

**Perceptions of Translanguaging among English teachers in
township primary schools**

By

Shine Aung

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
Magister Educationis in Curriculum and Instructional Design and
Development

in the

Faculty of Education

University of Pretoria

Supervisor

Dr Gerhard Genis

April 2021

Declaration

I, Shine Aung (10191420), declare that this dissertation titled, *Perceptions of Translanguaging among English Teachers in Township Primary Schools*, which I submit for the degree of Magister Educationis in Curriculum and Instructional Design, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other tertiary institution.

Signature:



April 2021

Ethics Certificate



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA
Faculty of Education

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

CLEARANCE NUMBER: **EDU117/20**

DEGREE AND PROJECT

MEd

Perceptions of Translanguaging among English teachers in township primary schools

INVESTIGATOR

Miss Ma Shine

DEPARTMENT

Humanities

APPROVAL TO COMMENCE STUDY

20 September 2020

DATE OF CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

15 April 2021

CHAIRPERSON OF ETHICS COMMITTEE: Prof Funke Omidire

CC

Ms Thandi Mngomezulu

Dr Gerhard Genis

This Ethics Clearance Certificate should be read in conjunction with the Integrated Declaration Form (D08) which specifies details regarding:

- Compliance with approved research protocol,
- No significant changes,
- Informed consent/assent,
- Adverse experience or undue risk,
- Registered title, and
- Data storage requirements.

Department of Humanities Education Room: Aldoel Building,
1-113 Groenkloof Campus,

Leyds Street, Pretoria, South Africa University of Pretoria,
Private Bag X20 Hatfield 0028, South Africa

Tel +27 (0)12 420 5547

Email gerhard.genis@up.ac.za www.up.ac.za



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Education

Fakulteit Opvoedkunde
Lefapha la Thuto

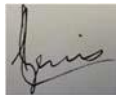
27 May 2021

Declaration – Language editing

To Whom It May Concern

This is to confirm that Dr Gerhard Genis (staff number: 91321124) edited the language in the dissertation, *Perceptions of Translanguaging among English teachers in township primary schools*. I am also the supervisor for this study.

Yours sincerely



Dr Gerhard Genis

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my parents, Dr San Aung, and Mrs Tun Nilar Oo. Who left behind a country (Burma) that was familiar them, to raise my brother and I in South Africa. Through this I experienced the blessing of growing up exposed to two cultures and two different worlds without realising it as well, I was translanguaging from a young age. Out of this grew my love for being multilingual, to be proud of my heritage, and at the same time, to be proudly South African.

Acknowledgements

My biggest prayer was for this work to bring glory and honour to **Christ**, to ‘work at it with all my heart, as working for the Lord’. Lord you have indeed been faithful and have provided throughout 2020, granting me the ability to balance work and studies. Soli Deo Gloria!

To **Dr Genis**, thank you for being such a good supervisor. From the consistent feedback, constructive critique, language editing, to your constant encouragement and belief in my ability. I am so grateful for your commitment as well, without you as my supervisor this work would not be what it is. I have learnt so much from your guidance. It has been such a blessing to be able to work with you.

To the **principals** and English **teachers** at Eersterust I cannot express how thankful I am for your willingness to participate in this study, especially during a global pandemic. To the teachers for being a dedicated, hardworking group of individuals who have the enormous task of being language teachers. And to the learners, my love and passion for working with children has grown because of you!

To my colleagues I work with at **Empowered Generation**, what a blessing it is when colleagues are able to become friends. To mam Heather, thank you for being such a good team leader, your dedication to the learners, your passion for what you do, and the hours of preparation over the years in putting lesson plans together. If it were not for your willingness to allow me to join the team these opportunities would have never arised. To Mr Fidel, thank you for your constant encouragement and belief in my ability. To mam Sagree, for your prayers and great sense of humour. And lastly, to Etinosa, not only a colleague and friend but also a fellow masters student who journeyed on this path with me. How thankful I am to God for bringing such a good friend into my life to walk through the challenges of writing a dissertation in 2020. May we all continue to make an impact together in the lives of the children and teachers we work with and bring glory to God through this work.

To my **friends**, I had the best support system throughout 2020 when starting this degree, I am thankful for every one of you. To Biffy, thank you for your willingness in taking the time to help in compiling and proofreading this dissertation. Thankful to friends such as Bronwen,

Busi, Chane, Hlami, and Luchantle for the prayers, phone calls, and for taking the time to find out how my master's degree was going for me. Thankful as well to other academics in my life for the small roles they each played throughout this process. And lastly, to Aunty Carol, for all the encouraging words of wisdom and for seeing how this work can truly be a ministry opportunity. Without friends like you, I would not have made it through this process.

“Only one life, ‘twill soon be past. Only what’s done for Christ, will last.

CT Studd”

List of tables and figures

Table 4.1 Summary of the research strategy and methodology.....	75
Table 4.2 Research questions and data collection methods.....	76
Table 5.1 Teacher demographics.....	104
Table 5.2 Learner demographics School B.....	104
Table 5.3 Learner demographics School A.....	105
Table 5.4 Summary of themes and sub-themes.....	105
Table 5.5 Translanguaging strategies implemented by teachers.....	109
Figure 2.1 Represents the different modes of translanguaging.....	34
Figure 3.1 Theoretical framework for the study.....	60
Figure 3.2 Represents the different modes of bilingualism.....	66
Figure 3.3 Represents how translanguaging can be used within the classroom to transform learning.....	70
Figure 4.1 Represents the data collection methods that were used for this study.....	84
Figure 4.2 Represents the data analysis process that was used for this study.....	95
Figure 4.3 Represents the ethical assurance procedures that were used for this study.....	100
Figure 5.1 Rubric for oral activity.....	115
Figure 5.2 Classroom poster, Mr Best's lesson.....	116
Figure 5.3 Observation, Mr Best's lesson.....	116
Figure 5.4 Reading comprehension, Mrs's Lilly's lesson.....	118
Figure 5.5 Observation, Mrs Lilly's lesson.....	118
Figure 5.6 Language structure and conventions booklet activity.....	121
Figure 5.7 Language structure and conventions booklet activity.....	121
Figure 5.8 DBE book story.....	123
Figure 5.9 Observation, Mrs Min's lesson.....	123
Figure 5.10 Observation, Mrs Crey's lesson.....	124

List of Appendices

Appendix A: Teacher consent letter (interviews).....	195
Appendix B: Teacher consent letter (focus group discussion)	198
Appendix C: Principal consent letter.....	201
Appendix D: Parent consent letter (observation).....	204
Appendix E: Learner assent letter (observation).....	207
Appendix F: Observation Plan.....	210
Appendix G: Interview questions.....	211
Appendix H: Department of Education consent letter.....	214
Appendix I: Interview transcription example.....	217

Abstract

The implication of South Africa's multicultural and linguistic diversity is that many learners have a home language that is not their language of instruction. Research has indicated that children learn best in their home language (UNESCO, 2020). In South Africa, however, language is seen as one of the biggest barriers to teaching and learning. In the historical context of South Africa's divided past, equal educational opportunities are still not afforded to every learner, with many learners learning in a language in which they are not yet proficient. In South Africa, there is also a preference for learning through the medium of English, due to its global status and common use by the workforce. This preference is not only shown by teachers and learners themselves but also by parents who prefer that their children learn through the medium of English. Due to globalisation, multilingualism in education has become a major point of discussion in relation to research in education. Translanguaging, which is how multilingual speakers use more than one language in their everyday communication with others, is questioning 'monolingual practices and ideologies worldwide' (Makalela, 2013).

This study was conducted in two township primary schools in Eersterust, which is a Coloured township situated west of Mamelodi in the Tshwane South District. The study aimed to answer the following research questions: *What are the perceptions of translanguaging amongst English teachers in township primary schools? And why do teachers perceive translanguaging in this way?* The research participants included seven English-language teachers from Grades 4, 5, 6 and 7. All these participants were selected purposively, and their participation was voluntary. Data were collected qualitatively through semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, classroom observations and documentation.

The conclusion from the study is that teachers viewed translanguaging as an effective strategy within their Home and First Additional English-language classrooms. Teachers from both schools instinctively implemented translanguaging on a daily basis. Translanguaging within both schools did not occur only as a pedagogical practice but also as a sociolinguistic phenomenon. What was evident from the findings were the many acts of unplanned and spontaneous translanguaging which took place within the classrooms. These findings were generated through accounts that teachers gave during interviews, during classroom observations of their lessons and, through analysis of lesson plans. The unplanned acts of translanguaging confirmed that teachers were willing to implement translanguaging, which in turn influenced their perceptions of translanguaging. What was also evident was that many of

the social circumstances, which teachers and learners within this community faced on a regular basis, influenced how translanguaging was implemented.

Key words: translanguaging, bi/multilingualism, English Home Language, English First Additional Language, home language

If you talk to a man in a language he understands, that goes to his head. If you talk to him in his language that goes to his heart.

– Nelson Mandela

Table of Contents

Declaration.....	ii
Ethics Certificate.....	iii
Declaration – Language editing	iv
Dedication	v
Acknowledgements	vi
List of tables and figures	viii
List of Appendices.....	ix
Abstract.....	x
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Background and context of the study.....	2
1.3 Location of the study	4
1.4 Rationale, Motivation and Position of Researcher.....	6
1.5 Problem statement.....	8
1.6 Purpose of the study.....	10
1.7 Research Questions.....	11
1.8 Definition of key concepts	11
Translanguaging.....	11
Code switching.....	11
Multilingualism.....	12
Bilingualism.....	12
English First Additional language (EFAL).....	12
Home Language (mother tongue)	12
1.9 Preliminary literature review	13
1.9.1 Origins of translanguaging.....	13
1.9.2 Translanguaging as a pedagogy and practice.....	14
1.9.3 Translanguaging in South Africa	15
1.10 Overview of the research design and methodology	17
1.10.1 Research Approach	17
1.10.2 Research Paradigm.....	18
1.10.3 Study Design.....	18
1.10.4 Data Generation and Collection Methods	19
1.10.5 Research Site and Sample	19
1.10.6 Data Analysis	20

1.11 Organisation of the dissertation	20
1.12 Conclusion	22
Chapter 2: Literature Review	23
2.1 Introduction.....	23
2.2 The Origins of Translanguaging	23
2.3 Translanguaging in South Africa	26
2.4 Advantages of bi/multilingualism in education and beyond.....	27
2.5 Translanguaging as pedagogy and sociolinguistic phenomenon	29
2.6 Different modes of translanguaging.....	34
2.7 Learners’ perceptions of translanguaging	35
2.8 Teachers’ perceptions of translanguaging.....	38
2.9 Benefits of Translanguaging	42
2.10 Multilingualism in Africa.....	44
2.11 Ubuntu education	46
2.12 Dominance of English.....	48
2.13 Language, pedagogy, and theory	50
2.14 Perceptions of translanguaging within the South African context.....	52
2.15 Challenges in implementing Translanguaging in South Africa	57
2.16 Conclusion	58
Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework	59
3.1 Introduction.....	59
3.2 Constructivist Learning Theory	60
3.2.1 Constructivism	60
3.2.2 Social Constructivist Theory.....	61
3.2.3 Scaffolding.....	62
3.3 Translanguaging Theory	63
3.3.1 Core premises of translanguaging theory.....	63
3.3.2 Core components of teachers’ translanguaging pedagogy.....	66
3.4 Ubuntu Translanguaging.....	70
3.4.1 Four pillars of Ubuntu translanguaging	71
3.4.2 Ubuntu translanguaging pedagogy.....	73
3.5 Conclusion	73
Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology.....	75
4.1 Introduction.....	75
4.2 Research Design.....	76
4.3 Research Approach	77

4.3.1 Strength of qualitative research.....	79
4.3.2 Weakness of qualitative research.....	79
4.4 Research Paradigm.....	79
4.4.1 Nominalism.....	80
4.4.2 Interpretivism.....	80
4.5 Research Methodology	82
4.5.1 Multiple case study	82
4.5.2 Data Generation and Collection Methods.....	84
4.6 Research Site, Participants and Sampling Method	92
4.6.1 Research site	92
4.6.2 Participants.....	93
4.6.3 Sampling method	94
4.7 Data Analysis	95
4.7.1 Describing.....	95
4.7.2 Transcribing	96
4.7.3 Coding and themes.....	96
4.7.4 Interpretation.....	97
4.7.5 Analysis of document data.....	97
4.8 Quality Assurance.....	98
4.8.1 Credibility	98
4.8.2 Transferability.....	98
4.8.3 Dependability	99
4.8.4 Conformability.....	99
4.9 Ethical Assurance.....	100
4.9.1 Institutional approval and access to schools	100
4.9.2 Voluntary participation	101
4.9.3 Privacy and trust.....	101
4.9.4 Safety in participation	101
4.10 Conclusion	102
Chapter 5: Presentation of Findings	103
5.1 Introduction.....	103
5.2 Research questions:.....	103
5.3 Presentation of findings	104
5.4 Theme 1: Teacher conceptualisation of translanguaging.....	106
5.4.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Participants’ understanding of translanguaging.....	106
5.4.2 Sub-theme 1.2: Do participants use translanguaging teaching strategies?.....	109

5.4.3 Sub-theme 1.3: Is translanguaging an effective strategy in the English language classroom?	126
5.5 Theme 2: Language Ideologies	129
5.5.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Teachers’ views of translanguaging teaching strategies	130
5.5.2 Sub-theme 2.2: Teachers’ views of multilingualism	132
5.6 Theme 3: Response from learners	136
5.6.1 Sub-theme 3.1: Learners’ response when home language was used	136
5.6.2 Sub-theme 3.2: What other languages are used in the classroom	139
5.7 Theme 4: Teachers’ perceptions of community participation	141
5.7.1 Sub-theme 4.1: Parental involvement	142
5.7.2 Sub-theme 4.2: Teachers’ perceptions of community involvement	145
5.7.3 Sub-theme 4.3: Teachers’ perceptions of community circumstances	147
5.8 Summary of findings	150
5.9 Conclusion	151
Chapter 6: Discussion of findings	152
6.1 Introduction	152
6.2 Teacher conceptualisation of translanguaging	152
6.3 Language Ideologies	156
6.4 Response from learners	158
6.5 Teachers’ perceptions of community participation	160
6.6 Similarities with the literature	162
6.7 New insights	163
6.8 Conclusion	165
Chapter 7: Conclusions and Recommendations	166
7.1 Introduction	166
7.2 Summary of the study	166
7.3 Research questions revisited	169
7.4 Limitations of the study	170
7.5 Recommendations for future studies	171
7.5.1 Translanguaging by teachers	171
7.5.2 Parent education	171
7.6 Implications of the study	172
7.6.1 Teacher workshops	172
7.6.2 English language dominance	173
7.6.3 Circumstances within the community	173
7.6 Conclusion	174

References.....175
Appendices.....195

Chapter One

Introduction to the Study

1.1 Introduction

South Africa is often referred to as the Rainbow Nation to describe its multicultural diversity. The country has 12 official languages, including South African Sign Language. This diversity has led to many learners speaking two or more official languages and taking English or Afrikaans as their first additional or second additional language at school (Childs, 2016). In some cases, learners take English as a Home Language at school but in reality, it could be their second, third, or even fourth language (Childs, 2016). The Language in Education Policy in South Africa (1997) states that multilingualism is a defining characteristic of being South African and that the learning of more than one language should be promoted (DoE, 1997). According to the Department of Basic Education (DBE, 2010), Zulu (25%) is spoken as a home language by the majority of learners in South African schools, followed by isiXhosa (20%), while only 10% speak English as a home language. Despite this demographic, English is chosen as the language of learning and teaching (LOLT) in most primary schools, where learners and teachers are expected to be proficient in English (Kretzer & Kaschula, 2019). This, however, is not the case, as most primary school classrooms are linguistically diverse and overcrowded in South Africa, and, consequently, considerable strain is placed on teachers and learners alike (Desai, 2016).

The dominance of English as the LOLT in the classroom due to its global status and its use as a preferred language within the workforce (Fawole & Pillay, 2019) has sparked the interest of this study. Hence, it was appropriate for the research to be conducted as a multiple case study within two township primary schools to explore the perceptions of translanguaging amongst Grades 4, 5, 6 and, 7 English-language teachers. The main aim was to investigate whether teachers perceived translanguaging to have positive pedagogical effects within the English-language classrooms. The second aim was to determine the learners' responses when teachers implemented this strategy, as opposed to when they only used English. Crucially, it is important to understand the role of English as an official language and as a LOLT in South Africa and how other languages are used in English-language classrooms (Nsele, 2018).

In South Africa, approximately 15% of government expenditure is invested in the education system (Pretorius & Spaul, 2016). Even with such a large investment, the result is that many learners have low literacy levels (Fawole & Pillay, 2019; Strauss, 2016). Often learner performance in reading literacy is an indication of how well a country's education system is performing (Spaul, 2016). Consequently, the specific learning needs of learners have to be considered concerning the language or languages used at home and school (UNESCO, 2003b). In South Africa and other African countries, challenges related to socio-economic, cultural, and linguistic diversity have long been prevalent (Prinsloo & Krause, 2019). According to Charambo and Zano (2019), for decades language and multilingualism have been a main point of discussion, especially as this relates to literacy education and cognitive deficiencies.

Many studies concerning translanguaging – which considers how multilingual speakers use more than one language in their everyday communication with one another – are questioning ‘monolingual practices and ideologies worldwide’ (Makalela, 2013). Teachers in South Africa and other multilingual societies translanguage on a daily basis as an unplanned and natural occurrence by alternating between and blending languages for learners to grasp concepts (Kretzer & Kaschula, 2019). These teachers and learners know how to use their multilingualism to communicate effectively; however, there is still a need for them to realise that this practice (translanguaging) should be consciously applied within the classroom (Heugh, 2017).

1.2 Background and context of the study

During the Apartheid era in South Africa, language policies were set in place where Afrikaans, alongside English, was introduced as the LOLT (Fawole & Pillay, 2019). This resulted in the Soweto uprising of 16 June 1976 during which African learners rallied in opposition to having to learn Afrikaans as they saw this as the language of the oppressor (Fawole & Pillay, 2019). Post-Apartheid South Africa has 11 official languages that are used as the LOLT; primary school classrooms consist of learners from diverse backgrounds who speak different languages (Makalela, 2018). Despite the promotion of multilingual education to improve learner achievement, research shows that there is still a decline in learner achievement in South Africa (Strauss, 2016).

In South Africa, learners are taught in their home language during their first three years of primary schooling and then switch to English during their fourth year of schooling as the primary LOLT (Spaul, 2016). Education researchers have been calling for the use of home language instruction to be extended beyond Grade 3 to Grade 6; however, parents require an

even earlier transition to English (Mohohlwane, 2020). The challenge is that South African teachers are insufficiently trained and they implement inappropriate instructional strategies to address multilingual learning contexts (Spaull, 2015; Mohohlwane, 2020). Even though English is used as the LOLT in many South African schools, communication in the classroom (learner-to-learner as well as teacher-to-learner) usually takes place in the home language, as English proficiency is low among learners and teachers (Desai, 2016).

The General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) declared International Mother Language Day in November 1999 in order to promote linguistic and cultural diversity and multilingualism. Language has a dominant influence on learning: when home language and LOLT are not the same, learners are at a disadvantage in the classroom (Heugh, 2017; UNESCO, 2020). Since the proclamation in the early 1950s of the UNESCO policy on home language education, the number of languages used in schools has increased; never have more people been educated in more languages (UNESCO, 1985). UNESCO's early interest in multilingualism in education in 1953 began in Africa; the subsequent UNESCO reports indicated that children learn best in their home language (UNESCO, 1953, 2008). Since the 1950s, Africa's multilingualism has been an important resource for research in education (Wolff, 2018).

According to the South African Language and Education Policy (1997), bilingualism and multilingualism should be promoted within post-Apartheid schools through effective mechanisms that redress historically disadvantaged languages in the classroom (DoE, 1997). However, bi/multilingualism has not always been successfully introduced in South African schools (Heugh, 2017). The influences of colonialism and Apartheid are still prevalent in the belief that monolingual education should be used in the classroom (Chaka, 2020); this view is also accepted internationally (Prinsloo & Krause, 2019). This study indicates that translanguaging assists in promoting UNESCO's Mother Language initiative and it is an effective mechanism to advance previously disadvantaged languages.

Translanguaging as a theory offers a different view of bilingualism and multilingualism (Garcia & Wei, 2014). According to Makalela (2018), the interest in translanguaging as an alternative method of instructional strategy for teaching within multilingual classrooms has grown within South Africa. Translanguaging encourages the use of two or more languages simultaneously and can be used successfully within multilingual classrooms to address language barriers (Garcia & Wei, 2014). An example would be that listening and reading are conducted in one

language while speaking and writing are done in another language; this process enables bi/multilingual learners to use their home language, which results in greater motivation and a better understanding of the content being learned at school (Makalela, 2016).

1.3 Location of the study

The research adopted a multiple case study of two township primary schools. The participants were Grades 4, 5, 6, and 7 English-language teachers; they were observed, with their learners, and interviewed. Through accounts given by teachers, many of the learners within the schools came from lower-income households, with parents employed as unskilled labourers or unemployed. Both schools are no fee-paying schools for parents who are unemployed and rely on South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) grants. Learners within in no fee-paying schools usually come from poverty-stricken homes, live in previously disadvantaged areas, attend poorly resourced schools, and are mainly taught by teachers who have less specialist knowledge on how to address the learning barriers they face (Reddy, Winnaar, Juan, Arends, Harvey, Hannan, Namome & Zulu, 2019). This was evident from the study, as only one teacher held a Master's degree in Education. Learners within both participating schools were on the National School Nutrition Programme; while schools were closed due to the Covid-19 pandemic, learners were still able to come to school to receive a meal.

A multiple case study was chosen to explore the multiple perceptions that teachers had on translanguaging within the two township primary schools. Various methods were used for data collection, which included observations, semi-structured interviews, a focus group discussion, audio recordings, documentation, photos, and field notes in a naturalistic setting (Maree, 2016). The two township primary schools in which the study took place were both state schools located 1 km apart in the central part of the Eersterust township. The township of Mamelodi is within a 1 km-radius from the two participating schools. In South Africa, a township refers to a location that is an underdeveloped and racially segregated urban area, which was reserved for black Africans during Apartheid (Donaldson, 2014).

When it comes to South Africa's history, politics, and culture, concepts of ethnicity, race, and language have long been topics of controversy (Fawole & Pillay, 2019). In 300-500, AD African communities crossed the Limpopo River into present-day South Africa; the Bantu-speaking people on the other hand migrated from their original native land in the Niger Delta and west-central Africa 1500 BC (World Elections, 2015). Coloured people, on the other hand, have Khoisan ancestry. The Khoisan people are known to be South Africa's indigenous

population and lived in what is today part of the Western Cape, Northern Cape, and KwaZulu-Natal provinces (as well as Namibia, Botswana, and Angola) (World Elections, 2015). Considered as one of the most racially diverse groups in the world, the South African Coloured population has a makeup of Khoisan, European, Indian, and Southeast Asian ancestry (Tutu, 2016).

The two participating schools in this study consist of learners and teachers who are linguistically and culturally diverse. Learners come from mixed-race and Coloured backgrounds; parents have African, Coloured, Indian, and White ancestry. Coloureds make up 83.5% of the township population, followed by Africans (14.4%), and the other 2% include South Africans of Indian, Asian, and European descent, as well as foreigners from other African countries such as Zimbabwe (Statistics South African, 2012). Children within this community are exposed to a range of languages from an early age. Many South African learners are bilingual, which reflects in the large percentage of two-parent homes where children grow up speaking more than one language (Posel & Zeller, 2016). The two participating schools also celebrate events such as Africa Day; at these events, they aim to instil the values of tolerance and respect in celebrating multiculturalism within the diverse community.

Eersterust was established as an area during Apartheid by the National Party to relocate people of the Coloured race (Eersterust our Community, 2020). The area was first established in 1962, on a farm named Derdepoort, in Pretoria East. Being located 15km away from church square, the area initially fell out of the municipal area of Pretoria but remained within its magisterial district (Olifant, Rautenbach & Cekiso, 2017). The reason why the name Eersterust was chosen, is based on two assumptions. The first account is that mail coaches that were on their way to the Lydenberg goldfields would make their first stop at Eersterust (Tutu, 2016). The second assumption behind the name is that it was once a township in Pretoria East that used to house black African workers, known back then as the ‘first resting place’ (Springveldt, 2008).

When the 1950 Group Areas Act removed people from their homes, this led to disastrous consequences, families were torn apart resulting in the degradation of lifestyle. The effects of poverty have resulted in unemployment, inept work, insufficient pay, domestic turmoil, alcohol abuse, crime, and poor diet has had far reaching consequences for this community (Olifant, Rautenbach & Cekiso, 2017). However, despite all these circumstances, this community’s cultural heritage has matured into something unique and distinct. Through its practices and identities based on friendliness and kindness, with association to groups and

religious organisations as an essential facet of community life (Eersterust our Community, 2020).

This community has many social welfare organisations in place in the form of non-government, faith-based, and community-based organisations, which address the many social issues the community faces. Community participation and the values of Ubuntu play a considerable role within Eersterust; the community aims to provide a sense of belonging or identity to its members, in that one takes responsibility for oneself and others, sharing and working together with members in society (Springveldt, 2008).

The language spoken by 78% of the population within Eersterust is Afrikaans, with English spoken by a mere 10% (Statistics South Africa, 2012). African parents from the neighbouring townships of Mamelodi and Nellmapius send their children to primary schools within Eersterust; this creates schools and a community that is culturally and linguistically diverse. The ratio at both schools was 60% Coloured learners to 40% African learners. Teachers and learners within these schools were able to communicate in more than two languages.

1.4 Rationale, Motivation, and Position of Researcher

The researcher's work experience involves being a teacher in a non-profit community development organisation that endeavours to address the social and educational challenges that learners face within township communities. The organisation is involved at six under-resourced primary schools in the east of Pretoria, which include the townships of Eersterust, Mamelodi, and Nellmapius. The researcher was able to witness the challenges teachers and learners face in these schools due to language barriers and being taught in English as the primary LOLT. By teaching in the community (Eersterust) for three years, the researcher was able to familiarise herself with the teachers and learners at the schools. As a subjective researcher, the researcher brings her own personal perspective and interpretations to the study (Maree, 2012).

Parents from the neighbouring townships of Mamelodi and Nellmapius send their children to primary schools within Eersterust as they believe they will learn English better at these schools. The reason is that the majority of parents prefer that their children are educated through the medium of English (Strauss, 2016). English teachers at schools within Eersterust teach two groups of learners: Home-Language learners and First Additional Language (FAL) learners. FAL classrooms mainly consist of learners whose home language is Afrikaans, and who come from Eersterust, and a few African learners. English home-language classrooms comprise a 60/40 ratio of African and Coloured learners; for both groups of learners, English is not their

home language. Although the researcher had access to schools in Mamelodi and Nellmapius as well, she chose to conduct a study on translanguaging within the community of Eersterust; she believed that this research site would yield more unique results as participants formed a diverse group of teachers and learners. Furthermore, translanguaging has not yet been explored within this community.

Learners from Eersterust, Mamelodi, and Nellmapius within the home-language and FAL classrooms at the two participating schools were not fully proficient in the LOLT, English; teachers in this study indicated that both groups of learners struggled to grasp learning concepts in English. The researcher was also able to witness this by working one-on-one with learners. Her subjective observations included that some learners in Grade 7 were not able to spell English words. Many learners were also not able to engage effectively with the teachers, and some found it difficult to understand what was taught to them. Teachers within the study were proficient in English; however, they were not always proficient in the learners' home languages (which included a range of languages – Afrikaans, Zulu, Sotho, and Sepedi). Therefore, they found it difficult to assist struggling learners. English as a content subject and LOLT requires learners to be able to read texts, write and express themselves, and draw inferences from a text (Mgijima and Makalela, 2016).

Instructional strategies for linguistically diverse classrooms were the focus of a research report completed in 2019 by the researcher. This sparked an interest in the area of multilingual education and specifically, translanguaging. Language is often viewed as one of the biggest barriers to teaching and learning, especially within the South African context. Furthermore, translanguaging as a research topic has not been explored in Coloured township contexts such as Eersterust, where Afrikaans is spoken by the majority of the population. What makes this setting even more culturally and linguistically diverse is the inclusion of learners from neighbouring townships. This led to the conclusion that more research needed to be done on translanguaging, in order to ascertain the perceptions of teachers on translingual methods being used in their multilingual classrooms. Additional research interests were how the research could contribute towards the understanding of current teaching and learning methods within language classrooms and how methods may be modified in the future to accommodate multilingual learners.

All learners should be able to succeed and thrive in their environments. Education and improving literacy levels could combat the cycle of poverty that is so prevalent amongst people

within these communities. Therefore, doing a case study on the perceptions of translanguaging within multilingual classrooms could convince teachers, researchers, and policy makers to implement translanguaging as a pedagogical practice.

