



P-ISSN 2355-2794
E-ISSN 2461-0275

Foreign Teachers' Translanguaging Beliefs and Practices in English-Medium Classrooms at a Chinese International School

You Wu^{1,2}
Juliana Othman^{1*}

¹Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur 50603, MALAYSIA

²Department of Economics and Management, Lyuliang University, Lyuliang 033000, CHINA

Abstract

The rise of English-medium instruction (EMI) can disadvantage students when it is limited to monolingual approaches. Translanguaging, which leverages students' full linguistic repertoire, has emerged as a promising alternative. While research supports its benefits, the translanguaging practices of foreign teachers in EMI contexts remain under investigation. This case study explores foreign teachers' translanguaging beliefs and practices in an international school across diverse subjects in mainland China. Focusing on a Pakistani embassy school in Beijing with a multinational student body, the study employs semi-structured interviews and classroom observations with teachers. Findings reveal mixed teacher attitudes towards translanguaging, mirroring existing research. While some embrace its potential, others demonstrate resistance, possibly due to dominant monolingual ideologies or the complex linguistic landscape. Uniquely, teachers prioritised spatial arrangements and communication strategies over students' first languages (L1s) to support struggling learners. Observations and interviews suggest foreign teachers used L1s less frequently than bilingual teachers in prior studies. However, they fostered student-led translanguaging through group discussions and peer support, promoting comprehension and expression. Additionally, teachers employed various linguistic modalities during instruction yet faced inclusivity challenges due to the diverse student body. This study contributes to the under-researched area of translanguaging in EMI classrooms with foreign teachers. It highlights the varied perspectives on translanguaging and the importance of student-driven practices in such settings.

Keywords: English-medium instruction, foreign teacher's beliefs, inclusive EMI classrooms, pedagogical practices, translanguaging.

* Corresponding author, email: juliana@um.edu.my

Citation in APA style: Wu, Y., & Othman, J. (2025). Foreign teachers' translanguaging beliefs and practices in English-medium classrooms at a Chinese international school. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 12(1), 233-250.

Received July 3, 2024; Revised August 9, 2024; Accepted December 21, 2024; Published Online January 31, 2025

<https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v12i1.39830>

Copyright © 2025 by Authors, published by *Studies in English Language and Education*. This is an open-access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>)

1. INTRODUCTION

English-medium instruction (EMI) has been rapidly adopted across all levels of schooling globally (Macaro et al., 2018). Studies have shown its efficacy in enhancing students' vocabulary and academic achievement in the subject matter (Coral et al., 2016; Hu, 2019). However, previous literature has highlighted significant challenges in implementing EMI, particularly language-related issues, which have led to reduced student engagement, increased psychological stress, and comprehension difficulties (Nyimbili & Mwanza, 2021; Rahman et al., 2020).

Recent studies (Pun & Thomas, 2020; Pun et al., 2023) have argued that relying solely on English instruction is impractical and thus advocated for translanguaging. Translanguaging is the teaching and learning process through multilingual, multimodal, multi-semiotic, and multisensory resources (Li, 2018). It has been shown to address the challenges in EMI classes and benefit academic, affective, and social domains. Even with these contentions, the practice of translanguaging has yet to achieve widespread acknowledgement as a valid pedagogical approach, with its implementation varying across contexts (García & Li, 2014). Empirical studies have found that teachers tend to stick to English-only instruction due to concerns about language contamination and students' reliance on alternative linguistic means (Fang & Liu, 2020; Yuan, 2023). Additionally, many instructors believe that translanguaging may hinder students' proficiency in English (Yuvayapan, 2019). Institutional regulations and a lack of support for multilingualism also hinder the adoption of translanguaging practices (Nyimbili & Mwanza, 2021).

Despite the reservations held by teachers, observations within EMI learning environments indicate that the practice of translanguaging plays a crucial role in student engagement, reshaping contextual understanding, nurturing classroom dynamics, and clarifying complex ideas (Fang & Liu, 2020; Wang & Shen, 2023; Zhang & Wei, 2021). Consequently, more researchers are exploring the dynamic use of translanguaging in EMI contexts (Tsou & Baker, 2021). However, most existing research was conducted in settings where teachers and students share linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Among the limited research focusing on foreign teachers in China (An et al., 2019; Shi & Rolstad, 2023), translanguaging serves three pedagogical purposes: assistance, assessment, and showcasing, transcending language barriers. Nevertheless, research on the subject is still lacking, particularly in cases when foreign instructors have little command of the tongues of their students (Kim & Weng, 2022).

It is important to note that translanguaging, as a context-sensitive approach, can only be fully exploited by considering the broader contexts within and beyond the classrooms (Allard, 2017). As such, conclusions drawn from one setting should, therefore, be applied with caution. This promotes the exploration of new EMI contexts, such as international schools in China, which have yet to be thoroughly examined in prior studies. These institutions provide Anglophone curricula in a non-English speaking country with little governmental control, showing unique attributes compared to general schools. The linguistic diversity of student and faculty populations adds complexity to the linguistic landscapes. Therefore, exploring how foreign teachers leverage their available resources to tackle these linguistic and cultural issues in this setting is worthwhile. For systematicity, two research questions were formulated for this study.

1. What are the translanguaging beliefs held by foreign EMI teachers at the Chinese international school?
2. What are foreign EMI teachers' translanguaging practices in these Chinese international schools?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Contextual Background of EMI in China

China has been actively working to align with the global trend of expanding EMI programs. In 2001, the Ministry of Education prioritised enhancing the quality of undergraduate programs

among its twelve major policy goals. Within three years, the goal was to have 5–10% of undergraduate courses taught in English.

In contrast to government-led efforts at the higher education level, EMI courses in primary and secondary education are usually referred to as ‘Chinese-English bilingual education’. They are seen as a form of elite education without direct policy support (Hu, 2008). EMI is primarily available in independent international schools, private K-12 schools, and the international departments of domestic schools in major cities (Tong & Shi, 2012). Instead of a top-down mandate, the rationale for EMI at these levels is driven by the desire for admission to overseas universities, particularly in English-speaking countries (Brummitt & Keeling, 2013). Consequently, these institutions aim to establish an English-only learning environment similar to universities in English-speaking countries.

