



Language Teaching Research Quarterly

2024, Vol. 46, 325–345



Translanguaging and Collaboration in EFL Writing

Nabaz Noori Kareem*, Rebecca Adams

Department of English (Applied Linguistics), University of Memphis, United States

Received 11 April 2024

Accepted 25 November 2024

Abstract

Translanguaging pedagogy has been shown to promote second language (L2) writing development (Garcia, 2014; García & Kano, 2014; Turnbull, 2019; Zhang, 2019). This study examines how exposure to translanguaging pedagogy influenced Kurdish EFL learners' engagement in collaborative writing during a seven-week intensive academic English writing course. Two intact courses were assigned to translanguaging pedagogy or English-only pedagogy. Recordings of randomly selected pairs of students and assessment of written products were used to determine whether translanguaging pedagogy impacted learner engagement in collaborative dialogue and the quality of their collaboratively written texts. The results indicate that students who experienced translanguaging pedagogy engaged more frequently in language related episodes (LREs) than students in the monolingual classroom. Students who experienced translanguaging pedagogy also wrote higher quality texts as measured by the course rubric. These findings suggest that incorporating translanguaging pedagogical practices may increase the effectiveness of collaborative writing in foreign language classrooms.

Keywords: *Translanguaging, Translanguaging Pedagogy, Collaborative Writing, Collaborative Dialogue*

How to cite this article (APA 7th Edition):

Kareem, N. N., & Adams, R. (2024). Translanguaging and collaboration in EFL writing. *Language Teaching Research Quarterly*, 46, 325-345. <https://doi.org/10.32038/ltrq.2024.46.20>

¹Introduction

Second language (L2) writing has been recognized as a skill that grows in importance as learners develop higher levels of proficiency (Al Badi, 2015). Language learners often perceive writing as complex and difficult to learn (Fareed et al., 2016). Researchers who take a socio-cultural approach to writing (e.g., Donato, 1994) have suggested that collaborative writing can

¹ This paper is part of a special issue (2024, 46) entitled: In Honour of James P. Lantolf's Contributions to Sociocultural Theory, Second Language Development and Language Pedagogy (edited by Mirosław Pawlak, Zhisheng (Edward) Wen, and Hassan Mohebbi).

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: nnkareem@memphis.edu

<https://doi.org/10.32038/ltrq.2024.46.20>

be a positive site for students to develop writing skills, because it allows learners to collaboratively discuss linguistic issues and internalize language forms. One challenge that students face in L2 collaborative writing is the difficulty in discussing content and language use in the target language because of their limited language proficiency (Al Badi, 2015; Shafie et al., 2010). The purpose of the current study is to examine the effect of translanguaging pedagogy on collaborative writing.

Translanguaging refers to multilingual people's use of their full linguistic repertoire, along with non-linguistic semiotic devices, to produce meaning, and *translanguaging pedagogy* refers to planned, strategic instructional practices that allow students them to fluidly alternate between languages in the classroom to enhance learning and communication (García & Wei, 2014). While translanguaging pedagogy has been examined in writing classrooms, relatively little research has considered the effects of translanguaging pedagogy on collaborative writing, in particular on the use of collaborative dialogue (discussion of linguistic forms and language use) and on the quality of texts produced. This is the focus of the current study.

Literature Review

Researchers have long identified two different traditions in L2 writing research. The composition perspective focuses on L2 writing skill development, while the acquisition focus considers the contribution of engagement in L2 writing in the language learning process (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). In the second of these two perspectives, sociocultural theory has provided a theoretical rationale for why writing and, in particular, collaborative writing may facilitate language learning (Elola & Oskoz, 2010; Donato 1994; Storch, 2013; Storch & Wigglesworth 2007; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). In socio-cultural theory, writing is a creative process which is influenced by classroom and other social relationships (Rish et al., 2015). Writing is considered to be an inherently collaborative, mediated process (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Even when writing individually, writing is shaped by prior engagement in discourse and by exposure to other's writing. Writing is mediated because the writer uses a variety of tools for shaping knowledge and experiences, language being the most significant of these tools (Bueno-Alastuey et al., 2022).

Collaborative Writing and Dialogue

There is growing awareness among writing scholars that collaborative writing may be particularly beneficial for second language learners. L2 *collaborative writing* has been defined as writing activities where learners jointly create a single text, with all learners involved in each aspect of drafting and revising and sharing decision-making in the writing process (Storch, 2013). Felipeto (2019) calls this 'conversational writing', pointing out that collaborative writing combines both verbal interaction and writing. Writing scholars researching both L1 and L2 writing have noted that collaborative writing requires learners to share their ideas and negotiate content, suggesting that collaborative writing can promote learners' critical thinking skills and improve the quality of written texts and can increase learner motivation to write (Jalili & Shahrokhi, 2017; Shehadeh, 2011; Veramuthu & Shah, 2020).

Research on collaborative writing has also considered whether writing with peers promotes language learning (Storch, 2002; Storch, 2005; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007; Storch & Aldosari, 2013). This line of research has drawn on sociocultural theory perspectives, because

in collaborative writing the use of language to mediate thought is made overt through communication among collaborative peers (Storch, 2005). In L2 collaborative writing, language is used as a tool to create the text and to solve linguistic problems that arise because of learner emerging language competence. The process by which learners engage with peers to determine how to encode meanings in language for a text they are creating is referred to as *collaborative dialogue* (Storch, 2013). As learners participate in collaborative dialogue, they build new linguistic knowledge and refine their knowledge of forms they are currently mastering. As Adams (2022) points out, in collaborative writing, language learners gain opportunities to use language meaningfully, to communicate about language use with their peer, and to observe how their peer uses language to monitor their own production. The effectiveness of peer collaborative writing as a learning context is closely connected to the ways that learners engage in collaborative dialogue about language. This may be impacted by their use of translanguaging during peer writing (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022).

Several studies have considered the effectiveness of collaborative writing from a composition perspective. For example, Shehadah (2011) found that students wrote texts with better content, organization, and vocabulary when writing collaboratively. Students also expressed positive perceptions of the usefulness of collaborative writing as a language learning context. Khatib and Meihami's (2015) findings suggest that students who practiced collaborative writing over the course of a six-week program improved writing skills, as measured with holistic ratings of pre- and post-test paragraph writing. They found differences between students who had written individually and students who had written collaboratively in the quality of the content, organization, mechanics, grammar, and vocabulary of their texts. These studies indicate that collaborative writing may help students learn to write in a second language.

Research has also considered how learners work and communicate together during collaborative writing. Elola and Oskoz (2010), for example, note that collaborative writing requires learners to think reflectively about form-meaning connections and to share their linguistic knowledge as they construct a text. Storch and Wigglesworth's 2007 and 2009 studies compared writing produced individually and collaboratively by ESL students at an Australian university. In both studies, students who wrote collaboratively produced more grammatically accurate language. McDonough et al. (2018) reported similar results in a study of collaborative writing among Thai EFL university students. These studies suggest that learners may focus more on linguistic form while working collaboratively than while working individually.