1.5 Problem statement

South Africa participates in a number of cross-national assessments of educational achievement, these assessments make it possible to compare the level of learning of learners in South Africa with those in other countries; these assessments include the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) and the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) (Pretorius & Spaull, 2016). These international benchmark studies interpret the achievement scale scores to describe the abilities learners demonstrate at particular points on the achievement scale (Reddy et al., 2019). Other assessment measures one could use would be the matric results (Grade 12) or the Annual National Assessment (ANA) results (Grades 1–9) to determine what learners in South Africa know and can do (Spaull, 2015).

The analysis of the ANA (2014) diagnostic report on first additional language and home language revealed that Grade 5 learners scored an average of 47%, and Grade 6 learners an average of 43% for English First Additional language (EFAL). Grade 5 learners showed weaknesses in punctuation, and in an inability to understand texts or rhymes; they performed the lowest in writing and presenting skills. Grade 6 learners showed weakness in the area of active vocabulary appropriate for the grade; their achievement in reading and viewing and writing to communicate was the lowest. The difficulty, however, with relying on these tests is that they differ between years and across grades, yielding different scores that do not necessarily have anything to do with progress or a decline in learner performance (Spaull, 2015). Large racial inequalities were identified in achieving matric or Grade 12, with only 44% of Black African and Coloured youth aged 23–24 having passed this qualification; this is due to many of these learners not mastering basic educational concepts in the first few years of their primary schooling (Spaull, 2015). On the one hand, matric pass-rate figures cannot be viewed in isolation as many learners do drop out; however, this still indicates which group of learners performs the poorest.

The PIRLS is an international comparative assessment that measures literacy achievement in learners. According to the PIRLS (2016) study, most learners in South Africa have not acquired the basic reading skills that are required for a language and have not met the requirements set by the curriculum to be able to read for meaning by Grade 3. By the end of Grade 4, a learner

who is not able to read fluently is not able to engage with the rest of the curriculum in meaningful ways; during Grades 1 to 3, the curriculum focuses on ‘learning to read’, whereas from Grades 4 onwards it focuses on ‘reading to learn’ (Pretorius & Spaul, 2016). Approximately 49% of South African Grade 4 learners do not reach the international benchmark for literacy and do not have the basic reading skills to proceed to the next grade (Mullis, Martin, Foy, & Hooper, 2017). These learners are nonetheless promoted to the next grade (Breton-Carbonneau et al., 2012; Van der Berg, Spaul, Wills, Gustafsson & Kotze, 2016).

A number of factors contribute to the above challenges: firstly, many South African parents and caregivers show little to no interest in the involvement of their child’s education (Howie, Combrinck, Roux, Tshele, Mokoena & McLeod Palane, 2017). Secondly, classroom factors indicate that not enough time is spent on reading activities or formal reading instructions. Lastly, the schooling environment plays a role; many schools have insufficient access to resources, such as books. More than half of South African primary schools that took part in the PIRLS study did not have a library (Howie et al., 2017).

The problems stated above may come from the difficult transition Grade 4 learners in South Africa have to make, learners need to have a good understanding of English as the LOLT in order to be able to read books and other written materials set in place by the curriculum (Heugh, 2015). Grade 4 learners in African schools transition from being taught in an African language to English as a LOLT, in the end, impacts negatively on reading literacy (Heugh, 2015). Being taught in English has not translated into better education for learners in South Africa, certain learners are also placed at a disadvantage over others, due to the fact that two groupings of English exist (Home Language and First Additional Language) (Fawole & Pillay, 2019).

One of the main requirements for reading comprehension is the ability to be able to draw inferences from the text, to read between the lines and, to make sense of what one is reading, according to Mgijima and Makalela (2016). Achieving these outcomes is hindered by using monolingual models, practices, and teaching approaches, which perpetuate the belief that education should only be conducted in one language (Mgijima & Makalela, 2016). Hornberger and Link (2012) do not view translanguaging merely as a language practice used by multilinguals but as a type of teaching practice that is used to improve literacy levels and to foster language development in individuals. The low literacy levels in South Africa add to the high failure rate in English and much still needs to be done to determine whether

translanguaging can or could be used as an effective strategy, especially within English-language classrooms.

The TIMSS is a recognised international assessment study designed to measure the effectiveness of an education system within a country in relation to mathematics and science. The 2019 report highlighted Grade 5 learners' results in Mathematics and Science. South Africa's performance in both Mathematics and Science in Grade 4 and 5 was amongst the lowest of the 64 countries that participated in the study (Reddy et al., 2019). This implies that 63% of learners had not acquired basic mathematical knowledge and 72% had not acquired basic science knowledge. There is growing research interest in translanguaging effectiveness in content subjects such as Science, Mathematics, and Geography. Learners who were better able to respond to the TIMSS assessment more successfully spoke the language of the test at home. Research on Science and Mathematics education suggests that for meaningful comprehension of scientific concepts and satisfactory academic performance in the learning area, learners' home languages should be acknowledged and used in the Science and Mathematics classrooms (Charambo, 2019). In the following chapter, the literature review presents case studies that indicate that concepts in subjects such as Mathematics and Science are better understood in the learner's home language (Ndungo & Mwangi, 2014).

Academic failure of learners can be attributed to a lack of access to the content material or knowledge in the LOLT; poor academic results can also be viewed from a previously disadvantaged point of view in South Africa, with African and Coloured learners performing poorly (Fawole & Pillay, 2019). This can be attributed to the fact that learning in a language that is not one's home language provides a double set of challenges: learning a new language may come as a challenge for many, and also with learning new content in that language (UNESCO, 2003b).

1.6 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to determine teachers' perceptions of translanguaging in order to ascertain whether they were in favour of this approach being implemented within English-language classrooms. The study also wanted to determine whether teachers within township contexts promoted multilingualism, and how these contributions might facilitate workshops or intervention strategies on translanguaging with teachers.

1.7 Research Questions

What are the perceptions of translanguaging amongst English teachers in township primary schools?

And

Why do teachers perceive translanguaging in this way?

1.8 Definition of key concepts

Translanguaging

Translanguaging is a pedagogy, theory or, phenomenon which allows the individual to use her full linguistic repertoire in order to make meaning, shape experiences and, negotiate communicative contexts (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). Translanguaging entails that the receiver receives information through the medium of one language and makes meaning of and applies it through the medium of another language; before the new information can be applied successfully, it has to be understood fully by the receiver (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). Translanguaging is also seen as a practice where teachers and learners naturally use two languages in order to maximise learning and to improve the learners' ability in both languages (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). An example would be when listening and reading are conducted in one language, while speaking and writing are done in another language; this process enables bilingual learners to use their home language, resulting in greater motivation and a better understanding of the content being learned at school (Makalela, 2016).

Code-switching

Code-switching is the practice of shifting between different elements of language in order to contextualise talk during interaction (Nilep, 2006). It expresses an interchange between two language systems and separate linguistic codes. Therefore, code-switching is a process of shifting between two languages and separate monolingual codes, whereas translanguaging focuses on how speakers use their entire linguistic repertoire to make meaning through interaction (Nagy, 2018). Code-switching, like translanguaging, can be used by teachers to

clarify concepts and maintain social relationships, and also for classroom management (Strauss, 2016).

Multilingualism

Multilingualism describes the various forms of societal, formal, and individual ways that people go about knowing and using more than two languages (Garcia & Wei, 2014:11), or has competence in more than two languages (Cenoz, 2013). Included are not only varieties such as ‘state languages but also local languages, minority languages, immigrant languages, sign languages, and, in its broadest sense, dialects’ (Franceschini, 2011:3). A person who is multilingual uses ‘three or more languages, either on their own or in various degrees of code-mixing’ and is able to speak and write in more than two languages (Kemp, 2009: 15).

Bilingualism

Bilingualism refers to being able to speak two languages with the fluency characteristic of a native speaker (Cenoz, 2013), or knowing and using two autonomous languages (Garcia & Wei, 2014:11). A bilingual person uses two languages regularly and with a command like that of a native speaker through ‘the constant oral use of two languages’ (Hamers & Blanc, 2000). It may also refer to language learners who choose to learn an additional language; this is referred to as additive bilingualism (May, Hill & Tiakiwai, 2004).

English First Additional language (EFAL)

In South Africa, EFAL refers to English as an additional language subject at school from Grade 4 onwards (Language in Education Policy, 1997). English First Additional Language learning is also seen as a learning area in the curriculum where learners take English as a first or second additional language. Generally, the learner is less fluent in this language than his or her home language but will reach a phase at which he or she is comfortable to speak, read and write in English as a First Additional Language (Stein, 2017).

Home Language (mother tongue)

The Home Language is one of the learning areas included in the school curriculum. This is the language the learner is most comfortable reading, writing, and speaking in (Stein, 2017). Within the South African context, the home language being taught to the learner at school is often not the same language being spoken at home (Stein, 2017). Home language also refers to the language spoken at home by learners or the mother tongue language that parents speak, and that the learner is taught at home (Smits, Huisman & Kruijff, 2008).

1.9 Preliminary literature review

1.9.1 Origins of translanguaging

Several authors agree that in the study of language, ideologies that are prevalent in the West have always been in favour of monolingual education (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Nagy, 2018; Wei, 2017). The notions of ‘one language, one people’ and that languages should be kept separate, especially within the classroom, have been emphasised (Wei, 2017). It is said that when bi/multilingual populations acquire a new language, they either take on a ‘subtractive or additive approach’; the subtractive approach is when a minorities’ language is replaced by the society’s dominant language, and an additive approach is when elite members of society already proficient in one language, add another language to their linguistic repertoire. However, neither of these approaches account for how bi/multilinguals use and acquire language (Vogel & Garcia, 2017).

Due to globalisation and a rise in migration into European and North American cities, sociocultural and linguistic diversity, as well as translanguaging, has become a new focus in research in the West, where people now live in ‘super diverse’ linguistic environments (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Vogel & Garcia, 2017). The concept of translanguaging first appeared in the 1980s during the Welsh revitalisation by Cen Williams, who first coined the term *trawsieithu*. This is a practice where the teacher would teach in Welsh and learners would respond in English in order not to lose the use of the Welsh language. Within this context, translanguaging was a resource of knowledge construction, deepening the learners’ bilingualism and producing a better understanding of subject content (Leung & Valdes, 2019).

Translanguaging began as a practice that opposed the notion that bilingualism caused mental confusion in individuals (Mgijima & Makalela, 2016). *Trawsieithu* was later translated into English as translanguaging by Baker (2001); crucially, it is the ability of bi/multilingual speakers to shift between languages, using their different languages to form an integrated system to ‘make meaning, shape experiences and gain understanding’ (Leung & Valdes, 2019: 359). Nagy (2016) proposes that there are two versions of translanguaging, with differing views in the ways in which language is structured and learnt. On the one hand, the strong version of translanguaging posits that languages are structured according to one language system and grammar in which language speakers select the cues they need in their social interaction. On the other hand, the weak version of translanguaging maintains that rigid boundaries between

languages exist, but advocates for the softening of these boundaries, focusing on the similarities and overlap between different language systems.

1.9.2 Translanguaging as a pedagogy and practice

An age-old question has always been the role the home language plays in the acquisition of a first additional language. Despite the importance of home language instruction, what is still recommended in the literature today is that only one language should be used at a time (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). However, several international authors agree that translanguaging is an effective pedagogical practice in settings where the LOLT differs from the learner's home language (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Wei, 2017; Vogel & Garcia, 2017; Nagy, 2018). Individuals within society should aim to break the divides between 'indigenous versus immigrant, majority versus minority and, target versus home language' (Wei, 2017: 15). What should be encouraged is for teachers and learners to participate as equals, so that power relations within the classroom are transformed by learners. Learners should play an active role by practising their language skills and teachers should work with learners in relinquishing some of their authority.

Translanguaging could be used as an effective tool in achieving these goals; it is seen as a practice of knowledge construction instead of a phenomenon and involves the use of different languages in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner that resists the separation of languages (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Vogel & Garcia, 2017; Wei, 2017). Hornberger and Link (2012) indicate that teachers, learners, and their families bring diverse ways of communicating with one another into the schooling environment, and communication takes place in one or more languages, not just in speaking but in writing as well.

In nations with linguistic and cultural diversity, multilingual schools are often established to build on the diversity of the different languages and literacy practices of their learners. This is known in the United Kingdom (UK) as complementary schools or community language schools that are established by communities and focus on 'language, culture and heritage teaching' (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Complementary school classes in the UK take place on weekends, in conjunction with regular schooling done during the week. Within this context, researchers working in the field of education have called for a modification of existing teaching methods within the classrooms to cater to the linguistic diversity of learners. Creese and

Blackledge (2010) add that research has also begun to question the validity of the imposed boundaries around languages.

Translanguaging applied as a pedagogy has the potential to liberate learners coming from backgrounds where their home language is not seen as important, to normalise bi/multilingualism, and to bridge the gap between the hierarchy of language practices (Creese & Blackledge, 2015). When there is no pressure on learners to be fluent in the pronunciation of words, there is a more relaxed atmosphere within classrooms (Creese & Blackledge, 2015). This encourages students to engage more, to be confident in their language skills and, to express themselves more freely in the classroom (Nagy, 2018). Within a linguistically diverse classroom, translanguaging can be used as a scaffolding device that helps those who have just become bilingual to keep up with the more advanced learners (Rivera & Mazak, 2017).

The aim of translanguaging is to create a learning environment that allows learners to use their linguistic skills and to build on the language skills they bring to the classroom (Hornberger & Link, 2012). Vogel and Garcia (2017) state that the debate on using translanguaging in education has sparked both agreement and disagreement in the literature. The controversy in and around translanguaging is that; many teachers are in favour of using it as a teaching pedagogy within multilingual classrooms to better the learners' understanding of the content being taught; others see it as a threat to the concept of the traditional separation of languages that is supposedly necessary for language development (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). They see it as a threat to normalise bilingualism in education.

In many parts of the world, the phenomenon of different languages coexisting alongside one another is becoming more acceptable; an example would be Chinglish (a blend of Chinese and English). In his study on the everyday talk of Singaporean Chinese, Wei (2017) considers that a form of expression like Chinglish should be considered as a form of language evolution. However, there are researchers that believe that Mandarin and English should be kept separate and find translanguaging practice unacceptable and a 'contamination of languages' (Wei, 2017: 14).

1.9.3 Translanguaging in South Africa

Multilingualism in South Africa can be traced back to Mapungubwe in the Limpopo Valley, which was a complex civilisation dating back to 1200 to 1300 AD (Makalela, 2018). There is evidence that people from different ethnic groups coexisted alongside one another at Mapungubwe and that they used a system of communication in which their different languages

were blended. This indicates that pre-colonial South Africans used languages without strict boundaries – this overlap between languages still exists today in post-Apartheid South Africa (Makalela, 2018). According to Mgijima and Makalela (2017), communities in South Africa and their way of making sense of the world have become too complex to be confined to a one-language ideology.

The world has now entered a century in which languages are no longer restricted to space and time; rather, they are complex and almost incomplete without coexistence with other languages (Makalela & Mkhize, 2016). This connects to the concept of Ubuntu: ‘I am because you are, you are because we are’. The study of Bantu languages in southern Africa shows that monosyllabic words are meaningless – you need two syllables to make sense of words in these languages and one language is incomplete without the other (Sefotho & Makalela, 2017). Therefore, Banda (2018) asserts that the current language policy in South Africa needs to consider translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy that should be used within these Ubuntu classrooms.

Researchers in the United Kingdom and the United States of America look for examples of social interactions outside of classrooms, which treat the linguistic diversity of learners ‘as resources rather than as problems’ (Krause & Prinsloo, 2016: 348). However, in many instances within the South African context, the home language of the learner is not valued and used within the classroom and on the playground (Childs, 2016). Childs (2016) argues that with the current curriculum in South Africa, languages are labelled as Home language, First Additional Language, and Second Additional Language. This creates the notion of languages as separate entities. According to Mgijima and Makalela (2016), previous studies have shown that translanguaging has the potential to improve the intellectual capabilities of multilingual learners, and, subsequently, they reject the assertion that learning and teaching should only be done in one language. The learner’s home language can be used in collaboration with the LOLT that makes cognitive skills transferable across languages (Mgijima & Makalela, 2016).

A case study by Mgijima and Makalela (2017) conducted in EFAL classrooms amongst Grade 4 learners in the Eastern Cape indicated that by using translanguaging techniques, learners were able to draw inferences from the texts that they were reading in isiXhosa and English. A similar study done by Carstens (2016), found that translanguaging improves African university students’ cognitive literacies, while still maintaining the use of their home language. Charambo and Zano (2019) conducted a more recent study in a Grade 10 chemistry classroom in the Free

State and investigated how language affects students' performance in science subjects. The results showed that learners found it helpful to use a home language alongside the LOLT, which was English, as it allowed them to make better sense of scientific concepts.

Translanguaging used in conjunction with the LOLT can be beneficial and empowering to learners. There are, however, debates as to whether teachers are in favour or opposed to using it as a practice within their classrooms. According to Childs (2016), teachers are not always in favour of multilingual models for teaching, as there are time constraints in implementing the current curriculum. Many teachers also think that languages should be taught separately, and to use more than one method of teaching in a classroom could become too strenuous and time consuming (Childs, 2016). By exploring teachers' perceptions of translanguaging, the current study was able to determine whether translanguaging featured in the daily practices of teachers and whether they were in favour of implementing these practices.

1.10 Overview of the research design and methodology

The research design and methodology for the study consist of the research approach, the research paradigm, research design, selection of the participants and research sites, data generation and collection methods, and data analysis. These are discussed below.

1.10.1 Research Approach

A qualitative research approach was best suited for this study to gain insight into teachers' perceptions of translanguaging, specifically within the context of two township primary schools. Qualitative research allows for the exploration of views from a group of people in order to gain a detailed understanding of a phenomenon (Creswell, 2007: 36). This detailed understanding was established through fieldwork by talking directly to participating teachers and observing them in their natural settings. Subsequently, this study included observing teachers' and learners' classroom interactions, and interviews and focus group discussions with teachers to gather data from their responses (Ajagbe, Sholanke, Isiavwe & Oke, 2015). Qualitative researchers are concerned with process, rather than outcomes or products. Through this approach, the researcher learnt about the lived experiences of teachers and how they structure their world and gained insight into their personal experiences of translanguaging within multilingual classrooms (Maree, 2016: 53).

1.10.2 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm is a philosophical approach or model to assist in conducting research. The paradigm affects how a researcher views the phenomena, the participating community, and the methods the researcher uses to study the phenomena (Given, 2008). The ontology chosen for the study is nominalism and the epistemology is interpretivism. Nominalism holds to the notion that universals or general ideas do not exist and that we name or give meaning to our reality through the use of language. Learning is a passage from ‘individuals to universals’, an inductive process that moves from a particular experience to a general process (Prawat, 2003). Furthermore, nominalism is referred to as the philosophy of language and places emphasis on the role of language in human cognition (Prawat, 2003). Nominalism considers the process by which individuals use language to construct knowledge. This is applicable to the study as the researcher relates language to cognitive processes.

Interpretivism focuses on people’s subjective experiences and the way they make meaning of their world through their interactions with other people (Maree, 2016: 61). This epistemology was relevant for the study as the researcher observed interactions between teachers and learners within classrooms; by observing people in their social contexts, there is a greater opportunity to understand the perceptions they have of their own choices and actions. In order to gain insight into the subjective experiences of teachers, semi-structured interviews and focus groups were conducted. According to Maree (2016), ‘the human mind is the source or origin of meaning’. By exploring how meanings are constructed by teachers in relation to language practices and their perceptions of language ideologies, researchers are able to gain an understanding of the general practices used within classrooms.

1.10.3 Study Design

To explore teachers’ perceptions of translanguaging and to gain a holistic understanding of their experiences within a school environment, a multiple case study was chosen as the most appropriate study design for the research. According to Creswell, Hansen, Clark Plano & Morales (2007), a case study involves studying an issue or phenomenon within a certain context; the context can involve an individual, group, activity, or programme. Case studies can take place on a single, multiple, or intrinsic scale. Multiple case studies consist of collective cases through which the researcher wants to explore similarities and differences within and between these cases. An intrinsic case study, on the other hand, is when a case itself is of interest and the researcher wishes to understand the case (Creswell et al., 2007). The study

took place as a multiple case study of two township primary schools by gathering data that were context specific.

The goal of the study was to gain multiple perspectives of translanguaging from different teachers on their interactions with learners within two township primary schools. In these schools, the majority of classrooms consisted of linguistically diverse learners. The study took place in a naturalistic setting involving the exploration of Grades 4, 5, 6, and 7 teachers' perceptions of translanguaging being used within the English-language classrooms. Case studies involve multiple methods of data collection: the study employed observations, interviews, focus groups, documentation, photos, and field notes. An advantage of a case study approach was that close collaboration was established between the researcher and participants (Creswell, 2007: 73). A drawback of using a case study method is that several different methods of data collection were required in order to achieve validity and reliability: this was a labour-intensive process. However, this was countered by the researcher in preparing for the fieldwork process and preparing for data storage by organising audio recordings of all interviews, observations, and field notes into specific folders.

1.10.4 Data Generation and Collection Methods

Qualitative researchers do not just collect data; rather, they generate data. As the researcher engaged in qualitative research, she was practically involved in data generation by interacting with research participants and learning from their experiences through conversations with them. Data collection methods for this study consisted of observations, semi-structured interviews, focus groups, documentation, photos, and field notes. Two township primary schools were chosen as research sites for this study. At school A, a focus group discussion was conducted with three English teachers in November 2020. In February 2021, classroom observations were then conducted with the same three teachers at School A. At school B, four English teachers participated in semi-structured interviews and classroom observations in October 2020. Initially, during the proposal stage, the researcher indicated that only one school would be used and English teachers from Grade 5 and 6 would be interviewed. However, to obtain a greater breadth of perspectives from teachers, more English teachers from different grades and an additional school within the same township context were included in the study.

1.10.5 Research Site and Sample

Participants chosen for the study included seven English language teachers from two township primary schools located in Eersterust. Teachers within the schools represented middle-class

and lower-income households; some lived in Eersterust and others in Mamelodi and other Pretoria East areas. Purposive sampling was used for this study with the specific purpose to explore teachers' perceptions of translanguaging within classrooms (Creswell, 2007: 125). This means that the researcher selected individuals and sites for study because they could purposefully form an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study (Creswell, 2007: 125). English-language teachers were specifically chosen for this study. The reasons for this choice were that language is seen as one of the biggest barriers to learning and to gain language teachers' perspectives of translanguaging in a multicultural and multilingual setting. A drawback of purposive sampling is that often researcher bias is involved, and the sample chosen might not be a true representation of the population, thus it will not be generalisable. However, this study did not aim to draw generalisations, but rather new knowledge was constructed.

1.10.6 Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis is ongoing, with data collection, processing, analysis, and reporting all intertwined. Researchers must constantly go back to original field notes or to participants in order to verify conclusions. The researcher has to summarise what was seen and heard, and link and interpret this into words, themes, phrases, or patterns; this is the goal of qualitative data analysis (Maree, 2016: 109). Data analysis for documentation took place in the form of content analysis, whereas thematic analysis was applied for interviews, focus group discussions and, observations (Bryman, 2012). Verbatim transcripts were produced for each interview; thereafter, these were analysed using thematic analysis.

Datasets from field notes, observations, interviews, documentation, photos, and focus group discussions were kept separate in order to make the process of referring back to them easier and to facilitate reviewing (Maree, 2016: 115). Data analysis for the study first included describing the data and preparing the data for analysis. Next, verbatim transcriptions were produced of all interviews and the focus group discussion. Themes and coding were determined from data collected from interview questions during interviews and focus group discussions. Finally, an interpretation of results followed, where the analysed data were contextualised through the research questions, relevant literature, and theoretical framework for the study.

1.11 Organisation of the dissertation

The study comprises seven chapters. Chapter 1 is an introduction to the study, covering the background and context of the study in which the researcher explained the complexities and

challenges of teaching in a multilingual country such as South Africa. The rationale and focus and reasons for why the researcher wanted to conduct the study were also explained, along with a clarification of concepts to provide the reader with a clearer understanding of the topic. A preliminary literature review, with a brief introduction into translanguaging and translanguaging practices, was provided, and finally, a description of how the study would be carried out methodologically.

Chapter 2 is the literature review for the study, which comprises three parts. The first part of the literature review looked into translanguaging and its origins within the Welsh context and how the term was first introduced to the world. It then continued by looking at translanguaging from the South African perspective and how in pre-colonial Africa, languages already coexisted alongside one another. In order to argue in favour of promoting linguistic diversity, the benefits of bi/multilingualism in education and beyond were provided. The second part of the literature review explored how translanguaging was first applied and developed as a practice; the researcher linked translanguaging to learners' and teachers' perceptions of this practice within classrooms by looking into case studies done internationally. Lastly, the third part of the literature review provided evidence of multilingualism in Africa. This was linked to indigenous education and that in pre-colonial Africa, education was a social and communal product. The literature also explored how English language dominance potentially harms and destroys Africa's communal way of learning. Finally, case studies were presented from the South Africa context on the benefits of translanguaging for teachers and learners.

Chapter 3 comprises the theoretical framework chosen for the study. In this study, constructivism, translanguaging theory and, Ubuntu translanguaging are combined within the theoretical framework as these theories share common assumptions and concepts. This framework was used to guide the study in order for the researcher to generate new knowledge. It was also used as a guide to present and organise the argument for the study. These theories were selected due to their familiarity with the literature on education. This framework was also used to guide the researcher to discuss and interpret the findings.

Chapter 4 outlines the research design and methodology, which were used for the study. A qualitative research approach was used, consisting of observations, focus groups, semi-structured interviews, documentation, and photos in order to ascertain the perceptions teachers have of translanguaging.

In Chapter 5, the findings of the study are presented based on the themes which emerged from the data analysis. Themes consisted of the conceptualisation of translanguaging, language ideologies, the response from learners and, community participation. This chapter provides details of what was discovered during the research process by also providing accounts of what was said by teachers within the study. These findings were related to the purpose, research questions, theoretical framework, and literature of the study.

Chapter 6 is the discussion of findings, where the literature review, research questions, and theoretical framework were related to the results of the study. Similarities and differences between the findings and existing literature were also discussed. Finally, chapter 7 includes the summary of the study, limitations, conclusions, and recommendations for future research.

1.12 Conclusion

In this chapter, the study was introduced and contextualised for the reader, which is the perceptions of translanguaging among English-language teachers, in the township context of Eersterust, located in the Tshwane South District of the Gauteng Province. The rationale, motivation, and position of the researcher were also explained, along with the problem statement as to why the research should be conducted. The purpose and focus of the study were provided and that the study contributes towards knowledge construction. Finally, an overview of the research methodology that was used to answer the research questions and a summary of the organisation of the dissertation were provided. In the following chapter, the literature review for the study will be discussed.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The literature review provides the reader with a background to what has been accomplished within a field of study and what still needs to be accomplished (Rocco & Plakhotnik, 2009). It is conducted in order for a researcher to gather, analyse, and critique arguments being presented within a range of studies in order to understand where research limitations are located, to identify areas where knowledge is missing or contradicting, and where future research may be undertaken (Rewhorn, 2018). For this reason, it was important to compile a literature review to identify the key concepts of the research study, the background, the existing contradictions, similarities, and gaps in the research on translanguaging (Rewhorn, 2018).

The literature review is divided into three parts. The first part of the literature review considers translanguaging and its origins within the Welsh context and how the term was first introduced to the world. Then, the researcher discusses translanguaging in South Africa and that in pre-colonial South Africa, languages already co-existed alongside one another. In order to argue for promoting linguistic diversity, the literature provides arguments for the benefits of bi/multilingualism in education.

The second part of the literature review explores how translanguaging has been applied and developed as pedagogy and practice and as a sociolinguistic phenomenon. These concepts are linked to learners' and teachers' perceptions of this practice within classrooms by providing accounts of international case studies. The third part of the literature review provides evidence of multilingualism in Africa and how Africans use a range of languages in their everyday lives. This links to indigenous education and that education was a social and communal product in pre-colonial Africa. The literature review also explores how English-language dominance potentially harms and destroys Africa's communal way of learning. Finally, case studies will be presented from the South African context on the benefits of translanguaging for teachers and learners.

2.2 The Origins of Translanguaging

Translanguaging is a new and emerging field (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012a). The growing interest in translanguaging relates to a change in the way bilingual and multilingual education,

and bilingualism and multilingualism have developed (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). The interest in translanguaging has not only been observed among academics but also in politics and how the public has viewed bilingual education and bilingualism (Simpson, 2017). Several authors agree that in the study of language, ideologies that are prevalent in the West have always been in favour of monolingual education (Cenoz, 2017; Creese & Blackledge 2015; Fallas Escobar, 2019; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Nagy, 2018; Wei, 2017). The notions of ‘one language, one people’ and that languages should be kept separate, especially within the classroom, have been emphasised (Wei, 2017). The 21st century has seen an increase in migrations and with more fluid borders, the world has become a multilingual environment. Subsequently, education has to take cognisance of this shift in demographics (Anstey & Bull, 2018). It should be noted that evidence from around the world indicates that learning first in one’s home language leads to better educational outcomes for individuals, cultures, and nations (UNESCO, 2008, 2020).