Due to the rigid residence registration system, international schools are often the only choice for expatriate students, leading to a linguistically diverse student body. In this context, teachers must manage diverse language backgrounds and reconcile the institutional objective of preparing students for studies abroad with the necessity to accommodate linguistic and cultural diversity through translanguaging. This complexity makes international schools an intriguing context for investigating translanguaging practices.

2.2 Theoretical Perspective

Translanguaging, as a pedagogical framework and linguistic theory, has emerged as a significant paradigm shift in multilingual education. Rooted in sociocultural and ecological psychology, this approach advocates for strategically utilising learners’ entire linguistic repertoire to facilitate meaning-making (Baker, 2011). In contrast to traditional monolingual perspectives, translanguaging posits a unitary linguistic resource from which individuals draw selectively (García & Li, 2014). This paradigm challenges hierarchical language ideologies and promotes equitable and inclusive classroom practices by validating students’ linguistic and cultural identities (García & Li, 2014).

Its theoretical foundations and ideological stance have been well-established (e.g., Cenoz & Gorter, 2021), and this study narrows the focus on one aspect of this field: overt translanguaging. As Cogo (2020) argues, the development of language resources in an individual’s repertoire is influenced by interactions with other linguistic resources and the surrounding environment. Nevertheless, how these resources are constructed within one’s repertoire may not always be observable. To address this, Cogo (2020) distinguishes overt translanguaging from covert translanguaging. The former refers to instances where different resources associated with named languages are identifiable, such as what might be recognised as L1 use. In contrast, the latter pertains to situations where the impact of diverse resources is less apparent.

Macaro’s (2009) theoretical framework offers a systematic method for comprehending educators’ perspectives on using students’ mother tongues within diverse linguistic classroom settings. The framework classifies teachers’ beliefs regarding the use of students’ L1s in multilingual classrooms as virtual (completely excluding L1), maximal (viewing L1 use as a necessary evil), and optimal (embracing translanguaging). Within the Virtual Position, educators endorse a monolingual approach within the classroom, emphasising the exclusive utilisation of the target language (L2). Teachers upholding this perspective contend that immersion in L2 facilitates more efficient language acquisition. They commonly posit that reliance on L1 might impede learning by fostering dependency and limiting exposure to L2. In contrast, the Maximal Position is characterised by educators who acknowledge the significance of L2 immersion while also recognising the strategic application of L1. They advocate using L1 as a supportive tool, particularly in explaining intricate concepts and instructions or addressing specific linguistic obstacles. This standpoint advocates for a balanced utilisation of L1 and L2 to enhance comprehension and educational outcomes. Lastly, the Optimal Position endorses a more integrated and adaptable incorporation of both L1 and L2. Educators holding this perspective perceive the selective use of L1 as advantageous for cognitive and linguistic growth. They contend

that leveraging students' L1 can improve comprehension, provide learning scaffolds, and promote bilingualism or multilingualism as valuable educational objectives. This strategy establishes a nurturing learning atmosphere where both languages are esteemed and used effectively.

Thus, Macaro's (2009) framework offers a valuable tool for educators to reflect on their beliefs and practices concerning L1 use. By understanding the nuances of these different positions, educators can make informed decisions about how to support multilingual learners in their classrooms best. This reflective process allows teachers to customise their approaches to meet the diverse linguistic needs of their students, ensuring more effective and inclusive teaching practices. In summary, Macaro's framework underscores the importance of thoughtful consideration of L1 in teaching. It encourages educators to move beyond rigid stances and instead adopt flexible, evidence-based strategies that align with the specific dynamics of their classrooms. Supporting multilingual learners effectively requires recognising the potential of L1 as a bridge to mastering L2 and achieving broader educational goals.

2.3 Teachers' Translanguaging Beliefs

Extensive research has taken a closer look at translanguaging beliefs among practitioners, as it was considered the most significant predictor of their teaching practices on the ground (Xie & Sun, 2024). Macaro's (2009) tripartite codeswitching positions (virtual, maximum, and optimal), though initially developed in ESL/EFL classrooms, have been widely adopted to describe predominant translanguaging stances that EMI teachers adopted (Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Fang & Liu, 2020; Jia et al., 2023). Specifically, the virtual position advocates excluding L1 use in the classroom, allowing only L2 and discouraging any use of the students' L1. The maximal position recognises L1 use as a survival strategy to address language-related challenges. However, teachers in this view feel guilty when deviating from the official language of instruction. The optimal position takes a balanced approach, acknowledging and actively exploring the pedagogical value of leveraging multiple language resources.

Prior studies have identified an increased recognition of translanguaging as an asset with optimal positions. For instance, in a qualitative study at a university in Kazakhstan, lecturers from different faculties view translanguaging positively as a method to provide scaffolding support and improve students' comprehension of content knowledge, also as a temporary solution to help students gradually transition to the entire L2 context (Karabassova & Isidro, 2020). Likewise, Fang and Liu (2020) conducted classroom observation and semi-structured interviews with five teachers, two of whom realised the core functions of translanguaging from ideational, textual, and interpersonal perspectives. A similar finding is reported in Romanowski's (2020) ethnographic study in three secondary EMI schools in Poland. A favourable view on translanguaging is found among 27 teacher participants who firmly believed that flexible language use is a learning process facilitator, not a hindrance.

However, the hybrid language is also reported as a linguistic deficiency (García & Li, 2014). Teachers are categorised into maximal positions with a sense of 'guilty multilingualism' (Coleman, 2017, p. 31). Yuan (2023) investigated stakeholders' perceptions of translanguaging in two Chinese primary schools. Drawing on classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, and questionnaire datasets, the study reveals that all participating teachers considered translanguaging practices as a forced act to counter teachers' and students' language proficiency limits and unsatisfactory engagement. The causes of such beliefs are the absence of professional training and the entrenched monolingual ideology. Similar results were also obtained in a large-scale survey administered to 169 Indian teachers across different levels of schooling. Anderson and Lightfoot (2021) highlight that nearly all respondents report the translanguaging practices at least occasionally, of whom many lecturers note their feeling of guilt due to the institutional discouragement of language fluidity.

The virtual position is also widely reported, so many teachers adhere to the one-language principle and see L1 use as unacceptable. In Breeze and Roothoof's (2021) study, the researchers utilised narrative frames to investigate the attitudes of L1 use from 60 EMI lecturers in Spain. The results reveal that approximately half of the participants were reluctant to admit their L1 use.