Learners can co-construct collaborative dialogue in ways that are beneficial for language learning. Storch (2005) noted that learners in her study engaged in frequent deliberation over language, with instances of collaborative dialogue found focusing on vocabulary, article use, verb tenses, and prepositions. Even when learners work with peers that share the same language proficiency level, they have been shown to engage in collaborative scaffolding, with learners discussing form frequently and collaboratively resolving questions of form in up to 70% of instances of collaborative dialogue (e.g. de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Leeser, 2004; Storch & Aldosari, 2010). Language learners have generally reported strong positive perceptions of collaborative writing, indicating that they consider that engagement in collaborative writing beneficial for grammar and vocabulary learning (Elola & Oskoz, 2016;

Fernández Dobao & Blum, 2013; Shehadeh, 2011; Zeng & Takatsuka, 2009). Veramuthu and Shah (2020) note that, whereas individual writing relies on a student's own motivation and confidence in writing, in collaborative writing learners can rely on one another. The use of translanguaging may impact learner ability to do so. Bauer et al. (2017) found that when students are allowed to draw on their full linguistic repertoire, they were better able to leverage their linguistic competence in discussions of both content and linguistic knowledge

Translanguaging and Translanguaging Pedagogy

As noted above, in the socio-cultural framework, the writing process and the social relationships that influence it are mediated through language (Rish et al., 2015). In learning environments like foreign language classrooms where learners share more than one language, this mediation can occur either in the first or other known languages. Recent research has focused on the ways that learners draw on their competence in multiple languages as they work together to create writing products (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022). This forms one area of pedagogical translanguaging research (Garcia, 2009). *Translanguaging* represents a deviation from traditional discussions of bilingualism that conceptualize knowledge of each language as a separate cognitive resource and focuses on the ways that language learners and language users drawn on these resources (e.g., when code-switching). From a translanguaging perspective, the language knowledge of bilinguals and multilinguals is seen as a single holistic resource, which integrates “various lexical, morphological, and grammatical linguistic features in addition to social practices.” (Vogel & García, 2017 p. 5).

Research on translanguaging has several wide and distinct areas of focus. Some research analyzes the ways that multilingual speakers integrate different aspects of their linguistic repertoire spontaneously or intentionally to accomplish a range of purposes such as enacting identities as bilingual speakers, signaling solidarity, and overcoming language barriers (Canagarajah, 2011; Garcia, 2009). Translanguaging research can consider the societal meanings invoked by a speaker's use of linguistic and semiotic resources during language use. This line of research challenges and problematizes the ideology of monolingualism, providing a critical response to monolingual language policies (Canagarajah, 2011). Translanguaging research can also focus on intentional, planned uses of the full linguistic repertoire in classroom settings. As noted above, teacher's strategic use of student languages during instruction is referred to as *pedagogical translanguaging* (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Wei, 2018).

Pedagogical translanguaging occurs in both language classrooms and content classrooms. Wright (2019) asserts that translanguaging meets the learning goals of the students and enhances bilingualism. Several researchers have drawn connections between pedagogical translanguaging and socio-cultural theories, as both focus learner use of language as a tool for mediating learning. For instance, Creese and Blackledge (2010) have claimed that translanguaging pedagogy enables teachers in minority language classrooms to link multiple aspects of students' lives together (e.g., social, cultural, and linguistic domains). García (2009) notes that translanguaging can promote collaborative learning, because it allows learners to draw on both emergent and dominant language resources, allowing them to engage in longer, more in-depth communication. Cenoz and Gorter (2022) suggest that translanguaging helps teachers to more effectively provide scaffolding to help students develop language and content knowledge. In addition, Hornberger and Link (2012) point out that translanguaging in

classrooms pushes back against monolingual cultural values that undervalue minority language learning and literacy.

In language learning classrooms, translanguaging pedagogy has been shown to decrease anxiety and build motivation (Back et al., 2020; Cenoz et al., 2022; Liu & Fang, 2020) and to increase classroom participation and engagement in the learning process (Elashhab & Center, 2020). Several studies have considered the effect of translanguaging pedagogy in the development of L2 literacy. These studies indicate that translanguaging pedagogical practices promote biliteracy skills by allowing learners to flexibly draw on their linguistic competencies (Hamman, 2018; Hiller, 2021; Hopewell, 2011; Palmer et al., 2014; P. Wang, 2020; Yuzlu & Dikilitas, 2021).

Translanguaging and L2 Writing Instruction

Studies conducted in L2 writing contexts have indicated that, compared to English-only instruction, translanguaging pedagogy leads to decreased anxiety, increased participation, greater engagement in writing tasks, more frequent completion of writing tasks, and greater metalinguistic, metacognitive and sociolinguistic awareness (Adamson & Coulson, 2015; García & Kano, 2014; Rafi & Morgan, 2022). Further research has found that translanguaging promotes higher quality academic writing among language learners. For example, Turnbull (2019) found that allowing for translanguaging during pre-writing led to more concise and well-structured essays. Chen et al. (2019) found that incorporating translanguaging into a multi-stage writing assignment allowed Chinese university level EFL learners to transfer more information and discuss their ideas more easily, allowing them to improve global writing quality. Y. Wang and Li (2022) found that a teacher's use of translanguaging when providing oral feedback on their students writing promoted greater uptake of feedback targeted at genre features of academic writing.

Promoting translanguaging in a writing classroom may also influence how learners make use of their linguistic resources when engaged in collaborative writing. Swain and Lapkin's (1998) study considered whether the use of the first language was helpful in L2 writing. The role of L1 use was examined through its use in Language Related Episodes (LREs). LRES are a form of collaborative dialogue. Swain and Lapkin define them as segments of discourse in which "language is the focus of discussion, either in terms of meaning, form, or both, and learners engage in negotiation to resolve linguistic problems or explore alternatives" (p. 326). Gort (2012) similarly found that students used both languages for clarification and problem solving while engaged in writing. These studies provide evidence of a supporting role of the L1 in L2 writing instruction, suggesting that monolingual instructional practices may not best meet language learner needs. However, relatively little research examines how translanguaging pedagogy impacts learner engagement in collaborative writing in terms of the quality of the writing products and the ways that learners engage in collaborative dialogue. This is the focus of the current study, which is designed to respond to the following research questions:

RQ1: How does translanguaging pedagogy in an EFL academic writing course influence learner engagement in collaborative writing in terms of:

1. The way that students engage in collaborative dialogue through LREs?
2. The quality of collaborative writing texts?

Methods

Context of the Study

The study was conducted at a private science and technology university in the autonomous Kurdish region of Iraq, an area where very little L2 research has been conducted. Because this university uses English as the language of instruction across its academic programs, proficiency in the language is essential for student success. Newly enrolled students are required to enroll in up to three semesters of academic English study at an intensive English institute within the university. At the beginning of each semester, newly enrolled and continuing students are placed into one of three levels based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Language (CEFR). The assessment used for this process is the Oxford Placement Test.

Students who were placed into the highest pre-academic level, Foundation 2 (which corresponds to CEFR B2), were selected for this study. The intensive English institute follows an English-only policy. The students that participated in this study were in their third semester of study at the institute and had previously experienced English-only writing instruction. They were informed (not accurately) that their instructors did not speak Kurdish to discourage them from using their L1 in the institute.

