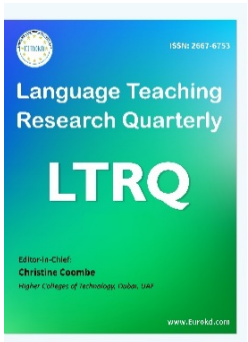

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Translingual Oral Corrective Feedback in an Arabic as a Heritage Language Classroom in the USA

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Abstract

Over the years, a sweeping interest in translanguaging practices and corrective feedback (CF) in parallel has received momentum in instructed SLA research. Whereas previous CF studies focused on CF interactions and factors affecting L2 learning, this study examined how translanguaging intertwined with CF in Arabic as a Heritage Language learning in a sixth-grade class at a K-12 school in the USA. The research data resulted from twenty hours of class observations, interviews with the class teacher, and ten randomly selected participating students. The data were coded based on Ranta and Lyster's (2007) CF types and uptake moves taxonomy. The results showed that the teacher's translanguaging practices helped learners engage in pedagogical tasks and CF interactions, leading to effective Arabic language learning. The teacher provided five CF types—explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and multiple feedback. Metalinguistic feedback, recast, and multiple feedback accounted for 72% of CF, where recasts received the highest uptake and repair rates (95% and 87%, respectively), and the other types of CF also led to high uptake and repair moves. This study suggests that CF can be effective when teachers employ translanguaging during CF interactions, positively address learner errors, and motivate learners' in-class participation.

Keywords: *Translanguaging, Oral Corrective Feedback, Error Correction, Learner Uptake, Classroom Interactions*

Introduction

Providing oral corrective feedback (CF) is a common pedagogical practice in L2 classrooms. Oral CF is teachers' or conversational partners' responses to learners' linguistically erroneous, ambiguous, or inappropriate utterances during classroom interactions (Oliver & Adams, 2021). Oral CF indicates something is wrong with the learner's utterance and unacceptable in the target language, thus providing negative evidence (Gass, 2017). Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Ranta and Lyster (2007) categorized oral CF into prompts and reformulations with their subcategories. In terms of explicitness, oral CF can either explicitly address learner errors or

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implicitly signal the erroneous oral productions without demonstrating that there is an error. Ellis (2009) classified metalinguistic explanation, explicit correction, elicitation, and paralinguistic signal as explicit feedback strategies while repetition, recasts, and clarification requests as implicit feedback strategies. As to recasts, whereas Ellis (2009) and Long (1996) considered recasts implicit, Lyster and Mori (2006) regarded recasts as more explicit than implicit. Researchers working from cognitivist, interactionist, and socio-culturalist perspectives recognize CF as an essential component in L2 learning, as studies show that mere positive evidence is insufficient for L2 learning (Oliver & Adams, 2021). Oral CF contributes to L2 learning by helping learners develop a "network of association" and "self-regulation," especially when it involves the negotiation of meaning or form (e.g., Lyster et al., 2013, p. 13). Major empirical studies have consistently identified that oral CF contributes to L2 learning; however, CF studies are yet to address how translanguaging practices intertwine with CF interactions impacting L2 development, although translanguaging practices have become common in bi/multilingual classroom interactions.

Recent translanguaging research, mainly in ethnographic approaches, has received instructed SLA researchers' attention. Translanguaging, in its initial conceptualization, refers to alternating between two or more languages as William (1996) first used the term trawsieithu in his doctoral thesis to refer to bilingual practices where learners alternate between Welsh and English in Welsh schools during classroom tasks. Colen Baker (2001) translated the term as translanguaging, where trans means 'across' and translanguaging means shuttling across languages. However, García's (2009) and Creese and Blackledge's (2010) works on translanguaging changed the monoglossic view of bilingualism to dynamic bilingualism, a heteroglossic view (a post-structuralist perspective that bi/multilinguals develop a fluid linguistic repertoire integrating different linguistic features from socially and politically ascribed named languages). For García and Li (2014), trans means 'beyond'; thus, bilinguals do not switch between two separate languages. Instead, they use "multiple discursive practices … to make sense of their bilingual words" (García, 2011, p. 45). Bilinguals go beyond the language boundaries, select language features from their fluid language repertoire, and use those features in communicative practices. So, translanguaging turned the focus to myriad ways of discursive practices and the linguistic repertoire of bilinguals (García & Lin, 2017; Otheguy et al., 2019). The concept of translanguaging space developed by Wei (2011) provides multilingual speakers with integrated social spaces, allowing multilingual individuals to integrate their experiences, history, environment, beliefs, attitudes, and psychosocial and physical capacity into effective communication. Canagarajah (2013) coined translingual practice as an umbrella term to refer to other terms such as polylingualism, code-meshing, metrolingualism, and translanguaging that reflect integrated language practices. Translanguaging includes flexible classroom strategies and learners' discursive practices (Lin & He, 2017; García & Lin, 2017). Teachers' translanguaging practices, be they pedagogical making spaces for multilingual learners to use their multilingual repertoire or spontaneous where both teachers and multilingual learners naturally use their entire linguistic repertoire, have been applied in teaching and learning in classroom settings (Fang et al., 2022). Whereas separate studies of CF and translanguaging in L2 instruction are available, little is known about how translanguaging practices intertwine with CF interactions, resulting in L2 learning in Arabic as a heritage language context. Since oral CF is an integral part of L2 instruction and

translanguaging practices are becoming common in L2 classrooms, this study investigated how translingual oral CF leads to L2 development in Arabic as a Heritage Language classroom at a Midsouth USA K-12 school.

