**Social Inclusion**
2026 • Volume 14 • Article 10867
https://doi.org/10.17645/si.10867

cogitatio

ARTICLE

Open Access Journal

# Translanguaging Towards Equitable Participation: Doing Research Multilingually With People With a Migration Background

**Erin Gail MacDonald [1], Mirona Moraru [1], Arthur Bakker [2], and Elma Blom [1]**

[1] Development and Education of Youth in Diverse Societies, Utrecht University, The Netherlands
[2] Research Centre for Curriculum Studies, University of Amsterdam, The Netherlands

**Correspondence:** Erin Gail MacDonald (e.g.macdonald@uu.nl)

**Submitted:** 30 June 2025 **Accepted:** 23 October 2025 **Published:** 14 January 2026

**Issue:** This article is part of the issue "Multilingual Challenges: Empirical Social Research in Migration Societies, Transnational Spaces, and International Contexts" edited by Clara Holzinger (University of Vienna) and Anna-Katharina Draxl (University of Vienna), fully open access at https://doi.org/10.17645/si.i435

## Abstract

Doing research with multilingual people belonging to marginalized groups involves reconsidering our methods of inquiry. Language differences between researchers and participants can render the lived experiences, multilingual subjectivities, and knowledge of the participants unrecognized and undervalued. This is amplified in educational settings, where a monolingual norm can be pervasive, delegitimizing other languages that are important for sharing values and knowledge. Based on a codesign study with multilingual caregivers with a migration background, the present article aims to reflect on how translanguaging can be employed as a methodological approach in research processes. Translanguaging is defined here as promoting the use of a person's entire linguistic repertoire to make meaning and (more equitably) participate in research. We draw on three codesign rounds conducted in the Netherlands involving ten multilingual caregivers. In a reflection based on fieldnotes, artefacts, and pictures collected during participant observation in 22 codesign meetings, we formulate seven heuristics that could be helpful to other researchers or practitioners employing translanguaging in research processes. These are: (a) encouraging and modeling the use of multiple languages; (b) using multilingual resources; (c) using translation apps; (d) using an interpreter; (e) encouraging brokering; (f) encouraging same-language group pairings; and (g) building in the time necessary to legitimize translanguaging strategies. By sharing our reflections and heuristics, we hope to foster equitable participation of marginalized groups in research, with a specific reference to participants with a migration background.

## Keywords

multilingual caregivers; participatory research; researching multilingually; translanguaging

## 1. Introduction

Doing research with multilingual people belonging to marginalized groups can be challenging, particularly when there is a language difference between researchers and participants (Warriner & Bigelow, 2019b). Because linguistic asymmetries between researchers and participants can leave the voices, experiences, and knowledge of marginalized groups underrepresented, we need to rethink our methods of inquiry and the role of language therein (Warriner & Bigelow, 2019b). Some solutions point towards participatory methods (Ross, 2017) and doing research multilingually (Costley & Reilly, 2021; Holmes et al., 2013) by adopting translanguaging as a methodological approach (e.g., Goodman & Seilstad, 2025; Seilstad, 2025). Translanguaging refers here to both researchers and participants drawing on their entire linguistic repertoire to make meaning and (more equitably) participate in research.

The aim of this article is to reflect on the implementation of translanguaging as a methodological approach to allow for meaningful participation of multilingual participants in research. Based on this reflection, we formulate seven heuristics, pieces of advice grounded in practice, that can be useful for researchers engaging with similar groups. Relevant observations come from a larger research project in which the first author codesigned mathematics activities with multilingual caregivers, to be done with their children in whichever language they were comfortable in. The rationale behind the project was that these caregivers bring with them valuable funds of knowledge that can help support their children's mathematical learning (Moll et al., 1992). Over the course of three codesign rounds, the first author and three groups of caregivers developed, tested, adjusted, and re-tested these activities in an iterative codesign process. We realized quickly that many of the caregivers were not comfortable sharing in Dutch or English, the languages spoken by the first author. Thus, we implemented various translanguaging strategies to enrich the research process by broadening the scope of participants engaged in our research: being able to represent more voices and, therefore, more experiences. The enactment of translanguaging strategies ensured that caregivers and the researcher could share and participate from more equitable positions. The larger study provided us with an opportunity to learn and reflect on the translanguaging approach adopted in this codesign study.

### *1.1. Linguistic Asymmetries and More Equitable Approaches in Research*

Linguistic differences between researchers and (potential) research participants belonging to marginalized groups do not represent mere logistical challenges to be overcome by researchers (Gordon, 2022). Rather, language choices "may shape, challenge, disrupt, subvert or reinforce power structures and social inequalities in interpersonal relations between researchers and researched" (Meyer Pitton & Semiramis Schedel, 2022, p. 310). Language choices in research are thus linked to *who* gets to participate in research processes and to the (a)symmetric distribution of power among the different agents, which, in turn, determines *how* they participate in such processes (Havlin, 2022; Meyer Pitton & Semiramis Schedel, 2022). These aspects are influenced by prevalent language hierarchies, such as the asymmetry between the highly valued official societal language and regional or migrant languages, which are less valued, or between a standard language (highly valued) and non-standard varieties (less valued; see Havlin, 2022). Therefore, lack of careful reflection on language choices when doing research with multilingual minoritized groups "runs the danger of reproducing the systems of domination which languages carry with them" (Havlin, 2022). Thus, it is becoming increasingly important to reconsider our methods of inquiry and find alternative approaches that foster more equitable participation in research (Phipps, 2022; Warriner & Bigelow, 2019b). We understand equitable participation as encompassing

people having "opportunities for self-expression and for flexibility in constructing their responses" while being shown "respect for their identities [and being positioned] in ways that can help to offset the power imbalance that exists between the researcher and the researched" (Liddicoat & Derivry-Plard, 2025, p. 17).

An alternative approach towards shifting traditional researcher-participant power hierarchies has been implementing specific methodological choices with the potential to empower research participants (Ross, 2017), such as participatory action research (Cornish et al., 2023) or design based (implementation) research (Bakker, 2018) carried out through research-practice partnerships or joint inquiry (Coburn & Penuel, 2016; Manz et al., 2022). Such approaches move away from a positioning of the researcher as the expert who produces knowledge about the participants; instead, they provide opportunities for participants to engage in both knowledge production and value creation processes that enable dialogues around the things people care about to make a difference (Ross, 2017; Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2020). This also entails questioning traditional hierarchies regarding who is seen as an expert and whose experiences, values, goals, contributions, and knowledge are considered valuable.

Other alternatives for reconsidering methods of inquiry are directly linked to language and have been explored in the field of "researching multilingually" (Costley & Reilly, 2021; e.g., Goodman & Seilstad, 2025; Holmes et al., 2022; Warriner & Bigelow, 2019a). Such alternatives encompass reflecting on the positionality of the researcher in relation to the participants (Havlin, 2022; Warriner & Bigelow, 2019b) and the language choices that are needed to dismantle prevalent language hierarchies.

Research shows that such dismantlement can be achieved in different ways. Some options are researchers either working with professional interpreters or learning the language(s) used by certain communities, rather than expecting participants to communicate in the dominant language of the researcher (Egilsson et al., 2022; Gibb et al., 2019). This has been shown to produce shifts in the power dynamics between researchers and the participants, empowering marginalized participants by positioning them as experts while researchers reveal their linguistic vulnerability (Muller & Gubrium, 2016; Young Knowles, 2019). Another way of dismantling prevalent language hierarchies in research can refer to attempts to mitigate the value of the dominant forms of expression in society, while making room for other linguistic practices, commonly seen as less valuable. This can be done by actively adopting a translanguaging approach, where both researchers and participants draw on their entire linguistic repertoire to make meaning and more equitably participate in research. While adopting a translanguaging approach in research represents a recent direction, there are indications of its promising nature (Gordon, 2022; Havlin, 2022; Lee, 2022; Li, 2022; Polo-Pérez & Holmes, 2023; Seilstad, 2025). In this article, we focus on translanguaging as an approach to foster equitable participation in research.