Participants

Forty participants (both males and females) from two intact writing classes participated in this study. Participants were 18-20 years old. All were high school graduates who were enrolled in the intensive English institute. The classes were each assigned to one of two treatment conditions (translanguaging pedagogy and monolingual pedagogy). Each class had 20 students enrolled. All students were native speakers of Kurdish. All had studied English in their secondary school years following a state-mandated curriculum prior to enrolling at this institution. Most students also spoke some Iraqi Arabic.

Course Instructors

The course was taught by two institute instructors who both have MA TESOL degrees. One of the instructors opted to teach only in English (following normal practice) and the other chose to use translanguaging as described below. Both instructors followed the same curriculum and syllabus. They met weekly during the semester to plan together so that both groups participated in the same activities using the same materials. The first author attended these meetings.

Procedure and Instructional Treatments

Both courses followed the institute's reading and writing curriculum based on *English Pathways: Reading, Writing, and Critical Thinking 2* and *Longman Academic Writing Series 2*. Both classes followed the same syllabus and completed the same assignments. The instructors for both classes met before the semester started to plan the course and assignments. During these meetings, the first researcher introduced the instructors to translanguaging pedagogy and to a range of translanguaging strategies, including examples of how they could be used. The instructors worked with the researcher to create a translanguaging pedagogy plan for this course. They decided that in the translanguaging classroom, Kurdish could be used in oral or written form for the following purposes:

1. To provide explanation or clarification related to the use of grammatical features
2. To provide explanation or clarification related to the use of punctuation and English spelling patterns
3. To define or clarify vocabulary terms and idiomatic expressions
4. To provide explanation or clarification related to the academic writing as a genre, including topics such as paragraph structure, introductions and conclusions, cohesion.

They determined that the following translanguaging instructional strategies would be implemented, following suggestions by Wright (2019):

1. offering concise clarifications during both whole class instruction and among small groups
2. providing brief explanations tailored to individual students
3. encouraging students to use Kurdish to help them participate in class discussions and in groupwork
4. allowing students to engage in pre-writing in Kurdish when preparing to write in English

The researcher and the instructor of the Monolingual group also discussed and agreed to use only English for all instruction over the period of the study.

Instructors met with the first researcher weekly throughout the study to plan each week's lessons and to ensure that the instructional topics and activities remained consistent between the two classes. The first researcher observed two class sessions for each class every week to ensure that the instruction was consistent and that translanguaging pedagogical strategies were used in the translanguaging classroom, while the institute's English-only policy was followed in the monolingual classroom.

Collaborative Writing Tasks

As part of their writing instruction, all students in the study created a written text in each of the seven weeks of the course. For three of these weeks (weeks 2, 5, and 7), students wrote collaboratively in pairs. Students were assigned to pairs by the instructor. Pairs remained stable throughout the study. Collaborative writing occurred at different points in the semester to determine whether engagement in collaborative writing and the quality of collaboratively written texts changed over the course of the semester. The topics of the writing tasks came from their assigned textbooks and were selected because they drew on information that the students were already familiar with. Writing prompts for each of the three topics can be found in Appendix A. Collaborative texts from all the students form the data for analyzing the quality of written texts.

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection took place over a seven-week summer semester in an academic writing course. This course included collaborative writing activities in weeks three, five, and seven, which are the focus for this study. Data for this study was collected as part of a larger project on introducing translanguaging pedagogy into an EFL academic writing context.

For each collaborative writing task, students were paired and given 75 minutes to complete the task. Extra time was given to avoid time pressure that may discourage students from

engaging in collaborative dialogue. There were ten dyads in each group (Translanguaging and Monolingual groups). In each task, students were asked to write a short essay (around 150-200). For each task, the prompt was set up and prepared as a link via BookWidgets, an online writing platform similar to GoogleDocs, but with greater instructional controls. A link to the BookWidgets page was then sent to the students via their Google Classroom.

Students wrote directly in the BookWidgets platform on computers in the university computer lab (each pair shared one computer). All punctuation, grammar, spelling, and vocabulary auto-corrections were disabled. Students were informed that they were not allowed to use translating apps, generative AI, or any other outside technology to facilitate their writing. The first author and the class instructors were both present for each task. They monitored the writing progress both by walking through the lab and by using the master computer where they could determine whether additional browser tabs had been opened.

For each collaborative writing task, two pairs of students were randomly selected from each group to be recorded as they worked together, resulting in recordings of six pairs from each group, for a total of twelve recordings with a total length of 241 minutes (averaging 20 minutes per recording). Each pair was recorded separately using digital voice recording. All recordings were transcribed and coded for occurrence of language related episodes. All collaboratively written texts were accessed by the researcher through BookWidget and scored using the rubric described below.

Coding and Scoring

The data for this study includes recordings of collaborations for 12 pairs of students and 60 collaboratively written essays. This section details the transcription and coding of the oral recordings and the scoring of the written essays. All recorded spoken conversations between paired participants were transcribed by the first researcher. Both English and Kurdish was used in the transcription process, following students' language use in the collaborations. Kurdish utterances were then translated into English. After the data were transcribed, instances of collaborative dialogues were isolated and coded. Similar to prior studies of collaborative writing, language related episodes (LREs) were the unit of analysis for the coding (Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007).

Following García Mayo and Azkarai's (2016) taxonomy, LREs were coded based on the type of LREs and the use of language within the pairs. For types, LREs were coded based on whether they focused on form (deliberation over syntactic, morphological, and formal properties of language) and whether they focused on meaning (discussions of word choice and word meanings). LREs were further categorized as resolved or unresolved based on whether the participants came to a target-like agreement on the discussed matter. For use of language, LREs were coded for the number of turns included as an index of level of engagement in collaborative dialogue and for the language that was used in the LRE (whether they used English, Kurdish, or both). The coding system for LREs is demonstrated in the examples that follow.

Excerpt 1: English-only dyad C

Student 2: For example, you can reading or something you know about it....

Student 1: Oh, read, not reading ...you can take a note that something is when you forget about it....

Student 2: And read more ...read.... which you...you know.

Student 1: Yeah ok.

Student 2: You can take a note about something which you forget it, so that's remaining

Student 1: Yeah, and you do not forget.

Student 2: In summary, you can use some professional way to not forget your memory...

In excerpt 1, the students are writing about how to preserve memories. Student 2 suggests “you can reading or something you know”. The verb morphology error is corrected overtly by Student 1, who suggests note-taking instead. In the end, the note-taking phrasing is included in the essay. This was coded as an LRE about form that was not resolved. The LRE was also coded as English only.

Excerpt 2: Translanguaging dyad E

Student 1: Members of family...(دورین له یهک) dwrbyn layak. [Members of family far away from each other.]

Student 2: با سینۆ نیمهکهی بدۆزینهوه؟ (Ba synonymakai bdozinawa.) [Let's find its synonym.]

Student 1: Remote remote.

Student 2: Ok! good.

In excerpt 2, Student 1 is trying to describe a family situation. Unable to think of a suitable English word for the intended meaning, he expresses the meaning ‘far away from each other’ in Kurdish. Student 2 suggests that they try to think of synonyms. Student 1 thinks of a word in English that Student 2 considers acceptable. They use this phrasing in their essay and then continue writing. This was coded as an LRE about meaning that was resolved. It was coded as an LRE that used both English and Kurdish.