Literature Review

The Role of Oral CF in L2 Development

In SLA studies, the effectiveness of CF in L2 development is measured by learner uptake and repair in response to teachers' error correction. Learner responses that modify the initial erroneous utterance show that they have noticed the gap between the interlanguage and the target utterance. Thus, this noticing comprising attention and awareness plays a facilitative role in L2 development (Egi, 2010; Oliver & Adams, 2021). McDonough (2005) suggests that learner uptake or modified output attests to the learner's language developmental process. Major descriptive studies examined corrective feedback in terms of implicitness. Compared to other CF types, recasts have received considerable attention, wherein research shows the predominance of recasts in L2 classes (Han & Kim, 2008; Goo & Mackey, 2013).

A body of research in both classroom and laboratory settings reported the preponderant use of recasts and their effective role in L2 development (Jimenez, 2006; Luquin & Roothooft, 2019; Shirani, 2019; Suzuki, 2004; Uddin, 2022; Wang & Li, 2021; Yoshida, 2008). These studies measured L2 development through learners' immediate repair and modified output. Suzuki's (2004) study of adult ESL intermediate learners suggested the effective role of recasts in language development as recasts' frequency rate accounted for 60% of the total feedback types and led to 66% learner repair. Jimenez's (2006) study of two Italian EFL classes showed the highest use of recasts with a significantly high learner repair rate. Yoshida (2008) studied how teachers in Japanese as a Foreign Language classrooms addressed learner errors and how learners perceived those CF strategies. Recast was the most frequently used CF type; the teachers explained that recasts were less embarrassing, more welcoming to the learners, and effective in limited-period classes. Some studies found explicit recasts were more likely to elicit learner responses with high repair rates. For example, Choi and Li (2012), studying six elementary ESOL classes in New Zealand, showed that recasts effectively led to a high uptake and repair rate. Fu and Nassaji's (2016) study in a foreign language classroom designed for adult Chinese language learners showed high uptake and repair rates for explicit recasts. Along the line, Shirani (2019), examining the effectiveness of prompts and recasts in intermediate Iranian EFL classes, found high uptake and repair resulting from explicit recasts and elicitation. Luquin and Roothooft (2019) experimented the effect of recasts and metalinguistic feedback on pronunciation learning in an EFL class at a Spanish secondary school. The result was that recasts were significantly effective in pronunciation development. However, Wang and Li's (2021) study of corrective feedback across the ESL context in the USA and EFL context in China shows that overall corrective feedback was more common in the ESL context, with recast being the most frequently used CF type in the EFL context and explicit correction received the highest repair rate. Brown's (2016) meta-analysis of descriptive CF studies shows the preponderance of recasts in elementary and adult language classes where learners have less L2 knowledge than in high school language classes.

Teachers use recasts because this type of feedback is an effective tool to connect both form and meaning, enhance CF's saliency (Long, 2007), and maintain communication flow without

weakening learner confidence (Li & Vuono, 2019; Roothooft, 2014). While recasts are ubiquitous in L2 classes, language development depends on learners' proficiency level (Panova & Lyster, 2002), learners' orientations to feedback (Ellis & Sheen, 2006), communicative intent (Sheen & Ellis, 2011), instructional context (Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009), selection of target items and task complexity (Kim & Han, 2007; Rezaei & Valeo, 2023), and recast's explicitness involving intonation and pause (Han & Kim, 2008).

Researchers working from the sociocultural perspective claim that prompts are effective scaffolding strategies because they push learners to produce the target utterance (Lyster et al., 2013). When learners are prompted to produce target utterances within the proximal development zone, language acquisition occurs through learners' self-regulations (Oliver & Adams, 2021). Lyster and Mori's (2006) review indicates that prompts are more effective than recasts in leading to uptake and repair. This higher uptake or repair rate for prompts is due to the noticeability of scaffolded CF strategies (Ammar, 2008). Rassaei (2014) experimented with the relative role of scaffolded CF strategies (prompts) and recasts in L2 acquisition in Iranian EFL contexts. The result is that scaffolded CF strategies effectively lead to uptake and modified output. He points out that noticeable and salient prompts enable learners to identify the linguistic gap and push them to modify their initial utterances.

Meta-analyses (Brown, 2016; Li & Vuono, 2019; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Russell & Spada, 2006) confirmed the effective role of CF in L2 development. For example, Lyster and Saito (2010) showed a significant effect of CF, especially prompts, on eliciting more repairs than recasts. Li's (2010) meta-analysis of 33 oral CF studies found that implicit feedback is more effective in delayed posttests, while explicit feedback receives higher gains on immediate posttests. CF's effect on L2 development was medium over time with varying effect across instructional contexts, wherein CF in second language contexts proved less significant than in foreign language contexts. Explicit feedback was more effective in the immediate posttest than implicit feedback, while implicit feedback outperformed explicit feedback in long-delayed posttests. Overall, CF, both input-providing and output-pushing and both implicit and explicit, contributes to L2 development (Ellis, 2017).

