

Research Article

Exploring Translanguaging Strategies Embraced by Korean Heritage Language Teachers to Promote Bilingual Children's Writing Expressions

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Community-based schools play an important role in developing bi/multilingual children's literacy development by providing heritage language (HL) education and cultural experiences. This research focused on how translanguaging practices surface in Korean HL teachers' writing instruction for young bilingual children in a community school context. Through qualitative study, we investigated the instructional writing opportunities and strategies used by three Korean HL teachers to support kindergarten and first-grade Korean American children's writing in Korean. The study found HL teachers created writing

opportunities that supported children's writing to communicate, handwriting, knowledge of writing conventions, and experiences with the writing process. To promote children's writing expressions, HL teachers leveraged translanguaging strategies, personal experiences, and interactive approaches. Our findings provide implications for early educators concerning how to use translanguaging practices to provide bi/multilingual children with strategic opportunities to use their full linguistic repertoire to support writing processes and products.

Keywords: bilingual children; community-based learning; translanguaging; writing

1. INTRODUCTION

The United States is becoming more linguistically and culturally diverse (García et al., 2010). According to a 2022 United States Census Bureau report, nearly 21.9% of the U.S. population speaks a language other than English at home, which is double the percentage recorded in 1990 (Dietrich & Hernandez, 2022). The school-age population in the United States is also becoming more diverse. More than half of public-school students identify as non-white minority population, with noted increases in Hispanic, Asian, and multiracial students (National Center for Education Statistics, 2023). Although English language skills are developed at school, there are few opportunities for children to develop and maintain skills in their heritage language (HL) despite the

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recognized importance of doing so (Carreira & Kagan, 2011; Chevalier, 2004; Kim & Pyun, 2014).

HL proficiency helps children from diverse linguistic backgrounds understand their ethnic cultures, which improves self-esteem, confidence, and self-determination (Cho, 2000). Despite immigrant families' strong desires for their children's bilingual development, language shifts in immigrant communities are taking place rapidly (Cohen & Wickens, 2015; Potowski, 2010).

Research demonstrates that emergent bi/multilingual children often experience rapid language loss in their HL after entering American public schools where English is the primary language (Lee, 2002). Koreans, who comprise the fifth largest group of Asians in the United States, also experience a quick shift to English as their primary language as reflected in research capturing young immigrant and American-born students' use of their HL (Alba et al., 2002). The loss of HL creates disruptions in family relationships (Fillmore, 1991; Oh & Fuligni, 2010), while building children's HL proficiency promotes the development of positive ethnic identities (You, 2005). When children experience HL loss, they may also experience difficulties participating fully in social engagements where their HL remains the primary means of communication (Cho, 2000). This diminishes the cultural capital children may acquire as a member of a HL community (Lee & Suarez, 2009). Given the impact of HL loss on the various ways of life for bilingual children, it is important to support Korean-English bilingual children in achieving high levels of writing and reading skills in both languages.

However, acquiring literacy skills in the HL is challenging because it requires continuous support and exposure to the language (Kim & Pyun, 2014; Lee, 2021; Rowe, 2003). To promote children's HL literacy skills, families strive to provide opportunities for children to speak and write in their HL in contexts outside of the regular school day, where English language skills are emphasized. Accordingly, families provide tutoring at home or enroll children in community-based HL schools to support children's HL language proficiencies (Kim & Pyun, 2014; Liang, 2018). In turn, HL teachers perform a valuable role in creating literacy environments to build HL reading and writing competencies (Kim & Pyun, 2014). HL teachers strategically work to immerse Korean children in literacy opportunities that strengthen learners' understandings of both oral language patterns and written representations.

It is important to document how HL teachers engage learners to sustain and extend children's facilities with the Korean language. However, there is a limited amount of research focused on HL teachers' instructional practices and associated perceptions related to the development of HL learners' writing proficiencies. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine how Korean HL teachers describe their efforts to sustain and support kindergarten and first-grade children's HL during writing instruction. Specifically, this study focuses on how the teachers integrated diverse writing opportunities and used translanguaging practices to develop children's HL writing.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Bi/multilingual children and monolingual children develop writing skills along similar pathways: learning functions of writing, the mechanic of letter and word writing, and developing abilities to write beyond the word level (Bingham et al., 2023; Rubin & Carlan, 2005; Soltero-González & Butvilofsky, 2016; Yaden & Tardibuono, 2004). Young children begin writing even before they receive formal instruction in early childhood education contexts (Puranik & Lonigan, 2011). Explorations of children's emergent writing indicates that children's writing development typically progresses through a series of observable and predictable sets of performances (Bingham et al., 2023; Rubin & Carlan, 2005; Schickedanz, 1990; Soltero-González & Butvilofsky, 2016). Initially, children use scribbling and drawing to communicate their ideas and they ascribe specific meanings to their early writing representations. As children develop an understanding of the characters and symbols used to represent language, they embrace invented spelling practices that become more conventional as they master the symbolic codes used to communicate ideas in written form. Continuous exposure to print-rich environments and access to appropriate instructional writing supports help them communicate effectively (Gerde et al., 2012; Puranik & Lonigan, 2011). For children to develop their writing skills, research suggests teachers provide instruction across the different writing components, including orthography, mechanics, and the writing process (Gerde et al., 2019). Research examining primary grade teachers' writing instructional practices shows teachers attend to multiple aspects of children's writing, including supporting their communicative intent, authoring through the writing processes, handwriting, and use of writing conventions (Kidd et al., 2014; Bingham et al., 2022). Through these instructional experiences, bi/multilingual children exhibit the use of additional and unique writing processes and strategies, shaped by the linguistic privileges of speaking and writing in multiple languages (Williams & Lowrance-Faulhaber, 2018).

Bi/multilingual children develop their literacy skills and metalinguistic knowledge simultaneously in multiple languages (Machado & Hartman, 2019; Soltero-Gonzalez et al., 2012). They can use their primary language to learn another language, and learning another language facilitates their primary language development (Álvarez & Butvilofsky, 2021; Machado & Hartman, 2019). Bi/multilingual children deliberately use literacy skills from their whole linguistic repertoire in their writing depending on the context, their language dominance, and the language proficiency of their interlocutor (Gort, 2006, 2012; Machado & Hartman, 2019). Because of bi/multilingual children's unique literacy experience while engaging in different social networks (Dworin, 2003; García & Klein, 2019), their writing development can be enhanced through social interactions. Notably, social interactions with their peers, family, community members, and teachers as they participate in writing experiences are fundamental to bi/multilingual children's writing development (Salmerón, 2022). Bauer and her colleagues (2017) found that through meaningful communication and collaboration with peers and teachers, bi/multilingual children's existing linguistic and cultural resources were hybridized into

their writing practices. Similarly, Kim and Song (2019) found bilingual children leveraged community histories, cultures, and traditions of their home countries and their linguistic resources in the writing when they had collaborative opportunities with their family and community members to work together to create a storybook. In many school settings, bi/multilingual students from minoritized backgrounds are often unfairly perceived as lacking necessary resources because their linguistic resources and communication styles from home and community are not aligned with those privileged in schools (Kim & Song, 2019; Reyes & Halcón, 2001). However, providing meaningful and authentic opportunities to write in both languages bridges the gap between their experiences outside of school and their formal learning context and enables them to tap into a wealth of cultural resources, including popular culture and family experiences in their writing expressions (Rodriguez, 2014; Soltero-Gonzalez, 2009). Writing across both languages not only nurtures their development as proficient writers but also reinforces their identities as capable biliterate individuals (Alvarez & Butvilofsky, 2021). Additionally, direct instruction that encourages children to create connections between two languages promotes metalinguistic awareness supporting their understanding of how languages work together (Soltero-González et al., 2016).