When bi/multilingual populations acquire a new language, they either take on a ‘subtractive or additive approach’; the subtractive approach is when a minority language is replaced by the society’s dominant language, and an additive approach is when elite members of society already proficient in one language, add another language to their linguistic repertoire (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). However, neither of these approaches account for how bi/multilinguals use and acquire language (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). The beliefs and ideas of the society in which learners live are part of the social and cultural background that influences their language learning (Baker, 2001). Traditionally, teachers, administrators, researchers, and politicians viewed the bilingual as two monolinguals in one person (Baker, 2001). However, Baker (2001) suggests that what is needed is a holistic view of bilingualism. Bilinguals should not be viewed as two separate entities comprising two separate languages, but rather as a unified whole. Using their two languages with diverse people, in multiple contexts, and for various purposes (Garcia & Wei, 2014). With levels of proficiency depending on the social contexts and how often the language is used.

Due to globalisation and a rise in migration of people from developing and war-torn countries to European and North American cities, sociocultural and linguistic diversity has become a new focus of research in the West, where speakers now live in ‘super diverse’ linguistic environments (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Simpson, 2017). The concept of translanguaging first appeared in the 1980s during the Welsh revitalisation by Ceu Williams, who first coined the term *trawsieithu*; it was a response against the separation of the two languages, Welsh, and

English (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). *Trawsieithu* is a practice where the teacher would teach in Welsh and learners would respond in English in order not to lose the use of the Welsh language. Within this context, translanguaging is viewed as a resource of knowledge construction, deepening the learners' bilingualism, and producing a better understanding of subject content (Leung & Valdes, 2019). Cen Williams's approach to bilingual education was to improve the learners' use of Welsh and English; learners reorganised their understanding in one language through the other language, which provided an opportunity for learners to change the language of input and output. Learners were asked to read in one language and write in another or to speak in one language and read in another, and so forth (Leung & Valdes, 2019).

Translanguaging first began as a practice that opposed the notion that bilingualism caused mental confusion in individuals (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). Current research emphasises the cognitive advantages of being bilingual. From the 20th century onwards, researchers started viewing bilingualism as an advantage as opposed to a disadvantage. They no longer saw it as causing mental confusion, but as benefitting dual-language capability (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). *Trawsieithu* was later translated into English as translanguaging by Baker (2001); it is the ability by bi/multilingual speakers to shift between languages by using their different languages to form an integrated system to 'make meaning, shape experiences and gain understanding' (Leung & Valdes, 2019: 359). The term was later defined as the 'deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages' (Otheguy, Garcia & Reid, 2015:283). This definition of translanguaging from Otheguy et al. (2015), allowed them to critique many of the monolingual language assessments and teaching practices that are not advantageous for bilingual learners worldwide.

Translanguaging, however, has not been without opposition. It is challenging for teachers who are steeped in monoglossic language ideologies to make the shift to translanguaging (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). Furthermore, schools often do not promote translanguaging (Duarte, 2019). Bilingual learners have also been schooled to think that only one language can be used at a time and, thereby, have developed monoglossic language ideologies (Leung & Valdes, 2019). However, many bi/multilingual learners use one language at home, and another at school and amongst their friends.

2.3 Translanguaging in South Africa

About 120 000 years ago, the Khoi and the San, being the first indigenous people, initiated the history of language in South Africa (Makalela, 2017). The second wave of linguistic migration was ushered in by the Bantu language speakers around 600 BC. Bantu is the largest language family in South Africa; where the speakers follow a system called Ubuntu or Botho, a value system of interconnectedness (Makalela, 2017). In pre-colonial South Africa, language systems coexisted alongside one another; there was also inward and outward mobility present between various ethnic and tribal communities. Multilingualism, before the commencement of Western colonialism, emphasised the notions of harmony and coexistence (Ned, 2019).

According to Mgijima and Makalela (2017), a one-language ideology is no longer sufficient to describe how communities in South Africa make sense of their complex world. Language plays an important role in a person's identity; therefore, linguistic diversity should be considered a vital part of society (Ridanpaa, 2018). The African worldview, with its deep sense of cultural and social understanding of oneness or family-hood, incorporates translanguaging practices that are similar to multilingualism. This connects to the concept of Ubuntu: 'I am because you are, you are because we are'. The study of Bantu languages shows an interconnectedness and dependency between two or more languages with one language seldom making sense without the other (Sefotho & Makalela, 2017).

Translanguaging, therefore, enhances the linguistic repertoires of speakers, especially in multilingual contexts such as South Africa (Mwaniki, 2016). The oneness ideology of Ubuntu results in a framework that represents the 11 official African languages as overlapping and destroying any rigid boundaries separating them (Makalela, 2017). This relates to the translanguaging notion that recognises that boundaries between languages do not exist (Ndlangamandla & Chaka, 2020). This realisation in turn leads to national unity, especially if people learn national languages in addition to their indigenous languages and lingua franca (Okal, 2014) and by embracing the Ubuntu values of togetherness.

Makalela (2018) has posed the question of why there is a gap between the South African school system and the communities' lived experiences. In his study, six community elders explained the ancient multilingual encounters and indigenous modes of knowing, which are still prevalent in modern-day South Africa. Participants revealed that translanguaging is a typical ancient African phenomenon and that using resources from different languages has always been an ancient African practice, passed from the ancestors to the progeny in the form of stories, art,

poetry, and dance. These communities prefer a communal approach, where all members of the community are involved in the learning and teaching process (Makalela, 2018). Consequently, there is a need for inclusive language education policies, as this will foster higher learning achievements, tolerance, and social cohesion amongst people in South Africa. Translanguaging as a language management strategy seeks to connect and enhance the linguistic repertoires of teachers and learners in South Africa (Mwaniki, 2016). With greater investment in bi/multilingual programmes, literacy and learning could improve education in South Africa (Charambo & Zano, 2019).

2.4 Advantages of bi/multilingualism in education and beyond

The term ‘multi’ refers to more than one; furthermore, both bilingualism and trilingualism (the ability to speak three languages) refer to speaking more than one language (Okal, 2014). As people use several languages, they become multilingual (Okal, 2014). In this study, bilingualism and multilingualism are used interchangeably as a term and refers to the same phenomenon of having the ability to speak more than one language. Garcia and Kleyn (2016) refer to the era we now live in as the ‘multilingual turn’, as most people are in the process of becoming multilingual. Therefore, bilingualism and multilingualism can be considered as the language possession of the individual (Baker, 2001). To some degree, between half and two-thirds of the world’s population, today is bilingual (UNESCO, 2003a); however, monolingualism is seen as the standard in education. The positive effects of bilingualism have come to the fore of research into the relationship between bilingualism and intelligence (Baker, 2001; Bryd, 2012; Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2020; Kroll & Dussias, 2017). Bilinguals have varied ways of thinking, particularly in being able to communicate sensitively and with metalinguistic awareness, as they possess divergent and creative thinking skills (Aluko, 2019; Baker, 2001; Diamond, 2010; Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2020).

According to Baker (2001), bilinguals may have some advantages over their monolingual counterparts due to their divergent thinking skills. The size of the total vocabulary across both languages is likely to be greater for bilingual children than that of their monolingual counterparts, who communicate in a single language. Mental flexibility, creativity, and elaboration in thinking can be increased by the use of two or more languages (Baker, 2001; Okal, 2014). The products of thinking, as opposed to the process, have become the recent trend in translanguaging research. An example of products of thinking would be how standardised testing favours those who are fluent in English and using the results of the test to measure the learner’s ability. The metalinguistic awareness of bilingual children has become the focus of

process research. Research indicates that the metalinguistic advantages of bilinguals are considerable; they are more aware of their language usage at an early age and they are more adept at reading (Budria & Swedberg, 2019). Metalinguistic awareness is defined as the ‘ability to think about and reflect upon the nature and functions of language’ (Baker, 2001:32).

Bilinguals are aware of which language to use in a specific situation and are constantly monitoring what is an appropriate response for the relevant situation (Bryd, 2012). In a social situation, most bilinguals have mastered the art of either avoiding ‘interference’ between their two languages or noting cues for when to switch between their two languages (Bryd, 2012). This results in them having sensitivity to the social nature and communicative functions of language (Baker, 2001). Bilingualism also enhances cognitive development as language learning is a valuable academic activity, a way of sharpening the mind and developing intelligence (Kroll & Dussias, 2017). With children coming from dual-language homes bilingualism is associated with academic success, they have an increased ability to complete linguistic (when learners use the target language to do meaningful tasks) and non-linguistic tasks (graphic representation tasks) (Kroll & Dussias, 2017).

When bi/multilingual learners are able to communicate in the language their parents speak, this often creates a closer relationship between them and their parents in which communication can take place freely (Kroll & Dussias, 2017). Human beings need an organised medium of communication in any given social context, and the main form of communication is language (Shava & Manyike, 2018). Many bilingual parents want their children to be able to speak multiple languages, as this helps in bridging the generation gap and in building relationships with the extended family (Okal, 2014; Song, 2016). Another communication advantage that biliterate bilinguals have is access to different literatures, with the consequent differing cultural traditions, ideas, ways of thinking, and behaving (Song, 2016). This also leads to biculturalism, where two cultures exist in one region (Flynn, Hoy, Lea & Garcia, 2019). Bi/multilingualism, therefore, strengthens cultural connections and enhances a sense of social belonging and psychological well-being in a world that is dominated by Western culture and cosmologies (Ned, 2019).

With bilingualism also comes the opportunity for a wider variety of careers or gaining promotion in a career (Aluko, 2019; Baker, 2001; Kroll & Dussias, 2017; Okal, 2014). The possibilities of immigrating to another country for work or becoming part of a team that is sent overseas reveal the potential economic advantages of bilingualism. In future, more jobs will

require bilingual or multilingual workers in a multilingual world. Furthermore, bilingualism helps to break down national, ethnic, and language stereotypes and increases intercultural sensitivity and awareness (Aluko, 2019).

Bilinguals who are exposed to two or more worlds have an improved understanding of people from various cultural backgrounds, and they have greater language awareness and sensitivity in communication (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Each language implies different systems of behaviours, storytelling, traditions, ways in which to greet one another, and conversations (Baker, 2001:254). This is related to how Okal (2014) describes African societies; knowing an indigenous language provides access to a vast pool of wisdom, knowledge, and skills that are included in the speaker and in the different languages they speak. It is, therefore, necessary to include indigenous languages in education to realise the benefits of integrating and conveying knowledge, which promotes a bi/multilingual society.

New evidence shows the transformative benefits of multilingualism to all learners and supports the benefits of maintaining the home languages (Kroll & Dussias, 2017). There have been academic arguments against the validity of research into the benefits of bi/multilingualism. However, the majority of research shows that there is a clear link between bilingualism and improved cognitive functioning. The evidence reveals that bi/multilinguals have many advantages over monolinguals (Budria & Swedberg, 2019), such as the ones mentioned above.

2.5 Translanguaging as pedagogy and sociolinguistic phenomenon

Translanguaging is a valuable pedagogical practice in settings where the LOLT differs from the learner's home language (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a; Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Nagy, 2018; Vogel & Garcia, 2017; Wei, 2017). Translanguaging as a pedagogy has the potential to liberate learners coming from backgrounds in which their home language is not considered as important, to normalise bi/multilingualism, and to bridge the gap between the hierarchy of language practices (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Hillman, Graham & Eslami, 2018; Turner & Lin, 2017). Part of the broader renewal of education is the multilingual turn, which includes the recognition of new multilingual practices and the introduction of translanguaging pedagogies (Gorter & Arocena, 2020). This involves teachers having to adapt to an ever changing world.

Pedagogical translanguaging refers to where two or more languages are integrated and used as a practice and pedagogic theory (Cenoz, 2017). It is a practice that has been purposefully designed by the teacher, where the learners' home language is used to develop the first

additional/second language so that new learning concepts can be better understood, resulting in proficiency in two languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020b). Therefore, advantages include maximising language understanding and performance in the home, in public, and at school. The original focus of translanguaging is the planned usage of two languages within the classroom; research shows that learners and teachers engage in many acts of spontaneous translanguaging in order to maximise understanding and performance (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b). Spontaneous translanguaging refers to instances where translanguaging spaces have emerged because of the unrehearsed and instinctive use of the learners' and teachers' linguistic repertoire in multilingual classrooms (Van Viegen, 2020). Since it takes place in everyday life and not just within the classroom, spontaneous translanguaging is considered the more universal form of translanguaging, where boundaries between languages are flexible and constantly changing (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). Van Viegen (2020) also defines this as instinctive translanguaging, which is the ability to merge all 'cognitive, sensory and modal' resources for communication.

Translanguaging is a practice in which multilingual speakers shift or move between languages, thereby utilising the various languages that form their linguistic repertoire as an amalgamated system (Canagarajah, 2011). In this case, translanguaging is a naturally occurring phenomenon for multilingual learners in that it is not limited to the classroom. It is also defined as the multiple conversational practices that bi/multilinguals engage in, in order to make sense of their world (Garcia & Wei, 2014); this definition also refers to translanguaging as a natural social process that occurs inside and outside the classroom (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a). These definitions illustrate that translanguaging can be seen as both a sociolinguistic phenomenon and pedagogical practice. The modalities of the dynamic linguistic repertoires of each global-local context affect how translanguaging may occur spontaneously or deliberately on a daily basis (Schissel, De Korne & López-Gopar, 2018). Spontaneous translanguaging should be accepted as a valid practice within classrooms, which in turn will allow bi/multilingual learners to participate more in the process of learning (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017).

Pedagogical translanguaging as proposed by Cen Williams is the concept that learners require full comprehension in their home language and that this prior linguistic knowledge needs to be activated when learning the second language (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a; Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020). In many cases, learners already have a rich multilingual repertoire, but it needs to be activated in order to be beneficial. Pedagogical translanguaging is part of lesson planning and is designed at the verbal, practical, and conversation levels; it can be implemented

within language classes and content classes such as History, Geography, and Science, including oral and written activities (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a). Developing multilingualism and multiliteracy is the goal of pedagogical translanguaging. Multiliteracy is an approach used to promote linguistic diversity and includes multiple methods and modes of instruction that go beyond just writing and speaking, and which include using movements, objects, visual cues, touch, sounds, and words in the classroom (Anstey & Bull, 2018).

There are many forms in which pedagogical translanguaging is able to take place, dependant on the learners, the curriculum, and the teachers originating from different contexts. What is important to consider is the curriculum; the curriculum comprises the subjects being taught, aims and objectives of lessons, assessment opportunities, and the languages being used for teaching and learning (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020b:3). The school curricula are seldom structured to take advantage of the rich linguistic and cultural repertoires that bilingual learners bring to school-based reading and writing (Bauer, Presiado & Colomer, 2017).

Pedagogical translanguaging is influenced by the teachers' background regarding language and the teacher training they have received. The teachers' perceptions regarding the use of spontaneous translanguaging with practices that have been planned and designed is another crucial factor (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a; Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020); teachers should respond flexibly to children's languaging practices (Machado & Gonzales, 2020). Crucial for pedagogical translanguaging is to incorporate what the learners already know and to design learning events that utilise resources from the whole linguistic repertoire of the learners that cross-linguistically addresses the learning of languages and the academic content (Machado & Gonzales, 2020). Learning may be influenced at the family level by a number of factors. These include the language spoken by the family in relation to the LOLT at school, the values held by the family concerning school achievement, and the cognitive and emotional support given at home for learning (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014: 48).

According to Cenoz and Santos (2020), many multilingual learners do not benefit from their multilingualism, as traditional teaching has kept their languages separate and isolated. They highlight the importance of looking at multilingual learners differently than at monolingual learners, as multilingual learners have rich linguistic trajectories. They also consider the need to look at the full linguistic repertoire of the learners and to establish collaborations between the different languages (Cenoz & Santos, 2020). This could be done by using the home language and LOLT alongside one another in the classroom and by allowing learners to answer

questions in any language they choose during classroom discussions or group work (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020). Instructions regarding assignments to ensure clarity or for disciplinary purposes may also be translanguaging practices used by teachers (Hillman, Graham & Eslami, 2018). Teachers are often under the incorrect impression that allowing learners to communicate in their home language will lead to negative consequences for learning. Another barrier to using translanguaging practices is the teacher's lack of proficiency in the learner's home language; a misguided belief among some teachers is that reducing a learner's dependence on the home language and increasing proficiency in the LOLT is more beneficial to learning (Duarte, 2019).

English is used as the LOLT in school and university curricula in most countries in the world today; it is used not only in the 'Outer Circle but also in the Expanding Circle' (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020b). The outer circle includes countries where English usage has a colonial history, such as Zimbabwe, Botswana, and South Africa. The expanding circle is where English has no colonial history and is not an official language but is used as a LOLT or communication, such as in South Korea, Japan, and China. For the reason that most people speak English, it is considered as one of the main languages associated with multilingualism. Subsequently, there is a decline in learning national languages due to the prestige that English has gained internationally, both for the workforce and for global communication (Duarte, 2019). There is also a traditional belief globally that British English (when English is the primary means of communication) should be regarded as the ultimate goal of English-language teaching (Liu & Fang, 2020).

Importantly, for many bi/multilingual speakers, English is one of the languages in their linguistic repertoire but not necessarily their first language (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a). If monolingualism is propagated; the learner's home language is undermined when it comes to language learning (Liu & Fang, 2020). This leads to the question of how English as a universal language should be taught and learnt. And how multilingual practices, such as translanguaging, should be recognised in order to facilitate English-language teaching (Liu & Fang, 2020).

Creese and Blackledge (2010) caution that developing pedagogies are often not generalisable to every context and should rather be adapted to specific contexts. The application of pedagogies depends on the sociocultural context that teachers and learners find themselves in, whether they come from a background defined by monolingual teaching methods, and whether they would be in favour of these practices in the classroom. For this reason, Gorter and Arocena (2020) have suggested ways in which translanguaging can be introduced into the existing

school pedagogy. Firstly, recent strategies that are arising in translanguaging in language teaching should be introduced in teacher training programmes. Translanguaging should be infused into the coursework on ‘language systems, language acquisition, and bilingualism’ in universities (Machado & Gonzales, 2020). Secondly, translanguaging as a practice needs to be introduced gradually and adapted to existing school programmes. Thirdly, for greater success in the implementation of translanguaging as a pedagogy, it has to be modified according to the specific teaching and learning context: the languages used in the wider social context and multilingual characteristics of the school should be considered.

Finally, pedagogical translanguaging is compatible with revitalisation efforts on behalf of minority languages, provided that certain principles are followed (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). In order to promote indigenous languages and to stop their disappearance, the United Nations declared 2019 as the International Year of Indigenous Languages (Assembly UG, 2019). There are over 7 000 languages in the world today, which are in danger of disappearing; consequently, it is important for minority language revitalisation to take place (UNESCO, 2001, 2020). Educational assessments should consider the impact of lingual factors on academic performance in the context of minority language renewal. Standardised assessments need to consider, either the LOLT or the level of minority language standardisation. These considerations will increase the number of people who speak the minority language and improve its status (Elosua, 2016). Translanguaging incorporates language and cultural references that are familiar to language-minoritised learners so that they are able to participate in the process of learning and not feel alienated (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Other reasons for minority language revitalisation are that languages foster cultural diversity and are considered cultural treasures to be passed on from one generation to the next, which lead to cultural and linguistic diversity (Elosua, 2016; UNESCO, 2001, 2020).

Translanguaging as a practice can be teacher-directed or learner-directed. The teachers’ active planning of translanguaging is also known as pedagogical translanguaging (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012b). The teacher scaffolds the translanguaging activity while offering translanguaging cues for bilinguals who are more proficient in the LOLT. Whereas learner-directed translanguaging activities are done autonomously by those who are proficient in two languages. When learners have a good mastery of both languages, the teacher needs to provide less support. Learners work autonomously and make their own decision on how to complete the activity (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b). Peer-group interaction is an example of this approach.

When teachers view the learners’ home language as an asset to build on, learners are in a better position to learn an additional language and to learn content in general (Baker, 2001). Teacher candidates and beginner teachers can internalise this by being trained to teach in a multilingual/multicultural environment, by teaching lessons through the learners’ home language, and by being provided with pedagogy that is adapted to the learners’ home language (UNESCO, 2003b). Lesson plans and other forms of pedagogic documents can be collected by teachers to help them reflect on whether they included planned or instinctive translanguaging practices (Van Viegen, 2020).

2.6 Different modes of translanguaging

According to Ebe (2016), translanguaging takes place across a variety of literacy modes – such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking. There are four main modes of translanguaging, which take place within the classroom. The teacher-to-learner translanguaging mode entails a teacher providing learners with a classroom activity that includes a translation into each learner’s home language, and then the teacher engages with the learners in a reading activity. The learner-to-learner interaction takes place where learners are grouped according to the home languages they speak and a discussion on the activity follows. Learners are provided with opportunities to translanguage between English and their home language. Learner-to-teacher or learner-to-class interaction entails that learners are asked to give feedback in a presentation and a classroom discussion unfolds, thus promoting an engaging classroom environment. Finally, a learner-to-self translanguaging interaction occurs during group discussions, where learners make individual notes in English on what they have discussed bilingually.

Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
1. Teacher-to-learner			
2. Learner-to-learner			
3. Learner-to-teacher or class			
4. Learner-to-self			

Figure 2.1 the different modes of translanguaging

Source: Ebe (2016)

Wei (2010) indicates that translinguaging is both moving between and beyond the different modes of speaking, writing, listening, and reading. Multilingual speakers combine all the structures and systems of their languages into one integrated performance, in order to communicate the beliefs, values, and ideas that they hold (Garcia & Wei, 2014). The act of translinguaging then creates a social space that is transformative; this space allows the multilingual language user to merge different dimensions of their ‘knowledge, personal histories, surroundings, values, views, their intellectual and physical capacity into one coordinated and expressive performance’ and turning this performance into a lived experience (Wei, 2010: 2). Wei (2017) calls this the ‘translinguaging space’: a space for the act of translinguaging as well as a space created through translinguaging.

2.7 Learners’ perceptions of translinguaging

Being taught in one’s home language can increase literacy development in multilingual learners. It enhances their personal and ethnic identity, character development, and cognitive improvement (Torpsten, 2018). Both the environment and the learners’ attitude regarding language are crucial to language learning (Fallas Escobar, 2019). A favourable situation is where teachers plan lessons based on translinguaging and learners are included in the class’ teaching community (Fallas Escobar, 2019; Torpsten, 2018). To explore this, settings that openly acknowledge learners’ flexible use of language should be investigated (Bauer, Presiado & Colomer, 2017). Learners translanguage to co-construct meaning, to include others, and to mediate understanding, which enable language acquisition (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b).

By embracing translinguaging, teachers allow children to draw from their entire linguistic repertoire, instead of just a small part of it (Flynn et al., 2019). Translinguaging answers the question of differentiation: how to encourage the participation of all learners from diverse language backgrounds and with differing English abilities. Translinguaging is what makes the diversity of the classroom its most valuable asset to learning (Woodley, 2016). Children who are bilingual translanguage all the time, by shifting between formal and informal language and also between academic and home language (Flynn et al., 2019). Translinguaging learning strategies include peer group activities by having those who speak the same language complete a task together; it encourages support from one’s family by the reading of books in the learner’s home language (Song, 2016). When bilingual learners are burdened by language ideologies that value monolingualism, they too often experience linguistic shame (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b). Learners feel ‘emotional disempowerment’ when they are told to stop using their home

language (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). Instead, they should be taught to view their multilingualism as a resource (Kleyn, 2016).

What also needs to be taken into consideration are the attitudes or perceptions that learners have towards languages; learners may view languages as separate entities and may consider a language such as English to be superior and more beneficial, especially in professional work (Rivera & Mazak, 2017). These learners might not appreciate translanguaging practices within the classroom no matter how beneficial they are (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020). The age at which a child learns a second language, motivation for learning, previous knowledge, and personality variables all influence second-language acquisition and learning (Baker, 2001).

In a study by Nagy (2018), conducted in a Hungarian school, a reading comprehension exercise was given in the English-language classroom to find out whether learners were in favour of Hungarian being used alongside English. Learners struggling with English were in favour of this exercise while those more proficient in English found it to be less useful. The learners agreed that only Hungarian should be used when they are not able to remember a word or do not understand a concept. The learners coming from a background of monolingual teaching methods agreed that English should remain as the LOLT (Nagy, 2018).

The converse was found in studies conducted in complementary schools. Creese & Blackledge (2010, 2015) conducted studies at complementary Indian schools, which included Gujarati and Punjabi, and among Chinese communities in the UK. The Gujarati school conducted assemblies using both Gujarati and English. Both languages were used simultaneously in order to convey meaning to the learners and teachers; the use of these two languages was a resource for all members of the school as everyone felt included (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). At a Chinese school, the teacher taught a folk story to her learners in the Mandarin classroom and used both English and Mandarin to assist her learners to make sense of the story; the teacher used bilingualism in order to promote interaction among learners, to pace her teaching and to accomplish the lesson outcomes. In the Punjabi classroom, teachers communicated using both English and Punjabi and adapted their level of use of Punjabi according to the learners' proficiency; this helped learners to recognise that bilingualism is an acceptable classroom practice (Creese & Blackledge, 2015). In these case studies of complementary schools, the two languages complemented one another, and both were required in order to make meaning and enhance understanding. Teaching methods were used, which did not confine learners to monolingual teaching activities.

In Torpsten's (2018) study in a Swedish multilingual classroom, immigrant children were encouraged to use their home language alongside the LOLT, which is Swedish. Learners within this study were grouped according to the languages they spoke; they were then encouraged to complete the writing activity in both Swedish and their home language. It was found that the simultaneous use of various languages within the classroom led to a deeper understanding of the content that was being taught. The teacher and her learners expressed value in learning from their classmates, which in turn embraced multilingualism.

Woodley (2016) conducted a case study at an elementary school in a linguistically diverse neighbourhood in New York City (NYC), where the school itself had embraced multilingualism. Learners in the classroom practised multimodal forms of learning. Reading texts in print and online texts were available to them in multiple languages; they also viewed and listened to multilingual videos. The learners and teachers acknowledged that diversity could be nurtured through translanguaging. During the lesson in this classroom, essential questions for the activity were translated into four languages on the whiteboard to facilitate multilingual turn-and-talks. The teacher scaffolded the lesson and allowed opportunities for 'think-pair-share', and small group interaction that was followed by autonomous practice. By having discussions with their classmates on a particular topic, learners were able to draw on knowledge from the experiences of their classmates. This back-and-forth between whole class discussions and small group work provides multiple spaces for translanguaging. Learners within this class expressed the value of learning from classmates.

Similar results were obtained in a study by Duarte (2019), who found that peer talk interactions allow learners to use their full linguistic repertoires. For multilingual learners, translanguaging comes as a natural process, which often plays a central role in learning through collaborative talk and in enhancing developmental processes during peer interaction. Learners move between languages in the classroom and on the playground. Translanguaging was used in this study by grouping learners together in similar home languages, where learners negotiate meaning and jointly solved classroom tasks through scaffolding.

It is evident from the above case studies (with possibly one exception), that when teachers allowed for a 'translanguaging space' to occur within their classrooms, more engagement took place and learners were more actively involved in the learning process instead of merely being passive recipients of knowledge. In this space, learners were more accepting of others and acknowledged that diversity is something to build on.

2.8 Teachers' perceptions of translanguaging

A teacher's perceptions are the thoughts or mental images he or she has about his or her learners (Yuvayapan, 2019). This is shaped by the teacher's background knowledge and life experiences; these experiences include family traditions, education, work, and culture (Gorter & Arocena, 2020). Teachers, just like any other individual, hold common beliefs about culture, political affairs, the environment, and other social matters. However, in educational research, more common beliefs are not usually considered or included in the notion of 'teachers' beliefs' (Yuvayapan, 2019). An additional notion is that a teacher's beliefs regarding pedagogical decisions are often resistant to change. A teacher in a linguistically diverse classroom should be willing to be a co-learner by learning from their students (Kleyn & Garcia, 2019). Teachers of multilingual learners need to recognise their individual and professional 'ideological points of view, approaches, and values' and to reflect on how these influence their teaching practices; once teachers become aware of these ideologies; they should be able to change ingrained negative perceptions, such as viewing the learner's home language as a burden and not as a resource (Gorter & Arocena, 2020).

Holdway and Hitchcock (2018) conducted a study to make teachers aware of the ideologies that they hold. The notion of becoming aware of the ideologies that one holds is known as 'ideological becoming'. This refers to the way people develop their views of the world and how ideas are formed. Ideological becoming should help teachers become aware of how their belief systems uncritically reflect those of the dominant society and thus maintain unequal classroom practices (Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018). Unequal classroom practices that stem from a teacher's attitude and ideologies will have a damaging impact on the education of linguistically diverse learners (Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018).

