Teachers' Translanguaging Practices and Anxiety in Implementation: An Exploration of Iranian EFL Teachers' Attitudes and Perceptions

by

Pegah Ghashghaie Nezhad

B.A., Sobh-e Sadegh Institute of Higher Education, 2015

M.A., Allame Tabataba'i University, 2018

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We acknowledge and respect the Lək̓wəŋən (Songhees and Xwsepsəm/ Esquimalt) Peoples on whose territory the university stands, and the Lək̓wəŋən and W̱SÁNEĆ Peoples whose historical relationships with the land continue to this day.

Supervisory Committee

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Dr. Li-Shih Huang, Supervisor,
School of Languages, Linguistics and Cultures

Dr. Moustapha Fall, Deprtmental Member
School of Languages, Linguistics and Cultures

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Abstract

This mixed-methods study explores Iranian English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging, their classroom practices, and their perceived anxiety, using an integrated analysis of questionnaire data ($N = 98$) and in-depth interviews ($n = 10$). Quantitative findings revealed that teachers strategically endorsed use of first language (L1) for specific purposes, with 77.6% supporting it to assist low-proficiency students and 56.1% recognizing its role in building rapport. A notable attitude-practice gap emerged, as reported classroom use of translanguaging ($M = 23.53$, $SD = 6.65$) exceeded attitudinal acceptance of it ($M = 18.46$, $SD = 3.78$). Qualitative analysis further illuminated four key dimensions: L1's cognitive utility for explaining complex grammar; its affective benefits in reducing anxiety; challenges posed by institutional English-only constraints; and teachers' professional anxiety regarding perceptions of linguistic deficiency. Correlation analyses revealed that while teachers' general attitudes were moderately associated with acceptance of student L1 use ($r = .32$, $p < .05$), stronger relationships existed between self-perceived language proficiency and practical challenges such as time management difficulties ($r = .67$, $p < .05$). The study advocates professional development and policy reform for support contextually grounded translanguaging practices. Overall, the findings show that translanguaging must be locally grounded, calling for pedagogical reforms that reflect teachers' lived realities, institutional pressures, and broader ideological environments.

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List of Acronyms

ELT	English Teaching Learning
L2	Target Language
L1	First Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
FLTE	Foreign language teaching anxiety
SEMM	Sequential explanatory mixed-methods (SEMM) design
TATTS	Teachers 'Attitude toward Translanguaging Scale
FLTAS	Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale

Chapter 1: Introduction

For a long time, monolingual language ideology has infiltrated English language classes, promoting the view that native English proficiency should be the ultimate goal of English language teaching (ELT). Naturally, such perceptions have dominated the mindsets of not just policymakers and language practitioners but also teacher educators. These stakeholders have historically promoted pure use of the target language (L2) in the classroom, often at the expense of students' first language (L1). Most class norms, when extrapolated, assume that the use of the L1 is not beneficial to language learning, thereby minimizing its occurrence within the language class (Cummins, 2007; Lin, 2015). Significant changes have occurred in the linguistic landscape of English over the past few decades, and traditional paradigms in this regard are being increasingly challenged (Malinowski et al., 2023). English is no longer solely a property of native speakers, but also a global lingua franca used by multilingual speakers to construct, express, and negotiate their social and cultural identities (Liu & Fang, 2017; Norton & Toohey, 2011). Consequently, this shift has necessitated rethinking how English should be taught and acquired by students, especially in multilingual contexts where students come with their distinct linguistic repertoires.

The term "translanguaging" has actually arisen from critiques of the rigid ideologies underlying a monolingual ideology in ELT. Cenoz and Gorter (2020) define translanguaging as a curricular strategy that takes into account the entire linguistic repertoire of students and demolishes the boundary divisions between languages. The fluidity of language is evident, and the dynamic matters with which multilingual individuals draw on their linguistic resources in the making of meaning, communication, and learning (García & Li, 2014; Li, 2011). In this light, the approach starkly challenges the traditionalistic monolingual view that enforces stringent

separateness of and marginalizes the L1 of many students. Recent studies have highlighted the benefits attributed to translanguaging in ELT, such as improved learning of content, better classroom management, and stronger teacher-student relationships (Ferguson, 2003; Lin, 2015). However, there is still inconsistent implementation of translanguaging in various EFL contexts, especially in regions where monolingual ideologies are deeply entrenched (Fang et al., 2023; Wang, 2022). This inconsistency is problematic as it often stems not from strategic choice, but from a misalignment between teachers' pragmatic use of students' linguistic resources and restrictive institutional policies that favour monolingual approaches (García & Li, 2014). This conflict forces teachers into a difficult position, contributing to the anxiety and attitude-practice gap that is central to this study, as they navigate the tension between research-informed practice and top-down mandates.

In many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, such as those in Asia, English language instruction has also been influenced by extensive national curricula and policies that prioritize economic progress through global participation (Pan & Pan, 2010; Rabbidge, 2019). The emerging new body of research reveals that using L1 strategically can ease and facilitate comprehension, teach complex structures, and create an environment conducive to learning (Bustos-Moraga, 2018; De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009). Translanguaging as a pedagogical practice is more than just incorporating L1 into the classroom, as it involves intentionally alternating between languages for both receptive and productive purposes, allowing students to utilize their entire language repertoire to learn (García & Li, 2014). This viewpoint presents a challenge to the deficit view of language learners and advocates for a holistic discourse that appreciates their multilingual citizenship (Rabbidge, 2019).

Translanguaging appears to have great potential, and yet it poses its own challenges. Notably, in such settings where monolingual theory prevails, teachers are anxious about applying translanguaging practices. Such anxiety may stem from uncertainty in applying translanguaging to their teaching, fear of judgment, or simply from factors related to adherence to established practices (Back et al., 2020; Rivera & Mazak, 2017). Although some studies have concentrated on students' anxiety regarding translanguaging, there is a clear scarcity of empirical research that has delved into teachers' perceptions, especially in EFL settings like Iran. So far, only one inquiry has addressed EFL teachers' anxiety and translanguaging (Cenoz et al., 2022) across contexts, thereby warranting further studies in this area.

The present study investigates this apparent gap by studying Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes towards translanguaging practices and their experienced anxiety in these implementations. By mapping the relationship between translanguaging and teacher anxiety, this study contributes to the expanding literature on multilingual pedagogies that have implications for ELT. In this way, it aims to unveil possibilities for informing translanguaging practice in EFL classrooms, especially in the context of the predominance of the monolingual ideology.

Thus, this research has merit in teacher education and professional development programs, but particularly in EFL contexts, where any form of integration between L1 and translanguaging is often viewed as taboo (Bustos-Moraga, 2018; Ortega, 2019). This study is expected to hold promises for understanding teachers' attitudes and perceptions towards translanguaging and, consequently, challenging monolingual norms and working towards a more inclusive ELT that appreciates the multilingual repertoires of students. It also aims to offer practical suggestions to alleviate teacher anxiety and provide a more propitious environment for implementing translanguaging practices. By doing so, this research contributes to the broader

discourse on multilingualism in ELT and the shift from monolingualism toward plurilingualism in language education. By shifting teachers' voices and experiences, this research bridges the gap between theory and practice, yielding potential insights into education, policy, and research. In an evolving global linguistic ecology, it becomes pertinent to adopt pedagogies that reflect the realities of multilingual learning and equip teachers with the capacity to navigate the complexities of language of instruction teaching in diverse contexts.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter reviews the literature on translanguaging by first tracing its historical development and theoretical foundations. It then outlines the key objectives and pedagogical advantages of translanguaging in foreign language education. Subsequently, the chapter addresses the practical challenges and teacher concerns related to its implementation. Finally, it synthesizes empirical studies on translanguaging to ground the discussion in real-world applications and evidence.

2.1 The History and Development of Translanguaging

The evolution of translanguaging has been remarkably significant, establishing it as a transformative approach in bilingual and multilingual education (García & Li, 2014). While the term "translanguaging" was originally coined by Welsh educationalist Cen Williams (1994) to describe a specific pedagogical strategy for alternating languages in bilingual classrooms, its theoretical foundations and applications have since expanded far beyond its initial conception. Williams' original design was systematically integrated two languages within instruction, but contemporary scholarship has reconceptualized translanguaging as both an instructional practice and a theoretical lens for understanding multilingual communication (García & Li, 2014). The Welsh term "trawsieithu" was first proposed by Williams, along with his co-teacher, Dafydd Whittall, during an in-service course for deputy headteachers in Llandudno, North Wales. This was later translated into English as “translinguifying” before being further refined into “translanguaging” after discussions between Williams and Colin Baker (Baker, 2003, 2011; Williams, 1996).

Translanguaging, in its earliest definition, was understood as a learning experience wherein a student would receive knowledge in one language and produce output in another. The condition for its application was that students must fully understand the input before being able

to use it effectively in the alternate language. In this manner, both input and output would reinforce understanding and proficiency in the language (Williams, 1996). Williams pointed out that translanguaging is not merely translating words; it involves processing and relaying meaning, demanding deeper cognitive involvement and dual-language processing skills. Williams also acknowledged the significance of translanguaging theory itself, extending beyond its pedagogical framework**.** He referred to translanguaging as a kind of competence among bilinguals. It is the dynamic interaction of two languages that produces a better understanding and communication. From a cognitive perspective, he noted that translanguaging engages higher mental processes, including listening and reading, checking and accommodating information, and selecting and retrieving linguistic resources for speaking and writing (Williams, 1996). It has been suggested that the interplay of the two languages not only strengthens learning but also assists in the balanced bilingualism and academic development (Baker & Wright, 2017).

Williams used examples of Jacobson's (1983, 1990) purposive coordinated use of two languages and Faltis' (1990) discussion of switching cues. He emphasized the importance of translanguaging, which focuses on the integrated and natural mixing of two languages, allowing one language to complement the use of another in developing the learner's proficiency in both. This view embodies a child-centered approach, where the emphasis is on the active role of the learner in creating meaning from their linguistic repertoire.

Translanguaging was initially seen as a technique for sustaining and promoting bilingualism in contexts where students had a fair degree of proficiency in both languages. Williams (2002) argued that translanguaging would not work for beginners, who need to be able to process and convey meaning across languages. Hence, it is better for fostering high levels of bilingualism and helping cognitive and academic development. Translanguaging practices placed

Welsh-alike bilingual teaching within a schoolwide approach that emphasizes the child's use of the two languages, rather than the teacher's pedagogical role. Williams (2003) proposed that translanguaging often utilizes the child's strong language to compensate for their weaker language, thereby fostering balanced bilingualism. This practice, which supports the empowerment of learners while integrating both school and home languages, could align with a wider range of principles of collaborative learning and dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2020).

The Foundation of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, written by Colin Baker (2001, 2006, 2011), for example, and, by extension, García's Bilingual Education in the 21st Century (2009), have contributed to popularizing and expanding the use of translanguaging. García, in particular, redefined the term as a dynamic, fluid, and non-isolating practice that encompasses aspects beyond code-switching, thereby highlighting the interrelated and integrated nature of the language repertoires of multilingual speakers (García, 2009).

Both García and Sylvan (2011) considered translanguaging the answer to Western monolingual ideologies where language learning was articulated in an oblique, exclusive, or divided fashion. Therefore, this perspective resonated in schools, learning institutions, and educational institutions worldwide, thereby finding a place in the bilingual and multilingual horizons. The term has since evolved beyond its original reference to actual classwork to encompass all sociolinguistic and cognitive processes, reflecting the flow and interconnectedness of multilingual communication.

2.2 Translanguaging in Language Education

Translanguaging, as a theory and a teaching approach, has become revolutionary in mitigating the impact of language education limitations (García & Li, 2014). Rejecting monolinglossia by emphasizing the fluidity and wholeness with which bilingual and multilingual agents apply

linguistic repertoires, it promotes the strategic and free exercise of several languages among bilinguals and multilinguals for communication and meaning-making (Liu & Fang, 2020). As García (2009) defines it, translanguaging refers to the act of drawing on an individual's full linguistic repertoire to communicate meaningfully. Baker and Wright (2017) described it as a cognitive activity in which languages are tools for meaning-making, experience formation, and knowledge development. In this light, translanguaging has become a natural and normal practice for multilinguals, enabling them to transcend fixed linguistic boundaries and inclusively utilize their linguistic resources.

Canagarajah (2011) has defined the term translanguaging as the ability by which multilingual speakers negotiate between the different languages found in their repertoire, treating all the languages in their repertoire as an integrated system. The definition implies the existence of some language boundaries (García & Li, 2014), but it underscores the notion that multilingual speakers have a unified repertoire. Specifically, this conceptualization makes a case against viewing languages as independent and bounded, instead around the notions of fluidity and interconnectedness of linguistic resources (García, 2009). Translanguaging is based on the theoretical principle that it enhances metalinguistic awareness and understanding of content. In helping students draw on their whole linguistic repertoire, translanguaging promotes cognitive processes of organizing, elaborating, and synthesizing, thus facilitating content understanding (Lewis et al., 2012; Prilutskaya, 2021). The concept of translanguaging emphasizes the ability of multilingual speakers to strategically select and utilize features from their full linguistic repertoire to optimize communication (García & Li, 2014).

In recent years, translanguaging has come to mean incorporating all such multiplicities into multimodality and multimodal semiotics as critical resources in their construction (García &

Li, 2014). This includes gestures, objects, visual cues, touching, tone, sounds, and words (García & Li, 2014). They interpret translanguaging as the way multilingual speakers use, create, and employ different linguistic signs across contexts and participants to express their diverse subjectivities. The focus, then, shifts from switching between rigid language systems to invention and agency in an individual's communication. It is only code-switching that creates boundaries between languages; translanguaging, on the contrary, blurs them (Cenoz, 2017), viewing the linguistic practices of multilingual users as innovative and creative processes.

It has transformed language education worldwide into embracing an immersive instructional atmosphere rather than a monolingual one. Vogal and García (2017) state that translanguaging is an effective pedagogy that validates and employs linguistic practices to engage in teaching and learning. It sharply contrasts with the traditional Western paradigms that emphasize monolingualism, which have long dominated language education (García & Sylvan, 2011). Liu and Fang (2020) further state that translanguaging means the paradigm in which languages are conceptualized as separate is being dismantled and replaced by one that fosters a totalizing multilingualism as an interconnected system. Translanguaging draws deep inspiration from social-linguistic and psychological-linguistic research, reflecting the flexibility and adaptability of multilingual use (Wei, 2017).

As described in the literature, *pedagogical translanguaging* is the approach where educators strategically create opportunities for learners to practice translanguaging in the classroom. Cenoz and Gorter (2021) and Prilutskaya (2021) acknowledge the importance of creating pedagogical environments that value and utilize students' linguistic diversity. Lorenz et al. (2021) identify the five principles that underlie translanguaging in multilingual classrooms: (1) recognition of all resources that the learner linguistically possesses, (2) valuing linguistic

diversity, (3) shaping the awareness of metalinguistic nature, (4) making use of the languages present in the classroom, and (5) a holistic and fluid view of languages. These become operationalized in different instructional strategies, such as modeling translanguaging practices, providing multilingual materials, and fostering collaborative learning environments (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021; Kirsch, 2020). Such learning spaces are particularly significant in traditionally monolingual classrooms, as they provide a safe and inclusive environment where learners can express themselves without fear of judgment or embarrassment (Moody et al., 2019).

Translanguaging represents a shift in language education paradigms from monolingualism to a more integrated and dynamic approach to education. It is the all-inclusive use of students' diverse linguistic repertoires in creating a beneficial situation for metalinguistic awareness, understanding of the subject matter, and formation of collaborative learning space to celebrate diversity in language; however, they do come with pedagogical issues that will need constructing or realigning of instructional practices with principles of fluidity, flexibility, and inclusivity.

2.3 The Advantages of Translanguaging in Education

The switch to translanguaging instruction occurs rapidly in many schools, primarily due to concerns about the academic and emotional well-being of students from immigrant and minority language backgrounds. International benchmarking studies, such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), highlight the significant performance gap between these students and their peers (OECD, 2015). Translanguaging enables the whole linguistic repertoire of students to be utilized, thereby releasing learning and expression from their constraints (García & Wei, 2014).

Unlike transitional bilingual programs, which are language-specific, translanguaging aims to support all students, regardless of their language background (Sierens & Van Avermaet, 2014). It aligns the students' social and cultural worlds with global societies, encompassing diverse people, worlds, and ways of living with various possibilities. Through this process, students interact with peers from diverse linguistic backgrounds, fostering appreciation and use of linguistic diversity. Minority and majority language students gain the ability for intercultural competence and adaptability (García & Li, 2014; Marian et al., 2014; Ulum, 2024). Every day, new demands are placed on people by the work setting in most new workplaces and organizations, and these demands often involve multilingualism and cross-cultural communication.

Baker (2006, 2011) built upon William's ideas to identify four major advantages that translanguaging offers in education. The first is that translanguaging leads to a deeper understanding of subject content, forcing students to think in and internalize substance through multiple languages. Baker (2011) drew on Vygotsky's zone of proximal development and Cummin's (2008) interdependence hypothesis to argue that translanguaging facilitates transfer across languages, enabling students to engage more deeply with the material. Unlike learning experiences through a single language, where students repeat information in a language they do not fully understand, translanguaging requires them to actively think because they should digest and reprocess information in another language (Baker, 2011). It aligns with sociocultural theories of learning, which emphasize how language serves as a tool for cognitive development and social interaction (Swain et al., 2011). Translanguaging encourages using a student's non-dominant language in academia.

Baker (2011) argued that translanguaging prevented students from using only the strongest language for complex tasks, thus fostering balanced bilingual and biliterate. Minority language contexts are thus important, as students will otherwise forget their weaker language altogether due to the more dominant one. Moreover, translanguaging brings school to home, allowing students to discuss academic content with parents in their home language. It reinforces learning and facilitates parental involvement, especially when the language of instruction does not match the home one (Baker, 2011). Reprocessing school materials in their home language provides students with a deeper understanding and broader learning opportunities beyond the classroom. Finally, students with diverse proficiencies in the target language such as fluent speakers and beginning learners will be integrated through translanguaging. Teachers can support the simultaneous development of the language skills and content knowledge necessary to build an inclusive learning environment by intentionally using both languages (Maillat & Serra, 2009). This is also particularly beneficial in classes with immigrant or minority language students as it validates their languages while encouraging academic achievement.

Translanguaging is applicable not only to different languages but also within the same language, including dialects, colloquialisms, and everyday styles of communication (Alrayes, 2024; Otheguy et al., 2015). This capacity to integrate diverse linguistic forms promotes mutual understanding by validating students' entire communicative repertoires, a principle that aligns with Communication Accommodation Theory's emphasis on language adaptation for smoother cooperation (Meuter et al., 2015). This linguistic diversity becomes pedagogically valuable when leveraged to create inclusive, dynamic learning environments. Through translanguaging, the classroom transforms into a student-centered space where learners collaboratively construct knowledge, while teachers facilitate access to students' full linguistic repertoires (Beres, 2015).

This approach builds on the natural translanguaging practices that emerge organically among multilingual speakers, intentionally harnessing these spontaneous processes for educational benefit (García & Wei, 2014).

Translanguaging encompasses a broader strategy that engages all the learner's linguistic resources to acquire languages. Foreign language teachers, in turn, employ translanguaging to facilitate the explanation of complex concepts, raise awareness of language form, and convey meaning (Wang, 2019; Zhou & Mann, 2021). Translanguaging has achieved compelling student confidence, motivation, and, especially, the sense of security that enables them to learn more effectively (Gu et al., 2024; Ulum, 2024).

According to Peregoy and Boyle (2013), translanguaging has made students feel less anxious and has created an environment where they can take risks and express themselves freely. This viewpoint is also supported by studies such as Arumugam et al. (2017) and Barbu et al. (2020), which describe the cognitive and affective benefits of translanguaging. For example, Barbu et al. (2020) found that language alternation practices, including translanguaging, increased cognitive flexibility. Subon and Tarmim (2021) stated that students perceived it positively when presenting orally.

Translanguaging also aims to bridge the gap between students' diverse life-worlds and prepare them for globalized societies. There is also the promise that the recognition and practice of linguistic diversity would be quite beneficial to minority language students, while simultaneously granting majority language students intercultural competence and adaptability (García & Li, 2014). As the research landscape expands, translanguaging promises to redefine and reconstruct language education within more effective learning environments for all.

2.4 Objectives of Translanguaging in Foreign Language Classes

Translanguaging is a language teaching philosophy that sees communication as transcending any language-only verbal or even spatial modes (Canagarajah, 2018). This paradigm challenges traditional monolithic orientations by emphasizing the fluidity and interrelatedness of languages. As Canagarajah (2013) states, languages are not necessarily at war with each other; they complement each other in communication. Therefore, we have to reconsider the understanding that one language detrimentally interferes with the learning and use of another. The influences of one language on the other can be creative, enabling, and offer possibilities for voice.

Research identifies three primary functions of translanguaging in foreign language classrooms: assisting language learning, managing classroom activity, and building positive relationships. Hall and Cook (2012) enumerated these functions and emphasized their interrelationships as a contribution to creating effective learning environments. In the same vein, Littlewood and Yu (2011) delineate two distinct pedagogical objectives: core goals (focused on language acquisition) and framework goals (pertaining to classroom management and fostering a supportive learning environment). This distinction underscores the multifaceted relationship between translanguaging and education, where translanguaging serves not only as a linguistic tool but also as a means to achieve broader educational aims.

Theoretically, bilingualism is an asset under translanguaging pedagogy, wherein students' entire cultural and linguistic repertoires get engaged during the teaching-learning process (Tian & Shepard-Carey, 2020). It encourages teachers and learners to work through meaning-making and knowledge-construction processes, drawing upon their entire linguistic repertoire to optimize their learning and understanding potential. That is, all languages may be called upon "in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner to organize and mediate the

mental processes involved in understanding, speaking, literacy, and, not least, learning" to fulfil complex communicative intentions (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 1).