Consequently, these teachers, experiencing significant pressure to uphold an English-only environment, sought to create a ‘monolingual mirror’ of the instructional practices previously conducted in the L1 (Breeze & Roothoof, 2021, p. 15).

Macaro’s (2009) codeswitching positions capture intricate translanguaging beliefs in multilingual settings. However, most research regarding teachers’ translanguaging beliefs has been predominantly conducted at the tertiary level (e.g., Breeze & Roothoof, 2021; Fang & Liu, 2020; Karabassova & Isidro, 2020; Yuan, 2023). Additionally, more research needs to be undertaken to investigate teachers’ translanguaging beliefs when students have different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. This study aims to fill the gap by investigating foreign teachers’ perceived value in translanguaging pedagogy.

2.3 Foreign Teachers’ Translanguaging Practices

Compared to the studies on local teachers (Jia et al., 2023; Yuan, 2023), fewer studies explore foreign teachers. These studies typically employ classroom observation and semi-structured interviews on a small scale to investigate how this particular group of teachers enact translanguaging pedagogy or realise the benefits of students’ prior knowledge brought about by other languages when their L1s differ from their students. For example, Karabassova and Isidro (2020) adopt an exploratory qualitative research design to analyse 11 teachers’ perceptions and practices towards translanguaging in Kazakhstan CLIL classrooms. Most teachers (8 out of 11) had different L1s from students. It was found that participating teachers engage in spontaneous and planned translanguaging practices, including oral language switches, preparation of bilingual resources, and non-English videos. These translanguaging practices scaffold content understanding and compensate for teachers’ proficiency limits. The mismatch between beliefs and practices results from monolingual ideologies and strict language policies.

Additionally, a recent study by Wong and Tai (2023) investigates the development of a teacher candidate’s stance and pedagogical knowledge of translanguaging in first-grade English as an additional language classroom. Wong and Tai (2023) adopt purposeful sampling to identify multilingual speakers who do not speak students’ L1. Triangulating the course assessments, reflection, and video-recorded lessons demonstrates how this participant successfully enacted pedagogical translanguaging by leveraging different languages (Spanish and English) and modalities (e.g., PowerPoint slides, visual images, videos, and body gestures). By doing so, the participant created a co-learning environment, strengthened students’ understanding of the topic, and bridged learners’ lived experiences with language learning. These similar strategies were also reported in studies by Burton and Rajendram (2019) and Tai (2021), showcasing how teachers employed translanguaging, even when they were at the beginning stages of learning students’ L1s.

As discussed above, the findings of these studies reveal that teachers’ familiarity with students’ L1s differed from the premise of performing translanguaging pedagogy. While there is little exploration of the comparison between foreign and local EMI teachers in the literature, some studies (Tang, 2020; Qiu & Fang, 2019) have suggested that foreign teachers, with different L1s from their students, are inclined towards more interactive teaching approaches and various modalities of communication. They also tend to utilise less of the students’ L1s than their local counterparts. The perceived differences indicate that studies exploring local teachers’ translanguaging cannot be generalisable to foreign teachers. Given that globalisation has facilitated the widespread deployment of foreign teachers, it is worth asking if foreign EMI teachers view and employ translanguaging differently, especially in mainland China, where no prior relevant literature was found. This study aims to address this and expand upon the limited literature on the topic.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

This research employed a multi-case study design (Creswell & Poth, 2018), considering each foreign teacher as an individual case to uncover common patterns, relationships, or similarities related to the central phenomenon. The primary focus of this study was on teachers' professed beliefs and classroom practices regarding translanguaging despite the presence of monolingual-oriented language policies.

3.2 Research Context and Participants

The participating school was located in the compound of the Pakistani embassy, which catered to expatriate students. Approximately half of its student body originated from Pakistan, primarily speaking Urdu, while the remaining half hailed from diverse countries, including Russia, India, and the Arab. Despite the ethnic and cultural diversity, the school principal stated that most of them belong to mixed families, with one parent originating from China and the other from various foreign nations, enabling them to speak Chinese fluently. The school adopted IGCSE for students while offering three mandatory courses for Pakistani students: Pakistan Studies, Urdu, and Islamiyat. All courses were required to be delivered in the English language.

The sample of this study comprised 7 Pakistani EMI teachers. They were selected through convenience and purposeful sampling based on their willingness and different teaching subjects. It should be acknowledged that there are certain limitations regarding such non-probability sampling methods, potentially resulting in bias and lack of generalizability. However, the researchers do not influence the selection of participants for interviews and observation. A preview of demographic information was summarised in Table 1. The teachers' names were replaced with T1 to T7 to protect their identity information.

Table 1. Profile of interviewed and observed teachers.

Teacher	Subject	Gender	Highest degree	Multilingual competence	Teaching experience
T1	Economics	M	M.Sc.	Urdu, English, Chinese	2
T2	Mathematics	M	M.Sc.	Urdu, English	18
T3	Physics	M	M.Sc.	Urdu, English	20
T4	Business study	M	M.Sc.	Urdu, English	15
T5	Islamiyat	M	M.Ed.	Urdu, Arabic, English	2
T6	Science	M	M.Sc.	Urdu, English	5
T7	History	M	B.A.	Urdu, English, Chinese	7

3.3 Instrument

This case study utilised a qualitative approach by collecting data from classroom observation and semi-structured interviews. First, the observation form (see Appendix B) was adapted from Nambisan (2014) to focus on teachers' target translanguaging practices in natural settings. This form divides lessons into multiple teaching moments, for example, helping low-proficiency learners, building bonds with students, and giving feedback. It helped to get a more focused understanding of translanguaging practices for multiple pedagogical purposes.

Additionally, the study employed an interview protocol to gain insights from teachers regarding translanguaging beliefs and practices. It was inspired by Fang and Liu's (2020) and Alasmari et al.'s (2022) studies, incorporating three parts: (1) demographic information, (2) translanguaging belief, and (3) translanguaging practice. The second section detailed teachers' perceived value in using different languages and modalities. The third section required teachers to share their past experiences in mobilising these resources, which helped compensate for the limited duration of classroom observation.