According to Yuvayapan (2019), there are few studies that investigate the beliefs about multilingualism that language teachers hold. It is important for bilingual teachers to recognise the importance and value of translanguaging practices (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b). Teachers who are in favour of translanguaging build on the linguistic and cultural resources of their learners' by incorporating multiple languages. The purposeful use of multiple languages is the main point to be stressed here (Yuvayapan, 2019). Monolingual teachers or teachers whose home languages differ from those of their learners can still support translanguaging (Flynn et al., 2019). According to Baker (2001), an effective teacher facilitates second-language learning by ensuring a close match between the way language is delivered and how it is understood. Teaching must prepare the learner for real-life communication situations and

the classroom should enhance conversational confidence so that the learner copes linguistically and continues with language learning in the outside world.

In case studies done internationally, due to be influenced by the effectiveness of a one language ideology, bilingual teachers hide the fact that they translanguage from colleagues and administrators (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020). Yet in order for them to teach effectively in multilingual classrooms, they must translanguage (Kleyn, 2016; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b). More teachers in the United States and globally are beginning to consider that having the ability to communicate in more than one language has academic advantages that lead to bilingualism, biculturalism, and biliteracy (Flynn et al., 2019). What is also worth noting in a case study conducted by Woodley (2016) in the United States is that teachers who invest in translanguaging face discrimination within as well as outside their school community. However, the way a teacher sets the stage for translanguaging within the classroom creates a space in which learners take the lead in the process of learning (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020). A transformative stance on translanguaging holds that using a child's full linguistic repertoire transforms the monolingual language hierarchies in schools. This transformative stance by teachers restores the power of language to the communities and to the bilingual learners that they teach (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016).

In order to achieve transformation, Gorter and Arocena (2020) carried out an interventionist strategy at a primary school in the Basque Country (Spain). They investigated teachers' beliefs about multilingualism in a university course on translanguaging. The teachers then had to apply aspects of pedagogical translanguaging that they had learnt throughout the course within their classrooms. The aim of this intervention was for learners to develop competence in three languages: Basque, Spanish, and English, for academic and communicative purposes. The teachers who participated in this study saw how using a multilingual approach improved the knowledge, skills, and abilities of their learners. The teachers stated that they would apply what was taught at the course within their classrooms. This study shows that a course on translanguaging can change in-service teachers' perceptions of multilingualism. Teachers in the study were relieved when they were encouraged to use the translanguaging practices they had already been using but were afraid to admit to others. The study indicates that positive beliefs about translanguaging can be put into practice; however, there are still many obstacles set in place by mainstream education, which holds to monolingualism.

A study in Turkey revealed that translanguaging was not a regular practice in the English First Additional Language classrooms (Yuvayapan, 2019). A perception that the participating teachers held was that the use of the home language (Turkish) in the classroom limits learners' autonomy and competence in English (LOLT). Teachers only wanted to use the home language for low-achieving learners and viewed this practice as unfortunate. When learners asked questions in Turkish, the teachers in this study often ignored them until they switched over to English. The school policy also did not allow teachers to use Turkish in their classes, nor was it considered an appropriate way of teaching English. Language policies set in place at the participating schools prescribed a monolingual approach based on English. With language policies being set in place that considered translanguaging as an unacceptable practice, teachers within this study did not feel comfortable with using two languages. Teachers held optimistic views towards Turkish and used it in their classrooms. However, with pressure to use only English, they did not mention the use of translanguaging in their classrooms to their colleagues, as it was not embraced by them.

Al-Bataineh and Gallagher (2018) examined how pre-service bilingual teachers perceived Arabic/English translanguaging when it was openly taught and practised in a storybook writing task within a Children's Literature course at a bilingual university in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). The use of two languages to support teaching is considered an unacceptable practice in the UAE. Participants use their local language (Emirati Arabic) in their everyday exchange with family and friends but use Modern Standard Arabic in educational and other formal settings. Participants within this study had inconsistent and uncertain views with regards to translanguaging. Many participating teachers recognised that translanguaging has the ability to develop bilingualism. However, they were opposed to approaches that used more than one language within the classroom. They were also discouraged as their colleagues perceived translanguaging as an unacceptable practice. The rejection was not directed towards translanguaging but rather the simultaneous use of two languages: English was preferred as the LOLT. Despite the reluctance expressed by the pre-service teachers, the writing process and the quality of the subsequent storybooks suggest that translanguaging has pedagogical benefits in the training of pre-service teachers as it fosters ingenuity in individuals.

Schissel, De Korne and López-Gopar (2018) conducted an action research case study with language teachers in the linguistically and culturally diverse state of Oaxaca, Mexico. The aim of this study was to consider the teachers' perceptions of developing new assessment approaches that cater to linguistically diverse classrooms. The main tension was that teachers

held positive views towards translanguaging, however, their responses differed in the role that translanguaging should play when it comes to learning and assessment. The participants viewed using Spanish in the English classrooms as a pedagogical failure; the teachers were concerned that if the learners did not achieve fluency in English, they would not succeed in standardised tests conducted in English. For some teachers, the lack of encouragement for translanguaging practices from co-workers undermined their interest in applying this approach; this was also evident in the case studies by Yuvayapan (2019) and Al-Bataineh and Gallagher (2018).

Ebe (2016) conducted a case study on how a monolingual English teacher engaged her learners by using translanguaging in a linguistically diverse area in NYC. The teacher had purposefully planned for translanguaging by reading a culturally relevant novel to the pupils in her classroom. The novel, written by an immigrant author who, in turn, uses translanguaging as a literary device, was culturally relevant to the immigrant pupils within the classroom, some of whom came from war-torn countries. Research supports the benefits of providing culturally relevant texts to learners, especially for reading comprehension (Ebe, 2016; McNeil, 2011; UNESCO, 2003b). In this lesson, translanguaging was used as a scaffold for learning and as a transformative practice. The teacher in this study tailored the curriculum by building on the backgrounds, knowledge, and strengths that the learners brought to the classroom. Learners were given translations of the activity in their home languages; they then engaged in discussions that flowed between English and their home languages; these activities enhanced a linguistically diverse classroom. Learners within this classroom were also encouraged to discuss homework with their parents in their home languages. The teacher in the study stressed that any teacher could do this and that it was not necessary to know the learners' home languages in order to engage the class in translanguaging. This type of instruction may seem like a lot of work but the teacher in the study found it helpful as learners were more engaged during these activities. The learners also felt accepted when hearing a variety of languages during class sessions and became more linguistically accommodating towards others.

The above case studies by Ebe (2016) and Woodley (where the learner's read texts in multiple languages, thus embracing linguistic diversity) (2016) are part of the CUNY-New York State Initiative on Emergent Bilinguals (CUNY-NYSIEB), which is an education project that aims to shape people's understanding of translanguaging theory and how it can be put into practice. The theory of translanguaging holds to the notion that all speakers have a singular linguistic repertoire; the theory emphasises that there is one language system and one grammar from which language speakers select the features they need in their interactions. Hamman-Ortiz

(2020) encourages teachers to use the resources and examples of translanguaging pedagogies that are made available by CUNY-NYSIEB. Projects such as these give teachers a clearer indication of how to implement translanguaging strategies. It confirms that a teacher does not need to speak the home language of the learner in order to implement translanguaging strategies. Additionally, it demonstrates how teaching and learning can be improved through implementing these strategies.

In order for teachers to make translanguaging a natural part of their practices, it must become an embedded component of their teacher education programmes, such as the project described above. In this way, teachers would enter their classrooms from day one with a solid foundation regarding the importance of including all learners' home language practices in their teaching and an understanding of how to do this (Machado & Gonzales, 2020). Presenting translanguaging tasks thoughtfully and carefully and developing a friendly relationship with learners are important factors to consider. Teachers should focus on learners' strengths by highlighting what they are able to do and have empathy with their weaknesses. As Wei (2017) says, teachers should rather adopt the role of a facilitator rather than that of an authority figure, to ensure that learners do not become anxious or wary in language learning. When a learner is relaxed and confident there will be increased engagement within the classroom (Blackledge & Creese, 2010).

What seems to be a common theme in the above case studies is that there is a willingness by teachers to embrace translingual practices. However, there are limitations that teachers face regarding the implementation of translanguaging practices (Liu & Fang, 2020). The problems faced are institutional language policy (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020), a lack of direction on how translanguaging can be implemented, and their monoglossic language ideologies. Teachers also have expectations of apparent dangers, such as an overreliance on the home language by learners or the loss of community language and identity (Liu & Fang, 2020:4). In addition, opposition from colleagues creates tension in many teachers' perceptions of translanguaging. Hence, it is important to conduct further studies on teachers' perceptions of translanguaging and to recognise its importance.

2.9 Benefits of Translanguaging

There are many inconsistent perceptions held by teachers on translanguaging. Lewis, Jones, and Baker (2012a) want teachers to consider that translanguaging has many benefits within and outside the classroom. Firstly, it helps learners to gain a deeper understanding of the subject

matter. It is possible for a learner to answer questions in a test and to write an essay but not fully understand the subject content. Sentences and paragraphs can be copied verbatim from a book or the board and, subsequently, processing for meaning does not take place. Crucially, translanguaging counters rote learning as reading and discussion of a topic take place in one language, whereas writing is done in another. This implies that teachers allow learners to use both languages in a ‘planned, developmental, and strategic manner’ (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012), to maximise their linguistic and cognitive ability.

Secondly, translanguaging may help learners to develop competence (oral communication and literacy) in their weaker language, as it may prevent them from undertaking the main part of their work through the stronger language while attempting less challenging tasks in their weaker language (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). In order for learners to develop skills in both the home language and second additional language, they should be afforded the opportunity to perform tasks at school in their home language (Garcia & Wei, 2014). This could result in greater competence and confidence in the second additional language (Garcia & Wei, 2014). The goal is to develop academic language skills in both languages, which leads to bilingualism and biliteracy.

Thirdly, translanguaging may foster home-school links and co-operation if the learner is educated in a language he/she does not speak at home (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). In the study by Ebe (2016), the teacher asked learners to write poems that contained their home languages and English. The teachers asked her learners to share their poems with their families, in order that family members could assist them with home-language vocabulary, and to determine if their families had additional ideas to add. In another study conducted by Song (2016), Korean immigrant parents made a purposeful effort to develop bilingualism and biliteracy in their children. Translation was a collaborative process as the parents and the children within this study engaged in translating English texts or phrases into Korean, to clarify and negotiate meaning when discussing schoolwork. In both these studies, translanguaging allowed learning in the LOLT to expand, extend, and intensify in school through discussions with parents in the home language.

Finally, another advantage of translanguaging is the classroom integration of learners who are fluent first-language speakers with those who have just begun to learn a new language; this develops a learner’s minority language, be it their first or second language (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). Language does not only play an instrumental or communicative role but also

plays a role in the construction of human identities (Ridanpaa, 2018). Whenever a language dies, the world will lose an important aspect of the sum of human knowledge.

2.10 Multilingualism in Africa

Multilingual speakers in Africa acquire their verbal repertoires naturally through personal contact (Lüpke, 2015). This process takes place in both pre-adolescent learners and adults. These contacts include encounters with other language speakers on trade routes between regions within the same country or across national borders (Bokamba, 2015; Lüpke, 2015). This also takes place among those migrating to urban centres for employment opportunities, especially in the mining and farming sectors, and in the civil and military services (Bokamba, 2015). Language plays a major role in multilingual education; it is the manner in which communication takes place within a classroom (Desai, 2016). It also serves as an expression of learner identity. When learners are able to use their home language, they feel comfortable and there is a sense of empowerment (Kiramba, 2015). Language education is emphasised as the main point of discussion in educational research, especially in relation to language (Ebongue & Hurst, 2019). Language is seen as the most important single factor shaping a person's life (Desai, 2016). It affects individuals' educational levels that are linked to employment opportunities, how much money they earn, their social standing, and the communication networks they are exposed to throughout their lives (Dlamini, 2008; Ebongue & Hurst, 2019).

Africa is a recognised hotspot of linguistic diversity (Lüpke, 2015). Despite the documented advantages of multilingual education programmes, foreign and former colonial languages are still being used as languages of instruction from primary school onwards (Heugh, 2017; Kiramba, 2015). This often takes place to the detriment of indigenous languages (Dlamini, 2008). While this phenomenon is not unique to the African context, it is especially a challenge in Africa as many countries still experience the negative impact of their colonial political histories and continued commercial exploitation by the West (Brock-Utne, 2018).

In the context of social mobility, the average African uses a range of languages: a home language, a community language, and a sub-regional language (Bokamba, 2015). In South Africa and many other parts of Africa, most language policy decisions have been based on political and socioeconomic factors, instead of educational dynamics (Probyn, 2001). Banda (2018) and Makalela (2018) indicate that in traditional African societies, people relocated from one region to another in search of land for farming and grazing of livestock, for trade, and

because of wars of conquest. This nomadic way of life has led to different languages being interchanged with one another. Consequently, multilingualism is not something new in the African context. African speakers are complex multilingual users of language, who are socially sensitive to others. Multilinguals can adapt to different social situations, which require them to act as monolinguals, by mimicking the different identities of strangers whose languages they are familiar with (Makalela, 2013). This process has been ongoing, even before the arrival of Europeans on the continent.

Indigenous African languages in South Africa are divided into four clusters on the basis of perceived linguistic and cultural differences (Makalela, 2015b). The Nguni languages consist of isiXhosa, isiZulu, isiNdebele, and siSwati. The Sotho cluster derives from Sepedi, Setswana, and Sesotho. The other two clusters include Tshivenda and isiTsonga. The fifth language cluster includes the European languages, English, and Afrikaans. The four indigenous language clusters share similarities in the meaning of words, which allow speakers to move from one language to the next. These language clusters that were separated by the Apartheid system, have now come into closer contact with one another. The concept of different language clusters was created by Western missionaries in the past. A more practical way forward for South Africa would be to merge these languages instead of continuing with the boundaries created by the colonial and Apartheid eras (Sefotho & Makalela 2017).

Many in Africa do not distinguish between first, second, or third language, because they grow up learning and using these as an integrated linguistic repertoire (Fawole & Pillay, 2019). Within African contexts, multiple languages are acquired at the same time in an informal and non-sequential manner. Conversely, in the West, the notion is that a second language is acquired by elite members of society who are already proficient in one language (Banda, 2018). Therefore, the notion of having a first, second, and third additional language is foreign to Africans and does not make sociolinguistic sense, especially when it comes to the way language is used within the African context (Banda, 2018). Multilingual learners in South Africa will study an African language at school as a home language when in reality another African language is spoken at home (Guzula, McKinney & Tyler, 2016). Due to the fact that several African languages are used interchangeably throughout their everyday lives, they instead have a dominant language and not a home language (Maseko & Mkhize, 2019).

2.11 Ubuntu education

Etieyibo (2017) has pondered what the world would look like if the values of the African cultural worldview or Ubuntu were embraced as a vital part of Africa's revitalisation after colonial rule, or as Africa's contribution to help heal a fragmented world. Within African societies, knowledge is socially and experientially grounded rather than as a result of merely learning facts. Julius Nyerere (1968), a Tanzanian politician, articulated the concept of Ujamaa, which is the principle of African communalism or Ubuntu. Like Ubuntu, ujamaa also denotes 'sharing, friendship, and a feeling of familyhood' (Brock-Utne, 2016). Ubuntu highlights the essential unity of humanity and emphasises the principles of compassion, sharing, and collaboration in a community's effort to solve common problems, Ubuntu is the basis of African philosophy (Brock-Utne, 2016; Oviawe, 2016).

Pre-colonial Ubuntu-society in Africa did not conduct formal schooling, except in the form of 'initiation', which took and still takes place in certain communities; initiation is a process during which young people undergo a fundamental set of rites to start a new social phase or to mark the beginning of adult life (Brock-Utne, 2018). This process taught them skills and duties such as working on farms and how one was expected to behave as a member of society (Brock-Utne, 2018). Education was an informal process and every adult was a teacher who passed on knowledge to the younger generation (Oviawe, 2016). The lack of formal education is not an indication that teaching and learning were not taking place, or that it was not an important characteristic of these communities. Education was more directly relevant to the society in which the child was growing up (Brock-Utne, 2018). This lack of formality in education, where knowledge is passed down from one generation to the next, is known as indigenous education.

The African saying, 'It takes a village to raise a child', emphasises the importance of how in African societies the socialisation and education of children stem from a communal perspective (Ned, 2019). The community acts as the principal educator; collectively, members of society such as elders have the task of imparting wisdom, knowledge, and skills onto the younger generation (Schwinge, 2017). In African communities, one's mother and other adults who are members of one's family unit teach children to count and to appreciate the intricacies of the home language through folk tales, riddles, games, and storytelling (Ned, 2019). Indigenous languages in Africa are known for their richness in folk tales, riddles, music, singing, games, stories, rhymes, and dance, and these make practising communication and social skills more meaningful and enjoyable to the child during early childhood education (Ndungo & Mwangi, 2014; Shava & Manyike, 2018).

Good mannerisms are more effectively taught to children through stories, proverbs, and riddles that are narrated in their home language (Ndungo & Mwangi, 2014). In the home, a holistic approach to education is taken where the mother or caregiver is the primary educator and uses folk tales as a method of teaching her children (Ned, 2019). Therefore, indigenous education prepares learners for their adult responsibilities at home (Schwinge, 2017). This also aids in preparing learners for life in the community as opposed to life outside the community. Crucially, indigenous education is not centred on facts but on becoming a valuable member of society by taking all aspects of community life into consideration (Ned, 2019).

The goal of Ubuntu education or indigenous education has been to develop creativity and critical thinking. In Ubuntu communities, creative and critical thinking are developed through having children participate in activities that involve story telling in which they reflect on right or wrong behaviour (Etieyibo, 2017). Folk tales allow children not only to engage with the characters in the stories but also to be able to relate with them. Other activities include the use of proverbs and riddles, which serve as incentives to expand on the critical and imaginative capabilities of children. Riddles, in particular, develop and sharpen the reasoning skills of children in searching for solutions (Etieyibo, 2017).

Before colonialism, community education was a vital component of African societies (Brock-Utne, 2018). A pedagogy and curriculum centred on the philosophy of Ubuntu would help in combatting the long-standing ill effects of colonialism in Africa (Oviawe, 2016). Indigenous languages and related indigenous knowledge are an essential component of the identity of indigenous peoples (Shava & Manyike, 2018). Despite the value of indigenous education, African scholars today are still met with opposition when they attempt to develop or restore their own systems of knowledge and their own languages (Dlamini, 2008). Globally, English is fast replacing local languages, even in domains such as the home; there is evidence that learners should be encouraged to use the mother tongue at home, as it is generally transmitted onto environments outside of the home (UNESCO 1953, 2003b).

According to Heugh (2017), there is a need to preserve community and local involvement in education; when schools are removed from centralised education authorities, local communities are more likely to get involved. This move entails offering stronger support for developing the indigenous languages for use in education (Heugh, 2017). With local knowledge becoming a part of the school curriculum, learners will feel a sense of pride in their indigenous languages and their cultural heritage (Schwinge, 2017).

2.12 Dominance of English

‘Language ideologies and practices’ have been a topic of investigation in African sociolinguistics since the continent liberated itself from European colonial rule from the 1950s (Ebongue & Hurst, 2019). The literature on this topic has questioned the continued dominance of former colonial languages (English, French, Portuguese, and Spanish), especially in the educational system (Ebongue & Hurst, 2019; Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2020; Mqgqwashu, 2009). Countries that had been under British, Belgian, and German rule favoured the use of African languages as the LOLT during the first three to four years of education. Subsequently, they have had a tradition of mother-tongue education (Djite, 2008). The issue of language(s) spoken in the former colonies or regions has preoccupied scholars, researchers, and politicians, as well as other stakeholders (Ndungo & Mwangi, 2014). The colonial imposition of foreign languages on Africans was viewed as the solution to the problem of the multiplicity of languages, which existed and still exists in Africa today (Ndungo & Mwangi, 2014). Bi/multilingualism was seen as a disadvantage, causing mental confusion in individuals.

African countries, as colonies and even as independent countries, were defined and defined themselves in terms of the languages of Europe: Anglophone, Francophone, or Lusophone (Brock-Utne, 2016). Using English, French, or Portuguese as a LOLT requires an acceptable level of competence in the language. Previously colonised African countries still use these colonial languages due to the cost effectiveness of an already established LOLT, thus endorsing these languages as languages for development (Dlamini, 2008) When teachers are not proficient in English and are required to teach in English, the results are damaging to the subject and English-language learners (Guzula, McKinney & Tyler, 2016; Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2020). Learners develop a feeling of inadequacy, and they resort to the memorisation of phrases to pass; they spend most of their time listening to the teacher, memorising lessons for the tests instead of trying to understand the relevance or the meaning of what they learn (Kiramba, 2015).

Probyn (2001) also echoes this sentiment in her study on high school teachers’ reflections of teaching English as a second language in South Africa. Teachers in the study indicated that the high school learners in Grades 8 and 9 were passive recipients of knowledge, rather than meaningfully engaging with the content. Often in this case we see that the LOLT becomes a barrier to learning, where constructivist notions of teaching through collaboration are severely constrained (Mwinda & van der Walt, 2015). The lack of training in teaching English as a LOLT is one of the downfalls of teacher training institutions in developing countries. This is

also the case in South Africa and other African countries. Academics and researchers have argued the need for teachers to be better equipped at their training institutions to deal with the demands of teaching through the medium of a second language (Mwinda & van der Walt, 2015). Pre-service training of teachers on how to facilitate second-language education is not adequate in many African countries (Ndungo & Mwangi, 2014).

The use of the home language as a first language enhances interaction within the classroom (Ndungo & Mwangi, 2014). It allows learners to participate in classroom activities by responding to instructions (receptive language) and answering questions (expressive language) (Ndungo & Mwangi, 2014). Despite all the available evidence on the inefficiency of education in a European language in African schools, there are practical impediments to effecting change relating to mother-tongue education: many Africans are still of the opinion that no meaningful education is possible in their home languages beyond the early years of primary education (Djite, 2008). This is exacerbated by parents in Anglophone African countries who prefer that their children be taught in English as the LOLT (Brock-Utne, 2017). There is also a misconception that having English as the LOLT is the best way to learn English.

Some researchers hold that Western schooling destroys the communal nature of African indigenous education (Brock-Utne, 2016). Western knowledge insists on being superior and universal, it lacks the holistic nature and approach of indigenous ways of knowing and knowledge production (Ned, 2019). Western science regards all other knowledge systems as being unscientific, Western languages symbolise power in the political sphere and knowledge in academic fields (Shava & Manyike, 2018). Colonialism has had a lasting impact by undermining, degrading, and excluding indigenous languages from core social, economic, educational, and political domains. Western education also denies indigenous learners the opportunity of bringing their own indigenous knowledge and experiences into the classroom. This has contributed significantly to the erosion of the value of indigenous knowledge and indigenous learners forgetting their unique heritage and losing pride in their indigenous identity (Shava & Manyike, 2018).

English and other colonial languages are rarely accessible to children in rural areas in east, west, and sub-Saharan Africa (Bokamba, 2015). Learners are only able to access the colonial language at school; this has a detrimental effect on their becoming proficient in the LOLT (Bokamba, 2015; Sibanda, 2017). Children learn better when they understand what the teacher

says and academics should foreground the misconceptions the general population has about English language dominance in education (Brock-Utne, 2017; Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2020).

2.13 Language, pedagogy, and theory

Evidence reveals that learners learn better in their first languages and this encourages critical thinking (Kiramba, 2015). However, recitation is the pedagogical style prevalent in most schools in Africa; learners often repeat what is said by the teacher without engaging in any questions or reflection on content (Kiramba, 2015). Passive learners and their participation are limited to choral responses and recall questions; this type of learning style is cognitively undemanding and does not produce learners who are able to engage at a high conceptual level. The child, instead, becomes a passive recipient of educational knowledge (Guzula, McKinney & Tyler, 2016). These behaviourist pedagogical styles are informed by the language proficiency of the learners and the teachers, and the school language policy (Krause & Prinsloo, 2016). An educationally relevant approach to language should consider the child's own linguistic experience. Translanguaging as a theory and practice is relatable to the African context as it considers the child's entire linguistic repertoire and views it as a resource that the child brings to the classroom (Childs, 2016; Heugh, 2015; Krause & Prinsloo, 2016; Makalela, 2015b).

Most learners in sub-Saharan Africa are taught through English as the LOLT, in spite of the fact that many of these regions are linguistically diverse. In addition to the debate on whether Western languages should be used as the languages of instruction in African countries, is the debate of whether Western theories are applicable to the African context (Brock-Utne, 2018). One such theory would be that of Cummins (1979); his research focused on teachers and immigrant learners within a first-world context. He drew a distinction between basic interpersonal communications skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), in order to help teachers, understand the timeline and challenges immigrant learners face as they catch up with their peers in relation to academics and learning a new language (Cummins, 2000).

Cummins (1999) posited that BICS involves nonverbal communication that includes gestures, facial expressions, and physical cues. This kind of everyday conversational language can generally be acquired in two years. On the other hand, CALP occurs when what is being taught is removed from its context, thus necessitating higher-order thinking for the curriculum to be understood (e.g., analysis, synthesis, evaluation). The more complex language abilities that

CALP requires would take at least five to seven years to develop (Cummins, 1999). Where language is disconnected, the situation is referred to as ‘context reduced’. According to Baker (2001), this theory has been influential and valuable for educational policy and practice. However, it was never intended to be universally contextual: the theory was typically applied to immigrant children learning a second language in a first-world context, (Cummins, 1999). However, one still needs to take into consideration that this theory is often applied to a non-Western context.

Regarding the immigrant populations with whom Cummins’s research was carried out, the participants spoke a language at home, which was not the LOLT in the schools. They were, however, still able to learn the LOLT since they were surrounded by it in their day-to-day lives. The context in which many learners in South Africa acquire English differs from immigrant children in Canada (Desai, 2016). Brock-Utne (2018) indicates that the children living in Khaylitsha, an informal settlement on the outskirts of Cape Town, are not exposed to English at home. Their parents, teachers, friends, and peers at school all speak isiXhosa. Similarly, children in Tanzania do not hear English in their immediate surroundings. Depending on the school language policies in place, learners within such contexts only hear English, which is a foreign language to them, at school. Conversely, in their regular everyday surroundings, they hear many indigenous languages. In African societies, learners are expected to acquire CALP in a language (mainly English, French, Portuguese, and Swahili in many East African countries) in which they do not have BICS. Crucially, BICS and CALP were developed for a first-language speaking context (such as countries in the West), where the learners have developed the language on BICS level as tacit knowledge (knowledge garnered from personal experience and context) to support CALP.

Both learners’ home language and the first additional language should be developed on CALP level, as CALP is characteristic of the language of schooling. Whether South African learners develop their home language and first additional language on CALP level by the end of Grade 3 is questionable (Sibanda, 2018). Second-language learners, after three or four years of schooling, are expected to develop competence that is at the same level as that of first language speakers. However, the latter group of first-language speakers would have had five to seven years to achieve that level of proficiency (Sibanda, 2018). This discrepancy has not been adequately considered by language policy makers. Learners enter the school system in South Africa without having mastered their home language; this puts further strain on their ability to master the LOLT (Leask, 2019). Policy makers assume incorrectly that reading ability and

foundational literacy have already developed in the home language when a learner enters Grade 4 (Sibanda, 2018).

Multilingualism represents diversity, the richness of cultural heritages, centuries of accumulated wisdom, and opportunities to learn to live harmoniously with people of other or related cultures through sustained cross-language contacts (Bokamba, 2015). When multilingualism is not promoted, the outcomes may be a sense of isolation, an inability to develop meaningful and lasting social relationships, an inability to competently negotiate a variety of social transactions requiring indigenous languages, and an inability to access job or promotional opportunities that necessitate these languages (Bokamba, 2015). African educational role players should carefully plan and implement equitable language policies that cost-effectively promote appropriately selected indigenous languages and protect ethnic languages in their respective domains (Ngcobo, Ndaba, Nyangiwe, Mpungose & Jamal, 2016).

2.14 Perceptions of translanguaging within the South African context

Translanguaging started in a Welsh context from a bilingual perspective of an exchange between two European languages used interchangeably within the classroom. However, the ‘trans’ as in translanguaging suggests that in the South African multilingual context, the movement is from one place to another, from one language to another, and possibly from an African language to another African language and then to English as well (Heugh, 2015). It is not surprising that there is growing literature in South Africa supporting translanguaging as pedagogical discourse to unlock and reveal the knowledge embedded in learners’ multilingual repertoires (Banda, 2018). Translanguaging is not about language mixing and using bits-and-pieces of various languages; it concerns the infusion of local knowledge systems and traditions through language in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning within multilingual contexts (Banda, 2018).

The debate on translanguaging in the literature is ongoing, with confusion over whether it is a theory, everyday practice, or pedagogy (Makalela, 2019). Translanguaging is also seen as a combination of all of these aspects (Chaka, 2020). However, this is not necessarily a drawback. Some authors view translanguaging as a planned teaching strategy within the classroom (Ngocobo et al., 2016). However, as mentioned earlier, there is evidence that translanguaging is more than a planned practice within the classroom, and that for multilinguals it is an everyday natural occurrence. An emerging concept on theorising translanguaging to support this view is that of ‘linguistic fluidity’, which was coined by Makalela (2014). He defined linguistic fluidity

as ‘a social practice that includes all metadiscursive regimes that are performed by all multilingual speakers in their everyday way of making sense of the world around them’ (Makalela, 2015b:289).