As seen above, LREs unfolded over different numbers of turns. The number of turns included in each LRE was quantified. A turn was defined as the time when one speaker spoke. A turn was considered finished when the first speaker stopped talking and allowed the second speaker to continue (Levinson, 1983). One third of the data (two randomly selected transcripts each from the English-only and Monolingual group) were coded separately by the first researcher and one of the instructors, who is a bilingual speaker of English and Kurdish and who was first trained on the coding scheme. Spearman's rho was used to check agreement. The results indicated that Spearman's rho reached $r_s = .89$ ($p = .015$) for the monolingual transcripts and $r_s = .94$ ($p = .005$) for the translanguaging section. This was considered high enough for the first researcher to code the remaining data independently.

Scoring Written Texts

The rubric (Appendix B) used to evaluate texts was adopted from the student's course textbook and is used in this writing course to grade student texts. It requires a rater to evaluate a text on five criteria (pre-writing and organization, content, vocabulary, sentence structure and grammar, and spelling and punctuation). Each criterion is rated on a four-point scoring band for a total possible score of 20.

In order to establish interrater reliability on the use of the rubric, six texts were randomly selected. They were given to one of the instructors who was teaching the current participants and was familiar with using the rubric from other grading activities. The six samples were checked separately by the researcher and the instructor. After that, the data were submitted to Spearman's rho analysis (a non-parametric correlation analysis). The results showed that both ratings overlapped significantly ($r_s = .92$, $p = .008$) as shown in appendix B. This result was considered high enough for the researcher to independently rate the remaining texts, as a result, the researchers completed the rest of the tasks.

Data Analysis

LRE data and rubric score data were analyzed in this study. For the LRE data, frequencies for the number of different types of LREs produced by learners from the treatment and control groups were calculated and submitted to chi-square analysis. Data on the length of LREs in turns in each group were submitted to Mann-Whitney U analysis to determine whether the different pedagogical treatments affected the level of engagement in collaborative dialogue.

The second section of the analysis addresses the effectiveness of exposure to translanguaging pedagogy on the quality of writing produced in collaborative writing practice. In total, 60 collaboratively written texts were rated using the rubric. One of the concerns expressed in EFL settings about the use of translanguaging pedagogy is that decreasing the exposure to English language in the classroom may negatively impact students' ability to learn and use English communicatively. The purpose of including these collaborative texts in the analysis was to determine whether receiving instructional scaffolding through translanguaging negatively impacted student performance on the collaborative writing tasks in their courses. For each task, the rubric component scores were summed to create a total score.

Results

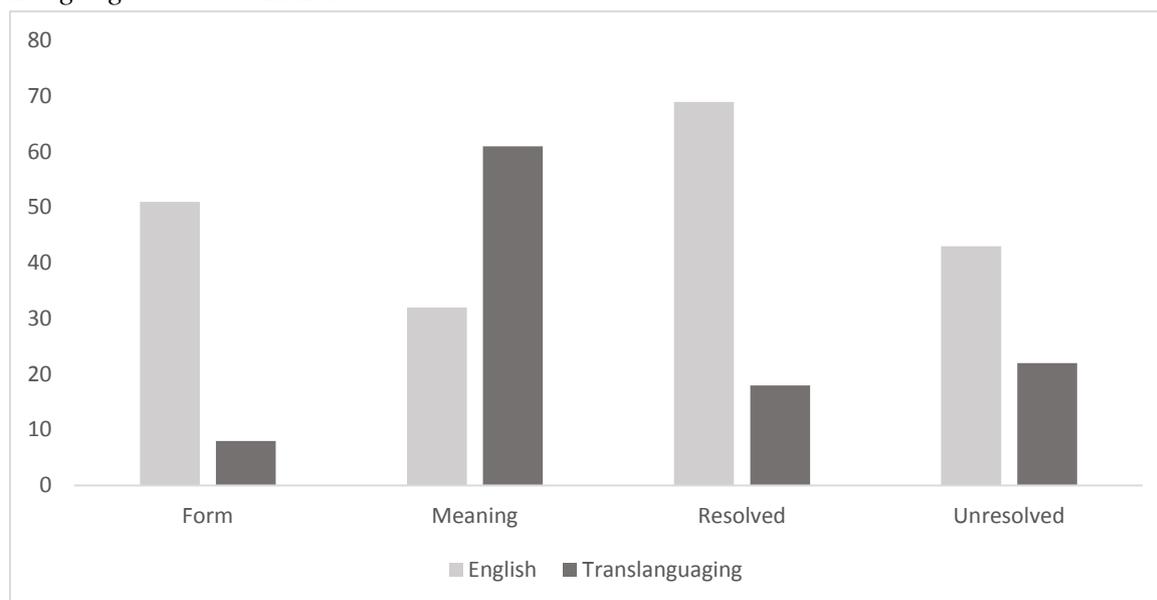
We will first discuss the results related to the production of LREs by students engaged in collaborative writing in the English only and Translanguaging groups, and then will present the analysis and results related to the quality of collaboratively written products in both groups.

Engagement in LREs

In the twelve recordings, a total of 156 LREs occurred. These accounted for a total of 595 turns in the recorded collaborative writing sessions. The learners in this study engaged in collaborative dialogue on meaning more than on form, with (0.62) of the LREs focused on meaning and only (0.38) focused on form. The distribution of LREs that were resolved or dropped was nearly equal, with a slight majority (0.56) resolved. On average, the LREs were 3.81 turns in length. Two LREs were conducted entirely using Kurdish and were removed from the analysis. In the remaining LREs, participants used either English-only (0.74) or used both Kurdish and English (0.26). While many participants have some competence in Arabic, none used Arabic in the recordings. Figure 1 illustrates engagement in LREs on form and meaning based on the language used in the LREs.