Translanguaging Pedagogy in L2 Classrooms

As an alternative to traditional language teaching perspectives that advocate for strict language separation, translanguaging pedagogy involves a theoretical and practical approach to teaching in multilingual and second language education to develop multilingualism in two or more languages, allowing learners' discursive language practices in a multilingual classroom so that learners, breaking the boundaries between languages, can make the maximum use of their fluid language repertoire in both language and content classes (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022). This pedagogy involves three strands: stance, design, and shifts where stance affirms the bi/multilingual language practices as a resource and a right; the design ensures inclusivity of learners' home and school language practices while preparing instructional materials and assessment; and shifts entail teachers' flexible decision-making to support learners' use of linguistic resources and their voices (García et al., 2017). So, unlike the initial concept of translanguaging involving alternating input and output in the Welsh classroom, translanguaging pedagogy is student-centered, placing the multilingual speaker and the repertoire at the starting point. Its heteroglossic approach promotes learner agency by strategic

planning, implementing the planning, and flexibility of the instructional process based on learners' whole linguistic repertoire.

Following García's extensive work with the Hispanic communities in the United States, scholars worldwide examined how translanguaging functions in bilingual and multilingual education where the official language for instruction is predominantly English or other dominant state languages. These studies were mainly ethnographic, focusing on the role of home languages in bilingual and multilingual learners' engagement, access to information, and participation in learning. For example, Conteh's (2018) critical view of translanguaging studies shows that previous research on translanguaging focused more on how translingual interactions work than on its potential as a pedagogy.

Translanguaging pedagogy allows multilingual learners to use the whole linguistic repertoire enriched with their prior experiences and thus helps them access information and interaction and develop metalinguistic awareness. Creese and Blackedge (2010) found that pedagogical translanguaging in complementary schools in the UK contributed to engaging students, developing their identity positions, negotiating meaning, and moving the pedagogic tasks. Scholars have taken up translanguaging in the USA to push back against strict language separation in dual language bilingual programs. They aim to study the language practices in the bilingual classroom and advocate for a translanguaging space to educate the language-minoritized learners effectively. Studies in dual language classrooms (Gort, 2015) and in transitional bilingual programs (Sayer, 2013) showed that teachers, despite the institutional monolingual policy, employed translanguaging pedagogy that crossed the language boundaries and helped learners develop bilingually. Effective interaction was also reported to result from translangauging practices, as García et al. (2017) proposed in the USA context.

Translanguaging practices contribute to multilingual learners' metalinguistic awareness by activating their prior knowledge. For example, Cenoz and Santos (2020) studied the learners' translanguaging practices at the discourse level in Basque schools where the learners read, wrote, and listened to news items in English, Spanish, and Basque and then identified the cognate verbs in Spanish, French, and Basque from the text they worked in English. Their study showed that learners' discursive use of Basque, English, and Spanish helped them develop their morphological awareness and the perception of their fluid linguistic repertoire. Galante (2020), experimenting with the role of translanguaging activities in vocabulary learning, showed that using translanguaging was significantly effective in developing learners' metalinguistic awareness and vocabulary. Some recent studies, nonetheless, investigated its pedagogical implications on L2 learning (Galante, 2020; Kleyn & García, 2019), on educational equity (Tian et al., 2022), and on teachers' transformative agency in bottom-up language policy to facilitate learning and teaching (Phyak et al., 2022). Some recent studies also examined the potential of translanguaging as a pedagogy in heritage language contexts. For example, Abourehab and Azaz (2023) studied how translanguaging practices affect classroom interactions to negotiate identity and construct linguistic knowledge in an Arabic as a heritage language learning class in a southwestern state in the USA. The result shows that learners exploited the translanguaging space by using multiple Arabic varieties and English to negotiate lexical and grammatical knowledge and construct their multilingual identities. However, CF research is yet to examine how translanguaging practices intertwine with CF in L2 learning in Arabic as a heritage language classroom. This current study addressed this gap

and investigated how Arabic as a Heritage Language learners responded to oral corrective feedback in the classroom where the teacher provided CF through pedagogical translanguaging and opened a translanguaging space for her students to engage in classroom interactions. The study addressed the following questions:

RQ$_1$: How did the teacher and students incorporate translanguaging into CF interactions?

RQ$_2$: What CF types did the teacher provide using translanguaging pedagogy in the Arabic class?

RQ$_3$: How did the students respond to the teacher's translingual CF in the Arabic class?

Methods

Setting and Context

This study reports the findings of translingual CF interactions of the sixth-grade class at a private K-12 school in a midsouth cosmopolitan city in the USA. The school's teachers and administration are first-generation Arab immigrants, whereas almost all the students were born here with at least one foreign parent, mainly from an Arab country. The school incorporates Arabic as a core subject into its curriculum from the elementary grades to enable students to read and interpret Arabic texts and resources for academic purposes. In the elementary grades, students are taught the basics of reading and writing Arabic and the primary conversational skills. In the middle school grades, students learn how to read, write, and speak Arabic in complex situations. High school students are challenged with university-level courses focusing on reading complex Arabic texts for research and learning purposes. The school endorses a monolingual classroom language policy.

