Translanguaging and Multilingual Teaching and Writing Practices at a Pakistani University
Pedagogical Implications for Students and Faculty

Muhammad Shaban Rafi and Rebecca Kanak Fox

Introduction

Language is at the core of teaching and learning; it is an essential pathway through which concepts and skills are learned, evaluated, and extended, and by which more complex understandings are subsequently developed. Learning a language is far more complex than having an ability to translate, memorize dialogues and facts, or engage in one-way communication. In the wake of increased globalization, human mobility, and cultural diversity within and across countries worldwide, many positive and yet challenging consequences emerge regarding language and communication, especially in the education of learners at all levels. In Pakistan, increased cultural and linguistic diversity is present among its universities' student bodies, where students from several regions can now study together, bringing together multiple languages and cultural practices. This scenario can be both enriching and challenging: while multiple backgrounds and means of communication can expand dialogue and add to students' perspectives, the presence of many languages in a classroom setting more often than not presents marked challenges for both faculty and students. This is particularly the case in English classes, where a mastery of English is a requirement for all university students.

A particular challenge in Pakistan takes place in its university English classes where there often exists a marked cultural and linguistic gap between faculty and students, as reported by Yasmin and Sohail (2018), and yet other factors and challenges also contribute to the learning scenario. Understanding some of the most significant contributing factors is essential because if updates and changes arising from classroom data are not addressed, student learning will continue to be negatively impacted (c.f., Tamim 2014). The present study has thus emerged from a specific yet generally widespread situation. Two researchers, a linguistics professor from Pakistan and a professor of education and second language acquisition research in the US (who also led a three-year grant there), have joined their perspectives and experiences to examine some of the challenges present for English learners and their instructors at a large, private university in Lahore.

To seek solutions to some of the challenges faced by English faculty and their university students, this study uses a research frame of second language acquisition, equitable sociocultural educational practices, and emerging possibilities afforded by translingualism. These perspectives provide lenses

through which the researchers might explore aspects of teaching and learning English in a university's English classes, mainly related to the development of English writing practices of its multilingual learners. The following research questions have led our investigation to accomplish the aim mentioned above.

1. How do English learners at this university describe their triumphs and challenges in acquiring English for academic purposes, and what insights do their work samples provide?

2. What are the faculty's reported teaching approaches used in the English classes related to the development of English writing practices of multilingual learners at this university?

3. What pedagogical implications were revealed from the student and faculty perception data?

The Pakistani Context

Pakistan is a country where over 72 languages are spoken in and across its regions, and rich cultures are the lived experiences of its citizens. Learners studying in Institutes of Higher Education (IHEs) in Pakistan with diverse linguistic backgrounds interact through common languages, e.g., Urdu and English. While multilingualism is the conversational norm, English knowledge is required of all university students, and many students arrive at university not knowing it or having had minimal exposure. Thus, although Pakistan is language-rich, English plays an exceedingly important role, first established during a colonial-influenced period, and now remaining a language of power influenced by its place of heritage and its promise of economic and symbolic capital (Bilal 2019) for Pakistan's voice in a global space.

It has become commonly accepted that English has risen to be the dominant language of world communication, trade, diplomacy, and even upward social mobility (Aronin & Singleton 2008; Ashraf 2017). English is a global language of commerce and industry, but in Pakistan, English also holds a particular historical, cultural, linguistic, and political presence. The "Islamic Republic of Pakistan" was founded in 1947 due to India's independence from British rule, when India was simultaneously partitioned to create a new country of Pakistan, at that time comprised of two non-contiguous halves that were named East Pakistan and West Pakistan. East Pakistan later seceded in 1971 and became Bangladesh; "West" Pakistan has maintained its Pakistani national identity. The 200 years of British rule in India and its cultural and linguistic influences have left a lasting mark on Pakistan's languages, educational structures, public administration, and its architecture and cultural practices. Thus, English holds an essential place in its way of life that

maintains its influence and power, much as in a politically post-colonial setting.

During this long English influence period, the tapestry of regional languages managed to remain vibrant and treasured. A survey on the languages of North Pakistan by Backstrom and Radloff (1992) reveals that most of the ethnic languages of northern Pakistan were well-maintained by their speakers, and today remain their most frequently used and valued means of communication. However, when citizens migrate for higher education, employment, and business, they must switch to Urdu and know English to be part of the power equation (Rahman 2010).

Though English is offered as a major subject across Pakistan beginning from grade one, learners face difficulty acquiring proficiency in academic registers of the language, particularly in writing – even after 12-years of education. Written language skills drive the examination system in Pakistan, but oracy also has additional underlying competency needed for success. Although future employers require proficiency in listening and speaking skills, no official mechanism is identified to assess these skills or develop and reach incremental benchmarks. Upon completing a student's pre-university schooling, those entering university exhibit a broad range of reading, writing, listening, and speaking proficiencies. Furthermore, instruction at the pre-university level may occur in many other languages, including Urdu and regional languages, a student's mother tongue (L1). Some of these languages are oral and do not have a print form to support literacy development. Thus, universities are faced with entering first-year students whose academic preparation, linguistic profile and mastery, and access to learning in English are quite varied (Levesque 2013).

Language challenges in Pakistani higher education

In most university settings, learners have to acquire English proficiency to complete their program coursework and graduate. Since the British departure in Pakistan, English has remained one of two official languages (with Urdu); it is also the language of universities. The Higher Education Commission (HEC), Pakistan, has made it mandatory for universities to offer admission to students who achieve a minimum 50% score in the written test of English, including a compulsory section on English language proficiency. In addition, students, irrespective of the disciplines for which they initially seek admission, must pass four English courses, 3 credit hours each, to complete their degree requirements. English language proficiency is mostly gauged in terms of learners' academic writing skills in these courses.

In university education, Foley and Flynn's research (2013) found that first language greatly influences learners' responses to English registers. Students' first language in Pakistan exhibits many differences from English in terms of verb, mood, voice, and tense, many English learners (ELs) face substantial challenges, particularly in their academic writing. Learners often find it

challenging to acquire competence to use the distinctive features of English correctly. They also may face constraints in the use of contextually suitable vocabulary and grammar. For example, in the Balochi language, the word *jang,* which means 'war,' in Urdu/Punjabi is used for either 'quarrel' or 'fight.' This expanded vocabulary poses a challenge for Balochi learners to comprehend the uniqueness, and often arbitrariness, between form and meaning in the multilingual context. Which word might one select, and why might one choose to use one over the other? These linguistic constraints can restrict students' ability to translate their thoughts with suitable English words and apply them correctly. Remembering that these are university level students, the ideas they wish to convey in class extend well beyond surface level conversation.

At this university, English instructors also face challenges. The English faculty are mostly from Punjab, where their regional language differs significantly from many of the home languages spoken by their students, who may come from Balochistan, Gilgit Baltistan, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, or Sindh. However, in most cases, the English faculty can understand the Punjabi regional language, perhaps because of its linguistic proximity with Urdu or a person's regular interaction with the Punjabi community. Urdu and English dominate academia in Pakistan, and in IHEs, the faculty are required by education policy (Ministry of Federal Education and Professional Training 2017) to use regional languages or Urdu, along with English, as a medium of instruction. However, the policy also states that equity and access to education must be provided for all students, particularly underrepresented populations (p. 19). Langman (2014) emphasizes that by not having a proper understanding of learners' linguistic and cultural backgrounds, educators are limiting the scope of their instruction. Carson (1998) points out that it is highly likely that educators who fail to understand learners' cultural backgrounds would be unable to appreciate or draw upon their learners' knowledge and skills. English teachers might also lack important cultural and linguistic understanding essential to successfully teach and assess learners who come from cultures other than their own (Fox 2012).