### *1.2. Translanguaging and Its Potential to Foster More Equitable Participation in Research*

Translanguaging emerged as a pedagogical strategy in the context of 1980s Welsh bilingual education, where it referred to the use of two languages for input and output (Baker, 2011; Lewis et al., 2012a, 2012b; Williams, 1994). The notion of translanguaging was further expanded starting from the 2010s, leading to its understanding as a linguistic practice, a pedagogical approach, and a theoretical construct (e.g., Creese & Blackledge, 2015; García, 2009). As a linguistic practice, we understand translanguaging as involving speakers employing their full linguistic repertoire in diverse ways that may diverge from linguistic expression attributed solely to named languages. As a pedagogical approach, translanguaging highlights the idea that all

students' language competences should be valorized as resources for learning. Such linguistic and pedagogical practices involve combining linguistic features attributed to different named languages, which could be done by employing semiotic features multimodally, translating, comparing, collaborating, brokering, and/or designing a multilingual landscape (Moraru et al., 2025). In education, translanguaging often entails a critical perspective, questioning and attempting to transform the educational inequity experienced by linguistically minoritized students (e.g., García, 2009).

While the notion of translanguaging has developed mostly in formal education, there is an increasing attention to its potential in other contexts, including out-of-school learning settings, such as museums, homes, or libraries (e.g., Kwon, 2022; Ryu, 2019). Other studies left the education arena and focused instead on translanguaging practices in the workplace, at the market, or in healthcare (e.g., Blackledge & Creese, 2017; Du & Zhou, 2022; Prada & Woodward-Kron, 2024). Some scholars have also recently started considering the potential of translanguaging for methodological decisions and processes. The present study aims to contribute to the expansion of this new direction, which we discuss in more detail below.

Lee (2022) and Li (2022) call for research on the phenomenon of translanguaging to be carried out by "translanguaging research methodologies." Such a perspective could influence the formulation of research questions, the type of evidence that is needed, the data collection methods, and the analysis process. Translanguaging research methodologies may open up the space to think about how research (in applied linguistics) is carried out, reject abyssal thinking, and decolonize methodology. Currently, there is a very limited number of empirical studies and reflexive accounts that delve into the adoption of translanguaging as an approach in research methodologies. The reviewed research highlights that why and how translanguaging is employed varies according to the degree to which the researcher and participants share their linguistic repertoires, ranging from very limited overlap to almost full overlap. Reflecting on ethnographic work with adolescent newcomers in Ohio, Seilstad (2025) highlights how the researcher and one focal participant engage in translanguaging when they do not share their linguistic repertoire; the author highlights the critical relevance of multimodal tools (e.g., Google Translate, Facebook, Wattpad) in enabling and enriching the interactions. Conducting research with transnational Chinese teachers with whom she partially shares the linguistic repertoire, Gordon (2022) highlights the importance of planning ways to create opportunities for translanguaging, such as showing the interview guide to the participants in advance. Additionally, the author shows how engaging in translanguaging practices may not lead to participants feeling comfortable as soon as that becomes an option—rather, this may entail a process that requires time. In contrast, Havlin (2022) focuses on conducting research with participants with whom she shares her linguistic repertoire. The author underscores the limitations of labelling participants with a Russian migration background in Germany as (only) Russian speakers and the prompt need to engage in translanguaging practices with Russian, German, Ukrainian, and/or English in interviews that were initially planned to take place only in Russian. In a similar vein, discussing the use of translanguaging as a methodology to study language cafes, Polo-Pérez and Holmes (2023) showcase that researchers need to be aware of the translanguaging dynamics already occurring in the field and to intentionally draw on similar linguistic practices to co-construct meaning about content together with the participants.

These studies show that translanguaging holds ample potential when employed as an approach in research. Polo-Pérez and Holmes (2023) contend that adopting translanguaging as a methodology challenges the monolingual ideologies prevalent in research. It does so mainly by providing opportunities for researchers

and participants to engage in the research process through the multiplicity of their linguistic repertoires and experiences (Gordon, 2022; Havlin, 2022). This may allow positioning shifts that lead to changing the power asymmetries between the researcher and participants and a positioning of the participants as collaborators whose knowledge, lived experiences, and multilingual subjectivities are recognized as valuable (Gordon, 2022; Polo-Pérez & Holmes, 2023; Seilstad, 2025). In sum, by intentionally drawing on translanguaging, researchers have both the opportunity and responsibility of creating more equitable conditions for the participation of all people in research (Seilstad, 2025).

### *1.3. Research Needs and the Present Study*

Methodological reflections on the equitable participation of marginalized groups in research are not new. There is a significant body of literature that highlights the need for researchers to adopt a reflexive stance on their positionality, the emerging power relations in the field, and the influence of these aspects on research processes (Meyer Pitton & Semiramis Schedel, 2022). However, the issue of how language choice influences research, and participatory research in particular, has been much less frequently addressed (Gibb et al., 2019; Meyer Pitton & Semiramis Schedel, 2022), and there is still a paucity of methodological guidance for researchers attempting to engage linguistically diverse communities that have been historically underrepresented in research (Gordon, 2022; Holmes et al., 2013; Warriner & Bigelow, 2019b). Additionally, despite calls for and advances towards the implementation of translanguaging as a methodology (Lee, 2022; Li, 2022), this field remains underdeveloped (for exceptions see Gordon, 2022; Havlin, 2022; Polo-Pérez & Holmes, 2023; Seilstad, 2025). This means that the research methods, i.e., the actual strategies, tools, and techniques involved in data collection and processing (Li, 2022, p. 1), as well as the implications and limitations of employing translanguaging as a methodological approach, still need to be better mapped out. This is particularly the case for research processes involving little overlap between the linguistic repertoires of the researcher and the participants, as well as work with linguistically heterogeneous groups, where there is little overlap between the linguistic repertoires of the participants.

The present study contributes to the emergent literature on using translanguaging when doing research multilingually, by explaining the specific strategies that were proposed in each codesign round as well as reflecting on potential and challenges. An important contribution represents the seven heuristics drawn from across three rounds characterized by highly different linguistic dynamics both among the researchers and the participants, as well as among the participants themselves. By sharing these heuristics, which can be adjusted and implemented in other settings, we seek to encourage other researchers to work towards an increasingly equitable participation of linguistically marginalized groups in research.

In the following sections, we introduce the research context (Section 2), reflect on translanguaging as a methodological approach in each codesign round (Section 3), present heuristics (Section 4), and discuss potential and challenges of implementing translanguaging within participatory research as well as limitations and future directions (Section 5).

## 2. Research Context

### *2.1. National Context, Language Policy in Dutch Schools, and Study Participants*

The Netherlands can be characterized as having a strong monolingual norm in education (Kuiken & van der Linden, 2013), in which the Dutch language is used for learning in primary schools (excluding the province of Friesland, where Frisian and Dutch are used for schooling). Currently, 28% of people in the Netherlands have a migration background, speaking sometimes or always a language other than Dutch at home (CBS, 2024). However, the learning or use of home languages is typically not supported in Dutch primary schools.

Caregiver participation in children's education can look different depending on the school and caregivers. Caregivers are expected to attend a start-of-year conversation and an end-of-year conversation with their child's teacher. Caregivers are often given participation tasks, such as preparing food for school celebrations, checking for lice, and decorating the school hallways for holidays. However, engagement in more academic-related tasks may differ for caregivers who speak a language other than Dutch.

