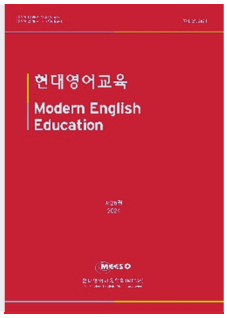
Modern English Education, Vol. 25, (2024) pp. 292-305
doi: https://doi.org/10.18095/meeso.2024.25.1.292

Modern English Education

ISSN: 1598-0782 / e-ISSN: 2586-6141
http://journal.meeso.or.kr



Translingual Writing Practice of Korean Graduate Students in the US

Chulwon Jung (Judicial Research and Training Institute, Supreme Court of Korea)
Jae-hyun Im (Daegu National University of Education)

Received: 30 August 2024
Revised: 26 September 2024
Accepted: 27 September 2024

Jung, Chulwon, & Im, Jae-hyun. (2024). Translingual writing practice of Korean graduate students in the US. *Modern English Education*, *25*, 292-305.

Keywords
translingual writing, translingual practice, academic writing, second language writing, graduate students
횡단언어 글쓰기, 횡단언어실천, 학술적 글쓰기, 제2 언어 작문, 대학원생

Chulwon Jung (First author)
Assistant Officer
International Judicial Cooperation Center
Judicial Research and Training Institute, Supreme Court of Korea
chulwon714@scourt.go.kr

Jae-hyun Im (Corresponding author)
Assistant Professor
Department of English Education
Daegu National University of Education
imjaeh@dnue.ac.kr

*This work was supported by the 8th DBpia and AKAROOT Research Grant.

Abstract
This study investigated translingual writing practice by three Korean graduate students in a U.S. academic setting. We collected three writing samples (an argumentative TOEFL essay, a term paper written in English, and a term paper written in Korean) and conducted semi-structured interviews to understand students' rationales behind their translingual writing practice. Our analysis revealed that these students actively shuttled between languages (e.g., spoken and written discourse; named languages) and knowledge from different discourses (e.g., majors; academic writing conventions; different writing genres). By investigating their strategic choices of language in use, this study highlights various linguistic and cultural resources mixed and matched by Korean translingual writers to meet academic discourse writing conventions and express their voices and field-specific knowledge. The current study has implications for language education. Higher-level academic writers should be encouraged to reflect on their linguistic choices and consider innovative ways to express their voices beyond traditional conventions. This also emphasizes the importance of preparing academic writing instructors to support translingual practices and foster multilingual writers' linguistic and cultural identities in academic contexts. It calls for a more nuanced approach to writing pedagogies that recognize the complex, dynamic nature of translingual writing practice.

INTRODUCTION

Translingual academic writing is increasingly recognized as a legitimate and nuanced practice within the field of applied linguistics, particularly among individuals traditionally categorized as so-called non-native speakers of English. Viewing seemingly deviant language in use by non-native speakers of English, this perspective on the use of linguistic and cultural resources as one seamless unitary repertoire (Li & García, 2022) challenges the ideology of native speakerism (Xie & Sun, 2024), which often views deviations from so-called standard English as deficiencies rather than as expressions of linguistic and rhetorical competence. Translingualism in academic writing acknowledges the strategic and dynamic use of multiple languages to express identity and voice, and thus has been pedagogically suggested (Sun, 2022). Rather than assessing such writings through the monolingual lens of standard English, which is ideologically saturated with native speaker norms (cf. Canagarajah, 2013; Matsuda, 2014), translingual approach appreciates the rhetorical and linguistic dexterity involved in these practices (Canagarajah, 2011; Guerra, 2016; Horner et al., 2011).

Recently, much research has examined translingual practices shown in academic writing (Canagarajah, 2011; Chen, 2017; Lee & Canagarajah, 2019). These studies had in common, highlighting complicated strategic uses of multi/translingual writers' language in use. They revealed that what is written on text is a discourse of meaning negotiation in which various factors such as writer' identity, available resources, discourse specific rules, etc. are intricately interacted, and thus, the careful examination of the writers' language choice should be conducted to make sense of how multilingual writers' linguistic and rhetorical practices are translingually realized and what it tells us in terms of academic writing pedagogy.

Despite the increasing number of research publications on translingual writing, East Asian English as a foreign language (EFL) writers including Korean academic writers are still under researched (Sun & Lan, 2021). Unlike everyday translingual practices, EFL academic writers in an English speaking context are positioned where they need to navigate the specific academic demands of U.S. educational institution. This requires them to adjust their linguistic and cultural resources including the English language and the academic knowledge shaped by their educational backgrounds in Korea depending on their academic context. Without examining the writing practices of this population, the opportunity to broaden our understanding of how EFL multilingual writers engage in written discourse would be missing. Moreover, neglecting this gap may leave English academic writing pedagogies may continue to depend solely on monolingual ideologies and may not support the diverse needs of multilingual writers (Sun, 2022). Moreover, previous research focused often on the use of the writer's first language in their second language writing (e.g., Canagarajah, 2011), which might overlook how second language is utilized in their first language writing. In this vein, this study aims to explore the translingual academic writing practices of Korean multilingual graduate students in the US, focusing on how they utilize their linguistic resources to express their identities and academic voices. By examining their writing strategies in two languages (i.e., Korean and English) and the challenges they face, this research seeks to contribute to the ongoing discourse on linguistic diversity in academia and advocate for more inclusive and flexible writing pedagogies. For the purpose of this study, the research question is set up as follows: How do Korean graduate students studying in the American tertiary educational context navigate and adapt their writing practice across different linguistic and cultural context?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Translanguaging is a framework that acknowledges the dynamic nature of language and emphasizes its role as a social practice (Canagarajah, 2012; Li, 2018). This approach to languaging, as a social action, views multilingual speakers not as individuals equipped with separate named languages, but as those possessing a translanguaging instinct (Li, 2018), allowing them to shuttle between languages and enact code-meshing by utilizing their linguistic and cultural knowledge as a unified repertoire (Li & García, 2022). Thus, when individuals engage in translingual interaction, the context becomes a translanguaging space (Li, 2018) where norms emerge at the very moment of interaction, and various strategies for negotiating meaning are employed. Canagarajah (2012), for example, proposes a framework to describe how meaning is discursively negotiated across languages and cultures through the strategies of envoicing, recontextualization, interactional, and entextualization. Envoicing strategies involve using words, phrases, or expressions to directly express a writer's or speaker's identity, while recontextualization requires adapting the source text to fit the target language and culture by modifying the context or adapting information. Interactional strategies consider the relationship between the source and target languages as well as the interlocutors, which shapes how a writer or speaker delivers their message. Entextualization involves adapting the text to the target language by considering the context in which the writer or speaker is situated who should take into account literary conventions, stylistic features, and cultural norms. By employing these strategies,