Classroom management therefore becomes another significant area for translanguaging application; otherwise, the teaching and learning process would be disrupted by the irregular functioning of these activities. This management dimension includes how teachers provide directions and maintain discipline in the classroom, as well as how they attract students' attention to specific tasks or content (Zhang et al., 2022; Wang, 2019). For example, in assessment and classroom management at Chinese universities, translanguaging enhances time-on-task, which is indicative of effective classroom management (Zhou & Mann, 2021). It creates a good learning environment with minimized confusion and maximized engagement when teachers use the familiar languages spoken by students alongside the target language to provide instructions (Jiang & Zhang, 2023). Cenoz and Gorter (2021) distinguished between pedagogical translanguaging and spontaneous translanguaging. Pedagogical translanguaging is implemented by the teacher through the strategic and purposeful use of different languages for input staging or output, as well as other classroom strategies. Spontaneous translanguaging refers to communication needs in a natural environment, rather than those predetermined. Both of them can coexist in the classroom context and have educational value (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021).

Another purpose of translanguaging is to build positive and healthy relationships and foster a sense of community within the classroom. By employing translanguaging, teachers aim to foster a safe and inclusive environment where students feel at ease being themselves and supporting one another (Zhou & Mann, 2021). Research with Turkish EFL students demonstrates that this approach reduces language-related anxiety and fosters cooperation by validating students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds—a process that builds mutual respect and rapport

essential for positive classroom climates (Yuzlu & Dikilitas, 2022). Moreover, translanguaging pedagogy opposes the L2-only mindset in L2 teaching. Input theory (Krashen, 1981) has been used to reinforce English-only policies as teachers believe their students are off-task or disruptive when using their home languages (Macaro, 2005).

Translanguaging aligns fundamentally with core principles of quality teaching, particularly cognitive activation and classroom management, while simultaneously supporting positive classroom climate development (Rusticus et al., 2023; Wang, 2022). Pianta and Hamre (2009) formulate three dimensions of teaching quality: instructional support, classroom organization, and emotional support. Klieme et al. (2009) propose a similar model comprising three interrelated dimensions: cognitive activation by creating and maintaining an orderly and productive learning environment through clear expectations, routines, and effective discipline, and classroom management by creating a positive and inclusive classroom climate where students feel safe, respected, and motivated to learn. The cognitive dimension aligns with the instruction support dimension of Pianta and Hamre's (2009) model, nurturing critical thinking and conceptual understanding. Translanguaging stimulates students to engage their entire linguistic repertoire to explore and understand newly acquired knowledge, thereby accessing deep levels of learning (Lewis et al., 2012; Prilutskaya, 2021).

Clear instructions, when delivered through translanguaging strategies and supported by consistent classroom discipline, help teachers establish structure and order, transforming potentially chaotic learning environments into spaces of productive engagement (Wang, 2019; Zhang et al., 2022). This aligns with the classroom organization dimension of teaching quality, which emphasizes maximizing instructional time and minimizing disruptions (Pianta & Hamre, 2009). Conversely, translanguaging fosters a positive classroom environment that supports

students' linguistic identities and reduces anxiety by exposing them to risk-taking and engaging learning, thereby providing emotional support (Yüzlü & Dikilitas, 2022; Dryden et al., 2021). This means that the translanguaging practices is often associated with community and a sense of belonging, which are essential for students' motivation and well-being (Korpershoek et al., 2016).

Translanguaging pedagogy provides a theoretical and practical rationale for incorporating a decolonizing perspective into language teaching (Rajendram, 2022; Wang, 2024). It counters the paradigm of monolingualism and native-speakerism that arose in colonial times. The ideology itself promotes native speakers over others in linguistic terms, thereby making them the ideal models for EFL/L2 learners (Kiczkowiak & Lowe, 2024). Translanguaging pedagogy values these learners as emerging multilinguals and recognizes the legitimacy of their accents and linguistic practices (Cenoz, 2019). Thus, language learning now aims to develop into an effective multilingual speaker who utilizes English as another linguistic resource, rather than merely imitating native speakers (Wang, 2024).

2.5 Concerns about Implementing Translanguaging in Multilingual Classrooms

While translanguaging is increasingly accepted as a means of promoting learning and inclusion, several hurdles remain when teaching in multilingual classrooms with migration connections. Teachers, students, and parents are concerned about issues related to classroom management, exclusion, and fair treatment for both monolingual and multilingual students (Alisaari et al., 2019; Ticheloven et al., 2019). For example, one primary obstacle to implementing translanguaging is classroom management. Teachers worry about their authority, ability to discipline students, and monitoring of student activity (Santos et al., 2017).

From a cognitive perspective, using multiple languages in class may create an extraneous cognitive load for monolingual students as they process auditory input without comprehending its content (Sweller et al., 2019). This ultimately leads to the potential for confusion, time wastage on other tasks, and heightened disturbances in class, affecting the perception of classroom management. Teachers' apprehension about losing control over monitoring student activities and time on task attest to the practical challenges associated with the actualization of translanguaging. In addition, fears about exclusion and marginalization for monolingual students highlight the need for strategies that foster linguistic inclusion and equitable participation.

2.6 Rethinking Multilingualism: Dynamic Bilingualism and Translanguaging, Code-Switching, Translation, Co-teaching, and

The study of bilingualism and multilingualism has advanced to embrace more inclusive approaches, emphasizing the integrated and dynamic use of linguistic resources. This paradigmatic shift is central to dynamic bilingualism and translanguaging, which challenge traditional views of languages as monolithic and separate systems. Translanguaging is the key process in dynamic bilingualism, involving the transgression of linguistic boundaries through the holistic and tactical use of a speaker's languages, thereby transcending boundaries between linguistic systems. Complementing these concepts are practices such as *code-switching*, *translation*, and *co-languaging*, which further support multilingual learners. Here, an exploration of these themes: the fluidity of dynamic bilingualism, the transformative potential of translanguaging, the communicative artistry of code-switching, the pedagogical value of translation, and the inclusive nature of co-languaging, are presented.

2.6.1. Dynamic Bilingualism and Translanguaging

Language study in bilingualism and multilingualism has undergone significant changes in recent years, with dynamic bilingualism and translanguaging emerging as central themes that challenge the conventional separation. These ideas emphasize the use of language resources in an integrated, fluid, and holistic manner to transform views on language education. Dynamic bilingualism, as described by Garcia (2009), refers to a theory that underlies the general understanding of the linguistic practices of multilingual individuals. In contrast to traditional concepts of bilingualism, which views languages as separate and discrete systems, dynamic bilingualism emphasizes the fluidity and interrelatedness of language abilities. This modification illustrates how multilingual speakers utilize their full linguistic resources to communicate, create meaning, and navigate diverse social contexts.

It is argued that languaging underpins dynamic bilingualism, which is characterized by the continuous use of language to construct meaning, communicate, and shape knowledge (Swain et al., 2009). This differs from the traditional conception of language as a highly fixed system, transforming that perception into an understanding of dynamic processes is what multilingual communication enables. In this perspective, translanguaging emerges as a key process in dynamic bilingualism, which involves the strategic deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire, encompassing both languages and modalities (Wei, 2011a).

Translanguaging turns on its head the paradigms accepted by various forms of bilingualism and multilingual education, including the misconception of diglossia: the different functional dichotomies between languages. For diglossic structures, one language typically dominates formal settings, such as in school, while the other serves informal contexts. Translanguaging advocates reject this separation and continue to use both languages flexibly in the same area (García, 2009). The transglossic describes the new shifts and movements reflected

by the multilingual classrooms of the 21st Century, wherein students use languages flexibly and with access to understanding and even knowledge building.

García (2009) used transglossia to denote various mutable permutations whereby language may survive co-existence and interconnections within a given intermeshed system. In transglossic arrangements, different languages are not given separate functions; rather, these languages may coexist or freely interact in functional relationships. This special condition can be observed in multilingual classrooms, where students from diverse linguistic backgrounds work collaboratively and utilize languages flexibly to learn. García (2009) stresses these three arrangements of strict separation, flexible convergence, and flexible multiplicity. Each represents a slightly different level of integration and flexibility in language use. The strict separation approach maintains languages as entirely discrete systems, prohibiting code-switching or cross-linguistic borrowing. This perspective, rooted in monolingual ideologies, often manifests in educational policies that enforce exclusive use of a target language. In contrast, flexible convergence permits strategic language interaction, acknowledging that borrowing and context-dependent code-switching can enhance communicative clarity. Here, languages coexist but retain functional boundaries. The most integrative approach, flexible multiplicity (or translanguaging), rejects such boundaries entirely. Instead, it frames multilingualism as a unified repertoire, where speakers dynamically deploy all linguistic resources to construct meaning, negotiate identity, and navigate cognitive tasks. By foregrounding language fluidity, translanguaging challenges traditional notions of linguistic compartmentalization, reflecting how multilinguals naturally experience and deploy their languages in practice (García, 2009).

2.6.2. Code-Switching and Translanguaging

Code-switching is defined as the instances within a single conversation or even within a complete sentence where one or more languages are alternated (Cook, 2001). Code-switching is seen as an artsy bilingual skill and sometimes even a tool for facilitating communication and understanding (Wei, 2011b). It may include intrasentential and intersentential code-switching, referring to code-switching within or between sentences, and is mostly used in bilingual classes as a scaffolded learning tool to clarify materials to be learned and to develop students' metalinguistic awareness (García, 2009).

It is widely accepted that code-switching and translanguage are comparable, but on a theoretical basis, they do not hold the same grounds (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Li, 2014). First, code-switching involves the use of a particular language's grammar in another, sometimes without regard for the nature of the switch, while the latter concept deals with the interrelationship and holistic use of a linguistic resource (García & Li, 2014). Translanguaging does not mean the mere inclusion of speakers switching between languages or alternating between different languages. Still, it refers to a unified linguistic space where all multilingual speakers can operate freely, deploying lexical and structural resources to attain communicative goals and comprehension (Otheguy et al., 2015).

Code-switching in the classroom is sometimes viewed as a form of scaffolding that clarifies lesson material and enhances students' metalinguistic awareness (García, 2009). Translanguaging, on the other hand, shifts the focus from separating languages to integrating them, acknowledging the permeable boundaries and cognitive benefits of using two or more languages simultaneously (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, in press). From a transcultural perspective, it also carries ideological implications that counter the long-standing monolingual tenor in bilingual education and promote a less exclusive and rigid ideology. Code-switching and

translanguaging differ in theory but refer to similar, if not identical, practices. For instance, responsible code-switching is a useful, planned alternation between languages that increases comprehension and reinforces lesson material (García, 2009); thus, it can be applied under this concept. Translanguaging recognizes maintaining code-switching within larger strategies for drawing on students' linguistic repertoires. However, it goes a step further than code-switching, encompassing a wide range of discursive and pedagogical practices, such as translation, co-languaging, and spontaneous language mixing.

Dynamic bilingualism and translanguaging signify a paradigm shift in the study of multilingualism, articulating a relatively fluid, integrated, and holistic approach to using language resources. These ideas provide a more equitable and inclusive framework for multilingual education, rejecting traditional notions surrounding language compartmentalization and diglossia. Translanguaging, in particular, offers a considered repertoire of strategies that can help maximize individual students' linguistic repertoires for cognitive and academic purposes, while also fostering their sense of belonging in heterogeneous learning environments. While code-switching remains an effective learning strategy, translanguaging takes it a step further by making languages work in tandem, thereby recognizing the linguistic identities of students. As a consequence, those who hold such ideas will then be responsible for laying the foundations for creating reasonably inclusive and effective multilingual settings.

2.6.3 Translation and Translanguaging

Pedagogical strategies have also taken another dimension: translation is employed to assist students' understanding of content for whom the target language is not their strongest language. The term refers to translating content into another language, commonly facilitating learning for

those who are not proficient in the language of instruction. Types of translations may include: (a) Whole Class Translation, in which teachers would jump in between languages to deliver instructions to all students with content comprehension, especially for classes where students' language proficiencies are mixed; (b) Translation for L2 Learners: in this case, teachers give their students explanation about student's L1 while the entire lesson in the target language; or (c) Translation of Subject-Related Terminology: translation by teachers to scaffold more specific terms or concepts for completing tasks and curriculum engagement (Jones & Lewis, in press).

Translation appears as those bilingual label quests where the teachers present terms in one language and provide explanations in the other language. This activity facilitates vocabulary learning and keeps the lesson active and inclusive (Creese & Blackledge, 2011). These practices underscore the pedagogical nature of translation in fostering bilingualism and promoting students' educational development. For instance, García and Kleifgen (2010) discussed translation episodes in ESL classrooms, where teachers employed a preview-view-review pedagogy to make content accessible to emergent bilinguals. Teachers might provide an overview of the lesson before teaching in English and annotate written material with translations; following these practices promotes students' engagement with the content while refining their English literacy skills (García & Kleifgen, 2010).

Although translation and translanguaging are often used interchangeably, they serve distinct purposes. In comparison, translation is seen as the sequestering of languages related to one another in terms of using one language for academic impartation while another for comprehension. In contrast, translanguaging understands the use of all possible linguistic repertoires to make meaning and engage with content (Williams, 2002). While translanguaging aims to holistically develop both languages in a learner's repertoire, translation can inadvertently

privilege the dominant language by positioning it as the primary reference point for meaning-making.

2.6.4 Co-Languaging and Translanguaging

To fully understand the pedagogical shift towards translanguaging, it is essential to examine its specific applications, such as co-languaging**.** García (2009) describes co-languaging as an arrangement in which curriculum content is delivered simultaneously to different language groups for students studying in a bilingual or multilingual classroom, where students tend to have varying proficiency levels in the languages. This approach can be implemented through forms of co-languaging. The first example would be using dual-language materials: making PowerPoint slides in both languages but marked with different colors or fonts, using audio sources, such as providing books on tape in two languages, allowing students to switch between languages, or group work encouragement such that students can use their favorite language during collaborative activities for peer support and understanding (García, 2009).

Co-languaging represents a dynamic approach to multilingual education that fundamentally challenges traditional compartmentalized models of language use. Rather than restricting specific languages to particular subjects, co-languaging operates through fluid integration across all learning contexts. This approach demonstrates supra-subject fluidity by interweaving languages naturally throughout the curriculum. Simultaneously, it exhibits supra-temporal dynamism by allowing language use to adapt organically to communicative needs rather than following rigid schedules (Bonacina-Pugh et al., 2021; Dikilitaş & Öztüfekçi, 2024). Moreover, this approach It necessitates flexible and simultaneous use of languages so that learners engage with content that aligns with their profiles in a way they consider advantageous to them. It is indeed the foundational principles of translanguaging that inform co-languaging

practices. Translanguaging theory posits that multilinguals have a single, unified linguistic repertoire, and pedagogical practices should leverage this entire repertoire for learning (Lewis, 2010). In this framework, co-languaging can be understood as a specific pedagogical application of translanguaging principles. As a structured sub-category of translanguaging, co-languaging specifically concerns the possibility of any student using multiple languages simultaneously to make the curriculum accessible or learnable. It indeed changes the currently different reactions being shown in understanding multilingualism in education, challenging any notions of language separation and stepping back from it, advocating for further flexible avenues of inclusion.

2.7 Language Teachers' Beliefs about Translanguaging

Teachers' perspectives on translanguaging are influenced by a combination of philosophical perspectives, school settings, and their own beliefs. This complex relationship often leads to a paradox in which many teachers recognize the value of translanguaging for supporting understanding, participation, and inclusion; however, these same teachers may decide not to enact using translanguaging in their classrooms based on their belief that it prevents students from acquiring the target language (Wang, 2019a).

Teachers' beliefs about pedagogy and how these beliefs are realized in classrooms have been a fundamental element in understanding effective language teaching (Chen & Goh, 2014; Kagan, 1992; Pan & Block, 2011; Pettit, 2011). Beliefs have long been recognized as significant factors in shaping human behaviour. Rokeach (1968) defined beliefs as propositions that can be inferred from an individual's words or actions, whereas Brown and Cooney (1982) focused on beliefs as dispositions to act. According to Pajares (1992), three characteristics are essential for teachers' beliefs, including, they are individualized, context-specific, and guide thinking and

actions. These characteristics thus highlight the personal and situated nature of beliefs, which significantly influence the way teachers conduct their work. Richards and Lockhart (2000) identified five domains of teacher beliefs with respect to language teaching: (a) beliefs about the nature of the English language, (b) pedagogical beliefs, (c) beliefs about learning, (d) beliefs about the curriculum, and (e) beliefs about the profession of language teaching. This framework has proven useful in categorizing and analyzing the complex nature of teachers' beliefs in language learning, setting the groundwork for further research.

Research suggests that the influence of beliefs on instructional decisions is considerable, particularly in contexts in which teachers may feel insecure about their teaching (e.g., Davison, 2004). In such cases, it is often the belief structures that override any meaningful consideration of practice; thus, the interplay between belief and practical knowledge is brought into focus (Chen & Goh, 2014; Chen & Squires, 2007; Pettit, 2011). Borg (2006) and Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) argue that language teachers 'classroom practices are closely tied to their beliefs about their roles and methods. Nevertheless, the relationship between beliefs and practices is not a straightforward, linear one. Assigning a certain linearity to belief-practice trajectories, Basturkmen (2012) claims that beliefs serve as a motive for classroom activities, but that experiences and reflection also alter those beliefs, creating a non-linear and interactive relationship between beliefs and practices. This nonlinearity is further complicated by context, including sociocultural factors (Holliday et al., 2010; Holliday, 2013) and prior experiences (Eraut, 1994), which form the foundations for teachers' professional and pedagogical beliefs.

In pedagogical approaches, translanguaging has become a buzzword that promises to utilize students' diverse linguistic repertoires and create inclusive learning environments. On the contrary, teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging range from strong resistance to full embrace,

depending on their philosophical positions, institutional policies, and personal beliefs. García et al. (2017) stress that stance is essential for successful translanguaging attempts. Stance refers to the philosophical, ideological, or belief system underlying teachers' pedagogical frames. For García et al., an underlying philosophy that actively values and leverages students' full linguistic resources is necessary if teachers are to intentionally utilize students' diverse linguistic repertoires as important sources of learning and validate their linguistic rights. Without such a stance, teachers might be hindered from fully adopting translanguaging as a pedagogical tool.

Numerous studies have demonstrated that teachers hold positive attitudes toward translanguaging, particularly in enhancing comprehension, engagement, and inclusivity (Alasmari et al., 2022; Almayez, 2022; Liu & Fang, 2022; Sun & Zhang; 2022; Jiang & Zhang, 2023). For instance, Nambisan (2014) surveyed 19 teachers in the USA and found that most teachers saw translanguaging as a good approach for various teaching/learning purposes, such as clarification, feedback, and praising learners. Likewise, Yuvayapan (2019) surveyed 50 English teachers in Turkey about the benefits of utilizing students' full language repertoire, especially to enhance their class participation. These findings are consistent with studies conducted in different contexts. Pinto (2020) analyzed the perceptions of Chinese teachers in higher education and found that a significant portion of respondents recognized the importance of using the students' L1 in the classroom. The participants viewed translanguaging as a good scaffolding technique for learning, particularly for students with lower English proficiency, and for establishing rapport. In-service teachers, as noted in the research by Deroo and Ponzio (2019), also recognize translanguaging as an inclusive practice that promotes the linguistic diversity of learners.

Language teachers perceived translanguaging pedagogy as the optimal scale for L1 use in the classroom (Chen et al., 2024). Studies of teacher attitudes, particularly in contexts similar to the present research, indicate that teachers often concur that L1 use should only be approved when it is used with caution (Hall & Cook, 2013), based on principles (e.g., scaffolding comprehension, maintaining classroom discipline, or facilitating metalinguistic awareness) (Alomaim & Altameemi, 2022), and for specific purposes (Edstrom, 2006). Research findings indicate that teachers often recognize the positive functions of using L1, including enhancing understanding of the learning content, helping maintain classroom order, developing positive relationships with learners, and providing increased opportunities for participation (Fang & Liu, 2020; Hamman, 2018; Zhou, 2021). Nonetheless, they seem to be worried that heavy L1 use may deprive students of opportunities and motivation to produce utterances in the TL (Hall & Cook, 2013). Most teachers seem to accept the notion of English mainly, instead of English only (McMillan & Rivers, 2011).

While some teachers extol the virtues of translanguaging, many also resist it (e.g., Anderson & Lightfoot, 2021; Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017). This resistance arises from fears surrounding the effects that translanguaging might have on learning their target language productively. Doiz and Lasagabaster (2017), for instance, had aspects of their survey of English medium instruction (EMI) teachers at the University of the Basque in Spain follow the EMI tandem practice of edifying plurilingualism and performing language exclusion: most of the participants expressed the opinion that their L1 should not be used and even perceived its usage as detrimental to foreign language acquisition. Similarly, Anderson and Lightfoot (2021), surveying 169 teachers in India, found that over half endorsed the minimal use of languages other than English in the classroom. Not surprisingly, Burton and Rajendram (2019), who

interviewed five English teachers at a Canadian university about their attitudes towards translanguaging, discovered that four of the subjects considered such practice a hindrance to their learners' English learning rather than an aid to their understanding. Wang (2019) added to this resistance in her case study, where some teachers expressed guilt for their continued departure from a target language orientation, while reverting to monolingualism in their teaching, although they occasionally translanguage.