Ten caregivers participated in this study (see Table 1), which took place between September 2022 and December 2023. It is a part of a larger project (www.multistem.net) funded by the Dutch Research Council. The participants were recruited from three urban primary schools. The director of each of the three schools reported between 90–100% of students being multilingual. Each of the three schools reported having an active caregiver participation program. The programs were social in nature, encouraging caregivers to

**Table 1.** Overview of participating caregivers.

| No. | Pseudonym | Country (original) | Language(s) spoken | Length of time in NL (years) | Completed education | Design round |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Alma | Sweden | Swedish, English, Spanish, little Dutch | 3 | High school | 1 |
| 2 | Kiana | Dominican Republic | Spanish | Unknown | Unknown | 2 |
| 3 | Maria | Ecuador | Spanish, Italian, little Dutch | 5 | University | 2 |
| 4 | Zaid | Yemen | Arabic | >2 | Unknown | 3 |
| 5 | Fatima | Yemen | Arabic | Unknown | Unknown | 3 |
| 6 | Layla | Syria | Arabic, English, little Dutch | >2 | University | 3 |
| 7 | Amina | Syria | Kurdish, Arabic, some Dutch | Unknown | Unknown | 3 |
| 8 | Zeynap | Turkey | Dutch, Turkish | <30 | Training after HS | 3 |
| 9 | Elif | Turkey | Turkish, little Dutch | >1 | University | 3 |
| 10 | Mehmet | Turkey | Turkish, some Dutch | Unknown | University | 3 |

socialize. However, the schools also organized more specific workshops based on caregiver interest. While participants were recruited via caregiver participation programs and codesign sessions occurred at school, codesign was otherwise independent from school. All multilingual caregivers with at least one child in primary school were eligible to participate.

### *2.2. Codesign Rounds*

This study follows three codesign rounds with multilingual caregivers with a migration background. During each codesign round, caregivers and the researcher engaged in joint inquiry. While there are various forms of participatory research, joint inquiry emphasizes the participant as an "inquirer and knower" and the importance of altering roles within research practice (Manz et al., 2022, p. 455). In the first round, more emphasis was placed on developing activities with the caregiver, who tested various ideas with her child. The two subsequent rounds focused on testing, adjusting, and re-adjusting the mathematics activities with caregivers, who also tested activities at home with their children. We considered that translanguaging strategies may enable more equitable participation of the caregivers in the process of codesign. Over the course of three rounds, we enacted the strategies with caregivers, sometimes re-adjusting and re-enacting the strategies depending on the specific round. For example, we presented caregivers with a PowerPoint in multiple languages, observed how they interacted during the meeting using the PowerPoint, and adjusted it accordingly. Our cyclic approach allowed us to gain insight into how caregivers interacted with certain translanguaging strategies in a participatory research round.

### *2.3. Critical Moments and Reflection*

Kali (2016) highlights that while design research often focuses on outcomes, less attention is given to the critical moments that define the learning process of the researcher. Critical moments are defined here as observed instances in which a participant's action or insight catalyzed transformative learning for the researcher. Drawing on field notes, artefacts, and pictures, we identified critical moments in which the researcher gained insight into how translanguaging could enable and enrich the process of codesign across the three rounds of codesign. In this article, we bring forth relevant examples of such critical moments from fieldwork, focusing on the potential of translanguaging to promote meaningful participation for multilingual caregivers with a migration background and the challenges encountered when adopting this approach. The heuristics we formulate are based on the critical moments that characterize the learning process of the first author (Kali, 2016).

This reflection draws on 22 meetings over the course of three design rounds. The first author made field notes during each meeting and reflected after each meeting. Seventeen meetings were recorded. Five meetings were not recorded as one or more caregivers did not give consent. Each meeting took place at a school for the convenience of the participants involved. Each codesign round began with the first author giving a short presentation for interested caregivers to introduce the research and to shed light on common assumptions surrounding multilingualism. The researcher presented multilingualism with an asset-based lens. The presentation was given orally in Dutch, and written information about the project was provided in Arabic, English, Spanish, and Turkish. At the end of the presentation, caregivers were invited to participate in the codesign of multilingual mathematics activities, which would begin in the week following the initial presentation.

The first author used a semi-structured conversation guide to promote discussion. However, as meetings progressed, participants often came with input or questions that directed the meetings. Some participants were eager to tell about interactions with their child(ren) and how they had approached the activity. During the meetings, they did mathematics activities, evaluated and discussed activities, and brainstormed new ideas for activities with the first author. In many cases, participants tried out activities at home with their child(ren) and reported on their experiences during the meetings. They often discussed dilemmas or questions related to the activities during the meetings. In addition, participants often spoke more broadly about their experiences, thoughts, questions, and challenges related to child-rearing.

### *2.4. Positionality Statement*

The first author is a white young woman who moved from the USA to the Netherlands seven years before the study took place. Her background is in Sociology and teaching primary school Mathematics. Her position as a PhD candidate, ethnicity, and bilingualism in English and Dutch may have played a role in the creation of a certain asymmetry between her and the participants. However, her migration background and position as an (albeit advanced) learner of Dutch may have offset to a certain degree that asymmetry. The second author is a multilingual sociolinguist with an Eastern European migration background. All four authors are scholars whose work focuses on linguistic diversity and inclusion in education. Our vision of social and linguistic justice in education has influenced the way we carry out and report research. In this case, it meant considering the representation of multilingual people's voices in research, starting from exploring and designing more inclusive data collection methods to reflecting on the challenges and opportunities they led to.

## 3. Reflections

This reflection, organized by codesign round, outlines examples of how translanguaging strategies were employed during codesign with caregivers of multilingual children. Each section provides a different view of the implementation of translanguaging strategies, as the composition of languages and caregivers in the three codesign rounds varied. In each of the three sections, a description of the round is given, including the number of caregivers, which languages were used, and which translanguaging strategies were used. In each section, critical learnings of the researcher connected to the use of translanguaging are described.

The process of encouraging translanguaging strategies and re-adjusting strategies was iterative. Learnings from the first and second rounds were used to enrich translanguaging strategies within the third codesign round, likely contributing to the richness within the third round.

### *3.1. Translanguaging When Participant and Researcher Share a Language (Codesign Round 1)*

In the first codesign round, the researcher collaborated with one caregiver (Alma) whose first language was Swedish. The primary language used was English, as both the researcher and Alma were proficient in English. The researcher encouraged the use of multiple languages, offered multilingual resources (in English and in Dutch), and encouraged the use of a translation app.

The researcher began each meeting by giving verbal and written affirmation in multiple languages that all languages were both welcome and valuable. While Alma did not seem to object that Swedish and English were

valuable, there was a tension with Dutch. Despite the high status of English as a lingua franca and the relatively high status of Swedish in Europe, the competing status of Dutch as the dominant language and legitimate language for learning in Dutch educational settings represented a challenge in implementing translanguaging in codesign. Alma tried to use Dutch in initial meetings, despite stating that she could articulate her thoughts and ideas much more clearly in Swedish or English. It was not until the researcher repeatedly asked during codesign meetings "how would you say that in Swedish?" that Alma started to use Swedish. The researcher also tried to learn certain Swedish words, often asking the participant to repeat certain words and attempting to reproduce them. This is a form of linguistic vulnerability in which the researcher attempted to shift the position of "knower" to the participant. Later, Alma mentioned how comforting it was to be able to use Swedish and English during the meetings. She noted this in contrast with the pressure she felt from school employees to speak Dutch, and also the pressure she put on herself to speak better Dutch.

As the first author and Alma were proficient in English, ideas and experiences were shared with relative ease. However, at times, neither Alma nor the researcher were able to produce subject-specific words in English. In other moments, Alma wanted to know a word in Dutch. In these instances, the researcher suggested a translation app. Initially, Alma hardly used the translation app and tried to use other words in English. The researcher chose to make a conscious shift, using the translation app herself at times, either to translate a word or to look up a Swedish translation. Initially, it was a way of showing interest in the participant's language. In later meetings, the researcher noticed Alma using the translation apps more frequently without prompting.