individuals can effectively convey their identity and ensure their communication resonates with the target audience and interlocutors and discourse. In other words, translingual speakers' ability to mobilize available linguistic resources (Li & Zhu, 2013) is more significant than their ability to speak like native speakers of the target language. From a translingualism perspective, being literate embodies a much broader meaning. This paradigm shift has also been actively embraced by scholars of second language writing and/or translingual writing (cf. Canagarajah, 2013; Matsuda, 2014).

Research on translingual academic writing reveals that academic writers employ various linguistic strategies that reflect their complex and layered language repertoires (Canagarajah, 2011, 2024; Horner et al., 2011; Lee, 2023; Sun & Lan, 2021). This integration of multiple languages and modalities is not only a functional necessity but also an intellectual exercise that renders their written discourse dynamic and creatively and effectively expresses identity and voice. In academic settings, writers need to convey complex ideas and engage with diverse academic communities, which puts unique demands on linguistic practices available for them (García & Li, 2014) according to various contexts (Shen & Singh, 2022). While the traditional view of languages required so-called second language writers to follow standard English conventions, contemporary linguistic studies including the perspective of translanguaging such as Canagarajah (2011) and Young (2009) articulate how translanguaging goes beyond mere code-switching or language mixing, and can serve as a decolonizing act for empowerment and awareness raising (Canagarajah, 2024; Sun, 2022; Young, 2009). Multilingual individuals therefore utilize their entire linguistic and cultural repertoires in a cohesive and integrated, and even creative manner. For example, academic writers fluent in multiple languages can utilize code-meshing (e.g., Canagarajah, 2011; Lee & Handsfield, 2018) to express their own individual and cultural identities. By meshing parts of two named languages to use them as one combined repertoire, translingually prepared writers' writing practice blurs boundaries of languages and further disrupt dominant ideologies of so-called standard, correct or appropriate English. In this translanguaging perspective, the distinction between languages including first, second, or foreign should be less clear and is even not importantly regarded when evaluating writers' performance (see Canagarajah, 2013; Matsuda, 2014 for a detailed discussion).

Studies on bilingual speakers, including within academic discourse, have revealed various characteristics of their translingual practices. While many scholars have emphasized the importance of institutional efforts to implement translingual writing education to disrupt the monolingual norms prevailing in academic writing discourse (Sun, 2024; Xie & Sun, 2024), research has shown that, in practice and in reality, ESL/EFL writers naturally engage in translingual practices. Sun and Feng (2024) and Chen (2017) found that students with lower proficiency levels often rely on their mother tongue and those who speak the same language as resources for understanding academic content. Although international students frequently wanted to achieve native-like proficiency and set this as a goal in their English academic learning, opportunities to reflect on their writing practices through the lens of translanguaging helped them to develop various strategies while negotiating language differences. Lee and Canagarajah (2019) illustrated how a non-English speaker's academic writing may differ from, and at times deviate from, that of native English speakers, yet create a space in which readers are actively invited to engage with messages that are translingually and transculturally saturated. What their study highlighted is that what constitutes "good" academic writing is co-constructed by readers who are expected to apply their translanguaging instincts to understand the dynamic meanings within the text. In relation to the importance of the reader's role, Shen and Singh (2022) demonstrated, through their postgraduate researchers' cases, that multilingual speakers are continuously situated within translanguaging practices both inside and outside school as well as across work and everyday contexts. As members in global academic discourse where English is the medium for written and spoken interaction, East Asian researchers naturally engage in translingual negotiations of meaning.

Among research on translingual practice in written discourse, studies focusing on Korean-English bilinguals still remain limited (Sun & Lan, 2021). Lee (2020) examined Korean-American children residing in the United States and reported that emergent bilingual students actively employ linguistic resources from both languages through translanguaging. This practice reflects their sociolinguistic competence, metalinguistic awareness, sociocultural understanding, and metacognitive insight. For example, they intentionally utilized Korean when they wanted to express their cultural understanding of Korea, and also were able to switch from Korean to English or use one as a footnote or annotation when one language did not explain what they described but the other could add meaning. In another study, Lee and García (2021) investigated four Korean-American first-graders in a heritage language (HL) class. All four students demonstrated written translanguaging, using it to show their awareness of their audience (i.e., a Korean teacher in the research context). Their written language practices not only illustrated audience orientation but also bilingual identities. They transitioned between Korean and English in defining themselves and describing their daily lives wherein both languages and people speaking two languages are always present. In this writing practice, accuracy or rules of romanization, for example, do not hinder their expression of identity. This study suggests that although the students did not explicitly learn the process of translanguaging, it emerged as a natural byproduct of their bilingual status, as Canagarajah (2012) argues. Choi (2022) explored how and why a multilingual child utilized his Korean linguistic resources in translingual compositions, examining different scripts, genres, modalities, and contexts during

his kindergarten and first-grade years. This case study revealed that the child solidified social relationships with others through letter writing and asserted his multicultural affiliations and identities across various genres. He achieved this through a natural adjustment to language differences and a careful consideration of selecting available resources. His minimal engagement with translingual writing at school compared to home practices highlights important considerations for literacy teachers and parents of multilingual children.