In fact, many language instructors worldwide have reservations about using L1 during class due to their fear of being judged as ineffective teachers (Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015; Kiczkowiak & Lowe, 2024). Language teachers feel guilty when they use their mother tongue (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Many teachers paradoxically view L1 use as both regrettable and necessary—a cognitive dissonance that reflects unresolved tensions in language teaching theory and practice. Macaro (2006) rightly critiques this guilt as an unhealthy byproduct of reductive pedagogical debates. Kerr (2019) identifies four persistent myths that perpetuate a guilt-laden, restrictive stance toward L1 use in English language teaching. These beliefs stem from monolingual ideologies and are often uncritically adopted by teachers, learners, and administrators:

- Myth 1): Learners are supposed to learn to think in English while using of L1 does not let them do so;
- Myth 2): Using L1 will only increase more interference from L1;
- Myth 3): Time spending in L1 would have better results in studying English, and
- Myth 4): Translation is of no benefit in practicing a skill.

In an L2 classroom, using L1 excessively often raises concerns from teachers about being perceived as irresponsible or lazy; thus, teacher still regard maximizing input and output in L2 as

a golden rule of L2 learning and teaching. Such a monolingual belief, equating good teaching with exclusive use of the target language, has deep roots among administrators, teachers, and students everywhere (Inbar-Lourie, 2010). Therefore, even though L2 teachers recognize that L1 is necessary and may benefit the L2 teaching classroom, they would not want to be perceived as using L1 by their peers or even by their administrators.

Institutional policies, stakeholders' expectations, and personal ideologies, such as the idolization of monolingualism and anxieties about students' over-reliance on their L1, hinder the acceptance of translanguaging by teachers (Deroo & Ponzio, 2019; Yuvayapan, 2019). For instance, Doiz and Lasagabaster (2017) found that some teachers who oppose translanguaging tend to use their L1 in their teaching, thus indicating the mismath that exists between their beliefs and practices.

While there have been studies examining teachers' attitudes, research examining student attitudes remains scarce. According to Moody et al. (2019), students at the master's level generally conceptualize translanguaging as a regular practice conducive to L2 learning, hence recommending its inclusion in education. Additionally, according to Wang's (2019b) findings, international students of Chinese in Hong Kong exhibited positive attitudes towards using English in their classes. However, Wang (2019a) indicated that almost equal proportions of students preferred and opposed monolinguality and multilinguality, which highlights the need for further studies on students' perspectives.

2.8 Language Teacher Anxiety in Translanguaging Pedagogies

The construct of anxiety as a psycho-affective factor has received increasing attention in L2 education and research over the past decades (Dewaele et al., 2023; Song, 2024; Zhou et al.,

2023). Anxiety has been reported to lead to many negative outcomes in students' L2 learning processes and academic performance (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012; MacIntyre, 2017; Teimouri et al., 2019). However, the literature on anxiety is primarily focused on learner anxiety, with very little attention paid to the teacher's perspective. This may be due, in part, to the tendency within humanitarian approaches to language teaching to focus more on the learner rather than the teacher (Larsen-Freeman, 2001).

Foreign language teaching anxiety (FLTA) is conceptualized as teachers' anxiety in instructed learning contexts (Horwitz et al., 1986). It is a form of performance anxiety triggered by various factors, including cultural differences, fear of making mistakes, difficulty in transferring knowledge to students, low language proficiency, self-doubt, and classroom dynamics (Horwitz, 1996; Kobul & Saraçoğlu, 2020; Rivers, 2022). FLTA can have a negative impact on teachers' teaching quality and performance (Fish & Fraser, 2003). Further, teachers with high anxiety levels may inadvertently convey negative messages about language learning to their students (Horwitz, 1996).

Emerging from the field of applied linguistics, translanguaging contests monolingual paradigms, positing that making full use of learners' entire linguistic repertoire is how they communicate and make meaning (Canagarajah, 2011; Li, 2018). This approach creates translanguaging spaces through the use of semiotic resources, such as gestures, tone, and paralinguistic features, allowing for inclusive and empathetic interaction that can help migrant EFL learners negotiate their identity and emotions (Liu & Fang, 2020; Izadi, 2020). These spaces prioritize dynamic language use over uniformity, finding ways to encourage learners to share cultural and emotional stories without fear of linguistic jusdgement (Fang & Liu, 2020; Back et al., 2020).

Translanguaging spaces thus have therapeutic functions, providing emotional catharsis and social bonding through laughter, tears, and shared narratives (Ladegaard, 2014). For migrant students, these spaces mitigate anxiety by legitimizing their hybrid identities while fostering a sense of belonging (Ollerhead, 2019). Research shows that translanguaging establishes emotional scaffolding that reduces student anxiety, enhances engagement, and promotes affective reintegration (Back et al., 2020; Rivera & Mazak, 2017). In addition, Martínez Agudo (2017) observes that L1 strategic use decreases affective barriers while encouraging confidence and academic engagement.

Teachers play a central role in creating translanguaging spaces, particularly through their emotional awareness and regulation skills, which enable teachers to build rapport and manage anxieties (Dewaele et al., 2018; Gkonou et al., 2017). However, their capacity to foster such environments can be complicated by their own anxieties, especially for non-native students who tend to experience linguistic insecurity, questioning their L2 competency as well as their teaching effectiveness (McNeill, 2018; Santos et al., 2017). This anxiety can thus prevent them from reaping the benefits of translanguaging, as many fear that their translanguaging will expose their incompetence or contradict institutionalized monolingual norms.

Although translanguaging help relieve student anxiety, its use may increase teacher anxiety. Non-native students who already actively combat forms of linguistic marginalization, may feel compelled to abandon traditional target-language-oriented approaches, which expose their perceived linguistic deficits (Ticheloven et al., 2019). In contrast, translanguaging may grant teachers power by allowing them to harness their multilingual repertoires, thereby moving the goalpost of expertise beyond monolingual metrics. However, limited guidance and

institutional support sustain hesitation, as teachers struggle with contrasting pedagogical ideologies (Zhang et al., 2020; Wang, 2019).

Since EFL teachers are continuous learners of the target language they teach, they are subject to FLTA in a job that is both highly emotional and emotionally charged (Derakhshan et al., 2023; Ghiasvand et al., 2024). Anxiety affects not only how teachers teach but also the roles they assume in the classroom (Horwitz, 1996). FLTA has been found to fluctuate as teachers gain more teaching experience and work in less stressful environments (Kobul & Saraçoğlu, 2020). The nature and mechanism of teacher anxiety can differ depending on its type. It may either facilitate or debilitate the teaching process after reaching a certain threshold (Randall & Thornton, 2001). By nature, anxiety can be either transient (i.e., trait anxiety) or situation-specific (i.e., state anxiety), as noted in prior research (Dörnyei, 2005; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). FLTA is a common emotional experience among English-as-an-additional-language (EAL) teachers, who experience uncomfortable moments when speaking another language (Horwitz, 1996). Factors such as expectation, fear, career pressures, pedagogical expertise, and even the nature of the teaching profession may contribute to FLTA (Aydın & Uştuk, 2020; Kongchan & Singhasiri, 2008; Sammephet & Wanphet, 2013). Recently, several seminal studies have highlighted the role of institutional contexts (Song & Park, 2019), sociopolitical factors (Song, 2018), career-life balance (Fraschini & Park, 2021), and emotion regulation skills (Dumančić et al., 2022) in contributing to FLTA. If left unaddressed, FLTA can significantly reduce teachers' work enjoyment, well-being, functionality, and job satisfaction (Fraschini & Park, 2021, 2022). In severe cases, it can lead to both physical and mental health problems (Goetze, 2023). While research on FLTA is expanding in EFL contexts, the role of teachers'

pedagogical methods and practices in mitigating this negative stressor remains largely unexplored.

Emerging evidence suggests that translanguaging pedagogy may offer particular promise in mitigating foreign language teaching anxiety. By legitimizing strategic L1 use during stressful communication (Back et al., 2020; Rivera & Mazak, 2017), validating teachers' multilingual competence (Martínez Agudo, 2017), and creating more emotionally supportive classroom environments (Ticheloven et al., 2019), translanguaging appears to address several key dimensions of FLTA. These affective benefits align with established findings about translanguaging's potential to reduce anxiety, enhance emotional safety, and foster classroom belonging.

2.9 Empirical Studies on Translanguaging

Translanguaging as a pedagogical approach has gained attention recently for its promise of harnessing students ’linguistic repertoires to achieve better learning outcomes and greater inclusivity (Liu & Fang, 2022; Sun & Zhang; 2022; Jiang & Zhang, 2023). Jing and Kitis (2023) indicate that translanguaging helps students understand content and develop meaningful interaction, thereby enhancing their language proficiency (Jing & Kitis, 2023). By allowing students to use their home languages, translanguaging reduces their cognitive load and facilitates comprehension, particularly for learners who are less proficient in the target language. Several studies have examined teachers’ attitudes toward translanguaging and how these attitudes are reflected in classroom practice (Alasmari et al., 2022; Almayez, 2022; Setyarini & Jocuns, 2025). These studies have found an overall positive attitude toward translanguaging (Alasmari et al., 2022; Almayez, 2022; Setyarini & Jocuns, 2025); however, its practice is often limited due to institutional policies and monolingual ideologies.

Bredthauer and Engfer (2016) noted in their review of twelve empirical studies across Germany and Austria that fear of losing authority is one of the top barriers to implementing translanguaging. The fear deepens because students could render negative comments about the teacher in a language the teacher does not understand, further weakening their authority (Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016). In the Netherlands, Ticheloven et al. (2019) found that teachers often feel uncomfortable about uncontrolled multilingual interactions because they struggle to understand their students' discussions, fearing exclusion or loss of instructional oversight. Instead of prioritizing linguistic inclusivity through translanguaging pedagogies, many teachers default to strict language policy—focusing on control to maintain a perceived level playing field, even when this approach inadvertently marginalizes students' home languages. Likewise, Alisaari et al. (2019) found that more than 50% of Finnish teachers attributed their discomfort to students speaking languages they do not understand to organizational stress and problems in monitoring classroom activities. They also raised concerns about the time allocated to tasks, as a heavy focus on the home language might compromise instructional efficiency and learning outcomes (Alisaari et al., 2019; Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016). While these studies effectively highlight pragmatic barriers, they sometimes frame teacher resistance as a deficit, overlooking the legitimate pedagogical and logistical challenges teachers face in highly diverse classrooms.

Ticheloven et al. (2019) reported that teachers, parents, and students in the Netherlands expressed concerns about the use of home languages, fearing that it could exclude others, with some teachers suggesting that it should be done to prevent students from using their own languages to leave peers out. Bredthauer and Engfer (2016) confirmed that exclusion constituted a primary concern among teachers in Germany and Austria concerning students using their home languages in ways that alienate others.

Setyarini and Jocuns (2025) examined the beliefs of English teachers (n=10) and the spontaneous translanguaging practices observed in Indonesia. Interview and classroom observation findings revealed that most teachers perceived translanguaging positively and adopted an epistemic stance, consciously opting for Indonesian and Japanese for specific pedagogical ends. Although the small sample size limits generalizability, the study highlights teachers' agency in translanguaging despite institutional constraints. On the other hand, Almayez (2022) studied the attitudes and practices of English language teachers in Saudi Arabia by drawing on survey data. While most of the 101 participants seemed to keep a positive attitude toward translanguaging, their self-reported practices did not fully agree with these attitudes. Barriers such as language policies and the lack of a shared linguistic background with their students made it difficult to adopt translanguaging in the teaching process. This study illustrates a gap between the teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices. Almayez's (2022) research is a prime example of the common attitude-practice gap, suggesting that positive survey responses do not automatically translate into pedagogical change.

Alasmari et al. (2022) examined teachers' practices and perspectives on translanguaging in online communication with learners in Saudi Arabian universities. It employed a mixed-methods approach to survey 260 bilingual instructors and conduct observations of 20 video-recorded sessions. Results showed that teachers generally had a positive view of translanguaging, especially with regard to explaining complex terminology and facilitating communication both in and out of class. Nonetheless, the study advocated the need for clear guidance regarding translanguaging practices in online environments.

By employing a mixed-methods approach, including classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, and a questionnaire, Fang and Liu (2020) investigated both teachers' and

students' attitudes towards translanguaging. The findings show that, in general, the students hold a neutral-to-positive attitude towards translanguaging practices. Moreover, although the teachers have different attitudes and practices, most of them recognise the effectiveness of translanguaging for content learning in order to deepen understanding, create class rapport, and achieve better learning for students with lower English-language proficiency. The resistance towards the implementation of translanguaging, including language policy, monolingual ideology and overuse of first language, were discussed. Ulum (2024) studied the perceptions of translanguaging among high school and university students in Turkey. The study surveyed 325 participants and found significant differences in perceptions based on gender, educational level, and age. The results revealed the need for tailored translanguaging strategies to deal with diverse learner needs and promote cultural integration.

In 2016, Wang examined the attitudes of students and instructors toward translanguaging in elementary-level university courses in China. A survey of 201 students indicated that the majority of respondents supported multilingual instruction, which allowed them to engage in their meaning-making processes using their language repertoire. However, interviews with teachers showed mixed opinions. While some supported translanguaging, others encountered difficulties unleashing multilingualism in their practice. This study suggests that translanguaging is co-constructed within the classroom dynamics. Wang's (2016) work is crucial for highlighting that translanguaging is not merely a teacher-directed strategy but a collaborative classroom practice.

Carstens (2016) studied how bi-/multilingual students in South Africa (n= 60) view translanguaging strategies. Among those who provided answers, most reported that it facilitated the understanding of concepts, improved affective experiences, increased confidence, expanded

vocabulary, and enhanced cohesion; however, others identified limitations, mainly in understanding discipline-specific terminologies, as their L1 is quite complex. Others still would use English because it is viewed as a universal language. These findings align with Moody et al. (2019), whose research similarly concluded that graduate students viewed translanguaging as natural and beneficial for language learning. Correspondingly, Wang (2019b) found that international learners of Chinese in China had positive attitudes toward using English, emphasizing better understanding of content, better efficiency, and less anxiety. A key critique emerging from Carstens (2016) is that the benefits of translanguaging may not be evenly distributed across all academic disciplines, particularly where L1 terminology is underdeveloped or where a specific language hold entrenched global power, such as English in academia.

Although recognized by many as a useful tool for expressing an emotional state, Ticheloven et al. (2019) also reported that perspectives about translanguaging differed greatly among students. Some challenges mentioned were isolation due to a lack of knowledge of the terminology in one of the languages, confusion, and reduced motivation to learn the syntax and grammar of the new language. Beyond the student perspective, both parental and family attitudes have been studied. Within this context, Wilson (2020) demonstrated that while certain parents remained drawn to monolingual methodologies, many acknowledged translanguaging as a natural approach for bilingual individuals. These parents stated that some concepts cannot be simply expressed through translation and that language is ultimately bound to the contexts in which it is acquired.

Ebe and Chapman-Santiago (2016) studied multilingual classrooms in the U.S. and found that students who worked in language-matching groups held positive attitudes toward translanguaging. This study highlights the importance of peer collaboration in supporting

translanguaging practices, particularly when contexts may not permit teachers to share students' home languages (Schüler-Meyer et al., 2017). Often, students are key resources in the actualization of translanguaging, assisting one another in small-group activities, and making effective use of learning time and classroom management (Barahona et al., 2023).

Decristan et al. (2024) investigated the impact of translanguaging on teaching quality in multilingual elementary schools in Germany. The findings showed that translanguaging had a positive effect on students' perceptions of managerial and climate issues in the classroom, with no notable difference between multilingual and monolingual students. Hence, concerns raised in the past about the deleterious influence of translanguaging on teaching quality are challenged, thereby endorsing the creation of language-sensitive classrooms. Lang (2019) examined translanguaging practices within a newcomer program designed for high school students in the U.S. The study found that while translanguaging was used to create safe spaces for students, these safe spaces sometimes prioritized comfort over the development of English language and literacy skills. This study advocates for a balanced approach that leverages students' bilingualism while also developing their English proficiency. Lang's (2019) study provides a critical counterpoint by questioning if translanguaging spaces might prioritize student comfort at the expense of long-term language acquisition.

Sun and Zhang (2022) investigated the impact of translanguaging (using both L1 Chinese and L2 English) in online peer feedback on the writing performance of 79 Chinese university EFL students. The study employed a mixed-methods design, comparing a control group (English-only feedback, $n = 39$) with an experimental group (translanguaging feedback, $n = 40$) across three rounds of online peer review. Semi-structured interviews with six participants provided qualitative insights into learner perceptions. The study demonstrated that online peer

feedback through translanguaging was more effective than English-only feedback, particularly in the initial phase of the study, with a diminishing positive effect in subsequent rounds. The study further identified other individual factors, including motivation, agency, self-efficacy, and translinguistic awareness, which play a crucial role in helping individuals understand the efficacy of translanguaging in terms of facilitating learning. The findings suggested that the benefits of translanguaging may be context-dependent, challenging the notion of its universal efficacy.

In related research, Jiang et al. (2022) investigated the views of Chinese university students (*n*= 292) on translanguaging to identify predictive factors that could impact its implementation in language teaching and learning. It was found that non-English major freshmen were more receptive to translanguaging by both peers and teachers than English majors. Furthermore, their multiple regression analysis revealed that the degree of teacher translanguaging and students' attitudes toward translanguaging accounted for a significant variance in students' translanguaging practices.

Language policy and core teaching practice development influence the adoption of translanguaging. Barahona (2020) examined the integration of core teaching practices within EFL methods courses and practicums in Chilean teacher education programs. Employing a sequential mixed-methods design, the study first administered a questionnaire (*n*=48) to identify prevalent teaching practices, followed by semi-structured interviews (*n*=21) to explore teacher educators' instructional rationales and methodologies. The findings indicated that facilitating target language comprehensibility and building discourse communities were the most emphasized practices, primarily taught through modelling, decomposition, planning, and simulations. In contrast, more complex issues such as translanguaging, inclusion, and cultural practices were often addressed through more directive, teacher-centred pedagogies. Alrayes

(2024) examined the relationship between variables such as gender, shared linguistic background, and teaching experience, and their impact on translanguaging practices. The total number of participants who completed the questionnaire were 260 EFL teachers. Findings showed that translanguaging significantly correlated with such factors as gender and shared L1, while no significant relationship was found with teaching experience. The findings suggest that translanguaging practices should be tailored to align with student's' linguistic backgrounds and needs.

A growing body of empirical research affirms the significant cognitive and affective benefits of translanguaging, including reduced student anxiety, increased engagement, and deeper content understanding (Carstens, 2016; Decristan et al., 2024; Liu & Fang, 2022). Despite this, a persistent and well-documented gap exists between teacher beliefs and classroom practices. While educators often express positive attitudes towards translanguaging (Alasmari et al., 2022; Almayez, 2022), its implementation is consistently hindered by external pressures such as monolingual institutional policies and a lack of shared linguistic backgrounds with students.

Critically, recent studies have begun to illuminate the profound internal barriers that compound these external challenges. Teacher educators often sideline complex pedagogies like translanguaging in favor of more directive methods (Barahona, 2020), while in-service teachers report significant psychological distress, including fears of losing classroom authority, being excluded by students, and failing to maintain instructional oversight (Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016; Ticheloven et al., 2019). This suggests that the transition from believing in translanguaging to enacting it is not merely a logistical or policy issue, but an intensely personal one, fraught with emotional conflict and professional vulnerability.

However, a critical gap remains. The emotional and psychological dimensions of this struggle—specifically, the anxiety teachers experience when attempting to bridge their beliefs with their practice—remain underexplored, particularly in under-researched contexts like Iran. The current study sought to fill this void by investigating the interaction between teachers' beliefs, their practices, and the anxiety experienced when attempting to enact translanguaging in their classes. By exploring these dynamics, my study aims to promote more inclusive and effective language teaching practices that resonate with the linguistic and cultural realities of diverse classrooms. This study is guided by the following research questions:

1. What are Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes and perceptions towards translanguaging?
2. Is there any discrepancy between Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions and reported practices in implementing translanguaging in their classroom?
3. How do Iranian EFL teachers perceive their own level of anxiety related to translanguaging?
4. Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes towards translanguaging and their anxiety related to translanguaging?

Chapter 3: Methods

The current study investigated the attitudes of Iranian EFL teachers toward translanguaging, associated teaching anxiety, and the relationship between teachers' attitudes and self-reported practices of translanguaging. This study employed a mixed-methods design, combining quantitative data from 98 teachers analyzed using statistical methods with qualitative data from written interviews with ten participants, which were analyzed through a thematic analysis (Huang, 2019). Rigorous validation procedures, including pilot testing and inter-coder reliability checks were implemented to ensure methodological robustness in exploring this understudied aspect of Iran's EFL research landscape.