The researcher ensured that all activity instructions for caregiver-child activities were provided in both English and Dutch. Alma found it important to try to understand the Dutch version, like she did when trying to help her children with homework. However, Alma also noted times when understanding the goal of the homework was challenging, as it was in Dutch. In contrast, she noted how accessible the material during codesign was to her, as instructions were in multiple languages. Alma remarked that this could also be very helpful for other caregivers. She noted:

> I think a lot of people that I'm with the Dutch lesson, not everyone would understand everything in Dutch. They would have to have it in Arabic or their own language as well…it would be good for them to have it in both languages…then it's easy for them.

In these moments, Alma was positioned as the knower regarding what would help her and other multilingual caregivers.

### *3.2. Translanguaging When Two Caregivers Share a Language With Each Other (Codesign Round 2)*

In the second codesign round, the researcher collaborated with two caregivers (Kiana and Maria). The primary language used by the two participants was Spanish. They shared a language with one another, but not with the researcher. Kiana and Maria indicated that they wanted to learn Dutch and could understand some things, but that they were not able to have a conversation in Dutch. Consequently, much of the codesign work included a non-professional interpreter. Using an interpreter was a recommendation of the teacher at the school, who noted that Spanish-speaking caregivers seemed to feel much more comfortable using Spanish. Interpreting was done by the second author or by a Spanish-speaking teacher at the school. They were chosen due to

their advanced skills in Spanish and English, background in translation studies (author 2), familiarity with the project (author 2), and the participants (teacher). The team aimed for an informal consecutive interpreting mode. Similar to language and cultural brokering, this mode allowed a focus on the interpreter building rapport with the participants, making them feel comfortable, and explaining the instructions in detail. This also meant that the interpreter shared at times the role of a meeting facilitator with the researcher.

The researcher encouraged the use of multiple languages in written form and through the interpreter, and offered multilingual resources in Spanish and Dutch. While Kiana and Maria indicated that they wanted to learn Dutch, they chose to speak Spanish during codesign. When the researcher expressed value for all languages in codesign, Kiana and Maria reacted in a (seemingly) relieved way and indicated that they appreciated the chance to participate in Spanish. While the Spanish language does not traditionally hold equal status to Dutch in educational settings, it became the main legitimate language in the codesign meetings, being temporarily shifted in the position often occupied by the dominant language in society.

All activities during codesign meetings and for caregivers and children included multilingual instructions, which were translated by a colleague or using an online translation service. In addition, the researcher provided Spanish-Dutch vocabulary worksheets for caregivers during codesign, as caregivers indicated that they wanted to support their children by learning more "school-related" Dutch terms. Maria reflected on doing the math activities with multilingual instructions (see Figure 1) with her children. Assignments from school were at times frustrating for both her and her children, as she wanted to help them but felt unable to do so because of her level of Dutch. In contrast, she reported the freedom that she felt to mix languages during codesign, often using Dutch names for shapes but speaking in Spanish. Multilingual instructions and vocabulary worksheets seemed to shift linguistic hierarchies, modifying the linguistic policy to include Spanish as a valued language for communication and learning in codesign.

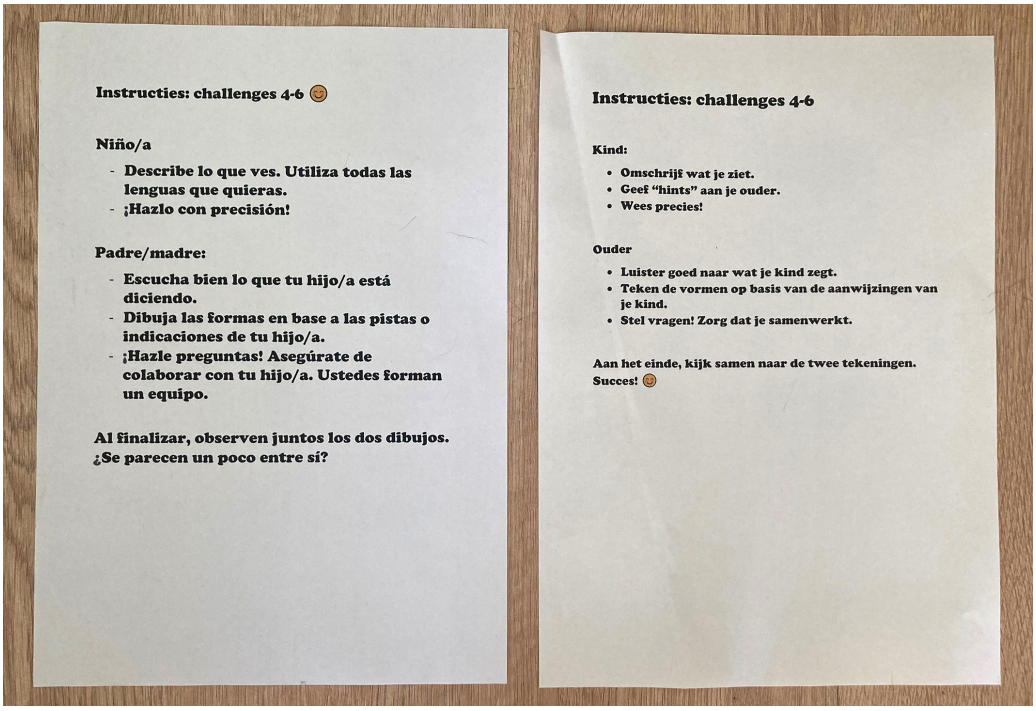


**Figure 1.** Multilingual activity instructions.

While Kiana and Maria occasionally used some Dutch words, communication with the interpreter was in Spanish. This allowed the participants to share ideas, speaking quickly and enthusiastically. They seemed to be engaged and interested in contributing during codesign. The first author reflected in fieldnotes:

> I notice [that when I communicate with the mothers with the help of the interpreter], they are able to say a lot, they are very expressive. When we try to speak in Dutch together, they seem timid and insecure, it doesn't go smoothly. Both parties try (I try to use relatively simple language and go slow, remembering how it was for me when learning Dutch—I also try to enunciate, using my mouth to really make the words) but it is challenging. With [the interpreter], they are expressive, especially Maria seems confident.

The first author later also reflected:

> When debriefing at the end, Kiana seemed very engaged, had a lot to say. Speaks assertively in Spanish, which is interesting. When I was introduced to her in the beginning she seemed so timid. [The] interpreter seems to give them more of an ability to communicate strongly, as if they are participating from strength or in the best way they can.

The first author continued the reflection, writing: "The caregivers say a lot with [the interpreter]. With me, few words [are directly] exchanged [in Dutch]." The first author noted many times in her notes how the interpreter enabled participants to participate extensively and fluidly. It was clear that the participants were able to share ideas, knowledge, and experiences relevant to the design of the activity. The interpreter helped to shift the position of the participants to the position of the "knower." In addition, Spanish gained status as the language for sharing knowledge in codesign, a position traditionally occupied by Dutch.

Using an interpreter presented some challenges as well. Facilitating the discussion became more difficult, as the first author could not react immediately to participant remarks and ideas. She reflected:

> The feedback I give in these moments is minimal. Normally, I want to be able to compliment a participant immediately for their ideas, here that is more challenging because I am getting the information with a delay.

The first author also noticed distance when using the interpreter—both with participants and with the information. To allow more time for the interpreter, the process took considerably longer. The first author also felt at times that she was missing the richness of the information being shared. She reflected:

> I definitely miss a lot of the details in the translation, seems like I am getting the larger picture but miss smaller details. This happens because the participant has a lot to say, and I don't want the interpreter to have to go line by line, but it means the interpreter can't translate everything back to me.