Arabic is a heritage language for the participants of this study. The textbook used in the class is تَعَلُّمُ اللُّغَةِ الْعَرَبِيَّةِ الصَّفُّ السَّادِسُ (Learning Arabic Language Class Six). The text is designed with many task-based activities focusing on form and meaning. The class time is divided into three main sections based on class activities. The first ten minutes are for reviewing the previous class's linguistic items students learned in the previous class. During this section, teacher-student interaction occurs when the teacher provides feedback for learner errors. In the second section, the teacher reads and asks students to read from the texts and questions about grammatical features found in the text and assigns the students to individual and group exercises. The last section reviews the class discussion and activities and assigns learners' homework. The teacher considers the students' language proficiency at the lower intermediate level.

Participants

The class comprises fifteen students with an average age of 12 years. Nine students are male, and six are female. The students have already studied Arabic for four to five years in school. They all are second-generation citizens with immigrant parents who, except for one family, speak Arabic varieties at home as their heritage language. Five students speak Egyptian dialect, three Syrian, three Palestinian, two Libyan, one Iraqi dialect, and one speaks Urdu language. The Arab family background students are fluent in their Arabic dialects, and the Pakistani female student speaks Urdu fluently. They are learning academic Arabic to understand classic and modern Arabic texts. They attend the Arabic language class five days a week. Each session is sixty minutes, and the same teacher teaches all the sessions.

The Arabic teacher is an immigrant Libyan Arab who has been living in the USA for the last 23 years. With a bachelor's and an MA in sociology from Libya, she served as a translator for different agencies for twelve years and taught Arabic at schools in the USA for the last ten years. She received practical training in language teaching pedagogies and attended workshops on corrective feedback.

Data Collection Method and Procedure

The researcher first piloted the research feasibility by observing the Arabic class for two days to ensure the class uses translanguaging and CF during classroom interaction. The researcher informed the teacher and the students that their language-classroom interaction would be observed and recorded, the teacher would be interviewed in between class observations and before the final data analysis, and the students would be interviewed after the observations data collection; however, they were not informed of what specific language aspect or pedagogy would be focused during the observation.

The data were collected through structured observations and semi-structured interviews. The study employed structured observation to obtain CF and learner uptake and repair frequencies. This research approach allows the record of classroom interactions and the data analysis based on predetermined categories (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001), and thus helps visualize the classroom interaction and understand the effectiveness of instructional strategies (Waxman et al., 2004). The study follows interactive observation systems (Stalling & Mohlman, 1988) in which the research records everything taking place in the observed classroom during the whole observation period.

The study uses semi-structured interviews to code and interpret the observation data. Sitting as a non-participant in a corner of the class, the researcher observed the class and video-recorded the classroom interactions twice a week for two months (a total of 20 hours) and transcribed and coded the data the other three days of the week. During the observations, the researcher took field notes on specific instruction contexts and paralinguistic features such as the teacher's gestures and expressions. The notetaking was used to understand the translingual CF interactions to better code and interpret the data. A high-fidelity digital camera was placed at two corners of the classes to record the interactions between the teachers and the students. Every alternate week, the researcher interviewed the class teacher in her office room for half an hour to member-check the data coding and interpretation. The final one-hour-long interview with the teacher and ten student participants occurred before the observation data analysis. The interview focused on translanguaging and CF practices in classroom interaction.

Data Coding and Analysis

The researcher coded the transcribed observation data based on Ranta and Lyster's (2007) modified CF taxonomy and learner uptake moves. The scheme suits the nature of this present study because it analyzed the communicative features that occurred when teachers and students interacted in the language classroom. The coding sheet included classroom interaction, students' errors (grammatical, phonological, and lexical) and teachers' feedback types (explicit correction, recast, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, repetition, clarification, and multiple feedback) and student uptakes such as repair, needs-repair, and no-uptake.

The analysis mainly included the error treatment sequence that began with learners' one or more erroneous utterances. Then, the teacher either provided CF or overlooked the error for the learner to continue the topic. The teacher's feedback either led to a learner uptake or the topic continuation. In the case of uptake, it was either repaired or needed repair (Please see the error treatment procedure in Figure 1). An Arab Ph.D. student of applied linguistics coded selected 15% feedback sequence data, and the interrater reliability test yielded 90% agreement. The researcher used Nvivo 12 Plus to code and analyze the interview data. The interview data analysis emphasized the themes relating to the teacher's pedagogical purpose of discursive language practices and different CF types.

CF Types and Uptake Definition

Below are the definitions of the CF types (explicit correction, recasts, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, clarification requests, multiple feedback, and repetition) used in this study. Examples of the CF types, except clarification requests and repetition, are taken from this current study.

Explicit correction refers to providing the correct form with extra comments or statements informing learners that they have made errors and where they have made them (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). For example:

T: Have you taken كِتَابْكَ يَا مَرْيَم/kita:bka ya Maryam/ (your book, O Mariam)

S: مَـخَـذَتْ كِتَـابِـيْ /makhazat kita:bi/ (Grammatical error in subj. verb agreement and in negation form)

T: لَا تَقُلْ مَخَذَتْ/la taqul makhazat/ (don't say makhazat), say مَا أَخَذْتُ

S: مَا أَخَذْتُ كِتَابِيْ/ma: akhaztu kita:bi:/ (Repaired)

A Recast refers to a reformulation of learners' L2 utterances or only of the erroneous part of the utterances. Long (1996) defined recasts as "utterances which rephrase a child's utterance by changing one or more sentence components while still referring to its central meanings" (p. 434). For example:

S: أَقْدَمْ المُحَاضَرَة فِي الحَفْلَة /aqdam al muhadara fil hafla/ (Grammatical error: verb in is not in the right form)

T: Why not say أُقَدِّمُ المُحَاضَرَة/uqaddimul muhadarah/

S: أُقَدِّمُ المُحَاضَرَة فِي الحَفْلَة/uqaddimul muhadarahta fil hafla/

Metalinguistic feedback is used to give linguistic information about an error so the learner can correct the erroneous utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). For example:

T: Can you tell me مَا هُوَ المُفرَد لِكَلِمَة أَنْشِـطَة/ ma huwal mufrad li kalima anshitah/ (What is the singular form for anshitah?)