Sub-Saharan Africa is the most linguistically complex region of the world, and its contribution to language and literacy theory has gained momentum in recent years (Sefotho & Makalela, 2017). Although the South African Language in Education Policy (LiEP) encourages that the learners’ home language should be valued (Ngocobo et al., 2016), there are still many instances within the South African context, where the home language of the learner is not valued and it is not used within the classroom and on the playground (Childs, 2016). In South Africa, Shava and Manyike (2018) observe that during their schooling days, the Apartheid system was imposed that forced learners to discard their indigenous languages as the medium of communication as soon as they entered school. During Shava and Manyike’s (2018) school days, learners in the classroom were punished for speaking a local language.

Multilingualism, as propagated by translanguaging, is consistent with the African value system of Ubuntu, as reflected in the social and communal interdependence among Africans. Before colonialism learning practices within African societies included pictures and symbols, the African people were able to document their daily practices and did so in inclusive ways that recognised their interdependence (Maseko & Mkhize, 2019). Therefore, Banda (2018) asserts that the current language policy in South Africa needs to consider translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy that should be used within these Ubuntu classrooms. South African teachers should also plan for translanguaging teaching practices (Ngocobo et al., 2016).

The following case studies considered teachers’ and learners’ perceptions of translanguaging within the South Africa context. These studies provide a clearer picture of whether it can be implemented as a pedagogical strategy within multilingual classrooms. In these case studies, examples are given of translanguaging as a naturally occurring phenomenon for South African teachers and learners.

An exploratory case study was conducted by Makalela (2013) that involved second-year university students, who were enrolled in a language-in-education class for student teachers at the University of the Witwatersrand’s School of Education. These university students came from black townships near the city of Johannesburg, Gauteng. Many of these students’ home language was kasi-taal, a hybrid form and an amalgamation of many languages that include Afrikaans, English, and the Nguni and Sotho language clusters. All students who enrolled in

the class were asked to organise themselves into pairs and to use their cellular phones to record at least three separate social interactions as part of their final assignment for the course. The results of the study revealed that kasi-taal speakers have an extended repertoire in which they mix their languages to fit their communication needs. These communicative practices illustrate the transcultural and trans-linguistic movements and fluidity of people who live in the ekasi (location) space. This study has indicated that creative blended ways of using language establish rapport amongst people. Instead of using language in the traditional way, the people living in the ekasi prefer a mixture of languages, which include those with English and Afrikaans historical roots.

Another study by Makalela (2015a) explored the efficacy of a multilingual teacher education programme with participants in a Bachelor of Education degree at the University of the Witwatersrand. Participants were native speakers and second-language speakers of several Nguni languages: isiZulu, siSwati, isiXhosa, and isiNdebele. The pre-service teachers were required to learn a new language, which was Sepedi in this context. The idea of having students take a language outside of their usual language grouping was to prepare them to teach in diverse multilingual classrooms. During classroom interactions, the lecturer encouraged the use of all learners' home languages alongside one another. Perceptions from these pre-service teachers of using translanguaging practices within the classroom revealed that they benefited from using their home languages during class discussions: they found similarities among words in their home languages and Sepedi. Additionally, similarities were found within the different indigenous languages spoken by their peers in class. This aided them in their acquisition of spoken Sepedi, a language outside the Nguni language cluster. It is within this context of multi-layered linguistic intricacy that the Ubuntu injunction that 'one language is incomplete without the other' becomes relevant. Translanguaging is a teachable strategy that is based on natural communication strategies found in complex multilingual spaces.

Translanguaging studies are mainly conducted within language classrooms in South Africa, but there is also a growing research interest in its effectiveness in content subjects such as Science, Mathematics, and Geography. According to Charambo (2020), there is increased participation among learners in a multilingual classroom when the teacher uses and allows the use of their home languages. Research on Science education suggests that for meaningful comprehension of scientific concepts and satisfactory academic performance in the learning area, learners' home languages should be acknowledged and used in the Science classroom (Charambo, 2019). Concepts in subjects such as Mathematics and Science are better

understood in the learners' home language than in a foreign language; learners also comprehend science better if they are taught through folk tales, which they have learned from childhood in most African societies (Ndungo & Mwangi, 2014). There is often a failure to teach conventional science in ways that are relevant to the learners and their community background (Shava & Manyike, 2018).

Charambo (2020) conducted a study in Soweto on how pre-service primary school teachers perceived the use of African languages in Science classrooms. Teachers explained scientific concepts to learners in their home language. In some cases, learners would answer questions in their home language and the teacher, together with the rest of the class, would then translate the answers into English. The teachers all agreed that academic achievement in the Science classroom could be improved by using multiple languages in the same lesson. Encouraging learners to use all their linguistic resources for instructional purposes in the Science classroom facilitates building links and relationships between their various languages and the scientific concepts. These findings echo an earlier study conducted by Charambo and Zano (2019) in a Grade 10, Chemistry classroom in the Free State. The results showed that learners found it helpful to use a home language alongside the LOLT, which was English, as it allowed them to make better sense of scientific concepts.

However, a study conducted by Krause and Prinsloo (2016), in Mathematics and Geography classrooms in the Western Cape had different results. In the Mathematics classroom, numbers were taught in English, where the isiXhosa prefix of each number was added before the English name. In the Geography lesson, the teacher would translanguage by mixing isiXhosa and English when presenting learners with a classroom activity. When used in a township school in this context, translanguaging was seen as a disadvantage by teachers, rather than an asset, especially relating to examinations. Learners would mix isiXhosa and English in their responses even when a purely English response was required. Therefore, translanguaging did not help these learners in improving their use of English as the LOLT. The teachers were aware of their translingual practices and how these practices clashed with the language requirements learners had to fulfil in written exams. However, in their quest to make learners understand subject content, translanguaging featured strongly in the daily practices of these township teachers. Teachers deemed translanguaging practices as essential; however, the school principal made it clear to teachers that IsiXhosa was only to be spoken in isiXhosa lessons and that English was the LOLT.

The following study by Banda (2018) focused on translingual practices that were used within an English-language classroom, at a high school in the Western Cape. The teacher in this classroom purposefully arranged learners into groups to discuss a passage from a prepared text. The teacher in this study was in favour of translanguaging practices and allowed the learners to use isiXhosa, English, and isiXhosa-English blends in the classroom. Through the use of multiple languages being used, the learners were able to engage with the task at hand with new knowledge being produced through this process. In addition, in contrast to the Krause and Prinsloo (2016) study, the teachers in this school used both languages at the same time, as this was what the learners were used to in their daily lives. The school principal saw how the use of multiple languages led to pedagogical successes within the school.

Maseko and Mkhize (2019) conducted a study on the reading literacy practices of a teacher in a multilingual classroom in the township of Soweto, in the south of Johannesburg. What was found in this study was that by using both English and Zulu, the learners and the teacher were able to negotiate meaning and actively engaged with the texts. During the reading of the texts, the teacher allowed her learners to draw on their languages and background knowledge by asking the meaning of certain words in one language (English) and then allowing them to answer in another language (Zulu). By comparing and contrasting words in the two languages (English and Zulu), the teacher helped her learners to understand certain words. Had the teacher not translanguaged, learners would have been confused. What we find from this study is that in order for the learners to make meaning of the texts, they needed to draw on resources from both English and Zulu; this corresponds to Ubuntu translanguaging, which holds that one language is incomplete without the other.

Strauss (2016) conducted a study at two high schools in the rural town of Upington, where Afrikaans is the dominant language and is used as the LOLT in most schools. He investigated whether linguistic strategies like code-switching and translanguaging were helpful tools in the English FAL classroom and bi/multilingual educational settings. Results from the study indicated that both the teachers and learners switched between Afrikaans and English to explain and simplify concepts during classroom activities and an after-school debate program. Translanguaging as a linguistic resource was a recurring phenomenon in learners' and teacher's communication practices and served the educational functions of explanation, interpretation, and reinforcement.

Most of these studies indicate that translanguaging has the potential to enhance the intellectual abilities of multilingual learners; therefore, these studies reject the belief that education should be conducted in one language: the learners' home language can be used in collaboration with the LOLT to transfer cognitive skills across languages (Mgijima & Makalela, 2016). As previously said, translanguaging as a pedagogic approach is a deliberate alternating of the languages of input and output between the teacher and the learners in order to optimise understanding. This practice empowers and encourages learners to be confident in their identity and to draw on knowledge already obtained from their background.

Guzula, McKinney, and Tyler (2016) considered one aspect of translanguaging, namely translation in their case study of an after-school literacy club for Grade 3 to Grade 6 learners in Khayelitsha, Cape Town. During a reading exercise, learners were asked to identify five elements in the story; learners gave answers in isiXhosa and the translation in English. The English words were written next to the isiXhosa words on the board. By encouraging learners to translate words draws on their linguistic resources and facilitates language and literacy learning. Translation was used within this study to aid learners who were at different levels when it came to their proficiency in isiXhosa and English. Learners' were encouraged to translate their own and their peers' responses and, subsequently, were challenged to understand the work. Translation in this instance is a tool for assessing the learners' levels of understanding when they translate to the home language from English, and then through collaboration, meanings are negotiated.

2.15 Challenges in implementing Translanguaging in South Africa

When languages are viewed as solid structures with fixed boundaries, it is difficult to conceptualise a fluid interaction between languages. The impact of language conceptualisation from the Global North still holds considerable sway in South Africa's curriculum documents and teacher practice (Childs, 2016). This points to the need for the Department of Basic Education to work in collaboration with teacher training institutions, to design curriculums that support learners' using multiple languages within the classrooms, which in turn will enhance effective teaching and learning (Maseko & Mkhize, 2019).

Although researchers cited in studies above have acknowledged the value of translanguaging, schoolteachers are often less enthusiastic about the use of translanguaging (Childs, 2016). Apart from issues related to time pressures, a belief in the pedagogical value of only one language used at a time also gives rise to resistance to translanguaging (Childs, 2016). What

also needs to be taken into consideration is that within southern Africa many social problems occur with high frequency and severity, as previously disadvantaged communities still suffer socio-economic disadvantages due to Apartheid (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014). The aftereffects of colonisation generated many social problems, such as drug and alcohol abuse, teenage pregnancy, HIV and Aids, and the low education levels of parents.

These challenges may result in cultural and identity loss, isolation, and a confusion of values and norms and affect the learner's ability to learn at school and within the home (Fawole & Pillay, 2019). Educational resources in informal settlements or townships are limited or non-existent; many learners come from poor homes and are disadvantaged as they have limited opportunities to speak English outside the school environment (Mgqwashu, 2009). This late introduction to English may further disadvantage learners (Fawole & Pillay, 2019). A lack of adequate proficiency in English, the LOLT in many schools, is also an additional barrier to both teaching and learning, which disadvantages these previously academically disadvantaged groups even more (Mwinda & van der Walt, 2015).

2.16 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the literature on translanguaging practices used internationally and locally and their benefits and disadvantages. It also explored differences and similarities in the contexts in which translanguaging pedagogies were implemented. As stated in the literature, it is important to take the specific classroom context into consideration when implementing translanguaging pedagogical practices. Gaps in the literature were found regarding teachers' perceptions on translanguaging, specifically within the South African context. Studies also need to consider the social circumstances within each context, which either allow for or hinder translanguaging in classrooms. A common theme in the literature is that translanguaging is an everyday practice for those who are multilingual and promoting a linguistically diverse society has many benefits for the individuals living within that society. In the following chapter, the theoretical framework for this study is addressed.

Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

A theoretical framework refers to the theory or theories that researchers choose to guide them in their research (Maree, 2012); it provides for a schema that ensures that the researcher does not deviate from the parameters of the chosen theories and, subsequently, to make valid contributions towards academic research (Adom, Hussein & Agyem, 2018). The researcher chooses a particular theory or theories for the purpose of explaining why the research problem exists (Maree, 2012). A theoretical framework encompasses a number of perceptions or paradigms that constitute many practical and formal theories, which share common assumptions and concepts (Adom, Hussein & Agyem, 2018). It helps the reader to understand the reasons why a researcher decides to study a particular phenomenon. Furthermore, it guides the assumptions researchers make, as to how they conceptually ground their approach and determines the scholars with whom they agree or disagree (Imenda, 2014).

Crucially then, a researcher incorporates a variety of theories that share common assumptions, in order to form a framework that is relevant to a particular study. In this study, constructivism, translanguaging theory, and Ubuntu translanguaging are combined within the theoretical framework as these theories share common assumptions and concepts. This framework was used to guide the study in order for the researcher to generate new knowledge (Green, 2014). It was used as a guide to present and organise the argument for the study (Green, 2014). These theories were selected as they are clearly conceptualised in the literature and have been used by fellow researchers. This framework guided the researcher in this study to relate the theories to the findings. Constructivism serves as the larger outer lens of the framework for the study; it connects with and embeds translanguaging theory as both emphasise that individuals make meaning through language and social interactions. The inner-lens constitute Ubuntu translanguaging theory, which is linked to indigenous education, where learning takes place through social interaction and from a communal approach.

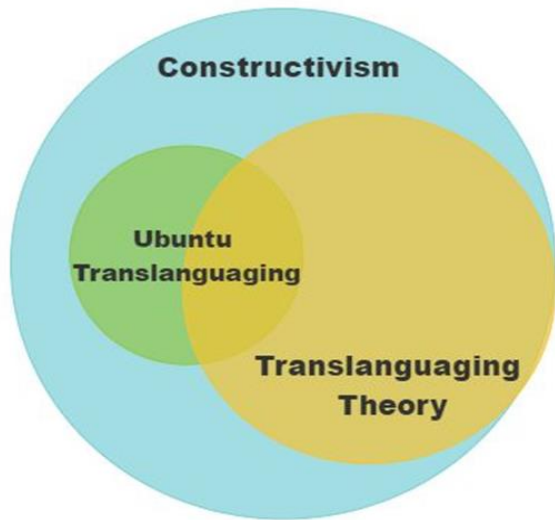


Figure 3.1 represents the theoretical framework for the study

3.2 Constructivist Learning Theory

Constructivism will be used as the overarching lens of this study, which links tenets of Vygotsky's (1987) social constructivism theory to constructivist ways of learning. Scaffolding specifically is applied as it is one of the main methods of instruction used within a translanguaging pedagogy.

3.2.1 Constructivism

Constructivism postulates that learners individually and socially construct their own knowledge (Bada & Olusegun, 2015; Derry, 2013; Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014; Fernando & Marikar, 2017). As human learners, we depend upon social interaction with those around us for motivation and collective activity, which promote thinking, engagement with ideas, and social activities. Furthermore, social interaction allows for intellectual growth, including the growth of knowledge (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). Being in close contact with learners, teachers of learners play an important role in their learning and influence how the learner sees the world (Bada & Olusegun, 2015). Additionally, certain tools affect the way in which learning and intellectual development progress. These tools can differ in type and quality and include culture, the values and beliefs learners bring to the classroom, the languages the learners speak at home, and those spoken by family and friends (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010).

Constructivist learning involves focusing on the learner as well as the subject content. The importance of the learners' lived experiences and background knowledge is emphasised by allowing them to collaborate with teachers and fellow classmates (Amineh & Asl, 2015). By

following constructivist principles, teachers allow learners the opportunity to interact with sensory data to construct their own understanding of the world (Bada & Olusegun, 2015; Hein, 1991). As learners' knowledge, values, and attitudes develop through these interactions with others, this increases their level of thinking (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). In a classroom guided by a constructivist pedagogy, active learning takes place when teachers create opportunities for learners to take part and engage with one another (Fernando & Marikar, 2017). Teachers connect with learners at their level of understanding: therefore, learning is not seen as a passive acceptance of knowledge by the learners but an active process of knowledge construction (Amineh & Asl, 2015; Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014: 109; Fernando & Marikar, 2017). Knowledge is not merely transmitted by the teacher but facilitated as social interaction is of paramount importance (Fernando & Marikar, 2017). This interactivity can be vertical, as in teacher-to-learner interaction, or horizontal, as in learner-to-learner interaction.

Constructivism encourages learners to engage in discussion, reflection, debate, and problem-solving through group-work activities (Amineh & Asl, 2015). These activities build the confidence of learners and break the negative cycle of learners not interacting because they are not confident in their ability to use language skills (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014: 109). Significantly, learning is seen as a social activity where teachers, peers, and families interact with one another through conversations (Hein, 1991). Teachers also incorporate different modes of representation in the form of art, music, or storytelling, which require learners to be more interactive and engaged (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014: 109). Intellectual development and language are shaped by a person's interaction with others; the role of language in constructivism is that it serves as a mediator between the learner and their world (Hirtle, 1996). This is relevant to the study, as the emphasis is placed on the concept of language interaction in developing and refining language by encouraging learners to interact through listening, speaking, reading, and expressing themselves in writing (Hein, 1991).

3.2.2 Social Constructivist Theory

According to Vygotsky (1978), learners are dependent on other people during the early stages of their schooling as their socio-cultural environment keeps on presenting them with a variety of tasks and demands (Amineh & Asl, 2015; Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014:77). Vygotsky indicated that a learner constructs knowledge through interaction with the world, and this interaction is dependent on a relationship between the subject (the learners) and object (other people or a new knowledge construct) (Lin, 2019). He emphasised that peers and adults are both active agents in the process of a learner's development (Adam, 2017; Lin, 2019). When

this process is applied to teaching, it entails that both teacher and learner are active participants in the learning process (Adam, 2017). The teacher's intervention in learning is necessary, but it is the quality of the teacher-learner interaction, which is viewed as crucial in the learning process (Adam, 2017).

Vygotsky's theory sees the learner as an active meaning-maker and problem-solver and acknowledges the interplay that exists between teachers, learners, and their tasks (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014). Vygotsky, therefore, provides a view of learning as a result of interactions with others and assumes that learning occurs not through expository teaching (being formal methods of teaching), but in interaction (methods such as classroom discussions, modelling, and scaffolding) (Adam, 2017). A learner's zone of proximal development is extended through translanguaging by offering support to other learners through social interactions (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Language is influenced by a learner's social interactions and the context in which they find themselves (Kleyn & Garcia, 2019). According to this view, knowledge can only be constructed in a dialogic space, where learners bring and share all of their 'sociocultural, emotive histories and communicative repertoires' (Lin, 2019).

3.2.3 Scaffolding

According to Vygotsky (1978), through the support of a teacher or fellow pupil, learners are able to internalise tasks and then perform these tasks successfully on their own (Adam, 2017). In this way, social interaction is encouraged to facilitate learning. The range and type of support given to learners are crucial components in the progress of their learning. Scaffolding is a means by which a 'helper' (anyone in a position to provide this support, which in this context would be the teacher and fellow learners) has the potential to provide learning support; this assists in the process of acquiring knowledge and developing understanding (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). Scaffolding is a measured and appropriate intervention, which enables a learner to improve cognition. The teacher as a scaffolder provides support so that the learner feels safe enough to make suggestions and implement new ideas (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010).

The teacher uses questions to engage with learners and to provide alternative or simpler methods to complete a task. By being motivators and providing learners with encouragement, and by modelling certain activities, teachers or peers can provide opportunities for learners to observe and then imitate solutions to problems (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). Through scaffolding teachers help learners connect the familiar with the unfamiliar by making use of the learners' background knowledge and by challenging learners to improve their

understanding of a concept to a more advanced level, for example by the acquisition of a new language (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014: 109). The teaching is focused and structured so that learners know what to learn and how it fits in with what they already know and can do (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010).

Constructivism in translanguaging is evident in case studies by Ebe (2016) and Woodley (2016). These studies indicate that teachers scaffold and provide opportunities for learners to draw on knowledge from their peers through group interaction; the teacher models behaviour in which she or he alternates between the LOLT and the learners' home language; this opens up a 'translanguaging space' that affords the learners the opportunity to use their entire linguistic repertoire. This relates to the sociolinguistic perspective that views language as a social practice, as individuals use language to construct, communicate and express their collective and individual identities (Liu & Fang, 2020). For those who are multilingual, translanguaging creates a social space in which they merge different dimensions of their 'knowledge, surroundings, values, views, their intellectual and physical capacity into one coordinated and meaningful performance' (Wei, 2010:3).

3.3 Translanguaging Theory

According to Vogel and Garcia (2017), translanguaging theory holds to the notion that all speakers have a singular linguistic repertoire, which refers to the many linguistic varieties of an individual including dialects, styles of expression, and accents. Translanguaging theory consists of core premises that include teachers' translanguaging pedagogy and practices within their classrooms.

3.3.1 Core premises of translanguaging theory

A translanguaging theory views the bilingual speaker as having one language system and one grammar from which the speaker selects the features they need during their interactions. Thus, viewing the language practices of both monolinguals and bilinguals through the same lens, people select the linguistic features they need from a common language system and grammar (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). The researcher learns about these linguistic features through the social interactions and personal experiences of an individual: this approach is not centred on languages but the language practices of an individual (Pacheco, 2016). Translanguaging as a theory does not consider language as a set of guidelines, structures, or skills to be developed, but as a tool for discussing and creating meaning between individuals and as a product of social relations and identity formation (Pacheco, 2016; Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020).

Translanguaging theory dismantles named language categories and seeks to counter beliefs that place certain languages as superior to others (Turner & Lin, 2020). Translanguaging theory recognises that bilinguals are able to perform monolingually, but when communicating with other bilinguals, they often communicate bilingually since their internal language system is not separated into 'two solitudes' (Hamman-Ortiz, 2020). When people translanguage they use language features that are their own in ways that align with social constructions of a 'language' (Simpson, 2017). Translanguaging as a theory is used within this study to highlight the importance of languages other than English, and how individuals, specifically teachers and learners, use language to make meaning within their context, thus encouraging linguistic diversity.

Cummins (1979) describes the two languages in a bilingual individual's brain as a metaphorical iceberg to indicate the way bilinguals use two languages interchangeably: "while at the surface, a bilingual might be seen as performing in two languages, below there is a 'common underlying proficiency', the development of which gets promoted through reading, writing, listening and speaking" (Vogel & Garcia, 2017: 5). Cummins (1979) believes that linguistic practices are transferred from one language to another and that bilingualism influences both cognitive and linguistic development. Bilinguals shift between different language systems by integrating various common verbal and grammatical linguistic features (Cummins, 1979). Underneath the surface, the two conceptual language icebergs are fused together so that the two languages do not function separately (Baker, 2001).

According to Baker (2001), this common underlying proficiency consists of six different parts. For individuals who are fluent in two or more languages, there is only one integrated part of the brain where talking, reading, writing, and listening takes place. What makes bilingualism and multilingualism possible are that individuals are able to store two or more languages in the same place in the brain, which facilitates the ability to move between these different languages with relative ease (Cummins, 1979). Cognitive development and educational achievement are attained through two languages as well as through one – which contradicts the past notion that using two languages caused mental confusion in individuals (Baker, 2001). Monolingualism and bilingualism are achieved through the same 'central processor', which is the left hemisphere of the brain where all languages are controlled and executed (Bryd, 2012).

In order to overcome the cognitive challenges and demands of the classroom, a learner needs to have proficiency in the LOLT. Speaking, listening, reading, or writing in the first or the

second language develops the whole cognitive system. The cognitive system will not function at its best when learners are made to learn in a language they are not yet proficient in (Cummins, 1979). If learners are also made to learn in a second language they are not yet proficient in, the learning of complex curriculum materials and producing work in oral and written form at school will be weak and impoverished (Cummins, 1979). When both the home language and LOLT are not functioning in an integrated manner, academic performance may be negatively affected (Baker, 2001).

Cummins' model brings the two languages together by positioning a Common Underlying Proficiency that enables learners to transfer concepts from one language to another. While this theory does disrupt the view that languages are stored separately in the brain, it still relies on the assumption that a bilingual person has a dual linguistic system where competencies are transferred between those systems (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). Translanguaging theory, on the other hand, posits that there is one integrated system consisting of various verbal and grammatical linguistic features.

A metaphor used to explain translanguaging is that of two riverbanks, by Johnson, Garcia, and Seltzer (2019). Imagine a river that serves as the fluid border between two riverbanks; on one side is the riverbank of English language life and instruction, on the other side is that of Sepedi language life and instruction. By combining the two riverbanks, an equitable education would be afforded to all learners. Through translanguaging, learners dissolve the strict separation of the two riverbanks (one language on one side and the other language on the other). The figure below explains the difference between Cummins's model of interdependence and the translanguaging model.

Cummins's interdependence hypothesis



Translanguaging



Figure 3.2, represents the different modes of bilingualism

Source: adapted from Garcia and Kleyn (2016)

3.3.2 Core components of teachers' translanguaging pedagogy

A theory of translanguaging can be transformative for teachers in that once they start viewing language from the point of view of the bilingual learner and not simply as the named language with its prescribed features, learning improves (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). Teachers discover how language features learners' already possess can be enhanced through interactions with others and through texts that have various language features. Teachers do not tell learners to stop using their own language features, such as when spontaneous acts of translanguaging take place within classrooms (Lin, 2019), or to stop drawing on them for learning, but they encourage learners to value their languages (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). Therefore, teachers become co-learners instead of merely transmitting linguistic knowledge. During this process, teachers leverage learners' full language repertoires and this enables a more equitable education for bilingual learners (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). Garcia and Kleyn (2016), identify three dimensions in instruction that constitutes a translanguaging theory.

First, teachers need to develop a philosophical stance that supports translanguaging. Teachers who take up translanguaging must develop the position that bilingualism is a resource to learn, think, imagine, and develop commanding performances in two or more languages (Kleyn & Garcia, 2019). This stance must position language on the 'lips and in the minds of the learners, not in external standards and regulations' (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016:20). Teachers should believe

that translanguaging transforms subjective positionalities, enabling learners to perform according to their own internal abilities that make them more creative and critical (Machado & Gonzales, 2020). The starting point to develop bilingualism lies in the features of the linguistic repertoire that are part of the learner's evolving linguistic system (Liu and Fang, 2020; UNESCO, 2003b). Teachers must be prepared to be more flexible in their methods of teaching in order to respond to the learners' language repertoires by making unplanned teaching and learning changes to facilitate learning and understanding (Kleyn & Garcia, 2019). Teachers help their learners to select the linguistic features that are suitable for the required task. And allow them to leverage their full linguistic repertoires to make meaning by integrating their various language systems (Johnson, Garcia & Seltzer, 2019). This transformative stance seeks to offset the hierarchical structures of languages that exist in society (Kleyn & Garcia, 2019).

Secondly, it is important for teachers to design and plan for translanguaging (Lin, 2019). When teachers design and plan for translanguaging, they are able to document what a learner knows about content and language (Johnson, Garcia & Seltzer, 2019). A translanguaging theory design includes collaborative and cooperative structures. These structures include capitalising on social interaction among peers (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). This encourages collaboration among speakers and includes grouping learners according to home language backgrounds (Flynn et al., 2019). Furthermore, it allows learners to appropriate new language features as they are given opportunities to interact with more-knowledgeable others who share a common language (Hamman-Ortiz, 2020). Teachers utilising translanguaging design implement activities that require learners to take part in reading comprehensions: a book is read in one language and then discussed with peers in another (Machado & Gonzales, 2020). Collaboration among learners and the use of their full linguistic repertoire have been called the bilingual Zone of Proximal Development, where learning support is offered socially by a teacher or learner who may be more knowledgeable (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). Teachers should collect multilingual and multimodal resources, such as printed multilingual texts, and multimodal videos, movies, and other internet resources (Ebe, 2016). Multilingual texts also include those designed by bilingual authors who use translanguaging for literary effect, such as in the case study conducted by Ebe (2016), as described in the literature review.

Translanguaging as a theory of language can be incorporated in English-language classroom contexts where multilingual learners use linguistic practices from a variety of languages, as well as other resources, such as the use of signs and symbols (Liu & Fang, 2020). Teachers in English-language classrooms may be concerned that learners, who are translanguaging, may

be doing so to the detriment of developing their English proficiency. However, it is well established that the knowledge a learner acquires in their home language can transfer to a new language (Hamman-Ortiz, 2020). Allowing learners to translanguage by using strategies such as translation and explanation (Liu & Fang, 2020) within the classroom to make meaning of certain concepts, help in supporting their acquisition of new terms and concepts (Hamman-Ortiz, 2020). Translation is a strategy that can occur during translanguaging activities of peer learning or used by the teacher in the form of scaffolding (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b). This strategy of translanguaging features strongly in the case studies mentioned in the literature review that was conducted in South Africa by Guzula, McKinney, and Tyler (2016), and Maseko and Mkhize (2019).

Translanguaging represents the dynamic, flexible linguistic practices that are typical within bilingual communities (Hamman-Ortiz, 2020). Designing translanguaging instruction also means involving the family and community in school activities and inviting them to share their readings, stories, teachings, experiences, and funds of knowledge (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016; Machado & Gonzales, 2020). Translanguaging design centres on language and making home–school–community connections in setting aims and objectives of assessments, and learning activities (Machado & Gonzales, 2020). A learner’s family influences learning and if education is prioritised by family and members of the community, it will improve learner achievement (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014). This relates to the African perspective of education, in which learning is conducted in collaboration with family members and through other modes such as storytelling and passing on knowledge from previous generations (Ned, 2019).