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

The data was collected through classroom observation and semi-structured interviews in the second semester of the 2023-2024 academic year. Before conducting the research, ethical approval was obtained from the university where the researchers were attached. First, classroom observations were conducted to investigate how teachers exercised translanguaging pedagogy. To this end, the researchers sought help from the school principal, who provided a list of potential participants with the contact information. Invitation emails were sent to teachers across different disciplines except the English language, in which the consent form and participation information sheet were attached, and the research topic, purpose, and follow-up procedures (classroom observation and face-to-face interview) were reiterated. They were also told that the identifying information would never be disclosed for any purpose. Seven male teachers expressed willingness and provided a timetable for the class schedule. Two consecutive lessons for each participant were observed and video-recorded. The camera was positioned at the back of the classroom with participants' consent. Second, according to teachers' availability, the interview was conducted individually and audio-recorded within one or two days after the observation. Each interview lasted 30-50 minutes.

3.5 Data Analysis

The video recordings of classroom observations were watched twice to identify translanguaging practices involving languages other than English and coordinated with different modalities. The identified instances were transcribed verbatim and coded thematically following [Braun and Clarke's \(2006\)](#) proposed approach for thematic analysis. For semi-structured interview data, all the interviews were transcribed and analysed in NVivo 12, focusing on its content. Researchers repeatedly read the transcripts and labelled all data with initial codes, which were further compared and contrasted iteratively to find out their underlying patterns. Based on the recurrent patterns, themes were developed and named to accurately capture teachers' translanguaging beliefs and practices, addressing RQs 1 and 2. For example, 'If I am speaking in Chinese or a different language, I am not helping the student progress' was coded as 'overemphasis on English acquisition' under the theme of 'resistant belief'. This study adopted the inductive coding approach ([Braun & Clarke, 2006](#)). Both data sources were undertaken using an integrative and iterative approach and triangulated with field notes. The interview transcripts and initial codes were sent to the participants for member checks to ensure the study's validity.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the findings from the interviews and observations on the foreign teachers' beliefs and practices. The data analysis on different beliefs and practices is unpacked in the following sections.

4.1 Foreign Teachers' Translanguaging Beliefs

Based on their responses during the interview sessions, the teachers' beliefs were categorised into two primary types: resistant beliefs and supportive beliefs. Although these categories are interrelated, and teachers often express tentative or uncertain beliefs about their pedagogical approaches, each provides a general overview of how teachers view the use of holistic multilingual and multimodal resources in EMI classrooms.

4.1.1 *Resistant belief*

The first theme was resistant beliefs, with four teachers (T1, T2, T3, and T4) harbouring strong reservations about translanguaging, reflecting a virtual stance within [Macaro's \(2009\)](#)

framework. The data identified five recurrent concerns that teachers expressed when considering language use: (a) overemphasis on English acquisition, (b) English-based examinations, (c) institution's overarching goal, (d) English as lingua franca and (e) low English proficiency threshold.

First, overemphasis on English acquisition is the major impediment. Most respondents argued that using L1s could reduce students' exposure to an immersion environment, thereby hindering them from improving their English proficiency. A typical quote came from T1: "If I am speaking in Chinese or a different language... I am not improving their English listening skills". T2 also said, "Too much use of Chinese language may deviate from understanding English properly". These two statements reflect teachers' long-held ideology of language separation, with which teachers worried about the potential interference of L1s with English learning, as Fang and Hu (2022) and Karakaş (2023) pointed out.

The second factor was the English-based examinations. As examinations were conducted exclusively in English, the interviewed teachers believed that using students' L1s in teaching was meaningless because non-English characters would never appear on the papers.

- (1) All assignments, homework, assessments, question papers, and everything else are in English. (T2)

The extract indicates that these teachers viewed English as a tool for evaluating students' academic achievement. Exam-oriented pressure that prevented teachers from embracing the translanguaging approach was also found in Nyimbili and Mwanza's (2021) study, where hybrid language use did not attain the expected ends in a primary multilingual classroom of Lundazi District.

Third, teachers' reluctance to deploy students' entire linguistic repertoire was also primarily attributed to the institution's overarching goal of preparing students to study abroad in English-speaking countries.

- (2) The primary purpose of coming to an international curriculum and learning all the subjects in the English language is for the students to move out from this country and go to university abroad. (T3)

The statement demonstrates the teachers' recognition of the value of immersing students in an all-English environment to familiarise them with the context when pursuing their studies in English-speaking countries. In this view, they are responsible for cultivating English-only settings, mirroring universities in Anglophone countries.

Fourth, English as a lingua franca was also acknowledged as a significant barrier, which could be understood in two ways: (1) teachers' inability to understand students' L1 and (2) students' inability to understand languages other than English. From the teachers' perspective, they could not effectively manage the classroom and realise the inappropriate use of languages instantly if they cannot understand it; as T1 stated: "If they speak Chinese, we do not understand them. They do not understand us. Everything is disturbed". He further provided a detailed example regarding the use of other languages during his lessons, which left him with a sense of losing control over the students.

- (3) I remember two Russian kids. One was bullying the other, and they were speaking Russian. I was not aware of it till one started crying. (T1)

From students' perspective, some teachers believed that students would complain if other languages were adopted due to the complex linguistic backgrounds among learners. It echoes Vaish's (2019) study, where a 'super-diversity' of language backgrounds among the student body resulted in negative attitudes towards teachers' translanguaging attempts. T4 provided an example comparing the current classroom situation with his past teaching experience, where all students had the same L1.

- (4) For example, previously, I taught in a school where all students were from the same background and spoke the same language. So, there, I could use my language. (T4)

The last common concern is the low English proficiency threshold for subject learning, particularly emphasised by hard science teachers. They noted difficulties in understanding subject matter would not arise, as they employed various supplementary cues alongside discursive practices during science instruction. These cues included printed materials, formulas, and equations, all carrying crucial information accessible to every student, as captured in the following excerpt:

- (5) Standard is not as high as in other subjects, where we have too much, you can say, written stuff. Here, we have the technical stuff. Moreover, for the technical, we have the formulas and different equations...So, for that, the little English is again fine. (T3)

This finding regarding the impact of disciplinary differences in teachers' translanguaging stance accords with some previous observations. A potential reason is attributed to the lower discipline-specific language needs of hard sciences, which result in smaller reliance on translanguaging compared to social science lecturers (e.g., [Inci-Kavak & Kırkgoz, 2022](#); [Karakaş, 2023](#)).