Irrespective of linguistic and cultural understanding of the target language, the aim of teaching both in Pakistani IHEs and at the university in this study remains on the successful "delivery" of content and assessment. To date, this approach has largely incorporated rote learning of vocabulary and grammar. In many cases, learners' competence and performance have been restricted to memorizing phrases and rules in the language, as argued by Manan (2018). The goal is to learn English as quickly as possible, but as pointed out earlier, this far too often occurs without adequate foundational skills for learners, or faculty time or ability to help learners connect the languages they speak to the one they are learning. The task then becomes one of memorization without an eye toward authentic acquisition. Such a scenario is also the case in many countries beyond Pakistan (Jeon & Choe 2018).

Thus, many Pakistani university students face enormous challenges in advancing academically, particularly in a context that calls for greater professional outreach and authentic information exchange opportunities. This challenge exists, but there is little research investigating English linguistic constraints faced by Pakistani multilingual learners in their academic writing or on faculty's responses to their writings. The ever-changing demographics in higher education classes are exerting natural pressures on faculty to develop greater multicultural understanding to enhance learning experiences that break away from the sole use of traditional teaching of English as Second Language (c.f., Cenoz & Gorter 2011), but updated teaching approaches lag behind.

Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework informing this study suggests an intersection of research to link language learning with classroom-based practice: 1) *Second language acquisition (SLA) research* (Baker & Wright 2017; Cook 2017; Foley & Flynn 2013) contributes an understanding of the developmental process of acquiring a second language, particularly for academic purposes. Recent scholarship on the role of identity in SLA (Swain & Deters 2007) has articulated important understandings that might be serve to fill existing learning gaps for tertiary education; and 2) *Research in instructional practices to teach English, including the promise of translangua*ging.

Second language acquisition research and sociocultural perspectives

Second language development is a complex process that draws on many theories and multiple factors. The process itself is multidimensional, calling for contextualization for individual characteristics, background knowledge, age, prior schooling, and other learner- and context-based variables. Learners' language, culture, and individual characteristics and ways of learning reside at the center of many SLA complexities. Bakhtin's (1986) conceptualization of language provides a perspective where language, thought, and meaning are considered as learned through social interaction. Vygotsky (1978) held that learning is understood as an essential social process where learners need to self-discover new knowledge through various opportunities. Bakhtin and Vygotsky's language theories provide language perspectives as mediational means towards metalinguistic awareness and meaning-making (Swain & Deters 2007). These active and social opportunities call on the importance of building upon learners' prior knowledge, as described in Vygotsky's concept of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

In part, Vygotsky's foundational conceptions of the individual actively processing new experiences, experimenting, and problem-solving to build new skills and concepts (Baker & Wright 2017) may serve as a basis for the sociocultural dimension in language learning. Vygotsky's theories emphasize

the roles of the social and cultural context in cognitive development and knowledge construction (Vygotsky 1978, 1986). SLA theories also point to the importance of active pedagogical approaches and supportive environments to lead to success. Vygotsky's concept of the zone of proximal development explains how a learner can reach subsequent levels of development through mentoring, or mediated steps – known as *scaffolding* – to arrive at the ability to independently accomplish a task that the individual could only previously perform with help. This is far different from memorizing vocabulary and dialogues, or teaching a language through rote processes or repetition of responses. Language mastery, particularly at an academic or professional level, involves multiple factors and includes meaning-making and the ability to convey ideas accurately.

In the latter twentieth century, as SLA's field evolved, theoretical perspectives gained additional nuance beyond the theories themselves, particularly in acknowledging the social aspects involved in language learning (Swain & Deters 2007). Firth and Wagner (1997) had called for an "enhanced awareness of the contextual and interactional dimensions of language use" (p. 285). An expanded view of SLA to include sociocultural dimensions in language learning began to take hold, prompting a 'social turn' in SLA research that emphasizes learners' social and cultural identities (e.g., Block 2003, 2007; Lantolf 2000; Lantolf & Thorne 2006; Kramsch 2013; Swain & Deters 2007). With increased globalization, migration of people to new areas, and communication technology, the importance of research on multilingualism as part of the broader field of SLA research and accompanying intercultural interactions (Kramsch 2013) has become salient. Recent scholarship from Larsen-Freeman (2018) emphasizes the dynamic nature of language development, particularly for adult learners, which comprises cognitive processes and the sociocultural environment and the transfer of knowledge from first to second language and beyond. Thus, language learning is at the intersection of multiple contextual and personal variables. The university context in which the current study takes place provides fertile ground for understanding more about the complexities of L1 to L2 relationships, as well as challenges faced by both learners and faculty.

Although theoretical perspectives have continued to develop to inform language instruction and learning, a gap nonetheless seems to persist between research and practice (e.g., Baker & Wright 2017; Ellis 2010; Larsen-Freeman 2018). Larsen-Freeman (2018) points to monolingual biases and deficit perspectives that can jeopardize newer and more integrated approaches to fostering multilingual development. Earlier work by Ellis (2010) points to power imbalances between and among educators, students, and researchers; his call for increased inquiry into this area remains salient today. Expanding and robust research literature on teaching and learning English as a first, second, or foreign language has come to inform current beliefs and practices (see, e.g., Bhatia & Ritchie 2013; Butler 2013; Cenoz & Gorter 2020; García

& Kleifgen 2019; Talmy 2015). However, new approaches to English teaching, such as translanguaging, are not readily understood or implemented by many faculty members in English-speaking countries and beyond.

These research bodies allow us to consider aspects of our present study as contributing potential missing strands for consideration in the broader application in Pakistan. To advance the field, researchers must work to expand and build upon established English teaching approaches (see, e.g., Cook 2008; Ellis & Shintani 2014; Freeman 2016; Richards & Rodgers 2010) to now explore and include other dimensions, such as identity formation (Swain & Deters 2007), aspects of language and power (Freire 1995; Jenkins 2015; Mooney & Evans 2015), the concept of global/world "Englishes" (Jenkins 2015; Kachru 2005), and possible first language influences on the learner.

In the US, educator professional development has traditionally been provided for K-12 teachers (who educate students between kindergarten and twelfth grades) to develop enhanced pedagogical practices to support their multilingual, multicultural students' academic development through culturally responsive and sustainable pedagogy (Gay 1995, 2002, 2010; Paris 2012). On the other hand, university students are thrust into an immediate need to quickly learn English for academic purposes in order to matriculate into their specialization classes. One solution to providing English instruction for the university student has been to offer intensive language study for those students who arrive at university without high English proficiency. These researchers posit that an enhanced solution to support English language acquisition for university students in Pakistan might be provided by a deeper understanding of students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Building upon this understanding, faculty might also implement culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogical approaches, including translanguaging (García 2009; García & Kleyn 2016), and enhanced learner engagement for faculty teaching these classes and their students.

Translanguaging has come to the fore as a more recent element within bilingual development and second language teaching. The term, translanguaging, was coined by Welsh researcher, Cen Williams (as referenced in Baker 2011), to refer to "the planned and systematic use of two languages inside the same lesson" at school (Baker 2011: 288), as also noted by García (2009) and Lewis, Jones, and Baker (2012). According to these researchers, translanguaging involves learners moving between different languages for different communication channels (e.g., reading a text in one language, and writing a summary in another). Translanguaging has also emerged as a learning pathway that empowers, recognizes, and affirms ways that students can build upon their mother tongue (L1) to expand deeper understanding of language, and the content conveyed through it. According to work by García and Kleyn (2016), the use of translanguaging in classrooms can empower students and has the potential to support bi-/multilingual

learners academically, linguistically, culturally, and socially. Translanguaging can encourage learners to use their linguistic repertoires to engage and comprehend complex content and texts. It also supports learners' ability to develop linguistic practices for academic contexts while supporting their identities (Infante & Licona, 2018). Providing strategic opportunities for students to experience translanguaging as they delve deeper into their learning can enable them to utilize their unique linguistic repertoires and become more autonomous as creators of their learning (Tamim 2014).