Figure 1

Language Use and LRE Focus and Resolution

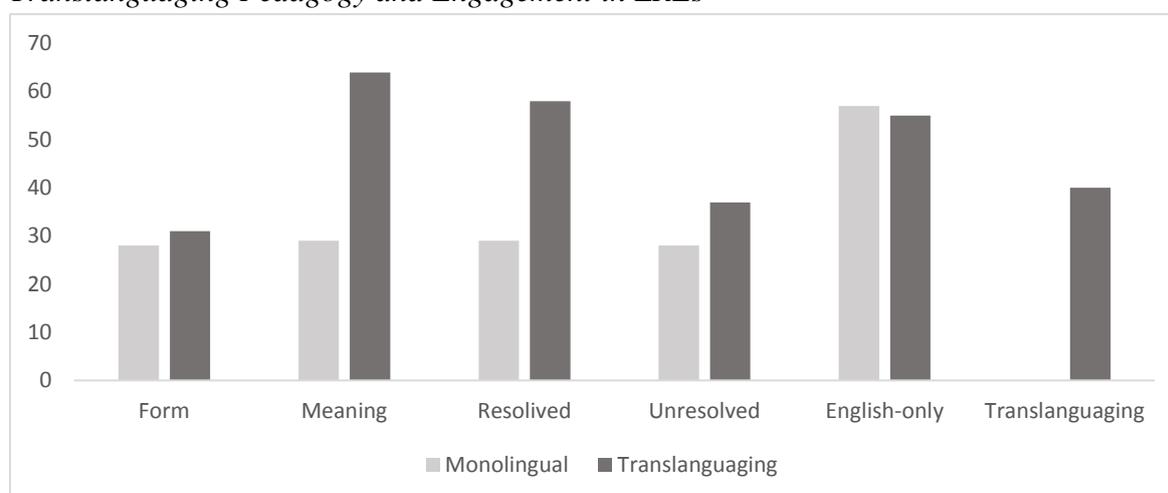


Chi-square analysis indicated that learners engaged significantly more in LREs on meaning when using translanguaging ($\chi^2 = 8.01, p = .01$), suggesting that learners found the use of Kurdish particularly helpful when engaging in discussions of meaning. Learners resolved more LREs that were conducted in English-only than LREs conducted using translanguaging. Chi-square analysis indicated that this association approached significance ($\chi^2 = 3.32, p = .07$). The higher rate of resolution of LREs may be related to the use of English-only for LREs focused on form, as it may be easier to move on to a different idea when struggling with how to express a meaning.

Figure 2 illustrates the frequency of LREs occurring among students who experienced translanguaging pedagogy in their writing courses and those who had not.

Figure 2

Translanguaging Pedagogy and Engagement in LREs



Note. Number of Monolingual participants = 20, Number of Translanguaging group = 20, Total Number = 40.

Overall, learners who had experienced translanguaging pedagogy engaged in more LREs, particularly more LREs focused on meaning. While the frequency of form-focused LREs was very similar between the two groups, students in the translanguaging pedagogy classroom engaged in more than twice as many LREs on meaning. Chi-square analysis indicated that this was a significant difference ($\chi^2 = 4.08, p = .04$). The students exposed to translanguaging pedagogy resolved more LREs than the monolingual pedagogy group (54% vs 33%). However, this difference was not significant ($\chi^2 = 1.511, p = .22$). Both groups produced a similar number of LREs when relying only on English to communicate about language. However, students that experienced monolingual pedagogy did not produce any LREs using their L1, while the Translanguaging group produced 42% of their total LREs using both languages in their communication. Chi-square analysis indicates that this is a significant association ($\chi^2 = 32.57, p < .01$). These findings suggest that exposure to translanguaging pedagogy influenced the collaborative dialogue among these collaborative writers, with learners who had experienced translanguaging pedagogy engaging more often in LREs, focusing more on the meanings they were expressing, and making use of both languages to resolve linguistic questions while working together.

As noted above, the 156 LREs took place over 595 turns. The length of an LRE in terms of turns was included in the analysis as an index of level of engagement in the discussion of language. The length of LREs in turns was similar between students who were exposed to monolingual instruction (mean = 3.68) and students who were exposed to translanguaging pedagogy (mean = 4.10). Mann-Whitney U analysis indicated that there was no significant difference in the length of the LREs between these two groups ($W = 18.00, p = .99$). Translanguaging pedagogy did not increase learner depth of engagement in collaborative dialogue as measured by LREs.

Translanguaging Pedagogy and Quality of Collaborative Writing

Descriptive statistics for the rubric scores are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1
Rubric Total Scores

| | Translanguaging Group | | English-Only Group | |
|--------|-----------------------|------|--------------------|------|
| | Mean | SD | Mean | SD |
| Task 1 | 12.80 | 2.78 | 9.80 | 1.32 |
| Task 2 | 13.10 | 2.33 | 10.70 | 1.89 |
| Task 3 | 12.30 | 2.16 | 11.70 | 3.50 |

Note. Number of English participants = 20, Number of Translanguaging group = 20, Total Number = 40.

The Translanguaging group had higher rubric scores than the English-only group for each collaborative writing task, although the gap narrowed as the study continued. These data were submitted to a repeated measures ANOVA. The results indicate that there was no significant interaction effect between tasks (Task 1, Task 2, and Task 3) and treatment group (Translanguaging and English only) ($F(2, 36) = 1.76, p = .19, \omega^2 = 0.02$) nor a significant effect for task ($F(2, 36) = .645, p = .521, \omega^2 = 0.00$). This indicates that the scores within each group did not differ substantially among the tasks. There was a significant effect for group ($F(1, 18)$

= 6.82, $p = .02$, $\omega^2 = 0.13$) indicating that the Translanguaging group had significantly higher rubric scores, with a medium effect. These results suggest that translanguaging instructional practice may have helped students to write more effectively when working collaboratively.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to consider how collaborative writing was affected by experiences with translanguaging in the writing classroom. Our findings suggest that learners who studied in a classroom where translanguaging pedagogy was used engaged more often in LREs. These findings corroborate the findings of prior research on translanguaging and collaborative dialogue in other contexts. For example, Rayati et al. (2011) also found that pairs who were allowed to translanguage produced more LREs than pairs who were required to use the L2-only. The participants in this study were able to engage in LREs using only English, as shown by the number of English-only LREs produced by both groups. Similar to prior studies of translanguaging and writing (e.g. Adamson & Coulson, 2015; García & Kano, 2014; Rafi & Morgan, 2022; Swain & Lapkin, 1998) these findings suggest that even for these high-intermediate students, being able to use both English and Kurdish promoted collaboration and engagement in the writing tasks.

Learners in this study were also more likely to focus on meaning than form, particularly when learners drew on both languages during LREs. They most often used Kurdish in LREs when they were searching for a word or phrase, when language was used that they did not understand, or to confirm a meaning, as in excerpt 3. In this example, Student 1 uses Kurdish language to state a point that probably she cannot state in English, or possibly to make sure what they are working on is correct, then she receives confirmation from Speaker 2.

Excerpt 3: Translanguaging dyad C

Student 1: Which is eating not good food. Eating....bad food... it has effect on body...

مێمۆری لهدهست دهدات...مێمۆری لاواز دهئیت (Memory ladast adat, memory lawaz dabet..) [Lose your memory, your memory wakens] ...You know.

Student 2: Right.

In excerpt 3, Student 1 uses L2 first to state his/her point, but it looks like s/he is unable to complete it lexically and translanguages by using L1, Student 2 at the same time confirms the idea as they continue writing. Learner's frequently used translanguaging to make sure their ideas were expressed and understood.

Learner use of translanguaging primarily to focus on meaning aligns with García's (2014) assertion that translanguaging is a practice that demonstrates the speaker's ability to be flexible in using their complex linguistic resources while they are trying to convey meaning and make their communication understandable. Our findings suggest that translanguaging in collaborative writing is particularly helpful as learners seek to convey and comprehend the intended meanings. As noted in the results, the difference in the number of LREs produced in the monolingual and translanguaging classroom was almost entirely due to the Translanguaging group producing additional LREs focused on meaning. It is possible that in the Monolingual group, learners chose to ignore meaning issues rather than engage in collaboration (e.g., simply not expressing a difficult idea) because of the difficulty of

discussing meanings without drawing on their L1. Being able to use their full linguistic repertoire may help learners engage more frequently in collaborative scaffolding.