Lastly, translanguaging as a theory helps separate language-specific performances, such as using language appropriately for academic purposes in languages such as English, Sepedi, or Afrikaans. And general linguistic performances, for example, to argue a point, express inferences, communicate complex thoughts, tell jokes, and so forth (Otheguy. Garcia & Reid, 2015). There are learners who are proficient in English, yet they are not able to discuss a specific topic effectively. There are also emergent bilinguals who are not fully proficient in English but are able to argue complex thoughts very effectively in English (Otheguy. Garcia & Reid, 2015). Using a translanguaging theory in assessment means that these two types of performances would be separated effectively (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). This is done by teachers who responsively adapt classroom languaging activities and policies to reflect the needs and preferences of their learners; an example would be where a teacher shifts between languages to explain a concept (Machado & Gonzales, 2020).

By using translanguaging theory, teachers are able to assess these two types of performances (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016): named language-specific performance is when a learner uses the linguistic structures of a specific language in socially and academically appropriate ways. General linguistic performance is if they are able to perform linguistically to engage in academic and social tasks, regardless of the language features used. Furthermore, translanguaging in assessment levels the playing field between bilingual and monolingual learners by promoting equal educational opportunities, and more accurately assesses what bilingual learners know and can do with language (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). Bilingual learners translanguage when they transcend named languages such as English or Sepedi in order to communicate (Hamman-Ortiz, 2020). From a translanguaging perspective, the learner speaking bilingually during class is not linguistically confused or demonstrates ‘bad’ English; rather, she is leveraging her full linguistic repertoire to communicate (Hamman-Ortiz, 2020).

Translanguaging as a theory provides various recommendations for English-language teaching. English learning should be approached from a more adaptable and multilingual perspective; teachers should incorporate the use of multiple languages within their classrooms to embrace the ‘multilingual turn’ (Liu & Fang, 2020). Both teachers and learners should recognise the role and importance of the learners’ home languages, especially relating to language teaching. As mentioned above, a partnership between teachers and learners and amongst teachers themselves should be encouraged (Liu & Fang, 2020). For Turner and Lin (2020), the ‘trans’ in translanguaging theory means engaging with different languages, which is an important tool for expanding the learner’s linguistic repertoire and the mindfulness that comes with this expansion.

Using translanguaging as a practice within classrooms ensures that learners use language in the ways prescribed by schools, while at the same time drawing on the learners’ full linguistic repertoire. Translanguaging as a theory recognises the need for more than one language in society and ensures that all languages receive equal status, thus benefiting bi/multilingualism. Promoting bi/multilingualism in society can change the perceptions of monolingual classroom practices.

What?

- **Mobilise** multiple languages to process content
- **Communicate** using multiple languages in the same sentence
- **Use** words, phrases, or sentences from another language to communicate

Why?

- **Support** learners to be bi/multilingual
- **Increase** learner comprehension
- **Empower** learners to participate

How?

- **Allow** learners to read home language resources
- **Encourage** learners to collaborate using their home languages
- **Display** home-languages alongside English
- **Ask** families to read or tell stories in their home language

This Figure 3.3, represents how translanguaging can be used within the classroom to transform learning

Source: Huynh (2021)

3.4 Ubuntu Translanguaging

Ubuntu's view of humanity is that people are bound together and that their lives are interwoven with one another (Etieyibo, 2017). The African ontology which is conveyed across many societies in sub-Saharan Africa is holistic and communitarian in nature (Oviawe, 2016). Community is seen through nature, identity, kinship, and friendliness. Ubuntu's essence is that being a human means being relational with others. This relational essence is exhibited through behaviours such as involving oneself in the community, forming compassionate relationships, and exhibiting certain communal virtues (Etieyibo, 2017). There is a need to recognise the crucial importance of the community's involvement in a child's education (Oviawe, 2016). Ubuntu's essence can be used as a framework to understand how languages in South Africa overlap one another, through valuing interdependence over independence. In a South African context, this relates to offsetting the rigid boundaries among the 11 official languages through a oneness ideology (Makalela, 2017).

Translanguaging resonates with the broader conception of the 21st century in that there is a constant disruption of ontological and epistemological orderliness and the re-creation of new views of reality and novel knowledge construction (Makalela, 2019). Ubuntu values of interdependence and fluidity invented the term; Ubuntu translanguaging, to describe the

complex African multilingual practices that exist (Brock-Utne, 2018). Translanguaging is intricately connected to the Ubuntu ideology, especially in South Africa, where many people are multilingual and are able to communicate in more than two languages.

According to Ubuntu translanguaging, linguistic alternation may take place in more than two languages. In multilingual classrooms in South Africa, the majority of learners have already acquired two languages before starting school (Maseko & Mkhize, 2019). Through Ubuntu translanguaging practices, parents educate their children through the infusion of local knowledge systems. The local knowledge taught at home is then integrated into the classroom, which results in a culturally responsive pedagogy (Maseko & Mkhize, 2019). This also ties in with the translanguaging theory of bringing the family and community into the schools to share in funds of knowledge.

South-African sociolinguist, Leketi Makalela (2015b) has found that the translanguaging framework can be profitably applied to the multilingual context of South Africa. Makalela (2015b) argues that the value system of Ubuntu embraces African multilingualism (Brock-Utne, 2018). To build on the translanguaging theory and relate it to the South African context, the researcher considers the four pillars of Ubuntu translanguaging; the notions of interdependence, circular flow, incompleteness, and ‘I am because you are’ are discussed.

3.4.1 Four pillars of Ubuntu translanguaging

Firstly, languages are interdependent as multilinguals use different language repertoires to make sense of their world (Makalela, 2018) and they have a deeper understanding of the multifarious realities around them (Makalela, 2016). Interdependence relates to the philosophical fluidity of the 21st century and the resultant view of languages as being in a constant state of transition. The notions of incompleteness and interdependence necessitate an accurate portrayal of African multilingualism, as languages are in a constant state of transition (Makalela, 2019).

Secondly, in accordance with Ubuntu translanguaging, a “circular flow” of communication takes place within languages that are ongoing and have no endpoint (Makalela, 2018). It is common in Africa in meetings and events for questions to be posed in more than one language and for the answers similarly to be made in a vast variety of languages (Makalela, 2016). Makalela (2019) found that multicultural South African townships like Soweto, Tembisa, Alexandra, and Katlehong are good examples of such realities. By the time learners within these townships are six years old, they would have acquired proficiency in more than three

languages. And by the time they are 13 years old they are able to fluidly move between six languages in a single speech event. This also occurs in their classrooms, thus making them a unique space in which to define the complexities of how information flows from learner-to-learner and learner-to-teacher. In these contexts, the disruption of language boundaries and the creation of conversational speech repertoires occurs simultaneously.

Thirdly, incompleteness suggests that multilinguals make sense of their world using different language systems and that one language is incomplete without the other (Makalela, 2018). For speakers in multifaceted multilingual zones, all of their linguistic repertoires are present and are used simultaneously for meaning making and engagement in deeper thought processes (Makalela, 2016).

Lastly, complex African multilingual practices relate to the notion of ‘I am because you are, and you are because we are’; languages are a representation of human nature and they belong together and overlap one another and cross the boundaries between them (Makalela, 2018). This saying reflects a state of being which depends on the co-existence of the entities of ‘I’ and ‘we’, which may not have a separate individual existence. For Makalela (2016) languages are inseparable from a person’s being. Therefore, the Ubuntu principle of interconnectedness equally applies to language: one language is because of another. Languages are, therefore, not in competition, but cooperation with one another. When framed in this light, languages in South Africa endowed with Ubuntu allow for complex processes; Makalela (2013) describes the process of how three or more languages are mixed together as a form of communication frequently used in townships and is referred to as ‘kasi-taal’. In these translanguaging spaces, a disruption of orderliness occurs and there is a re-creation of newness.

This is relevant to the study as it applies to how communities in South Africa perceive multilingualism and use a communal approach to teaching and learning. It is in this connection that the pillars of Ubuntu translanguaging, namely incompleteness and interdependence, create a discontinuous continuity: this implies the constant disruption of language boundaries and the simultaneous re-creation of new ones as a way of life and cultural competence that resonate with the Ubuntu logic of ‘I x we’ (Makalela, 2016). Hence, it is useful to use the Ubuntu logic to point out that one language is incomplete without the other.

What the Ubuntu translanguaging theory entails is that multilingual systems include unitary meaning-making processes from the starting point, even though a speaker may speak a variety of languages. This is where it is inconceivable to use notions such as home language or first

additional language because, in reality, these do not exist from the Ubuntu locus of multilingual development (Makalela, 2019). This is especially relevant to the township context in the study, where multilingual teachers and learners coexist and use a multiple range of languages, not only within classrooms but within their everyday lives as well.

3.4.2 Ubuntu translanguaging pedagogy

The Ubuntu translanguaging framework discussed above has direct relevance to classroom teaching and learning in complex multilingual encounters (Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2020). This Ubuntu translanguaging pedagogy recognises that language alternation is a norm in multilingual classroom settings (Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2020). The Ubuntu pedagogy suggested by Makalela (2018) consists of classroom strategies such as turn-and-talk partners: learners listen to the voice of an adult reader and then respond by speaking in a different language. During group work, learners may be grouped with those who speak the same home language and then write sections in their different languages for scaffolding.

Another aspect of an Ubuntu pedagogy would be to post greetings (words) from different languages on classroom walls; learners will be taught how to greet in another's language and this will develop a closer bond between peers. Also, teachers could label objects within the classroom in multiple languages. Lastly, as stated above, providing opportunities for learners where reading is conducted in one language, and writing is done in another, embraces linguistic diversity. These activities are, however, not unique, or new in South African classrooms; rather they allow the usage of classroom practices based on a multilingual perspective to become the norm (Makalela, 2018). Translanguaging pedagogies encourage learners to cross between all known languages in multilingual classroom contexts in order to gain an understating of the taught content (Hurst & Mona, 2017).

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter highlighted how constructivism, translanguaging theory, and Ubuntu translanguaging all share common principles when it comes to learning, especially in relation to second-language acquisition. Constructivism emphasises social interaction and collaborative work between a teacher and learners, which also ties into the basic tenets of the translanguaging theory that opens up a 'translanguaging space'. Emphasising pair scaffolding and group work by the teacher allows for classroom interaction instead of rote learning; the latter is common in many classrooms within the South Africa context. Finally, the Ubuntu framework emphasises home, school, and community collaboration in order for effective learning to take place. This

eclectic theoretical framework was used as a guide and lens through which to analyse and interpret the data that were collected and, subsequently, contributed towards knowledge construction. In the following chapter, the research design and methodology for the study are discussed.

Chapter 4

Research Design and Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This section outlines the research design, strategy, and methodology, which were used for the study. A qualitative research approach was employed consisting of observations, focus groups, and semi-structured interviews in order to ascertain teachers' perceptions of translanguaging. The table below summarises the strategy for this study.

Table 4.1 Summary of the research strategy and methodology

<u>Research Approach</u>
Qualitative Research
<u>Research Paradigm</u>
Interpretivism and Nominalism
<u>Study Design</u>
Multiple Case Study
<u>Data Generation and Collection Methods</u>
Observations, Semi-structured Interviews, Focus Groups, Documentation, Photos and Field Notes
<u>Sampling Methods</u>
Purposive Sampling
<u>Data Analysis</u>
Thematic Content Analysis (describing, transcribing, coding, themes, and interpretation)
<u>Quality Assurance</u>
Trustworthiness (credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability)
<u>Ethical Considerations</u>
Institutional approval, Voluntary Participation, Privacy and Trust and Safety in Participation

Table 4.2 Research questions and data collection methods

Research Questions	Data Collection Tools
<p>1. <i>What are the perceptions of translanguaging amongst English teachers in township primary schools?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Interviews ● Observations ● Focus group discussion ● Documentation ● Photos ● Field notes
<p>2. <i>Why do teachers perceive translanguaging in this way?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Interviews ● Observations ● Focus group discussions ● Documentation ● Photos ● Field notes

4.2 Research Design

A research design refers to the basic structure of a research project: it involves the plan for carrying out an investigation that is guided by a research question that is central to the concerns of a particular community under study (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013). The conduct of research entails making choices about matters such as research questions and sources of evidence that will bear on them, as well as about particular data-generating and analysing processes (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013). A research design is also a plan that provides a structure in guiding the researcher to choose the relevant theories and methods for the study (Maree, 2012), and to select participants, research sites, and data collection procedures to answer the research question (Maree, 2012).

The research design also comprises the research paradigm and the research approach. This study followed a qualitative approach and interpretivist paradigm in gathering data on teachers' perceptions of translanguaging within a multicultural and multilingual community. Qualitative research designs involve the activities of gathering and analysing data, developing, and adapting theory, and enlarging or changing aspects of the research question, where each one influences all of the others (Maxwell, 2008). In addition, the researcher may need to reconsider or adapt any design decision during the study in response to new developments or changes in some other aspect of the design (Maxwell, 2008). Due to the flexible nature of qualitative research, the research question for this study had to be modified and the methodology adapted. This was done so that the study would provide credible results.

4.3 Research Approach

Qualitative research is concerned with interpretation and meaning and how that meaning is socially constructed by individuals interacting with their world (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). It was, therefore, the ideal approach for this study, in order to gain insight into teachers' perceptions of translanguaging. Qualitative research allows for the exploration of views from a group of people in order to gain a detailed understanding of a particular phenomenon (Creswell, 2007: 36). Focusing on a rich or deep description of this phenomenon, qualitative studies involve only a few participants who are studied in great detail; the product of a qualitative inquiry is therefore richly descriptive (Black, 1994; Bryman, 2012; Merriam & Grenier, 2019). The participants for this study consisted of seven English teachers who gave various accounts of their perceptions of translanguaging. The aim of this study was to provide detailed descriptions and accounts of the setting, the participating teachers, and the themes of the study (Bryman, 2012; Creswell & Miller, 2000).

Qualitative research aims to understand the particular context within which the participant's act and the influence this context has on their actions (Maxwell, 2008). The specific context of this study was two township primary schools with culturally and linguistically diverse groups of teachers and learners. Translanguaging used within a multilingual context has a different effect on participants compared to its use in a school setting where the teachers and learners are fluent in the LOLT. The understanding of the multilingual context of this study was achieved through fieldwork which involved talking directly to participating teachers and observing them in a natural setting, which included their classrooms (Creswell, 2014a). By studying a small group of teachers within a township context, a detailed account of their individual perceptions could

be obtained; this is different from a quantitative study where data are collected from large samples and individual voices are not necessarily heard (Creswell, 2014a). The perspectives on events and actions held by the teachers involved in the study were not merely their accounts of these events or actions to be assessed in terms of truth or falsity; they were rather part of the reality that the researcher was trying to understand, which was their perceptions on translanguaging (Maxwell, 2008).

The study's aim was to determine the social dynamics regarding translanguaging within two primary schools, to view the case from the inside out, and to see it from the perspective of the teachers involved in the study (Gillham, 2000). Crucially, qualitative researchers are interested in understanding how people understand and make meaning from their experiences, and how they use this meaning to construct their life-worlds (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). This was a crucial aspect in this study, as the researcher wanted to understand the life-world of teachers and learners within the schools. Since this was a qualitative study, the researcher was the primary instrument for data collection and data analysis (Merriam & Grenier, 2019).

Qualitative methods focus primarily on evidence such as what people tell you (through interviews and focus groups discussions with teachers) and what they do (observations of teachers' lessons). These enabled the researcher to understand the sample and phenomenon, i.e., translanguaging (Gillham, 2000). Human behaviour, thoughts, and feelings are partly determined by their context. Since the researcher wanted to understand teachers' perceptions in real life, she interviewed and observed them in their contexts (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). How people behave, feel, and think can only be understood within the context of their life-worlds. Subsequently, it was necessary for the researcher to understand the processes by which these events and actions took place within the specific social context (Bryman, 2012). That is why the study took place within a multilingual community and schools to gain an insider's perspective into the lives of these teachers and learners.

The study included observing teachers' and learners' classroom interactions, and interviews and focus group discussions with teachers to gather data from their responses (Ajagbe, Sholanke, Isiavwe & Oke, 2015). Qualitative researchers are concerned with process, rather than outcomes or products (Ajagbe et al., 2015). Through this approach, the researcher was able to learn about participating teachers' perceptions of translanguaging and their experiences as language teachers within linguistically diverse classrooms, and how they structure their world (Maree, 2016: 53).

4.3.1 Strength of qualitative research

A strength of qualitative research is that important subjects are highlighted to arrive at possible explanations (Black, 1994; Gillham, 2000). This approach is, therefore, well suited to the aim of this study, which was to understand translingual and multilingual education and to arrive at possible explanations for why learners struggle to understand the content within English-language classrooms. Another strength is that the researcher was able to gain a detailed understanding of participants within a specific context; therefore, the study gained detailed findings from seven teachers and of the particular context in which they taught.

4.3.2 Weakness of qualitative research

A weakness of qualitative research is that it relies on the experience of the researcher, notably her ability to conduct interviews and to form relationships with participants. Forming relationships and gaining trust from participants may be an arduous process as not all participants may be willing to participate. Initially, during this study, it was difficult for the researcher to gain the trust of participants and their willingness to participate; however, through explaining what the study was about, the researcher was able to establish a good relationship with each of the teachers involved in the study. Another disadvantage of qualitative research is that due to the descriptive nature of qualitative data, some of the detail may appear irrelevant; there is also the risk of the researcher becoming too subjectively embroiled in descriptive detail (Bryman, 2012). However, this was countered by the constant scrutiny of work by the researcher's supervisor and by emphasising specific and not general descriptions. Qualitative research is also not generalisable; however, in this particular study, the aim was not to create generalisations but rather to contribute towards knowledge construction and to understand a phenomenon in its natural setting or context.

4.4 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm is a philosophical approach or model to assist in conducting research. The paradigm affects how a researcher views the phenomena and the participating community, and the methods the researcher uses to study the phenomena (Maree, 2012). A paradigm is also a set of conceptual frameworks, which covers aspects of ontology and epistemology. Ontology refers to what can be known and epistemology is how can something be known. The researcher's ontological and epistemological beliefs have an impact on the research process. The ontological stance for this study is nominalism and the epistemological stance is interpretivism.

4.4.1 Nominalism

Ontology refers to the nature of being or reality; the ontological stance chosen for the study is nominalism. Nominalism is the ontological theory, which postulates that reality is made up of particular items; the world is made exclusively from particulars and universals are of our own making (Borghini, 2020). For Prawat (2003) nominalism holds to the notion that universals or general ideas do not exist and that only what is external is real. We name or give meaning to our reality through the use of language. Nominalism denies the real existence of any general entities such as properties, species, universals, sets, or other classifications. Only things that are concrete or individual (or perhaps both) exist. Accordingly, learning is a passage from ‘individuals to universals’ and is described as the induction process that moves from a particular experience to a general process (Prawat, 2003).

Furthermore, nominalism is referred to as the philosophy of language and emphasises the role of language in human cognition (Prawat, 2003). Nominalism looks into the process by which individuals use language to construct knowledge (Borghini, 2020). The process of coming-to-know or knowing takes place within the limitations or boundaries of the individual’s own experiences. Nominalism is relevant to this study as the participants’ views or perceptions of reality and the world were identified, specifically in a school setting. The participants’ perceptions are based on how they view reality and, subsequently, how they perceive knowledge being constructed according to their world-view.

4.4.2 Interpretivism

According to Maree (2016), epistemology is concerned with how things or reality can be known and how we learn about the social world. This study’s epistemological stance is interpretivism. Most researchers agree that those who hold to an interpretivist paradigm mainly use qualitative methods (Chowdhury 2014; Merriam & Grenier, 2019; Thanh & Thanh, 2015); the research approach and main methods of data collection for this study are qualitative in nature. Interpretivism views the human mind as the source or origin of meaning (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). Using data collection methods such as observations and interviews allowed the researcher to come into close contact with participants and to take on an interactive research role. Through this interactive role, the researcher was able to explore how meanings were constructed by the participating teachers in relation to language practices and their perceptions of translanguageing. The researcher was also then able to gain a better understanding of the language practices used within the classrooms and schools as a whole.

The role of a researcher in the interpretivist paradigm is to understand reality through the eyes of the research participants and to determine how this reality has been affected by historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals' lives (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Researchers seek to form multiple understandings of their participants' worldviews. This paradigm was relevant for the study, as it generated knowledge from teachers on their perceptions of translanguaging and how or if they applied this strategy in their English-language classes. In interpretivist studies, the research question is intricately connected with a particular setting, time period, and participants (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013). The multilingual setting chosen for the study was linked to the research question, which is what teachers' perceptions are of translanguaging, and why they view translanguaging in this way. Participants chosen were English-language teachers. Although the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) encourages that all official languages in South Africa receive equal attention, most schools choose English as the LOLT; the perception is that English affords more prestige as a language of learning, which in turn increases one's social standing in life. In both the schools in this study, learners were encouraged to speak only English, even with friends on the playgrounds.

Interpretivism also focuses on people's subjective experiences and the way they make meaning of their world through their interactions with other people (Chowdhury, 2014; Maree, 2016: 61). The researcher used these experiences and interactions to generate and interpret data that had been gathered from participants (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). Teachers' interactions with their learners are an important aspect of the study; teachers' classroom interactions were observed to determine the manner in which the teachers accommodated their linguistically diverse learners.

According to interpretivism, reality is socially and historically constructed (Chowdhury, 2014). The researcher observed participating teachers in their social contexts, which afforded her the opportunity to understand the perceptions they had of their own teaching practices. In order to gain insight into the subjective experiences of teachers, semi-structured interviews, observations, and a focus group discussion were conducted. This allowed for a rich, in-depth, and complex exploration of the phenomenon, which is translanguaging within a multilingual school setting. This is seen as a strength of interpretivism as it yields rich descriptions of the phenomenon in a study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). A goal of interpretivism is to value subjectivity. The answers to the research questions are not sought in rigid ways and the end results are the "products" and experiences of a particular group or culture (Thanh & Thanh, 2015).

A strength of interpretivist studies is that data are generated in great detail and these studies tend to have a high level of validity. A weakness, on the other hand, is that they include a degree of subjectivity on the part of researchers and there may be bias involved, which makes the findings ungeneralisable. However, there is always subjectivity and bias involved in all studies (Maree, 2012), and generalisability was not the aim of this study but rather to contribute towards knowledge construction. Interpretivism also focuses on context-specific meaning, rather than looking for generalised meanings within a specific context (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013).

4.5 Research Methodology

The research methodology is the specific procedures or processes used to identify, select, manage, and analyse information about a topic (Maxwell, 2008). The methodology section allows the reader to evaluate critically the study's overall validity and reliability. The methodology section answers questions of how the data were collected and generated and how they were analysed thereafter. The research methodology for this study comprises the study design, data generation and collection methods, sampling of participants and research sites, data analysis, and quality assurance measures.

4.5.1 Multiple case study

To gain knowledge on the perceptions of teachers on translanguaging and to gain a holistic understanding of their experiences within a multilingual schooling environment, a case study was chosen by the researcher as the most appropriate study design for the research. Case study research can be used to address exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory research questions: as this study explored teachers' perceptions of translanguaging and why they perceived translanguaging in this way, a case study was the best-suited method (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). According to Creswell, Hansen, Clark Plano & Morales (2007), a case study always involves studying an issue or phenomenon within a certain context; the context can involve an individual, group, activity, or programme. For Maree (2012), Simons (2009), and Creswell (2014b), a defining feature of a case study is that it explores a phenomenon that has a bounded system. This study involved a group of seven English language teachers and the bounded system to be explored for this study was the context.

A case study aims to answer a specific research question which requires a range of different kinds of evidence; the evidence is embedded in the case setting, which has to be collected in order to get the best possible answers to the research question (Creswell, 2014b:133; Gillham,

2000). The study relied on a multiple case study of two township primary schools by gathering data that are context-specific to answer the specific research question relating to teachers' perceptions of translanguaging. Case studies can take place on a single, multiple, or intrinsic scale. An intrinsic case study, on the other hand, is when a case itself is of interest and the researcher wishes to understand the case better (Creswell et al., 2007). For this multiple case study, the researcher wanted to explore similarities and differences within and between these cases (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Creswell et al., 2007).

The reason for selecting a multiple case study was to ensure a greater representation of the class of cases, allowing for breadth as well as depth of focus (Rule & John, 2011). The multiple cases were relevant to the study's theoretical framework (Rule & John, 2011). The goal of the study was to gain multiple perspectives from different teachers on their interactions with learners within two township primary schools. In these two township schools, the majority of classrooms consisted of linguistically diverse learners. The community in the study accommodated learners from the neighbouring townships of Nellmapius and Mamelodi. Learners from these townships speak other languages apart from Afrikaans. Therefore, the two schools had classrooms where learners spoke a range of different languages. This study took place in a naturalistic setting involving various teachers and their translanguaging practices in the English language classrooms.

An advantage of case study research is the close collaboration between the researcher and participants; the researcher was able to develop good relationships with all the teachers within the study, which could lead to further collaboration in the future with teachers who were interested in translanguaging teaching strategies (Creswell, 2007: 73; Simons, 2009). A specific advantage that came from using a multiple case study was that it revealed common findings (similar responses being given by teachers) that were used in this study to generate generalisations that might be tested further in future studies (Rule & John, 2011). This might also contribute to a deeper understanding of policy contexts: either how policy is implemented in a variety of settings; or what policy is needed to address a range of contexts (Rule & John, 2011). This is relevant to the study as the researcher wanted to understand the language policies at the two participating schools and how these influenced teachers' perceptions of translanguaging.

A disadvantage of case studies is that researcher bias may affect findings through prior researcher assumptions about the case (Simons, 2009). In this study, several different methods

of data collection were required in order to achieve validity and reliability: the study employed observations, interviews, focus groups, and field notes. This can often be a labour-intensive process (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Maree, 2016). Managing large amounts of data, finding, and retrieving files that include hard copies, electronic copies, and audio recordings present challenges (Gillham, 2000). Sifting through data sets to locate data to support prior assumptions about results may also prove to be a laborious process (Gillham, 2000). This was countered by the researcher during preparation for the fieldwork process and data storage: audio recordings of all interviews and observations, and field notes were allocated to specific folders. The researcher countered bias and prior assumptions being brought into the study by constant member checking with participants, who verified verbal accounts during interviews, and also by member checking with the supervisor.

4.5.2 Data Generation and Collection Methods

Data generation refers to the theory and methods that qualitative researchers use to collect data. Researchers do not merely collect data because the information is already “out there” and easily accessible in a social world. Rather qualitative researchers generate and produce knowledge as they interact with research participants and documents (Maree, 2012). Data collection methods for this study consisted of observations, semi-structured interviews, focus groups, documentation, photos, and field notes. Two township primary schools were chosen as research sites for this study. At school A, a focus group discussion was conducted with three English language teachers in November 2020, and three classroom observations took place in February 2021. At school B, semi-structured interviews and classroom observations were conducted with four English teachers in October 2020.

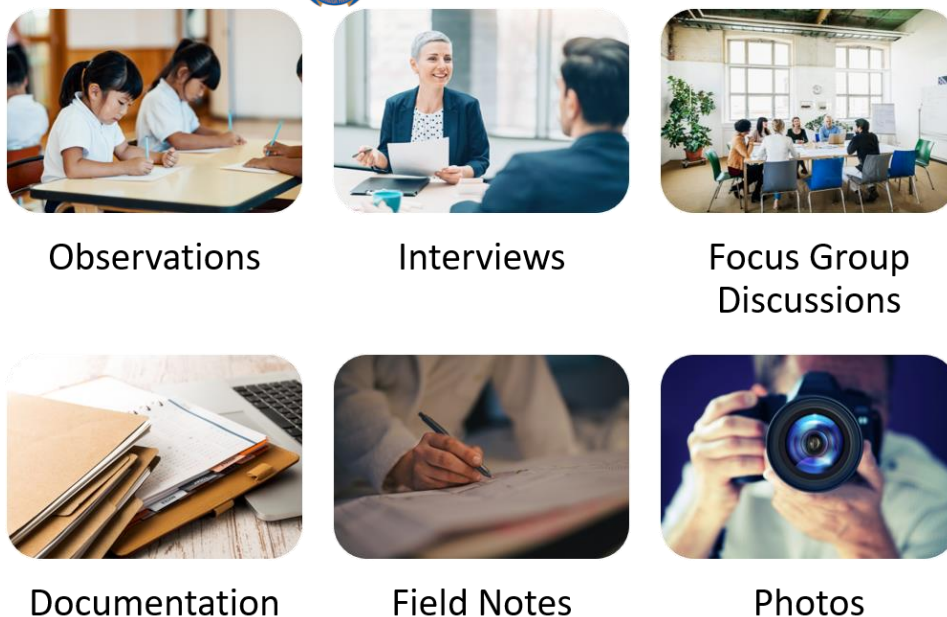


Figure 4.1, represents the methods of data collection that was used for this study

Source: google stock images

4.5.2.1 Observations

Observations involve watching what people do, listening to what they say, and getting a ‘thick’ description of the case (Rule & John, 2011; Simons, 2009; Yin, 2014). Through observations, the behavioural patterns of participating teachers and learners were recorded in this study without questioning or communicating with them, as recommended by Merriam and Grenier (2019), and Simons (2009). The validity of using observations is that it was the most direct way of obtaining data. It is not what people have written on the topic. It is not what they say they do; it is what they actually do (Gillham, 2000; Merriam & Grenier, 2019). Furthermore, observations establish rapport with individuals or members of a community; establishing rapport is viewed as having a greater understanding of and entrance into the world of the participants.