Four foreign teachers participating in this study held resistant beliefs toward translanguaging pedagogy. Five identified factors from personal and institutional levels refrained them from embracing flexible language use.

4.1.2 Supportive belief

The second theme was supportive belief. T5, T6, and T7 expressed contrasting perspectives on deploying students' L1s, emphasising their positive impact on teaching and learning. Such a supportive perspective aligns with the optimal position advocated in [Macaro's \(2009\)](#) framework, which promotes flexible language use to enrich learning experiences. Their comments in favour of the translanguaging stance are categorised into two sub-themes, as the translanguaging facilitates (a) a better understanding of disciplinary matters and (b) the establishment of an engaging learning environment.

Firstly, these three teachers acknowledged that exploiting students' L1s could significantly facilitate and enrich their comprehension of the subject matter. They believed that blending English and their L1s could significantly enhance students' learning process, making it more accessible, precise, and comprehensive. T6 provided a typical quotation regarding this pedagogical affordance:

- (6) Definitely. If you give instructions in Chinese to some students, it will be quite easy. (T6)

T5 provided an alternative perspective that flexibly switching between English and students' L1s was an effective means to dismantle linguistic barriers, thus ensuring every student grasped the content precisely as intended.

- (7) I must use language to help them understand the academic goals and the learning perspective. (T5)

Likewise, T7 commented on using students' L1s and explained that it could help students understand the subject content and fulfil the pedagogical tasks in a manner that sole reliance on English might only partially achieve. Similar findings were also shown in [Fang and Liu's \(2020\)](#) study, where some teachers realised the ideational functions of translanguaging to draw on a full range of linguistic resources for instruction reinforcement.

- (8) I do believe that the task can be achieved without using the language, but the ratio and percentage will be low. It could be 70% without using the other language, but if I use a different language, it will become 100%. (T7)

In effect, they realised that some students hesitated to give responses due to their difficulty and lack of confidence in expressing themselves in English, thereby silencing some students. In

this regard, it was believed that leveraging students' L1 could make every student feel free and motivated to participate in discussion.

- (9) I think this is a good connection and a good way of building rapport between the student and the teacher. (T5)

T7 also advocated for the emotional benefits of translanguaging in fostering students' responsiveness in class, as found by [Back et al. \(2020\)](#). He emphasised that if students were allowed only to use English, "they can answer me in English, but not fluently. Like, in one line, just the keywords". In contrast, when students were allowed to use Chinese for a response, he added, "They can speak very well. They can speak for one hour".

Three teachers recognised that flexible translanguaging strategies are needed in classrooms for academic and affective purposes, thus holding supportive beliefs towards language choices. It is noteworthy that none of the teachers fell into the maximum category of [Macaro's \(2009\)](#) framework due to their lack of awareness regarding official language regulations, thus eliminating the need to navigate between an English-only policy and their instructional requirements, as noted in previous research ([Fang & Liu, 2020](#)). This underscores the variability in the perceived value of translanguaging influenced by internal and external factors like entrenched beliefs, school language guidelines, and the linguistic backgrounds of students, rendering it a nuanced approach.

4.2 Foreign Teachers' Translanguaging Practices

The translanguaging practices were categorised based on different stakeholders: self-use of L1s, encouragement of students' use, and bilingual assistant teacher. Typical examples of the practices were selected from interview and classroom data for verbatim transcription and thematic coding.

4.2.1 Self-use of L1s

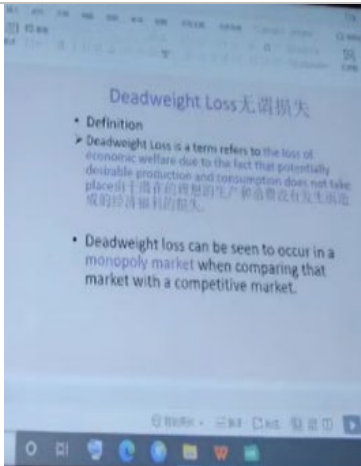
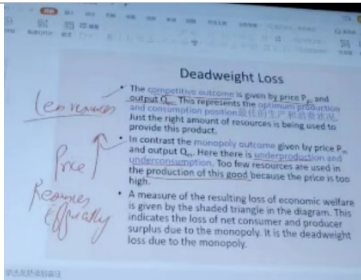
Self-use of L1 refers to teachers' use of L1 expressions while teaching, whether in discursive activities or written formats. Under this theme, two sub-themes emerged: (a) code-switching and (b) integration of L1 resources. Teachers' flexible language use was also coordinated with nonverbal behaviours and spatial resources in these cases, as found in [Tai's \(2021\)](#) and [Wong and Tai's \(2023\)](#) studies.

First, code-switching refers to the discursive practice of moving back and forth between two named languages ([Riehl, 2005](#)). In this case, the translingual practice mainly served the function of knowledge construction and interpersonal meanings. For example, Extract 10 came from a T7 lesson. In the extract, one student was reading aloud one passage. T7 interjected and pointed out the hominids who inhabited the distant era in the Beijing area (line 1). He verbally initiated a question in Chinese that '这个是真是 (This is really) a 老北京人 (old Beijinger), right?' He highlighted the prehistoric man's similarity with the students, then elicited their differences to make students feel related to their origins. Therefore, it fulfilled the dual functions of knowledge construction and interpersonal relations.

- (10) 1#T7 : Five thousand years was a long time before the evolution of Homo sapiens. During that period, there were other hominids, such as Homo erectus. So this guy 这个是真的 (this one is really) a 老北京人 (old Beijinger), right?
2#T7 : Who is a 老北京人 (old Beijinger) here?
3#S1 : Me.
4#T7 : You? Whose grandparents are living in Beijing? You?
5#T7 : You reckon that this guy is a 老北京人 (old Beijinger), but he's a completely different species, right? So, you could technically say he's a 北京人 (Beijinger) because these are from this area, but you wouldn't really say you share any kind of common traits or culture with it with a prehistoric man, right?

Second, integrating L1 resources means students' L1s appear in written format. This practice was employed in translation and longer texts. The two lesson moments of T1 below are typical examples for illustration. In Table 2, two Chinese translations were spotted in PPT slides, while T1 introduced a new terminology, 'deadweight loss'. In the first screenshot, two Chinese translations were identified as “无谓损失” and “由于潜在的理想的生产和消费没有发生而造成潜在的经济福利的损失”. These two examples were a literal word-for-word translation of the term 'deadweight loss' and its definition, respectively. Likewise, in the second screenshot of Table 2, T1 placed the Chinese phrase “最佳生产和消费状况” alongside its English equivalent. They functioned as scaffolding strategies to interpret existing information in PPT slides, thus promoting a deep understanding of subject matters for students.