Learners who were exposed to translanguaging pedagogy were more likely to engage in translanguaging during collaborative dialogue, although both groups of learners frequently used only English during the LREs. The relatively low-rate of Kurdish use in collaborative dialogue may be related to the student's prior experiences of learning in an English-only environment and the strong monolingual instruction culture at this institute. Prior research that has considered translanguaging pedagogy from an educational innovation framework has also found that students need time and experience to adapt to and embrace translanguaging pedagogy, particularly when they have been accustomed to monolingual language education ideologies (Adamson & Coulson, 2015; García & Kano, 2014; Rafi & Morgan, 2022).

Additionally, the Translanguaging group resolved a higher proportion of the LREs they engaged in. Coupled with the fact that they engaged in significantly more LREs, this means that they had more experiences of working together and solving linguistic difficulties. Previous research has suggested that translanguaging facilitates learning (García & Wei, 2014; Cenoz & Gorter, 2022; Hamman, 2018). Our findings suggest that one way that translanguaging pedagogy can facilitate learning may be through encouraging students to engage more often and more successfully in collaborative dialogue. The flexibility to use Kurdish when it was helpful to promote understanding and resolve concerns may have played a role in these learners' willingness to engage in the cognitive work of retrieving and selecting appropriate lexical items (Scott & Fuente, 2008, Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

Finally, while learners exposed to translanguaging pedagogy focused more on form, they did not engage in longer LREs. The results of the current study suggest that while translanguaging pedagogy may not deepen learners' engagement in collaborative dialogue, it offers alternative avenues for addressing linguistic challenges. It is possible as well that translanguaging allows students to solve linguistic issues more briefly, because it is simpler to explain their ideas and questions when they can use their first language. It is also possible that with metacognitive training on how to engage effectively in collaborative scaffolding through translanguaging, learners could engage in more depth in LREs (Ismail & Samad, 2010).

Students engaged in translanguaging also produced more well written collaborative texts as measured by the course rubric. In all three tasks, translanguaging students outperformed students in the monolingual classrooms on the quality of their writing, indicating a potential advantage associated with translanguaging instructional practices in collaborative writing similar to that demonstrated in prior studies that examined the quality of individual writing in translanguaging classrooms (Chen et al., 2019; Turnbull, 2019; Y. Wang & Li, 2022; Zhang, 2019). Because the rubric used by the institute was adopted for this study, this gives evidence that integrating translanguaging pedagogy in this currently English-only institution could boost student success in their courses. English-only pedagogy and other monolingual pedagogy is often promoted in foreign language settings because students have less access to the target language than in many L2 settings. The concern is that, if the first language is welcomed in the classroom, students will have fewer chances to the target language and their performance will suffer. Our findings suggest that when translanguaging is applied in a strategic manner in the classroom, it can increase students' ability to communicate effectively through writing.

It should be noted that the gap between the Translanguaging group and the Monolingual group narrowed by the third task. This points to the possibility that translanguaging instruction on writing may have helped students develop writing skills more quickly, and that the Monolingual group would catch up with more time. Further research implementing translanguaging pedagogy over a longer term in a foreign language writing classroom would indicate whether translanguaging pedagogy leads to short-term or continued learning advantages. Prior research has suggested the collaborative writing itself promotes writing development (e.g., Shehadeh, 2011), and the integration of collaborative writing in these writing classrooms might also have promoted development of L2 writing skills.

Conclusion

While these findings are indicative of benefits of translanguaging pedagogy for L2 collaborative writing, it should be remembered that this study took place in an adult, EFL academic writing program, and that findings may not extend to other instructional contexts. While multiple data sources were used, these findings were based solely on quantitative analysis. Research considering the impact of translanguaging pedagogy on collaborative writing in a wider range of instructional contexts is needed. This research should also integrate qualitative data collection to consider student and teacher perspectives on the effects of translanguaging pedagogy on L2 collaborative writing.

This study provides empirical support for the effectiveness of translanguaging instructional practices in enhancing collaborative writing outcomes among the pairs of the students. The findings from translanguaging pedagogy can contribute to increased engagement in collaborative dialogue and improved writing performance in collaborative writing contexts. These results highlight benefits of incorporating translanguaging pedagogy into collaborative writing instruction and suggest that allowing students to use their full linguistic repertoire can promote a productive learning environments and more effective collaborative learning. The implications of this research suggest that EFL/ESL teachers should carefully and systematically plan for the use of translanguaging strategies when using collaborative tasks in the classroom. The findings suggest that this can both foster student engagement in collaborative dialogue and improve writing outcomes. By allowing students to leverage their full linguistic repertoires, teachers can create more inclusive and effective collaborative learning environments, ultimately contributing to the development of second language literacy skills.

ORCID

 <https://orcid.org/0009-0006-9602-3259>

 <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7592-5038>

Acknowledgements

Not applicable.

Funding

Not applicable.

Ethics Declarations

Competing Interests

No, there are no conflicting interests.

Rights and Permissions

Open Access

This article is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which grants permission to use, share, adapt, distribute and reproduce in any medium or format provided that proper credit is given to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if any changes were made.

References

- Adams, R. (2022). Technology mediated writing. In N. Ziegler & M. Gonzalez-Lloret (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of L2 acquisition and technology* (pp. 187-200). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351117586>
- 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>
- Adams, R., & Ross-Feldman, L. (2008). Does writing influence learner attention to form? The speaking-writing connection in L2 and academic literacy development. In D. Belcher & A. Hirvela (Eds.), *The oral/literate connection: Perspectives on L2 speaking, writing, and other media connections* (pp. 210–225). University of Michigan Press. <https://doi.org/10.3998/MPUB.231182>
- Al Badi, I. A. H. (2015). Academic writing difficulties of ESL learners. *The 2015 WEI International Academic Conference Proceedings*, 65–78. <https://www.westeastinstitute.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/Ibtisam-Ali-Hassan-Al-Badi-full-Paper.pdf>
- Back, M., Han, M., & Weng, S.-C. (2020). Emotional scaffolding for emergent multilingual learners through translanguaging: Case stories. *Language and Education*, 34(5), 387–406. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2020.1744638>
- Bauer, E. B., Presiado, V., & Colomer, S. (2017). Writing through partnership: Fostering translanguaging in children who are emergent bilinguals. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 49(1), 10–37. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1086296X16683417>
- Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. (2012). *Written corrective feedback in second language acquisition and writing*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203832400>
- Bueno-Alastuey, M., Vasseur, R., & Elola, I. (2022). Effects of collaborative writing and peer feedback on Spanish as a foreign language writing performance. *Foreign Language Annals*, 55(2), 517–539. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12611>
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 401–417. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01207.x>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2020). Teaching English through pedagogical translanguaging. *World Englishes*, 39(2), 300–311. <https://doi.org/10.1111/weng.12462>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2022). *Pedagogical translanguaging*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781009029384>
- Cenoz, J., Santos, A., & Gorter, D. (2022). Pedagogical translanguaging and teachers' perceptions of anxiety. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 25(5), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2021.2021387>
- Chen, F., Tsai, S.-C., & Tsou, W. (2019). The application of translanguaging in an English for specific purposes writing course. *English Teaching & Learning*, 43, 1-22. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42321-018-0018-0>
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(1), 103–115. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x>
- de la Colina, A., & García Mayo, M. P. (2009). Oral interaction in task-based EFL learning: The use of the L1 as a cognitive tool. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 47(3-4), 325–345. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2009.014>
- Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. P. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 33–56). Ablex Publishing.
- Elola, I., & Oskoz, A. (2010). Collaborative writing: Fostering foreign language and writing conventions development. *Language Learning & Technology*, 14, 51-71. <http://dx.doi.org/10125/44226>
- Elola, I., & Oskoz, A. (2016). Supporting second language writing using multimodal feedback. *Foreign Language Annals*, 49(1), 58–74. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12183>
- Elashhab, S., & Center, E. (2020). The impact of translanguaging on the EFL competence development of Arabic speaking learners. *Asian EFL Journal*, 27, 393-413.

