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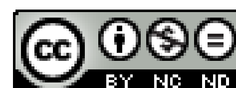

De-nativizing academic writing in Japanese ELT: Toward a translingual approach

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Prologue

Luke

I came into this project with a pretty clear-cut idea of what I thought and what I wanted to say, but the deeper I got into the literature, the less I seemed to know and the more conflicted I became. My initial stance was that academic writing, as it is taught in ELT classes around the world and as it is presented in research papers and book chapters like this one, represented an outdated, native-speakerist ideal that upheld Westernised norms and oppressed and marginalized students and academics from outside of the Inner Circle. As an English teacher whose courses regularly include an academic writing component, I saw it as my job to upend this poisonous hegemony and set my students free. Putting aside the great White saviour issue for a moment, I soon realised that the translingualism in Second Language Writing (SLW) debate was far more nuanced than this, and more importantly, I found it very difficult to practice what I preached. To start the project, myself (a so-called "native speaker" teacher working in what can solidly be called my L1) and Yuzuko (a self-identified emerging bilingual who describes herself as having no clear L1 when it comes to academic writing) worked out a basic outline and divided up the workload, as we always do when we write together. I was a bit behind with my sections, so Yuzuko uploaded the first draft of her contribution to our shared Google Doc first. As I read through her writing, I found myself automatically correcting small grammar "errors" – a missing plural here, a superfluous definite

article there, I was doing it without thinking. Then I came across a phrase that was perfectly understandable but looked a bit awkward to my Western-trained "native speaker" eyes. My fingers leapt almost reflexively towards the keyboard to "fix" it, or at least to leave a comment, but I stopped. Isn't this exactly what this chapter was supposed to be arguing against? Was I wielding my oppressive, native-speakerist power, upholding outdated standardised norms that probably never existed in the first place, and perpetuating the native-speakerist discourse that I claimed to disavow? Was I denying Yuzuko her authentic voice? Was I replacing her voice with my own? If I left it as it was, was I denying her agency to present as she wished to be perceived? Was I secretly worried that leaving it unchanged would reflect badly on me as co-author of a jointly-presented chapter? Was I seeing difference as "error" simply because I perceived her as a "non-native speaker"? Would I even have noticed the "awkward phrasing" or be thinking any of this at all if these standards and labels weren't so deeply ingrained in me?

Yuzuko

Although we are generally positioned rather in the opposite when it comes to our language status, I think I have followed a somewhat similar trajectory during this project. I see that my dilemma mainly comes from the inconsistency between my teacher and L2 writer/researcher identities. As a language teacher, translingualism is what I have been valuing and demonstrating in my classes especially in spoken interactions, so naturally it came to me that this belief and practice should also be applied in students' writing as well.

Then as I started to read more literature on second language writing and translingualism, and the complicated relationships between these two camps, it started to remind me of my past experiences and identity as a L2 student writer. In the academic environment I was in, my non-standard writing styles and expressions were treated as a deficiency that I had to get rid of in order to be considered as a successful L2 writer. It was not just about the written products themselves, it was also about the whole process of academic writing as well. For example, in my ESL writing classes, I remember I was instructed to take notes or write an outline only in English, and definitely not to include any Japanese references in my papers. Part of me can now understand where these teaching practices come from, but at the same time, they definitely made me feel frustrated and incompetent because of my "non-native" English writing proficiency. Of course, at that time, I was not familiar with the whole field of translingualism, so standard written English (SWE) was

something that I was desperate to become proficient in, which I would never be able to. This struggle still continues to this day as a multilingual writer to some extent.

I am truly appreciative that Luke always "corrects" my writing whenever we work on a project together. At the same time, I feel bad that the nature of my writing always gives Luke extra work to do. However, it is also true that I do feel that to some extent my voice becomes somehow backgrounded or marginalized because of this "correction" practice even if it may be a necessary process in order to be published, whether it is done by Luke or other professional proofreaders or copyeditors. It is a dilemma if I should insist on prioritizing my own voice over the norm of academic conventions. But to what degree? For what purposes?