While Swain and Deters (2007) take the position that there has been an increase in SLA research that includes sociolinguistic factors, individual agency, and multifaceted identities, this may not be the case in language classrooms world-wide. Many researchers (e.g., Arias 2008; Aronin & Singleton 2008; Ashraf 2017; Canagarajah 2011; 2013; 2014; Cenoz & Gorter 2011; Gorter & Cenoz 2011; Fox, 2012; Franceschini 2011; Langman 2014; MacSwan 2017) recommend finding practical applications of multilingualism to maximize multilingual learner's resources using the whole linguistic repertoire.

Context of the study, participants, and methods

A qualitative research design was used to explore university students' perspectives and their English instructors from a university in Pakistan. Through research questions and data collected, the researchers sought to understand the language teaching and learning perceptions and processes at this university more deeply while also recording rich details about language in this setting (Maxwell 2005, 2009).

The study took place in an independent, private university in Lahore, whose student body comes principally from Punjab and draws from 100 districts across Pakistan and 18 countries worldwide. It offers a broad range of bachelors, master's, and doctoral degree programs in 140 disciplines. The departments of the university include over fourteen schools and five institutes. The university distinguishes itself with 700+ faculty members, including 200 who hold Ph.D. degrees. The student enrollment has recently experienced dramatic growth, from approximately 15,000 a decade ago to over 25,000 students, including increasing numbers of English learners.

The participants were drawn from both students and faculty at this university. English instructors of this university were requested by the researchers to nominate students from their classes who could speak at least two languages apart from their L1, were culturally diverse, and willing to participate in this study. A convenience sample of 42 students was selected for the study (see Table 1 for student demographics). The student participants were enrolled in English classes of all levels, from the first semester through more advanced levels; they were also from different program specializations (natural sciences, applied sciences, business, humanities, and social sciences). While the first- and second-year students were generally enrolled in level one,

beginner, classes, the third and fourth-year students were generally ranked as intermediate English learners and enrolled in the higher classes. Although language ability was generally considered, it is important to note that the participants were not formally evaluated through any standardized test to assess their language proficiency.

A sample of 19 English instructors (with 5 to 10 years of experience) was selected purposively from the same university to explore experiences and perceptions of how they view their learners' challenges in learning English. Questions were also designed to capture ideas about their teaching strategies, and approaches were also of interest. As highlighted in table 1, unlike their learners, teachers were mainly Punjabi/Urdu speakers of English. All of them had an MS degree (equal to 18 years of education) with a specialization in English literature and applied linguistics mainly from Pakistan. However, three of them had lived in English-speaking countries (such as the UK or USA) for at least one year to gain experience through teacher training programs.

An important cultural note provides insight into both the student and faculty participant samples: there remains a sharp contrast between urban and rural/remote areas of Pakistan and access to females for university education (Khoja-Moolji 2015; Rafi 2017; Rafi & Sarwar 2019). There were no female students enrolled in the English classes at this university (thus, from farther-reaching provinces), a situation that occurs when females' access to university education has been restricted. Such restrictions may be attributed to social and religious practices still adhered to by families or conservative beliefs held by a student's parents, many of whom live in more remote areas of Pakistan (Rafi & Sarwar 2019). By contrast, it is interesting to note that of the 19 faculty participants, 18 female faculty members were teaching basic to advanced English courses - and predominantly male learners. The faculty were mainly from the urban areas of Punjab, where customs are less restrictive among families, and there are strong academic goals for their female offspring. Table 1 displays the demographic characteristics of the student and instructor participants.

Table 1. The linguistic diversity of students in the study

Language	Learners	Instructors
Balochi	5	-
Balti	4	-
Burushaski	3	-
Khowar	2	-
Shina	4	-
Pashto	3	-
Punjabi/Urdu	19	19
Sindhi	2	-
Total	42	19

Human subjects review procedures were followed, and all participants consented to participate in the study. To ensure anonymity and participant confidentiality, and following university protocol, information that might identify them individually or their institution was never disclosed. The multiple sources also served to triangulate the data informing the results of the study.

Several data sources allowed the researchers to capture both student and faculty perspectives and perceptions, as well as evidence of student work, as follows: 1) from students: questionnaires including self-report demographic information (see Appendix A), student samples comprised of an essay and translation exercises; 2) from faculty: open-ended questionnaires with self-report demographic information and free responses to questions on pedagogical approaches and classroom procedures (see Appendix B).

The students' open-ended questionnaire included questions about the linguistic features of their mother tongue, which provide insight into their English learning strategies and language background details. The linguistic differences between their L1 and English demonstrate some of the challenges students might confront while doing writing exercises. They were also asked about their approach to resolving challenges they confront, as well as their perceptions of their writing successes.

The open-ended questionnaire administered to the faculty sought information about their experiences of teaching English to their university students, their knowledge about their students' first language, the challenges they perceived were faced by their students in English writing, such as common errors they believe their students encounter, their perceptions about causes of those errors, and their perceived success rate in teaching English.

Procedures and data analysis

Student questionnaire, essays, and translation exercises were administered in an office setting to minimize peer pressure and avoid any uncomfortable situation with peers. Each respondent had a fair time to respond to the questions and translate the sentences. One of the researchers was always present to assist them if they had any query about the questionnaire and translation exercises. At no time were these data associated with course evaluation or grading. Faculty were provided their questionnaires with a requested return date that would allow them time for careful thought.

The student and faculty questionnaires were analyzed to allow for themes to emerge in the words of the participants; demographic information was compiled by group. At the first stage, survey data were organized to construct, index, and sort ideas to allow for any patterns that surfaced to emerge. In the second phase, sub-themes were identified allowing researchers to identify possible linkages to the major themes. Finally, commonly emerging major themes captured the students' English writing practices, as well as their

triumphs and challenges in acquiring English for academic purposes and the faculty's reported teaching approaches.

The student writing samples and translation exercises were examined separately, first for ideas/concepts conveyed and then for grammatical form, with a focused probe for possible L1 influence. From these authentic language sources, the researchers sought additional insight from the students' English for both communicative capacity and language form. The researchers also hoped that a deeper understanding of any challenges voiced by the students might emerge. The researchers also looked for areas addressed in both the student and faculty data.

Findings

The findings are organized in response to the research questions leading this study. The data were compared across sources to present similarities and differences that emerged. The first RQ focuses on student perceptions and work, whereas the second RQ focuses on the instructors' ideas and reported practices. The third RQ sought to provide understanding of the students' and instructors' challenges and perceptions with an eye toward informing pedagogical practices.

Students' perceptions

Student questionnaires (Appendix A), writing samples, and conversations revealed that all students voiced challenges and struggled as writers. Data from the questionnaire, essay, and translation exercise inform the response to RQ1. As part of the work sample, the short essay was written to a prompt designed to capture both the students' perceptions of their journey in learning English and an authentic sample of the English they were able to produce. This part of the analysis and emergent themes refers to their perceptions. The form of their writing and potential connections to their L1 are examined in a subsequent section and were analyzed linguistically by the researchers. The linguistic analysis of their writing samples and translation of sentences covering tense, aspect, mood, gender, article, sentence structure, and preposition provides additional insight into students' L1 vis-à-vis the English language and suggests that pedagogical changes might result in enhanced English language acquisition.

Two broad themes emerged from the data, capturing the students' ideas and perceived challenges in learning English: 1) *challenges in writing;* and 2) *proposed strategies to support English acquisition.*

The first theme, *students' challenges in writing*, revealed how students viewed their writing and ability to use English. Three sub-areas delineate and support theme one. First, all the students articulated the notion that they experience *difficulty in writing and completing their assignments*. In particular, they addressed that they find it hard to select and use the correct verb tenses, apply grammar rules accurately, and determine which vocabulary

to use in particular contexts. Students shared their confusion in making decisions about these aspects of English. A representative quote capturing this sub-theme is shown in the following quote:

As English is my fourth language so I cannot recognize if the sentence is in past or future. Also, I face vocabulary, grammatical, punctuation, and spelling mistake.