These two challenges can be linked, at least to some extent, to the non-professional status of the interpreters and to the chosen interpreting mode, which was more similar to language and cultural brokering than to professional interpreting. At the same time, we note that the enrichment that drawing on interpreting in this manner brought to the research process surpassed by far the challenges that emerged. Interpreting during

codesign went beyond translation and communication: It enabled the caregivers to participate from a position of strength as knowledge holders.

### *3.3. Translanguaging With Caregivers in Arabic, Turkish, Dutch, and English (Codesign Round 3)*

In the third round, the researcher collaborated with seven caregivers (Zaid, Fatima, Layla, Amina, Zeynap, Elif, and Mehmet). Six of the seven participants in this codesign round were newcomers, understood here as caregivers who had resided in the Netherlands for two years or less, regardless of their legal migration status. Arabic, Turkish, English, and Dutch were used during meetings. Some participants shared a language amongst each other, and some participants shared a language with the researcher. Of the caregivers who signed up to participate, three were proficient and comfortable in Turkish, and four participants were proficient and comfortable in Arabic. In most Dutch mainstream educational settings, Arabic and Turkish do not hold status as legitimate languages for learning. The researcher encouraged the use of all languages, multilingual resources, a translation app, brokering, and language-specific pairings for brainstorming. All activity materials and instructions were prepared in Arabic, Turkish, and Dutch. In addition, the researcher provided the following: an NL–EN–home language organizer (see Figure 2) where participants could fill in corresponding terms in their home language; NL–AR and NL–TUR mathematical reference sheets; multilingual PowerPoints containing discussion questions in Arabic, Turkish, and Dutch; and brainstorm worksheets in Arabic, Turkish, and Dutch.

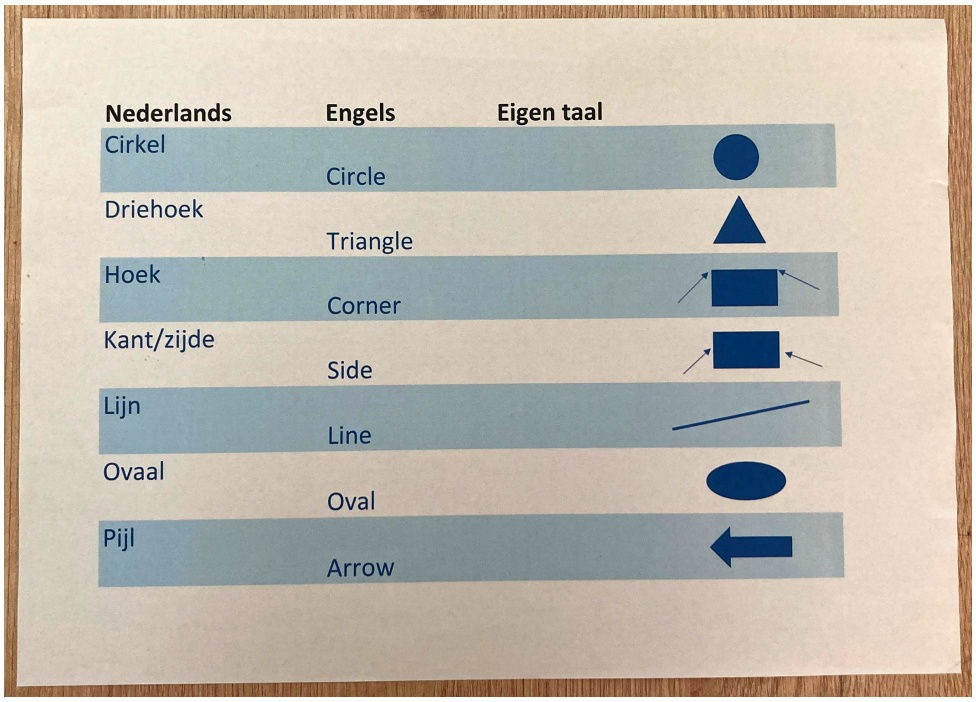


**Figure 2.** Dutch–English–home language organizer.

Initially, we were interested in how same-language pairings or groups could support participants to translanguage. However, in the first meeting, Dutch was used almost exclusively, acknowledging the participants' preference that using Dutch could help their Dutch, and would also allow everyone to participate in discussions. The first author reflected:

> We were able to do an activity together, but it was tiresome. The group seemed to find it a bit boring. The discussion didn't really take off—not because there wasn't interest, but because it was not possible to say much.

Similar to codesign round one, initially, Dutch held a high status in codesign as the language for learning. Zeynap entered the second part of the meeting with the idea to first meet in smaller same-language groups. Fatima joked that she was much smarter in Arabic. Layla said that she knew many more words in Arabic, especially more formal, mathematical words. Mehmet mentioned that he could participate much better in activities using Turkish—that it would be easier for him to express his ideas. After splitting into two groups, one group used mostly Turkish and some Dutch, the other group used mostly Arabic and some English. There seemed to be an immediate difference in the room. Caregivers were sitting up straight and seemed to be more involved. The first author reflected: "It seemed to go smoothly, they were talking a lot. It also took much less time." Amina later stated that she knew what she wanted to say immediately. Layla reflected that she could understand others much better in Arabic. The first author noted that Elif was initially timid and silent, but seemed to be smiling more during the second half of the meeting. When reflecting on the use of multiple languages during codesign and how this was encouraged, Zeynap commented that she noticed that when people can use their home language, they say more. She mentioned feeling frustrated seeing so many caregivers sit silently during meetings at school because they could not speak enough Dutch to participate. However, she noticed a stark difference in codesign, where others could participate using their home languages. "That should be the point," she claimed. She noted that this was not only better for them, but also for her, because she learned from their ideas when multiple languages were encouraged.

Initially, participants were hesitant to use multilingual resources in the codesign meetings. However, this subsided over time. As participants tried using different resources, they became more enthusiastic. The first author noted their enthusiasm, especially when given the NL–EN–home language fill-in worksheet, where they could fill in their home language corresponding to the Dutch mathematical terms. Participants also reacted positively to the mathematical dictionaries, which enabled them to learn new Dutch words. They indicated that more materials, such as the dictionary and fill-in worksheet, would be helpful for them.

The heterogeneity of languages brought about challenges with whole-group discussion. After noticing the different languages and language levels, the first author chose to create multilingual PowerPoints with discussion prompts. The first author noted that participants were very focused in the first meeting, in which a multilingual PowerPoint was used, starting to brainstorm and write their thoughts immediately upon seeing the discussion questions. The first author reflected on this, writing:

> Because the PowerPoint was in their own language, they could begin with writing down their thoughts without help. I also think that the discussion went more easily, because they had already written down their own thoughts. They were brainstorming in their home languages, and then the discussion went from there.

Layla reflected positively on the multilingual PowerPoint (see Figure 3) and associated handouts, claiming that her experience with these resources during codesign helped her to take time to process her thoughts. She indicated that this was different than during normal meetings at school, where she is often given information but is not always able to respond or process it. In this way, the multilingual PowerPoint supported more equitable participation for Layla.