Another concern is that I do not really often see this issue in literature. Fortunately, many multilingual researchers have been arguing for the critical importance of fluidity and hybridity in academic publication, but not so much has been revealed when it comes to the whole living process of it. Am I supposed to conceal this at least on the surface of the finished product of scholarly work? What do other multilingual scholars do? Why do I rarely hear about this despite the fact that our field of ELT itself has been founded and thrived for decades to support these multilingual students and writers to begin with? As a reader, too, do you see the type of non-standard writing that you can clearly understand what they are saying but not in a way that you would articulate? Or is this something that has been intentionally erased from the process of academic publication? Something that we have pretended for so long that simply does not exist?

As the above vignettes indicate, translanguaging and celebration of, not just acceptance and tolerance of, translingual writing and practice is a complex and multifaceted issue that affects us on an almost primeval level. Regardless of our L1, when we see what we consider to be our own native language used in a non-standard way, the reaction is immediate and intuitive, even if we don't know what is "wrong" about it exactly, we sense that something is off. For the "native speaker" English teachers and applied linguistics scholars reading this that are trained and conditioned to not only be on the lookout for inconsistencies, but also to diagnose the problem, seeing the language being used differently is particularly uncomfortable. However, outside of our language classrooms we rarely do encounter non-standard academic English in its written form, as a host of gatekeepers and stakeholders ("native check" service providers, co-authors, reviewers, editors, proofreaders, typesetters) are there to ensure that we don't. We argue that this published English acts to erase the authentic voice of "non-native" scholars (as well as those with non-standard dialects

or who are not trained in the peculiarities of academic writing). Although this chapter is largely focused on promotion of translingualism in the ELT classroom, we cannot ignore the fact that we are writing for publication and presentation to a wider audience. In order to practice what we are advocating for in the paper, and after consultation, Yuzuko asked Luke to go through the paper again and point out any non-standard sounding phrases. This was done, with Luke leaving comments on the Doc and adding details as to his perception of their clarity. Yuzuko then went through the comments and made decisions about each one, choosing to leave the ones perceived as having a clear meaning as they were and changing others that were possibly not so clear. We recognize the potentially problematic nature of deploying a "native speaker" gatekeeper to point out incidences of non-standard language, however we believe that as long as "non-native" speaker scholars have the ultimate say on how their own writing is presented, then it can be an empowering step in the publication process. We hope that by leaving in examples of non-standard, but clear English by an English as a second language writer, that we can start to normalize the existence of non-standard Englishes, amplify the voice of second language writers and challenge the orthodoxy of published English.

Translingualism as theory and pedagogy in ELT

As understanding and recognition of multilingual and plurilingual speakers and speech acts have increased in the applied linguistics field in what has been termed the "multilingual turn" (May, 2013), language teachers around the world have slowly begun to translate the abstract intellectualizing of academia into concrete classroom practices. Going by various monikers and encompassing multifarious variations including heteroglossia (Blackledge & Creese, 2014), flexible bilingualism (Creese & Blackledge, 2010), plurilingualism (Man Chu Lau & Van Viegen, 2020), code-switching/code-mixing, code-meshing (Canagarajah, 2011a), dynamic bilingualism, metrolingualism (Otsuji & Pennycook, 2011), translanguaging (Garcia, 2009) and translingualism (Canagarajah, 2013), this 'turn' has variously been described as a concept, an ideology, an approach, a pedagogy, and a theory. In this paper we adopt the term translingualism and see it as an ideological mindset as well as an approach towards language teaching pedagogy. This still-evolving concept in language education consists of two main strands: blurring the barriers between named languages and challenging the hegemony of "standard" English.

Translingualism aims to break down the boundaries between named languages to allow a more fluid understanding of language. From a sociocognitive perspective,

the language that we use is seen as being made up of “features”. These features may be drawn from a number of named languages to construct a single semiotic repertoire in the mind of the individual language user (Garcia & Wei, 2014). In this understanding of the language use of multilingual speakers, named languages become obsolete as the lines separating languages become blurred and the origins of the lexis or grammar being employed in the moment become irrelevant (Otheguy et al., 2015). Just as critical theorists such as Horkheimer and Adorno have criticized enlightenment “scientific” thinking for using the logic of their own thought processes to justify and “prove” their own ontologies, critical applied linguists have also detected the same epistemological sleight of hand in their treatment of languages. The construction of metadiscursive regimes of discourse by linguists to describe and categorize languages can be seen to create the objects of their own analysis (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007). The creation of the separated named languages, often bound to geographical locations, can be seen to have emerged with the rise of the modern nation state (Baumann & Briggs, 2003) and the spread of capitalism (O’Regan, 2021), which proved an effective way to consolidate and control domestic populations as well as establish global hierarchies, with English at the top. In this way, languages can be seen as deliberate constructs, rather than objective category types.