2.1 Translanguaging and Bi/multilingual Children’s Language Practice in Writing

The notion of translanguaging has been posited by researchers to center and enhance our understanding of the language practices of marginalized bi/multilingual students, especially within educational contexts (García & Kleifgen, 2019; García & Kleyn, 2016). This perspective acknowledges the wealth of linguistic resources bi/multilingual students bring to their learning experiences and underscores the importance of embracing their entire linguistic repertoire for effective communication and education (García & Kleifgen, 2019; García & Kleyn, 2016; Kim & Song, 2019). According to García and Li Wei (2015), translanguaging is:

an approach to the use of language, bilingualism, and the education of bilinguals that considers the language practices of bilinguals not as two autonomous language systems, as has been traditionally the case, but as one linguistic repertoire with features that have been societally constructed as belonging to two separate languages.
(p. 2)

Accordingly, translanguaging emphasizes the use of bilingual speakers’ full language resources and encourages bilingual speakers to access their integrated language repertoires (García & Wei, 2015).

Translanguaging is rooted in Bakhtin’s theories of heteroglossia (Bakhtin, 1982) which led to an appreciation of multimodal language practices using various forms of communication, such as script, voice, music, and image (García & Kleifgen, 2019). Translanguaging in literacy allows multilingual children to freely use multiple languages

and literacy practices, even in texts perceived as monolingual (García & Kleifgen, 2019). This natural process draws from their linguistic repertoire, creating meaningful connections that go beyond language boundaries, enhancing the text with a comprehensive representation of thoughts and experiences (García & Kleifgen, 2019). By transcending language constraints and integrating diverse linguistic and cultural resources, multilingual children can make meaningful connections between their cultural and linguistic backgrounds and enrich their writing with diverse perspectives and experiences. In this perspective, literacy events are dynamic and multifaceted, and involve the intertwining of spoken and written literacies, as well as various modes of communication (García & Kleifgen, 2019).

Although the term translinguaging is relatively new, earlier research shows evidence of translinguaging practices. In these studies, bilingual children effectively applied translinguaging strategies in their writing processes, utilizing literacy skills from multiple languages cross-linguistically even when producing their written output in one language. For instance, Soltero-González and Butvilofsky (2016) found that Spanish-English bilingual writers apply their knowledge of the relationship between letters and sounds in Spanish to spell words in English. Similarly, Machado and Hartman's (2019) study found that when teachers invite children to draw on all their languages as they write, multilingual children use English sound-symbol correspondence to write non-alphabetic words (e.g., Urdu, Amharic) to convey meaning in their English writing. Moreover, bi/multilingual children also apply writing conventions (e.g., using upper and lower-case letters, adding a period, and spacing between words) of one language to their writing representations in another (Gort, 2006). These studies offer educators insight into bi/multilingual children's writing development and open additional opportunities to incorporate pedagogies that support bi/multilingual children's growth as writers.

A number of researchers observed that bi/multilingual children's oral language played a supportive role in writing processes. To monitor and regulate the writing process, bi/multilingual children talk to themselves and to others while engaging in writing activities (Bauer et al., 2017; Gort, 2012; Lee, 2020; Soltero-González, 2009). For example, in Gort's (2012) study, the Spanish-English first-grade children employed cross-language metalinguistic conversations during the writing process to negotiate meaning, explain words, ideas, and conceptions, and explore and reinforce language forms. In Bauer and colleagues' (2017) study, two Spanish-English bilingual kindergartners negotiated spellings through conversations with peers while collaboratively composing text. Through the bi/multilingual children's metalinguistic dialogues, previous literature identified that those children make language choices in their writing for various reasons including deciding how to (a) engage or convey the meaning of their ideas to the target audiences (Durán, 2017; Machado & Hartman, 2019; Velasco & García, 2014), (b) express their ethnic identities (Machado & Hartman, 2019), and (c) complete cognitively demanding tasks (Lee, 2020; Velasco & García, 2014).

Recent research underscores the significance of embracing translanguaging approaches tailored to the needs of bi/multilingual children. This perspective advocates for creating classroom spaces where bi/multilingual children can bring multiple languages and scripts into their writing by valuing classroom communities as linguistic resources, modeling translingual writing integrations, and sharing linguistically diverse children's books that exemplify the practice of translanguaging in written texts (García & Kleifgen, 2019; Machado & Hartman 2019; Zapata & Laman, 2016).

Additionally, it is essential to recognize the importance of providing writing opportunities that go beyond traditional text composition. When students are allowed to explore multimodal composition with tools like digital comics, multilingual eBooks (see Rowe, 2018), and drawing picture books (see Kim & Song, 2019), they become more engaged in the production of complex products, contributing to their biliteracy development. Offering students opportunities to integrate translanguaging to communicate their ideas in writing for diverse purposes and for a variety of audiences also enhances children's writing expressions (Durán, 2017; Salmerón, 2022). Opportunities to interact with diverse audiences allow bi/multilingual children to recognize which linguistic tools best match different audiences and contexts (Durán, 2017).

2.2 Translanguaging in Writing Development of Korean-English Bilingual Children

A smaller number of studies specifically examine young Korean-English bilingual students' writing development and their employment of translanguaging while writing. Song (2015) investigated Korean-English children's home literacy activities. This study found that children strategically used two languages as a resource to create and negotiate meaning together. While Song (2015) highlighted translanguaging uses in home literacy, Lee (2020) investigated how third-grade Korean-English children used their languages while writing in a Korean HL classroom.

When a HL teacher accepted their students' use of both languages in the classroom, the students employed integrated linguistic resources from both languages to effectively facilitate their thinking and writing (Lee, 2020). Those students also demonstrated self-regulatory skills to make language choices in different social contexts (Lee, 2020). In Nam's (2017) study, Korean preschool children who learned English as a foreign language were able to identify similarities and differences between Korean and English such as shapes of letters, language units, and sound-letter relationships (Nam, 2017). The findings of this study implied that Korean HL learners could gain insights into how the Korean writing systems worked while comparing to their prior knowledge in English (Nam, 2017).