The second sub-theme captured a set of similar challenges as those for sub-theme one, specifically in *creative writing* or open-ended writing assignments. Again, verb tenses were listed as challenging, articles (the, a, an, etc.), subject-verb agreement, and the actual sentence structure itself were difficult when students were asked or expected to produce their ideas or make a point. The third sub-theme was students' *feeling of inadequacy in joining an in-class discussion* or feeling confident to contribute openly in class. Here, students listed their hesitancy to produce the proper use of verbs, choose specific vocabulary, apply grammar accurately, use the correct articles, adverbs, prepositions, gender case, and tenses. They shared that they often felt vulnerable when they knew that their English was still in formation during class. One participant shared:

> I am made fun of by my class fellows for being unable to distinguish gender of objects and tenses.

The second broad theme that emerged from the data shared strategies proposed by learners to resolve challenges. This area was also comprised of three sub-themes: individual actions, seeking support on their own, and needs more knowledge from class/instructor.

The first sub-theme, *individual actions,* conveyed that students should take actions they believed would help them participate in their learning. The six actions specifically mentioned as examples are 1) need to practice reading, writing, speaking – the students recognized that they needed to become active learners themselves with a genuine desire to learn; 2) seek teacher's help – again here, students exhibited a strong willingness to learn and wrote that they knew they needed to approach the instructor and seek his/her help; 3) students should attempt to translate more accurately; 4) Get peer feedback; 5) adopt a more serious attitude; and 6) self-learning by vetting their work and learning more from searching the internet. These were the methods that the students believed could drive their actions more.

A second sub-theme focused on proposed strategies that the students themselves should engage in: s*eeking support on their own.* For example, 1) they believed that they could browse the internet for many of the answers they needed and not wait for class. This notion of taking ownership seemed to extend the notion of the individual actions mentioned in theme one. In this theme, the focus was clearly on self, for they could as learners seek answers and take hold of their learning; 2) They could ask their instructors to provide more or more extensive feedback and instructions; 3) The students felt they

should be writing and using formal language while texting, showing that they recognized they were using an "abbreviated" form of English when they texted with one another, probably too much; and 4) Finally, they should, on their own, make an effort of "simply listening to English more."

The third broad theme focused on the notion that the *learner needs more knowledge.* There were three areas, in particular, that the students focused on for this extended knowledge: 1) First, they wanted to understand the differences and connections between their L1 and the English they needed to learn. They wanted to be able to make connections, as well; 2) They would like more teaching to be in English to have more authentic exposure to English in action. They particularly mentioned that they would prefer direct English and not so much translation from Urdu to English; and 3) They wanted more inclusion of their L1 because they are not as knowledgeable of/comfortable in Urdu as a mediating language. For example, a Balti student wanted the faculty to use approaches that utilize his language background:

> I am taught English by separating my first language. It is difficult for me to learn English without comparing and contrasting it with my first language. I want to request my English teacher to allow me to use my first language in learning English.

In the same vein, a Sindhi participant proposed that his instructors should introduce learners to diverse reading and writing activities:

> I expect that teacher should provide me the opportunity to understand tasks both in the first language and the target language. They should involve us in diverse reading and writing activities. The errors I do may be counted towards my learning. The faculty must include corrective feedback on common mistakes.

From the voices of the learners themselves, there appeared to emerge the desire for a change in instructional practices that would include their first languages so that they could actually use their linguistic resources when learning English. The next section shares linguistic challenges that the students face in writing English and translating their ideas from L1 to the target language. It is essential to understand how students utilize different linguistic resources available to them to maximize their potential and to empower faculty to understand the language spectrum of their learners.

Linguistic insights into students' writing samples and translation exercises
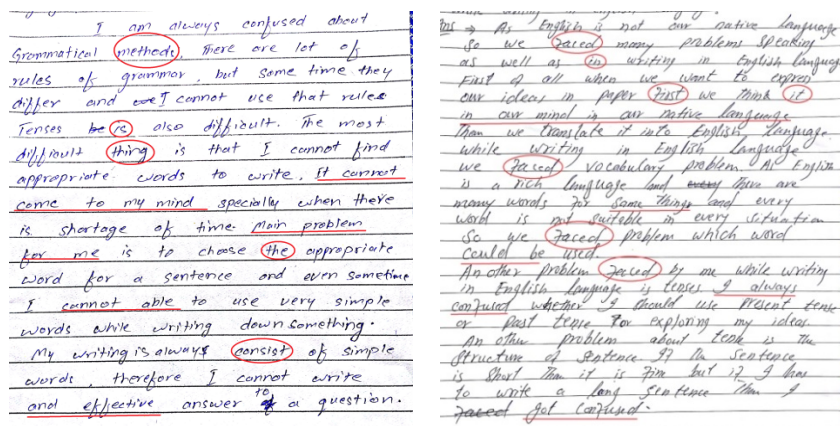

Figure 1. Writing samples of students

Student written language samples in figure 1 provided evidence of students' writing, drawing out the similarities and differences that the students recognized themselves. These written samples provided interesting evidence-based detail concerning students' possible transfer of language from their L1 to English. The most frequent source of background identification in the participants' written English is the transfer of grammatical features from their first language to the target language, i.e., English. These features include, most commonly, sentence structure and word order. Other sources include the (mis)use of pronouns. The participants frequently used the *we* and *you* pronominal to refer to 'I.' For example, while replying to the question regarding the challenges he/she faces in English writing, participant shared in figure 1, "English is not *our* native language, and *we* have learned it as a second language so *we* have acquired this through different ways." In the same vein, another participant wrote, "Firstly, I have to think about grammar structure…secondly, vocabulary is another big hurdle…thirdly, if *you* are not efficient in reminding the spelling, *you* will come in trouble while writing English language as happened with me". The example shows a switch from the recurrent use of the first-person pronoun 'I' to the second person pronoun 'you,' which is not infrequent in the participants' writing practices.

The following commentary shares an analysis of excerpts from the examples of student translation exercises to depict certain grammatical features from the mother tongue (L1) into the target language (English). The researchers note that expressing and translating ideas could pose serious challenges to the students, for example, some due to difference of specific linguistic properties (e.g., tense, aspect, mood, article, prepositions, and gender) in the languages spoken in the north, south, and southwest of

Pakistan. Like in the following translated sentence by a Balti- speaking student, most of the languages from the north of Pakistan (such as Balti, Brushaski, Khowar, Shina, and Pashtu) inflect the verb form to mark future activity, e.g., *Rus say* (he will sleep), and *Rus sayan* (he sleeps) in Shina. In Pashto *waraj* (the day) is used to inflect future tense in *Zabah yao waraj skul ta zam* (I will go to school one day). Unlike English, many of these languages do not have modality.

Urdu	Main ak din aschool jahonga gi.
Balti	Na jaqchik schooling goaid.
English verbatim	I one-day school go.

It is evident from the following translated sentence that the Pashto-speaking students did not deploy the modal verb 'can'. Instead, he used 'shay' for 'can'. 'Shay' is generally used to mark the singular (is) and plural (are) and auxiliaries in the Pashto language. Only the number of objects (in this case 'book') defines singularity and plurality in Pashto. He employed the infinitive (to) at post-position (*waror ta* for brother to). Interestingly, there is a single word (*akhpal* for your) in Pashto, which is more equivalent to English than Urdu (*Tum, Apnay* for your*)*, which employs two words for the same meaning. The Punjabi/Urdu participants mostly translate *Tum Apnay* to "your own", which is an unconventional construction in the English language. The translation sentences show that the participants with other linguistic backgrounds than Punjabi and Urdu mark modality through auxiliary verbs.

Urdu	*Kia Yai Katab Tum Apnay Bahi Ko Day Saktay Ho?*
Pashto	*Taso da kitab akhpal waror ta warkuwal shay.*
English verbatim	You this book your brother to give is/are.