As well as recognizing and welcoming the use of the total language knowledge of language students, translingualism also problematizes what is seen to be standard or prestige varieties of English. Building on the World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) (see Kiczkowiak & Lowe, 2019 for an accessible overview and practical guide) movements, a translingual approach to learning and teaching aims to dismantle the norms of what is seen as standard English. This thinking recognizes that language students from different backgrounds will bring alternative norms of expression and structure to their English use and that these should be seen as equally valid to the expressions and structures that Inner Circle (Kachru, 1985) English speakers may use. Seen through a sociocultural lens, this alternative understanding of language use outlined above can be seen as a way of “disinventing and reconstituting” languages (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007) and ushering in social justice (Piller, 2016). This “disinventing” not only questions the very existence of named languages on a theoretical level, but recognizes the very real-world effects that domains of language hierarchies produce and seeks to provide social justice to those that are oppressed by them (Piller, 2016).

Although the concept of translingualism is still being defined, the jump from theory to classroom practice has been relatively quick. A spate of recent edited volumes (e.g. Blackledge & Creese, 2014; Man Chu Lau & Van Viegen, 2020; Paulsrad, Tian & Toth, 2021) as well as a practical guide (Garcia, Johnson & Seltzer, 2017) have helped to establish it as a reputable and practicable pedagogy. However, the majority of the literature has been based on teaching ESL learners in the USA (mainly students with L1 Spanish) and has been mainly restricted to translingualism as a form of oral communication. In the field of second language writing (SLW) (which this chapter is mainly addressing) the switch from theory to practice has been far from smooth, with SLW scholars putting up a furious and resolute defense of their field (see Wang & Silva, 2021 for an overview of this saga). Also, to date there has been little investigation of the appropriacy of translingualism in the EFL classroom.

In this chapter, we will attempt to make a case for the importance of a translingual approach to second language writing in the Japanese context. By deconstructing standardized written English and leveraging the students' entire language repertoire we hope to show how de-nativizing academic English can be beneficial not only to individual students, but also to the ELT field as a whole.

Translingualism and SWE in second language writing

As was suggested in the previous section, translanguaging and translingual practice has gained momentum in the field of oral communication in multilingual education and the ESL field (e.g. Canagarajah, 2013; Garcia & Wei, 2014; Otheguy et al., 2015). However, for written communication and literacy development, many of the scholars and writing teachers, even if they allow translanguaging to be a major part of their oral communication, are still hesitant to fully embrace translingualism in their classroom. This is mainly because many of them believe there is and should be a universal code for writing, especially in the academic setting, called standard written English (SWE) and teachers should help their students acquire this specific code through learning how to write academically (Canagarajah, 2013). These arguments are implicated with the dominant ideology of "autonomous literacy" (Street, 1984, cited in Canagarajah, 2011b) that "texts are static products that contain self-evident meaning that can be extricated through detached reading" (Canagarajah, 2011b, p. 7). According to this ideology, it does not inculcate any power imbalance between so-called "native speaker" and "non-native speaker" writers because it suggests that SWE is not native to any particular group of people including "native-speakers". Rather it is an explicit code that every writer needs to learn and acquire,

although it is often criticized to be inundated with "native-speaker" norms (Canagarajah, 2013). It is clear that such ideology is also prevalent in language classrooms in countries like Japan, especially in the current neoliberal climate among the government and higher education institutions where English proficiency is measured against standardized testing and assessment including writing proficiency in SWE (Kubota, 2011).