2.2.1 Korean Heritage Language Schools

In order to achieve HL proficiency, learners need ongoing HL literacy opportunities that promote their oral language, reading, and writing skills. Korean heritage schools typically offer weekend instructional opportunities for children and families seeking additional experiences with their HL. Within this format, HL community-based programs generally provide language education 3-4 hours per week (Lee & Shin, 2008) and opportunities for families and children to network with their HL communities. These community experiences help Korean American children enhance their cultural identity. Curricular opportunities in heritage schools frequently use textbooks provided by the Korean government; however, the contents of the textbooks are not relevant to Korean HL learners in the U.S. context (Shin, 2015). Thus, HL teachers often develop their own teaching materials to meet their learners' academic and linguistic needs.

HL teachers play an important role in structuring the literacy opportunities for HL learners (Kim & Pyun, 2014; Schwartz, 2001). HL learners have not necessarily developed HL literacy skills just because they have cognitive maturity and a longer length of formal education (Kim & Pyun, 2014). Rather, high-quality HL practices need to be provided to develop HL children's literacy skills. Kim and Pyun (2014) underscore the valuable role HL teachers play in providing literacy environments that develop HL reading and writing skills necessary for HL maintenance.

2.2.2 Salient Aspects of the Korean Written System

Writing is an essential literacy skill that “bears the characteristics of the cultures it participates in and the histories it carries forward” (Bazerman, 2016, p. 11). To understand Korean English bilingual children's writing development, it is important to recognize there are three salient aspects of the Korean written system, *Hangul*, that differ from English.

First, unlike English, which has an alphabet written in a linear way, Hangul is composed of square-like syllable blocks (Wang, et al., 2006). Each syllable takes its own block and is separated from the next syllable. For example, a word for a student is written in two syllable blocks:

학생 /haksang/ instead of as a string of six letters, as $\text{ㅎ} \text{ㅏ} \text{ㄱ} \text{ㅓ} \text{ㅙ} \text{ㅇ}$.

The symbols are written from left to right and from top to bottom. Each syllable block always starts with a consonant (C) and is followed by a vowel (V) (Kim, 2007). Second, there are three forms of syllables:

(a) CV (e.g., 나 /na/), (b) CVC (e.g., 감 /gam/), and (c) CVCC (e.g., 닭 /dak/).

Third, the sounds and symbols of Hangul maintain a highly consistent one-to-one relationship (Kim, 2007). Each consonant letter in onset and each vowel invariably responds to one sound except a few complex vowels and the final consonant of a syllable (Kim, 2007).

3. STUDY PURPOSE

The growing literature base recognizes the benefits of using the practice of translanguaging as an identity-affirming and effective cognitive pedagogical practice. This literature offers a theoretically rich lens for considering the practice of translanguaging as an instructional strategy for promoting young learners' language and literacy development. However, much of the research to date has focused on teachers' practices to promote bi/multilingual children's writing in English-dominant classrooms (e.g., Durán, 2017; Flynn, 2007; Machado & Hartman, 2019; Martinez et al., 2010; Matera & Gerber, 2008; Rowe, 2022; Zapata & Laman, 2016).

Additionally, these studies primarily investigated how Spanish-English bilingual students utilized translanguaging in their writing process when their teachers established spaces that valued their full linguistic repertoires (e.g., Bauer et al, 2017; Gort, 2012). A smaller set of work explores the translanguaging practices of bilingual children from language backgrounds other than Spanish-English (see Machado & Hartman, 2019) or in instructional contexts other than public school settings in the U.S. (see Lee, 2020).

By exploring Korean HL teachers' efforts sustaining and supporting kindergarten and first-grade children's HL this study contributes to our understanding of how translanguaging practices in writing for bilingual children are shaped by the community context, language backgrounds, and instructional practices teachers use to promote the writing expressions of bilingual children. Specifically, the research focuses on how translanguaging practices surface in Korean HL teachers' writing instruction for young bilingual children within a community school context. The two research questions framing this study are:

- 1) What classroom opportunities do Korean HL teachers provide to promote kindergarten and first-grade bilingual learners' writing development in Korean?
- 2) How does the practice of translanguaging surface in Korean HL teachers' instructional approaches to promote learners' writing development?

4. METHODS

This qualitative study used a case study approach to examine how three Korean heritage language (HL) teachers integrated diverse instructional practices to support children's

writing development (Stake, 1995). Case study approaches allow researchers to honor the idea that “everyday teaching and learning are complex social happenings” (Dyson & Genishi, 2005 p. 9). To delve into this complexity, we conducted open-ended, semi-structured focus group interviews with the Korean HL teachers. These interviews served as a platform for teachers to discuss and share insights into their instructional writing opportunities, language usage, purposes, and the strategies they used to support children’s writing in Korean.

4.1 Research Context and Participants

The participants of this study were three Korean HL teachers who taught kindergarten and first grade children in a Korean heritage school in the suburb of a major city in the eastern United States. This region is home to 5% of the Korean speaking population residing in the United States (Kim, 2010). The selection of these Korean HL teachers was purposeful based on their expertise (Flyvbjerg, 2006; Patton, 2015; Reybold et al., 2018) in teaching Korean as a HL to young children in a community school setting.

The participants selected were teachers with more than three years of experience teaching Korean as HL and who were teaching young Korean-English bilingual children at the time of the study’s implementation. This sampling process was also convenient as the first author has a personal relationship with one of the participants, who facilitated the recruitment of two other participating teachers working at the same Korean heritage school.

The Korean heritage school was organized and operated by a Korean church, but the heritage school was not focused on religious education. The heritage school provides language classes on Saturdays during the academic year. When this study was implemented, the school provided 6-week intensive Korean language summer camps meeting Monday to Friday from 9:00 am to 2:55 pm. The summer program consisted of Korean language classes, Korean traditional dancing, art, history, and music. The financial resources of the language school came from the tuition paid by parents.

The three HL teachers who participated in this study provided instructional writing opportunities for children during the summer intensive Korean language camp. All participating teachers were female, and they possessed between five and 14 years of experience teaching Korean (see Table 1). The HL teachers were born in Korea and immigrated to the United States after completing their university-level education. The HL teachers did not have state-issued teaching certificates/licenses. However, each HL teacher developed their teaching expertise by attending workshops and seminars provided by the National Association for Korean Schools (NAKS) and/or the Washington Association of Korean Schools (WAKS).

Table 1. Participant Demographic Information

Pseudonym	Gender	Highest Degree	Teaching Experience	Student Grade Level
Hyejin	Female	Bachelor from Korea	14 years	1 st
Sujin	Female	Bachelor from Korea	5 years	1 st
Youngsun	Female	Bachelor from Korea	11 years	Kindergarten

During initial interviews with the HL teachers, they broadly acknowledged the Korean American students typically followed one of two home language practices. One group of HL learners identified by the HL teachers were Korean American children, whose parents came from Korea and used Korean to interact with family members at home. The HL teachers explained these children typically demonstrated high oral language proficiency in both Korean and English with emergent Korean reading and writing skills. The second group of children typically used English as a primary home language. The teachers noted these children typically demonstrated emerging Korean oral language, reading, and writing skills.