The English language marks gender by using 'he' or 'she' pronouns in a linguistic structure. Nevertheless, this is not the case with the sample languages, something which eventually pose a challenge for students when learning English writing skills. As shown in table 2, they include the derivation of feminine forms from the masculine roots and gender is marked by inflecting a verb e.g., *meemi* (he drinks), and *memo* (she drinks) in Brushaski, *Khaindo* (he eats), and *Khaindi* (she eats) in Sindhi and *Sayan* (he sleeps), and *Sayen* (she sleeps) in Shina. Like in English, a separate pronoun is used by the Balti participants for he or she. For example, *Kho cho thong min* (for he drinks water), and *Mo cho thong min* (she drinks water). The same

is true for Shina, e.g., *you* (he), and *ye* (she) are employed to represent gender in an utterance. The data show that in a few languages a single pronoun is used for he or she, e.g., *Oh* (he or she in Brahvi), *Asay* (he or she in Khowar), *Agha* (he or she in Pashto), and *Rus* (he or she in Shina). This finding is also true for Khowar. For instance, Pashto participant used *zam* (he goes or she goes) in the sentence *Zabah yao waraj skul ta zam* (He or she goes to school). Similarly, one participant employed the word *xiboyan* (he or she eats) in the sentence *asay shapik xiboyan* (He or she eats food). There is no gender of an object. For example, the speakers of regional languages might not identify whether a 'bus' is feminine or masculine. The linguistic differences in marking a gender usually cause interference when students translate their thoughts into English.

Students' translation exercises have demonstrated that Umrani (one of Balochi's dialects spoken in the southwest of Pakistan) has a single word (*waraghe*) for 'eating' and 'drinking.' A single word (*aanh*) is used in Umrani to mark singularity and plurality, and the word (*bi*) is used for all non-living things in Burushaki. Unlike English, the sample languages entail prepositions at different positions within a sentence structure. As noted in table 2, Pashto *pa* (on) appears before the noun 'table,' but in Punjabi/Urdu, the preposition *par* (on) is after the table. There is also a minimal use of prepositions, e.g., *ha* is used for at, to over, and on in Brahvi. Moreover, the definite article (the) is missing in the sentences translated by the participants. In their English writing, various grammatical and lexical issues were found due to the structural differences between the English language and the participants' first language. These errors can be considered negative interference of Urdu, which the faculty uses as a mediating language between L1 of the participants and the target language (English).

Table 2. Similarities and differences noted during the linguistic analysis of the language samples between regional languages and English in the translation exercises of the participants

Linguistic properties	Regional Languages	Punjabi/Urdu	English
Tense	Present, and Past Verb is inflected to mark future activity	Present, Past, and Future	Present, Past, and Future
Aspect	Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect, Perfect continuous, and imperative	Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect, Perfect continuous, and imperative	Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect, Perfect continuous, and imperative
Mood	Absence of modality	Use of limited modality expressions, e.g., *Sakna* (can or may), and *Chahna* for (should)	The presence of modal verbs, e.g., Can/Could, may/might, would, should, ought to, and must for multiple layers of meaning.
Gender	Mostly gender is marked by inflecting a verb, e.g., *Khaeki* (for he goes), and *Kaekeki* (for she goes) in Brahavi In Balti, a separate pronoun is used by its speakers for he or she.	Gender is marked by inflecting the verb, e.g., *khata* (he eats) and *Khati* (for she eats).	Gender is marked with pronouns 'he' and 'she'
Article	Absence of articles especially the definite article, e.g., in Pashto *Yao kitab pa maiz (ki) dae* A book on table on is.	Absence of definite article (the), however, sometimes indefinite article *aak* (a) is used, e.g., *Aik kitab maiz par hay*. A book table on is.	Presence of definite (the) and indefinite articles (a and an), e.g., A book is on the table.
Sentence structure	SOV	SOV	SVO
Preposition	Pre-position Post-position Pre-post position e.g., *Yao kitab pa maiz dae* A book on table is. Minimal use of prepositions	Post-position e.g., *Aik Kitab maiz par hay*. A book table on is. Sophisticated use of prepositions to entail layers of meaning	Preposition, e.g., the book is on the table. Sophisticated use of prepositions to entail multiple layers of meaning

This section has focused on presenting authentic student work samples, perceptions, ideas, as well as students' linguistic insights into their work samples. The students recognized challenges and voiced their struggles. They also expressed ideas about how they think they should and could change their

actions to become more responsive and engaged in their learning. Nonetheless, they requested that English instruction be more relevant and interactive, that more English be used during instruction. They wanted use of their L1 considered for understanding more about English language structure. In a way, this additional linguistic insight provides instructors with a lens to understand how students process the target language. Understanding students' linguistic repertoire might provide pedagogical support to bridge the gap between learning and teaching. Students realized that they should ask for help and should take the initiative to seek more exposure to English themselves, not waiting for class-related work only. In the following section, the findings focus on data from the instructors of their English classes.

Instructors' Perceptions and Experiences

The Instructor questionnaires (Appendix B) share responses articulated by the instructors of English. Data from the questionnaire help address RQ2. When asked to share their greatest challenges in working with the English learners, the faculty focused on two broad sets of challenges: 1) *challenges created by the learners;* and 2) *instructor needs/challenges.*

Learner challenges included multiple areas of error, such as students' lack of exposure to English, lack of interest, limited vocabulary on the part of the learners, and incorrect grammar, in general. In fact, grammatical mistakes were described universally by all instructors as the most common error in the students' English writing and the greatest challenge in teaching English. One representative quote from one instructor captures the essence of this theme. She shared:

> They use definitive 'the' even if it is not required. They cannot figure out the subject to agree with the verb when distant, or multiple phrases are coming between subject and verb.

The instructors listed a host of mistakes covering all aspects of English grammar – sentence structure, word order, verb forms and tenses, subject-verb-agreement, misuse of articles, auxiliaries, and prepositions, marking of plurality and other inflections – that their students make. Spelling mistakes were also noted.

The instructors shared that another common cause of errors in students' written English was a lack of extensive reading and writing. Without models of English and frequent exposure, the students had little against which to gauge and compare their writing. A few instructors also reported that their students appeared to overgeneralize basic rules and made committed literal translations. The instructors also believed that ample exposure to English through extensive reading and writing practices, followed by a great deal of feedback from the instructors to help students account for their mistakes, was the right remedy to improve students' written English. The instructors mentioned a lack of focused attention on the part of their students, which,

interestingly, was also something noted by students as an area of their learning that they would like to improve.

Instructor needs/challenges included 1) the need for more professional learning for the English teachers; 2) an excessive workload due to too many classes to teach and too many students in each class; 3) students' mother tongue interference – some faculty mentioned that influences of the mother tongue was one of many causes for errors in English; and 4) some faculty shared that they believed that they had had little to no opportunities for professional development to help them address practical ways to meet the needs of a diverse population of learners. Some believed that their approaches were reasonably successful, while others shared that their approaches could be enhanced by learning new strategies and even more about the learners' L1.

> One wrote:
>
> The population of multilingual learners has been increasing in this university for last few years but there is no teacher training to manage and teach diverse learners.

The instructors recounted several strategies that they use while teaching English, particularly in the correction of errors. For example, instructors believed that giving lots of practice and providing word formation and sentence formation exercises and individual feedback yielded positive outcomes. Some reported incorporating language games in-line with the learners' interests or letting students vet their work. Yet others wrote of "deploying drill method - pointing out mistakes and letting students correct it repetitively," having the students practice controlled and freewriting, or giving a piece of writing with grammatical mistakes and asking them to attempt corrections. Nearly all agreed that encouraging students to read more would be essential for their development. One mentioned using project-based learning. Another pointed to the importance of encouraging students to be analytical and think critically. A few instructors recommended error analysis to correct English; however, most instructors reported only a moderate success rate with this approach.