Table 2. Economics lesson observation.

Time	Teacher Talk	Screenshot	Remarks
27:10	So, next one is deadweight loss. What is deadweight loss actually? So, deadweight loss means that, first of all, we need to discuss its definition. What actually deadweight loss is? So, deadweight loss means that it is actually the loss of economic welfare due to the fact that potentially desirable production and consumption does not take place. It means that deadweight loss is basically a term that refers to the loss of economic welfare.		As can be seen in the PowerPoint slides, the Chinese translations of 'deadweight loss' and its definition were presented.
29:14	What is your outcome in terms of competition? Whether you can get something, you can get some benefit or not, just you can say it's just output. So, this represents the optimum production and consumption positions and that the main important thing is that the right amount of resources is being used to provide this product.		Chinese translation for 'optimum production and consumption position' was shown in PowerPoint slides.

4.2.2 Encouragement of students' uses

It is a common perspective among interviewed teachers that translanguaging was frequently encouraged in their classrooms. They particularly highlighted its role in fostering brainstorming and peer support. Some interviewees even actively endorsed a more flexible language use, encouraging students to respond to questions in whichever language they felt most comfortable with. This approach alleviates students' anxiety in expressing their ideas and promotes deeper engagement and collaboration in the classroom.

All teachers shared past experiences in actively grouping students with the same L1s during small group discussions. They agreed that combining English and L1 was beneficial when more English-proficient students aided those struggling to understand all-English instruction. This approach echoes [García and Li's \(2014\)](#) assertion that teachers in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms should act as facilitators, establishing small-scale translanguaging spaces within student groups, empowering them to engage in collaboration, idea-sharing, and mutual support for each other's educational development. It also supports the 'zone of proximal

development' in Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural learning theory, as students can use their entire linguistic repertoire with guidance from more capable and proficient peers to accomplish tasks beyond their individual capabilities. These practices also align with findings from previous empirical studies, such as Thongwichit and Ulla's (2024) research on Thai English university instructors and Mbirimi-Hungwe's (2020) study on multilingual students in South Africa. Both studies identified group discussions as a proper site for translanguaging pedagogy. For instance, T6 recounted a scenario where he strategically paired students who share the same linguistic background, enabling them to assist each other, as seen in the case of a French-speaking student who relied on an English-French bilingual peer for translation and guidance.

- (11) We try to sit the students who can speak the same language together. If one of the students understands something, he can easily explain it to the other student. (T6)

In addition to promoting the use of Chinese in group discussions, peer assistance, and brainstorming sessions, four foreign teachers (T1, T2, T5 and T7) also encouraged students to articulate their thoughts or discussion results in any language they preferred. This approach could elicit more in-depth and complicated responses as it removed the constraint of language issues. Then, other classmates could translate the L1 answers into English to help teachers understand what that student expressed, which, in turn, allowed for cross-language communication and comparison, thereby facilitating English language acquisition. This practice was reflected in T2's statement.

- (12) They [students] explain [in Chinese], and they write on the board, and the other students help me understand what that student taught. (T2)

It demonstrates that foreign teachers did not frequently use languages other than English alone in their teaching practices. However, they consistently encouraged students to articulate their thoughts effectively in L1s and foster substantial peer interactions. Teachers' encouragement of Chinese response was also reflected in the classroom observation dataset. One such moment was found in a short dialogue between T1 and his student in a question-and-answer session.

- (13) 1 #T1: What is the market failure? ...What are the reasons behind that?
2#S : Public goods in the market economic system 产生 (cause) market failure.
3#T1 : Exactly. Too important.

In this case, when T1 asked about the attributes of market failure, one student responded with a complete sentence, albeit replacing the verb with a Chinese translation (line 2). Nonetheless, the primary content was expressed in English, thus posing no obstacle for T1 to understand students' answers. T1 immediately replied, 'exactly', to show his agreement (line 3). This example demonstrates the common situation where teachers did not push students to respond fully in English as long as the meaning could be delivered as intended. Such practices were also observed in Karabassova and Isidro's (2020) study, where students naturally responded to teachers' questions in their L1.

4.2.3 Bilingual assistant teacher

Despite not being captured in observations, some respondents stated that a bilingual instructional assistant would enter the classroom if students applied. The assistant teacher would provide translations orally whenever students had difficulty understanding disciplinary matters in English. In this regard, though foreign teachers did not directly use students' entire linguistic repertoire, their L1s were still used and taught by others.

- (14) There is a special needs support department. The bilingual assistant teacher comes to class, and if they find that a particular student isn't able to understand or is struggling, they sit with that student in the class. They translate and help that student understand. (T2)

Similarly, T1 mentioned collaborating with a bilingual assistant teacher who could translate complex economic terms like econometrics, fundamental rights, and economic stability into Chinese.

5. CONCLUSION

Our study aims to explore the beliefs and practices of translanguaging among foreign EMI teachers at an international school in mainland China. The findings expose a general reluctance among foreign EMI instructors to adopt translanguaging fully, but they also underscore the potential advantages of integrating adaptable language strategies in educational settings. Teachers may create a more comprehensive and effective learning environment by recognising and utilising students' linguistic capabilities. This examination contributes to the ongoing discourse on translanguaging in EMI contexts, furnishing valuable insights into the convictions and methodologies of foreign teachers in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms in the Chinese context.

However, this investigation is subject to certain constraints. Initially, the data primarily emanated from Pakistani instructors in a singular institution, thereby constraining the applicability of the results. Consequently, it is advisable to conduct quantitative inquiries to probe into the beliefs and practices of foreign instructors concerning translanguaging for a more thorough understanding. Secondly, in line with Borg's (2017) emphasis on the social aspect of examining teacher cognitions, it is imperative to scrutinise the viewpoints and practices of other stakeholders on translanguaging. Subsequent research endeavours should persist in exploring the intricacies of translanguaging, focusing on how diverse stakeholders, encompassing educators, students, and institutions, can collectively advocate for a more versatile and inclusive language usage approach.