In addition to classroom practice, this ideology is also ubiquitous in the academe even among those who research and advocate for translingualism (e.g. Kubota, 2021). It is still common practice for multilingual writers to hire professional proofreaders or copy editors to "polish" their writing in order to ensure that their writing reaches the expected standard of SWE before they submit their manuscripts for publication (Hartse & Kubota, 2014). This is even explicitly encouraged in some prestigious scholarly journals in order to avoid "language issues", which they claim exist among multilingual writers. This can be seen as treating certain forms of English academic writing, let alone plurilingual practice, as "issues", and consequently implicitly propagating for monolingual, native-speakerist orientations which would prohibit multilingual writers from employing their whole linguistic resources in academic publication. In addition, this gatekeeping practice often has stronger implications for intuitive preferences on styles, rather than lexicogrammatical errors, let alone academic rigor (Hartse & Kobuta, 2014). Instead, it promotes and valorizes further Anglocentric norms where multilingual writers continue to be situated in more disadvantaged positions.

Some compositionists and SLW specialists are concerned about the uncritical acceptance of translingualism in writing and argue that writing teachers should not impose their ideological stance on their students. They maintain that such blind obsession with translingualism can only lead to "feel-good liberalism" (Matsuda, 2021, p. 110) which does not serve anyone but the teachers themselves and defeats the purpose of the original intention. Another similar point was raised by Kubota (2016) for the field of multilingual teaching and education, that an uncritically celebratory take on notions such as hybridity and plurality in the multilingual turn may result in perpetuating the hegemony of neoliberal ideology imbued in the current ELT industry. Instead, she argues that the focus of attention should rather be the issues of disproportionate power distribution and its consequential systemic inequalities that privilege some and marginalize others.

Furthermore, in terms of actual teaching pedagogy for academic writing, the most pragmatic concern that many second language writing researchers and educators indicate is what students desire or need from their writing classes, especially for academic writing. Some SLW scholars suggest that multilingual students tend to be more eager to learn the SWE than any other varieties because it would be part of their imperative linguistic capital that they believe they need to advance in their academic careers. As O'Regan (2021) argues, "it is with *writing* that the hegemony of English in the world rests" (p. 204 italics in original). Many researchers also agree that students deserve to gain access to SWE for their literacy development precisely because of the abovementioned gatekeeping practice in academe (Atkinson et al., 2015; Matsuda, 2014; Ruecker, 2015).

Although these reasons suggested above to maintain the standardized form of English academic writing are plausible, language educators and researchers need to acknowledge the obvious power imbalance here. When normalizing and standardizing only a certain variety of English undergirded by monolingual orientation to academic writing, even a small deviation from the standardized norms such as grammar and lexical choices can be seen as unnatural or erroneous. This labeling practice can lead to treating these L2 writers as fundamentally deficient. Furthermore, when the gatekeeping practice is normalized in schools and academe, this type of linguistic standardization sets unrealistic expectations and barriers for L2 writers to ever overcome. Excluding and marginalizing L2 writers needs be seen as covert forms of discrimination based on language and needs to be reconfigured and adjusted to more inclusive orientation to the diversity of writing practice. It is obvious that the answers may vary depending on each teaching context, but teachers and researchers should explore and seek appropriate resolutions between the critical stance to take into account the power dynamics at play and negotiating the voice and stance of L2 writers in academic writing.

Translingualism as L1 use in the Japanese EFL context

Traditionally, English education in Japan historically focused on the grammar-translation method, which inevitably requires the heavy reliance on learners' first language (L1) in implementing it. This method was originally believed to be effective based on an assumption that Japan was considered to be a monolingual society where Japanese English learners would generally need to receive explicit instruction in their L1 on the structure of the English language as an autonomous unit of language (Turnbull, 2018). However, it became obvious that teacher-centered