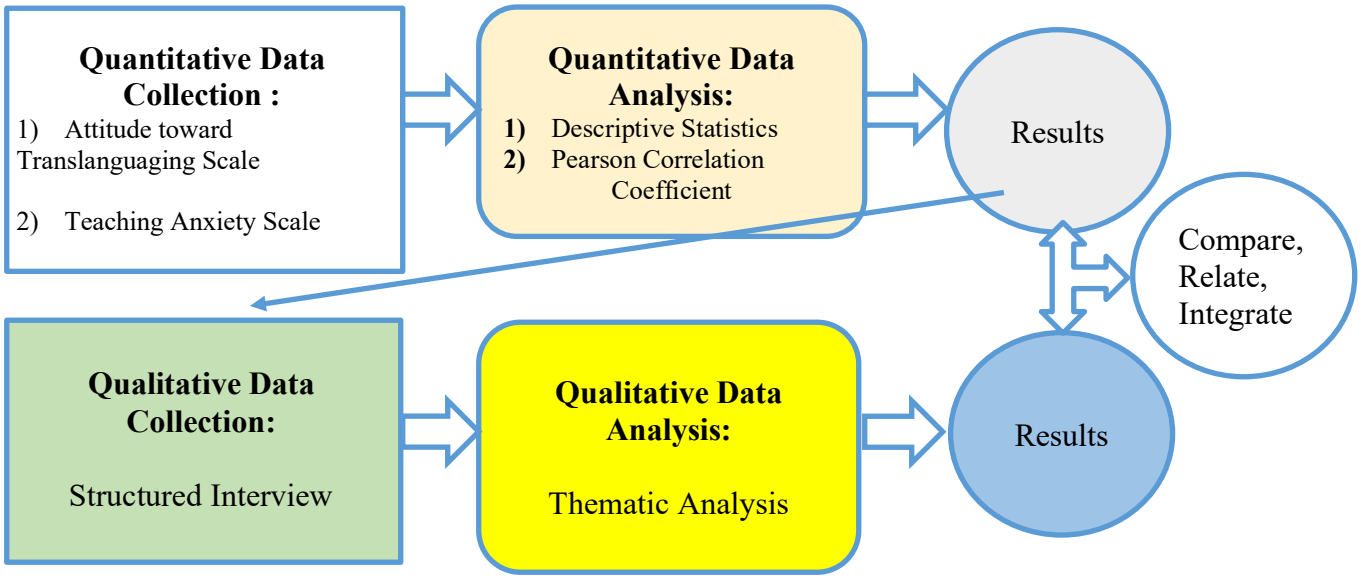
3.1 Research Design

This study adopted a sequential explanatory mixed-methods (SEMM) design (Creswell et al., 2003) to investigate Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging, their associated teaching anxiety, and the relationship between their stated attitudes and self-reported classroom practices (see Figure 1). The SEMM approach consisted of two distinct but interconnected phases: (1) a quantitative phase, where questionnaire data were collected and analyzed to identify broad patterns in teachers' attitudes and practices, followed by (2) a qualitative phase where interview complements the quantitative data from the first phase by delving into nuanced perspectives, motivations, and contextual insights. Through in-depth interviews, rich qualitative data were obtained, uncovering underlying themes, contradictions, and deeper explanations that enhance the robustness of the findings. According to Bogdan and Biklen (2007), "many sources of data are better in a study than a single source because multiple sources lead to a fuller understanding" (p.115). Essentially, mixed-methods designs reduce reliance on any single source of information, minimizing the potential for researcher or participant bias (Denzin & Lincoln,

2000). Questionnaires assessed teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging, their self-reported practices, and perceived anxiety levels. Statistical analysis examined the relationships or gaps between beliefs and behaviour. Interviews with a subset of participants explored emergent themes from Phase 1, probing contextual influences, emotional responses, and unstated biases that surveys might not capture. Finally, the results from both phases are integrated to form a comprehensive interpretation, ensuring a more holistic understanding of the research topic.

Figure 1

Research Design



3.2 Participants

The current study included 98 Iranian EFL teachers who were recruited via convenience sampling, a commonly used non-random sampling technique in EFL research (Dörnyei, 2007), which prioritizes access and willingness to participate (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The participants worked in the context of private language institutes, where they taught adult EFL learners across a range of proficiency levels, from beginner to advanced. Years of teaching experience and

educational background were not controlled, as the study was non-experimental. All EFL teachers were native Persian speakers and had no prior experience living or teaching in English-speaking countries. The sample of teachers consisted of 42 males (42.85%) and 56 females (57.15%). A sub-sample of ten teachers (six female and four male teachers) volunteered to participate in a structured interview, to provide a better understanding of their perspectives (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Ethical consideration was observed in accordance with the UVic Human Research Ethics Board guidelines (ethics protocol number: 24-0563). As such, all participants received a full briefing of the research aims and data collection procedure before obtaining informed consent. The research ensured the anonymity of participants, voluntary participation with the opportunity to withdraw at any time, and clear communication about the potential publication of findings.

Table 1

Demographic Information of the Interview Participants

Feature		*N*
Gender	Male	4
	Female	6
Degree	Diploma	--
	Bachelor	1
	Master	6
	PhD	3
Major	Literature	1
	TEFL	8
	Translation	--
	Other disciplines	1
Years of Experience	1-5	1

6-10	3
11-15	4
15+	2

3.3 Data Collection Instruments

This study employed questionnaires and written interviews to answer the research questions. I used the English-language versions of instruments without translation, as all participants are EFL teachers.

3.3.1 Teachers' Attitude toward Translanguaging Scale (TATTS)

TATTS is a 20-item instrument developed by Almayez (2022) using a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). This questionnaire synthesizes and adapts items from two established frameworks: Moody et al. (2019) for assessing general perceptions of translanguaging, and Nambisan (2014) for evaluating both attitudinal dimensions (teachers' valuation of translanguaging) and practical implementations (frequency of classroom application). As Nambisan (2014, p. 41) notes, this dual focus enables simultaneous examination of "the importance that teachers place on translanguaging in the classroom...and the frequency with which it is used in their classroom." Before administration, the adapted questionnaire underwent field-testing procedures to ensure its suitability for the Iranian EFL context. The instrument demonstrated strong reliability in the present study, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.89, indicating high internal consistency among items (see Appendix A).

3.3.2 Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale (FLTAS)

To assess foreign language teaching anxiety among instructors, I adapted the Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale (FLTAS), originally developed by Selami and Özgehan (2020). The original FLTAS is a 26-item instrument that utilizes a five-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 = never to 5 = always) to measure five distinct dimensions of anxiety: (1) self-perception of

language proficiency, (2) teaching inexperience, (3) lack of student interest, (4) fear of negative evaluation, and (5) difficulties with time management. The scale has demonstrated strong psychometric properties, with reported subscale reliabilities ranging from 0.76 to 0.93 and an excellent overall Cronbach's alpha of 0.95 (Selami & Özgehan, 2020). For the current study, the instrument was carefully reviewed for cultural appropriateness in the Iranian EFL context. Minor adaptations were made to ensure all items were clearly understandable while maintaining the scale's original conceptual framework. Furthermore, the items were modified to match translanguaging in the English classroom. These adaptations resulted in a refined version of the scale comprising 22 items. The reliability of this adapted 22-item FLTAS was confirmed in our sample, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.81 (see Appendix B).

3.3.3 Structured Interview

The qualitative component of this study employed a written structured interview format, conducted via email, with ten EFL teachers to assess their attitudes towards translanguaging and translanguaging-related anxiety. This approach was used due to geographical and contextual constraints. I, an Iranian M.A. student working on the study from Canada, faced numerous logistical issues due to geographical constraints. The distance between the participants and me created three obstacles to synchronous data collection: (1) time differences (8.5-11.5 hours) that made scheduling live interviews difficult, (2) inconsistent internet access from participants in Iran, and (3) participants' teaching schedules and availability prevented them from attending live interviews. Nonetheless, email interviews served as a flexible way to gather data, by offering the opportunity to conduct interviews asynchronously while still allowing participants to provide in-depth responses. The development of the interview protocol was a process that took place over two stages. The initial questions were established based on the questionnaire items. Then they

underwent expert review and revision by two TEFL professionals to ensure that the questions were clear and appropriate for the research goals. The structured format consisted of open-ended questions organized around key themes, while still allowing participants to expand on experiences they deemed pertinent. Teachers were prompted to share specific examples from their teaching and to share their viewpoints as fully as they wanted. The written format produced rich textual data that captured teachers' nuanced perspectives in their own words, while the asynchronous nature allowed participants to respond at their convenience without feeling pressured for time (see Appendix C for interview questions).

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

I ensured that all participants provided informed consent, with a clear understanding that the data would only be viewed by myself and my supervisor prior to their participation. I also informed participants of their unconditional right to withdraw at any time without the need to provide any explanation. For the quantitative data collection, I distributed the Teachers' Attitude toward Translanguaging Scale (TATTS) and Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale (FLTAS) electronically via SurveyMonkey, an institutionally approved platform, to 120 Iranian EFL teachers. The survey yielded 98 completed responses, representing an 82% response rate and forming the final analytical sample for my quantitative analysis. For the qualitative phase, I distributed the questions electronically and encouraging participants to provide detailed answers with concrete examples from their teaching experiences. The written interview included 29 questions (18 related to attitude and 11 related to anxiety). I then conducted follow-up exchanges with participants via WhatsApp to clarify or expand their responses. This process ensured data richness while preserving the asynchronous nature of the data collection.

3.5 Data Analysis

3.5.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative data analysis was conducted using SPSS version 26. For the first research question, examining Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward and practices of translanguaging, descriptive statistics, including frequency and percentage analyses, were calculated. The second research question, which investigated potential discrepancies between teachers' attitudes and actual classroom practices regarding translanguaging, was analyzed using a repeated measures ANOVA. This allowed for direct comparison of mean scores across three key dimensions: (1) general attitudes toward teacher-initiated L1 use, (2) attitudes toward student L1 use, and (3) self-reported classroom practices. The analysis also included post-hoc pairwise comparisons, using the Bonferroni adjustment, to identify specific areas of significant difference. Prior to conducting the ANOVA, the assumption of normality was verified using two complementary tests: the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test. This dual approach provides a robust assessment of the distributional properties of the data. Results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Normality Test of Attitude and Practice Variables

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	*df*	*Sig.*	Statistic	*df*	*Sig.*
Practice	.17	98	.13	.97	98	.1
General attitude	.15	98	.2	.94	98	.11
Students’ L1 use	.14	98	.16	.96	98	.13

As shown in Table 2, all variables satisfied the normality assumption ($p > .05$), indicating that the use of parametric analysis was appropriate. To address the third research question investigating translanguaging-related anxiety, the obtained data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, including frequency and percentages, particularly focusing on four anxiety dimensions: self-perception of language proficiency, teaching inexperience, perceived student disengagement, and time management challenges. These analyses identified the level of different anxiety types among participants. For the fourth research question, exploring the relationship between teachers' translanguaging attitudes and anxiety levels, Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to assess both the direction and strength of the relationships. Effect sizes were interpreted using Cohen's (1988) guidelines.

3.5.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data in the form of interview transcripts were analyzed following a systematic process of: (1) preparation, (2) coding, (3) clustering, and (4) categorizing/theming (Huang, 2019). The analysis began with the preparation phase, which involved a careful review of all written interview responses from the ten participants. This included immersing in the data through multiple reading cycles, conducting pre-coding by highlighting key passages, annotating marginal comments, and compiling noteworthy quotes for future reference. The formal coding process commenced with first-cycle coding to generate initial codes that captured participants' own words. During the subsequent clustering phase, these codes were systematically consolidated into subthemes through constant comparison, ultimately yielding a final set of themes. Three coders independently analyzed the entire dataset. After two weeks of independent coding, inter-coder reliability was formally assessed. Because there were three coders, Cohen's Kappa was calculated for each possible pair (Coders 1-2, Coders 1-3, Coders 2-3) to determine

the level of agreement. The resulting coefficients were 0.85, 0.88, and 0.89, yielding an average Kappa of 0.87, which indicates a high level of agreement. During a consensus meeting, coders discussed all instances of disagreement until 100% agreement was reached on the final code application for the entire dataset.

Regarding teachers' attitudes toward and practice of translanguaging, the iterative analytical process resulted in the identification of five overarching themes, which were supported by 14 distinct subthemes. These subthemes were themselves generated from a total of 39 individual codes that were derived directly from the interview data. The themes, subthemes, and a sample of representative codes are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Themes Regarding Teachers' Attitudes toward and Practice of Translanguaging

Themes	Subthemes	Codes
L1 as a Facilitator of Comprehension and Clarity	Clarifying Complex Grammar and Vocabulary	L1 for explaining tense contrasts
		Using L1 to disambiguate phrasal verbs
		L1 for clarifying prepositions
		First-language equivalents for abstract nouns
		L1 to explain grammatical exceptions
	Enhancing Instructional Efficiency	L1 for quick error correction
		Translating instructions for task clarity

		L1 to summarize lengthy explanations
		Bilingual glossaries for technical terms
	Supporting Abstract/Culturally Specific Concepts	L1 for proverbs/literary allusions
		Explaining humour/puns via L1
		L1 to clarify culturally specific metaphors
Reducing Anxiety and Building Rapport	Lowering Affective Filters in Beginners	L1 to reassure students after mistakes
		Code-switching to ease transition to L2
		L1 for calming test anxiety
	Strengthening Teacher-Student Relationships	L1 for personalized feedback
		Using L1 nicknames to build connection
		Sharing L1 jokes to lighten mood
	Encouraging Participation in Reluctant Learners	L1 thinking time before L2 responses
		Permitting L1 whispers during pair work

		L1 to validate struggling students' ideas
L1 for Nuances and Cultural References	Translating Idioms and Culturally Loaded Terms	L1 for translating untranslatable words
		Comparing L1/L2 politeness conventions
	Highlighting L1/L2 Structural Contrasts	L1 to explain L2 word order differences
		Using L1 metalanguage to teach L2 grammar
Context-Dependent Appropriateness	Proficiency-Level Considerations	Zero L1 in advanced discussion classes
		L1 allowed only for A1-A2 levels
	Lesson-Type Variations	L1 banned in fluency-focused tasks
		L1 permitted in grammar-translation lessons
	Private vs. Group Class Dynamics	L1 for sensitive 1-on-1 corrections
		Strict L2 enforcement in large groups
Caution Against Overuse: Balancing L1 and L2	Dependency Risks and Reduced L2 Practice	Students skipping L2 attempts if L1 is available
		L1 overuse in group work reduces L2 output
		Parents complaining about insufficient L2 exposure
	Institutional Policies Restricting L1	School audits penalizing L1 use

		Colleagues criticizing L1 reliance
	Strategies for Minimizing L1 Reliance	Setting “English-only” time blocks
		Rewarding L2 attempts with praise
		Modeling circumlocution in L2

The analysis of the qualitative data on anxiety yielded a framework comprising four primary themes, elaborated through 12 subthemes. These subthemes were developed from a total of 34 specific codes derived from teacher interviews, capturing the nuanced and multifaceted nature of their anxiety regarding translanguaging. Table 4 presents themes, subthemes, and a sample of representative codes related to teachers’ perceived level of translanguaging anxiety.

Table 4

Teachers' Perceived Level of Translanguaging Anxiety

Themes	Subthemes	Codes
Professional Judgment Anxiety	Self-Perceived Incompetence	Worrying that reliance on L1 undermine authority
		Feeling that using L1 reflects lack of L2 proficiency
	External Scrutiny	Anxiety about peers perceiving L1 use as unprofessional
		Fear students equate L1 reliance with teacher incompetence

		Overusing L2 to appear legitimate during observations
	Confidence Development	Novice teachers strictly limiting L1 due to insecurity
		Experience teachers strategically using L1 with intentionality
		Framing translanguaging as pedagogical expertise
Classroom Management Anxiety	Inexperience-Driven Reliance on L1	Defaulting to L1 due to limited L2 teaching strategies
		Avoiding L2 to prevent student confusion or silence
		Treating "English-only" as non-negotiable early in one's career
	Disengagement as a Trigger for Anxiety	Switching to L1 to recapture attention or clarify tasks
		Using games, humour, or visuals to avoid L1 overuse
		Employing L1 to rebuild rapport with disengaged students
	Time Management Pressures	Quick translations to save time
		Prioritizing L2 even under time constraints
		Sacrificing fluency for curriculum coverage

Student Feedback Anxiety	Affective Reinforcement	Students appreciating L1 for clarity or emotional safety
		L1 fostering trust and reducing learning anxiety
		Positive feedback validating strategic L1 use
	Criticism and Resistance	Students viewing L1 as a shortcut or lack of effort
		Advanced learners rejecting L1 to maximize L2 exposure
		Teachers questioning methods after negative feedback
	Adaptive Responses	Revising teaching approaches based on student input
		Weighing student preferences against pedagogical goals
Institutional Policy Anxiety	Policy Ambiguity	L1 use discouraged despite no formal policy
		Supervisors tolerating L1 informally but not officially
		Teachers hiding L1 use to avoid reprimand
	Evaluation Performance	Avoiding L1 during formal assessments to "perform" proficiency

		Minor adjustments to align with evaluator expectations
		Justifying L1 use pedagogically to supervisors
	Leadership influence	School policies explicitly banning L1
		Teachers challenging norms to legitimize translanguaging
		Conflicts between official rules and classroom realities

To ensure coding reliability and minimize researcher bias, inter-coder agreement was established through systematic analysis by three independent coders: (1) the primary researcher, (2) a Ph.D. holder in TEFL (from an Iranian colleague), and (3) an Iranian professor. Each coder conducted line-by-line analysis of the complete qualitative dataset, after which their independent coding decisions were compared to calculate intercoder reliability using Cohen's kappa coefficient ($\kappa = 0.87$), indicating substantial agreement. The disagreements primarily arose from interpreting the nuance and primary emphasis within participant quotes. For instance, one coder focused on the emotional state of the teacher, while another emphasized the external source of that emotion. For example, disagreement involved a quote from Samira, who stated, “I felt embarrassed sometimes because I worried that students or colleagues might judge my English ability.” One coder initially assigned this to a broader code like Anxiety about Language Proficiency, while another argued for the more specific External Scrutiny. Upon discussion, the team referred to the operational definitions (Appendix D). Since the quote explicitly mentions fear of judgment from others, it was unanimously agreed that External Scrutiny—a subtheme of

Professional Judgment Anxiety—was the most precise fit, as it captures the social dimension of the anxiety rather than just the internal feeling. Another example centered on distinguishing between the source of anxiety and the resulting behaviour. This was evident in Maryam's comment: “Time pressure often increases my anxiety level and it leads me to use L1 for quick clarification.” Here, one coder saw this as linked to Professional Judgment Anxiety, interpreting the use of L1 under pressure as a potential threat to self-image. The other coder focused on the catalyst—"time pressure"—and argued it was a classic example of Time Management Pressures under Classroom Management Anxiety. The consensus was that the primary driver of the anxiety was the logistical challenge of managing the lesson, making the latter code more appropriate. The use of L1 was framed as a strategy to cope with that specific pressure, not the core of the anxiety itself. Through this process of discussion and reconciliation, all initial disagreements were resolved.

3.5.2.1 Trustworthiness Measures

To strengthen the trustworthiness of the qualitative findings, this study employed Lincoln and Guba's (1986) four criteria: credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability. Each criterion was addressed through specific methodological mechanisms. To establish credibility, member checking was employed to validate the accuracy of the findings. Participating interviewees were first asked to review their demographic profiles to ensure factual correctness. Subsequently, a summary of the key emergent themes was shared with them individually. They were asked to comment on whether these themes accurately reflected their experiences and perspectives. Feedback from participants was incorporated into the final analysis. To ensure dependability, the coding process involved three independent coders. Inter-coder reliability was assessed using Cohen's Kappa, which yielded an average coefficient of 0.87, indicating a high

level of agreement. Following this, a consensus meeting was held where all disagreements were discussed until unanimous agreement was reached on the final coding for the entire dataset.

To ensure confirmability, an audit trail was maintained. This trail included all raw data and the finalized codebook with definitions. Additionally, a reflective journal was kept throughout the study to bracket assumptions. For example, entries documented pre-conceived notions about the topic. Furthermore, the data collection methods and analytic processes were explicitly described to provide a clear and transparent account of the research journey. Transferability was established by providing a detailed description of the context. The Methods section explains the background of the participants. This detail helps readers evaluate the similarities to their own context. This enables other researchers to determine the relevance of these findings to different educational contexts based on shared characteristics.

Chapter 4: Results

4.1 Quantitative Results of Teachers' Attitudes toward and Practice of Translanguaging

To answer the first research question regarding Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward and practice of translanguaging, the data from the TATTS were analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequency counts and percentages). The results for teachers' reported practices are presented in Table 5, and their attitudinal responses are presented in Tables 6 and 7.

Table 5

Frequency and Percentage of Iranian EFL Teachers' Self-Reported Translanguaging Practices

Item	Not applicable	Very important	Important	Neutral	Not important	Not very important
	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
1. To explain concepts	2 (2)	9 (9.2)	42 (42.9)	19 (19.4)	15 (15.3)	11 (11.2)
2. To describe vocabulary	1 (1)	6 (6.1)	27 (27.6)	22 (22.4)	32 (32.7)	10 (10.2)
3. To give directions	2 (2)	8 (8.2)	20 (20.4)	19 (19.4)	26 (26.5)	23 (23.5)
4. For classroom management	7 (7.1)	5 (5.1)	18 (18.4)	19 (19.4)	28 (28.6)	21 (21.8)
5. To give feedback to students	3 (3.1)	6 (6.1)	29 (29.6)	22 (22.4)	21 (21.4)	17 (17.3)
6. To praise students	1 (1)	7 (7.1)	16 (16.3)	17 (17.3)	29 (29.6)	28 (28.6)
7. To build bonds with students	1 (1)	14 (14.3)	41 (41.8)	20 (20.4)	14 (14.3)	8 (8.2)
8. To help low-proficiency students	1 (1)	28 (28.6)	48 (49)	12 (12.2)	4 (4.1)	5 (5.1)

Table 5 presents the frequency and percentage analysis of Iranian EFL teachers' self-reported translanguaging practices. Teachers demonstrated strong support for translanguaging in contexts where they perceived a cognitive and/or affective investment was required. Explaining content, perceived as more complex than other elements of the lesson, was classified as "important" or "very important" by 52.1% of respondents (Item 1), while only 26.5% described it as "unimportant." The strongest endorsement was for helping low-proficiency learners, with 77.6% ("very important": 28.6% + "important": 49.0%) recognizing its benefits (Item 8), while only 9.2% saw it as unimportant ("not important": 4.1% + "not very important": 5.1%). Building bonds with students was seen as "important" by 41.8% or "very important" by 14.3% of teachers (Item 7). However, teachers had mixed or negative attitudes towards using translanguaging with routine instructional and management tasks. Only 33.7% ("very important": 6.1% + "important": 27.6%) believed it was useful for describing vocabulary (Item 2). In comparison, 42.9% believed it was "unimportant."