While these studies offer significant insights into the bilingual and translingual practices of Korean-English speakers, there remains a need for further exploration into those who have received formal education in Korea and then pursued higher education in English speaking contexts where English is located higher than writers' first language in the language hierarchy. These academic individuals probably possess unique linguistic and cultural experiences in comparison to younger Koreans in that they have bigger available repertoire in terms of academic knowledge and experience, and their academic writing practices and use of linguistic resources may differ from those of younger Koreans. Some of few studies on Korean academic writers are conducted by Park (2018) and Ryoo (2017). Park's (2018) research highlights the challenges and complexities faced by international graduate students, particularly those whose first language is not English as they transition from writing in their L1 to academic writing in English. She notes that many students experience significant struggles and frustrations as they strive to develop their academic writing skills in English. Despite these challenges, graduate writers often demonstrate resilience and adaptability, utilizing their linguistic resources across multiple languages to enhance their academic writing proficiency in the translingual process. This positive aspect of translanguaging was also supported by Ryoo's (2017) study, which illustrates the importance of understanding languaging not only within the individual but within the environment, which influences the development of abilities on multilingualism. These studies emphasize the need for a supportive approach that recognizes the strengths and potential of translingual writers.

METHOD

Participants

Three Korean EFL graduate students, named Choi, Jung, and Park, participated in the study (Table 1). These participants' names have been replaced with pseudonyms to ensure anonymity and maintain their privacy. They all majored in linguistics and education and studied at a research university in the US at the time of data collection. The participants had similar English learning experiences, primarily studying English as a foreign language in academic settings in Korea and having no study abroad experience before coming to the US for their graduate studies. Their education focused heavily on standardized tests such as the College Scholarly Ability Test (Korea's college entrance exam), TOEIC, TOEFL, and GRE. Additionally, their English writing training was mainly conducted by academic institutions through courses such as College Academic Writing provided by colleges that they attended.

Regarding the participants' English proficiency, there were several indicators that indirectly suggest their proficiency. For admission to the graduate program, they had to submit a TOEFL score of at least 80 to 100 out of 120, which all of them successfully passed. Also, all international students were required to take a mandatory English exam which includes an academic argumentative writing session at the beginning of the graduate studies, and those scoring low need to take additional English language courses. The participants successfully completed the test, which allowed them to take graduate courses as international students. Additionally, all participants had experience working as teaching assistants for the Korean language program, meaning that they met the required TOEFL score of at least 100, as well as a face-to-face oral exam hosted by the ESL program at the school to be hired for the language program.

The participants had different academic backgrounds and foreign language learning and teaching experiences. Choi, a male student, majored in Korean literature and linguistics in undergraduate and Korean language education in his master's program. During the data collection period, he spent approximately one and a half years, pursuing a PhD and focusing on language testing evaluation. Choi had approximately three years of teaching Korean as a foreign language in both Korea and the US. Jung, another participant, majored in English literature and linguistics for her master's program and double majored in Chinese literature and linguistics in her undergraduate in Korea. Having spent approximately five years in the US, she was studying for her PhD in linguistics, focusing on phonetics. Jung also taught Korean as a foreign language and worked for the Japanese language program during her PhD studies. Park, the third participant, studied English literature and linguistics in her undergraduate studies in Korea. At the time of research participation when she spent one and a half years, she was doing her MA degree in linguistics with a focus on sociolinguistics. Having a teaching certificate for teaching Korean as a foreign language, she worked for the undergraduate Korean language program.

TABLE 1
Description of Participants

Name	Undergraduate	Master	PhD	FL Learning	FL Teaching
Choi (Male)	Korean Literature & Linguistics	Korean Literature & Linguistics	Second Language Studies	English/ Chinese	Korean
Jung (Female)	English/Chinese	Linguistics	Linguistics	English/ Chinese/ Japanese	Korean/ Japanese
Park (Female)	English	Linguistics	-	English	Korean

These three Korean EFL graduate students had similar English learning experiences in Korea. They usually focused on standardized tests and academic writing. But, they also had different academic backgrounds and foreign language learning and teaching experiences. Choi had experience teaching Korean as a foreign language in both Korea and the US, while Jung worked as a language instructor at the Japanese department and had a high proficiency in Japanese. Park attributed her improved English speaking ability to her work experience in an English-only environment. These diverse backgrounds and experiences provide insights into the translingual strategies by Korean EFL graduate students in the US.

Data Collection and Analysis

Three types of academic argumentative writings were collected: a TOEFL argumentative essay and two academic argumentative writings, one written in English and the other in Korean. Participants were asked to write a TOEFL argumentative essay on the topic of early language education. For the academic writing samples, they were asked to bring argumentative papers they had written for 500- and 600-level graduate courses in linguistics and language education. Choi's paper discussed the effects of pedagogy, Jung's focused on the phonology of English L2 learners, and Park's examined linguistic attitudes towards native speakers of English.

Regarding the English compositions, all participants mentioned their papers had been edited to some extent by native speakers of English. However, they carefully considered the feedback and chose the most appropriate ways to express their ideas rather than simply following the suggestions provided. Additionally, at the time of data collection, it had not been long since they had submitted their papers, so they remembered the content well. In terms of academic argumentative writing in Korean, all participants had taken the same graduate-level class, "Teaching Korean as a Foreign Language," taught by a Korean professor. The focus of the class was on pedagogy and the theoretical backgrounds of teaching methods.

After collecting the written discourse, semi-structured interviews were conducted by one of the authors. A group discussion, lasting approximately two hours, was recorded and conducted in Korean, the shared language among the participants and the researcher. The purposes of the interviews and discussion were twofold: to determine the communities of practice and discourses in which the participants had engaged, and to investigate the rationale behind their language choices. The interviews began with simple background questions, as partly shown in Table 1, covering their majors, foreign language learning and teaching experiences both inside and outside of school, work experiences, and personal preferences for cultural products, in order to understand their writer identities. Subsequently, the participants and the researcher discussed their writing processes, including brainstorming, organizing paragraphs, deciding what to include or exclude, and strategies for handling unexpected problems and difficulties. This was done by reading their compositions together during which the researcher asked reasons for their language choices and strategies employed as well as sources of them. By doing so, the participants were able to remind of how and why to write their Korean and English assignments as they were. The interview questions were partly based on Hyland's (2005) concepts of stance and engagement of academic writing to explore how they positioned themselves as a writer and situated readers within their academic writing. This model was particularly useful to examine the interactional aspects of academic written discourse in that the model offers insights into how writers express their personal stance through boosters, hedges, attitude markers, and self-mention and engage readers through reader pronouns, directives, questions, shared knowledge, and personal asides (see Hyland, 2005 for detailed explanation). This academic writing model, viewing written discourse as an interactional one, allowed for a detailed exploration of the ways the participants as Korean-English multilingual academic writers navigated their linguistic and cultural repertoires to present their claims, express their voices, secure argumentative justification, meet the expected academic writing conventions, and

manage reader expectation such as professor's grading criteria. For organizational level (e.g., paragraph), research insights from contrastive rhetoric (e.g., Conner, 2002; Kubota, & Lehner, 2004) was used to examine whether their decisions on what to write and how to express such as the location of thesis statement or supporting details would be influenced by cultural differences. For example, while reading a participant's Korean assignment and an English assignment, the researcher asked questions about the use of self-mention (i.e., the first person pronoun "I" in the academic writing), which was present in an English composition but absent in the Korean one. In discussing and understanding this specific issue, Canagarajah's (2012) translingual meaning negotiation strategies framework mentioned above was utilized to understand the rationale behind the participants' decisions.

