (2019). To switch or not to switch: Bilingual pre-service teachers and translanguaging in teaching and learning. *TESOL Journal*, 10(4), 1 – 16. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.485>
- Canagarajah, S. (2013). Translingual practice: Global Englishes and cosmopolitan relations. *Routledge*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203073889>
-

- Carroll, K. S., & Sambolin Morales, A. N. (2016). Using university students' L1 as a resource: Translanguaging in a Puerto Rican ESL classroom. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 39(3–4), 248–262. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2016.1240114>
- Cenoz, J. (2017). Translanguaging in school contexts: International perspectives. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 16(4), 193–198. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2017.1327816>
- Clark, S. (2017). Translanguaging in higher education: Beyond monolingual ideologies. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(8), 1048 – 1-51. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2017.1322568>
- De Los Reyes, R. A. (2018). Translanguaging in multilingual third grade ESL classrooms in Mindanao, Philippines. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 16(3), 302 – 306. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2018.1472268>
- Department of Education. (2019). Policy guidelines on the K to 12 basic education program. [https://www.deped.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/DO\\_s2019\\_021.pdf](https://www.deped.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/DO_s2019_021.pdf)
- Duarte, J. (2018). Translanguaging in the context of mainstream multilingual education. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 17(2), 232 – 247. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2018.1512607>
- Espino, J. D., Gonzales, D. H. F., & Martin, I. P. (2021). Multilingual English language teaching in the Philippines. *International Journal of TESOL Studies*, 3(3), 110–125. <https://doi.org/10.46451/ijts.2021.10.03>
- Fang, F., & Liu, Y. (2020). Using all English is not always meaningful: Stakeholders' perspectives on the use of and attitudes towards translanguaging at a Chinese university. *Lingua*, 247. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2020.102959>
- Ferguson, G. (2009). What next? Towards an agenda for classroom codeswitching research. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12(2), 231 – 241. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050802153236>
- Galante, A. (2020). Pedagogical translanguaging in a multilingual English program in Canada: Student and teacher perspectives of challenges. *System*, 92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102274>
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism, and education*. Palgrave Macmillan.

- 
- Goodwin, A. L. (1997). Historical and contemporary perspectives on multicultural teacher education. In J. King, E. Hollins, & W. Hayman (Eds.), *Preparing teachers for cultural diversity* (pp. 5-22). Teachers College Press.
- Gorter, D., & Arocena, E. (2020). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism in a course on translanguaging. *System*, 92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102272>
- Griffee, D. (2012). *Survey research design. An introduction to second language research methods* (pp. 52–68). TESL-EJ Publications.
- Hall, G., & Cook, G. (2012). Own-language use in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching*, 45(3), 271–308. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000067>
- Hélot, C., & Young, A. (2006). Imagining multilingual education in France: A language and cultural awareness project at primary school. In O. Garcia, T. Skutnabb-Kangas, & M. E. Torres-Guzman (Eds.), *Imagining multilingual schools. Languages in education and glocalization* (pp. 69–90). Multilingual Matters.
- Herdina, P., & Jessner, U. (2002). *A dynamic model of multilingualism: Perspectives of change in psycholinguistics*. Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853595547>
- Hornberger, N. H. (2002). Multilingual language pedagogies and the continua of biliteracy: An ecological approach. *Language Policy*, 1(1), 27–51. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1014548611951>
- Hornberger, N. H., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging and transnational literacies in multilingual classrooms: A bilingual lens. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(3), 261–278. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.658016>
- Iversen, J. Y. (2019). Pre-service teachers' translanguaging during field placement in multilingual, mainstream classrooms in Norway. *Language and Education*, 34(1), 51–65. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2019.1682599>
- Kim, S. (2020). Nabewa nabadayo!: Foreign faculty members' perceived need to learn the students' L1. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 25(4), 1417–1432. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2020.1765969>
- Kuteeva, M. (2019). Revisiting the 'E' in EMI: Students' perceptions of standard English, lingua franca and translingual practices. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(3), 287 – 300. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1637395>
-

- Lewis G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation: An International Journal on Theory and Practice*, 18(7), 655–670. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718490>
- Lima Becker, M. L., Chang-Bacon, C. K., & Oliveira, G. (2021). Unilateral translanguaging: Teachers' language use, perceptions, and experience in a Portuguese-English two-way immersion program. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 25(8), 3068 – 3083. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2021.2004085>
- Lin, A. (2013). Classroom code-switching: Three decades of research. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 4(1), 195–218. <https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2013-0009>
- Macaro, E. (2001). Analysing student teachers' codeswitching in foreign language classrooms: Theories and decision making. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85(4), 531–548. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0026-7902.00124>
- Makalela, L. (2015). Breaking African language boundaries: Student teachers' reflections on translanguaging practices. *Language Matters*, 46(2), 275–292. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10228195.2014.986664>
- Martin, P. W. (2005). Bilingual encounters in the classroom. In J. M. Dewaele, A. Housen, & L. Wei (Eds.), *Bilingualism: Beyond the basic principles* (pp. 67–87). Multilingual Matters.
- Martin, I. (2018). Teaching English, teaching in English. In I. P. Martin (Ed.), *Reconceptualizing English education in a multilingual society: English in the Philippines* (pp. 101–158). Springer Nature.
- Mazak, C. M., & Herbas-Donoso, C. (2014). Translanguaging practices at a bilingual university: A case study of a science classroom. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(6), 698 – 714. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2014.939138>
- Mendoza, A., & Parba, J. (2018). Thwarted: Relinquishing educator beliefs to understand translanguaging from learners' point of view. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 16(3), 270 – 285. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2018.1441843>
- Musanti, S. I., & Rodríguez, A. D. (2017). Translanguaging in bilingual teacher preparation: Exploring pre-service bilingual teachers' academic writing. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 40(1), 38– 54. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2016.1276028>