REFERENCES

- Alasmari, M., Qasem, F., Ahmed, R. A., & Alrayes, M. (2022). Bilingual teachers' translanguaging practices and ideologies in online classrooms in Saudi Arabia. *Heliyon*, 8(9), e10537. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e10537>
- Allard, E. (2017). Re-examining teacher translanguaging: An ecological perspective. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 40(2), 116-130. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2017.1306597>
- An, J., Macaro, E., & Childs, A. (2019). Language-focused episodes are provided by monolingual teachers in English medium instruction science lessons. *Journal of Immersion and Content-based Language Education*, 7(2), 166-191. <https://doi.org/10.1075/jicb.18019.an>
- Anderson, J., & Lightfoot, A. (2021). Translingual practices in English classrooms in India: current perceptions and future possibilities. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 24(8), 1210-1231. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2018.1548558>
- Back, M., Han, M., & Weng, S. (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>
- Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th ed.). Multilingual Matters.
- Borg, S. (2017). Teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. In P. Garrett & J. M. Cots (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of language awareness* (pp. 75-91). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315676494-5>
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa>
- Breeze, R., & Roothoof, H. (2021). Using the L1 in university-level EMI: Attitudes among lecturers in Spain. *Language Awareness*, 30(2), 195-215. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2021.1903911>

- Brummitt, N., & Keeling, A. (2013). Charting the growth of international schools. In R. Pearce (Ed.), *International education and schools: Moving beyond the first 40 years* (pp. 25-36). Bloomsbury Academic. <https://doi.org/10.5040/9781472553034.ch-002>
- Burton, J., & Rajendram, S. (2019). Translanguaging-as-Resource: University ESL instructors' language orientations and attitudes toward translanguaging. *TESL Canada Journal*, 36(1), 21-47. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v36i1.1301>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2021). *Pedagogical translanguaging*. Cambridge University Press.
- Cogo, A. (2020). ELF and translanguaging: Covert and overt resources in a transnational workplace. In K. Murata (Ed.), *ELF research methods and approaches to data and analyses* (pp. 38-54). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003021650-5>
- Coleman, H. (2017). Development and multilingualism: An introduction. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Multilingualism and Development: Selected Proceedings of the 11th Language and Development Conference* (pp. 15-34). The British Council.
- Coral, J., Lleixà, T., & Ventura, C. (2016). Foreign language competence and content and language integrated learning in multilingual schools in Catalonia: An ex post facto study analysing the results of state key competences testing. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(2), 139-150. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1143445>
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (4th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Fang, F., & Hu, G. (2022). English medium instruction, identity construction and negotiation of Teochew-speaking learners of English. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2022.2051711>
- Fang, F., & Liu, Y. (2020). 'Using all English is not always meaningful': Stakeholders' perspectives on the use of and attitudes towards translanguaging at a Chinese university. *Lingua*, 247, 102959. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2020.102959>
- García, O., & Li, W. (2014). Language, bilingualism and education. In O. García & W. Li (Eds.), *Translanguaging* (pp. 46-62). Palgrave. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137385765_4
- Hu, G. (2008). The misleading academic discourse on Chinese-English bilingual education in China. *Review of Educational Research*, 78(2), 195-231. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654307313406>
- Hu, G. (2019). English-medium instruction in higher education: Lessons from China. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, 16(1), 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2019.16.1.1.1>
- Inci-Kavak, V., & Kırkgöz, Y. (2022). Attitudes towards translanguaging practices: A comparative study of literature and food engineering classes. *Sustainable Multilingualism*, 21(1), 105-142. <https://doi.org/10.2478/sm-2022-0015>
- Jia, W., Fu, X., & Pun, J. (2023). How do EMI lecturers' translanguaging perception translate into their practice? A multi-case study of three Chinese tertiary EMI classes. *Sustainability*, 15(6), 4895. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su15064895>
- Karabassova, L., & Isidro, X. S. (2020). Towards translanguaging in CLIL: A study on teachers' perceptions and practices in Kazakhstan. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 20(2), 556-575. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2020.1828426>
- Karakaş, A. (2023). Translanguaging in content-based EMI classes through the lens of Turkish students: Self-reported practices, functions and orientations. *Linguistics and Education*, 77, 101221. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2023.101221>
- Kim, G. J. Y., & Weng, Z. (2022). A systematic review on pedagogical translanguaging in TESOL. *TESL-EJ*, 26(3). <https://doi.org/10.55593/ej.26103a4>
- Li, W. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics*, 39(1), 9-30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx039>
- Macaro, E. (2009). Teacher use of codeswitching in the L2 classroom: Exploring 'optimal' use. In M. Turnbull & J. Dailey-O'Cain (Eds.), *First language use in second and foreign language learning* (pp. 35-49). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691972-005>