In the subsequent phase of analysis, the researchers methodically integrated the qualitative data extracted from the written academic samples with the empirical insights obtained from the interviews and group discussions. This approach facilitated a nuanced and detailed understanding of the participants' linguistic strategies and decision-making processes across different writing environments. The analysis focused on identifying recurring themes and variations in the use of translingual strategies as conceptualized by Canagarajah (2012) and Garcia and Li (2014), particularly how participants navigated academic norms in both English and Korean contexts. For example, in examining the use or omission of the first person pronoun "I," the interview data revealed a participant's rationale for its use in specific contexts and its avoidance in others. The presence or absence of the pronoun which represents an explicit expression of the writer's voice according to Hyland's (2005) stance and engagement model, was categorized as an "envoicing" under Canagarajah's (2012) framework. For example, one participant intentionally included the first person pronoun in one genre to assert her writer presence but omitted it in another while considering genre-specific conventions and imagined audience. This case was compared with other uses of "I" in the writing samples and further explored through interview data. The coding process continued until emerging themes were identified, which allowed the researchers to set up categories for the participants' translingual strategies comprehensively. This qualitative analysis approach was important in uncovering the implicit norms and tacit knowledge informing the participants' rhetorical strategies to meet academic expectations. The qualitative analysis therefore reflects the researchers' efforts to analyze text and interview data from multiple perspectives, highlighting how personal experiences and academic knowledge shaped language choices and how meaning negotiation strategies were realized translingually in various academic writings.

FINDINGS

Shuttling between Languages

Spoken and Written Discourse Languages

The participants intentionally and strategically utilized the linguistic resources by shuttling between spoken and written discourses. For the case of Park's English composition examples, she used contraction as a means of expressing her intentional spoken discourse style writing. While contraction is typically discouraged in academic writing, her use of this form in the TOEFL writing and her term paper is indicative of a focus on fluency, reflecting on the contractions found in spoken language. In TOEFL writing, where fluency is considered more critical over accuracy, her use of contractions appears to be a deliberate and strategic choice, highlighting a tailored approach to different writing contexts. Similarly, in her academic writing of the term paper, she also did not hesitate to use spoken style language as shown below.

> I **don't** think children should wait to begin learning a foreign language until they start school... Not to mention that **we've** seen many adult language learners who struggle to pronounce foreign words correctly… Third, when kids are very young, they **don't** feel very embarrassed about making mistakes while learning a new language. (Park's TOFEL writing)

> I asked them to share the survey with their friends and family, but **I'm** not sure how many of them actually did so. In order to reach out to people with various backgrounds, I used flyers too... There can be two reasons: 1) null hypothesis is true; nationality **doesn't** affect linguistic attitude. (Park's English assignment for a graduate course)

Park's reflection during an interview further elucidates her understanding and strategic manipulation of language norms, which highlights her awareness of and adeptness at navigating the differing expectations of language use across various discourse types, highlighting a sophisticated level of linguistic agility.

> "I write **as if I speak**. I was taught in the academic writing class not to use contraction in writing, but it happened unintentionally or sometimes I guess I just did it regardless of thinking much about it, and I think it's more acceptable in TOEFL than in academic discourse…Whether to use contraction, I usually got high scores both on TOEFL writing and academic term papers" (Park, interview)

This is reinforced by her own reflections on the acceptability of such language practices within TOEFL as opposed to traditional academic discourse, further evidenced by her consistent high performance in both arenas despite the formal differences. Since grammatical correctness was not the main focus of her writing and also results of her use of spoken style language did not cause any trouble, she kept using it to maintain her style of write-as-if-I-speak.

Another example of spoken style in academic writing was the use of the first person pronoun such as "I" and "me" which is usually advised avoiding in the academic writing (Arnaudet & Barrett, 1984; Hyland, 2002). Jung's compositions displayed different levels of acceptance regarding this issue. In the data set of Jung, she never used the first person pronouns in her term papers both in English and Korean whereas "I" was frequently used as a subject in her TOEFL writing. According to Jung's interviews, she learned that traditionally, academic writing, both in Korean and English academic discourses, favors an objective tone, which encourages the use of third person perspectives to maintain formality and impersonality. But, in the TOEFL writing tasks, she did not care much about "I" as the subject to support her arguments in a manner akin to speaking. Within the academic writing discourse, Jung distinguished sub-genres in which writing for a research paper assignment of her graduate class was regarded as more academic while TOEFL writing was regarded as less academic. Thus, the latter allowed her to be free from so-called academic writing conventions, not the least of which is the use of the first person pronoun. Below are the excerpts from her academic writing samples in which she did not explicitly express herself as a writer (e.g., "I" or self-mentioning) for her Korean and English writings for graduate courses but actively used expressions of herself as an author for the TOELF writing.