methods including the grammar-translation method did not facilitate learners to communicate in the target language. This result implied for the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) that Japan has not been able to reach the expected standard of English as an international language for business and education. It is further illuminated by the fact that Japan has been ranked as one of the lowest countries in Asia to score standardized English tests (for example see the EF English Proficiency Index [2020] for a comprehensive ranking of EF language test takers around the world). For these reasons, MEXT initiated a drastic shift in their Courses of Study, which provides nationwide schools with standardized guidelines to ensure the quality of education, to a more globally recognized, target-exclusive teaching methodology centering on communicative language teaching. In 2011, MEXT introduced substantial changes in secondary education to, not mandate, but highly encourage high school English classes to be conducted all in English, and in 2014, English classes in junior high school to be primarily taught in English (MEXT, 2011, 2014). Accordingly, in the tertiary level, more universities have also started to offer content classes taught in English as a medium of instruction, which was spearheaded by MEXT with an introduction of the Top Global University Project for certain prestigious universities specifically chosen in order to promote further internationalization in higher education. Since this relatively new teaching methodology does not allow much space for language learners and teachers to employ their whole linguistic resources, particularly those involved with their L1, it can be understood that translingual orientation has not been much appreciated or enacted in English education in Japan so far, at least on the official level.

Under these conditions, it is often indicated that flexible language practice, especially in combination with their L1 use by language learners and teachers, has not only been discouraged but stigmatized in the language classroom (Mishima, 2016). Scholars have coined the term “parallel monolingualism” (Heller, 1999) or “two monolinguals in one body” (Gravelle, 1996) to explicate the learning environment in the mainstream bilingual education generally in Western contexts, but these terms can also describe the current EFL classrooms in Japan as well. Hawkins (2015), for example, strongly criticizes the current language policy by MEXT to conduct EFL classes primarily in English. She maintains that the Course of Study by MEXT takes a “maximal position” for L1 use in the classroom and that this recent trend is rather a political choice based on groundless, monolingual bias. Excluding L1 use in the language classroom can, she argues, lead Japanese English

teachers to have a sense of unjustified guilt and inadequacy, deprive opportunities for more creative and effective language pedagogy which can tap into students' whole semiotic repertoire, and impede the images of Japanese English teachers and multilingual "native" English speaker teachers as authentic multilingual role models for students, reflecting the globalizing and globalized reality.

On the other hand, although limited, there has been some empirical research that shed light on translingual practice in the EFL context at the tertiary level in Japan. For example, Turnbull (2018) conducted a large-scale survey of Japanese college students and English teachers. The results suggest that translanguaging is a prevalent language practice both by students and teachers to different extents and for various functions and purposes. In addition, it is suggested that most of the participants positively perceive translanguaging to be an effective teaching and learning tool to develop students' English proficiency overall, although the term "translanguaging" has yet to permeate the EFL field in Japan. In addition, Saito and Ebsworth (2004) report that EFL students tend to prefer the use of L1 in the classroom both by themselves and their Japanese English teachers and consequently become resistant when their non-Japanese English teachers have them refrain from using their L1 in interaction in the classroom.

In terms of the effectiveness of the use of translanguaging, Turnbull and Sweetnam Evans (2017) show that the level of reading comprehension improved when students engaged in group discussions translingually, and Bartlette (2018) supports the incorporation of group discussion in translanguaging in class, which helped students gain higher test and presentation scores and higher level of motivation to learn overall. As a medium of group discussion for a CLIL course, Yamauchi (2018), although preliminarily, reports students' more positive interest in content topics through translanguaging group discussion. Furthermore, regarding incorporating the translingual approach into writing instructions such as pre-writing discussions and planning, research has suggested that this approach can help students gain higher composition scores (Sano, 2018; Turnbull, 2019).

These previous studies reveal two important issues. The first issue is that there has been a significant disparity between official language policy and planning on the government level and the actual language practice in the classroom. The empirical studies discussed above imply that there is a possibility that translingual practice can be an important part of language learning and teaching in the EFL context in a variety

of settings. However, the fundamental shift from the monolingual to translingual orientation to conceptualize languages, and language learning and teaching would be less likely to occur in the near future. The second issue consistent through these studies is that all of them tend to take a monolingual assumption for granted that the end product in writing should be strictly written only in SWE. This may sound obvious when taking into account the existing ELT norms and proposals set by MEXT that the ultimate goal of EFL is to become proficient in the English language particularly for communication purposes both in oral and written forms. However, we believe that in order to fully embrace and appropriate translingual orientation in the language classroom, the end products of language learning do not have to be exclusively in the target language, especially for assessment purposes. Language teachers can incorporate a more flexible approach into their writing instructions and assessment in order to pluralize, or more specifically, de-nativize the practice of academic writing in their language classroom, which will be explored in the following section.