The instructors pointed to a heavy teaching load with many classes to teach as not providing time for planning and upgrading skills. Others pointed to the challenges of having large classes. Overall, these ideas shared by the instructors suggest that there is likely a gap between some instructors' perceptions of their learners' performance, and which practices and approaches to teaching English might be the most productive and useful in improving student performance, student engagement, and ultimately in advancing their students' mastery of English to a level of academic writing, particularly at the university level required or anticipated.

Mismatches

The response to RQ3 shares mismatches between students' perceived learner needs and faculty teaching approaches emerging from the student and instructor survey data (Appendix A and B). These mismatches suggest the importance of connecting L1 and English in ways that would result in more sustained, authentic English language acquisition, and call for pedagogical changes.

Three types of mismatches were identified from the data regarding the students' and instructors' approaches or understandings. The first mismatch relates to instructors' knowledge about the *L1 of the learners*. Three of the 19 instructors assumed that Urdu was the students' first language, and another three of the 19 believed that Punjabi was the students' L1. In reality, student demographic data collected from the surveys indicated that the students' mother tongues were regional languages, such as Balochi, Balti, Burushaski, Khowar, Shina, Pashtu, Punjabi, and Sindhi (not Urdu). The remaining 11 instructors mentioned that the participant group spoke Urdu, plus other regional languages. Very few of the students had a strong enough command of Urdu that it could be used as scaffolding to support their English acquisition at an academic level.

A second mismatch emerged regarding faculty understanding of *students' ability in Urdu vs. L1*. The faculty preferred to transliterate certain concepts of English grammar in Urdu. They did not report using, or may not have been aware of, existing linguistic similarities and differences between the learners' L1 and English that might be used in their instructional approaches. While the instructors did not point to specific ideas about what was hindering their students' writing of English, it is possible that a disequilibrium might exist where the learners would be experiencing an extra-linguistic load of Urdu while simultaneously trying to learn English. This observation differs from studies, such as in Hammarberg (2001), that support a positive influence of L2 in the learning of L3. On the other hand, the participants wrote that they believed that their L1 (regional language) could serve to facilitate their learning relatively more than L2 (Urdu) while learning L3 (English). One of the Khowar language participants, among others, proposed that he would like for the instructors to understand more about his L1.

SLA research in mother tongue influences (van Wyk & Mostert 2016) and on translanguaging (Cenoz & Gorter 2020) support the participants' perception that their target language success is partially a function of the type of competence they already possessed in L1. As many English learners may not come from areas where their L1 had a print form, some foundational knowledge may likely be missing. Teaching English through Urdu also posed a challenge for learners who have another language than Urdu as their L1. Instead of using L1 competence as a springboard to transfer skills to English, it is highly possible that learners are restricted by the use of Urdu as the language of instruction. The participants shared that they would benefit more

by being taught through English directly, allowing them to make L1-English connections. Again, the fact that many of the regional languages do not have a print form could present distinct challenges for this approach, but oral vocabulary development could benefit, particularly if translanguaging in oral working groups were implemented to scaffold learning.

A third mismatch emerged regarding *pedagogical practices*, specifically, those currently used by many instructors vis-à-vis those desired by the students. For example, survey findings suggested that grammar-translation was the most broadly used of the pedagogical practices by Urdu/English instructors. The students called for more learning activities and a "friendly" classroom environment to focus on reading, creative writing, vocabulary, and grammar through modeled assignments and self-improvement plans. In a way, the students appeared to be asking for teaching approaches that were more learner-centered (though the students did not use that term). The mismatch was apparent: the faculty appeared to use grammar-based, teacher-directed approaches. The students also shared that if instructors understood more about their regional cultural backgrounds, they believed that their instructors would understand how to explain new concepts more readily to help them make connections and learn more quickly.

Call for pedagogical changes

Developing culturally responsive and culturally-sustaining pedagogical practices (Paris 2012; Kashmar & Tasker 2018) recognizes the importance of including diverse cultural references for the learner but implements multiple perspectives supporting the critical goal of English acquisition for university students. As illustrated in the authentic representations of multiple languages spoken by the learners in Table 2, not all languages deal with the noun (gender, number, and case), verb (tense, aspect, mood, and voice) agreement (subject-verb agreement, adjective-noun agreement, and object verb agreement), article, and preposition in the same way. Student perceptions and writing samples supported this evidence. This may lead to certain linguistic and socio-psychological implications for students and classes. Not all the errors noted in the writing sample data are the outcome of incompetence on the part of the students in writing English correctly. It is possible that their languages behave differently from the target language and have not been considered in the individual student's SLA process.

In most cases, students' communicative ability was noted in their writing, but additional grammatical understanding was needed. Building on students' L1 abilities to communicate ideas successfully can allow time for instructors to identify error patterns and individualize language refinement goals; this has the potential for helping students take charge of their learning. Not surprisingly, the current scenario in this university reflects various varieties of English as they emerge from areas of the country and are spoken in different parts of Pakistan (Baumgardner 1993; Mahboob 2004; Mahboob &

Ahmar 2004; Mansoor 1993, 2004; Rahman 2015; Talaat 2002). Cenoz and Gorter (2020) have emphasized that the study of world Englishes and the study of translanguaging share some characteristics, which might also be shared with multilingual ideologies.

Faculty in this study called for opportunities to update their pedagogical knowledge, and students asked for these types of changes; however, detailed and updated approaches to culturally and linguistically responsive teaching methods through content and language instruction or the use of translanguaging practices are relatively unknown to general university faculty. The data suggest that some faculty may have "overlooked" the linguistic and cultural diversity in their classes or didn't think to account for it, which could, in many ways, influence their approaches of teaching English, as endorsed by Pervaiz, Khan, and Perveen (2019). Instructors who have not been updated on the reality of changing university demographics may not be aware of the pedagogical implications of an increasing student population of linguistically and culturally diverse learners in their classes and other IHEs across Pakistan.

Educators who understand the cognitive, emotional, and social demands of multilingual students and create an atmosphere that promotes a cohesive multilingual community can support English acquisition at an academic register while simultaneously acknowledging and using a student's mother tongue as a scaffold and a conduit for more enhanced learning. Indeed, as Hornberger and Link (as quoted in Mazak & Carroll 2017) note: "individuals' biliteracy development is enhanced when they have recourse to all their existing skills (and not only those in the second language)" (p. 4). Such a practice also aligns with the importance of purposefully using the scaffolding provided by L1 inclusion to provide a bridge to expanded learning (Vygotsky 1978).

Conclusions and implication

Results from this study point to multiple possibilities for applying translanguaging practices to become a natural "part of the fabric that makes up higher education in bi/multilingual contexts" (Carroll 2017:184). These practices could provide new pathways to learning for both instructors and their students at this university – and in others like it – to promote a more profound understanding of students' linguistic repertoires. Translanguaging could be a viable approach to engage multilingual learners in their learning and help close the gap between students' L1 repertoires and their English learning. Drawing on their L1, translanguaging approaches could support more precise communication about content and help students gain knowledge through the use of their L1. The learners might be asked how their first language behaves differently from or is similar to English in terms of specific linguistic properties. This practice could also promote greater metalinguistic awareness for students and enhance their English acquisition. Cenoz (2019)

suggests promoting metalinguistic awareness across languages by enabling learners to draw from their multilingual repertoire and their L1 when learning vocabulary and grammar of the target language. In a way, this approach would provide students with an opportunity to draw from the linguistic similarities and differences between their L1 and the target language and practice translanguaging (cf., Langman 2014; Ashraf 2017). This study contributes to the current research and expanding dialogue surrounding translanguaging and its potential for higher education classrooms, such as in Pakistan.