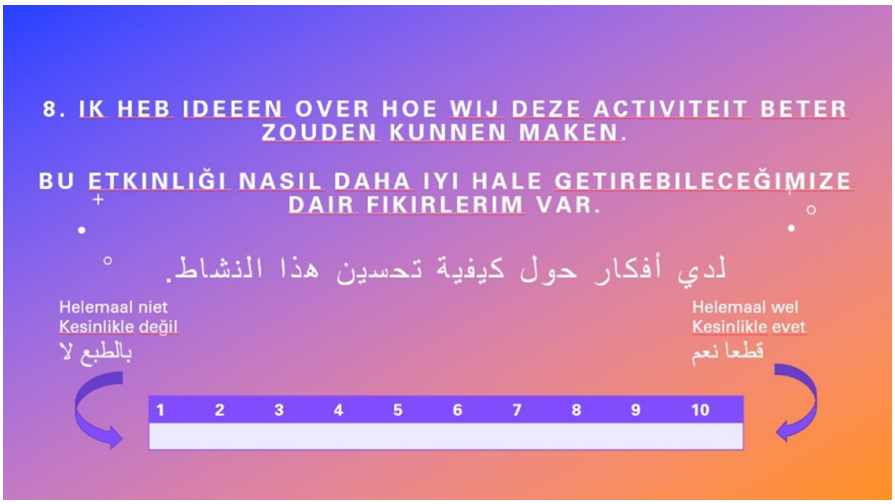


**Figure 3.** Slide of a multilingual PowerPoint presentation.

Translation apps were encouraged, but not immediately used, except for Amina, who seemed comfortable using the translation app from the beginning. In group discussion during the initial meeting, Amina used the app and passed it around, letting everyone read the translation. In subsequent meetings, Amina and the researcher often turned to translation apps. Elif began using an app during group discussion and proceeded to use it often. The first author reflected on this discussion, writing:

> Without the translation app and Zeynap [broker], it wouldn't have been a pleasant experience for Elif. I notice that Elif has a lot to say, but doesn't have the words in Dutch yet…but it is really valuable that through using the translation app and Zeynap [broker], she is able to express what she wants to.

Elif was initially the most timid. However, as the meetings progressed, she became perhaps the most vocal participant with the help of translation apps and brokering. It was clear that she knew a lot and wanted to contribute. Especially for keywords or subject-specific terms, she used the app to understand what was being discussed. The translation app proved to be a valuable tool for her to participate and become more actively involved. However, the translation app also brought challenges. It took time for it to be "legitimized" by the researcher and other participants, who were initially hesitant. Participants seemed to feel that using a translation app was a sign that they were not competent enough in Dutch to participate in the discussion. In addition, the translation app brought about insecurity at times. Participants sometimes determined that a translation given was not fully correct. In these moments, participants withdrew from conversations, concerned that they were not fully understanding. In other moments, the depth of discussion was stifled, as there was doubt whether everyone had the (correct) information necessary to proceed.

Initially, participants seemed reluctant to engage in brokering. Brokering entails that a person who speaks two or more languages acts as a mediator between two or more other people, using one language with one group and another language with the other group, in hopes that the two will better understand each other's ideas. The first author reflected on this: "During an activity, regardless of language(s), everyone is trying to understand each other to get further in the activity. So, it's in everyone's interest that everyone can understand." While the researcher encouraged the use of other translanguaging strategies throughout codesign, brokering (once legitimized and encouraged in the initial meeting) seemed to happen more

organically during activities. Brokering in codesign seemed to have different functions. It helped participants to learn from each other. Zeynap commented (in Dutch) that Elif had a lot of great ideas that she shared in "very beautiful, academic Turkish." Zeynap appreciated this, as it helped her to learn new words in Turkish that she had not been exposed to. In other moments, brokering helped Elif assume the role of knowledge holder and Zeynap to better understand. In one moment, Zeynap struggled to understand a concept, while Elif had ideas to share. Through brokering, Elif was able to share her ideas in Turkish, which Zeynap shared with the researcher as a broker. After this, she indicated that the process of listening to Elif's ideas in Turkish and sharing them with the researcher in Dutch helped her to better understand the concept herself.

In this section, we reflected on the implementation of translanguaging strategies during three codesign rounds. In the following section, we formulate seven heuristics on translanguaging within participatory research. These heuristics are connected to critical moments (Kali, 2016), which stimulated learning for the researcher during the three codesign rounds.

## 4. Heuristics Related to Translanguaging With Multilingual Participants in Participatory Research

In this section, we draw on our reflection, offering six broader heuristics related to specific translanguaging strategies. The seventh heuristic highlights the time necessary for legitimizing multiple languages in participatory research.

1. Researchers encouraging and modeling the use of multiple languages can help participants to feel comfortable using their linguistic repertoires: If researchers themselves use multiple languages in written and spoken form during participatory research, participants may be stimulated to use their entire linguistic repertoires. There may be varying levels of comfort with the language of instruction, and using multiple languages or mixing languages in an educational setting may not be something that participants are accustomed to. In school settings, they may be limited to the language of instruction, or using other languages can be viewed as a secondary form of participation that is only desirable when one cannot participate using the language of instruction. Multilingual participants may have past experiences in which using their entire linguistic repertoire was prohibited. However, using multiple languages can help to process and share ideas and experiences more fluidly, concretely, and deeply. Participants may look to researchers initially to establish norms. Researchers should consistently encourage the use of multiple languages and continually employ their linguistic repertoires openly, utilizing translanguaging strategies to break down preconceived barriers and hierarchies that may be present in other educational settings. It is important to note that in our work, all meetings took place at school. However, we recognize that we may have had to do extra work to model norms and strategies as a form of legitimatization due to the existing monolinguistic norms within that educational setting.

2. Using multilingual resources can support content comprehension and processing, and ensure that participants' (linguistic) wishes are considered: Multilingual PowerPoints, texts, and videos can stimulate caregivers' understanding of content and stimulate participants to share their ideas and understand the ideas of others during meetings. It is important that a participant feels confident in their comprehension of a subject. If material about a subject is presented solely in the language of instruction, participants may feel less confident. Employing PowerPoints in which multiple languages

are used to explain content, catalyze reflection, or stimulate interaction between participants can ease the participatory research process, ensuring that participants can participate with ease and in a more meaningful way. Similarly, offering translated texts, videos, or materials in other languages can also ease participation. In addition, providing multilingual resources can also legitimize multiple languages for learning together in participatory settings. Languages may have different functions for participants: They may value one language for content discussions with their children and another language for relational conversation. Understanding content, articulating ideas, or building on the ideas of others may go more smoothly for participants in their home language. However, participants may also participate in research to gain exposure to the language of instruction. Using multilingual resources in which home languages and the language of instruction are included can help to accommodate participants and support their linguistic goals.

3. Using translation apps can ease processing and stimulate interaction when participants and/or researchers do not share any common language: Using translation apps can stimulate participants to share their ideas and understand the ideas of others during participatory research. In some cases, a caregiver may need to translate a word to follow the conversation. In other situations, more effort and time may be required to ensure that everyone can follow the conversation, process materials, and/or participate. A benefit of translation apps is that the participant can use an app without relying on another person as a translator, taking their participation more into their own hands. However, relying solely on these apps may not be sufficient.

4. Brokering in heterogeneous language groups when some but not all participants share a language can ease and enrich participation: In many cases, brokering can help participants to share their ideas or participate with help from another participant who shares their linguistic repertoire. This can enrich discussion, as more perspectives are considered. In addition, brokering can ensure that the broker better understands a topic as they move between their two languages.

5. Using an interpreter during participatory research can help participants to participate more fully in the research process: Central to participatory approaches is the idea that participants can assume an active role as knowledge holder. When the researcher and participants do not share any languages, an interpreter can help participants and the researcher to participate in the research process more fully together. An interpreter can help both participants and the researcher to express ideas and interact with the ideas of others. Using an interpreter may require extra consideration. It may take more time and money, and can create distance between the researcher and participants. Researchers should anticipate this and think actively about how the interpreter can play a facilitating role.

6. Same-language group pairings can help participants to engage more completely in activities related to the research process: Participants may feel most comfortable and competent brainstorming with 1–3 other speakers who share a home language. This can enrich the process of participatory research, as participants can share and co-create knowledge together, and support each other in contributing to whole group discussions. Alternating between same-language group pairings and whole-group discussion with heterogeneous language groups can ensure that participants more often assume the position of knowledge holder.