> 본 단원에서 쓸 교안 (표 2) 을 바탕으로 각각의 활동이 어떻게 구성되어 있는지 심도있게 **알아보기로 하자**... 이 단원의 학습 목표는 목표점을 기반으로 한 교안 구성법을 적용하였다... (Jung, Korean assignment)

> The data **were collected** from the literatures dealing with Korean-English bilinguals' code switching and Japanese-English bilinguals' code switching, respectively and the intrasentential code-switching that occurs within a sentence **were observed**. (Jung, English assignment)

> Some people say that starting foreign language learning too early can be [a] burdensome for children and rather interrupt their native language development. However, **I** disagree with their claims for the following reasons. (Jung, TOFEL writing)

As shown in the examples above, she intentionally avoided presenting herself in the Korean language assignment. The first sentence utilized a reader engagement strategy by using a request sentence (Hyland, 2005) in which a writer is not explicitly shown but invites readers to do a certain action (e.g., 알아보기로 하자), and similarly, the second sentence did not include an agent of the verb, thus not revealing the author. In a similar vein, her English assignment for a graduate course actively used passive voice sentences which did not present the agent (i.e., an author herself). In contrast, in her TOEFL writing, she explicitly revealed herself through the first person pronoun. For this case, she explained that since TOEFL is comparatively lower-academic than regular academic writing required for graduate courses, she kept using spoken style language in that TOEFL is about expressing the writer's opinion. Also, she added that she thought it was okay to use "I" in TOEFL because she was taught from TOEFL hagwon. She elaborated on this by explaining how differently she can act for the same argumentative writing genre in the two different forms-TOEFL and academic writing.

> "In my field [phonetics], 'what I did' is not important. Rather, how my research fits in previous theories and whether the results of mine are the replication of what has been found is more crucial. My advisor always says to me that we position just as a part of 'big picture' in our field" (Jung, interview)

In conclusion, the participants' use of spoken language such as contraction and first person pronouns is their strategic choice through which a certain purpose was carried. Park aimed to maintain a speaking-like writing style in her academic written discourse, which is her entextualization strategy (Canagarajah, 2012) that allowed her to blur the distinction between written and spoken discourse as she believed it was somehow unnecessary to differentiate between the two when getting higher scores. And Jung employed an envoicing strategy (Canagarajah, 2012) that involved using or avoiding first person pronouns to reveal or hide her writer presence depending on the genre she was engaging in (Tang & John, 1999). Seemingly less acceptable writing behaviors discussed above were thus not due to their lack of knowledge on academic writing, but instead it was based on their decision and experience from various discourses.

Named Languages

Another practice often detected in the Korean graduate students' academic writing was shuttling between named languages at the level of sentence in their assignments. For example, in their Korean as a foreign language course term paper, their perception of the expected reader (i.e., Korean professor teaching Korean as a foreign language class) allowed them to depend on shuttling between academic terms in the Korean and the English languages. The Korean assignments below included many instances of the English academic jargons that were not translated into Korean.

> 학습자들에게authentic context에서 언어를 사용하는 기회를 제공한다... 수행을 돕기 위해 **scaffolding**으로서 guiding questions이 함께 제시되었다... 과거의 일을 기술하는 것(narration)을 연습하고... 본 페이퍼에서는 친구를 단원 주제로 communicative language teaching method에 입각하여 교안을 작성하였다... Flipped learning model을 통해... 또한 flipped classroom에서는... Schema Theory에 따르면 학습자들은... 그러므로 학습자들의 schemata를 활성화시키는 수업 전 활동은... Authentic material을 사용할 때... (Park, Korean assignment)

> 위에 제시된 3번 문항은 미국 한인교회 청년부 교인들이 **text-based SCMC** (Synchronous Computer-Mediated Communication)을 통해 의사소통을 하는 실제자료이다... 학습자들은 이 단계에서 어휘가 아닌 내용확인에 관한 이해문항(comprehension questions)을 받아 제시된 문항과… (Choi, Korean assignment)

> 우선, National Standards in Foreign Language Education에서 지정한 다섯 개의 C (Communication, Culture, Comparison, Connection, and Communication)를 사용해서… 과제로 어휘를 공부해 오는 **flipped learning** 방식을 사용하여… (Jung, Korean assignment)

When they used academic terms in English as seen from, for example, "scaffolding" from Park's assignment, "text-based SCMC" from Choi's, and "flipped learning" from Jung's, they did not provide the Korean counterparts. This practice not only indicates their comfort with the educational jargon but also their assumption that the targeted readership will understand these concepts. They revealed that this was an intentional use of English within the Korean language assignment, which was regarded as envoicing and interactional strategies (Canagarajah, 2012) through which they both expressed their knowledge in the field and engaged in the readers (e.g., a Korean professor reading and evaluating the assignments and probably peers taking the same course) by appealing and assuming their shared knowledge in the field (Hyland, 2005).

And more interestingly, their assignments often included transliterated words from English to Korean which sometimes did not follow the Korean translation spelling rules. The examples are from Park and Choi.

> 다섯 번째 C는 Community로 한국 사회의 한 구성원으로서 학습자들이 친구와 관련된 언어를 이해할 뿐만 아니라 올바르게 선택 사용할 수 있는 것이 목표이다. 적절하고 유창한 언어 구사 능력은 그 언어를 사용하는 **커뮤니티** 안에서의 **멤버쉽**을 향상시키는데 도움을 주곤 한다 (Park, Korean assignment)

> 이러한 이유로 학생들로 하여금 수시로 칠판 앞으로 나가 단어의 철자를 쓰거나 그림을 그리게 하여 input의 질을 높인다. 과제 수행 내내 몸을 움직여야 하기 때문에 **인터렉션**의 양과 질이 높아지리라 기대할 수 있다. (Choi, Korean assignment)

The assignments of Park included interesting shuttling between strategy. While she used an English jargon "Community" in describing the CEFR level's Community, she used transliterated terms "커뮤니티" and "멤버쉽" in which the latter violates the National Institute of the Korean Language's Koreanization of non-Korean, loanword which reads "멤버십" for the vocabulary. In the similar vein, Choi's Korean assignment also included frequent uses of transliteration of English into Korean. The example displays a transliterated word of "interaction" which read "인터렉션" which should have been written as "인터액션" if he followed the Korean loanword spelling rule.

While these nonce transliterations from English to Korean seem to be a minor mistake or a less careful Korean language use by the Korean writers, the interviews revealed that they treated Korean, English, and transliterated language as a unitary linguistic repertoire in their academic writing (Garcia & Li, 2022). The interview with Choi underscores this approach. Choi articulates a conscious choice to use English academic terms when writing assignments intended for a specific reader—in this case, their Korean professor who is knowledgeable in the field of linguistics. The interviews highlighted the adaptive strategies used to meet reader expectations and shared knowledge bases (Lee & Handsfield, 2018).