S: أَنْشِطَة/anshitah/ (Grammatical error: not using the singular form)

T: لَيسَتْ هَذِه مُفرَد/laisat hazihi mufrat/ Think of something that is only one, not many.

S: نَشَاط

A *Clarification request* is used to ask for clarification where meaning-making or mutual understanding is lacking or the utterance contains issues in comprehensibility or accuracy (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). For example:

S: Do you know *horse car*? (Lexical error)

T: What? (Demir & Ozmen, 2017)

Elicitation involves techniques such as teachers' pausing to allow learners to fill the gap, prompting to self-correct or asking questions to extract information or reformulate the erroneous utterance (Panova & Lyster, 2002). For example:

S: مَاذا نَقُوْلُ بِالعَرَّبِيةِ/maza naqul bila'rabiyah/ (What can we say) the person who makes business?

S2: تِجَار /tija:r/ (Lexical error: not using the right form of the word)

T: هُوَ تَا/huwa ta:/ (Elicitation: here the teacher giving little clue pushes to elicit the right word)

Repetition means teachers repeat the learner's error with customized intonation letting the learner know that is wrong in the utterance (Ellis, 2009; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). For example:

S: Oh my God, it is too expensive, I pay only 10 dollars (Grammatical error).

T: I pay? (Repetition with emphasis). (Sheen, 2004)

Multiple feedback refers to using more than one CF type in one turn (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). CF occurs in a complex way. Other types of feedback accompany teachers' feedback as scaffolds in the same teacher's turn. For example,

S: الطَّلِبُ/Attalibu/ (Phonological error)

T: no, not الطَّلِـبُ, not الطَّلِـبُ, you have لام الف, you need to make the ط long (Explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitation)

S: نَعَمْ الطَالِبُ

Uptake means the leaner's immediate response to the teacher's feedback (Panova & Lyster, 2002). When the learner corrects the utterance, it is called 'repair'; when the response needs correction again, it is called 'needs repair' (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, pp. 50-51).

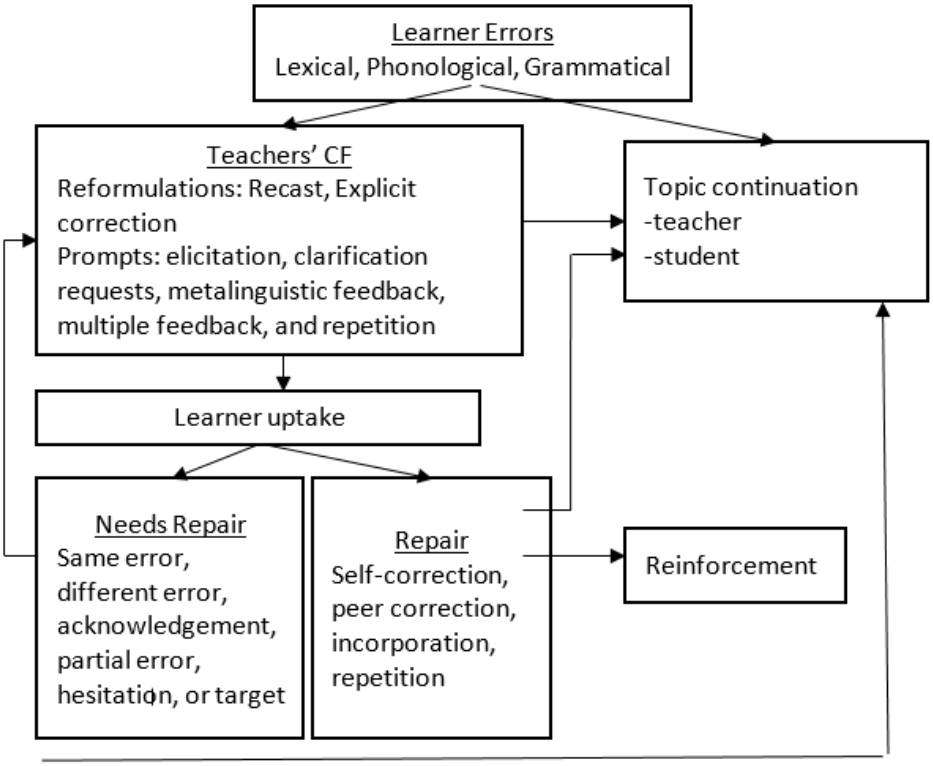
Repair includes self-repair, incorporation, repetition, and peer repair. Needs Repair includes same error, acknowledgment, different error, partial repair, hesitation, and off-target.

Error Treatment Sequence

Figure 1 below shows that the error treatment procedure starts with learners' lexical, phonological, or grammatical errors.