The researcher was aware that her presence influenced the behaviour and responses of the research participants (Maree, 2016:91). During observations, learners were aware that they were being observed and were initially distracted by the researcher; however, because the researcher observed 20-25 learners per class, the teacher was able to ensure that this small group of learners focused their attention on him/her. Through observing the teachers, the researcher was able to comprehend the circumstances of teaching in the two participating

schools. Additionally, the researcher asked teachers to clarify their reasoning for choosing certain methods of teaching and for excluding others.

In the study, Grades 4, 5, 6, and 7 English teachers' lessons at School B were observed in October 2020. While at school A, Grades 4, 5, and 7 English teachers were observed in February 2021. Therefore, seven observations were conducted in total. Generally, classrooms consisted of between 40-45 learners. However, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, classroom sizes were halved; subsequently, 20 – 25 learners were observed for the duration of each lesson. Teachers at the schools had limited knowledge of the term translanguaging and were not aware of their daily acts of spontaneous translanguaging; this made it more beneficial for the researcher to observe them, as this enabled the researcher to gain a deeper insight into and understanding of spontaneous translanguaging taking place within classrooms (Maree, 2016: 90).

The researcher was a non-participatory observer because the researcher did not participate in the activities taking place within the classroom (Creswell, 2014a). Therefore, she remained non-obtrusive and observed the situation from an objective distance (Maree, 2016: 91; Simons, 2009). During the lessons, the researcher sat at the front of the class (as requested by the teachers in order to also ensure that a safe distance was also kept between the researcher and the learners) to conduct observations of the teachers and their learners. In some lessons, the researcher was handed a lesson sheet and was able to follow the teacher's lesson design. The teachers also explained what the aims and objectives of the lessons were and clarified which assessments were conducted with their learners. All parties were aware of the researcher's roles and objectives. While observing, the researcher considered the cues from the activities and behaviours of the teacher and learner participants and made notes of what was observed. All classroom interactions were voice recorded and all recordings were then systematically filed.

An advantage of observations is that it is the simplest and most common method of data collection used in qualitative research; this method also enabled the researcher to collect the data as these occurred in a natural setting. The researcher heard, saw, and experienced reality as the participants did (Creswell, 2007: 134). Observations also allowed the researcher to learn through personal experience and to reflect on how the setting was socially constructed in terms of power dynamics, communication lines, discourse, and language (Creswell, 2007: 134). Observing teachers at School B before conducting individual interviews with them allowed the researcher to probe the reasons for their actions in the classroom during the interviews and to

understand their personal experiences. While at School A, some probing took place during the lessons, in which the researcher asked the teachers questions to relate their responses to the focus group discussions.

A disadvantage of observations is that they are subjective as the researcher brings his or her bias into the study when observing and reporting on participants' behaviour; this shows that observation is both fallible and selective (Leavy, 2014; Simons, 2009). Participants may also change their behaviour as they know they are being observed (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). The researcher, however, used various data collection methods that include interviews, recordings, documentation, and field notes to counter researcher bias during observations in this study. At school B, teachers were first observed before they were interviewed. This allowed the researcher to ask questions for clarification on certain classroom interactions, in order to ensure that the researcher was not bringing any prior assumptions to the study. While at school A, the researcher was able to ask for clarification during the lessons that were observed.

4.5.2.2 Semi-structured Interviews

Maxwell (2008) highlights the difference between interview questions and a study's research questions. The research questions identify the phenomenon that the researcher wants to understand; interview questions, on the other hand, generate the data needed to understand this phenomenon. A semi-structured interview is a combination of open-ended as well as structured close-ended questions where a set of interview questions is asked, and probing follows for clarification (Maree, 2016). Semi-structured interviews allow for flexibility during data collection and create spaces for the researcher to pursue lines of inquiry during the interview (Bryman, 2012). By using this method, the researcher was able to rephrase certain questions and adjust the structure of certain interview questions in order to get a more detailed answer. Through this process, the researcher became a knowledge-producing participant, rather than hiding behind a set interview guide (Bryman, 2012). Throughout the interview, the researcher was able to focus the conversation on issues that she deemed as important in relation to the research (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). The researcher's goal of these interviews was to obtain teachers' descriptions and perceptions of translingual practices, instead of drawing her own conclusions from or her own perspective and experiences (Leavy, 2014).

In the study, semi-structured interviews were conducted at School B with English teachers from Grades 4, 5, 6, and 7. English teachers were chosen as English was a content subject and LOLT at the participating schools; this requires learners to be able to read, write and speak in English

in other subject classes. The aim was to gain insight into the complexities of teachers' experiences of teaching English in a multilingual setting. Interviews were conducted alongside a focus group discussion to gain in-depth data into the personal lived experiences of these teachers.

The interviews took place during and after school hours, at a time when it best suited the participating teachers. The interviews took approximately 20-30 minutes and were conducted individually with four teachers. With permission from the teachers, interviews were also voice recorded. The researcher followed interview guidelines suggested by Rule and John (2011):

- A relaxed atmosphere was created between the researcher and the teacher.
- The nature and purpose of the study were explained to each teacher; teachers were also thanked for their willingness to participate, especially during such a time as the Covid-19 pandemic.
- Each of the participants was also informed of the researcher's ethical obligations and that participation was voluntary.
- The conversational style between the researcher and teacher allowed the researcher to probe and clarify what the teacher was saying.
- The researcher also guarded against going off topic during interviews and guided the teachers back to the main focus of the interview.

Following these interview guidelines by Rule and John (2011) allowed the researcher to establish rapport and close collaboration with the teachers involved in the study. An advantage of using semi-structured interviews is that they are flexible in nature; the researcher used a set of interview questions as a guideline but was also able to rephrase or clarify if participants did not understand the question. The interviews were conducted in a conversational style which made the participants feel more at ease; teachers felt comfortable to speak freely and to share their experiences.

The teachers were observed during their lessons, after which individual interviews took place. This allowed the researcher to probe the classroom interactions which took place and to link what was said during the interview with what had been done during the lesson; probes are sub-questions that the researcher asks to elicit more information (Creswell, 2014a). Probing in these interviews had advantages for the study as it allowed the researcher to adjust the interview questions when she sensed that there was more to be learnt from the participants (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). The researcher listened carefully and did not interrupt participants during their

responses. This allowed the researcher to identify new emerging lines of inquiry that were related to the phenomenon being studied and to probe and explore these new themes (Bryman, 2012). Afterwards, the interviews were transcribed to produce a written record (interview transcript) of what had been said for the purpose of data analysis.

A disadvantage of interviews is that the quality of data collected depends on several factors such as the structure of the interview, the types of questions that are asked, the capability of the interviewer, and the quality of responses given by the interviewee (Ajagbe et al., 2015). As the researcher is inexperienced, these factors played a role; however, Maree (2012) gives encouragement to all researchers, in that they should learn not to take themselves too seriously. Mistakes are inevitable and represent a learning curve for future studies they will conduct.

4.5.2.3 Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

In a focus group, a moderator directs discussion amongst 5-12 people with the purpose of collecting in-depth qualitative data about a group's opinions, views, and understanding of a particular topic (Maree, 2016: 96). It is the interaction among participants and their dialogues that the moderator makes an attempt to generate through the discussion and record. Leavy (2014) finds that group interviews are more dynamic and flexible in comparison with individual interviews, as they may be closer to everyday discussions. In this regard, the researcher in this study introduced the topic and facilitated an interchange, which took place between three teachers at School A. The demands of questioning, listening, and being sensitive to group dynamics require good facilitation; this was, however, not too difficult to accomplish as only three teachers were part of the discussion at School A (Bryman, 2012).

The point of the discussion was not to reach an agreement between participants about the issues being discussed but to articulate different viewpoints about multilingual education. Focus group interviews are well suited for exploratory studies in little-known domains or about newly emerging social phenomena because the dynamic social interaction that results may provide for more spontaneous and unrehearsed expressions to occur than in individual interviews (Leavy, 2014). This made a focus group suitable for the study as translanguaging is a new and emerging field and the topic had not yet been explored with teachers at the schools within this context.

A focus group discussion was conducted at School A, which was initially meant to include English language teachers from Grades 4, 5, 6, and 7. The Grade 6 teacher, however, did not attend the focus group discussion. As participation was voluntary, teachers had a choice

whether to participate in the discussion. The number of participants in the focus group discussion did not meet Maree's (2016) criteria of at least five participants for it to be considered as a focus group discussion. However, probing was involved for all questions, and participation from all three teachers was encouraged by the researcher; this allowed relevant and rich data to be produced. The discussion was also recorded to capture the data. The focus group discussion aided in obtaining more in-depth data for the study and accommodated one participant, who felt more comfortable in a group setting than s/he would have been during an individual interview. Furthermore, teachers from School A preferred to be part of a once off focus group discussion and indicated that they did not have time to take part in individual interviews due to their teaching workloads.

The focus group discussion began with a general question and a brief introduction of the study's aim. This helped to ease participants into the process. This was followed by more structured questions that were relevant to the study. The researcher also ensured safe distancing between each participant and all teachers kept their face masks on for the duration of the discussion. The timeframe for the focus group was approximately 30 minutes.

An advantage of the focus group discussion is that it helps to generate many views and perceptions from participants with the goal of obtaining answers to the specific research question (Maree, 2016: 96). Views of teachers at School A varied from those given during the individual interviews conducted at School B, which added to enrich the findings. The focus group discussion helped in providing valuable information, especially since the participants built on each other's views. Focus groups are also useful in gaining a range and diversity of views; the researcher identified whose views were central and marginal in the group pinpointed resistance and how dialogues shifted the understanding of members in the group, as propagated by Bryman (2012). During the discussion, one teacher's dominant view helped in focussing the discussion between her colleagues, which also encouraged more participation from the other teachers.

A disadvantage of focus group discussions is that some participants may not feel comfortable answering questions in a group setting and some may not show up for the discussion. One or two participants may also take over the discussion. What may also be a contributing factor to how participants respond is a moderator of a differing age, gender, race, or ethnicity. However, sufficient preparatory work was carried out by the researcher – she was able to focus the discussion and encourage full participation from all participants by taking a step back and

becoming an attentive listener to their responses (Balfour, 2014). There were also only four participants, which contributed to keeping the discussion focused, and that encouraged full participation by all the teachers.

4.5.2.4 Documentation

Documents are described as a valuable source of information in qualitative research (Creswell, 2014a) and play an explicit role in the data collection of case studies (Yin, 2014). Documentation for this study will also be discussed as photographic evidence. Documents may prompt important questions about the topic under study, which could be pursued further during interviews (Rule & John, 2011). The documents targeted for this study were the participating teachers' lesson plans, three lesson plans were analysed for this study; during the interviews, the researcher was able to probe teachers further on questions regarding the lesson plans. This type of documentation was relevant to the concerns of the researcher (Bryman, 2012). These lesson plans were analysed as they provided information on how translanguaging featured in the planning of lessons. This provided further information to the researcher on planned and unplanned acts of translanguaging within the classrooms. The value of this documentation is that it already existed in the situation; it did not intrude upon or alter the setting in ways that the presence of the researcher might have (Merriam & Grenier, 2019; Mills, Durepos & Wiebe, 2010). Another advantage is that these documents were ready for analysis without the transcription that was required from the interview data (Creswell, 2014a).

The researcher was able to gain access to this documentation by being granted permission to observe the lessons. Teachers were willing to provide their lesson plans, so access to these lesson plans was not a challenge to the researcher. The lesson plans included a reading comprehension, a language structure, and convention activity, and a rubric of an oral assessment. These lesson plans and assessments were selected as they could be analysed to determine whether translanguaging strategies were used in the classroom. Crucially, these lesson plans were identified as the types of documents that could provide useful information to answer the qualitative research questions for the study.

4.5.2.5 Photos

Photography is used in research when the researcher and the reader are able to see the world through the participant's eyes (Glaw, Inder, Kable & Hazelton, 2017). Photographs were taken by the researcher in the field; these are presented in Chapter 5 (findings chapter) to show the reader the environment of the participants. Photos were taken during classroom observations

in order to illustrate how many learners were observed, the diversity of the group of learners that were observed, and how the school structured its classrooms in order to adhere to Covid-19 regulations. The photographs of classrooms also reveal the structural features and ergonomics of the classrooms to the reader. Photographs were also taken of specific parts of the lesson documentation, which include the reading comprehension, the oral assessment instructions, and parts of the language structure and conventions booklet. The photos illustrate depth and detail that cannot be conveyed through words (Glaw et al., 2017). They are presented to the reader in order to generate discussions on the translanguaging methods used within classrooms and lesson plans.

4.5.2.6 Field Notes

Field notes are the observation data produced by the researcher (Creswell, 2014a; Simons, 2009). Field notes are made in order to record what the researcher saw, heard, and experienced (Simons, 2009). The researcher wrote up field notes as she recorded the observations; this included recording verbal behaviour by the participants and writing a reflection on observations relevant to the topic (Creswell, 2007: 148). An advantage of field notes is that they are simple to make and keep during the data collection process and require no outside assistance. The researcher was able to use the notes as a first-hand record of what took place during fieldwork and she was able to study them in her own time. During the semi-structured interviews and the focus group discussion, the researcher first took down notes about the teachers' teaching background, the grades they taught, and how many years of teaching experience they had.

The researcher took down notes of relevant information during the discussions. Afterwards, the researcher asked the teachers to verify the veracity of the field notes (Creswell, 2007: 148). Therefore, the researcher constructed the field notes by conducting an observation as an observer. A disadvantage of field notes is that it is time consuming during the data analysis process; the researcher was not able to take down notes of direct quotes from the participants. However, this was countered as the interviews and observations were voice recorded and transcribed.

4.6 Research Site, Participants, and Sampling Method

4.6.1 Research site

Eersterust is a coloured township situated west of Mamelodi. During the Apartheid era, the National Party moved those racially classified as Coloured to this area (Eersterust our Community, 2020). It is originally believed that during 1905, a farm owner separated this land

into housing units to be used by the Coloured people. However, in the 1950s as the Group Areas Act was implemented the farm named Derdepoort was instead promulgated as the area where the Coloured race would be placed (Tutu, 2016). In 1962 the area was officially named Eersterust (Tutu, 2016). This community's cultural heritage has matured into something unique and distinct with its own practices and identities based on friendliness and kindness.

The main home language in this township is Afrikaans, which is spoken by 78% of the population; English is spoken by 10% of the residents (Statistics South Africa, 2012). When the Group Areas Act removed people from their homes, this led to disastrous consequences, of families being torn apart and the degradation of lifestyle. The effects of poverty have resulted in unemployment, inept work, insufficient pay, domestic turmoil, alcohol and crime, and poor diet, which has had far reaching consequences for this community (Springveldt, 2008).

Many parents from the neighbouring townships of Mamelodi and Nellmapius send their children to primary schools in Eersterust, as they believe their children receive a better education through the medium of English; this makes for schools and a community that is linguistically diverse. Teachers and learners within these three townships are able to communicate in more than two languages, which is why this study was conducted within this context and why multilingual participants participated.

4.6.2 Participants

School A and B are no fee-paying government schools located in Tshwane South district of Gauteng. Each school is double medium, catering for English and Afrikaans learners. Within each grade of both schools, there are three English Home-Language classes and one Afrikaans Home-Language class. School A has a library and computer lab. School B has no computer lab but has a library. Neither school has a school hall and during assemblies, learners often assemble in the courtyard. English teachers from both schools teach two groups of learners; the learners from Eersterust are in the English First Additional Language (FAL) classrooms and those from Mamelodi and Nellmapius are in the English Home-Language classes.

The English language classrooms at both schools have a 60/40 ratio of Coloured and African learners. For both groups of learners, English is not their home language. School A was established in June 1970 and can accommodate 800 learners; when the study was conducted, there were over 1 200 learners at the school. Some classrooms comprised 60 learners. School B is located 1.3 km from School A. School B was established in December 1989 and was also built to accommodate 800 learners. When the study was conducted, it too had over 1 200

learners. Eersterust is a Coloured township, and Afrikaans is the dominant language, spoken by 70% of the population. Both schools in Eersterust include 60% Coloured and 40% African learners. Many parents from the neighbouring townships of Mamelodi and Nellmapius send their children to schools in Eersterust as they believe they will learn English better at these schools. Participants for the study included seven English language teachers.

4.6.3 Sampling method

When the researcher chose when and where to observe, whom to talk to, or what information sources to focus on, she was faced with a sampling decision (Maxwell, 2008). A researcher has to choose participants who can shed the most light, or different lights on a case. The sample is used to represent what is typical of the research site, participants, or phenomenon. Participants are selected based on their relevant interest, and experience in relation to the case and their suitability in advancing the case (Rule & John, 2011). Therefore, sampling should be closely related to the research question, the methodology, and the purpose of the study (Maree, 2012).

Purposive sampling was most suitable for this study, which's specific purpose was to explore teachers' perceptions of translanguaging in classrooms (Creswell, 2007: 125). The researcher selected the individuals and sites for the study because they could purposefully assist in understanding the research question and the central topic of the study (Creswell, 2007: 125). Sampling in a case study consists of finding a case and then choosing a sample within the bounded system. English-language teachers were specifically chosen for this study. The reason for this choice was that language is seen as one of the biggest barriers to learning. Therefore, it was expedient to gain language teachers' perspectives of translanguaging in a multicultural and multilingual setting. Additionally, the context and participants were purposefully selected in order to relate the case to the theories that were chosen for the study, notably constructivism, translanguaging, and the Ubuntu translanguaging theories.

A drawback of purposive sampling is that often researcher bias is involved. Furthermore, the sample chosen might not be a true representation of the population and would thus not be generalisable. This was countered in the study by selecting two schools and multiple methods of data collection. Importantly, the study did not aim to draw generalisations but rather to construct new knowledge.

4.7 Data Analysis

Data analysis refers to the process of making sense of the data that was collected by the researcher (Creswell, 2014a). Qualitative data analysis is ongoing, with data collection, processing, analysis, and reporting all intertwined. This study consisted of qualitative data that were analysed qualitatively using thematic and content analysis. The theoretical framework for the study was used to guide the researcher in relating the findings to the relevant theories. Thematic analysis was used to analyse interviews, focus group, and observation data because by nature themes are the fundamental parts of these sets of data. Content analysis was used to analyse the documents. For the study, a five-step process was used to analyse the data. This included: (a) describing the data; (b) transcribing; (c) using codes to generate descriptions of the setting, people, or events; (d) deciding how the descriptions and themes should be represented; and (e) interpreting the findings.

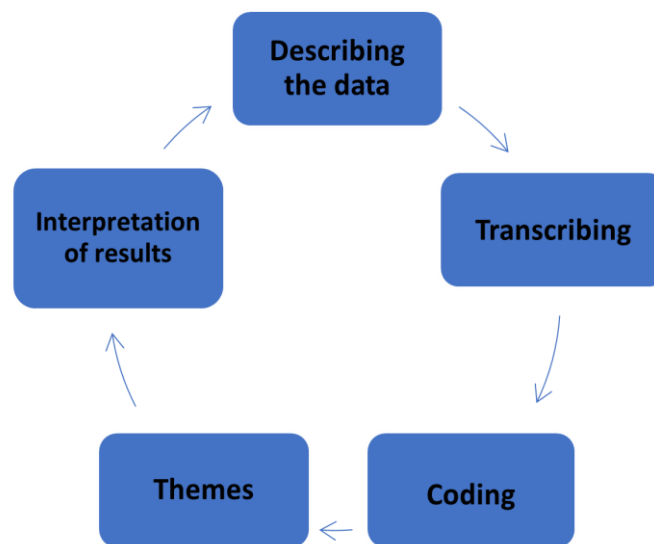


Figure 4.2, represents the data analysis process that was used for this study

4.7.1 Describing

Data sets from field notes, observations, interviews, and a focus group discussion were kept separate in order to make the process of consulting them again easier and to facilitate reviewing (Maree, 2016: 115). The data were then organised and prepared for analysis. The data from each of the participants were described. This included the number of participants, how they were selected, their relevant background data as well as an in-depth discussion of the context

in which the study was done (Maree, 2016: 114). Summarising what was seen and heard and linking and interpreting these into words, themes, phrases, and patterns were the next steps (Maree, 2016: 109).

4.7.2 Transcribing

When conducting a qualitative study, researchers must attend to the phase of setting down the verbal research material in writing by means of transcription (Stuckey, 2015). The term transcription refers to any graphic representation of selective aspects of verbal, tone of speech, and nonverbal means of communication (Stuckey, 2015). All data were transcribed from audio recordings of interviews and the focus group discussion; data were written down verbatim. However, not all the information obtained was relevant to the study as some of the teachers diverted from the topic of discussion. The researcher identified common themes that emerged from the data collected from the interviews and focus group discussion.

4.7.3 Coding and themes

Thematic analysis refers to the process of identifying themes in the data, which capture meaning that is relevant to the research question, and to make links between these themes (Bryman, 2012). Themes build on codes identified in transcripts and/or field notes. The themes which emerged from the study provided the researcher with the basis for a theoretical understanding of her data, which could make a contribution to the literature relating to the research focus (Bryman, 2012). Creating themes is a core feature of qualitative thematic content analysis; the key is to determine how themes relate to one another and to find patterns in the data (Maree, 2016: 116). The themes for the study were derived from the interview questions that were used during semi-structured interviews and the focus group discussion. The interview questions were derived by the researcher using the main research question and theoretical framework for the study as a guideline. After developing the main themes, sub-themes emerged under each theme as participants gave a wide range of responses. The researcher then decided on what each theme represented.

Codes are labels that are used to highlight different themes within the data (Rule & John, 2011). Through open coding, codes were assigned to each of the different sub-themes that emerged. Open coding is used in qualitative data analysis to classify and label concepts, when the researcher examines and questions the data, codes will then be suggested by the researcher (Babbie, 2010:400). Therefore, coding is the process of choosing labels and assigning them to different parts of data. The data for the study were coded by reading through each interview

transcription, and dividing it into meaningful analytical units (Maree, 2016: 116). Interview transcriptions were divided into three columns; in the third column, a code was assigned to a text that was significant to a relevant theme (Rule & John, 2011). Each code was also assigned a different colour (Appendix I).

By developing the codes through reading, coding, reflection, writing, and rereading, the researcher was able to make links between ideas and larger ideas (themes or categories) and began to develop claims regarding the topic of study (Roulston, 2014). As the researcher coded the data, she realised that other codes and themes needed to be created (Stuckey, 2015). Although researchers may vary in their theoretical approach, what is common in this phase of analysis is that the researcher had to discern the key concepts concerning the phenomenon of interest. The researcher had to reflect on her prior assumptions and initial claims, and continually search through the data set to verify, recheck, and modify initial ideas about the topic of interest (Stuckey, 2015).

4.7.4 Interpretation

Finally, findings were interpreted in a logical and well-ordered structure of codes and categories in order to reveal the essence of the phenomenon being studied. Interpretation is a very important aspect of qualitative research. Without interpretation, we cannot make sense of our data. Interpretation is a response to the question ‘what does this mean?’ and is concerned with generating a deeper and/or fuller understanding of the meanings contained within an account. Creswell (2007) refers to this as ‘naturalistic generalisations’; the researcher develops generalisations from the case where people can learn from this to see if this can be applied to other cases. Data that were analysed, was contextualised with existing theory. How the findings brought about a new understanding to the body of knowledge was discussed; as this was the researcher’s contribution to the development of new knowledge (Maree, 2016: 120). By using a different array of data collection methods, such as interviews, observations, documentation, and field notes, the researcher was able to achieve triangulation.

4.7.5 Analysis of document data

Through content analysis, a reading comprehension, a language structure, and convention activity, a rubric for an oral assessment and field notes taken during observations were analysed to identify translanguaging strategies. Analysis of documentation comprised of searching for underlying themes in the lesson plans and field notes that were analysed (Bryman, 2012). In qualitative research, content analysis is used to communicate meaning because it focuses on

producing insights about situations or events through key concepts or themes derived from the study (Sichula, 2018). This was done by looking out for concepts and instructions that were closely linked to the themes of the study. Through analysing the field notes the researcher was able to determine that unplanned acts of translanguaging featured in the way teachers presented their lessons and also in the lesson documentation. The researcher then identified categories that captured the relevant attributes of the lesson plans on the topic. By using the themes already developed through analysing the interviews, the researcher clustered the emergent themes that were similar and used them to create the main findings from these interviews, field notes, lesson plans, and assessments.

4.8 Quality Assurance

Trustworthiness is of the utmost importance for quality assurance in qualitative research. Four criteria are needed to establish trustworthiness: credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability. Trustworthiness or rigour of a study refers to the degree of confidence in the data, the interpretation, and the methods used to ensure the quality of a study.

4.8.1 Credibility

Credibility refers to confidence in the ‘truth’ of the data that were collected (Pandey, 2014). Techniques used to establish credibility include continued engagement with participants, regular observation, if applicable to the study, peer-debriefing, member-checking, and constantly going back to field notes (Connelly, 2016). To ensure credibility in this study, interview participants were asked to verify if what they said was correctly interpreted and further probing was followed for clarification. Participants were also asked to check field notes and interview transcripts to verify the data that were collected. The researcher also had her supervisor check that interpretations of data and that conclusions were relevant to the study, as an ‘independent, distanced and critical eye’ can contribute to the credibility of the study (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Individuals who are not involved in the study will also help to increase credibility; reviewers not affiliated with the project as well as various readers for whom the account is written may help establish validity (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

4.8.2 Transferability

Transferability refers to the notion that qualitative research should not aim to make generalisations from the data collected. Qualitative researchers focus on the uniqueness of the participant’s story. Researchers support their studies’ transferability with a rich, detailed description of the context, location, and participants, and by being honest about analysis and

trustworthiness. Researchers need to provide a vivid picture that will inform and resonate with readers (Connelly, 2016). The researcher ensured that the context and participants chosen were typical to the phenomenon being studied, which included the multilingual community and participating schools. The researcher also ensured that the data were closely connected to the specific context, in order for the reader to establish whether this would be generalisable to the population's context (Pandey, 2014). This was done by ensuring that the two schools chosen for the study were within the same context.

4.8.3 Dependability

Dependability refers to the reliability of the research, in that if the study was repeated within the same context, using the same methods of data collection, the results would be the same (Pandey, 2014). Procedures for dependability included maintenance of an audit trail of notes made by the researcher and debriefings with participants and with the researcher's supervisor. The researcher made notes of accounts of activities that happened during the study and decisions about aspects of the study, such as whom to interview and what to observe. Dependability was established through voice recording the interviews and focus group data. Questions asked during the interview process were also clearly formulated and probing was followed if clarification was needed by the participant. A detailed record of the data analysis process was kept by the researcher. The researcher also kept a record of decisions made during the research. She regularly informed her supervisor of these decisions regarding the data collection process and analysis, which helped to increase dependability (Connelly, 2016).

4.8.4 Conformability

Conformability is used to establish that findings from the research came from the participants and not from the subjective view of the researcher (Pandey, 2014). Methods to ensure conformability include maintenance of an audit trail of analysis and methodological notes of all research activities. Researchers may conduct member-checking with study participants or similar individuals (Connelly, 2016). Member checking for the study was conducted by the researcher's supervisor. Triangulation of data collection was used to decrease researcher bias; this was done through using multiple sources of data collection such as observations, interviews, documents, and field notes. This aided in gaining a deeper understanding of the phenomenon. Using a multiplicity and diversity of these sources and methods strengthened the truthfulness of the findings of this study; this process minimised bias, as the researcher did not rely on only one method or case (Rule & John, 2011).

4.9 Ethical Assurance

Conducting research in an ethically sound manner enhances the quality of research and contributes to its trustworthiness (Creswell, 2014b; Maree, 2012; Neuman 2014). Ethics flow from a system of moral principles embraced by a society or a specific community. They reflect the norms and values of acceptable behaviour. Research ethics embraced by a community of scholars, govern, and guide the practices of researchers (Creswell, 2014b; Johnson & Christensen, 2017). An essential aspect of ethics is to protect the identity of those participating in the study (Johnson & Christensen, 2017); therefore, it is always important for researchers to familiarise themselves with the ethics policy of the institution at which they conduct their research.