- Nguyen, T. T. T. (2019). Translanguaging as Trans-identity: The case of ethnic minority students in Vietnam. *Lingua*, 222, 39–52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2019.02.010>
- Nolasco, R. M. (2008). The prospects of multilingual education and literacy in the Philippines. In A. Bernardo (Ed.) *The paradox of Philippine education and education reform: Social science perspectives* (pp. 133–145). Philippine Social Science Council.
- Paez, D. B. (2018). Using Filipino in the English classroom: Teaching with resistance and relevance. In I. Martin (Ed.), *Reconceptualizing English education in a multilingual society: English in the Philippines* (pp. 119–135). Springer Nature.
- Palfreyman, D. M., & Al-Bataineh, A. (2018). This is my lifestyle, Arabic and English: Students' attitudes to (trans)languaging in a bilingual university context. *Language Awareness*, 27(1-2), 79– 95. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2018.1431244>
- Perfecto, M. R. G. (2020). English language teaching and bridging in mother tongue-based multilingual education. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 19(1), 107–123. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2020.1716771>
- Probyn, M. (2015). Pedagogical translanguaging: Bridging discourses in South African science classrooms. *Language and Education*, 29(3), 218–234. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2014.994525>
- Shi, Y., & Cui, X. (2020). A survey study of factors on multilingual attitude of college students in minority areas. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 11(4), 635 – 644. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1104.15>
- Ticheloven, A., Blom, E., Leseman, P., & McMonagle, S. (2019). Translanguaging challenges in multilingual classrooms: Scholar, teacher and student perspectives. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 18(3), 491 – 514. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2019.1686002>
- Tonio, J. Z., & Ella, J. R. (2019). Pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction. *Asian EFL Journal*, 21(2–3), 231–253.
- Wang, D. (2016). Translanguaging in Chinese foreign language classrooms: Students and teachers' attitudes and practices. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(2), 138–149. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1231773>
- Zhang, B. (2011). Gender dissonance in language attitudes: A case of Hongkong. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences*, 4(18), 77–109.

**Appendix A**  
*Survey Questionnaire*

**I. Personal Information**

1.1. Name (Optional): \_\_\_\_\_

1.2 Gender:                    \_\_\_\_\_ Male                    \_\_\_\_\_ Female

1.3. Year Level:    \_\_\_\_\_ 2nd                    \_\_\_\_\_ 3rd                    \_\_\_\_\_ 4th

1.4. General Weighted Average (GWA) from Term 1 A.Y. 2021-2022: \_\_\_\_\_

**II. Translanguaging Attitudinal Survey of Fang and Liu (2020)**

*Directions: For each statement below, choose one of the five options from strongly disagree to strongly agree.*

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<b>Content-oriented purposes</b>					
1. Using native languages in English class is a natural practice for bi(multi)linguals.					
2. Using native languages indicates linguistic proficiency in the second language.					
3. Using native languages in English class is an appropriate practice.					
4. Using native languages is essential for learning a new language.					
5. Using my native language/s develop my confidence in English.					
6. Language instructors should use native languages to assist second language learning.					

Appendix A continued...

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
7. If an instructor used his/ her native language/s in English class, it would be helpful for the bi(multi)lingual students.					
<b>Classroom-oriented purposes</b>					
<i>It is important for English teachers to use native languages in the following situations:</i>					
8. To explain concepts					
9. To give directions					
10. To give feedback to students					
11. To praise students					
12. To build bond with students					
13. To clarify activity rules					
14. To help low proficiency students					
<b>Student-oriented purposes</b>					
<i>It is important for students to use their native languages in English class in the following situations:</i>					
15. To discuss contents in small groups					
16. To provide assistance to peers during classroom activities					
17. To brainstorm during classroom activities					
18. To enable participation by lower proficient students					
19. To answer teachers' questions					
20. To ask permission from teachers					

Appendix A continued...

**III. Language Positions Survey Questionnaire of Anderson and Lightfoot (2018)**

*Directions: Choose the statement that best describes your perspectives on using your native language/s.*

<p>1. Which of the three statements do you agree with most?</p>	<p>A. Allowing other languages into English lessons does not help learning. The classroom should be like an English-speaking country. Skilled teachers can exclude these other languages.</p> <p>B. Allowing other languages into English lessons does not help learning. However, perfect conditions for teaching do not exist and so sometimes we have to make a little use of other languages.</p> <p>C. Allowing other languages into English lessons can improve learning. But we should keep it to a minimum, and maximize English language usage.</p>
<p>2. Which of the three statements is closest to your belief regarding the teaching and learning of English?</p>	<p>A. In the Philippines, students should be given the option to learn all subjects in English medium from primary school level.</p> <p>B. In the Philippines, students should learn English as a subject in primary school alongside developing skills in their first language.</p> <p>C. In the Philippines, students should get a solid understanding of their first language, with English introduced as a subject at secondary level.</p>
<p>3. How do you feel about students mixing languages in English lessons?</p>	<p>A. It's inevitable, but it's not a good idea.</p> <p>B. It's natural, but it should be minimized.</p> <p>C. It's natural and fine.</p>
<p>4. How much do you think the students will need to mix English with other languages in their future careers?</p>	<p>A. They won't need to mix English with other languages.</p> <p>B. They may need to a little.</p> <p>C. They may need to frequently.</p>