- Fareed, M., Ashraf, A., & Bilal, M. (2016). ESL learners' writing skills: Problems, factors and suggestions. *Journal of Education and Social Sciences*, 4(2), 81–92. <https://doi.org/10.20547/jess0421604201>
- Felipeto, S. C. S. (2019). Collaborative and individual writing in a classroom: An analysis of texts written by elementary school students. *Alfa: Revista de Linguística*, 63(1), 141-160. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1981-5794-1904-6>
- Fernández Dobao, A., & Blum, A. (2013). Collaborative writing in pairs and small groups: Learners' attitudes and perceptions. *System*, 41(2), 365–378. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.02.002>
- García, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- García, O. (2014). Translanguaging as normal bilingual discourse. In S. Hesson, K. Seltzer, & H. H. Woodley (Eds.), *Translanguaging in curriculum and instruction: CUNY - NYSIEB guide for educators*. CUNY Graduate Center.
- García, O., & Kano, N. (2014). Translanguaging as process and pedagogy: Developing the English writing of Japanese students in the US. In J. Conteh & G. Meier (Eds.) *The multilingual turn in languages education: Opportunities and challenges* (pp. 258-277). De Gruyter. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783092246-018>
- García Mayo, M. del, & Azkarai, A. (2016). EFL task-based interaction: Does task modality impact on language related episodes? In M. Sato & S. Ballinger (Eds.) *Peer interaction and Second language learning: Pedagogical potential and research agenda* (pp. 241–266). John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/llt.45.10gar>
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Palgrave Macmillan. <https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137385765>
- Gort, M. (2012). Code-switching patterns in the writing-related talk of young emergent bilinguals. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 44(1), 45–75. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1086296x11431626>
- Hamman, L. (2018). Translanguaging and positioning in two-way dual language classrooms: A case for criticality. *Language and Education*, 32(1), 21-42. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2017.1384006>
- Hiller, K. E. (2021). Introducing translanguaging in an EAP course at a joint-venture university in China. *RELC Journal*, 52(2), 307–317. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00336882211014997>
- Hopewell, S. (2011). Leveraging bilingualism to accelerate English reading comprehension. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 14(5), 603–620. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2011.564274>
- Hornberger, N. H., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging in today's classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *Theory into Practice*, 51(4), 239–247. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2012.726051>
- Ismail, L., & Samad, A. A. (2010). The effects of tasks on language-related episodes (LREs) during focus-on-form instruction. *Language Education in Asia*, 1, 87-98. http://dx.doi.org/10.5746/LEiA/10/V1/A08/Ismail_Samad
- Jalili, M., & Shahrokhi, M. (2017). The effect of collaborative writing on Iranian EFL learners' L2 writing anxiety and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 4(2), 203–215.
- Khatib, M., & Meihami, H. (2015). Languaging and writing skill: The effect of collaborative writing on EFL students' writing performance. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 6(1), 203-211. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.all.v.6n.1p.203>
- Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2007). Sociocultural theory and L2 learning. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in L2 acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 197-221). Lawrence Erlbaum. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429503986>
- Leeser, M. J. (2004). Learner proficiency and focus on form during collaborative dialogue. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(1), 55-81. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168804lr134oa>
- Levinson, S. C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge University Press.
- Liu, Y., & Fang, F. (2020). Translanguaging theory and practice: How stakeholders perceive translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *RELC Journal*, 53(2), 391–399. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688220939222>
- McDonough, K., De Vleeschauwer, J., & Crawford, W. (2018). Comparing the quality of collaborative writing, collaborative prewriting, and individual texts in a Thai EFL context. *System*, 74, 109–120. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2018.02.010>
- Palmer, D. K., Martínez, R. A., Mateus, S. G., & Henderson, K. (2014). Reframing the debate on language separation: Toward a vision for translanguaging pedagogies in the dual language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(3), 757–772. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12121>
- Rafi, A. S. M., & Morgan, A. M. (2022). Blending translanguaging and CLIL: Pedagogical benefits and ideological challenges in a Bangladeshi classroom. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, 20(1) 20-45. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15427587.2022.2090361>
- Rayati, R. A., Yaqubi, B., & Harsejsani, R. (2011). L1 use and language-related episodes (LREs) in an EFL setting. *Journal of Teaching Language Skills*, 3, 99-125.
- Rish, R. M., Bylen, K., Vreeland, H., & Wimberley, C. C. (2015). Using Google Drive to write dialogically with teachers. In M. L. Niess & H. W. Gillow-Wiles (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education in the digital age* (pp. 357–379). IGI Global. <https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-4666-8403-4>