> "I know who is going to read my paper, our Korean professor. He knows what we are talking about and also has knowledge of the field [linguistics]. If I wrote for the Korean journal, I would definitely change all terms in Korean correctly but I didn't for this and

actually don't need to" (Choi, interview)

This decision is informed by the shared understanding and the linguistic proficiency of the reader, as well as the topic's contextual demands. Such choices, as a translingual strategy to express culture-specific knowledge (Lee, 2020), reveal an aspect of translingual communication where language use is not merely a medium of expression but also a tool for aligning with the cognitive and contextual expectations of the audience (Canagarajah, 2012) and a strategy for engaging readers in the text (Hyland, 2005). This writing practice in Korean academic writing, where English terms and transliterated English terms coexist with the Korean language, suggests a dynamic interplay between language proficiency, academic culture, and the specific demands of communication within academic communities, which also displays their translingual practice realized by their awareness of the reader and care of it (Lee & García, 2021).

Shuttling between Knowledge

Crossingly Utilizing Knowledge on Major and Academic Writing

The participants' writing samples illustrate the way they shuttle between different writing genres. In their TOEFL argumentative writing, they often brought academic knowledge by utilizing their major specific academic jargons, which is often combined with sentence structures such as the lack of the first person pronoun and passive voice preferred in the academic writing. The participants' use of academic citations (e.g., *many empirical studies*; *some researchers claim*) and avoidance of personal anecdotes align with traditional academic norms that emphasize objectivity and authority over personal experience. This approach is particularly evident in their strategic use of citations to appeal to academic authority, reinforcing their arguments without resorting to personal narratives. Below is Choi's TOEFL writing.

A successful acquisition of a foreign language, unlike other areas of learning, is known to be dependent on **an age factor**… (Choi, TOFEL)

Regarding TOEFL essays, all three participants did not use personal episodes for supporting their arguments despite much freedom they had for the genre. Instead, their writings were similar to academic writing in which various strategies can be utilized to bolster arguments such as citation, choices of verbs, etc. Those include the appeal to academic authority strategy (Hunston & Thompson, 2000) and no personal anecdote used to bolster their argument. These are their strategic language choice to secure objectivity in argumentative writing. Regarding this strategy, Choi explained:

"I could have written my TOEFL essay in a more plain form, but since I am a graduate student, why should I make my writing look simple when I am able to make it look more academic? Some things that I can do to make my writing more professional include academic terms specific to my field and adding citations as if it is an academic paper" (Choi, interview)

This interview demonstrates his ability of recontextualization (Canagarajah, 2012) through which he turned his TOEFL writing into a more professional academic writing genre. And this strategy, he hoped, allowed him to express his field-specific academic writer identity as an individual who studies linguistics and language acquisition. Another example is Park's TOEFL writing below which shows that she employed a journal article writing style of citing previous research's argument to boost her argument.

Second, **many empirical studies point out** that the earlier one learns a foreign language, the better his/her pronunciation gets. (Park, TOFEL)

What is also interesting is her use of the verb "point out" which functions as an indicator of the writer's agreement to the source in academic writing (Hunston, 2000). This practice is also seen from Jung's TOEFL writing example. She also began with depending on the previous research ("according to some research" and "some researchers from linguistics"), which is followed by an academic writing preferred sentence structure (i.e., passive voice) as seen from her use of "it is said" and "It was said."

First, according to some research, **it is said** that multilingualism helps children's intellectual development. More specifically, students attending top universities in Korea answered that the reason why they could understand things better than others seems to be due to the fact that they have been exposed to several foreign languages… **It was said** that learning a foreign language earlier will be

beneficial for children with regard to the pronunciation. Some researchers from linguistics **claim** that … (Jung, TOFEL)

Also, linguistically, the use of the reporting verb "claim" can be understood as another strategy to secure her academic writer identity because "claim," in the context of supporting her argument, is said to serve to create academic visibility to signal the writer's assessment of what is cited (John, 2012). Although their interview, as seen above, revealed that they understood the flexibility in TOEFL genre, they also tended to actively bring their knowledge and practice appropriate for the purpose of academic writing into TOEFL writing. Various strategies discussed above thus could be regarded as their developmental stage for constructing academic writer' identity and for learning academic writing tradition which may in turn secure their writer identity and ownership of their argument as their English ability and academic writing proficiency improve (Hunston & Thompson, 2000).

From the interview, it was revealed that the participants created an imagined discourse of academic writing and weighed the gravity between different academic writing genres. By doing so, they utilize some knowledge from one discourse when writing for another.

> "I guess I don't consider changing my writing style according to the language, whether to be Korean or English. Instead, academic writing, to me, is just academic writing. For the hierarchy of academic writing, academic writing in the university setting like term papers or journal article manuscript should be positioned higher than TOEFL writing. So, for the lower level academic writing [TOEFL], there is no reason for me not to use writing strategies to make it look more academic and professional. I would do the same thing if writing in Japanese" (Jung, interview)

The interviews and writing samples of these participants revealed their abilities for strategic adaptation and decision-making in their academic practices, particularly shown from their citation styles and language choice. A key finding from their assignments is the selective integration of major-specific knowledge and terminology, which reflects their strategic engagement with academic conventions.

Obeying Academic Writing Convention

The participants' adherence to academic writing conventions across both their native language (Korean) and their second language (English) reveals a deep-seated trust for and acceptance of the norms in academic discourse. This acceptance appears to be largely uncritical, as evidenced by their uniform application of these conventions in their writing in both Korean and English. They revealed that their previous knowledge on academic writing they built from courses both in the Korean and American academic discourse play a critical role in determining their writing practice. Thus, their knowledge on what academic writing should look like is translanguaging space (Li, 2018) in which their opinions are discursively built by the utilization of multiple languages available but conventions on academic writing govern their writing practice. Specifically, both Ph.D. students showcased their consistent efforts for the avoidance of first-person pronouns such as "I," "my," and "we" in their compositions. This practice aligns with the academic norm of objectifying the text to minimize the presence of the author and thus enhance the objectivity of the argument (cf. Hyland, 2005). Furthermore, the use of passive voice serves to further remove the presence of the writer, positioning the research and findings within a broader, impersonal academic context rather than as the result of personal endeavor. Jung's interview above should be repeated here to provide insight into this approach.