The HL teachers hypothesized students were more likely to use English as a home language if the parents were either second-generation Korean American or if only one parent was Korean. Lee and Shin (2008) confirm the HL teachers' characterizations, noting an increase in the number of HL children that are from mixed heritage family homes or third or fourth-generation Korean American homes where Korean is not spoken as a primary language. The HL teachers indicated their students were novice learners who possessed some oral language proficiency in Korean but had limited experiences writing in Korean. They further explained that students also had minimal exposure to written Korean language in their everyday environment, underscoring that the classroom served as their primary source for developing these skills.

4.2 Procedures

The first author met with the HL teacher participants in three focus group interviews during the 6-week intensive Korean language summer camp program. The interviews occurred in two-week intervals. The first author, a native Korean speaker, conducted the focus group discussions in Korean, honoring the native language of the teacher participants. Each session lasted approximately 40 minutes. For each focus group session, the teachers were asked to bring two writing samples that provided evidence of the types of writing their students produced as a part of their class. The samples served as stable artifacts and offered a springboard for conversations to help teachers reconstruct their experiences writing with students (Seidman, 2006). The teachers shared their students' samples in turns. For each sample, they explained (a) the context in which the sample was created, (b) the content of the sample, and (c) what they

noticed about each writing sample. Guiding questions like the following were used to facilitate the discussion.

1. “이 쓰기 샘플에 대한 선생님의 생각을 이야기해 주세요. Please tell us about this child’s writing sample.”
2. “한글학교 학생들의 글쓰기 특징 중에 어떤 것들이 이 아이의 글쓰기에서 보이나요? What kinds of characteristics of Korean heritage language learners did you notice in this child’s writing sample?”

4.3 Data Sources and Analysis

The main data sources for this study include the transcripts of three focus group discussions with Korean HL teachers and 19 anonymized writing samples that these teachers brought as evidence of the types of writing students produced during the intensive Korean language summer camp. The teachers were invited to select examples of their students’ writing that they felt best represented the kind of writing that emerged in their classrooms. The researchers did not offer predefined parameters regarding what kinds of writing artifacts the teachers could bring. This approach allowed teachers to define writing in the context of their own classroom, reflecting their instructional expertise. Thus, during the interviews, the teachers expressed uncertainty, noting that the writing samples were from young children who had just begun learning Korean writing and were different from the work of older students.

All focus group discussions were recorded. The first author transcribed the focus group discussions and checked all transcripts against the recorded audio files and the children’s writing samples. The second and third author served as literacy and language content area experts with scholarship focused on examining early childhood teachers’ instructional writing practices. Collectively, the authors leveraged their knowledge of children’s early writing progressions and diverse instructional writing practices to explore how the teachers promoted the children’s writing in Korean. Focused analysis of the transcripts included attending to the writing samples the HL teachers brought to the focus group discussions and the interview transcripts of each teacher-lead discussion.

In our initial round of coding, we employed a simultaneous coding strategy, blending structural and process coding methods (Saldaña, 2016), to organize and make sense of HL teachers’ instructional efforts supporting bi/multilingual children’s writing. Based on our previous work examining the instructional writing practices of prekindergarten and kindergarten teachers’ writing practices in non-immersion contexts (Kidd et al., 2014), the first author employed a structural coding scheme focused on the types of writing instructional opportunities primary grade teachers articulated using. Specifically, to examine the classroom opportunities that Korean HL teachers created to support the development of emergent Korean writing skills in

Korean-English bilingual children, the HL teachers' writing instructional practices were coded as supporting one or more of the following components: a) writing to communicate, b) handwriting, c) writing convention, and d) writing process. The second and third author served as consensus coders, confirming the alignment of writing samples with the teachers' discussions describing the purpose of the instructional writing experience.

During the process coding, we used gerunds (-ing words) to capture the ongoing actions and interactions HL teachers purposefully implemented to meet the needs of their learners in the process of teaching. In this process, we identified the specific actions teachers used to engage children in the writing opportunities. These practices included journaling, allowing invented spelling, reading aloud, translating, copying, conferencing, sounding out, talking, drawing, using personal experiences, acting out, and crafting. The term *translanguaging* emerged organically as we identified patterns and phenomena in their teaching methods. The teachers did not explicitly use the term translanguaging to describe their actions. Translanguaging practices were coded when participants described how they encouraged their students to utilize both Korean and English in the authoring process or product generation and when an instructor described how they used both languages to enhance students' understanding of instruction and engage students in class activities.

Upon completion of the first-round coding strategies, we used the structural and process coding sheets to organize the direct quotes for each code by each participant. Using constant comparative analysis methodologies (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) and memo writing, the first author read and re-read the interview data to identify shared themes across data and participants and recognized that translanguaging related codes overlapped with writing instructional codes in interview data. To further the trustworthiness of the study findings, a peer examiner, a native Korean speaker and Korean HL teacher, reviewed the raw data, cross-checked codes, and independently assessed whether the findings were rational based on the provided data. The peer examiner and the first author then discussed data interpretations and worked to reach a consensus for each code.

5. RESULTS

The current study investigated the classroom writing opportunities Korean HL teachers provided Korean-English bilingual children to support emergent writing development. Across the three focus group discussions and 19 writing samples, it is evident that the HL teachers provided various types of writing opportunities for children in Korean HL classrooms. These activities included journaling, labeling, completing worksheets, and writing as part of arts and crafts. To facilitate children's writing opportunities, the HL teachers provided teacher-directed writing instruction and explicitly guided children's writing, determining when children would write as well as the writing topics and forms.

The HL teachers' discussions of children's samples demonstrate they possess a nuanced understanding of children's writing. In discussing their students' writing experiences, HL teachers noted that their students used multiple representational modes (e.g., written and drawing) to communicate.

HL teachers also described how children developed emergent writing skills, such as recognizing and forming letters, during authoring experiences. In addition, they discussed the importance of developing students' use of writing convention, especially when using the Korean alphabet, and assisting their students in using the writing process such as brainstorming and editing. While focusing on those aspects of writing for HL learners, the HL teachers strategically encouraged students to move between two languages in their oral and written communication. The HL teachers perceived that translanguaging enabled emergent Korean HL writers to communicate, expand vocabulary, and learn writing conventions effectively as they engaged them in meaningful writing activities.