Both giving directions ("not important": 26.5%; "not very important": 23.5%) and classroom management ("not important": 28.6%; "not very important": 21.8 %) also received limited approval. There was perhaps the most resistance to the L1 use when it came to praising students, when 58.2% ("not important": 29.6%; "not very important": 28.6%) deemed L1 use not applicable (Item 6); likely treating praise as an instance of reinforcing the target language. A substantial number of teachers (ranging from 12.2% to 22.4% for all items) endorsed the neutral category, especially when explaining concepts (19.4%), giving feedback (22.4%), and managing a classroom (19.4%), indicating uncertainty or an opinion that appropriateness depends on specific situational factors.

Table 6

Frequency and Percentage of Iranian EFL Teachers 'General Attitudes Toward Teachers ' Translanguaging

Item	Not applicable	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
1. Using students' L1 in the classroom is an appropriate practice	1 (1)	6 (6.1)	32 (32.7)	24 (24.5)	25 (25.5)	10 (10.2)
2. Using students' L1 is essential for learning a new language	1 (1)	8 (8.2)	35 (35.7)	18 (18.4)	27 (27.6)	9 (9.2)
3. Teachers' use of students' L1 in class would be helpful for bilingual/multilingual learners	2 (2)	9 (9.2)	39 (39.8)	24 (24.5)	20 (20.4)	4 (4.1)
4. Using students' L1 develops the learners' confidence in English	1 (1)	4 (4.1)	27 (27.6)	27 (27.6)	30 (30.6)	9 (9.2)
5. Language teachers should avoid using the students' L1 because it will prevent English language learning	0	5 (5.1)	28 (28.6)	11 (11.2)	43 (43.9)	11 (11.2)
6. Using students' L1 indicates a lack of linguistic proficiency in English	1 (1)	3 (3.1)	15 (15.3)	19 (19.4)	41 (41.8)	19 (19.4)

Table 6 presents the overall attitude of Iranian EFL teachers towards translanguaging, revealing both agreement and disagreement on specific aspects. The teachers generally agreed that translanguaging was useful, noting its facilitative role in advancing learning in multilingual

contexts. Nearly half of the teachers (49 %) “agreed” (9.2 %) and “strongly agreed” (39.8 %) that L1 use is useful for bilingual/multilingual learners (Item 3), and only 24.5% “disagreed”. A small percentage “agreed” (8.2 %) and a larger share “strongly agreed” (35.7 %) that using L1 is important for learning a new language (Item 2). However, 27.6 % “disagreed” and 9.2 % “strongly disagreed” that using L1 is important for learning a new language. One-third of the teachers (25.5 %) “disagreed” and (10.2 %) “strongly disagreed” that the general use of L1 is appropriate (Item 1), but 35.7% “disagreed” and “strongly disagreed.” There was also no consensus on whether the use of L1in the classroom develops learner confidence in English (Item 4). About one-third (31.7%) agreed that the use of their L1 helps develop learner confidence, while a larger proportion 30.6 % “disagreed” and 9.2 % “strongly disagreed.” Importantly, a majority of teachers did not support the framing of L1 use as harmful or reflecting a deficiency. More than half (55.1 %) (“disagreed”: 43.9 %; “strongly disagreed”: 11.2) disagreed with the assertion that "teachers should not use the students' L1 because it prevents learning English" (Item 5). An even greater consensus (“disagreed”: 41.8 %+ “strongly disagreed”: 19.4 %= 61.2%) rejected the assertion that L1 use reflects a lack of ability in English (Item 6). These indications suggest that translanguaging is increasingly viewed as an intentional, rather than a deficient strategy.

Table 7

Frequency and Percentage of Iranian EFL Teachers ’Attitudes Toward Students ’Use of L1

Item	Not applicable	Very important	Important	Neutral	Not important	Not very important
	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
1. To discuss content or activities in small groups	3 (3.1)	5 (5.1)	17 (17.3)	14 (14.3)	39 (39.8)	20 (20.4)

2. To provide assistance to peers during activities	2 (2)	3 (3.1)	35 (35.7)	27 (27.6)	21 (21.4)	10 (10.2)
3. To brainstorm during activities	2 (2)	4 (4.1)	22 (22.4)	21 (21.4)	31 (31.6)	18 (18.4)
4. To explain problems not related to content	1 (1)	7 (7.1)	33 (33.7)	31 (31.6)	20 (20.4)	6 (6.1)
5. To respond to teachers' questions	7 (7.1)	3 (3.1)	12 (12.2)	8 (8.2)	41 (41.8)	27 (27.6)
6. To ask permission	4 (4.1)	4 (4.1)	10 (10.2)	12 (12.2)	37 (37.8)	31 (31.6)

Table 7 shows Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes towards students' use of L1 in the classroom, revealing a preference for restricting L1 in areas of academic transactions with a teacher, while demonstrating positive tolerance for using L1 in supportive or non-academic functions. Teachers expressed their displeasure with students using their L1 when participating in structured academic exchanges with the teacher. A majority (69.4%) thought that L1 was "unimportant" or "not very important" when students reply to teachers' questions (Item 5). Likewise, 69.4% ("important": 37.8 %; "very important": 31.6 %) did not think students should use L1 when asking for permission (Item 6). This strong consensus implies an expectation that teacher-student exchanges and standard classroom practices should happen primarily in English. It is worth noting that attitudes towards student L1 use in peer collaborative work remained predominantly negative. More than half (60.2%) believed that L1 usage was "not important" or "very important" for discussing course content or activities in small groups (Item 1), and half believed L1 usage was "unimportant" (31.6%) and "not very important" (18.4%) for brainstorming during activities (Item 3). In comparison, the teachers showed a more positive attitude towards L1 use when it was used in contexts that focused on peer assistance or

exchanges of practical communication. While still not a majority (38.8%) considered L1 to be "important" (35.7%) and "very important" (3.1%) when students were providing help to other students during activities (Item 2). Similarly, 40.8% ("important": 7.1%; "very important": 33.7%) approved of L1 when students were explaining issues that did not involve content (Item 4). This indicates a pragmatic recognition of the role of L1 in facilitating peer learning and addressing non-academic issues related to classroom learning, rather than from the perspective of core instruction delivery or teacher-student discourse.

4.2 Qualitative Results of Teachers' Attitudes toward and Practice of Translanguaging

The analysis of interview data from ten Iranian EFL teachers revealed five predominant themes regarding their attitudes toward L1 use in English classrooms. Teachers most frequently emphasized *L1 as a Facilitator of Comprehension and Clarity* (9 references), consistently describing its value in facilitating comprehension and clarifying complex concepts. The *L1 for Reducing Anxiety and Building Rapport* emerged as the second most important theme (8 references), with several teachers emphasizing the benefit of reduced anxiety and relationship-building potential linked to this use. *L1 for Nuances and Cultural References* constituted another theme (6 references), in which teachers expressed value in using L1 when explaining culture-specific concepts and subtleties in language features. The third equally prominent theme (6 references) was *Context-Dependent Appropriateness*, which suggested teachers' ability to recognize when to use L1 in a given context. Lastly, a *Caution Against Overuse: Balancing L1 and L2* permeated the provided data set (4 references), with teachers suggesting that this necessary use could cause students to feel they had no obligation to put in any effort.

4.2.1 L1 as a Facilitator of Comprehension and Clarity

All the teachers concurred that L1 was a cognitive bridge to help students understand challenging linguistic structures or the meaning of new vocabulary words more quickly than in English. This was particularly emphasized for grammar instruction, where Persian equivalents could clarify tense distinctions or modal verbs. For example, Somayeh employed Persian to clarify the present perfect tense, a concept notoriously challenging for Persian-speaking learners due to structural differences between the languages. As she explained "When I teach the present perfect tense, using the comparison of Persian 'نقطه زمانی' to 'مدت زمان' helps students get there much quicker." She believed that such strategic use of L1 allowed learners to leverage their existing linguistic knowledge to comprehend new English structures. Additionally, L1 was deemed useful for abstract nouns and culturally embedded terms without direct English equivalents. Some teachers supported a more planned and systematic use of L1, while others only wanted to use L1 when they ran out of options. Rizi noted this practical application, stating, "I almost only use L1 when it comes to grammar... For teaching abstract nouns, using L1 can be effective." All the interviewees agreed that L1 could not substitute English input, and they did not want the students to rely on L1 when it was not necessary. Ehsan represented this contingent approach, remarking "If the teacher has exhausted all options, then why not [use L1]?"

4.2.2 L1 for Reducing Anxiety and Building Rapport

Some of the participants widely acknowledged the role of L1 in reducing learner anxiety and fostering positive classroom relationships. Interviewees indicated that use of students' native language could effectively lower stress levels, particularly for beginners struggling with the challenges of learning in an unfamiliar tongue. As Nastaran explained, " language learners at the elementary level, constant usage of English could raise levels of anxiety... I would show

flexibility towards L1 to prevent students from quitting." This perspective was shared by colleagues who had witnessed students actually withdrawing from English programs when the linguistic demands became overwhelming without native language support. Beyond its anxiety-reducing function, teachers recognized L1's powerful capacity to build rapport and create emotional connections in the classroom. Hossein articulated this dimension particularly well, noting how "their L1—even occasionally—significantly improved engagement, comprehension, and emotional comfort... It signals care and attentiveness." This relational aspect transformed L1 from merely a comprehension aid into a tool for establishing trust and demonstrating empathy. Maryam's experience reinforced this view, as she recalled how “students' relief when complex ideas are briefly explained in L1 shaped my belief in its usefulness." The visible emotional and cognitive release students exhibited when receiving explanations in their L1 convinced many teachers of L1's value in creating a supportive learning environment.

4.2.3 Context-Dependent Appropriateness

Teachers stressed that the appropriateness of using L1 depends on various contextual factors. They developed nuanced approaches tailored to different proficiency levels, lesson types, and instructional settings. For beginning learners, most teachers agreed that strategic L1 support could provide crucial scaffolding. As Somayeh explained, "I use more L1 as support with beginner classes and reduce it as students become more proficient," capturing the common practice of gradually decreasing L1 reliance as students' English abilities developed. Rizi followed a similar incremental approach, noting "I may use L1 in the beginning sessions and reduce it gradually," highlighting how teachers viewed L1 as a temporary support mechanism rather than a permanent feature of instruction. Class format presented another critical consideration. In one-on-one tutoring sessions, particularly for exam preparation, teachers felt

more comfortable employing L1 strategically. Nastaran's approach exemplified this context-sensitive flexibility: "In IELTS exam lessons, I would explain rules in Persian... but in general English classes, I stuck to English." This contrast revealed how high-stakes, precision-focused learning might warrant more L1 use than general language acquisition contexts. Conversely, teachers indicated that they minimized L1 to maintain an immersive English environment in group classes.

4.2.4 L1 for Nuances and Cultural References

Teachers pointed out that L1 is also invaluably useful where linguistic differences between English and other languages exist (e.g., Persian has no articles) or in the rare instance where cultural metaphor is language-specific. Teachers provided examples where even a brief L1 comparison (e.g., Persian tense vs. English tense) enabled students to experience an "Aha!" learning moment. The cultural dimension of language learning also emerged as a key area where L1 proved irreplaceable. Teachers like Samira discovered that "sharing a funny L1 equivalent for an idiom helps create a friendly atmosphere," using these moments not just for comprehension but also for building classroom community. Hossein expanded on this cultural function, noting that "L1 is helpful for translating culturally embedded ideas that lack direct English equivalents." These practices recognized language as more than a system of rules, as an expression of cultural worldview that sometimes requires native language mediation for full understanding.

4.2.5 Caution Against Overuse: Balancing L1 and L2

Though the teachers acknowledged the pedagogical merits of L1 use, they consistently warned about the overuse of L1 and highlighted various possible negative impacts on language learning. Three interconnected issues comprised the bulk of the teachers' concerns: 1) Reduced exposure to target language where L1 use limits students' access to the significant input they require (7

references). As Nastaran indicated that "Frequent use of the first language can heavily and negatively affect students' learning... The classroom is their only chance to practice English," highlighting the particular significance of this issue in EFL contexts where English exposure outside the classroom may be limited. 2) Students would become passive learners who used L1 mediation (e.g., with translations or definitions) and were dependent on L1 while they should logically be working within the English Language (5 references). This dependence, they argued, could ultimately undermine learners' autonomy and problem-solving skills in the target language. Iman succinctly captured this tension between support and independence, stating that "L1 can aid comprehension, but frequent use may reduce English practice opportunities." 3) Reliance on L1 hindered students' development of oral and aural proficiency in English (4 references). The teachers also pointed out that peer L1 use sometimes met communicative goals, but in many instances, it intervened in the communicative intentions. Institutional English-only policies sometimes created tension when teachers made their professional judgments about the appropriate use of L1. Samira articulated this concern clearly: "If teachers use L1 too much, students lose valuable practice time... and may not build confidence in real situations." This comment underscores the importance of balancing comprehension support with the need for target language practice for the participating teacher.

Overall, the analysis indicates that Iranian EFL teachers hold complex beliefs about the use of student L1, recognizing that it can serve a linguistic purpose, albeit with the understanding that overuse could be a drawback. Their views reflect a belief system that values both language development and student comfort.

4.3 Quantitative Analysis of Teachers' Attitudes vs. Practices in Translanguaging

To address the second research question regarding discrepancies between Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging and their self-reported classroom practices, a repeated-measures ANOVA was used as the appropriate test to compare mean scores across these related variables. Table 8 provides the results of descriptive statistics.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of Attitude and Practice Variables

	M	*SD*	*N*
Practice	23.53	6.65	98
General attitude	18.46	3.78	98
Students' L1 use	19.78	5.23	98

The results of descriptive statistics revealed that the highest mean score emerged for translanguaging practices (*M* = 23.53, *SD* = 6.65), indicating that teachers' self-reported classroom behavior were the most open to employing translanguaging practices. In contrast, general attitudes toward teachers' use of L1 showed the lowest mean score *(M* = 18.46, *SD* = 3.78), reflecting a more conservative ideological stance on the issue. Attitudes toward students' use of L1 fell between these two extremes (*M* = 19.78, *SD* = 5.23), revealing a moderate level of acceptance for students employing their first language in learning contexts.

Table 9

Repeated-Measures ANOVA Results Comparing Translanguaging Variables

Effect	Value	*F*	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*	*Sig.*
Pillai's Trace	.44	38.71	2	96	.00
Wilks' Lambda	.55	38.71	2	96	.00
Hotelling's Trace	.8	38.71	2	96	.00

Roy's Largest Root	.8	38.71	2	96	.00

The repeated measures ANOVA (Table 9) revealed statistically significant differences among these three variables (Wilks' Lambda $F(2, 96) = 38.71$, $p < .001$) meaning that there was a statistically attitude-practice difference among the three mean scores, confirming a gap between what teachers reported doing in practice and their stated beliefs about translanguaging. The significant omnibus test permitted further examination of the variables through pairwise comparisons (Table 10).

Table 10

Pairwise Comparisons of Attitude and Practice Variables

					95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
(I) factor1	(J) factor1	Mean Difference (I-J)	*Std.* Error	*Sig.*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Practice	General attitude	5.06*	.57	.00	3.92	6.2
	Students' L1 use	3.74*	.62	.00	2.5	4.99

Note: The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The pairwise comparisons revealed two notable discrepancies. The first was that teachers' actual translanguaging practices were significantly greater than their general attitudinal endorsement of L1 use (mean difference = 5.06, $p = .00$). Second, their own use of the L1 in teaching far exceeded their approval of students' use of L1 (mean difference = 3.74, $p = .00$). These findings indicate a considerable inconsistency between what teachers believed regarding L1 use and what they actually reported do in their teaching.

4.4 Qualitative Analysis of the Congruence and Incongruence of Teacher Beliefs and Practices

To explore discrepancies between Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes and practices related to translanguaging, the study analyzed both qualitative data from the interviews and quantitative data from the questionnaire. The analysis provided findings regarding the congruence and incongruence between teachers' stated beliefs toward their use of L1 and their self-reported classroom practices. The results are organized into five themes, followed by a more in-depth analysis of the relationship between attitudes and practices.

4.4.1 L1 as a Cognitive Tool for Clarification and Comprehension

The primary emerging theme across the interviews was *the use of L1 as a cognitive tool for clarification and comprehension*. The majority of the interviewees highlighted the potential of L1 use to discuss complicated grammatical structures and abstract vocabulary. Nine teachers highlighted that limited use of L1, such as brief grammatical explanations, could sufficiently avoid confusion especially when they were conveying ideas like tense systems, articles, or modal verbs that lacked clear equivalents between Persian and English. As previously reported, these attitudes were strongly reflected in the questionnaire responses. Over half of the teachers (52.1%) reported using L1 to explain concepts, with a nearly half considering it "important" (42.9%) or "very important" (9.2%). This high percentage confirms that teachers actively employ L1 for clarification, aligning with their expressed beliefs about its cognitive benefits. The degree of consistency between surveys and interviews in this area is noticeable. The level of agreement on L1 use as a clarification tool among teachers was strong (nine teachers out of ten mentioned this in interviews) and matched with a high frequency of incorporation (52.1%, survey) in the classroom.

4.4.2 L1 for Reducing Anxiety and Supporting Low-Proficiency Learners

Another theme was the affective advantages of L1 use, with eight interviewed teachers discussing how it decreased student anxiety, especially for beginner or weaker students. Teachers noted that students' frustrations with excessive English-only instruction led to feelings of being overwhelmed, disengaged, and possibly choosing to drop out. The participants shared anecdotes about how the limited use of L1 helped relax students, both in terms of their comfort level with the language they were learning and their overall anxiety level, thereby creating a less intimidating and more supportive learning environment. In developing rapport, teachers explained it signified acknowledgement and empathy in students' L2 and emotional responses to L2 learning. The questionnaire data also reflected these findings with 77.6% of teachers using L1 to help low-proficiency students with nearly half (49%) indicating L1 use was "important" and over a quarter (28.6%) indicating it was "very important", and, likewise, 56.1% used L1 to build bonds with students also implying the affective impact L1 could have. The qualitative insights aligned strongly with quantitative data in that 77.6% of teachers reported using L1 to assist low-proficiency students, with 49% rating it as “important” and 28.6% as “very important”. Similarly, 56.1% leveraged L1 to strengthen student-teacher bonds. The convergence of qualitative and quantitative data underscores how teachers’ recognition of L1’s psychological value directly informs their pedagogical choices—balancing emotional support with language acquisition goals.

4.4.3 Context-Dependent Appropriateness of L1 Use

The interviewees consistently stated that the appropriateness of L1 depended on contextual factors such as student proficiencies, lesson objectives, and classroom dynamics (6 references). They reported that L1 support is more beneficial for beginners, while advanced learners should be encouraged to use English exclusively in the L2 classroom. Similarly, it was viewed as appropriate L1 support for grammar explanations or for complicated directions, while communicative activities were expected to be done in English. The questionnaire did not directly measure contextual adaptability, but the responses also suggested situational decision-making. This is evidenced by the high percentage of teachers (52.1%) who prioritized using L1 to explain complex concepts, a finding that aligns with the qualitative interview data, emphasizing L1 as a tool for clarifying cognitively demanding material.

While the questionnaire did not explicitly measure contextual adaptability, teachers' prioritization of L1 for *concept clarification* (52.1% rated it "important") indirectly reflected this nuance, aligning with interview findings about L1's role in tackling linguistically challenging material. However, the survey's broad categories could not fully capture the situational granularity described qualitatively, such as Nastaran's distinction between L1 use in private tutorials ("explaining IELTS techniques in Persian") versus group settings ("strictly English to avoid chaos").

4.4.4 L1 for Nuances and Cultural References

The interviewees acknowledged that L1 has a unique way of being used to explain what it means to describe a nuance or concept that is culture-specific (6 references). Examples here included idioms, metaphors, or grammatical characteristics nonexistent in English, such as the lack of articles in Persian. They noted that simple comparisons in L1 could lead to "Aha!" moments, as

previously stated, which helped students learn the subtle differences in this way faster than when the concepts were explained entirely in English. Though teachers stated that L1 was useful for nuanced concepts, they were careful not to overuse L1 if the concept was simple or obvious. To avoid, students miss out any L2 exposure. The questionnaire did not specifically address culturally or nuance-based explanations, which would make this comparison difficult. The quantitative data showed that 33.7% of teachers reported using L1 for vocabulary instruction, which may partially reflect these cultural and nuanced explanations. This connection between qualitative reports and quantitative responses suggests that teachers' classroom practices do incorporate L1 as a tool for mediating complex linguistic and cultural concepts, even if the survey instrument did not specifically probe these applications.

4.4.5 Caution Against Overuse and Emphasis on Balance

Even with an awareness of the benefits of L1, teachers made warnings against its overuse. They identified the risks of limited L2 input, learner passivity, and limited proficiency development. They even included strategies to address this risk, which included L1 explanations plus repetition of L2, carefully marking the boundaries of L1 use, and gradually phasing it out as students improve (7 references). Teachers mentioned that institutional policies of English-only contribute to the constraint, although others willingly acknowledged they used L1 when necessary. Teachers' restraint was reflected in their use of L1 regarding non-essential functions, with only 23.4% indicating in the questionnaire that L1 was “important” or “very important” for praise and only 28.6% for classroom management.

The interview data revealed a nuanced perspective on L1 use, with 40% of teacher responses explicitly emphasizing the need for balance and caution, a finding that aligned with questionnaire trends showing strong avoidance of L1 for peripheral classroom activities such as

routine praise or simple instructions. However, the relatively lower frequency of specific cautionary statements such as warnings about vocabulary over-translation or grammar over-explanation in interviews (compared to the strong support for L1's cognitive and affective benefits) suggests an implicit prioritization of practical utility of L1 use over potential risks in daily classroom practice.