> "In my field [phonetics], 'what I did' is not important. Rather, how my research fits in previous theories and whether the results of mine are the replication of what has been found is more crucial. My advisor always says to me that we position just as a part of 'big picture' in our field" (Jung, interview)

Further underscoring this sentiment, Jung recounts her experience in an academic writing course in the US, stating,

> "When I took an academic writing course in the US, I was taught not to use 'I' in writing. That's why I try to avoid it." (Jung, interview)

This instruction reflects a broader pedagogical emphasis on depersonalizing academic writing to fit within established norms. Thus, regardless of the named languages, academic writing seems to be a broader discourse in which the writer has a choice to express his/her idea by shuttling between English and Korea as discussed above but knowledge on academic writing standard has rarely been questioned or challenged. Similarly, Choi adds a cultural dimension to this discussion, noting:

> "In writing an argumentative writing in Korean context, explicitly presenting the writer himself/herself is very rare. This does not mean that using first person pronoun is inappropriate in any situation in spoken and written discourse, but in academic context of writing an essay in Korean, overt presence of a writer is not encouraged partly in order to assure objectivity" (Choi, interview)

His observation indicates a similar valuation of objectivity and impersonality in academic writing, consistent across both linguistic and cultural contexts. These reflections collectively indicate that the participants actively, though perhaps uncritically, incorporate established academic writing conventions into their work. Their adherence to these norms across different languages and cultural settings suggests their belief on the traditional academic values of objectivity and impersonality, which is shaped significantly by their educational experiences and academic training. This does not appear to have caused any difficulties for the participants, nor were they negatively affected by the rules and regulations they believed were necessary in academic writing discourse. One aspect of this behavior suggests that their alignment with conventional academic practices not only facilitates their integration into global academic communities (i.e., academia) but reflects the pervasive influence of these norms on their individual academic identities. On the other hand, it may indicate a lack of decolonizing academic writing pedagogies available to international students which could confine multilinguals to a limited discourse where they should rely on their second or foreign language (see Canagarajah, 2024; Xie & Sun, 2024).

CONCLUSION

This study investigated the translingual writing practices of three Korean academic writers, examining their use of both Korean and English. In line with Xie and Sun's (2024) call to decolonize academic writing education through translingual practices, the findings of this study illustrate how so-called ESL/EFL writers effectively leverage their linguistic and cultural resources, navigating between different discourses to articulate their ideas and voices according to the writing context. In this translingual practices, the boundaries between Korean and English became blurred and less rigidly perceived. Furthermore, a language that resides somewhere between the two—visible in transliterated language—emerged as a strategic tool for conveying their content. Consequently, the participants demonstrated "translingual fluency" where, as Horner et al. (2011) suggest, writing proficiency should not be measured solely by the final product but by the breadth of practices that writers can employ and their ability to engage creatively with these practices during meaning-making processes.

While the participants did not appear to question academic writing conventions, such as avoiding first person pronouns or using passive voice structures—conventions they learned from academic institutions—they did not differentiate between writing in Korean or English in terms of academic writing knowledge (cf. Kim, 2017). Their adherence to these conventions might reflect their perceptions of an imagined audience, whom they assumed shared similar knowledge on the subject of their writing. Unlike Canagarajah's (2011) concept of code-meshing, where culturally specific semiotics is used to express the writer's cultural and national identity, or Lee and Canagarajah's (2019) participant, who struggled to balance creativity with their identity as an ESL writer, the participants in this study largely relied solely on linguistic resources they believed the reader would understand. Therefore, this adherence to writing education can be seen as a call and need for the implementation of new approach, not the least of which is translingual pedagogies in academic writing (Sun, 2022).

What this study describes suggests pedagogical implications for academic writing, particularly for higher-level academic writers, from the perspective of translingualism. Those in academically less rigid contexts such as undergraduate courses (e.g., Canagarajah, 2011; Lee, 2023), for example, show creative and non-conventional writing practices. However, more professional academic writers like graduate students writing academic papers seem to be less willing to deviate from traditional ways of academic writing. Thus, they should be provided with an opportunity to think carefully about their academic writer identity in terms of second language writing or translingual writing. As partly shown from Park's (2018) research on Korean graduate students in an English speaking context, academic writers with lower proficiency in English often tend to follow so-called academic writing conventions instead of carefully considering innovative ways to express their voices and identities or developing their own strategies for utilizing their repertoires. As the current study illustrated, participants engaged in reflective practices during the interview could benefit from discussions about their own writing processes and productions. This may result in a critical understanding of what it means to write in English as EFL academic writers and raise awareness of available resources and strategies for writing (Chen, 2017). This approach will help EFL writers to view themselves from an asset perspective, recognizing that their linguistic and cultural repertoires which might look different from those of native English speakers should not be regarded as a deficit (Sun, 2022).

Another implication regards academic writing teacher training. Lee and Canagarajah (2019) partly indicated the importance of a writing teacher's perception of translingual practice. When writing teachers are prepared for translingual writing and encouraged to develop their own pedagogies for it, English as an additional language writers are properly given

opportunities to benefit from utilizing and appreciating translingual writing (Canagarajah, 2016). As shown by this study's findings, higher-level academic writers tend to stick to knowledge gained from academic institutions. Thus, in order to foster multilingual writers' linguistic and cultural identities in the context of academic writing, those who teach academic writing should be trained to think about the relationship between language and ideology, agency in writing, terminologies, and their influence in understanding writers (Canagarajah, 2013; Lee & Canagarajah, 2019; Matsuda, 2014), for which more research is needed. This focus on meaning negotiation in academic discourse through reflective practice would also enable international students like the participants of the study to recognize that strengthening arguments in academic writing is not solely dependent on language. As Canagarajah (2024) illustrated with the case of a Korean researcher, readers and audiences in written academic discourse should probably pay attention to various semiotics such as figures in manuscripts that also display a researcher's competence. Thus, a broader understanding of language and languaging, such as translingualism, can be helpful in alleviating EFL writers' language concerns and in considering diverse strategies for academic writing.