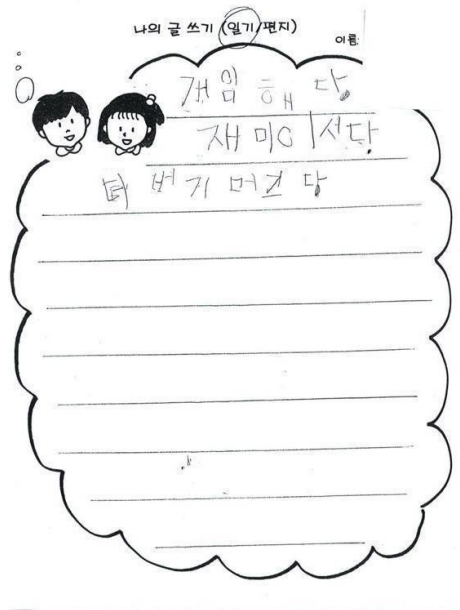
5.1 Leveraging Personal Experiences, Drawing, and Translanguaging When Writing to Communicate

When engaging in writing experiences, bi/multilingual children frequently use pictures and integrate translanguaging writing expressions to present their ideas to others (Durán, 2017; Salmerón, 2022). The Korean HL teachers in this study also emphasized that HL learners, when creating written texts in Korean, utilized drawing and incorporated English words to share their thoughts and write about daily events. The teachers described using journals to capture children's writing to communicate.

5.1.1 Personal Experiences and Writing to Communicate

The teachers explained that HL students learned how to represent their ideas and stories through drawing and writing in Korean. For example, in describing a journal entry about Tukbogi (see Figure 1), Hyejin, a first-grade teacher, explained, “[Her] mom saw this writing and tried to read what her daughter wrote down. I asked her if they ate Tukbogi yesterday. She said yes! This girl really wrote a daily journal.” Hyejin's excitement about her student's efforts in crafting and sharing her daily life through a journal is evident. Moreover, Hyejin's explanation also shows the important role she played in revealing and valuing the meaning the child intended to communicate in this journal entry.

Figure 1. Journal about Tukbogi



The student wrote “게임했다. 재미이시다. 더버기 머그다” which means “게임을 했다. 재미있었다. 떡볶이를 먹었다.” In English, the writing means “I played a game. It was fun. I ate Tukbogi.”

The sample also supports the HL teachers’ recognition that children frequently wrote about topics they were familiar with or found personally meaningful. Hyejin explained, “[My students] could write about what they did, what was fun, what they ate, what games they played. They wrote about Pokémon and Minecraft so many times.” She continued, “The topics are limited. Because they are not like older kids. They are too young.”

Sujin, another first-grade teacher, also recognized children’s experiences may limit their writing expressions and described how she supported her students in encouraging them to think about various topics to expand their vocabulary.

I use a book. My students easily feel bored with something that is not relevant to them. But, if I read aloud a storybook, they really pay attention. I use sentences from a storybook and teach them through the story. [...] If not, they only [write] where they went, something like that.

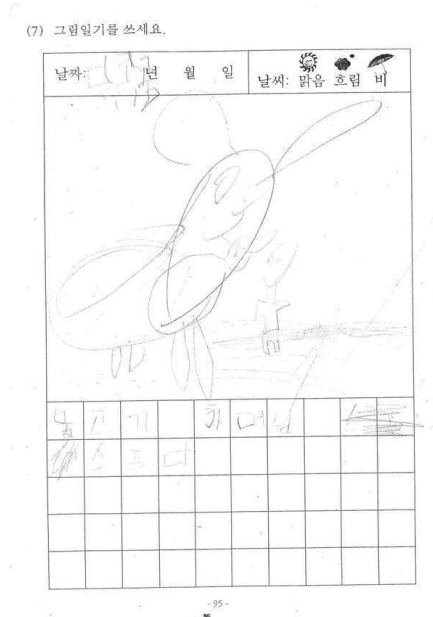
The HL teachers recognized the influence personal experiences had on young children’s writing. In Hyejin’s case, she strived to honor children’s experiences by inviting them to write about their experiences in a personal journal. In contrast, Sujin built personal experiences with the Korean language into her classroom routine by immersing children in Korean language books. The shared reading experiences supported children’s narrative writings by providing language scaffolds they could use in their own writing.

5.1.2 Drawing and Writing to Communicate

HL teachers also understood that children expressed themselves through a combination of text and pictures. When the HL teachers discussed the children’s writings, they also referenced what their students drew. For example, in Sujin’s discussion of the sample *The Polar Bear Son 1* (see Figure 2), she explained that she instructed her students to work on a journal entry after reading a Korean storybook together. The sample shows the child used invented spelling to write three words in the journal. However, in Sujin’s discussion of the writing experience, Sujin described how the child’s illustrations presented a complex representation of the story. Sujin explains,

It is a polar bear. The grandma raised the polar bear as her son. However, her neighbors were jealous of her having the polar bear. Thus, the polar bear left the village. That is the story of the book. I guess he first drew a baby polar bear here and then drew the grown one. When the grandma brought the polar bear, it was a baby. However, it became bigger. I guess this is grandma.

Figure 2. *The Polar Bear Son 1*



The student wrote “물고기 할머니 슬프다” which means “물고기 할머니 슬프다.” In English, the writing means “Fish grandma sad.”

Sujin’s discussion reveals how she used Korean stories to engage and invite children to new writing opportunities. It also underscores how HL teachers appreciated children’s drawings as an important communicative aspect of their writing and emerging Korean literacy skills.

5.1.3 Translanguaging and Writing to Communicate

While encouraging HL children to communicate through writing, HL teachers perceived the children spontaneously used a translanguaging approach in their writings. The following transcript excerpt illustrates how Hyejin perceived one student's mixing of English words into their Korean writing (see Figure 3).

Researcher: Here he wrote 'tablet' in English not Korean.

Hyejin: Yes, and 'Minecraft.'

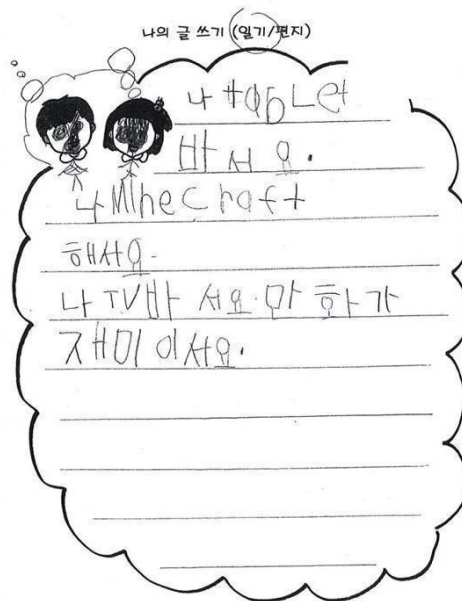
Researcher: Did he write them in English because those are English words?

Hyejin: Yes, he wrote 'tablet' instead of [writing in Korean]. He just wrote in that way. I just let him do it. I didn't want him to stress out.

Researcher: Then heritage language learners usually use English words [in their writing]? I mean mix two languages.

Hyejin: If I ask them to write in Korean only, they do. However, that would be too hard for them.

Figure 3. Mixing English Words into Korean Writing



The student wrote “나 tablet 바서요. 나 Minecraft 해서요. 나 TV 바서요 만화가 재미이서요.” which means “나는 태블릿을 봤어요. 나는 마인크래프트를 했어요. 나는 텔레비전을 봤어요. 만화가 재미있었어요.” In English, the writing means “I watched a tablet. I played Minecraft. I watched TV. The cartoon was fun.