The study revealed discrepancies between teachers' stated beliefs about L1 use and their actual classroom practices across multiple domains. While survey data showed that 72% of teachers expressed opposition to using L1 for vocabulary instruction, 33.7% confessed that they employed L1 in practice, a contradiction most evident in cases like Samira's admission of using quick L1 translations for abstract terms, such as "justice", when pressed for time. In the same vein, although 85% of teachers indicated a preference for English-only classroom management, 41% admitted that they resorted to L1 for efficiency in situations requiring immediate compliance. Hossein, for example, relied on cues in Persian to signal urgent transitions. These discrepancies between pedagogical ideals and practical implementation showed how the complex realities of classroom, including limitation of time and student proficiency, and classroom management, often lead to the need to compromise and respond to teaching in ways that are less than ideal. While interview data confirmed teachers' theoretical commitment to judicious L1 use (embodied in principles like Nastaran's "last-resort" guideline), their actual instructional decisions consistently reflected adaptive responses to the immediate challenges of their teaching contexts.

The findings from interview suggest that Iranian EFL teachers mostly have generally positive but cautious attitudes towards translanguaging. They identify its cognitive and affective advantages, while apprehensive about excessive use. They hold similar attitudes towards

translanguaging and consequently employ it in their practice, particularly where clarification (52.1%) was noted, and, to a greater extent, where support of low proficiency (77.6%) was noted. However, discrepancies arise in areas such as vocabulary instruction and classroom management, where practical constraints may outweigh theoretical preferences.

4.5 Quantitative Results of Teachers' Perceived Level of Translanguaging Anxiety

To address the third research question concerning Iranian EFL teachers' perceived level of translanguaging anxiety, descriptive statistics including frequency and percentage analyses were calculated from the FLTAS. Table 10 present the results of descriptive statistics.

Table 11

Frequency and Percentage of Iranian EFL Teachers' Self-Reported Anxiety Related to Translanguaging

Item	NA	N	R	ST	U	A
	F (%)	*F* (%)	*F* (%)	*F* (%)	*F* (%)	*F* (%)
Self-perception of language proficiency						
1. I feel anxious when I use students' first language (Persian) to discuss lesson topics before sharing in English.	11 (11.22)	29 (29.59)	23 (23.46)	14 (14.28)	12 (12.24)	9 (9.18)
2. I feel anxious when I use Persian especially when I perceive that some students have stronger English skills than I do.	16 (16.32)	30 (30.61)	18 (18.36)	17 (17.34)	9 (9.18)	7 (7.14)
3. Teaching and explaining in English make me feel anxious, so I prefer using Persian.	5 (5.10)	65 (66.32)	18 (18.36)	8 (8.16)	2 (2.04)	0
4. I feel anxious when the topics in the English textbook are unfamiliar, which leads me to resort to Persian.	5 (5.10)	35 (35.71)	36 (36.73)	14 (14.28)	8 (8.16)	4 (2)
5. I feel anxious when I consider my English language limitations, which lead me to rely on Persian for teaching.	8 (8.16)	38 (38.77)	31 (31.63)	12 (12.24)	7 (7.14)	2 (2.04)

6. When I make mistakes in word choice, grammar, or pronunciation while speaking, it makes me feel anxious, so I switch to Persian.	6 (6.12)	48 (48.97)	24 (24.48)	13 (13.26)	4 (4.08)	3 (3.06)
7. I feel anxious about my difficulty in teaching cultural aspects of the English language, so I switch to Persian.	6 (6.12)	38 (38.77)	32 (32.65)	17 (17.34)	3 (3.06)	2 (2.04)
8. When students unexpectedly ask a question in English, I feel anxious about not being able to answer it, so I switch to Persian.	9 (9.18)	60 (61.22)	14 (14.28)	12 (12.24)	1 (1.02)	2 (2.04)
9. The anxiety stemming from my concerns about my English language proficiency leads to a fear of forgetting things while teaching. In such situations, I prefer to switch to Persian.	10 (10.20)	54 (55.10)	19 (19.38)	10 (10.20)	2 (2.04)	3 (3.06)
10. I feel anxious about not being able to teach all aspects of grammar thoroughly due to my English language limitations, so I switch to Persian to ensure that my students fully understand the grammar point.	6 (6.12)	41 (41.83)	34 (34.69)	10 (10.20)	5 (5.10)	2 (2.04)
Teaching inexperience						
11. Being in an English classroom and feeling the pressure of using English makes me feel anxious, so I try to use Persian when necessary to ease the feeling.	11 (11.22)	56 (57.14)	22 (21.44)	5 (5.10)	3 (3.06)	1 (1.02)
12. I feel anxious before entering the English class due to the language requirements, so I calm myself by mentally rehearsing my ideas in Persian.	8 (8.16)	56 (57.14)	21 (21.42)	8 (8.16)	2 (2.04)	3 (3.06)
13. I think my lack of teaching experience makes me feel anxious, so I focus on teaching key parts of the lesson in Persian.	10 (10.20)	58 (59.18)	19 (19.38)	5 (5.10)	4 (4.08)	2 (2.04)
Lack of students' interest						
14. I feel anxious when students are not engaged in classroom tasks due to their English language limitations, so I use Persian to facilitate their involvement.	3 (3.06)	24 (24.48)	29 (29.59)	33 (32.67)	6 (6.12)	3 (3.06)
15. I feel anxious when my students' lack of engagement in learning English leads them to rely on Persian in class.	3 (3.06)	27 (27.55)	26 (26.53)	30 (30.61)	7 (7.14)	3 (3.06)

16. I feel anxious when my students show a lack of interest in learning English due to factors other than language proficiency, which makes me use Persian to keep them engaged.	2 (2.04)	27 (27.55)	37 (37.75)	24 (24.48)	4 (4.08)	5 (5.10)
Fear of negative evaluation						
17. I feel anxious about my mentors' observations, especially when I switch to Persian to support students' learning.	9 (9.18)	27 (27.55)	21 (21.42)	22 (21.44)	10 (10.20)	9 (9.18)
18. I feel anxious when my mentor observes me using Persian with the teacher-made materials I have planned.	16 (16.32)	23 (23.46)	26 (26.53)	12 (12.24)	13 (13.26)	8 (8.16)
19. My students' negative comments about my use of Persian in class make me anxious.	19 (20.21)	29 (29.59)	22 (22.44)	16 (16.32)	7 (7.14)	5 (5.10)
Difficulties with time management						
20. I feel anxious when I cannot manage my time effectively while switching between English and Persian.	11 (11.22)	39 (39.79)	22 (22.44)	15 (15.30)	9 (9.18)	2 (2.04)
21. I feel anxious when I finish planned activities before the class ends and my students start using English and Persian in ways I did not anticipate.	12 (12.24)	39 (39.79)	25 (25.51)	15 (15.30)	6 (6.12)	1 (1.02)
22. I feel anxious when I don't have enough time to explain complex English grammar rules, so I use Persian to speed up the process.	8 (8.16)	37 (37.75)	19 (19.38)	21 (20.42)	7 (7.14)	6 (6.12)

Note: *F*=Frequency; NA: not applied; N: never; R: rarely; S: Sometimes; U: usually; A: Always

The results of descriptive statistics revealed that teachers generally reported low anxiety about their language abilities for teaching, feeling confident in tasks like explaining concepts and handling student questions. For instance, 66.32 % reported "never," 18.36 % reported "rarely," and only 2.04 % reported "usually" experiencing anxiety when teaching in English or explaining points in English (Item 3). Similarly, 61.22% reported "never" experiencing anxiety when students asked unexpected questions in English, 14.28% reported "rarely," and only 3.06% reported "usually" or "always" feeling anxious (Item 8). Nonetheless, situational triggers are not

potential sources of anxiety for a significant subset of participants, as 36.73% of participants reported "rarely" experiencing anxiety about not knowing an unfamiliar textbook topic (Item 4), 30.61% reported "never" feeling anxious when previous students had stronger English skills than them (Item 2), and 38.77% reported "never" feeling anxious due to their limitations causing them to rely on L1 even when they did not want to (Item 5). Feelings of anxiety, ranging from "sometimes" to "always," were most likely to be reported when using L1 before an English discussion (Item 1: 35.70%) and for perceived limitations impacting the grammar explanation they teach (Item 10: 17.34%).

In contrast, teaching inexperience provoked consistently low levels of anxiety among teachers. Clear majorities never experienced anxiety related to classroom pressure (Item 11: 57.14%), pre-class mental rehearsal in L1 (Item 12: 57.14%), or not having experience that prompted L1 use (Item 13: 59.18%), with responses of "rarely" being the next most frequent. However, anxiety was more prevalent in the specific context of student engagement. The most recurrent anxiety reported by teachers was worrying that student disengagement was due to their limitations in English (Item 14: 32.67%), with 41.85% responses ranging from "sometimes" to "always." Likewise, 30.61% responded as "sometimes" feeling anxious for students to revert back to their L1 as a result of not feeling engaged (Item 15), and 37.75% responded as "rarely" feeling anxious due to a lack of interest not related to proficiency, which may cause them to rely on their L1 (Item 16).

In their responses regarding the fear of negative evaluation, the survey participants expressed mixed emotions. A number of participants indicated that they "never" (27.55%) or "rarely" (21.42%) felt anxious about using L1 when observed by their mentors (Item 17), while 21.44% stated that they "sometimes" felt anxious, and 19.38% said they "usually" or "always"

felt anxious. Again, when using L1 with planned materials during observation (Item 18), 26.53% of the participants stated that they “rarely” felt anxious, and 33.66% reported feeling anxious “sometimes” to “always.” With minimal mentions of student criticism, 29.59% stated that they “never” felt anxious (Item 19), and 28.56% still reported “sometimes” to “always.” The difficulties with time management indicated a general low anxiety level, as the most common responses were “never” (39.79%) for managing the time for code-switching (Item 20) and managing the time for unexpected language use by students (39.79%) (Item 21). For the use of the L1 for faster grammatical explanations (Item 22), 37.75% “never” felt anxious, with 20.42% “sometimes” feeling anxious.

In general, Iranian EFL teachers experienced predominantly low translanguaging anxiety in most dimensions, and particularly in the areas of explaining concepts and handling student questions. The most anxiety was experienced in cases of student disengagement perceived through the lens of students' limited proficiency, language-specific issues such as unfamiliar content, and external evaluation, including observations by their mentors. Time management anxieties were generally less pronounced, despite contextual pressures during complicated instruction. Based on these findings, it appears that teachers, in general, feel confident about their translanguaging abilities, but may require targeted support for instances of perceived linguistic vulnerability or classroom engagement issues.

4.6 Qualitative Results of Teachers' Perceived Level of Translanguaging Anxiety

The investigation into teachers' self-perceived anxiety surrounding L1 use revealed four distinct yet interconnected dimensions of professional apprehension, each emerging with varying frequency across interviews. *Professional Judgment Anxiety* was the most prominent concern,

referenced in seven separate instances, where teachers expressed apprehension about being perceived as linguistically deficient when employing Persian in the classroom. *Classroom Management Anxiety* and *Student Feedback Anxiety* each emerged six times, constituting equally considerable sources of anxiety. *Institutional Policy Anxiety*, referenced five times, revealed how organizational contraints intensify professional tensions. The themes with the related excerpts are described and elaborated in the following sections.

4.6.1 Professional Judgment Anxiety

Professional Judgment Anxiety emerged as a multifaceted concern among teachers, manifesting in self-perceived linguistic deficiencies and external performance pressures. As Samira reflected, "I felt embarrassed sometimes because I worried that students or colleagues might judge my English ability," capturing the internalized anxiety many novice teachers experience. This apprehension often led to strict self-regulation, with Maryam noting how she would "immediately switch back" to English after any stumble, fearing professional judgment. However, the data revealed a developmental trajectory, with experienced teachers like Ehsan demonstrating how confidence grows over time: "My first years of teaching, I thought using even one word in L1 is the greatest offense and taboo - that mindset clearly changed." This progression from anxiety to agency was further illustrated by Somayeh's strategic approach: "I pre-empt the judgment by explaining why I am using Persian...which repositions L1 as intentional scaffolding."

4.6.2 Classroom Management Anxiety

Classroom management anxiety manifested through three interconnected challenges that shape teachers' translanguaging decisions. The struggle is particularly acute for novice educators, as Rizi articulated: "Giving complex instructions for a group activity in English risks losing the

class; using L1 ensures everyone starts the task correctly and saves precious time." This inexperience-driven reliance often creates a self-perpetuating cycle, where Vahid noted how “a quick, firm word in Persian can stop a behavioral issue instantly, whereas an English explanation might escalate the confusion.” The anxiety extends to classroom engagement, where disengagement triggers strategic L1 use. Maryam described this tactical approach: "When students seem disengaged, I might use L1 briefly to re-engage them, especially to check in emotionally or clarify confusion," while Jana added that switching to L1 helps "bring them back into the activity" during frustrating moments. Time pressures introduce further complexity, with Maryam admitting that "time pressure often increases my anxiety level and leads me to use L1 for quick clarification," and Vahid acknowledging that "strictly sticking to English could slow everything down" when managing lesson flow. However, contrasting perspectives emerged from experienced teachers like Rizi, who emphasized alternative strategies: "I try to prepare some activities that can be interesting...without switching to L1," and Ehsan, who asserted that "if a teacher uses adapted language with care, there is no need to resort to L1 just to save time." This tension between pragmatic L1 use and ideal L2 immersion reflects the ongoing negotiation teachers face in balancing management needs with language development goals.

4.6.3 Student Feedback Anxiety

Teachers' decisions about their L1 use were influenced by students' reactions, creating both validation and self-doubt that shaped their pedagogical approaches. Positive responses served as powerful reinforcement, with Samira describing "when students respond positively to my use of L1, like understanding something difficult better, it makes me feel encouraged and confident in my teaching." These affirming moments often carried profound emotional weight, as illustrated by Jana's recollection of a student's comment: "Thank you for speaking a little Persian

sometimes—it helps me feel safe," which validated her translanguaging decisions. The participants believed that such feedback not only boosted their confidence but also reinforced the pedagogical value of strategic L1 use, encouraging them to continue employing it in appropriate contexts. However, the emotional landscape became markedly different when faced with negative reactions. Jana articulated this vulnerability, noting how "negative reactions, like when students assume I don't know English well, make me feel a little insecure," while Iman similarly acknowledged that "negative ones make me think twice and adjust." These critical responses triggered professional anxiety that manifested in more restrictive L1 use, with some teachers completely reevaluating their approach.

4.6.4 Institutional Policy Anxiety

The analysis revealed that official language policies and supervisory expectations create psychological and professional dilemmas for Iranian EFL teachers regarding L1 incorporation. Teachers navigate educational systems that often stigmatize Persian use, as Nastaran's statement underscores: "Using L1 in classrooms has always been a sort of taboo in language schools in Iran." This institutional disapproval fosters professional anxiety that manifests in self-censorship, even when teachers pedagogically endorse L1 integration. The high-stakes nature of performance evaluations exacerbates this tension, with Somayeh confessing that "fear of judgment once made me rigidly English-only during evaluations," sacrificing potential learning benefits for perceived professionalism. Further complicating this landscape is the inconsistent enforcement of language policies based on administrators' preferences. Hossein's experience highlights this variability: "I adjust my language use based on what I know about the evaluator's stance," revealing how teachers must constantly recalibrate their practices to accommodate individual supervisors' preferences.

4.7 Relationship between Teacher Attitudes towards Translanguaging and Anxiety

The fourth research question examined the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging and their anxiety associated with this approach. To quantify this relationship, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics of Translanguaging Attitude and Anxiety Components

	M	*SD*	*N*
General attitude	18.46	3.78	98
Students' L1 use	19.78	5.23	98
Self-perception of language proficiency	16.75	7.42	98
Teaching inexperience	4.03	2.49	98
Lack of students' interest	6.56	2.57	98
Fear of negative evaluation	6.02	3.75	98
Difficulties with time management	5.32	2.94	98

Descriptive statistics (see Table 12) indicated that participants reported the most positive attitude toward students' L1 use (M = 19.78, SD = 5.23), followed by their general attitudes toward translanguaging (M = 18.46, SD = 3.78). In contrast, the lowest mean anxiety level was reported for the teaching inexperience dimension (M = 4.03, SD = 2.49). This pattern suggests that teachers generally maintain positive views about L1 use while experiencing minimal anxiety about their teaching competence. Table 13 present the results from Pearson correlation analysis.

Table 13

Correlation Between Translanguaging Attitude and Anxiety Components

	Students' L1 use	Teaching inexperience	Lack of students' interest	Fear of negative evaluation	Difficulties with time management

General attitude	Pearson Correlation	.32**				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00				
Self-perception of language proficiency	Pearson Correlation		.63**	.49**	.5**	.67**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.00	.00	.00	.00
Teaching inexperience	Pearson Correlation			.26**	.39**	.51**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.00	.00	.00
Lack of students' interest	Pearson Correlation					.6**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.00
Fear of negative evaluation	Pearson Correlation			.51**		.6**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.00		.00

Note: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlational analysis revealed a complex web of statistically significant relationships between translanguaging attitudes and anxiety dimensions. There was a medium-sized positive relationship ($r = .32$, $p < .01$) between teachers' general attitudes towards translanguaging and their attitudes towards their students' use of their L1, suggesting that teachers who view translanguaging as a positive strategy are also more likely to be accepting of their own students using their first language in the classroom. Within the anxiety dimensions, there were strong positive relationships between the self-perception of language proficiency and teaching inexperience ($r = .63$, $p < .01$), lack of student interest ($r = .49$, $p < .01$), fear of negative evaluation ($r = .50$, $p < .01$), and time management difficulties ($r = .67$, $p < .01$), indicating that

teachers who doubt their own English skills are far more likely to also feel anxious about key classroom challenges, especially managing time. Teaching inexperience had a weak positive relationship with lack of student interest ($r = .26$, $p < .01$), a moderate relationship with fear of negative evaluation ($r = .39$, $p < .01$), and a strong relationship with time management concerns ($r = .51$, $p < .01$) implying that feeling inexperienced is most directly linked to struggles with the practical aspect of time management, and to a lesser extent, to the social fear of being judged negatively. Among classroom management related anxieties, there were strong intercorrelations between lack of student interest and time management ($r = .60$, $p < .01$), and fear of negative evaluation and lack of student interest ($r = .51$, $p < .01$) and fear of negative evaluation and time management ($r = .60$, $p < .01$). This shows perceived linguistic vulnerability (self-perception) has anchors and strongest connections to anxiety, while classroom management concerns exhibit robust mutual reinforcement.

4.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented findings from a mixed-methods study that looked at Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes, practices, and anxiety related to translanguaging. The quantitative results showed that teachers strongly supported using L1 to help low-proficiency learners and to explain complex concepts. However, they discouraged its use for regular classroom management. Notably, there was a difference between teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging and their more common classroom practices. The qualitative data offered deeper insight, identifying five main themes in teachers' approaches: using L1 as a cognitive tool, reducing anxiety, appropriate context, cultural mediation, and maintaining a balance to prevent overuse. The study also highlighted four areas of translanguaging anxiety: professional judgment, classroom management, student feedback,

and concerns about institutional policy. The correlational analysis revealed significant links between teachers' attitudes and their anxiety levels, showing that positive attitudes were related to lower anxiety. Various anxiety dimensions were strongly connected, especially the self-perception of language proficiency and other anxiety type.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 Discussion of Teachers' Attitudes toward and Practices of Translanguaging

The findings of the first research question revealed a compelling yet paradoxical portrait of Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward and practices regarding translanguaging. Although Iranian teachers have strategically used L1 to achieve particular pedagogical goals (e.g., clarifying complex concepts and scaffolding low-proficiency students), they have resisted student L1 use, which could highlight a deeper ideological alignment with English-dominant classroom norms (Allami & Shivakhah, 2025; Burton & Rajendram, 2019; Wang, 2019). The tension between practical L1 use and ideological commitment to using English only is often manifested as pedagogical double consciousness in which teachers seem to acknowledge the usefulness of L1 but prescribe their L1 use based on contextual imperatives (Alasmari et al., 2022; Almayez, 2022; Salimi et al., 2024; Setyarini & Jocuns, 2025). Such findings may challenge the assumption that translanguaging is universally embraced as a pedagogical tool, instead highlighting how local educational policies, linguistic hierarchies, and cultural beliefs mediate its implementation.

When compared to research conducted in other contexts (Fang & Liu, 2020; Nambisan, 2014; Pinto, 2020; Yuvayapan, 2019), the Iranian context revealed distinctive patterns that might complicate global translanguaging discourses. Whereas Nambisan (2014) demonstrated U.S. non-English teachers' use of L1 (other than English) for contextual and affective purposes, teachers in Iran appeared more hesitant—especially when it came to students using L1. Furthermore, while this selective L1 use aligns with McMillan and Rivers' (2011, p. 251) "English-mainly" not "English- only" approach, a key distinction lies in the Iranian context's emphasis on gradual L1 reduction, reflecting a unique belief in advancement toward English

dominance (Phillipson, 1992)—a perspective less prominent in Western contexts, where sustained bilingualism is often valorized.

The study also revealed a seeming contradiction. Although Iranian teachers acknowledged L1's cognitive advantages, they still seemed to face discomfort regarding its influence, indicating the cognitive-affective dissonance observed by Gardner et al. (2004) and Liu (2022). This cognitive-affective dissonance stands in some contrast to research demonstrating the advantages of translanguaging in reducing student anxiety and providing opportunities for cultural integration (Sun & Zhang, 2022; Yuvayapan, 2019). Therefore, successfully promoting translanguaging in Iran likely requires addressing teachers' concerns about proficiency standards—concerns that appear to be systematically reinforced by rigid institutional policies. Translanguaging advocates must therefore develop approaches that acknowledge and work within these specific tensions, rather than dismissing them.

Additionally, the study's findings that Iranian teachers experience little pedagogical guilt but strong linguistic insecurity reframes our existing ideas about teacher resistance to translanguaging. Unlike Macaro's (2006) "guilt" paradigm or Kerr's (2019) emphasis on pedagogical uncertainty, the Iranian context show that it is not doubts about their teaching ability, but rather linguistic insecurity that motivate their resistance. Such a finding has potentially important implications for teacher training programs suggesting that training programs could adopt a dual approach: fostering teachers' linguistic confidence while simultaneously providing methodological frameworks to support strategic L1 use in the classroom.