Figure 1

Error Treatment Sequence (Modified from Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ranta & Lyster, 2007)



Results

Research Question 1. How did the teacher and students incorporate translanguaging into CF interactions?

The data confirm the ubiquitous translanguaging practices as a pedagogy in all the class sessions. Whereas the teacher strategically shuttles between the standard Arabic and English to make space for learners to maximize their linguistic resources, the learners discursively used both English and their respective varieties of Arabic during classroom activities and interactions. Owing to the space constraints in this article, only the representative excerpts follow here with explanations. In the following extract, the teacher's and learners' discursive language practices exemplify the 'initiation, response, feedback' (IRF) model in CF interactions.

Extract 1 shows an example of translingual CF interactions that include two instances of the 'initiation, response and feedback' (IRF) sequence. The teacher initiated the discussion by reviewing the previous class lesson and asking a question "Yes, Nada, هَل نَستَخدِم هذِه القاعِدَة في أسمَاءٍ أخرى أيضا with the names of our relatives like عَمٌّ خَالٌ?" (Lines 2-3) followed by the learner response 'No.فقط نَستخدِم فِي هَذه الأسماء " (Line 8) leading to a teacher feedback and question "Good, we use the rule only with these five names. لَكُم الكِتَاب أمامَك أنظُرُوا الكَلِمات المُلَوَّنَة. These names take إعرَاب بالحَرُوف not إعراب بالحركات. Sara, هَل هِيَ أبُهُ شَيخٌ كَبِير أو أبُوه شَيخٌ كَبِير" (lines 9-11) again followed by the learner response and teacher feedback. These translanguaging practices engaged the teacher and learners in CF interactions. Like in Creese and Blackledge (2010), these translanguaging practices were needed to negotiate the meanings and included a larger audience. As the data revealed, the teacher used translanguaging as a pedagogy in the multilingual context to connect with her learners, convey information, and engage her learners

in classroom interactions. The learners demonstrated confidence in translingual CF interactions when the teacher used flexible translanguaging.

EXTRACT 1

Observation Video Transcript with English Translation

T: …also learned how to use الأسمَاءُ الخَمسَـةُ وإعرَابُها. You did the exercise حَيثُ تَعلَمُونَ الآن
2 هَل نَستَخدِم هذِه القَاعِدَة في أسمَاءٍ أخرى .كَيفَ هَذِه الأسمَاء تُعرَفُ أو تُنصَبُ أو تُجَرُّفِي الجُمَلِ
أيضا with the names of our relatives like عَمٌّ خَالٌ?
4 <…also learned how to use the Five Names and their Arabization. You did the
exercise where you know now how they are Arabized in the sentences. Yes, Nada?
6 Can we apply this rule to other names as well with the names of our relatives:
maternal uncle, paternal uncle>
8 S: No.نَستَخدِم فِي هَذه الأسماء فقط . <No, we use only with these names.>
T: Good, we use the tule only with these five names. لِكُم الكِتَاب أمامَك أنظُرُوا الكَلِمات المُلَوَّنَة.
10 These names take إعرَاب بالحَرُوف not إعراب بالحركات. Sara, هَل هِيَ أبُوهُ شَيخٌ كَبِير أو أبُوه شَيخٌ
كَبِير?
12 < Good, we use the rule only with these five names. You have the book in front of
you. Look at the colored words. These names take Arabization with letters, not with
14 vowel sounds. Sara, is it Abuhu shaikhun kabi:r Abu:hu shaikun kabir?>
We should say أبُوهُ and add waw بَعدَ أبُ
16 < We should say abu:hu and add waw after abu.>
T: جيد هُنا أبُوه لَيسَ أبُهُ لِأنَّ هذا الإسم أب هو مِن الأسماء الخمسة وهو يُرفَع بالوَاو- أي كلمة صحيحة؟ إستَمِع
18 إلى نَصِيحَةِ أخِك أخيك أو أخاك؟ Here you have three options: akhika, akhi:ka aw akha:ka.
< Good job, Here Abu:hu, not Abuhu, because the name Abun is from among the
20 Five Names. It is Arabized for 'rafa' with 'waw'. Which of the words is correct,
akhika, akhi:ka or aka:ka? Here you have three options: akhika, akhi:ka or akha:ka.>

Research Question 2: What CF types did the teacher provide using translanguaging pedagogy in the Arabic class?

The total number of oral CF the teacher provided in the translanguaging class, was 105, followed by 94 (87%) uptake moves, where 76 moves resulted in learner repairs (80% of the uptake moves). The teacher provided 5 CF types—explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and multiple feedback. Metalinguistic feedback, recast, and multiple feedback accounted for 72% CF (see Table 1). Besides, the teacher used moderate rates of elicitation (15% of total CF) and explicit correction (14% of total CF).

Table 1

Distribution of CF Moves in the Arabic Language Class

CF Types	CF	
	n	%
Metalinguistic feedback	28	27
Recast	24	23
Multiple feedback	22	21
Elicitation	16	15
Explicit correction	15	14
Total	105	100

As Table 1 shows, the teacher used 28 metalinguistic feedback moves, 24 recasts, and 22 multiple feedback moves, accounting for 27%, 23%, and 21% of the total CF she provided. The lowest feedback numbers were with elicitation (n=16) and explicit correction (n=15), constituting almost 29% of the total CF.