The study suggests that English language teachers working with university students in Pakistan must be aware of the linguistic diversity in their classes. They should seek out and develop pedagogical practices that recognize the importance of including learners' linguistic and cultural references when teaching English. Universities could support this endeavor by providing more professional learning opportunities and working groups to address their challenges and work together to find solutions. The prevailing linguistic diversity needs to be conceptualized as endorsed by Langman (2014), MacSwan (2017), and Ashraf (2017) in teaching to enhance learning and make classrooms more welcoming discourse spaces for multilingual learners. The study encourages the use of multiple learning activities proposed by Arias (2008) to affirm the significance of linguistic diversity in classrooms and promote multilingual pedagogies and approaches. More research is called for to provide practical suggestions, concrete examples, and the investigation of results surrounding how translanguaging practices might be further developed and applied in formal and informal higher education settings in Pakistan and other similar contexts.

References

Arias, J. (2008), "Multilingual students and language acquisition: Engaging activities for diversity training", *The English Journal*, 97-3: 38-45.

Aronin, L. & Singleton, D. (2008), "Multilingualism as a new linguistic dispensation", *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 5-1: 1-16.

Ashraf, H. (2017), "Translingual practices and monoglot policy aspirations: A case study of Pakistan's plurilingual classrooms", *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 19-1: 1-21.

Backstrom, Peter C. & Radloff, Carla F. (1992), *Sociolinguistic survey of northern Pakistan: Languages of northern areas*. Islamabad: National Institute of Pakistan Studies, Quaid-i-Azam University.

Bakhtin, Mikhail Mikhaĭlovich (1986), *Speech genres and other late essays*, 1st edn, Translated by M. Holquist. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.

Baker, Colin & Wright, Wayne E. (2017), *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*, 6th edn, Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Baker, Colin (2011), *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism,* 5th edn, Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Baumgardner, Robert J. (1993), *Pakistan: The English language in Pakistan*. Oxford University Press.

Bhatia, Tej K., & Ritchie, William (2013), "Bilingualism and multilingualism in South Asia", in Tej K Bhatia & William Craig Ritchie (eds), *The handbook of bilingualism and multilingualism*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, pp. 843 – 870.

Bilal, M. (2019), "An ethnographic account of educational landscape in Pakistan: Myths, trends, and commitments.", *American Educational Research Journal*, 56-4:1524-1551.

Block, David (2003), *The social turn in second language acquisition*. Washington: Georgetown University Press.

_____ (2007), "The rise of identity in SLA research, post Firth and Wagner (1997)", *The Modern Language Journal*, 91-1: 863–876.

Butler, Yuko Goto (2013), "Bilingualism/multilingualism and second-language acquisition", in Tej K Bhatia & William Craig Ritchie (eds), *The handbook of bilingualism and multilingualism.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, pp.109-136.

Canagarajah, Suresh A (2011), "Translanguaging in the classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy", *Applied Linguistics Review*, 31:1-27.

_____ (2013) *Translingual practice: Global Englishes and Cosmopolitan Relations* Routledge UK.

_____ (2014), "Theorizing a competence for translingual practice at the contact zone", in Stephen May (ed), The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL and bilingual education. New York/Abingdon, UK: Routledge, pp. 78–102.

Carroll, Kevin S. (2017), "Concluding remarks: Prestige planning and translanguaging in higher education", in Catherine M Mazak & Kevin S Carroll (eds), *Translanguaging in higher education: Beyond monolingual ideologies.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters, pp. 177-185.

Carson, J. G. (1998), "Cultural backgrounds: What should we know about multilingual students?" *TESOL Quarterly*, 32-4: 735-740.

Cenoz, J. (2011), "Focus on multilingualism: A study of trilingual writing", *The Modern Language Journal*, 95-3: 356-369.

_____ (2019), "Translanguaging pedagogies and English as a lingua franca", *Language Teaching*, 52-1: 71-85.

Cenoz, J. & Gorter, D. (2020), "Teaching English through pedagogical translanguaging", *World English*, 39: 300 – 311.

Cook, Vivian (2008), *Second language learning and language teaching,* 4th edn, UK: Hodder Education.

_____ (2017), "Second, language acquisition: One person with two languages", in Mark Aronoff & Janie Rees-Miller (eds), *The handbook of linguistics*, 2nd edition, Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, pp. 557 – 582.

Ellis, R. (2010), "Second language acquisition, teacher education and language pedagogy", *Language Teaching*, 43: 182–201.

Ellis, Rod & Shintani, Natsuko (2014), *Exploring language pedagogy through second language acquisition research*. London and New York: Routledge.

Firth, A. & Wagner, J. (1997), "On discourse, communication, and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA research", *Modern Language Journal,* 81: 286-300.

Foley, Claire & Flynn, Suzanne (2013), "The role of the native language", in Julia Herschensohn & Martha Young-Scholten (eds), *The Cambridge handbook of second language acquisition*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 97 – 113.

Fox, Rebecca Kanak (2012), "The critical role of language in international classrooms", in Beverly D. Shaklee & Supriya Baily (eds), *Internationalizing Teacher Education in the United States*. Lanham, Maryland: Rowman Littlefield, pp. 59-76.

Franceschini, R. (2011), "Multilingualism and multicompetence: A conceptual view", *Modern Language Journal*, 95-3: 344-355.

Freeman, Donald (2016), *Educating second language teachers*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Freire, Paulo (1995), *The pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Continuum.

García, O. & Kleifgen, J. A. (2019), "Translanguaging and literacies", *Reading Research Quaterly*, doi:10.1002/rrq.286

García, Ofelia & Kleyn, Tatyana (2016), *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments*. New York: Routledge.

García, Ofelia (2009), "Education, multilingualism and translanguaging in the 21st century", in Tove Skutnabb–Kangas, Robert Phillipson, Ajit K Mohanty, & Minati Panda (eds), *Social justice through multilingual education*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters, pp. 140 –158.

Gay, Geneva (1995), "Building cultural bridges: A bold proposal for teacher education", *Multicultural Education: Strategies for Implementation in Colleges and Universities,* 4: 95-106.

_____ (2002), "Preparing for culturally responsive teaching", *Journal of Teacher Education,* 53: 106-116.

_____ (2010), *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice*. New York: Teachers College Press*.

Gorter, D. & Cenoz, J. (2011), "A multilingual approach: Conclusion and future perspectives: Afterward", *The Modern Language Journal*, 95-3: 442-445.

Hammarberg, Bjorn (2001), "Role of L1 and L2 in L3 production and acquisition", in Jasone Cenoz, Britta Hufeisen, & Ulrike Jessner (eds), *Cross-linguistic Aspects of L3 Acquisition*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, pp. 21-41.

Hornberger, N. & Link, H. (2012), "Translanguaging in today's classrooms: A biliteracy lens", *Theory and Practice,* 51: 239-247.

Infante, P. & Licona, P. R. (2018), "Translanguaging as pedagogy: Developing learner scientific discursive practices in a bilingual middle school science classroom", *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism,* 1-14, doi: 10.1080/13670050.2018.1526885

Jenkins, Jennifer (2015), *Global Englishes: A resource book for students,* 3rd edn, New York: Routledge.

Jeon, J. & Choe, Y. (2018), "Cram schools and English language education in East Asian context", *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching*, viewed 05 May 2020, https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0668

Kachru, Yamuna (2005), "Teaching and learning of world Englishes", in Eli Hinkel (ed), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum, pp. 155-173.

Kashmar, E. & Tasker, D. G. (2018), "This American English class: A new model of cultural instruction", *English Teaching Forum*, 56-3: 2-12.

Khoja-Moolji, S. (2015), "Suturing together girls and education: An investigation into the social (re)production of girls' education as a hegemonic ideology", *Diaspora, Indigenous, and Minority Education*, 9: 187-107.

Kramsch, Claire (2013), "Afterword", in Bonny Norton (ed.), *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation*, 2nd edn, Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters, pp. 192-201.