Hyejin indicated that she accepts students' use of English words in Korean writing if the words are English loanwords and there is no Korean word that fits in, considering that it would be unnatural for HL learners to try and use a Korean term instead. In addition, Youngsun mentioned that a HL learner's English vocabulary could bolster a child's Korean vocabulary development. When she discussed her instructional support for her students, she said,

In my class, I focused on teaching Korean words that my students know in English. Now my students, 90% of the vocabulary is developed in English. When they look at the picture of a tree, they know it is a tree. But they don't know the word 'tree' in Korean. So, I tried to teach those words every day.

Youngsun believed that HL children can use conceptual structures developed in English as anchors while learning Korean vocabulary.

The teachers in this study recognized children's efforts in writing to communicate in Korean and discussed the significance of providing writing opportunities to encourage HL children to use their voices with Korean Hangul. The HL teachers understood that children's writing may emphasize everyday topics because of their developing vocabulary and cognitive level.

Similar to the work of Bauer et al. (2017) on bilingual children's writing in a dual language classroom, it was apparent that the teachers recognized their students as emergent bilingual learners who wove two languages into their writings to share personal experiences that included American popular cultures. These teachers also described strategies for supporting and engaging HL children in experiences to help them think about various topics and express complicated ideas through a combination of drawing and integrating the entire language repertoires available to them in their environments.

5.2 Developing Handwriting through Translanguaging and Interactive Approaches

HL teachers discussed developing students' handwriting, including identifying and forming Korean letters, Hangul. The teachers identified the importance of teaching handwriting skills because HL learners have limited opportunities to explore Hangul in settings beyond the HL school context. Learning how to write Hangul characters is an important aspect of supporting children's emerging Korean writing skills. Therefore, the HL teachers discussed intentional opportunities for children to learn how to form and combine Hangul characters, which have different visual and syllabic features from English. The teachers described using worksheets, journals, crafts, and kinetic movement to promote children's handwriting in Korean.

5.2.1 Translanguaging to Support the Handwriting

The HL teachers underscored the importance of learning the Korean alphabet and writing system when describing opportunities for children to copy words or sentences in order. They collectively expressed that rote practice, including labeling pictures and finding words to copy, helped their learners become familiar with Korean letters and build fluency writing Hangeul. Sujin’s discussion of The Swimming Pool journal entry (see Figure 4) provides an example of how HL teachers structured handwriting activities that involved copying.

Figure 4. The Swimming Pool



The student wrote “수영장 에 갔어요. 너무 재미있어요. 또 가고 싶어요.”

Which means “수영장에 갔어요. 너무 재미있어요. 또 가고 싶어요.” In English, the writing means “I went to the swimming pool. It was so fun. I want to go to the swimming pool again.”

Sujin explained that she started the journal writing experience by asking her students what they had done the day before. Then, she translated what the students shared with her into Korean and wrote their thoughts down on the whiteboard. The students then copied the sentences she generated as part of a conversation into their journals and added drawings to complement their writing. Sujin noted, “Most of the sentences were copied. I can’t leave them hanging. So, I just let them copy at least once a week to practice writing.” Sujin’s explanation shows how the teachers directed and structured writing activities that allowed their students to access their primary language to express their ideas. In this way, HL students practiced Korean written forms while engaging in a meaningful activity connected to their personal stories.

5.2.2 Interactive Approaches and Handwriting

When discussing handwriting, teachers mentioned making writing an enjoyable learning experience for young HL learners. Youngsun, a kindergarten teacher, specifically explained how she incorporated songs, physical movements, and arts and crafts into her class to teach Korean letters. She said, “When I teach writing, I act out Korean letters with my body instead of handwriting...If I give [my students] a paper and write a letter, they don’t learn well. So first, I act out.” She also provided opportunities for students to build the letters with tangible objects as well. Youngsun shared one writing sample where she taught a Korean letter ‘ㅏ’ using popsicle sticks (see Figure 5). She believed that those letter formation activities helped young learners learn Korean letters and sound-symbol combinations, as well as retain the information longer. By helping students engage visually and kinetically with the practice of writing Hangul, the HL teachers intentionally nurtured children’s emergent Korean writing skills.

Figure 5. Letter Formation Activity



5.3 Translanguaging and Promoting Writing Conventions in Korean

In HL teachers’ discussions, writing conventions emerged as a key instructional component for supporting HL learners’ writing. When the teachers discussed writing conventions, they focused on spelling. The HL teachers suggested that part of their responsibility was to help students learn the Korean alphabet symbols and the rules for combining symbols. The HL teachers understood that if they taught children how to use groups of letters, then the children would be able to represent the sounds they heard in words. The teachers believed that if the HL learners mastered the Korean orthographic system and its basic rules, they could express their thoughts in writing while continuing

to develop their Korean oral language proficiency. The teachers used the writing strategies familiar to children when composing text in English, including helping children make explicit connections between sounds and symbols and accepting invented spellings. Additionally, they promoted metalinguistic awareness by pointing out structural similarities and differences between Korean and English.

5.3.1 Sounding It Out

Across discussions, the teachers shared the importance of helping the learners distinguish between separate sounds and teaching them how to spell words in Korean. The practice of “sounding it out” is a strategy the HL learners would also be familiar with as an aspect of their writing experiences in primary school contexts that emphasized English orthography as well, making it a complementary writing practice for young learners to use across languages. For example, Hyejin said, “When he was writing the word, lion, I asked him to sound out the word instead of pondering how to spell it. Then, he can hear his own sounds.” In this case, Hyejin refers to a worksheet that she has duplicated to support the children’s spelling of familiar animals. Hyejin’s explanation shows how she promoted children’s understanding of Korean orthography and phonology by encouraging her students to sound out the word and spell it based on the sound.

At the same time, the HL teachers also perceived that sound-based spelling is challenging for HL children because they cannot yet define some Korean sounds. Returning to Sujin’s discussion of The Swimming Pool (see Figure 4) she explained that the child misspelled the word ‘수영장’ because of his confusion with Korean vowel sounds. She elaborated,

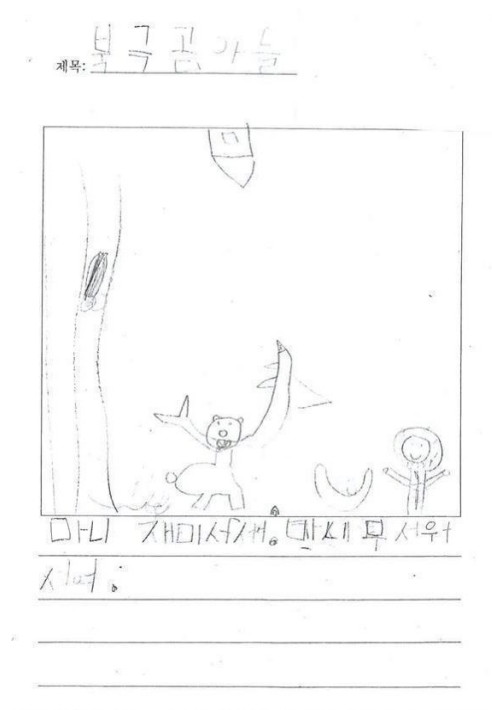
I asked students to bring their writing [and read it to me]. Even when they copied, they often misspelled the words. So, I asked them to revise it. This one... he wrote first 소영장 /so-young-jang/...I asked him, ‘Is it 수 /su/ or 소 /so/?’ Then, he said, 수 /su/. Then, I asked him to revise it. [...] Because they don’t know...it happens a lot. Especially children, even [if] they are at a higher level in Korean class, they often confuse the vowel sounds.