The most controversial outcome of the research is perhaps the way it seems to question Hall and Cook's (2013) "optimal scale" of L1 use. The Iranian case demonstrates that

translanguaging operates within a dynamic matrix of institutional constraints, communicative task demands, proficiency levels, and Persian-English structural differences. This matrix explains why Iranian teachers pragmatically employ L1 more than they ideologically endorse—a phenomenon also observed in Vietnam (Tian et al., 2023). These findings necessitate a reconsideration of calls for advocates of translanguaging, which should strive to transcend prescriptive frameworks such as monoglossic language ideologies and traditional dual-language programs that enforce artificial language separation and have at its center frames or instances that are adaptable to context.

This research helps illuminate the need for glocalized models of translanguaging (García & Li, 2014), which leverage local constraints and global recommendations. Teacher development programs that engage in the "for/against" arguments might: (1) equip teachers with techniques for structured L1 use when confronted with typological tensions between Persian and English (e.g., explanation of tense. As Rizi explained, “When I wanted to describe present perfect grammar, they had difficulty understanding the Persian equivalent, because the difference between present perfect and simple past is too subtle in Persian”; (2) empower teachers with policy advocacy tools such as developing action research projects and building professional learning communities that are based in applied linguistics research; and (3) create a systematized way to observe teachers' use of L1. This way, Iran and other contexts characterized by policy resistance could leverage the tensions between global pedagogies and local existences, and potentially make translanguaging a gradual shift from a contested practice to an ongoing, context-sensitive approach.

The Iranian case, therefore, provides not only regionally but also with a lens to consider the wider complexities involved in the adoption of translanguaging across the globe. It presents a

challenging view to the field: while translanguaging has attained notoriety and influence around the world, its practice will always be influenced by power imbalances, ideological continuities, and localized apprehensions.

5.2 Discussion of the Relationship between Translanguaging Attitudes and Practices

The findings of the second research question demonstrated a complex interplay between Iranian EFL teachers' beliefs about translanguaging and their classroom practices, which is both similar to and different from studies conducted in other contexts. While Iranian teachers generally uphold the pedagogical and affective value of L1, the practices reported often surpassed the beliefs they stated, indicating a discrepancy due to contextual and institutional barriers. This finding is similar to those reported by Almayez (2022) in Saudi Arabia, where teachers expressed favourable overall beliefs about translanguaging in very structured and conventional contexts, but faced barriers to translanguaging in practice due to institutional policies and students' limited proficiency level.

Like the study of Alasmari et al. (2022) that found Saudi university professors had a positive view of translanguaging (especially for explaining difficult words and communicating), Iranian EFL teachers in this study also saw cognitive benefits of L1 and used it to attain the desired learning objectives, that is, to explain grammar and alleviate student anxiety. The findings also indicate that when teachers in both studies believed that translanguaging was pedagogically useful, they found ways to use it or incorporate it into their teaching, even if they had certain ideologically based reservations. Setyarini and Jocuns (2025) found that Indonesian teachers consciously translanguaged for specific instructional reasons, just as the Iranian teachers chose to translanguage for instructional reasons. However, the use of L1 was dependent on the

context and type of task because L1 was socially deemed acceptable for beginner students or when learning abstract concepts.

Nevertheless, there is a notable distinction concerning how institutional policies shape translanguaging practices (Pérez Fernández, 2024). In the case of the Saudi context, where the teachers in the study mentioned institutional resistance or a lack of guidance (Almayez, 2024), the Iranian teachers did not cite policy restrictions as a major obstacle. Rather, the Iranian teachers' use of L1, despite their prudent approach to translanguaging, may better demonstrate that the immediacy of classroom demands influences translanguaging practices more than policies that are often politically inspired or top-down (Salimi et al., 2024). This is in contrast to the suggestion from Fang and Liu (2020) within the Chinese context, where the need for institutional support was highlighted as vital for aligning teachers' attitudes with their practices; that is, teachers needed institutional backing to shift their beliefs and practices.

Iranian teachers exhibit an attitude-practice gap similar to that found by Almayez (2022) among Saudi teachers, though the two studies attribute the gap to different causes. Almayez's (2022) teachers identified students' diverse linguistic needs and the limited institutional policy around translanguaging as challenges, whereas Iranian teachers highlighted their immediate pedagogical needs. Thus, while translanguaging is considered to have value, its application is highly context-specific, relying on local education cultures and contexts, student demographic characteristics, and institutional flexibility.

The consistent finding of an attitude-practice gap across diverse contexts underscores a critical need for professional development (PD) on translanguaging. While prior research establishes the general principles for such professional development—such as Alasmari et al.'s (2022) guidelines for structured online environments and Fang and Liu's (2020) focus on

counteracting monolingual ideologies through institutional support—the specific form it must take remains context-dependent. This study argues that for Iranian EFL settings, effective training must move beyond general principles to address localized needs: explicitly training strategic L1 use, creating a safe space for teachers to acknowledge their hesitancies, and providing tools to navigate specific classroom demands. Additionally, flexible language policies—similar to those advocated in Setyarini and Jocuns (2025), i.e. developing teachers' agency in translanguaging—despite institutional constraints could empower teachers to leverage translanguaging without fear of deviating from curricular expectations.

5.3 Discussion on Translanguaging Anxiety

The findings of the third research question presented a nuanced perspective on translanguaging anxiety that both converges with and diverges from existing research. While previous studies in monolingual-dominant educational contexts have identified fear of judgment, instability in practice, and adherence to established norms as primary sources of teacher anxiety (Back et al., 2020; Rivera & Mazak, 2017), the Iranian context reveals a seemingly more complex configuration of these anxieties with distinct local characteristics. The data suggest that Iranian EFL teachers experienced what might be termed a linguistic insecurity paradox—they demonstrated relatively strong confidence in their teaching competencies yet often expressed anxiety about their English language proficiency, particularly when it is exposed through translanguaging practices. This stands in contrast to Macaro's (2006) concept of pedagogical guilt, more commonly found in Western contexts, which suggests that local linguistic hierarchies and institutional power structures may fundamentally shape the nature of translanguaging anxiety.

The comparison demonstrates significant contextual differences in the manifestation of translanguaging anxiety in different educational contexts. Whereas Mazak's (2017) research gradually incorporated translanguaging into a sustainable pedagogical response, Iranian teachers had a more transitional perspective on L1 use as a scaffolding tool, which would reduce over time. This discrepancy may originate from different language ideologies and policy contexts. While translanguaging can function as a linguistic form of resistance, in Iran, translanguaging was limited by strong institutional pressures that privileged English-only policy and pedagogical paradigm**.** Similarly, while previous studies emphasize internalized monolingual ideologies as the primary barrier (Back et al., 2020), the case of Iran implies that anxiety stems more from adherence to external policy and evaluative repercussions than from one's beliefs about language use. Collectively, these findings suggest that translanguaging anxiety cannot be understood as a universal phenomenon and likely requires examination in light of the sociopolitical and institutional contexts of each educational setting. This study ultimately argues for a more situated understanding of translanguaging anxiety and recognizes the ways in which local power relations, language ideologies, and institutional contexts work together to shape teachers' experiences and practices in quite different ways. In particular, this would encourage a critical exploration of possibilities beyond unquestioned pathways and generate understandings of how to develop more effective strategies, which are sensitive to contextual intricacies, for equipping teachers to work in multilingual classrooms.

5.4 Discussion on the Relationship between Translanguaging Attitudes and Anxiety

The examination of the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging and their associated anxieties revealed several important patterns that contribute

to our understanding of language teaching in constrained policy contexts. The analysis uncovered that teachers held positive attitudes toward translanguaging yet reported anxiety about its implementation. This suggests that while teachers conceptually value the strategic use of L1, this belief does not translate into confidence in practice. This finding aligns with research illustrating teachers' navigation of ideological constraints and practical needs (Salimi et al., 2024).

The correlation analysis provides a potentially more nuanced understanding of how these attitudes and anxieties interact. The lack of significant correlations might indicate that a teacher's stance on translanguaging is not strongly associated with their level of teaching anxiety. This finding suggests that opposition to translanguaging is correlated primarily with personal insecurity, and suggests a potential relationship with other contextual and ideological factors. The particularly strong correlation between the self-perception of their language proficiency and the challenges of managing their time suggests that teachers who are uncertain when using their English language skills and employing translanguaging may exert considerable stress when balancing the use of languages in the classroom. This connection may explain why some teachers limit L1 use, despite recognizing its benefits, not due to pedagogical objections but because of the cognitive load created by managing two languages while already feeling linguistically insecure.

There were strong correlations between self-perception of language proficiency and other components of anxiety which may suggest that linguistic confidence is a key component linked to different areas of teaching experience. Teachers with low confidence in their English abilities appear more likely to experience different types of classroom anxiety, which can create a domino effect in their decisions about what language to use in class. This pattern is largely different from

the results reported from studies in Western contexts where pedagogical issues dominate (Macaro, 2006), again showing how context may determine what is at the forefront of associated anxiety for teachers.

Among attitudinal measures, it is evident that the moderate positive correlation between general translanguaging attitudes and approval of students' L1 use represents a consistent set of beliefs among teachers who support the principled incorporation of L1. More interesting were the strong links found among anxieties, particularly within classroom management facets: Teachers' perception of students' lack of interest was strongly correlated with their own time management difficulties. Similarly, their fear of negative evaluation was strongly correlated with both their perception of students' lack of interest and their time management concerns. These correlations suggest how differently named stressors compound in the classroom context. These correlations suggest that anxiety about translanguaging rarely exists independently but rather interacts with broader teaching challenges, creating a feedback loop where stress related to L1 languahe use co-occurs with other general teaching stress, and vice versa.

The significant contribution of language proficiency anxiety suggests that first, professional development programs should integrate both linguistic and pedagogical competencies. Second, the interconnectedness of multiple areas of anxiety suggests that examining the impact of translanguaging practices must consider the full context of the teaching experience, rather than focusing exclusively on language use policies. Finally, the relative independence of attitudes from anxieties indicates that changing teachers' translanguaging behaviors is likely more complex than simply offering support for their skills; instead, any successful shift will also require addressing institutional and policy-level constraints. Ultimately,

this finding contributes to a new understanding of how language teachers navigate aspects of beliefs, skills, and contextual pressures within their multilingual classroom contexts.

5.5 Empirical, Methodological, and Pedagogical Implications

The results of this study add to the empirical explanatory base of translanguaging, both theoretically and practically. Empirically, this study provides empirical insights that contribute to understanding of translanguaging dynamics in the Iranian educational context. The findings revealed a complex, multi-layered reality that challenges conventional assumptions in several crucial ways. First, the research showed the emergence of what might be termed contextual translanguaging consciousness among Iranian EFL teachers, a sophisticated, situationally-responsive approach to L1 use that operates within three distinct but interconnected dimensions: pedagogical pragmatism (strategic L1 employment for specific instructional purposes), ideological constraint (internalized monolingual norms), and institutional negotiation (navigating policy limitations). This tripartite framework offers a more nuanced alternative to the binary for/against conceptualizations of translanguaging attitudes. The study makes contributions to understanding the emotional ecology of translanguaging practices.

While previous research has focused primarily on cognitive or pedagogical aspects, this study revealed that Iranian teachers experience a unique affective paradox—they reported high confidence in their teaching competencies but marked insecurity about their English proficiency, creating linguistic impostor syndrome in translanguaging contexts. This finding necessitates a reconceptualization of teacher anxiety frameworks, suggesting that in restrictive policy environments, linguistic insecurity may outweigh pedagogical concerns as the primary barrier to the adoption of translanguaging.

Furthermore, the research provides empirical evidence for the implementation gap phenomenon, where teachers' actual classroom practices of L1 use (particularly for explaining grammar and reducing anxiety) exceed their stated ideological positions. This discrepancy appears particularly pronounced in three specific domains: (1) tense and aspect instruction, (2) abstract concept explanation, and (3) classroom management scenarios. The study identifies four key mediating factors that influence this gap: institutional surveillance intensity, student proficiency level, lesson objectives, and teachers' linguistic confidence.

Methodologically, this research presented a model for investigating pedagogical practices in restrictive educational contexts. The study's sequential mixed-methods design, incorporating quantitative data followed by qualitative written interviews, was particularly adept at overcoming the constraints of conducting research from a geographical distance. Further, the instrument adaptation process developed for this study, involving, conceptual mapping, cultural-linguistic adaptation, expert validation, and multi-stage piloting, provides a replicable process for developing context-sensitive research tools. The modified version of the FLTAS achieved high reliability while maintaining cultural appropriateness.

The pedagogical implications emerging from this research call for a shift in how translanguaging is conceptualized and implemented in restrictive policy environments. At the micro-level of classroom practice, the findings necessitate moving beyond generic translanguaging advocacy to develop principled L1 use strategies tailored to specific Persian-English linguistic challenges. Specifically, this study showed that teachers used L1 for tense-aspect instruction, prepositional usage, article explanation, phrasal verb acquisition, and abstract concept clarification.

The study's most urgent pedagogical recommendation involved restructuring teacher education programs to address the triple anxiety complex identified in the research: linguistic insecurity, pedagogical uncertainty, and policy fear. Four areas for teacher development might be proposed: (1) confidence-building through language enhancement; (2) implementation of effective classroom strategies; (3) critical understanding of language policy; and (4) empowerment in policy negotiation. Development training would incorporate micro-teaching sessions focused on precise translanguaging techniques, linguistic support workshops, and training in evidence-based advocacy.

At the macro level, the research suggests that sustainable translanguaging implementation requires evidence-based changes to institutional norms. This might involve developing official guidelines for strategic L1 use, creating protected innovation zones where teachers can experiment with translanguaging, and establishing peer observation systems that focus on effective L1/L2 balancing rather than strict compliance monitoring.

The study ultimately argues for reconceptualizing translanguaging in restrictive contexts not as an ideological position, but as a pedagogical skill set—a collection of teachable, research-based techniques that can be judiciously employed to enhance English learning while respecting local educational values. This pragmatic approach, grounded in empirical findings, offers a viable path forward for improving language education in Iran and similar contexts worldwide.

5.6 Limitations and Future Research Directions

Although this research offers insights into translanguaging practices in Iranian EFL contexts, some limitations may affect the interpretations and generalizability. First, the reliance on self-report measures presents several challenges, particularly in Iran's policy-restricted educational

environment, where teachers may feel compelled, even under anonymity, to provide responses that align with official policies rather than their actual practices. Second, the lack of classroom observations hindered the verification of whether reported practices aligned with behavior in the classroom. Third, the absence of data on student learning meant that it could not be determined whether the practices reported were associated with improvement in learning. Fourth, while conducting the interviews in written form offered advantages in terms of participant comfort and scheduling, it also limited the researcher's ability to clarify or probe responses, as well as prevented observing any non-verbal behaviour that may have contributed to the richness to the data. Moreover, this study provides a snapshot of participating teachers' reported attitudes and practices, and as such is likely limited to capture temporal variation in the teachers' translanguaging practices that may be task-specific or context-dependent.

Finally, convenience sampling also produced a participant sample that may not reflect the diversity of Iranian EFL teachers. The self-selection bias with voluntary participation may have excluded perspectives from teachers who are especially resistant to translanguaging.

To address these constraints, numerous research avenues exist. For example, future research could employ a mixed-methods design combining self-reports, classroom observations, and artifact analysis perhaps augmented with video-stimulated recall, to mitigate potential inconsistencies between self-reported and observed teaching practices. Experimental research could also systematically examine specific translanguaging strategies to determine their efficacy in improving learning outcomes and their practical feasibility within policy-constrained classrooms. Research could also encompass a broader range and diversity of participants, such as rural versus urban teachers, novice versus experienced teachers, and student voices and their learning outcomes.

There is much ground to cover in future research, both theoretically and empirically, related to translanguaging and its role in different educational contexts. Concerning theory, more nuanced and context-sensitive models of contextual translanguaging competence, as well as better operationalization of constructs related to anxiety are required. The resulting context-specified knowledge base would produce useful practical knowledge to share with educators and influence language education policy in Iran and other similar contexts.

5.7 Conclusion

This study presents a nuanced and complex portrait of translanguaging in Iranian EFL classrooms, revealing that its adoption is not a straightforward application of a global pedagogical trend but a deeply contextual, ideologically contested, and psychologically complex practice. The findings reveal a series of persistent tensions and paradoxes that define the Iranian EFL context. Firstly, the research identifies a fundamental attitude-practice gap. Teachers strategically and practically used L1 to accomplish a variety of teaching purposes (e.g., preparing students to produce complex grammatical forms, keeping anxiety low), but ideologically resisted their students from using it, conforming more to monolingual English-only guidelines. This suggests teacher practices tend to be more flexible than their beliefs, where teachers, instead of being bound by restrictions from top-down policy, are mostly governed by immediate classroom imperatives.

Second, the study uncovers a distinct configuration of translanguaging anxiety, which in Iran is rooted not in pedagogical guilt but in linguistic insecurity. Teachers articulated confidence in their teaching skills, but anxiety concerning their own English language proficiency, which was compounded by the pressures of the institution and fear of being negatively evaluated. This

linguistic insecurity paradox creates a significant cognitive load and fosters a profound sense of professional dissonance discouraging L1 use not on ideological grounds but rather due to the challenges of managing two languages while also feeling professionally insecure. Third, the investigation of the relationship between attitudes and anxiety yielded an important finding in that whether or not an individual teacher believed in translanguaging was not related to their anxiety. Rather, anxiety was more strongly associated with their perceptions of their own language proficiency and with broader classroom management issues. This is important because resistance to translanguaging is not simply a matter of belief but connects to a complex interplay of contextual and personal factors.

These results point to the need of a departure from universal, prescriptive models of translanguaging. The Iranian case emphasizes that translanguaging is mediated by a dynamic matrix of local linguistic hierarchies, institutional power relations, sociocultural beliefs, and the structural differences between Persian and English language. In conclusion, this research demonstrates that the global circulation of translanguaging pedagogy is inevitably filtered through local realities of power and ideology. For translanguaging to be adopted as a context-sensitive norm in places like Iran, advocacy must embrace and navigate these localized tensions. Ultimately, the Iranian context provides a unique perspective on adapting translanguaging practice and its associated revolutionary pedagogy. One must think carefully about the deeply intertwined nature of teacher cognition, institutional policy, and the real sociolinguistic challenges of the instructional environment.

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Appendices

Appendix A. Teachers' Attitude toward Translanguaging Scale (TATTS)

Items	Not applicable	Very important	Important	Neutral	Not important	Not very important
1. To explain concepts						
2. To describe vocabulary						
3. To give directions						
4. For classroom management						
5. To give feedback to students						
6. To praise students						
7. To build bonds with students						
8. To help low-proficiency students						

Items	Not applicable	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Using students' L1 in the classroom is an appropriate practice						
2. Using students' L1 is essential for learning a new language						
3. Teachers' use of students' L1 in class would be helpful for bilingual/multilingual learners						

4. Using students' L1 develops the learners' confidence in English						
5. Language teachers should avoid using the students' L1 because it will prevent English language learning						
6. Using students' L1 indicates a lack of linguistic proficiency in English						

Items	Not applicable	Very important	Important	Neutral	Not important	Not very important
1. To discuss content or activities in small groups						
2. To provide assistance to peers during activities						
3. To brainstorm during activities						
4. To explain problems not related to content						
5. To respond to teachers' questions						
6. To ask permission						

Appendix B. Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale (FLTAS)

N = Never; R = Rarely; S = Sometimes; U = Usually; A = Always

Item	Not applicable	N	R	S	U	A
Self-perception of language proficiency						
1. I feel anxious when I use students' first language (Persian) to discuss lesson topics before sharing in English.						
2. I feel anxious when I use Persian especially when I perceive that some students have stronger English skills than I do.						
3. Teaching and explaining in English make me feel anxious, so I prefer using Persian.						
4. I feel anxious when the topics in the English textbook are unfamiliar, which leads me to resort to Persian.						
5. I feel anxious when I consider my English language limitations, which lead me to rely on Persian for teaching.						
6. When I make mistakes in word choice, grammar, or pronunciation while speaking, it makes me feel anxious, so I switch to Persian.						
7. I feel anxious about my difficulty in teaching cultural aspects of the English language, so I switch to Persian.						
8. When students unexpectedly ask a question in English, I feel anxious about not being able to answer it, so I switch to Persian.						
9. The anxiety stemming from my concerns about my English language proficiency leads to a fear of forgetting things while teaching. In such situations, I prefer to switch to Persian.						

10. I feel anxious about not being able to teach all aspects of grammar thoroughly due to my English language limitations, so I switch to Persian to ensure that my students fully understand the grammar point.						
Teaching inexperience						
11. Being in an English classroom and feeling the pressure of using English makes me feel anxious, so I try to use Persian when necessary to ease the feeling.						
12. I feel anxious before entering the English class due to the language requirements, so I calm myself by mentally rehearsing my ideas in Persian.						
13. I think my lack of teaching experience makes me feel anxious, so I focus on teaching key parts of the lesson in Persian.						
Lack of students' interest						
14. I feel anxious when students are not engaged in classroom tasks due to their English language limitations, so I use Persian to facilitate their involvement.						
15. I feel anxious when my students' lack of engagement in learning English leads them to rely on Persian in class.						
16. I feel anxious when my students show a lack of interest in learning English due to factors other than language proficiency, which makes me use Persian to keep them engaged.						
Fear of negative evaluation						
17. I feel anxious about my mentors' observations, especially when I switch to Persian to support students' learning.						
18. I feel anxious when my mentor observes me using Persian with the teacher-made materials I have planned.						