Lantolf, James P. (2000), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Lantolf, James P. & Thorne, Steven L (2006), *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. UK: Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2018), "Looking ahead: Future directions in, and future research into, second language acquisition", *Foreign Language Annals*, 51-1: 55–72.

Langman, J. (2014), "Translanguaging, identity, and learning: Science teachers as engaged language planners", *Language Policy*, 13: 183-200.

Levesque, J. (2013), "Managing diversity in Pakistan: Nationalism, ethnic politics and cultural resistance. Reviews of *Speaking Like a State: Language and Nationalism in Pakistan* by A. Ayres; *The Politics of Ethnicity in Pakistan: The Baloch, Sindhi and Mohajir Ethnic Movements* by F. H. Siddiqui", *South Asia Multidisciplinary Academic Journal,* http://samaj.revues.org/3551.

Lewis, G., Jones, B. & Baker, C. (2012), "Translanguaging: Origins school to street and beyond", *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18-7: 641-654.

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

Mahboob, A. & Ahmar, N. H. (2004), "Pakistani English: Phonology", in Bernd Kortmann, Edgar W Schneider, Kate Burridge Rajend Mesthrie & Clive Upton (eds), *A Handbook of varieties of English: A multimedia reference tool*. Munich: Mouton de Gruyter, pp. 1003-1016.

Mahboob, A. (2004), "Pakistani English: Morphology and syntax", *in* Bernd Kortmann, Edgar W Schneider, Kate Burridge Rajend Mesthrie & Clive Upton (eds), *A Handbook of varieties of English: A multimedia reference tool*. Munich: Mouton de Gruyter, pp. 1045-1057.

Manan, S. A. (2018), "Myth of English teaching and learning: A study of practices in the low-cost schools in Pakistan", *Asian Englishes,* doi: 10.1080/13488678.2018.1503041

Mansoor, S. (2004), "The status and role of regional languages in higher education in Pakistan", *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 25-4: 333-353.

Mansoor, Sabiha (1993), *Pakistan: Punjabi, Urdu, English in Pakistan: A sociolinguistic study*. Vanguard.

Maxwell, Joseph A. (2005), *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach,* 2nd edn, Applied Social Research Methods Series, Vol. 42. Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage.

_____ (2009), "Designing a qualitative study", in Leonard Bickman & Debra J Rog (eds), Handbook of applied social research methods, 2nd edn, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 214-253.

Mazak, Catherine M. & Carroll, Kevin S. (eds) (2017), *Translanguaging in higher education: Beyond monolingual ideologies.* Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Ministry of Federal Education and Professional Training, Government of Pakistan. (2017), "National education policy: 2017-2025", *Islamabad: Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Federal Education and Professional Training*, viewed 22 July 2020, <https://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/sites/planipolis/files/ressources/pakist an_national_education_policy_2017-2025.pdf>

Mooney, Annabelle & Evans, Betsy (2015), *Language, society, and power: An introduction,* 4th edn, London and New York: Routledge.

Paris, D. (2012), "Culturally sustaining pedagogy: A needed change in stance, terminology, and practice", *Educational Researcher*, *41*: 93-97.

Pervaiz, A., Khan, M. K. & Perveen, A. (2019), "Linguistic imperialism: Teacher training and professional development", *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching*, viewed 05 May 2020, https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0916

Rafi, M. S. & Sarwar, S. (2019), "Language of cyberbullying: Implications on Mental health of Pakistani university women students: Reasons and preventions", *Pakistan Journal of Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 10-1: 16-39.

Rafi, M. S. (2017), "Screen image of Muslim women in the popular post-9/11 films on war on terror", *Pakistan Journal of Gender*, 15-1: 61-80.

Rahman, Tariq (2010), "English-teaching institutions in Pakistan", *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 22-3: 242-261.

_____ (2015), *Pakistan: Pakistani English*. Institute of Pakistani Studies, Quaid-i-Azam University.

Richards, Jack Croft & Rodgers, Theodore Stephen (2010), *Approaches and methods in language teaching,* 2nd edn, Cambridge University Press.

Swain, M. & Deters, P. (2007), "New mainstream SLA theory: Expanded and enriched", *Modern Language Journal*, 91: 820-836.

Talaat, M. (2002), "The form and functions of English in Pakistan" Department of English Language and Literature, Doctoral Thesis, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Pakistan, viewed 06 December 2019, <*eprints.hec.gov.pk/1631/1/1191.HTM*>

Tamim, T. (2014), "The politics of languages in education: Issues of access. Social participation and inequality in multilingual context of Pakistan", *British Educational Research Journal*, 40-2: 280-299.

Talmy, Steven (2015), "A language socialization perspective on identity work of ESL youth in a superdiverse high school classroom", in Numa Markee

(ed), *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction*. Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, pp. 353 – 368.

van Wyk, J., & Moster, M. L. (1978), "The development of higher psychological processes", in Michael Cole, Vera John-Steiner, Sylvia Scribner, & Ellen Souberman (eds), *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

_____ (2016), "The influence of mother tongue and gender on the acquisition of English (L2): The case of Afrikaans in Windhoek schools, Namibia", *Cogent Education,* 3: 1-12.

Vygotsky, Lev Semionovich. (1986), *Thought and language.* Translated by A. Kozulin. Boston, MA: MIT Press.

Yasmin, M. & Sohail, A. (2018), "Sociocultural barriers in promoting learner autonomy in Pakistani universities: English teachers' beliefs", *Cogent Education*, 5: 1-12.

Appendix A: Questionnaire to students

This questionnaire is designed to support research for a study entitled, "Translingualism and Multilingual Teaching and Writing Practices at a Pakistani University: Pedagogical Implications for Students and Faculty." The data obtained through this questionnaire will be used only for research purposes. The information that might identify your place or institution will never be disclosed. If you need additional space when responding to the survey questions or the essay prompt, you may use the backside of this questionnaire. We are grateful to you for sparing some time from your very busy routine to complete this questionnaire.

Demographics

Gender: Male   Female

Please circle in which semester you are studying at this university:

  First   Second   Third   Fourth

Please name the languages you speak in your daily routines.

First language	Second language	Third language	Fourth language	Fifth language	Other

Questionnaire

- What would you say are the grammatical differences/similarities between your first language and the Urdu language?

- What would you say are the grammatical differences/similarities between your first language and the English language?

- When writing in English, what kind of English writing challenges do you face?

- Please illustrate some common errors you can identify while writing in English.

- What do you think are the causes of these errors?

- How do you resolve errors in English writing?

- How would you describe the success rate of your approach while dealing with errors in English writing?

- What do you expect from your ESL teachers in mastering English writing skills?

Essay Prompt: Please write about your journey in learning to write English. How would you describe any challenges you have faced?

Appendix B: Questionnaire to faculty

This questionnaire is designed to research "Translingualism and Multilingual Teaching and Writing Practices at a Pakistani University: Pedagogical Implications for Students and Faculty." The data obtained through this questionnaire will be used only for research purposes. The information that might identify your place or institution will never be disclosed. If you need additional space when responding to the survey questions, you may use the backside of this questionnaire. We are grateful to you for sparing some time from your hectic routine to complete this questionnaire.

Demographics

Gender   Male   Female

Please encircle your teaching experience in years.

| 1-5 | 6-10 | 11-15 | 16-20 | 21 and above |

Please name the languages you speak in your daily routines.

First language	Second language	Third language	Fourth language	Fifth language	Other

1. What is first language of the learners you teach the English language?

2. What challenges do you face while teaching English writing skills to the English learners in your classes?

3. Please exemplify how do your learners reveal/identify their linguistic background in your class? In their English writing practices?

4. Please illustrate what are some common errors you see in the English writing of your learners?

5. What do you think might be the causes of their errors in writing exercises?

6. What is your approach in dealing with errors in the English writing practices of your learners?

7. How would you estimate the success rate of your approach while dealing with learners' errors in English writing?