- Scott, V. M., & Fuente, M. J. D. L. (2008). What's the problem? L2 learners' use of the L1 during consciousness-raising, form-focused tasks. *The Modern Language Journal*, 92, 100-113. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00689.x>
- Shafie, L. A., Maesin, A., Osman, N., Nayan, S., & Mansor, M. (2010). Understanding collaborative academic writing among beginner university writers in Malaysia. *Studies in Literature and Language*, 1(2), 58-69. <https://doi.org/10.3968/j.sll.1923156320100102.007>
- Shehadeh, A. (2011). Effects and students' perceptions of collaborative writing in L2. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20(4), 286-305. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2011.05.010>
- Storch, N. (2002). Patterns of interaction in ESL pair work. *Language Learning*, 52(1), 119-158. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00179>
- Storch, N. (2005). Collaborative writing: Product, process, and students' reflections. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14(3), 153-173. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2005.05.002>
- Storch, N. (2007). Investigating the merits of pair work on a text editing task in ESL classes. *Language Teaching Research*, 11(2), 143-159. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168807074600>
- Storch, N. (2013). *Collaborative writing in L2 classrooms*. Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847699954>
- Storch, N., & Aldosari, A. (2010). Learners' use of first language (Arabic) in pair work in an EFL class. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(4), 355-375. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168810375362>
- Storch, N., & Aldosari, A. (2013). Pairing learners in pair work activity. *Language Teaching Research*, 17(1), 31-48. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168812457530>
- Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2003). Is there a role for the use of the L1 in an L2 setting? *TESOL Quarterly*, 37, 760-770. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588224>
- Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2007). Writing tasks: The effects of collaboration. In M. García Mayo (Ed.), *Investigating tasks in formal language learning* (pp. 157-177). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853599286-011>
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and L2 learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(3), 320-337. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb01209.x>
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based L2 learning: The uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 251-274. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688000400304>
- Turnbull, B. (2019). Translanguaging in the planning of academic and creative writing: A case of adult Japanese EFL learners. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 42(2), 232-251. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2019.1589603>
- Veramuthu, P., & Shah, P. M. (2020). Effectiveness of collaborative writing among secondary school students in an ESL classroom. *Creative Education*, 11, 54-67. <https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2020.111004>
- Vogel, S., & García, O. (2017). Translanguaging. In G. Noblit & L. Moll (Eds.), *Oxford research encyclopedia of education*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acrefore/9780190264093.013.181>
- Wang, P. (2020). A case study of translanguaging phenomenon in CBI classes in a Chinese university context. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 31(1), 95-108. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12324>
- Wang, Y., & Li, D. (2022). Translanguaging pedagogy in tutor's oral corrective feedback on Chinese EFL learners' argumentative writing. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, 7(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40862-022-00170-5>
- Wei, L. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics*, 39(1), 9-30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx039>
- Wigglesworth, G., & Storch, N. (2009). Pair versus individual writing: Effects on fluency, complexity, and accuracy. *Language Testing*, 26(3), 445-466. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0265532209104670>
- Wright, W. E. (2019). *Foundations for teaching English language learners: Research, theory, policy, and practice* (3rd ed.). Caslon.
- Yuzlu, M., & Dikilitas, K. (2021). Translanguaging in the development of EFL learners' foreign language skills in Turkish context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 16(2), 176-190. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2021.1892698>
- Zeng, G., & Takatsuka, S. (2009). Text-based peer-to-peer collaborative dialogue in a computer-mediated learning environment in the EFL context. *System*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.01.003>
- Zhang, M. (2019). Understanding L1 and L2 interaction in collaborative writing: A lexico-grammatical analysis. *Language Teaching Research*, 25(3), 338-359. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168819859911>

Appendix A

Collaborative Writing Tasks Schedule

| Weeks | Tasks | Collaborative Writing Prompts |
|------------|------------|--|
| Week Three | Task one | Use all your academic writing skills to write a short essay or composition with your partner, (150-200) words about the following prompt, you have 75 minutes to complete the writing. Give reasons and explain the causes for your answer and support your points clearly with examples. Note: Please do not use any apps or google to get help. Do you think people in your community are generally happy or unhappy? |
| Week Five | Task Two | Use all your academic writing skills to write a short essay or composition with your partner, (150-200) words about the following prompt, you have 75 minutes to complete the writing. Give reasons and explain the causes for your answer and support your points clearly with examples. Note: Please do not use any apps or google to get help. What can a person do to improve their memory? |
| Week Seven | Task Three | Use all your academic writing skills to write a short essay or composition with your partner, (150-200) words about the following prompt, you have 75 minutes to complete the writing. Give reasons and explain the causes for your answer and support your points clearly with examples. Note: Please do not use any apps or google to get help. Some people argue that technological intervention such as mobile phones are making people socially less interactive. Do you agree or disagree? |

Appendix B

Pathways Reading, Writing, and Critical Thinking 2: Writing Assessment Rubric

Name: _____

Test: _____

| Criterion | Score 4 | Score 3 | Score 2 | Score 1 |
|--------------------------------|--|---|---|---|
| Pre-writing and organization | <p>Well organized</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clear topic sentence • Supporting ideas are in a logical sequence • Strong concluding sentence | <p>Good organization</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clear topic sentence • Supporting ideas are in a mostly logical sequence • Good concluding sentence | <p>Some organization</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Topic sentence is slightly unclear • Sequencing of supporting ideas is unclear • Weak concluding sentence | <p>Lacks organization</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weak topic sentence or lack of a topic sentence • Lack of sequencing of supporting ideas • No concluding sentence |
| Content | <p>Excellent supporting ideas that are appropriate to the task</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting ideas are well explained and have enough details • Supporting ideas are related to the task goal and the paragraph's main idea | <p>Strong supporting ideas that are appropriate to the task</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting ideas are somewhat explained with a bit of detail • Supporting ideas are mostly related to the task goal and the paragraph's main idea | <p>Good supporting ideas, but some are slightly unrelated to the task</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting ideas are incomplete with little detail • Some supporting ideas are unrelated to the task or the paragraph's main idea | <p>Weak supporting ideas or ideas that are unrelated to the task</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting ideas are weak with little or no detail • Supporting ideas are unrelated to the task or the paragraph's main idea |
| Vocabulary | <p>Wide range of vocabulary</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appropriate and related to task • Effective use of less common words • Errors are minor and not frequent | <p>Good range of vocabulary</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appropriate and related to task • Good attempt to use less common words • Occasional errors, but meaning is still clear | <p>Average range of vocabulary</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mostly appropriate and related to task • Some attempt to use less common words • A number of errors that affect understanding | <p>Limited range of vocabulary</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimally appropriate and related to task • Inaccurate use of target vocabulary • Frequent errors that greatly affect understanding |
| Sentence Structure and Grammar | <p>Excellent sentence structure and language use</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Varied sentence structure • Very few grammatical errors in subject-verb | <p>Good sentence structure and language use</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good variety of sentence | <p>Average sentence structure and language use</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Little variety in sentence structure | <p>Weak sentence structure and language use</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Simple or repetitive sentence |

agreement, verb tense agreement, use of conjunctions, etc.

structure
 • A few grammatical errors in subject-verb agreement, verb tense agreement, use of conjunctions, etc. that do not affect understanding

• A number of grammatical errors in subject-verb agreement, verb tense agreement, use of conjunctions, etc. that slightly affect understanding

structure
 • Many grammatical errors in subject-verb agreement, verb tense agreement, use of conjunctions, etc. that greatly affect understanding

Spelling and Punctuation

Excellent command of spelling and punctuation

- Few or no spelling errors
- Correct use of punctuation:
 - Capitalization of names and places and at the beginning of sentences
 - Use of comma between clauses and where appropriate
 - Use of period or question mark at the end of sentences
 - Use of apostrophes for indicating possession

Good command of spelling and punctuation

- Some spelling errors, but mostly with uncommon words
- Mostly correct use of punctuation:
 - Capitalization of names and places and at the beginning of sentences
 - Use of comma between clauses and where appropriate
 - Use of period or question mark at the end of sentences
 - Use of apostrophes for indicating possession

Average command of spelling and punctuation

- A number of spelling errors, some with common words
- Some incorrect use of punctuation:
 - Capitalization of names and places and at the beginning of sentences
 - Use of comma between clauses and where appropriate
 - Use of period or question mark at the end of sentences
 - Use of apostrophes for indicating possession

Weak command of spelling and punctuation

- Many spelling errors
- Largely incorrect use of punctuation:
 - Capitalization of names and places and at the beginning of sentences
 - Use of comma between clauses and where appropriate
 - Use of period or question mark at the end of sentences
 - Use of apostrophes for indicating possession

Score

Total Score: / 20