19. My students' negative comments about my use of Persian in class make me anxious.						
Difficulties with time management						
20. I feel anxious when I cannot manage my time effectively while switching between English and Persian.						
21. I feel anxious when I finish planned activities before the class ends and my students start using English and Persian in ways I did not anticipate.						
22. I feel anxious when I don't have enough time to explain complex English grammar rules, so I use Persian to speed up the process.						

Appendix C. Structured Interview Questions

1. How would you describe your attitude toward teachers using L1 in the classroom?
2. What experiences or beliefs have shaped that attitude?
3. In what ways do you think using L1 in the classroom is appropriate or inappropriate?
4. Can you think of situations where it's especially helpful—or not helpful—for students?
5. How do you use L1 in your own classroom, if at all?
6. What factors influence your decision to use it or avoid it during teaching?
7. In your opinion, how can the use of L1 by teachers affect students' English learning—either positively or negatively?
8. Can you share examples from your own teaching where you felt L1 either supported or hindered learning?
9. What kinds of situations lead you to use L1 in your classroom?
10. Is it usually related to students' comprehension, classroom management, or something else?
11. Could you describe specific examples of when you used L1 in your teaching, and why?
12. What were the students' reactions in those moments?
13. How do you perceive the relationship between a teacher's use of L1 and their English proficiency?
14. Have you ever encountered situations where others questioned or commented on a teacher's proficiency based on their use of L1?
15. What are your views on students using L1 in the classroom?
16. Do you allow or encourage it in certain situations? Why or why not?
17. Can you describe a time when students used L1, and how it affected the learning process?
18. How does using L1 in class affect the way you perceive your own English proficiency, if at all?
19. Have you ever felt anxious because you thought students or colleagues might judge your language ability?
20. In what ways do you think teaching inexperience might contribute to teachers' anxiety or their choice to use L1?
21. Did your own approach to using L1 change as you gained more experience?
22. How do you feel when students seem uninterested or disengaged in class?
23. Does this affect your decision to use L1, or how you manage the lesson?
24. How do concerns about being evaluated by others (e.g., mentors, supervisors) influence your use of L1 in class?
25. Have you ever changed your approach during an observation? What were you feeling in that moment?

26. How do students' reactions—positive or negative—to your use of L1 affect you emotionally or professionally?
27. Can you recall a specific instance where a student's feedback stayed with you?
28. How do time management challenges in class affect your stress or anxiety levels, particularly in relation to language use?
29. Are there times when managing the lesson flow makes you feel pressure to use L1?

Appendix D. **Code Book of Teachers' Attitudes toward and Practice of Translanguaging**

Codes	Definition	Examples	Frequency
L1 for explaining tense contrasts	Using Persian to explain the difference between English tenses that do not have a direct or simple equivalent in Persian (e.g., present perfect vs. simple past).	"When I wanted to describe 'present perfect' grammar, they had difficulty understanding the Persian equivalent because the difference is too subtle in Persian. So I must use examples in both." (Rizi)	7
Using L1 to disambiguate phrasal verbs	Using Persian to explain the meaning of a phrasal verb (e.g., "give up," "look into") where the meaning is not clear from the individual words.	"For phrasal verbs like 'run into'—meaning to meet someone—direct translation makes no sense. I give the Persian equivalent 'didar kardan ba' immediately to avoid confusion." (Vahid)	5
L1 for clarifying prepositions	Using L1 to explain the usage of English prepositions (e.g., in, on, at) which often do not have a one-to-one mapping with Persian prepositions.	"Prepositions are always tricky. For 'interested in', I tell them the Persian equivalent to lock in the correct collocation." (Somayeh)	4
First-language equivalents for abstract nouns	Providing a direct Persian translation for nouns representing ideas or feelings (e.g., "freedom," "anxiety") to ensure conceptual understanding.	"For abstract nouns like 'justice' or ' democracy', a quick translation ensures everyone starts from the same understanding." (Maryam)	6
L1 to explain grammatical exceptions	Using L1 to clarify irregular verb forms, unusual plural nouns, or other rules that are exceptions to standard English grammar patterns.	"Why the past of 'go' is 'went'? Sometimes it's easier to just say 'in Persian we say X' and move on rather than getting stuck." (Iman)	3
L1 for quick error correction	Providing a direct translation or brief explanation in Persian to correct a student error rapidly without disrupting the flow of the lesson.	"Sometimes giving a quick L1 translation saves time and helps students understand it better than just reading an English definition." (Samira)	7
Translating instructions for task clarity	Using L1 to ensure all students understand what they are supposed to do for an activity or assignment, especially with complex tasks.	For a complicated group project, I explain the steps in Persian first to make sure no one is lost before we begin." (Jana)	8
L1 to summarize lengthy explanations	Providing a concise Persian summary after a longer explanation in English to	"After explaining a grammar rule in English, I might ask a student to	5

	reinforce the main points and check for understanding.	summarize the key point in Persian for the class." (Hossein)	
Bilingual glossaries for technical terms	Creating or using pre-made lists of key vocabulary with L1 translations for specific subjects like science or law.	"For my ESP class for engineers, we built a glossary together. The Persian equivalent was essential for technical terms." (Ehsan)	2
L1 to reassure students after mistakes	Using a quick, gentle word in Persian to encourage a student who has made an error, signaling that mistakes are a normal part of learning.	"A simple 'no problem' or 'don't worry' in Persian can ease the panic on a beginner's face immediately." (Maryam)	6
Code-switching to ease transition to L2	Starting a sentence or activity in Persian and then switching to English to gently guide students into the target language.	"I might say 'so, what we're going to do is...' in Persian, and then give the instruction in English. It works like a ramp." (Vahid)	5
L1 for calming test anxiety	Using L1 to give pre-test instructions or reassurance to reduce stress and ensure anxiety does not impede performance.	"Right before a test, I go over the key instructions in Persian one last time. I see their shoulders relax." (Jana)	4
L1 for personalized feedback	Using L1 to provide nuanced, encouraging, or sensitive feedback on a student's progress or performance in a way that feels more personal than in L2.	"Telling a struggling student 'I see how hard you're trying' in Persian carries more emotional weight." (Iman)	5
Using L1 nicknames to build connection	Using L1 to provide nuanced, encouraging, or sensitive feedback on a student's progress or performance in a way that feels more personal than in L2.	"Using a familiar name or 'joonam' [a term of endearment] with adults can build a strong, trusting connection." (Hossein)	2
Sharing L1 jokes to lighten mood	Employing humor in Persian to break tension, build camaraderie, and foster a positive learning environment.	I also sometimes used L1 to build rapport and make the class feel more relaxed.” (Samira)	7
L1 thinking time before L2 responses	Allowing students to formulate their thoughts or discuss a question in Persian first before asking them to articulate their answer in English.	"I say 'discuss with your partner in Persian for one minute, then we'll share in English.' The quality of answers improves dramatically." (Somayeh)	5
Permitting L1 whispers during pair work	Tolerating brief uses of L1 between students during collaborative tasks to	"I don't mind if they quickly ask each other 'what's the word for...'	4

	overcome lexical gaps and keep the activity moving.	in Persian. It's a natural part of the process." (Rizi)	
L1 to validate struggling students' ideas	Accepting and praising a student's idea expressed in L1 to encourage contribution, even if the language production is not in English.	"If a shy student whispers an answer in Persian, I'll say 'Excellent point! Now let's try that in English.' It validates their thinking." (Maryam)	5
Students skipping L2 attempts if L1 is available	The concern that students will not attempt to speak or think in English if they know the teacher will eventually provide a Persian translation.	"If they rely too much on the first language, students don't get enough practice using English." (Samira)	4
L1 overuse in group work reduces L2 output	The observation that students often default to Persian in group discussions if not actively monitored, reducing the opportunity for L2 practice.	"If I'm not careful, group work becomes a Persian discussion club. I have to actively enforce 'English-only' for those tasks." (Nastaran)	3
Parents complaining about insufficient L2 exposure	Experiencing pressure from parents who believe they are not getting value for money if they hear their child using or hearing Persian in class.	"I've had parents say, 'We can speak Persian at home; we pay for you to speak English.'" (Vahid)	2
School audits penalizing L1 use	Formal institutional evaluations that mark teachers down for using Persian in the classroom.	"Usage of L1 is also strictly forbidden in language schools in Iran (at least in the ones I know or have worked at)." (Nastaran)	4
Colleagues criticizing lazy L1 reliance	Facing judgment from other teachers who view any use of L1 as a sign of poor preparation or lack of skill.	"There's an unspoken competition sometimes, a feeling that using L1 is 'cheating'." (Iman)	3
Setting 'English-only' time blocks	Designating specific portions of the lesson (e.g., the first 20 minutes) where only English is permitted.	"We have a 'English Zone' timer. When it's on, everyone tries their hardest to use only English." (Jana)	5
Rewarding L2 attempts with praise	Positively reinforcing students who attempt to communicate in English, even if their attempt is not fully accurate.	"I praise the effort, not just the accuracy. 'I love that you tried to say that in English!' goes a long way." (Maryam)	6
Modeling circumlocution in L2	Demonstrating how to describe a word or concept using other English words when the exact vocabulary is unknown.	"Instead of translating 'watering can', I'll say 'it's a tool we use to put water on plants'. I show them how to work around a word." (Somayeh)	4

Zero L1 in advanced discussion classes	A conscious policy to avoid L1 entirely in classes with proficient students to maximize fluency practice and simulate an immersive environment.	"With my advanced group, it's all English. They don't need it, and it would break the flow of debate." (Ehsan)	5
L1 allowed only for A1-A2 levels	A self-imposed rule where the teacher permits L1 use only for classes at the lowest proficiency levels.	“The point of proficiency is an important one... I use more L1 as support with beginner classes and reduce it as the students become more proficient.” (Somayeh)	7
L1 banned in fluency-focused tasks	Prohibiting L1 during speaking activities, debates, or role-plays where the primary goal is to practice producing spoken English fluently.	"During speaking activities, the rule is English only. It's about building confidence and automaticity." (Rizi)	6
L1 permitted in grammar-translation lessons	Accepting and using L1 in lessons that explicitly focus on comparing linguistic structures between Persian and English.	"When the lesson objective is to understand the structure itself, using L1 is not just allowed, it's the method." (Vahid)	4
L1 for sensitive 1-on-1 corrections	Using Persian to provide corrective feedback in a private manner to avoid embarrassing a student in front of their peers.	“In private lessons, depending on the nature of the lesson, and the level of the student, I would decide on the extent of L1 use.” (Nastaran)	5
Strict L2 enforcement in large groups	Minimizing L1 use in larger classes to maintain management control and ensure that the class does not fragment into off-task L1 conversations.	"In a big class, if you use a little Persian, soon everyone is talking in Persian. It's harder to manage, so I stick to English more." (Iman)	4
L1 for translating untranslatable words	Using L1 to convey the meaning of words that have no direct equivalent, often expressing culture-specific concepts (e.g., "privacy," "small talk").	"A word like 'cottage' isn't just a house. I explain the cultural concept of a weekend getaway in Persia to give the full meaning." (Hossein)	5
Comparing L1/L2 politeness conventions	Using L1 to explicitly teach the different social rules for making requests, apologizing, or addressing people in English compared to Persian.	"I explain how 'Could you possibly...' in English serves the same function as using a more formal pronoun in Persian." (Somayeh)	4
L1 to explain L2 word order differences	Using L1 to point out differences in syntax, such as adjective placement (e.g., "red car" vs. Persian word order).	"I constantly remind them: 'Remember, in English the adjective comes first! It's the opposite of Persian.'" (Samira)	3

Using L1 metalanguage to teach L2 grammar	Using Persian grammatical terminology (e.g., فعل for verb, فاعل for subject) to explain English grammar rules.	“When I teach the present perfect tense... using the comparison of Persian's "نقطه زمانی" to "مدت زمان" helps students get there much quicker.” (Somayeh)	7

Appendix E. Code Book of Teachers' Perceived Level of Translanguaging Anxiety

Codes	Definition	Examples	Frequency
Worrying that reliance on L1 undermines authority	The concern that using Persian diminishes one's stature or control as an expert model of the English language in the classroom.	"I was cautious about using L1, worrying it might be seen as a weakness." (Maryam)	4
Feeling that using L1 reflects lack of L2 proficiency	The belief that resorting to L1 is an admission of a personal shortcoming in English language ability.	"I worried that students or colleagues would judge my English ability based on my L1 use or my speech." (Vahid)	5
Anxiety about peers perceiving L1 use as unprofessional	Worry that fellow teachers will view the use of L1 as a sign of laziness or poor teaching practice.	"I felt uneasy when a colleague spoke to me in L1 in a staff room where others didn't understand. I was concerned that it might seem disrespectful or exclusionary..." (Hossein)	3
Fear students equate L1 reliance with teacher incompetence	The apprehension that learners will interpret the teacher's use of Persian as a sign that the teacher is not skilled or knowledgeable enough in English.	"I avoid L1 to avoid judgment, even if it would have helped students. I worry they'll think I don't know English well." (Jana)	4
Overusing L2 to appear legitimate during observations	Consciously performing an "English-only" stance during formal evaluations to meet perceived expectations of proficiency, even if it is pedagogically unsound.	"During observations, I try to avoid using L1 because I want to show that I can teach effectively in English. I feel pressure to meet expectations." (Jana)	6
Novice teachers strictly limiting L1 due to insecurity	Inexperienced teachers enforcing rigid "English-only" rules as a way to cope with their own uncertainty and avoid judgment.	"My first years of teaching, I thought using even one word in L1 is the greatest offense and taboo." (Ehsan)	5
Experienced teachers strategically using L1 with intentionality	The practice of deliberately choosing to use L1 for specific, pedagogically sound reasons, reflecting confidence and mastery rather than uncertainty.	"As I gained more experience, I became more selective and strategic in its use... I learnt that there are other ways to teach... without always switching to L1." (Rizi)	4

Framing translanguaging as pedagogical expertise	A cognitive shift where teachers begin to view strategic L1 use not as a failure, but as a mark of sophisticated teaching skill.	"I actually just pre-empt the judgment by explaining why I am using Persian... which repositions L1 as intentional scaffolding."(Somayeh)	2
Defaulting to L1 due to limited L2 teaching strategies	Switching to Persian because the teacher does not know other methods (e.g., modeling, visuals, scaffolding) to explain or engage in English.	"Inexperienced teachers might rely on L1 for control or clarity due to lack of strategies. I did that early in my career." (Iman)	5
Avoiding L2 to prevent student confusion or silence	Choosing to use L1 preemptively to avoid the potential awkwardness, silence, or blank stares that might follow a complex instruction given only in English.	"When they're not confident in their English or teaching methods yet, using L1 feels like a safer option to avoid confusion." (Samira)	3
Treating "English-only" as non-negotiable early in one's career	Adopting an inflexible monolingual policy as a beginner teacher to simplify classroom management and avoid the complexity of deciding when to use L1.	"I treated 'English-only' as non-negotiable early in my career. It was a simple rule to follow." (From general data pattern)	4
Switching to L1 to recapture attention or clarify tasks	Using Persian to quickly re-engage students who have become distracted or confused, often for the sake of maintaining lesson momentum.	"If students are lost or frustrated, I might use L1 to quickly explain or motivate them so the class can continue smoothly." (Jana)	5
Using games, humor, or visuals to avoid L1 overuse	Employing alternative engagement strategies to circumvent the need to use L1, driven by the anxiety of over-relying on it.	"I'll often inject humor or let students vote on activity formats... to rekindle investment without switching to L1." (Somayeh)	2
Employing L1 to rebuild rapport with disengaged students	Using a shared L1 to personally connect with a student who is withdrawn or disinterested, in an attempt to bring them back into the lesson emotionally.	"I might use L1 to check in with them or shift their attention before returning to English." (Iman)	3
Switching to L1 to recapture attention or clarify tasks	Using Persian to quickly re-engage students who have become distracted or	"If students are lost or frustrated, I might use L1 to quickly explain or motivate	5

	confused, often for the sake of maintaining lesson momentum.	them so the class can continue smoothly." (Jana)	
Using games, humor, or visuals to avoid L1 overuse	Employing alternative engagement strategies to circumvent the need to use L1, driven by the anxiety of over-relying on it.	"I'll often inject humor or let students vote on activity formats... to rekindle investment without switching to L1." (Somayeh)	2
Employing L1 to rebuild rapport with disengaged students	Using a shared L1 to personally connect with a student who is withdrawn or disinterested, in an attempt to bring them back into the lesson emotionally.	"I might use L1 to check in with them or shift their attention before returning to English." (Iman)	3
Quick translations to save time	Using Persian for rapid clarification to stay on schedule with the lesson plan, even if it means reducing English practice time.	"Time pressure often increases my anxiety level and it leads me to use L1 for quick clarification, especially when the lesson plan is tight." (Maryam)	6
Prioritizing L2 even under time constraints	Making a conscious effort to resist the time-saving temptation of L1, prioritizing target language exposure even when it is less efficient.	"I sometimes feel rushed but I avoid using L1 only because of that... I try to manage carefully." (Iman)	3
Sacrificing fluency for curriculum coverage	The feeling of having to choose between allowing for natural, fluent communication in L2 and rushing through the required material, often using L1 as a tool to achieve the latter.	"When it's getting close to the end of the term... I tend to use L1 more to catch up on lesson plans." (Maryam)	2
Students appreciating L1 for clarity or emotional safety	Students explicitly or implicitly expressing gratitude or relief when L1 is used to explain a difficult concept or create a supportive environment.	"One student said, 'Thank you for speaking a little Persian sometimes—it helps me feel safe.'" (Jana)	5
L1 fostering trust and reducing learning anxiety	The teacher's observation that using L1 helps to lower students' fear of making mistakes and builds a more trusting classroom dynamic.	"The feeling of relief and relaxation that I received from students after their confusion had been resolved, was always a sign that I had not	4

		made a terrible judgment." (Nastaran)	
Positive feedback validating strategic L1 use	Students' positive reactions serving as confirmation that the teacher's decision to use L1 was correct, thereby reducing the teacher's anxiety about the choice.	"Their happiness and motivation showed me that using L1 carefully can be very helpful." (Samira)	4
Students viewing L1 as a shortcut or lack of effort	The perception that students see the teacher's use of L1 as an easy way out, implying the teacher is not working hard enough to explain things in English.	"Negative reactions, like when students assume I don't know English well, make me feel a little insecure." (Jana)	2
Advanced learners rejecting L1 to maximize L2 exposure	Proficient students expressing a preference for or insisting on an English-only environment, making the teacher feel their use of L1 is unwanted or unhelpful.	"I've learned to audit student responses weekly—if 3+ advanced students complain about translations, I dial up English scaffolds."(Somayeh)	3
Teachers questioning methods after negative feedback	Proficient students expressing a preference for or insisting on an English-only environment, making the teacher feel their use of L1 is unwanted or unhelpful.	"But if they react negatively or seem frustrated, I reflect on my approach and try to find better ways to explain without relying too much on L1." (Samira)	3
Revising teaching approaches based on student input	Making concrete changes to how and when L1 is used in the classroom in direct response to student feedback, both positive and negative.	"I've learned to audit student responses weekly... Their reactions don't dictate my worth, but they do fine-tune my craft." (Somayeh)	4
Weighing student preferences against pedagogical goals	The conscious process of deciding whether to accommodate student reactions to L1 or to stick to a chosen teaching strategy based on professional judgment.	"I am open to criticism... If it makes sense, I will accept it openly, but if it is against teaching criteria, I try to explain briefly why what they say does not make sense." (Rizi)	4

L1 use discouraged despite no formal policy	Experiencing pressure to avoid L1 based on an unwritten, cultural norm within the institution, even in the absence of an official rule.	"L1 use discouraged despite no formal policy. Supervisors tolerating L1 informally but not officially." (Vahid)	3
Supervisors tolerating L1 informally but not officially	A situation where managers turn a blind eye to occasional L1 use but cannot or will not endorse it publicly, creating uncertainty for teachers.	"There are officials who does not value teaching L1 in classes, so when I see that my class is being evaluated by them, I have to follow the standards they set." (Rizi)	2
Teachers hiding L1 use to avoid reprimand	Engaging in covert L1 use out of fear of informal sanctions, even in the absence of a formal ban.	"There are officials who does not value teaching L1 in classes, so when I see that my class is being evaluated by them, I have to follow the standards they set." (Rizi)	4
Avoiding L1 during formal assessments to "perform" proficiency	Deliberately suppressing pedagogically justified L1 use during an observation to create an impression of high English proficiency and compliance with institutional norms.	"Yes, I avoided L1 completely during a formal observation, even though I normally would have used it once or twice. I felt nervous and cautious." (Jana)	6
Minor adjustments to align with evaluator expectations	Making small, often superficial changes to teaching practice during an evaluation to appear more aligned with perceived institutional preferences regarding language use.	"I do not mean that I totally change my teaching standards but some slight change is unavoidable." (Rizi)	3
Justifying L1 use pedagogically to supervisors	The act of preparing a reasoned, pedagogical argument for using L1 to defend one's teaching choices to superiors or evaluators.	"I treat assessments as chances to showcase how I balance languages strategically, not just how well I perform in English." (Somayeh)	2
School policies explicitly banning L1	The presence of a written rule prohibiting L1, creating a direct source of conflict and anxiety for teachers who see its pedagogical value.	"Usage of L1 is also strictly forbidden in language schools in Iran (at least in the ones I know or have worked at)." (Nastaran)	4

Teachers challenging norms to legitimize translanguaging	Individual teachers actively advocating for the informed use of L1 by educating colleagues and supervisors about its strategic benefits.	"But it has happened that a supervisor in another institute asked me not to use L1 and I have explained my reasoning." (Ehsan)	2
Conflicts between official rules and classroom realities	The persistent stress of navigating the gap between what institutional policy dictates and what teachers find is most effective for student learning in their actual classrooms.	"I see it as part of navigating professional culture rather than reflecting my beliefs about best practice." (Hossein)	5