Suggestions on how to de-nativize academic writing in the language classroom

As is implicated in the earlier sections, we believe it is imperative for EFL writing teachers to create a learning environment where students are not only allowed but encouraged to deploy their whole semiotic resources to produce academic writing. Simultaneously, we need to ensure that students have sufficient opportunities to learn and acquire SWE because it can be undoubtedly important for them to be able to use it at their disposal in certain situations. What we probably need to aim for, then, is to find an appropriate balance between criticality and pragmatics from the viewpoint of students' access. We believe it is possible that SWE embedded in the dominant monolingual ideology and more flexible writing practice can be taught hand in hand if approached critically and creatively. In this section, we are going to share some of the suggestions that we have discussed and implemented in our own teaching context. We would like to emphasize that under the current climate of second and foreign language education, translingual orientation can still be considered to be controversial, so these suggestions may not be feasible or even appropriate depending on the teaching context. However, it is our hope that these suggestions may be part of the springboard even for small steps that can help writing teachers and researchers to start de-nativizing their pedagogy and practice for academic writing in their classroom.

1. Raising awareness of translingualism in SLW

First, it can be a very powerful tool for writing teachers to engage in critical language teaching drawing on critical literacy (Crookes, 2013; Freire, 1970) in order to raise awareness of the dominant ideology beneath SWE, how power relations are played into it, and what the possible implications are for students as L2 writers. We believe this can be done regardless of the students' English learning experiences and this may be a useful yardstick for students to explore rationales or purposes of their learning to write academically, and how it intersects with their L2 writer's identity. For example, teachers can incorporate discussion activities to compare different types of English writing which are relevant to their students such as academic textbooks, business email correspondence, text messages, and digital content on SNS. They could have them discuss what the differences are and when each type should be used and why. It is important to emphasize the point that SWE for academic work is merely one of many varieties of writing even within so-called monolingual communities in English. Finally, it is also useful to make a further point that SWE for academic purposes can be an important and necessary variety of English that can advance them in their academic and professional careers, for example, if they are planning to pursue further study in an English-dominant country.

In addition, it may help if we, as multilingual teachers, can introduce the notion of translingual practice and demonstrate it to show not only how we actually enact it in our everyday situations but also how prevalent such practices are in our daily life. For example, Yuzuko has shared some screenshots of online chat with her multilingual friends interacting in translanguaging and shared specific examples of students unintentionally employing heterogeneous language practice in creative ways to negotiate meanings. It is possible that students may find it odd or funny at first because these language practices are not deemed as "natural" or "correct" in the conventional English classrooms. However, there can be an initial opportunity for students to reflect and realize that our English learning experiences have been imbued with a certain ideology, in this case, monolingualism. This reflection and realization can be leveraged to introduce more progressive ideas that language practice is heterogeneous by its nature, and we are surrounded by translingual practice in our daily interactions. Although it may not be feasible in most cases to randomly shuffle between different codes in academic writing, especially without any rhetorical purposes, we may be able to introduce translingual orientation to them in order to show such orientation has been enacted naturally among multilinguals

including students themselves and that it does not signify any deficiency in communication.

Finally, we must admit that it is helpful for students on one hand to give them explicit instructions on conventional rules for academic writing on the discourse level because they are still valued in certain academic fields and more imminently, these can help them gain higher scores on standardized writing tests. On the other hand, in order to avoid hegemonizing SWE, we should make sure to provide them with other opportunities to explore and experiment with their writing styles and preferences without the restrictions of academic writing conventions. There are various writing genres to do this, but narrative writing can be particularly suitable. We believe narrative writing provides students with not only an opportunity to practice writing with topics that are relevant to them, but also a critical moment to explore their identity as L2 writers. There are also pedagogical resources available for language teachers to include narrative writing either individually or collaboratively such as autobiography and duoethnography (e.g. Lowe & Lawrence, 2020) in the classroom.