Sujin’s explanation reveals how she believed novice learners may have difficulty spelling some words because of their inability to distinguish Korean vowels which are pronounced differently from English. Thus, she used individual conferences with her children to demonstrate how to pronounce specific sounds within words. By slowing down the pronunciations of words, she could teach Korean words and help the children distinguish the sounds. Sujin believed that this strategy helped her students to remember word pronunciation and learn to spell them correctly.

5.3.2 Invented Spelling

In further discussions of spelling, teachers identified that HL learners have difficulty in learning Korean spelling because of the difference between the written forms of English and Korean. Korean is written by combining consonant-vowel-consonant units in a square-like syllable block. The teachers recognized that the HL children were often confused when they wrote the final consonant of each syllable, which is written below the vowel. For example, when Sujin discussed a second writing sample related to *The Polar Bear Son 2* (see Figure 6), she noted that the student skipped some final consonants of the word. Sujin said, “[She] wrote ‘재미 서서여’ instead of ‘재미있었어요.’ We haven’t...I mean the students haven’t learned some final consonants of a syllable. It would be hard for her to write.” Sujin perceived that the child’s use of invented spelling was a part of the process children went through when learning the Korean writing system.

Figure 6. *The Polar Bear Son 2*



The student wrote “마니 재미서서여. 마니 무서워 서여” which means “많이 재미있었어요. 많이 무서웠어요.” In English, the writing means “It was so fun. It was so scary.”

Across discussions, the teachers made similar observations about children’s use of invented spelling in their Korean writings. They perceived those invented spellings as a natural part of language development because HL children would have difficulty spelling Korean words. First, the teachers noted that using a square-like syllable block system is unfamiliar to HL children and requires explicit modeling. Second, the teachers recognized that the Korean language contains sounds that do not exist in English. Thus, instead of correcting spelling directly, they used instructional strategies to scaffold HL learners’ spelling of words.

5.3.3 Developing Metalinguistic Awareness

Like Gort’s (2006) research describing how young bilingual writers use metalinguistic conversations to explore and reinforce language forms, the Korean HL teachers in this study consciously made connections between the learners’ pre-existing linguistic knowledge in their primary language, English, and their learning of the Korean language. The teachers explicitly pointed out the differences and similarities between Korean and English. For example, teachers recognized that HL students drew on their emerging understanding of English phonology and the alphabet to learn the Korean written system. Specifically, Youngsun explained that if HL children know the sound for the letter ‘g’ they could transfer this knowledge to learn the Korean letter ‘ㄱ’ and its corresponding sound. Similarly, when Sujin discussed teaching mechanics and spacing in her class, she described how she brought the students’ languages together to develop metalinguistic awareness about the differences or similarities between Korean and English. She stated, “I told them, you learned finger spacing between words in school. It is the same in Korean. Between words space on the block.” Even though the strategies to make connections between two languages were not discussed often, Sujin’s discussion illustrates HL teachers’ efforts to use students’ background knowledge in English to promote new learning and build their knowledge of the Korean language.

5.4 Translanguaging during the Writing Process: Prewriting to Editing

In the HL teachers’ discussions, the writing process was not discussed frequently although the HL teachers did focus on generating ideas for writing and editing writings for meaning. In Sujin’s discussion of *The Swimming Pool* (see Figure 4), she described the way she structured the journal writing. She brainstormed with students about their weekend events in a whole group before writing. As mentioned above, by allowing the students to generate their ideas in English, she could scaffold novice learners’ expression of their ideas into written forms in Korean. Hyejin also engaged children in brainstorming experiences by offering children a moment to think about what they

wanted to write before writing and providing prompting questions like, “What did you do?” and “How did you feel during the events?” In addition to pre-planning opportunities before writing experience, the HL teachers discussed the editing process. The teachers used conferencing with their students to provide feedback on spelling and spacing between words. To do so, the HL teachers often drew on connections between children’s understanding of writing in English to similar writing rules in Korean.

6. DISCUSSION

In educational spaces, monoglossic language ideologies are deeply ingrained (García & Kleifgen, 2019). Because these ideologies believe that bilinguals have two separate language systems and languages are made up of bounded linguistic features, they marginalize multilingual children’s flexibility and their ability to communicate in multiple language practices (Rowe, 2022). Translanguaging is a natural part of bi/multilingual speakers’ linguistic repertoires. In translanguaging, monoglossic language ideologies are rejected, and teachers provide multilingual children with opportunities to become literate multilingual learners who utilize their flexible, agentive, and dynamic linguistic repertoires (García & Kleifgen, 2019). This research intends to contribute to the empowerment of heritage language educators by providing insights into effective teaching practices aligned with the translanguaging pedagogy. In this study, the HL teachers perceived that novice HL learners benefited from the opportunities to express their ideas using different modes, such as written, oral, and visual as well as their use of multiple languages to compose written text in Korean. The teachers also used guided prompts to support students’ facilities with linguistic writing characteristics that span across languages (i.e., phonological sound symbol matching, spacing of words, and other conventions of print). With guided support, HL teachers also supported students during brainstorming to use both of their language systems to plan their writing. During these sessions, the HL teachers modeled the writing of Korean words to facilitate students’ ability to acquire new vocabulary. Previous research reported that Korean HL teachers at a community school have little to no understanding of children’s language development and classroom experiences (Shin, 2005). However, conversations with the HL teachers in this study reveal they have clear insights into Korean heritage children’s writing development. In fact, the HL teachers described a variety of writing opportunities that promoted Korean-English bilingual children’s writing development. These HL teachers intentionally created strategic spaces for the children to write using their entire linguistic knowledge to support their emergent Korean writing.

Translanguaging pedagogy emphasizes the meaning-making process of multilingual children as they use diverse forms of communication and expression in their linguistic and multimodal repertoire (García & Kleifgen, 2019). These particular Korean HL teachers articulated HL learners communicated their daily life stories and thoughts in written text by drawing on their entire semiotic repertoires including English, Korean,

and pictures. The teachers confirm previous research findings indicating that the bi/multilingual children wanted to express their complex ideas even if their Korean literacy skills were limited (Velasco & García, 2014). Thus, the HL teachers directed and structured the writing activity to allow their students oral translanguaging opportunities as well as incorporating drawing as illustrated in Sujin’s scaffolded journal writing. Moreover, the HL teachers perceived when HL children shared their daily experiences that included American popular culture, translanguaging was necessary to communicate effectively in writing. In Hyejin’ example, where a student integrated some English words like ‘Minecraft’ and ‘tablet’ into Korean writing, she considered the translanguaging approach natural for HL learners to incorporate their existing vocabulary in English in their Korean writing.