7. Build in time to legitimize translanguaging practices: In many cases, it may take time to establish norms and legitimize home languages in a space where they were not previously valued. Researchers should take into account that translanguaging practices may be an ongoing process.

## 5. Discussion and Conclusion

The present article expands the fields of doing research multilingually and translanguaging studies by offering detailed insights stemming from empirical work regarding the implementation of translanguaging as a methodological approach, a currently under-researched topic. We complement the work carried out previously (Gordon, 2022; Havlin, 2022; Polo-Pérez & Holmes, 2023; Seilstad, 2025) by reflecting on a variety of language constellations both between the researcher and the participants and between the participants themselves. This wider range of interactions and relationships allows us to put forward a set of seven heuristics regarding the implementation of translanguaging in participatory research. These pieces of advice, grounded in practice, can be useful for researchers looking for practical ways in which to promote a more equal participation in linguistically diverse research settings, a methodological resource that was previously underdeveloped (Gordon, 2022; Holmes et al., 2013; Warriner & Bigelow, 2019b). The reflections and heuristics developed may also have a practical relevance for professionals working together with linguistically minoritized groups in a wide variety of sectors, such as education or healthcare.

Our reflections strengthen the idea that translanguaging holds potential as a methodological approach when doing research with multilingual people belonging to marginalized groups (Gordon, 2022; Havlin, 2022; Polo-Pérez & Holmes, 2023; Seilstad, 2025). Similar to previous research on doing research multilingually, this highlights that creating the conditions for research participants to employ their entire linguistic repertoires may not only bridge language differences between the researcher and the participants in a functional way, but also question and partially dismantle prevalent language hierarchies and asymmetrical power relations among the researcher and the participants (Costley & Reilly, 2021; Goodman & Seilstad, 2025; Holmes et al., 2013, 2022; Warriner & Bigelow, 2019a). Promoting translanguaging in codesign allowed for the caregivers to be positioned as knowledge holders and experts in their home languages. As such, translanguaging can involve shifts in the participants' positionality in relation to the researcher, allowing for more space for recognizing participants as collaborators whose multilingual subjectivities, experiences, and knowledge are legitimized (Gordon, 2022; Polo-Pérez & Holmes, 2023; Seilstad, 2025). In addition, it broadens the scope of which voices can be heard in participatory research.

Furthermore, a less anticipated insight is that many participants reflected on the potential of translanguaging in this study in relation to the monolingual language policies prevalent in their children's schooling. This connection is likely due to both the physical location of our study in school settings and to the content of the codesign meetings focused on activities that caregivers could use with their children. In many instances, participants implied that the possibility of employing their entire linguistic repertoire when communicating with the school or when supporting their children with homework would also help shift power asymmetries between caregivers and educators, positioning the former in a more advantageous position from which they could better express their knowledge, values, and experiences. This highlights the need for questioning the deficit discourses around parental involvement in relation to caregivers with linguistically diverse migration backgrounds (e.g., Bromley & Yazdanpanah, 2021). Essential to redefining school and language policy is the acknowledgement that the caregivers in our study want to learn the language of instruction, and embracing

multilingual approaches such as translanguaging may both enhance this process and offer a better chance of everybody participating more equitably.

While we have shown that translanguaging involves potential for questioning and partially dismantling linguistic asymmetries between the researcher and participants, our reflection also highlighted several challenges in implementing translanguaging. First, the pressure to learn the societal language (Dutch) was pervasive (Havlin, 2022). Caregivers expressed the wish to practice Dutch and display their competence in it. They feared that the use of translanguaging strategies would lead them to be perceived as having failed to learn Dutch. While linguistic norms were renegotiated and translanguaging practices legitimized over time, caregivers requested the use of Dutch alongside the rest of their linguistic repertoire with the aim of further enhancing their own linguistic competence and their ability to support their children. A second challenge arose from using an interpreter. The interpreter helped participants to move into the position of "knowledge holders," but the researcher did not have immediate access to the knowledge and experiences being shared. Instead, the interpreter took a facilitating role. While this is not inherently problematic, the distance between caregivers and the researcher required a renegotiation of roles within codesign. As this challenge may be linked to the non-professional status of the interpreters and the interpreting mode chosen, differences in these dimensions may have led to different dynamics. Importantly, the challenge linked to interpreting was experienced by the first author/researcher as minor in comparison to the enrichment it brought to the overall research process. A third challenge that arose when using the interpreter, brokering, and when using translation apps was insecurity on the part of participants. In some cases, a translation proved to be inaccurate or not fully correct. The insecurity that arose in these moments likely impacted the participants' position as knowers, re-illuminating an asymmetry between those who were relying on translations and those who were not. These points highlight that implementing a translanguaging approach can sometimes be a challenging endeavor. It requires researchers to leave room for the renegotiation of linguistic norms, pay careful attention to the participants' wishes and experiences, and reaffirm the potential awarded when all participants can (linguistically) engage in an equitable way.

A limitation of our work is that we did not employ research instruments (such as interviews), which could give more in-depth insights into the participants' experiences and perspectives regarding the potential and challenges of translanguaging in research. This is because our reflections are based on work carried out within a larger research project where translanguaging was employed as a methodological approach for achieving certain goals, but was not the direct object of study. In addition, we acknowledge that an intersectional lens would have enriched our reflections. However, as the focus of the original study did not involve collecting information regarding aspects such as social class or religion, the adoption of such a lens was not feasible. Future studies could carry out empirical research on how translanguaging can be implemented in participatory research settings, triangulating different sources of data and directly taking into consideration participants' voices regarding the implementation of translanguaging as a methodological approach. Further work could also consider the intersection between language and other social dimensions, such as social class, ethnicity, or religion. An additional future direction could be exploring the operationalization of the seven heuristics in contexts with varying degrees of institutional support and digital environments.

In conclusion, we emphasize the importance of paying attention to language choice in research. It is a key but often overlooked factor which influences who can participate in such processes and how. We suggest that adopting translanguaging as a methodological approach may partially mitigate certain inequalities and exclusions and lead towards more equitable participation when doing research with multilingual people.

## Funding

This research was funded by a grant from the Dutch Research Council (NWA.1292.19.253) for the project Multilingual Voices in STEM Education (Multi-STEM). Publication of this article in open access was made possible through the institutional membership agreement between Utrecht University and Cogitatio Press.

## Conflict of Interests

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

## Data Availability

Requests for original data can be directed to the corresponding author.

## References

Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*. Multilingual Matters.

Bakker, A. (2018). *Design research in education: A practical guide for early career researchers*. Routledge.

Blackledge, A., & Creese, A. (2017). Translanguaging and the body. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *14*(3), 250–268. https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2017.1315809

Bromley, J., & Yazdanpanah, L. K. (2021). Teachers' views of parental involvement in the schooling of low literacy refugee and migrant children: An Australian study. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language*, *25*(2). http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1314733.pdf

CBS. (2024). *Hoeveel inwoners hebben een herkomst buiten Nederland*. https://www.cbs.nl/nl-nl/dossier/dossier-asiel-migratie-en-integratie/hoeveel-inwoners-hebben-een-herkomst-buiten-nederland

Coburn, C. E., & Penuel, W. R. (2016). Research practice partnerships in education: Outcomes, dynamics, and open questions. *Educational Researcher*, *45*(1), 48–54. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189x16631750

Cornish, F., Breton, N., Moreno-Tabarez, U., Delgado, J., Rua, M., de-Graft Aikins, A., & Hodgetts, D. (2023). Participatory action research. *Nature Reviews Methods Primers*, *3*(1), Article 34. https://doi.org/10.1038/s43586-023-00214-1

Costley, T., & Reilly, C. (2021). Methodological principles for researching multilingually: Reflections on linguistic ethnography. *TESOL Quarterly*, *55*(3), 1035–1047. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.3037

Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2015). Translanguaging and identity in educational settings. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *35*, 20–35. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000233

Du, J., & Zhou, X. (2022). Translanguaging practices of Chinese/English bilingual engineers' communications in the workplace. *Applied Linguistics Review*, *13*(3), 389–402. https://doi.org/doi:10.1515/applirev-2021-0021

Egilsson, B. R., Dockett, S., & Einarsdóttir, J. (2022). Methodological and ethical challenges in cross-language qualitative research: The role of interpreters. *European Early Childhood Education Research Journal*, *30*(4), 638–652. https://doi.org/10.1080/1350293X.2021.1992463

García, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Gibb, R., Tremlett, A., & Danero Iglesias, J. (2019). Introduction. In A. T. a. J. D. I. Robert Gibb (Eds.), *Learning and using languages in ethnographic research* (pp. 1–14). Multilingual Matters.