This study is not without limitations. One significant limitation is the inconsistency in the writing samples. Although efforts were made to maintain consistency, as seen from the two data sets written under the same settings (e.g., TOEFL argumentative writing and KFL assignments within the same course), the English writing samples written for graduate courses were produced for different courses. Another limitation is the absence of feedback from the imagined audience. In order to fully understand how the participants' translingual strategies function as they were intended, the reception of their writing by readers also needs to be examined. Despite these limitations, this study is significant as one of the few that explores EFL writers' academic writing practices through the lens of translanguaging. Further research is needed to better understand the complex nature of translingual writers' use of all available linguistic and cultural resources. This is because the absence of certain elements in the text does not necessarily reflect an absence of those elements in the writers' minds; what may appear as mere replication of native English speaker writing practices by EFL writers may, in fact, probably be the result of intricate strategic language choices.

References

Canagarajah, A. S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal, 95*(3), 401-417.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2012). *Translingual practice: Global Englishes and cosmopolitan relations*. Routledge.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2013). The end of second language writing? *Journal of Second Language Writing, 22*(4), 440-441.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2016). Translingual writing and teacher development in composition. *College English, 78*(3), 265-273.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2024). Decolonizing academic writing pedagogies for multilingual students. *TESOL Quarterly*, *58*(1), 280-306.

Chen, X. (2017). Translingual practices in the first-year international students' English academic writing. *INTESOL Journal, 14*(1), 25-50.

Connor, U. (2002). New directions in contrastive rhetoric. *TESOL Quarterly, 36*(4), 493-510.

García, O., & Li. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Guerra, J. C. (2016). Cultivating a rhetorical sensibility in the translingual writing classroom. *College English, 78*(3), 228–233.

Choi, Jayoung. (2022). Translingual writing of a multilingual child in and out of school. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 25*(3), 93-117.

Horner, B., Lu, M-Z., Royster, J. J., & Trimber, J. (2011). Opinion: Language difference in writing: Toward a translingual approach. *College English, 73*(3), 303-321.

Hunston, S. (2000). Evaluation and planes of discourse: Status and value in persuasive texts. In S. Hunston & G. Thompson (Eds), *Evaluation in text* (pp. 176-207). Oxford University Press.

Hyland, K. (2002). Authority and invisibility: Authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics, 34*(8), 1091-1112.

Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies, 7*(2), 173-192.

John, S. (2012). Identity without the 'I': A study of citation sequences and writer identity in literature review sections of dissertations. In T. Ramona (Eds.). *Academic writing in a second or foreign language: Issues and challenges facing ESL/EFL academic writers in higher education context* (pp. 186-203). Continuum.

Kim, Eun-Young Julia. (2017). Academic writing in Korea: Its dynamic landscape and implications for intercultural rhetoric. *TESL-EJ, 21*(3), 1-15.

Kubota, R., & Lehner, A. (2004). Toward critical contrastive rhetoric. *Journal of Second language Writing, 13*(1), 7-27.

Lee, A. Y., & Handsfield, L. J. (2018). Code-meshing and writing instruction in multilingual classrooms. *The Reading Teacher, 72*(2), 159-168.

Lee, Chaehyun. (2020). Korean bilingual students' strategic employment of translanguaging while writing. *US-China Foreign Language, 18*(4), 119-135.

Lee, C., & García, G. E. (2021). Understanding Korean-American first-graders' written translanguaging practices. *Linguistics and*

Education, 66, 100998. doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2021.100998
Lee, Eunjeong. (2023). Writing toward a decolonial option: A bilingual student's multimodal composing as a site of translingual activism and justice. *Written Communication, 40*(1), 59-89.
Lee, E., & Canagarajah, S. (2019). The connection between transcultural dispositions and translingual practices in academic writing. *Journal of Multicultural Discourses, 14*(1), 14-28.
Li, W. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics, 39*(1), 9-30.
Li, W., & García, O. (2022). Not a first language but one repertoire: Translanguaging as a decolonizing project. *RELC Journal, 53*(2), 313-324.
Li, W., & Zhu, H. (2013). Translanguaging identities and ideologies: Creating transnational space through flexible multilingual practices among Chinese university students in the UK. *Applied Linguistics*, *34*(5), 516-535.
Matsuda, P. K. (2014). The lure of translingual writing. *PMLA, 129*(3), 478-483.
Park, G. Yeon. (2018). *Social and psychological valence components of translingual graduate writers' inventory of strengths*. [Unpblished doctoral dissertation]. Indiana University.
Shen, H., & Singh, M. (2022). A translanguaging approach to bilingual theorising in postgraduate researchers' education. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 1-20. doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2022.2134876
Sun, Y. (2022). Implementation of translingual pedagogies in EAL writing: A systematic review. *Language Teaching Research*, 1-25. doi.org/10.1177/13621688221090665
Sun, Y. (2024). Power dynamics in translingual practices for Chinese as a Second Language writing education. *Language Teaching*, 1-17. doi.org/10.1017/S0261444824000089
Sun, Y., & Feng, H. (2024). Translingual practices for EAL writing education in non-EMI contexts. *TESOL Quarterly*. doi.org/10.1002/tesq.3352
Sun, Y., & Lan, G. (2021). Enactment of a translingual approach to writing. *TESOL Quarterly, 55*(2), 398-426.
Ryoo, N. (2017). *Understanding translanguaging and identity among Korean bilingual adults*. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of San Francisco.
Tang, R., & John, S. (1999). The 'I' in identity: Exploring writer identity in student academic writing through the first person pronoun. *English for Specific Purposes, 18*, S23-S39.
Xie, D., & Sun, Y. (2024). Decolonizing English Academic Writing education through translingual practices. *Linguistics and Education, 81*, 101307.
Young, V. A. (2009). "Nah, we straight": An argument against code switching. *JAC,* 29(1/2), 49-76.

Appendix

Guiding interview questions

1. How do you express your personal stance in your academic writing, particularly when writing in English compared to Korean?
2. When writing academic papers in English and Korean, how do you adapt ideas or phrases to meet academic audiences and academic writing expectations?
3. How do you manage your interaction with readers? For example, do you use different strategies to engage readers in each language?
4. In your experience, how do you negotiate meaning when expressing certain academic concepts or ideas? What is the source?
5. Can you describe a situation where you blended or integrated linguistic elements from one language into another? How did this affect the clarity or reception of your work?
6. How do you express your attitudes or evaluations of academic arguments in Korean versus English? Do you notice any differences in how you use boosters or hedges in each language?