2. Recognition and implementation of plurilingual writing practices

The following section rotates around the idea of official recognition and facilitation of heterogeneous language practice both by students and teachers in the EFL writing classroom. Although many English language programs, especially in the tertiary level in Japan, have implemented English-only, or all-English policy on the institutional level, plurilingual language practice has been documented and acknowledged in many educational contexts as a de facto language of communication and comprehension (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Although it has been suggested by many ELT educators and researchers that official recognition and implementation of translingual practice on the government or even institutional levels would not be feasible or realistic in the short run, writing teachers can start modifying their approach to academic writing in any small ways possible.

First, rather than focusing solely on the end product of academic writing, the process-oriented teaching in writing can be introduced with an explicit emphasis on the importance of engaging in translingual practice throughout the process. For example, in order to produce an academic essay, students can start with brainstorming in a group in translanguaging, sharing their ideas with the whole class in English, produce a thesis statement in English, spot check for the thesis statement by their teacher in translanguaging, and then start writing an outline translingually, with

references in any language that they find useful. Once they complete filling out an outline, teachers can give brief oral or written feedback in translanguaging, write the first draft in English but peer check with other students in Japanese to give more focused and accurate feedback. Finally, they can rewrite the draft until it is completed as a final draft in English. Moreover, when a translingual approach is incorporated, it should be initiated and enacted by the teacher, not just by students. We believe teachers enacting flexible language practices can demonstrate one of the tenets of a translingual approach that delineating language boundaries is not the only way to facilitate language learning and that shuttling between separately labeled languages can be vital and effective resources for L2 writing and language learning overall. Although this type of process-oriented teaching still sets the conventional goal for students to produce academic work written in SWE, teachers can creatively introduce and demonstrate a translingual approach throughout the process in order to facilitate more progressive ideas that translanguaging is not a sign of deficiency but a powerful resource that they should utilize to construct academic writing.

Furthermore, the translingual approach has been critiqued that it lacks concrete ideas on what translingual writing would look like and how it can be taught as teachable strategies rather than naturally occurring phenomena in the classroom (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). One explicit suggestion of academic writing with translingual orientation is code-meshing (Canagarajah, 2011a, 2013), where writers can mix different codes and registers into their own writing. Canagarajah (2013) characterizes code-meshing as to "address the process of pluralizing written discourse with sensitivity to the dual claims of voice and norms", which provides "a middle position between the extremes of disregard for dominant norms and the suppression of the authorial voice" (p. 109). It is argued that code-meshing can be utilized as a way to resist the structural power imbalance while staying within the existing conventions of SWE in order to ensure the legitimacy of their written work in academe. However, Canagarajah (2011b) makes a point that code-meshing needs to be done carefully only in appropriate contexts with clear rhetorical justification for its use. These characteristics and cautions imply that it requires not only the mastery of the conventions of SWE but also the ability to code-mesh their writing at their disposal. Therefore, it may only be feasible for advanced students, especially in the EFL context.

3. Teacher-led acceptance of non-standard varieties of English in feedback

The last suggestion is mainly centered on how writing teachers can incorporate a translingual approach to provide students with feedback for their written work that is not intended to indoctrinate them with the superiority of SWE and instead to offer them an opportunity for meaning-making and negotiation through translingual practice. Teacher feedback tends to be thought of as an essential resource for students to improve their writing, especially in the Japanese EFL context where many students are not familiar with peer review and feedback with other students. While it is useful for language teachers to raise awareness among students of the significance of resources that they bring into the classroom that can be utilized to help each other to learn, teachers should also critically reflect on and examine the underlying ideology embedded in the feedback they give to their students. For instance, teachers should take into account that notions such as "accurate" or "natural" for grammatical or lexical choices and "errors" are socially constructed and embedded in dominant ideology around SWE (Horner et al., 2011). Rather than judging whether students' writing is "correct" or "incorrect" based on the existing academic writing norms, teachers can initiate an either oral or written dialogue with the student writer to negotiate their writing for the meaning-making process, such as asking them the rationale behind their choice of certain lexical items, or more broadly, comparing different norms that students may have brought from their own cultural and linguistic background. The open-ended style of dialogues between teachers and students helps avoid alienating multilingual writers and imposing certain ideological conventions of writing, which may result in silencing students' authentic voice in writing. If creating such a space for negotiation is not attainable due to time or curriculum constraints, teachers can help raise awareness as a whole class of how the voice in their writing may be interpreted regardless of the original intentions of the writer according to the existing norms in academic writing and have them think of what their intentions are. This can be done in combination with the first suggestion to raise metacognitive and critical awareness of the diversity and fluidity of writing overall.