Goodman, B., & Seilstad, B. (2025). *Researching multilingually: Conceptual and methodological failures, struggles and successes*. Multilingual Matters.

Gordon, R. (2022). Translanguaging pedagogy as methodology: Leveraging the linguistic and cultural repertoires of researchers and participants to mutually construct meaning and build rapport. In H. Prue, R. Judith, & G. Sara (Eds.), *The Politics of Researching Multilingually* (pp. 267–286). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781800410152-017

Havlin, T. (2022). Multilingualism and translanguaging in migration studies: Some methodological reflections. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, *23*(1). https://doi.org/10.17169/fqs-23.1.3730

Holmes, P., Fay, R., Andrews, J., & Attia, M. (2013). Researching multilingually: New theoretical and methodological directions. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *23*(3), 285–299. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12038

Holmes, P., Reynolds, J., & Ganassin, S. (2022). *The politics of researching multilingually*. Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781800410152

Kali, Y. (2016). *Transformative learning in design research: The story behind the scenes* [Keynote presentation]. International Conference of the Learning Sciences, Singapore.

Kuiken, F., & van der Linden, E. (2013). Language policy and language education in the Netherlands and Romania. *Dutch Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *2*(2), 205–223. https://doi.org/10.1075/dujal.2.2.06kui

Kwon, J. (2022). Parent–child translanguaging among transnational immigrant families in museums. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *25*(2), 436–451. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1689918

Lee, J. W. (2022). Translanguaging research methodologies. *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*, *1*(1), Article 100004. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rmal.2022.100004

Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012a). Translanguaging: Developing its conceptualisation and contextualisation. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, *18*(7), 655–670. https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718490

Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012b). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, *18*(7), 641–654. https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718488

Li, W. (2022). Translanguaging as method. *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*, *1*(3), Article 100026. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rmal.2022.100026

Liddicoat, A., & Derivry–Plard, M. (2025). Research practice as a multilingual habitus. In B. Goodman & B. Seilstad (Eds.), *Researching multilingually* (pp. 13–30). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781788925709-003

Manz, E., Heredia, S. C., Allen, C. D., & Penuel, W. R. (2022). Learning in and through researcher–teacher collaboration. In J. A. Luft & M. G. Jones (Eds.), *Handbook of research on science teacher education* (pp. 452–464). Routledge.

Meyer Pitton, L., & Semiramis Schedel, L. (2022). The (hidden) politics of language choice in research on multilingualism: Moments of (dis)empowerment. In H. Prue, R. Judith, & G. Sara (Eds.), *The politics of researching multilingually* (pp. 307–326). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781800410152-019

Moll, L. C., Cathy, A., Deborah, N., & and Gonzalez, N. (1992). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. *Theory Into Practice*, *31*(2), 132–141. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405849209543534

Moraru, M., Bakker, A., Akkerman, S., Zenger, L., Smit, J., & Blom, E. (2025). Translanguaging within and across learning settings: A systematic review focused on multilingual children with a migration background engaged in content learning. *Review of Education*, *13*(2), Article 70069. https://doi.org/10.1002/rev3.70069

Muller, A. E., & Gubrium, E. (2016). Researcher linguistic vulnerability: A note on methodological implications. *Qualitative Health Research*, *26*(1), 141–144. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732315613312

Phipps, A. (2022). Foreword: Towards a reparatory politics of researching multilingually. In H. Prue, R. Judith, & G. Sara (Eds.), *The politics of researching multilingually* (pp. xv–xviii). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781800410152-003

Polo-Pérez, N., & Holmes, P. (2023). Translanguaging as methodology to study language cafés: Implications for managing multilingual data. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *44*(8), 737–750. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2023.2197882

Prada, J., & Woodward-Kron, R. (2024). Centering translanguaging for inclusive health communication. In P. Ortega, G. Martínez, M. Lor, & A. S. Ramírez (Eds.), *The handbook of language in public health and healthcare* (pp. 305–324). Wiley. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119853855.ch16

Ross, K. (2017). Making empowering choices: How methodology matters for empowering research participants. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, *18*(3). https://doi.org/10.17169/fqs-18.3.2791

Ryu, M. (2019). Mixing languages for science learning and participation: An examination of Korean–English bilingual learners in an after-school science-learning programme. *International Journal of Science Education*, *41*(10), 1303–1323. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500693.2019.1605229

Seilstad, B. (2025). Translanguaging and its methodological implications for multilingual research: A reflection from ethnographic work with adolescent newcomers in superdiverse central Ohio. In B. Goodman & B. Seilstad (Eds.), *Researching multilingually: Conceptual and methodological failures, struggles and successes* (pp. 285–306). Multilingual Matters.

Warriner, D., & Bigelow, M. (2019a). *Critical reflections on research methods: Power and equity in complex multilingual contexts*. Multilingual Matters.

Warriner, D., & Bigelow, M. (2019b). Introduction. In D. Warriner & M. Bigelow (Eds.), *Critical reflections on research methods: Power and equity in complex multilingual contexts* (pp. 1–12). Multilingual Matters.

Wenger-Trayner, E., & Wenger–Trayner, B. (2020). *Learning to make a difference*. Cambridge University Press. https://www.cambridge.org/core/product/672FC1F5D2886740E35848ED030F38F0

Williams, C. (1994). *Arfarniad o ddulliau dysgu ac addysgu yng nghyd-destun addysg uwchradd ddwyieithog*. Bangor University.

Young Knowles, S. (2019). Researcher–participant relationships in cross-language research: Becoming cultural and linguistic insiders. In D. Warriner & M. Bigelow (Eds.), *Critical reflections on research methods* (pp. 85–97). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781788922562-008

## About the Authors

Erin Gail MacDonald is a PhD candidate at Utrecht University. She has worked with math learners of all ages, from all over the world. Her research focuses on the codesign of multilingual mathematics activities with caregivers of multilingual children with a migration background.

Mirona Moraru is a postdoctoral researcher at Utrecht University. Her research examines the relationship between multilingualism and migration in education from an interdisciplinary perspective, with a focus on translanguaging in different learning settings. Additional research interests include methodological considerations on doing research multilingually, intercultural mediation in education, and language teacher training.

**Arthur Bakker** is professor of STEM education and curriculum and director of the Research Centre for Curriculum Studies at the University of Amsterdam. He wrote *Design Research in Education*, published (2018, Routledge). Within the project Multilingual Voices in STEM Education, he cosupervises four PhD candidates and a postdoctoral researcher.

**Elma Blom** holds a chair in language development and multilingualism at Utrecht University. Her research focuses on childhood multilingualism in the context of migration. Currently, she leads research projects on multilingual approaches in STEM education and language mixing in multilingual families, and is editor of the *Journal of Child Language*.