Research Question 3: How did the students respond to the teacher's translingual CF in the Arabic class?

Table 2 below shows the relation between CF, uptake, and learner repair. 105 CF moves led to 94 uptake moves, constituting 89% of CF, including 76 learner repairs (80% of the uptakes). Elicitation (n= 16) and recast (n= 24) led to the highest learner uptake rates, that is, 16 uptakes (100% of elicitation) and 23 uptakes (95% of recast), respectively. The other three feedback types resulted in considerable rates of learner uptakes, such as explicit correction (n=15), which led to 13 uptakes (87% of explicit correction), multiple feedback (n=22) to 19 uptakes (86% of multiple feedback), and metalinguistic feedback (n=28) to 23 uptakes (82% of metalinguistic feedback).

Table 2

Uptake and Learner Repair in Response to CF Moves

CF Types and number	Uptake		Learner repair	
	n	% of CF type	n	% of Uptake
Recast (n= 24)	23	95	20	87
Metalinguistic cue (n= 28)	23	82	19	82
Multiple feedback (n= 22)	19	86	15	79
Elicitation (n= 16)	16	100	13	81
Explicit correction (15)	13	87	9	69
Total (n=105)	94	89	76	80

Regarding learner repair, the total repair rate from learner uptakes was considerably high (80% of uptakes). Recast led to 23 learner uptakes including 20 learner repairs (87% uptake). Twenty-three uptakes from metalinguistic feedback included 19 learner repairs (82% uptake). Besides, 16 uptakes for elicitation included 13 learner repairs (81% uptake), 19 uptakes for multiple feedback included 15 learner repairs (79% uptake), and 69% uptakes for explicit correction were learner repairs.

Extract 2 shows that the teacher provides oral CF by translanguaging, leading to learner uptakes. The following extract encapsulates two oral CF examples (one by metalinguistic feedback and the other by multiple feedback) followed by learner repairs.

In Extract 2, the teacher asked a question about the usage of verb forms after certain words (line 1) and then asked students to give examples using the usage (line 5). The student gave an example having a grammatical mistake (line 7) and received metalinguistic feedback (line 9) that led to a learner repair (line 11). We see another example of CF using translanguaging when the student makes a grammatical mistake (line 17) and receives multiple feedback (line 19) leading to a learner repair (line 21).

EXTRACT 2

Observation Video Transcript with English Translation

T: When we use گلِمَة گي أو حَتى أو لِ گيفَ نُعَرِّب فِعلَ المُضارع ? Yes, Rafa?
<When we use the work kai, hatta or li, how can we Arabize fe'l almudare'? Yes Rafa?>
S: Putting فَتّح in the last حَرف
<Putting fatah in the last letter>
T: Good job! Any example بالفِعل قَرَأَ? Anybody?
<Good job! Any example with the verb Qara'a? Anybody>
S: ثَوَقّفتُ گي قَرَأتُ الگلماتَ
<I stopped to read the words (grammatical error in the verb qara') >
T: Why not make the فعل in مُضارِع صِيغَة ? (Metalinguistic feedback)
T: <Why do you not replace the verb with a present from? (Metalinguistic feedback)>
S: ثَوَقّفتُ گي أقرَأ الگلِماتَ
<I stopped to read the words>
T: نَعَم الفِعلُ أقرَأ سبقتَه كي so we are not saying أقرَأ instead we put fatah at the end, نَعَم. Can you read the آية (pointing to a student)?
<Yes, kai precedes the verb aqra'a. So, we are not saying aqra'u, we put fatah at the end, yes. Can you read the verse (pointing to a student)>
S: مِن بعدِهِم لِنَنظُرُ كيفَ تَعمَلُون ... (Grammatical mistake not following
<making a agrammatical mistake in the verb 'nanzura'>
T: لِنَنظُرَ Give فَتّح at the end.
<li nanzura, give fatah at the end (recast and metalinguistic feedback)>
S: Sorry, لِنَنظُرَ گيفَ تَعمَلُونَ
<Sorry, linanzura kaifa ta'malu:n>

Discussion

The study examined translanguaging practices and oral CF interactions in Arabic as a Heritage Language classroom in a mid-south K-12 school in the USA. The study shows that the teacher's translingual approach to teaching the Arabic language allowed the teacher and learners flexibility to communicate and exchange CF and uptakes effectively. The interview and observation data show that the students felt more empowered by their access to translanguaging practices between Arabic varieties and English during their classroom interactions, and the teacher could engage her learners in the language learning process. The teacher stated that her pedagogical goals of translanguaging practices were to help learners engage in content learning and develop their language skills, make space for multilingual ways of learning, and recognize the learners' multilingual identity. Resonating with previous studies (e.g., Creese & Blackedge, 2010), the study also shows teacher's translanguaging practices contributed to engaging learners in CF interactions and negotiating meaning. Translanguaging is not simply going beyond the speaker's sentence or discourse-level utterances. As this study confirms, translanguaging is a dynamic strategic approach to allowing teachers and learners to exploit linguistic and cultural resources for language learning. Translanguaging, as dynamic bilingualism (García, 2009) and heteroglossia (Bailey, 2007), helped the multilingual learners of this study break language boundaries and empowered them to access their full linguistic resources for establishing a social community where they interacted confidently in language learning. As found in the current study, the effective role of translanguaging during CF

interactions supports the increasing demand for flexible translanguaging pedagogy in L2 language classrooms (Kleyn & García, 2019). Abourehab and Azaz (2023) shows that the teacher strategically made space for learners to shuttle between their Arabic dialects and English and engage in interactions that resulted in learners' engagement in negotiating linguistic knowledge. This study in a similar context reports the teacher's strategic pedagogical translanguaging that empowered learners and created a comfort zone for negotiating meaning during classroom interactions, suggesting that translanguaging as a pedagogy can be effective when teachers are focused and know its dynamic practices.