Collectively, these findings support previous research indicating when HL teachers use translanguaging practices in combination with other writing strategies, such as talking across languages to share or organize ideas and having word walls in both languages, they enhance children’s HL writing performances (Bauer et al., 2017; Gort, 2012; Soltero-González, 2009). These findings also provide insight into how Korean HL teachers could cultivate the writing skills of HL children. The writing experiences and strategies these Korean HL teachers described underscore how providing meaningful writing opportunities encourages students to understand writing as a communication tool and creates spaces for children to leverage potential linguistic flexibilities (Durán, 2017; Velasco & García, 2014).

By using the translanguaging approach to writing instruction, teachers promote multilingual students’ metalinguistic awareness and encourage learners to make connections across the writing systems in their language repertoire (Salmerón, 2022). Like other early childhood bilingual teachers, these HL teachers emphasized the importance of teaching handwriting (Kenner, 2004) and writing conventions, specifically spelling (Matera & Gerber, 2008; Reynolds et al., 2013). The teachers emphasized the importance of helping learners distinguish between separate sounds and teaching them how to spell words in Korean. Youngsun’s explanation provided a concrete illustration of how the teachers purposefully leveraged HL learners’ growing phonological awareness and familiarity with the letter sounds HL children learn in English to honor children’s invented spellings in Korean. The teachers identified children’s prior knowledge related to the English writing system as a valuable asset. The HL teachers strategically incorporated this knowledge base into their instructional approaches to enhance the HL children’s learning and support their Korean writing practice. While the HL teachers did not systematically analyze the HL learners’ writing development, they perceived from their experiences with students that HL learners could access their knowledge of phonology and writing conventions in English while writing in Korean. The participants’ comments align with the current research with bilingual children, which supports applying emergent literacy skills from multiple languages cross linguistically (Alvarez & Butvilofsky, 2021; Bauer et al., 2017; Durán, 2017; Gort, 2006, 2012; López & Greenfield, 2004; Soltero-González et al., 2012).

Because English and Korean share alphabetic principles but have differences in their visual form (linearity vs. block layout) and linguistic structures (Pae et al., 2010), HL teachers can use explicit instruction to support their students as they navigate two language systems and guide them to think about how they are similar or different. Modeling this metalinguistic dialogue is an important strategy that supports bilingual children's writing (Gort, 2012; Kenner, 2004).

This study supports the research that highlights emergent bilingual writing development in classroom environments where a teacher provides bilingual children with strategic opportunities to use their full linguistic repertoire without correction or limitation of language choice (Bauer et al., 2017; Machado & Hartman 2019; Zapata & Laman, 2016). Cummins (2017) cautions that monolingual instructional assumptions remain pervasive in language classrooms, and HL teachers in this study reported that they too tried to restrict their students' language to Korean in order to maximize the target language use in the classroom. However, through discussions, the HL teachers explained that in practice they leveraged translanguaging practices as a natural part of HL learners' processes. The HL teachers discussed how they allowed HL learners to use both languages in writing to negotiate and create meaning. This finding also shows how the HL teachers recognized that bilingual children go through a dynamic decision-making process between the two languages to communicate in speaking and writing (Durán, 2017; Dworin, 2003; Gort, 2006). These teachers also show how they used translanguaging strategies as a pedagogical tool, intuitively understanding its role in supporting children's writing development and expressing an appreciation for the dynamic language processes involved in emergent bilingual writing. The findings highlight how these translanguaging strategies, in combination with other writing strategies, were not only accepted but actively embraced to honor bilingual children's unique language usage (Machado & Hartman, 2019; Song, 2015; Velasco & García, 2014).

Although this study is limited by the number of participants and relies on the artifacts they selected for discussion, the findings of this study expand the current knowledge of HL teachers' instruction and perceptions of bi/multilingual children's writing development. Additionally, validity of the findings is dependent upon the analytical processes and perspectives embraced by the research team (Maxwell, 2005). The authoring team has diverse linguistic and instructional writing backgrounds. The first author is fluent in Korean and English, and although the second and third author are monolingual English speakers, they bring important insights regarding instructional experiences that promote young children's writing expressions in contexts that honor translanguaging practices. These perspectives supported the analysis processes and encouraged recursive cycles of consensus coding focused on translanguaging strategies evidenced and writing elements emphasized by the teachers. However, it should be noted that two researchers were not Korean language speakers, and the interviews and interpretations of written samples were in Korean. While the transcripts were independently verified by another scholar fluent in Korean and English, building in

trustworthiness of the transcriptions (Poland, 2001), cycles of data coding and analysis were dependent upon interpretations and explanations clarified by the first author during the consensus coding processes with the second and third authors. Accordingly, the second and third author acknowledge experiencing some limitations in interpretation and recognize the inclusion of bi/multilingual researchers as essential to research teams engaging in future translanguaging research. Therefore, to support the validity and reliability of the interpretations of the data, the authors offer rich descriptions of the HL teachers' discussions to provide clear illustrations of how the practices of translanguaging surface in their efforts to support children's writing expressions (Merriam, 2009).

7. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Research has focused on bilingual children's writing within English mainstream classrooms or dual language programs to advance educators' understanding of bilingual children's process of literacy development. This study explored the instructional strategies HL teachers used to support emergent bilingual children's writing expressions. The participants' discussions provide insights into HL teachers' instructional practices in a community-based heritage school. Moreover, the focus shifts to the broader context of language experiences provided by teachers in this study for bi/multilingual learners. These learners, who encounter languages other than English at home or within their immediate communities, undergo formal education exclusively in English (Valdés, 2005). The significance of this work extends beyond the specific study group, benefiting early childhood educators by illustrating how they may leverage children's whole linguistic repertoires to effectively support the writing practices of emerging bi/multilingual children.

This study illustrates that HL learners draw upon their primary language of English to support the acquisition of their HL. This finding provides complementary evidence of how translanguaging patterns remain fluid between languages. In this study, the Korean language is privileged as the language to be learned. Accordingly, the teachers recognize the value of their students' linguistic knowledge of English and provide opportunities for them to use English to support their writing development in Korean. In this study, translanguaging strategies happened fluidly in the teachers' instruction and students' practices. HL teachers leveraged those strategies to promote biliteracy development. Intentionally using translanguaging strategies during writing can provide a flexible and comfortable environment for emerging Korean HL learners to explore their entire linguistic resources and enrich their written communication. In this way, further study needs to investigate how and to what extent teachers' intentional use of translanguaging instruction benefits bilingual children's writing development. There is also a need for research involving more HL teachers working with children across different age groups and language groups. Expanding research with HL teachers may provide rich insights about translanguaging strategies that promote biliterate writing development.

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