- Macaro, E., Tian, L., & Chu, L. (2018). First and second language use in English medium instruction contexts. *Language Teaching Research*, 24(3), 382-402. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818783231>
- Mbirimi-Hungwe, V. (2020). An insight into South African multilingual students' perceptions about using translanguaging during group discussion. *Applied Linguistics*, 42(2), 252-268. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amaa012>
- Nambisan, K. A. (2014). *Teachers' attitudes towards and uses of translanguaging in English language classrooms in Iowa* [Master's thesis, Iowa State University]. Iowa State University Digital Repository. <https://doi.org/10.31274/etd-180810-3781>
- Nyimbili, F., & Mwanza, D. S. (2021). Translanguaging challenges faced by teachers and learners in first-grade multilingual literacy classrooms in Zambia. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature*, 9(3), 20-31. <https://doi.org/10.20431/2347-3134.0903003>
- Pun, J. K. H., & Thomas, N. (2020). English medium instruction: Teachers' challenges and coping strategies. *ELT Journal*, 74(3), 247-257. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccaa024>
- Pun, J. K., Fu, X., & Cheung, K. K. C. (2023). Language challenges and coping strategies in English medium instruction (EMI) science classrooms: A critical review of literature. *Studies in Science Education*, 60(1), 121-152. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03057267.2023.2188704>
- Qiu, X., & Fang, C. (2019). Creating an effective English-medium instruction (EMI) classroom: Chinese undergraduate students' perceptions of native and non-native English-speaking content teachers and their experiences. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 25(2), 641-655. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1707769>
- Rahman, M. M., Singh, M. K. M., Johan, M., & Agmed, Z. (2020). English medium instruction ideology, management and practices: A case study of Bangladeshi Private University. *English Teaching & Learning*, 44, 61-79. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42321-019-00036-z>
- Riehl, C. M. (2005). Code-switching in bilinguals: Impacts of mental processes and language awareness. In J. Cohen, K. T. McAlister, K. Rolstad, & J. MacSwan (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Bilingualism* (pp. 1945-1959). Cascadia Press. <https://doi.org/10.5282/ubm/epub.91270>
- Romanowski, P. (2020). Perceptions of translanguaging among the students and teachers of EMI classrooms in Poland. *Lenguas Modernas*, 55(1), 151-165.
- Shi, L., & Rolstad, K. (2023). "I don't let what I don't know stop what I can do"—How monolingual English teachers constructed a translanguaging Pre-K Classroom in China. *TESOL Journal*, 57(4), 1490-1517. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.3204>
- Tai, K. W. H. (2021). Researching translanguaging in EMI classrooms. In J. K. H. Pun & S. M. Curle (Eds.), *Research methods in English Medium Instruction* (pp. 119-132). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003025115-9>
- Tang, K. N. (2020). Challenges and importance of teaching English as a medium of instruction in Thailand International College. *Journal of English as an International Language*, 15(2), 97-118.
- Thongwichit, N., & Ulla, M. B. (2024). Translanguaging pedagogy in Thailand's English medium of instruction classrooms: Teachers' perspectives and practices. *TESL-EJ*, 27(4). <https://doi.org/10.55593/ej.27108a7>
- Tong, F. H., & Shi, Q. (2012). Chinese-English bilingual education in China: A case study of college science majors. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(2), 165-182. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2011.607921>
- Tsou, W., & Baker, W. (2021). *English-medium instruction translanguaging practices in Asia*. Springer.
- Vaish, V. (2019). Challenges and directions in implementing translanguaging pedagogy for low achieving students. *Classroom Discourse*, 10(3-4), 274-289. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2019.1628790>
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: Development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.

- Wang, Z., & Shen, B. (2023). "I think I am bilingual, but. . .": Teachers' practices of and students' attitudes toward translanguaging in a Chinese intercultural communication class. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 34(1), 242-260. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12491>
- Wong, C., & Tai, K. W. (2023). "I made many discoveries for myself": The development of a teacher candidate's pedagogical knowledge of translanguaging. *System*, 116, 103058. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2023.103058>
- Xie, D., & Sun, Y. (2024). Decolonizing English academic writing education through translanguaging practices. *Linguistics and Education*, 81, 101307. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2024.101307>
- Yuan, Y. (2023). Stakeholder's perceptions of translanguaging in Chinese primary education. *International Journal of Learning and Teaching*, 9(1), 77-83. <https://doi.org/10.18178/ijlt.9.1.77-83>
- Yuvayapan, F. (2019). Translanguaging in EFL classrooms: Teachers' perceptions and practices. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 15(2), 678-694. <https://doi.org/10.17263/jlls.586811>
- Zhang, Y., & (Tony) Wei, R. (2021). Strategic use of L1 in Chinese EMI classrooms: A translanguaging perspective. In W. Tsou & W. Baker (Eds.), *English-medium instruction translanguaging practices in Asia* (pp. 101-118). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-16-3001-9_6

APPENDIX A

Coding Schema Sample for Danial

Interview Questions	Categories	Codes	Observation	Excerpts
How do you feel about using languages other than English such as Chinese in classes?	Multilingual beliefs	English as lingua franca	/	If they speak Chinese, we do not understand them. They do not understand us. Everything is disturbed
How do you feel about using non-verbal behaviours in classes?	Multimodal beliefs	Creating engaging environments	/	They feel interesting. It's amazing. Like some body actions and dancing.
How do you feel about using visuals and other meaning-making signs in classes?	Multi-semiotic beliefs	Helpful for concept explanation.	/	If we have a PPT, they have written everything, that this is our topic. We explain this topic, graph, mathematical model definitions, explanation, each and everything written in this. So, it's easy for them and easy for us to explain them, to understand them..
Do you switch between English and Chinese in class purposefully or unconsciously? And why?	Self-multilingual practices	Integration of L1 resources	Chinese translation of certain terminologies and corresponding definitions were presented in PPT slides.	Sometimes, bilingual handouts were distributed according to the need and requirement of the students.
Do you encourage students to use Chinese in your class? And why?	Student-multilingual practices	Eliciting in-depth answer	Students use a blend of English and Chinese for responses.	If you can invite them, okay, you can speak in Chinese. They can speak very well. They can speak one hour.

Do you use non-verbal behaviours in your classes? And why?	Self-multimodal practices	Classroom management	The teacher was always facing towards students.	I always use my eye contact to them to check if they are listening.
Do you encourage students to use non-verbal behaviours for academic purposes in your class? And why?	Student-multimodal practices	Mutual understanding	Students waved their hands while orally giving responses.	If any of the students cannot explain with words, then they are using their hand gestures.
Do you use visuals and other meaning-making signs in your classes? And why?	Self-multisemiotic practices	Knowledge construction	PPT slides were used throughout the lesson.	I always use my PPT. This will help students to understand very well.
Do you encourage students to use visuals and other meaning-making signs for academic purposes in your class? And why?	Student-multisemiotic practices	Dismantling language barriers	Students take pictures of PPT slides, from which the Chinese translations were shown promptly.	They have iPads, they have digital, like iPhones. And most of the students have a pen, a translator pen. So, if there's a Chinese, they do like this. It's translated into English.

APPENDIX B:**Observation Protocol**

Subject code :

Date/Time :

Grade :

Topic :

Pedagogical situation	Resources	Start time	Total	Remarks
Teachers' use of translanguaging				
To help low-proficiency students	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To quickly clarify during activities	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To build bonds with students	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To praise students	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To give feedback to students	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
For classroom management	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To give directions	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To describe vocabulary items	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To explain concepts	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			

Appendix B continued...

Encouragement of students' use				
To ask permission from teachers	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To enable participation by lower proficiency students	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To translate for a lower proficiency student	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To explain problems not related to content	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To brainstorm during class activities	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To promote assistance to peers during activities	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			
To discuss content or activities in small group	Languages other than English			
	Nonverbal behaviours			
	Visual cues			