Instructional contexts and learner differences affect language learning (Li, 2014), and effective language teaching employs pedagogical strategies that consider learner needs (Hattie, 2008). As found in previous studies (Gort & Sembiante, 2018; Sayer, 2013), this study also shows that the teacher considered the learners' bi/multilingual identity, replaced the top-down Arabic-only language policy with a translanguaging classroom context that contributed to the efficacy CF and enthusiastic learner responses accounting for significant learner uptake and repair rates (89% uptakes including 80% learner repairs). The teacher exploited translanguaging practices in word, sentence, and discourse levels during interactions with the learners, whereby oral CF, as the interview and observations data revealed, became more noticeable to the learners, and led to a high rate of learner responses. The oral CF moves provided by the teacher were effective in that they enhanced learning outcomes by leading to a high rate of leaner repairs since, in second language studies, modified learner outputs are evidence of learning gains and that the learners are in the process of second language acquisitions (Oliver & Adams, 2021).

In line with the previous studies, the report of this study also shared the predominance of recasts and their high learner repair rate (Esmaeili & Behnam, 2014; Li, 2014). The high rate of learner uptakes and repairs in response to recasts in this context can be attributed to their affordances of providing cognitive space for the learners to focus on form, raising the saliency of oral CF and their pedagogical expeditiousness allowing CF provision without interrupting the conversations and thus scaffolding learners to produce the target utterance. The teacher's use of indicative intonation while reformulating learner errors was likely to help learners notice where to correct. In addition, the translanguaging practices added to the saliency of recasts and other feedback types and helped the teacher and the learners maximize the language learning opportunities from the oral CF.

Prompts put the burden of correction on learners' shoulders, pushing them to reformulate their erroneous utterances (Lyster et al., 2013). Translanguaging practices in this heritage language class engaged the learners in the CF interactions, thus helping them respond to metalinguistic feedback, multiple feedback, and elicitation, followed high uptake and repair rates. Successful learner uptakes and repairs result from specific CF types and how CF intertwines with teaching context (Lyster & Mori, 2006). This study shows that the translanguaging context, the teacher's insistence on the learners' CF responses, and interaction participation added to the high learner uptake repair rates. Besides, the learners' responses to classroom interactions, especially to the teacher's CF, were partly due to the teacher's grading and assessment systems. For example, the students received grade points for active participation and classroom interactions. As found in this study, teacher motivation is likely to

convince the students that making errors was part of L2 learning and that their grammatically correct or incorrect CF responses would always be welcome.

This study reports high uptake and repair rates with low CF frequency compared to those reported in previous studies (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Shirani, 2019). This low frequency of CF is likely due to the teacher's belief that CF feedback should not be randomly provided; instead, it should be given only in response to major errors affecting meaning. Her belief and practices of CF comply with Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009), who pointed out that constant corrective feedback negatively affects learners' communication opportunities. The teacher was found to identify the learners' general error patterns and address only the representative errors instead of addressing each error. The teacher avoided overwhelming learners and thus engaged learners through focused translingual CF practices, resulting in effective learner responses.

Conclusion

The study sheds light on how the teacher's CF strategies and pedagogical translanguaging opened a space for teachers and students to engage in effective CF interactions and the language learning process. The teacher's belief that learners should have access to their entire linguistic repertoire to exploit during classroom interactions was manifested in her discursive language practices and her pedagogical translanguaging. Translanguaging enhanced classroom interactions and resulted in better CF practices. The teacher's use of CF and addressing only global errors reflected her belief that CF is essential to language teaching and that only major errors affecting meanings should be addressed.

CF is effective when provided intensively, focusing on the global errors that hinder the meaning (Kamiya, 2016). This study shows learners responded to CF more often when feedback was focused and salient for learners to notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target form. Identifying patterns of learner errors and focusing on the higher-order concerns that impact meaning, the teacher avoided providing random CF and received high learner responses.

The implications extend to L2 teaching pedagogy in a multilingual classroom where teachers can exploit the affordances of translanguaging practices during classroom CF interactions. This study suggests that CF can be effective when teachers employ pedagogical translanguaging in low-proficiency bilingual classes during CF interactions, positively address learner errors, motivate learners in-class participation, and include learners' participation in classroom interactions as part of assessing their performances. This study suggests that teachers use all possible verbal and non-verbal cues while providing CF to draw learners' attention to the error without making them feel embarrassed.

This study is limited to observation and interview data of only one lower intermediate proficiency Arabic class. The two-month observation data provides a broad picture of the classroom CF interactions and translanguaging practices with their effects on language learning; however, they do not say if translingual CF interactions and their contribution to language learning can be the same in higher proficiency classes in the same language learning context. Future research can include classes of different proficiency levels in the same teaching context to examine translanguaging practices and CF interactions and their impacts on L2 learning.

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