Another issue to keep in mind is the importance of student writers' desire, knowledge, experiences, and identities that they bring into the classroom, which may not seem to correspond with the Anglocentric academic conventions (Gevers, 2018). These factors can vary depending on each student and they can be dynamic and fluid in nature. For example, many college students in Japan take English classes, but some of them may not necessarily find it instrumental to learn only conventional academic

writing if they do not have any reasons or desire to invest in it. In these cases, it may be more useful for them to learn other mediums in writing, such as heteroglossic digital communication in contact zones, such as social media platforms, in which they can engage in more valid and personally relevant forms of writing. Contrarily, if students are taking academic writing classes because they are interested in or planning to study abroad in college in an English-dominant country, the stakes can be high for them to gain knowledge and experiences of academic writing in SWE. In sum, it may give writing teachers critical insights to look into their language learning experiences, rationales for learning academic writing, and possibility for investment in academic writing both in the short and long run.

Conclusion

As the above discussion illustrates, standardized language norms and an ideological adherence to monolingualism remain steadfast in the field of second language and academic writing. Despite the recognition of the limitations this imposes on teachers and learners, and the hierarchies it creates that marginalizes non-Western students and scholars, little has been done to address these problems. In Japan, top-down policies that promote English-only classes have helped to stigmatize translingual practices, despite empirical evidence that points to the affordances of allowing students to leverage their entire language knowledge. This is especially true when it comes to the writing classroom.

In order to start the process of de-nativizing, we have suggested raising critical awareness in our students, taking a translingual process-oriented approach to academic writing in the classroom, and changing our attitude to giving feedback to allow a more collaborative approach, both between teacher and students as well as student to student peer feedback. Although we recognize that for teachers that are constrained by curriculums and institutional policies these suggestions may be difficult to implement, we hope we have made our recommendations universal enough to be at least attempted by teachers operating in a range of different contexts.

In this chapter, we have advocated for de-nativizing second language writing from a diversity of perspectives, however we also recognize that the needs and goals of our students should always take priority. Although we sincerely hope that the field of second language writing and the gatekeepers of academia will be significantly transformed in order to accommodate and celebrate translingualism, we realize that this has not yet been achieved. For students facing high stakes tests that require

adherence to standardized norms, it is our job as teachers to help them achieve this. However, even in this context, we can still make students aware that what is being taught is only one option and not necessarily the "correct" way to do academic English writing. By taking these steps toward de-nativizing second language writing, both in the classroom and in academia as a whole, we can help give voice to learners and scholars on the periphery and gradually dismantle the hegemony of an outdated mode of expression that is no longer fit for purpose in an age of superdiversity and plurilingualism.

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Abstract

The recent epistemological shift in applied linguistics to a more postmodern orientation, which celebrates and embraces the mobility and diversity of languages, has fundamentally influenced the way languages are perceived and examined in both pedagogy and research (Pennycook, 2010). Accordingly, second and foreign language teaching has also turned its focus to more fluid, dynamic, and multitudinous entities (Canagarajah, 2013). However, such a drastic shift has not yet filtered through to how academic writing is taught in the classroom.

In EFL writing classrooms, academic writing is still predominantly occupied with monolingual discourses where English is regarded as the only language that students are allowed to utilize in writing. In addition, the pedagogy of academic writing is imbued with native-speakerist ideologies where Western writing conventions are normalized. In such learning environments, emergent multilingual students do not seem to have sufficient spaces to negotiate and engage with translingual practice in their literacy acquisition. In this chapter, we first critique current practices concerning the teaching of academic writing. Then, we make an experimental

proposal for a de-nativized, translingual approach to academic writing which empowers students who bring multilingual identities and resources into the classroom, with a particular emphasis on the Japanese context.

Keywords: Second language writing, Translingualism, Monolingual orientation, Native-speakerism, Standardized written English