Figure 4.3, represents the ethical assurance procedures that were used for this study

4.9.1 Institutional approval and access to schools

In order to ensure ethical assurance, documentation such as consent letters was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Pretoria's Faculty of Education. Once the Ethics Committee approved the study, the researcher approached the Gauteng Department of Basic Education to receive permission to conduct the study. An application was forwarded to the department along with all relevant documentation, and the department then gave the researcher permission to conduct the study at two township primary schools in Gauteng. Two principals at two primary schools in Eersterust were then approached to obtain permission to conduct the study. After approval had been given by each of the principals, the researcher approached English-language teachers to obtain permission for the observations of learners, and for

conducting interviews and focus group discussions. Learners and their parents were asked for their assent and consent to take part in the study.

4.9.2 Voluntary participation

Informed consent involves full disclosure of the aims, methods, affiliations, potential risks, and anticipated benefits of a study before participants give their consent (Johnson & Christensen, 2017; Neuman, 2014; Touitou, Portaluppi, Smolensky, & Rensing, 2004). Letters of consent were given to the principals at both schools. Teachers involved in the interviews, observations, and focus group discussions were also given consent letters, detailing the purpose of the study. The parents of the Grade 4, 5, 6, and 7 learners were given permission letters to sign, detailing when observations will take place in the classrooms during the English lessons. Learners were also given letters of assent to obtain their approval for classroom observations. Participants were informed that participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any stage of the research without any negative consequences. Participants and school principals were thanked by the researcher for their willingness to participate in the study during the Covid-19 pandemic.

4.9.3 Privacy and trust

The research topic does not address sensitive “personal” information and, therefore, complete anonymity was not required. Confidentiality, however, is essential and the study ensures the ‘security of data’ in dissemination as individual participants and the schools involved were assigned pseudonyms (Nolen & Putten, 2007; Neuman, 2014). No deception or intentional misguiding of participants was used in the study and trust was of the utmost importance (McDonald, Townsend, Cox, Paterson, & Lafrenière, 2008; Neuman, 2014). All information collected is securely stored on my supervisor’s computer (password protected) in line with the University of Pretoria’s ethics’ regulations. The audio recordings made during interviews, focus group discussion, and observations were only listened to by the researcher and were stored securely at all times in specific folders. The recordings were never reproduced or broadcasted to a third party.

4.9.4 Safety in participation

Treatment of research participants is the most vital and fundamental issue that researchers confront (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). The benefits of the study outweighed any possible risks; there was no harm caused during observations, interviews, and focus group discussions. The interests of the participants were of utmost importance and there was no foreseen conflict

with the stated interests of the researcher (Neuman, 2014; Nolen & Putten, 2007). The benefit of the study was to identify the perspectives of teachers and learners of translanguaging. Participation in this study was voluntary (Neuman, 2014), and there was no remuneration in the form of rewards or reimbursement for participation (Moodley & Myer, 2008). The researcher also held to all safety protocols in line with the Covid-19 pandemic and ensured safe social distancing of 1.5m with participants during interviews, focus group discussions, and observations.

4.10 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research design, research methods, data analysis and interpretation, and ethical measures that were followed by the researcher and provided the entire plan of the study for the reader. A case study method was used that included semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion, observations, documentation, and field notes. The data were analysed through thematic and content analysis; quality assurance involved credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. The chapter concluded with the ethical measures undertaken by the researcher. In the following chapter, the presentation of findings for the study is discussed.

Chapter 5

Presentation of Findings

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study, which was conducted at two primary schools within the township of Eersterust, located in the Tshwane South District of Gauteng. The aim of the study was to look into teachers' perceptions of translanguaging, and whether they implement this teaching and learning strategy. The study provides accounts by seven English teachers who were interviewed. 140 Learners were observed in seven classrooms. The schools within Eersterust have two types of learners: firstly, FAL learners, who are mainly from Eersterust with a few African learners from outside of Eersterust; and English Home Language learners, who are from Eersterust and the surrounding townships of Mamelodi and Nellmapius. The schools consist of learners and teachers who are culturally and linguistically diverse. This chapter gives voice to the teachers' perceptions of translanguaging in linguistically diverse classrooms.

5.2 Research questions:

The findings answer the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of translanguaging amongst English teachers in township primary schools?
2. Why do teachers perceive translanguaging in this way?

There were four major findings of this study to answer the above research questions:

Theme 1: Teacher conceptualisation of translanguaging

Theme 2: Language ideologies

Theme 3: Responses from learners

Theme 4: Teachers' perceptions of community participation

5.3 Presentation of findings

The participant demographics are represented in Table 5.1, Table 5.2 and 5.3 below.

Table 5.1 Teacher demographics

Teacher name	Grade	Years of teaching	Race	School name	Participation
Mrs Min	4	3	Coloured	A	FGD + Observation
Mrs Crey	5	24	Coloured	A	FGD + Observation
Mrs Bee	7	26	Coloured	A	FGD + Observation
Mrs Bops	4	30	African	B	Observation + interview
Mr Best	5	33	White	B	Observation + interview
Mrs Lilly	6	33	Coloured	B	Observation + interview
Mr Tember	7	27	Coloured	B	Observation + interview

Table 5.2 Learner demographics School B

Teacher	Lesson observed	Coloured learners (Afrikaans speaking)	African learners (English, Sotho, Sepedi, Tswana, Ndebele, Shona & Venda)
Mrs Bops's lesson	English Home Language	8	5
Mr Best's lesson	English Home Language	12	8
Mrs Lilly's lesson	English Home Language	11	9
Mr Tember's lesson	English Home Language	13	7

Table 5.3 Learner demographics School A

Teacher	Lesson observed	Coloured learners (Afrikaans and English speaking)	African learners (English, Zulu & Tswana speaking)
Mrs Min's lesson	English FAL	16	3
Mrs Crey's lesson	English Home Language	13	5
Mrs Bee's lesson	English FAL	18	7

The four themes consist of various sub-themes which are discussed in detail in the following section. These are represented in Table 5.4 below:

Table 5.4: Summary of themes and sub-themes

<p><u>Theme 1: Teacher conceptualisation of translanguaging</u></p> <p>Sub-theme 1.1: Participants' understanding of translanguaging</p> <p>Sub-theme 1.2: Do participants use translanguaging teaching strategies?</p> <p>Sub-theme 1.3: Is translanguaging an effective strategy in the English language classroom?</p>
<p><u>Theme 2: Language Ideologies</u></p> <p>Sub-theme 2.1: Teachers' views of translanguaging teaching strategies</p> <p>Sub-theme 2.2: Teachers' views of multilingualism</p>
<p><u>Theme 3: Response from learners</u></p> <p>Sub-theme 3.1: Learners' response when home language is used</p> <p>Sub-theme 3.2: What other languages are used in the classroom</p>
<p><u>Theme 4: Teachers' perceptions of community participation</u></p> <p>Sub-theme 4.1: Parental involvement</p> <p>Sub-theme 4.2: Teachers' perceptions of community involvement</p> <p>Sub-theme 4.3: Teachers' perceptions of community circumstances</p>

5.4 Theme 1: Teacher conceptualisation of translanguaging

This theme relates to the research questions of the study: what are teachers' perceptions of translanguaging and why do they perceive translanguaging in this way. There are three sub-themes under this theme: sub-theme 1.1, participants' understanding of translanguaging; sub-theme 1.2, do the participants use translanguaging teaching strategies; and sub-theme 1.3, is translanguaging seen as an effective strategy in the English language classroom. These themes will be discussed below. The discussions will begin with semi-structured interviews conducted with teachers at School B, then the focus group discussion with teachers at school A.

5.4.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Participants' understanding of translanguaging

Due to the 'new' and 'developing' nature of translanguaging in research and scholarship in South Africa (Mwaniki, 2016:199), translanguaging and its effectiveness in multilingual classrooms has only recently received attention (Makalela, 2015b), hence many teachers themselves are not aware of this term. Translanguaging takes place within the classroom when multilingual speakers use their different languages to 'make meaning, shape experiences and gain understanding' (Leung & Valdes, 2019: 359), or when multilingual speakers switch between languages in order to understand subject content (Canagarajah, 2011). Some educationists mistake translanguaging for code-switching; however, translanguaging is more than just switching between codes (languages). Code-switching is a process of switching between two languages and separate monolingual codes whereas translanguaging focuses on how speakers use their entire linguistic repertoire (Nagy, 2018). Translanguaging as a theory does, however, embrace code-switching (Liu & Fang, 2020) and both can be used by teachers for classroom management, to clarify concepts, and to maintain social relationships (Strauss, 2016).

5.4.1.1 Semi-structured interviews

During semi-structured interviews, all four participating teachers at School B had a good understanding of the principles of translanguaging, although they had not come across the term before. Mr Tember and Mrs Lilly both stated that they were not familiar with the term translanguaging and that it was the first time hearing of translanguaging. However, after briefly explaining what translanguaging is and that for bi/multilinguals the interchanging of languages is an everyday occurrence, they both realised this was implemented on a regular basis especially in a multilingual setting such as Eersterust. Mr Tember added that during his lesson, which the researcher observed, he would clarify concepts or instructions in Afrikaans to make sure learners understood what was required of them for the task at hand. Mr Tember added

during his interview that language is a barrier to learning within his school and many of the learners do struggle, especially with content subjects like English. He stated:

“...language is a big problem because I found that some, because when I do my assessments when I mark some of the work that they do, you will see. I pick it up in the spelling, I pick it up in the answer.” (Mr Tember’s interview transcription, line 71-74)

When Mrs Bops was asked what her understanding of translanguaging was, she answered the following:

“...yes, its mos when, you do, you are Pedi but you’re being taught in Afrikaans or English.” (Mrs Bops’s interview transcription, line 39-40)

After further probing, Mrs Bops clarified that translanguaging took place when the language of input is Sepedi and the language of output is English, as the teacher reads in Sepedi and the learners then speak or write in English. This is in line with Makalela’s (2014) definition of translanguaging as a strategy where listening and reading are conducted in one language, while speaking and writing are done in another language; this process enables bilingual learners to use their home language that results in greater motivation and a better understanding of the content being learned at school. Mrs Bops went on to explain that a term like translanguaging was common knowledge to her, because the word ‘trans’ means you are moving, and when combining it with language it would mean that you are moving between languages.

Mrs Bops also stated:

“...its common sense, trans and languaging, it’s especially like when you have children who are doing home language, but they are talking about another. Their home language is something, but they are doing English as their home language [at school], you understand.” (Mrs Bops’s interview transcription, line 45-48)

She also added that in her English lessons, learners would often ask questions in their home language. They were placed in the home language class; however, English is their third or even fourth language.

Mr Best was able to conceptualise his understanding of translanguaging before probing was done:

“...to my knowledge and perception translanguaging is the learning, teaching, and acquisition of a language through the usage of another language, in other words the additive approach it’s also called. In other words, using more than one language to teach a language. Usually, the children’s home language or vernacular language.”

(Mr Best’s interview transcription, line 4-9)

Mr Best understood that through translanguaging, the learners' home language is used with the LOLT in order to teach. Therefore, the participants at School B had a good understanding of the underlying principles of translanguaging.

5.4.1.2 Focus group discussion

For the three teachers at School A, probing had to be done before any technical conceptualisation of translanguaging could be given. The three teachers, however, did have similar responses to the ones at School B when it came to their understanding of translanguaging. They too instinctively implemented translanguaging strategies without being aware of the term. Mrs Crey and Mrs Bee had never heard of the term translanguaging. Mrs Min, who was pursuing her Honours in Inclusive Education became aware of the term translanguaging after probing was done. She indicated that it is a strategy used to facilitate learning in multilingual classrooms. Mrs Bee’s understanding of translanguaging was similar to Mrs Bops’s at School B. She explained it entailed that home language Zulu learners at school were placed within English Home Language classes. Subsequently, the teacher has to find ways to implement both languages in order for the learner to understand subject content.

Mrs Bee said:

“I was aware of translanguaging, but not in a formal way. The way I explained, it’s when you’re speaking Zulu at home, but when the child is coming to learn at school you’re placed in the English Home Language class.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 7-9)

Even though teachers at both schools were not aware of the technical term, they recognised that translanguaging is an everyday practice for those who are bi/multilingual. In such a multilingual community such as Eersterust moving between languages for teachers and learners is an everyday occurrence. Language plays an important role in a person’s identity; as Ridanpaa (2018) indicates, linguistic diversity should be considered as a vital part of education in a multicultural society.

5.4.2 Sub-theme 1.2: Do participants use translanguaging teaching strategies?

This theme explored whether teachers used translanguaging practices within their classrooms. In studying teachers' perceptions of translanguaging, the types of translanguaging methods they implemented emerged as a theme. This theme is crucial to the study as it influenced teachers' perceptions of the phenomenon. What emerged from the data were the many acts of unplanned translanguaging such as translating concepts for learners, explaining instructions to learners in their home language and peer learning, in the two schools. These practices featured daily as part of classroom practice for these teachers. The literature states that teachers may use translanguaging for clarification when presenting learners with an assignment or for classroom management (Duarte, 2019). Translanguaging can also be used for helping learners less proficient in the LOLT to keep up with classroom content, for explaining grammar, clarifying terminology, improving the attitude of the learners, for disciplinary purposes, building relationships with their learners and increasing engagement (Yuvayapan, 2019).

Although the original focus of translanguaging is the planned usage of two languages within the classroom, research, however, does indicate that learners and teachers engage in many other acts of spontaneous translanguaging in order to increase understanding (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b). Spontaneous translanguaging is instances where translanguaging spaces have emerged as a result of the unplanned and instinctive use of learners' and teachers' linguistic repertoires in multilingual classrooms (Van Viegen, 2020). Teachers within the study allowed the use of both the home language and the LOLT alongside one another in the classroom by explaining content in the learners' home language, in classroom discussions or in group-work settings.

Translanguaging strategies used by teachers

	TRANSLANGUAGING STRATEGIES
School A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peer learning (multilingual turn-and-talk partners) • Learners leverage entire linguistic repertoire • Translation/explanation • Clarification of concepts
School B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Translation • Explanation • Clarification of concepts • Classroom management

5.4.2.1 Semi structured interviews

After briefly explaining what is meant by translanguaging, participants were then asked if they implemented such a strategy within their classrooms. As previously said, translanguaging takes place within the classroom as a planned and unplanned occurrence. For the teachers within this study, translanguaging mainly took place as unplanned and spontaneous classroom practices. It was implemented especially when learners were not able to understand the outcomes that were required of them. At School B, translanguaging practices were spontaneous and included translation, clarification of concepts, and also to facilitate classroom management. Teachers moved between different languages to explain and clarify concepts, for some it was between English and Afrikaans. As an African teacher, Mrs Bops's linguistic repertoire in the classroom comprised of Sotho, Sepedi, Tswana, Zulu, and Afrikaans. Mr Tember regularly employed translanguaging with his Afrikaans learners. He affirmed:

“I’ll explain the lesson in Afrikaans, but I’ll use the English term and then after they understand how to do the work, I’ll revert back to English.” (Mr Tember’s interview transcription, line 99-100)

Mrs Lilly, a monolingual teacher who was not conversant in Afrikaans or any other language stated:

“I try to, but like I said I’m not really conversant in Afrikaans, I try to but I do ask them. For instance, if I am teaching, in this classroom, I’m speaking about First additional, these are my children that actually speak in Afrikaans in Eersterust and English is their first additional language. And, um, when I can’t. When it seems difficult for me to make them understand, then I ask them, okay fine, what would you say in Afrikaans. What is this or what is that? And they seem to then be able to understand.” (Mrs Lilly’s interview transcription, line 29-37)

Mrs Lilly implemented a translanguaging method of translation and explanation with her learners from Eersterust and whose home language was Afrikaans. Translation is a strategy that occurs during translanguaging activities of peer learning or used by the teacher in the form of scaffolding (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b). Teachers explaining and clarifying certain concepts in the home language assist learners in acquiring new terms and concepts (Hamman-Ortiz, 2020). For learners outside of Eersterust, whose home language is neither English nor Afrikaans, Mrs Lilly was unable to translate. Consequently, she felt she was a barrier as she was not able to communicate in the learners’ home language. Mrs Lilly also stated that was

one of her shortcomings as a teacher. During the interview, Mrs Lilly spoke of an Afrikaans teacher at School B who is fluent in both English and Afrikaans. When this particular teacher noticed that her learners were not able to understand her, she explained concepts in her learners' home language. Seeing how another bilingual teacher was able to move between languages to help learners improve their understanding, Mrs Lilly realised that bilingualism, as a component of translanguaging, is a valuable tool in a multilingual classroom.

Mrs Bops from the neighbouring township of Mamelodi is conversant in Afrikaans and other South African languages; she was able to apply translanguaging to a multiple of her learners' home languages and for both learners who speak Afrikaans and Sotho. She indicated:

“yeah, especially for those children who are struggling. You have to tell or explain to them, if they don't understand in English, then I have to explain in Sotho or Afrikaans so that they understand what I am saying. Or what I expect of them to do.” (Mrs Bops's interview transcription, line 61-64)

Mr Best often used translanguaging especially when translating words from English to Afrikaans. He believed that the two languages are similar and that you cannot teach learners the one without the other. He stated:

“yes, I use it very often. I also use a direct translation and then I encourage the children to look at the word. So, I use the Afrikaans word and then get the English equivalent and then I tell them to translate. The two languages are fairly close when it comes to your high frequency words. Can and 'kan', they are very close together. 'n' and 'a'.” (Mr Best's interview transcription, line 16-21)

Mr Tember, the Head of Department (HOD) for English was probed on whether translanguaging teaching strategies such as grouping learners together who had similar home languages was used and whether he catered for linguistically diverse learners. He stated:

“Not necessarily, again due to the circumstances in our community and in the work that we have to do, um, in terms of the amount of work that you need to cover, it doesn't lend itself to us being very flexible in our approach, in terms of, um, techniques like group work and stuff like that. But it is encouraged in our school. But I found that in the language, because of, like I said, the amount of work we need to cover.” (Mr Tember's interview transcription, line 131-137)

Primary schools within Eersterust consist of large classrooms with 45-50 learners; participants also felt that the CAPS curriculum is not flexible enough and too packed with content to cater for translanguaging practices such as peer learning. Mrs Lilly also concurred by adding that discipline challenges were created by group work and that learners within this context were not schooled through and in peer learning. She affirmed:

“..but discipline then becomes a problem. Our children are not schooled with group work, so when they come to the higher grades in the primary school, grade 6 and 7, it’s like you need to start making them do group work, but with the numbers that we have it’s easier to teach the whole group, but I know we’re actually supposed to encourage peer learning.” (Mrs Lilly’s interview transcription, line 87-92)

Teachers at school B did not mention using methods such as translation through peer learning, for instance, asking one of the learners to translate for another learner who might not understand the work.

5.4.2.2 Observations and analysis of documentation

Observations of four English Home Language lessons of Grades 4, 5, 6 and 7 teachers were conducted at School B in October 2020. At school A, observations of two Grades 5 and 7 English Home Language lessons and one Grade 4 FAL lesson were conducted in February 2021. Seven lessons were observed in total. The seven lesson plans were studied and the seven lessons observed to determine whether translanguaging strategies were included in lesson plans and whether these strategies were introduced in the classroom. In each classroom, there were elements of Ubuntu translanguaging pedagogy observed. Classroom walls displayed greetings (words) in different languages. This encouraged learners to learn how to greet in one another’s language, which created closer bonds between peers and the acceptance of other cultures.

5.4.2.2.1 Mrs Bops’s lesson (School B)

Mrs Bops gave her Grade 4 learners an oral assessment to prepare in order to assess their listening and speaking ability in English. Learners had to pair up with a partner and pretend to have a telephone conversation over a chosen topic. For this activity, learners were only allowed to speak and answer in English. Mrs Bops said during the interview that one of the learners spoke in Sotho during this activity and that he was reprimanded as it was an English lesson.

Mrs Bops said:

“So, like now, when you were in that class this of the telephone, the other black child I said you are going to prepare with your friend, he knows you are doing the language English, but he started talking in Sotho. So, I said, hey, I don’t teach Sotho here, I teach English.” (Mrs Bops’s interview transcription, line 48-52)

Pedagogical translanguaging was not evident in this lesson or in the oral task as it was required of learners to speak to one another in English only. Mrs Bops only allowed learners to speak in English for this oral assessment and no translanguaging was allowed by her. Mrs Bops wanted her non-English speaking learners to use English during this oral assessment in order to develop their competence in English. In her interview, Mrs Bops did state that she translanguaged, but for this particular assessment, she wanted her learners only to communicate in English, as that was the outcome that was required of them. During the observation, the majority of learners did complete the assessment successfully and understood what was required of them. Only a few learners experienced difficulty with the listening and speaking part. Mrs Bops indicated that because the learners were in Grade 4, the teacher could not give them too much work or assessments that were too difficult for them to understand.

Oral assessment, as the literature states (Baker, 2001), is considered an appropriate form of ‘formative’ and ‘summative’ assessment that adheres to the translanguaging pedagogy. It is not considered as a usual standardised assessment and fits into a translanguaging pedagogy when peers are allowed to use their home language through social interaction and collaboration. However, during Mrs Bops’s lesson, learners were not able to leverage their full linguistic repertoire by being able to converse in their home languages during this activity. Hence the researcher concluded that not much translanguaging took place within this lesson.

Total: 20		Listening and Speaking
Oral		
Instruction		
Listen to two learners having a conversation on the phone about a certain topic. After listening learner must be able to answer question regarding the conversation that was heard.		
RUBRIC		
1. Able to identify the learners having conversation	2	
2. Able to identify the topic	2	
3. Able to identify the instruments used to have the conversation	2	
4. Give a brief description of the conversation	4	
Total	10	
	$10 \times 2 = 20$	

FIGURE 5.1 RUBRIC FOR ORAL ACTIVITY, MS BOPS'S LESSON

5.4.2.2 Mr Best's lesson (School B)

The observation of Mr Best's Grade 5 English lesson took place towards the end of 2020 when learners were busy with their assessments. No analysis of a lesson plans could be made while observing Mr Best's lesson. However, he used a form of translanguaging by means of explanation and translation to clarify the instructions to learners for their upcoming assessment. Mr Best would first explain instructions in one sentence in English and then another in Afrikaans. When you have your four in his lesson, he allowed his learners to communicate with him in English and Afrikaans and allowed his learners to see this as an acceptable classroom practice. As a teacher Mr Best had also made an effort to learn greetings and certain phrases in his learners home languages. During the observation Mr Best, who had elementary proficiency in Sepedi, was able to communicate with an African learner and used this approach to reprimand him.

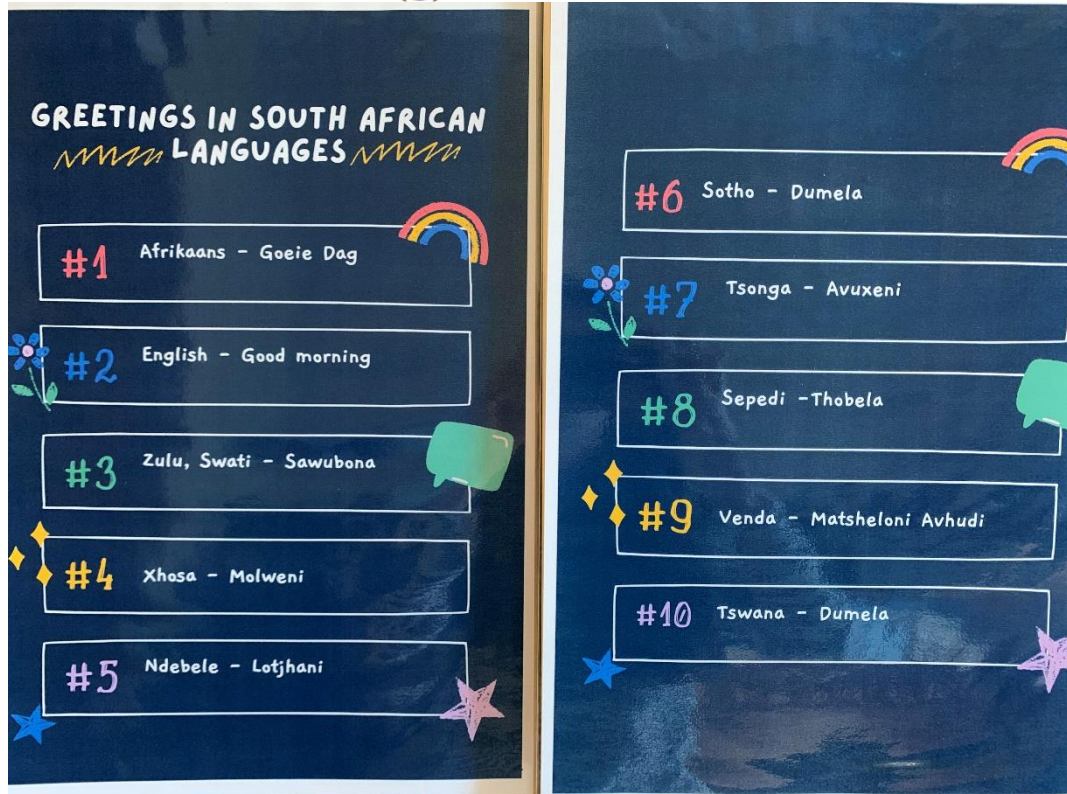


FIGURE 5.2 CLASSROOM POSTER, MR BEST'S CLASSROOM



FIGURE 5.3 CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, MR BEST'S LESSON

5.4.2.2.3 Mrs Lilly's lesson (School B)

Mrs Lilly introduced a reading comprehension to her Grade 5 learners. The entire class first had to read the reading comprehension together. Mrs Lilly then emphasised that everyone had to take part; even if the incorrect answer was given, she would guide them to the correct answer. The reading comprehension was about a Hippo (Figure 5.3) who was raised in captivity; she then asked her learners if they understood what was meant by an animal being kept in captivity. Mrs Lilly wanted her learners to answer the questions pertaining to the reading comprehension in full sentences. The writer of the reading comprehension was a local writer who had adapted the text to the South African context. Research supports the benefits of providing culturally relevant texts to learners, especially for reading comprehension (UNESCO, 2003b). Mrs Lilly encouraged participation from all her learners, which resulted in a collaboration between the teacher and her learners. During observation of her lesson, there was classroom engagement and interaction between the teachers and all her learners.

Mrs Lilly asked for input from her learners who became involved in the process of knowledge construction, instead of rote learning that often takes place in most classrooms. During the lesson, she asked her learners who the author of the reading comprehension was. She had pronounced the name of the local author and asked for assistance from her learners who either spoke Sotho or Tswana for the correct pronunciation. During her interview, she stated that using this approach also encourages participation as the teacher requires the help of her learners. She believed that a teacher should not just give her learners the answers but also afford them the opportunity to take part in the learning process.

Mrs Lilly responded:

“They are given the opportunity to learn how to basically work out a way of finding the answer.” (Mrs Lilly's interview transcription, line 118-119)

During the interview, she was also probed why certain learners were asked if they understood the lesson. She responded:

“...when I'm teaching in a particular class I know exactly the child that's going to give me the correct answer and doesn't need my guidance that much and if the children like you saw today was a typical example where I basically had to go through it step by step, do this, do that.” (Mrs Lilly's interview transcription, line 100-105)

In the above statement, Mrs Lilly indicated that during lessons she knew who the learners were who struggle with language and they were often asked for engagement to see whether they understood or not. When one learner was not able to understand the work, Mrs Lilly then asked for another learner to assist her in finding the correct answer. She also stated that when she realised that there was not much understanding, she then went through the lesson much slower with the class. The smaller classroom size of 20 learners afforded her the opportunity to do so. In Mrs Lilly's lesson, there were elements of a translanguaging pedagogy such as encouraging classroom participation; teachers who implement translanguaging maximise on social interaction within the classroom: since Mrs Lilly is monolingual she only used English to guide her learners to the correct answer.

From an analysis of the actual reading comprehension (Figure 5.3), it is evident that it was adapted to fit the learners' context. In the literature, there is evidence from the case study by Ebe (2016) that providing reading comprehension for learners that is context specific is text learners are able to relate to. This text was used as a translanguaging resource and indigenous resource to make the work more relatable to the learners. The text links the lifeworld of the learner (home literacies) with that of the school's outcomes. Even though the lesson was only done in English (due to the teacher being monolingual), the reading comprehension with questions was relatable to learners as it is relevant to the South African context. It drew on learners background knowledge and they were able to give input and a discussion ensued where there was collaboration between the teacher and her learners, demonstrating greater engagement. Mrs Lilly asked her learners questions based on the reading comprehension such as what specific type of Hippo is Harry. She then explained that as a Pygmy Hippo, he is smaller in size than a regular hippo. Learning within this classroom was scaffolded through social interaction and knowledge was co-constructed by the teacher and her learners. This also proves what is evident in the literature in that a teacher does not have to be proficient in the home language of her learners in order to implement a translanguaging pedagogy, translanguaging can feature in the lesson plan (Ebe, 2016).

SECTION A: READING COMPREHENSION
Read the following text and answer the questions

Farewell, Harry Hippo...
By Ntsoeke Mkoena

Pygmy hippos are very rare little animals, being much smaller than big hippos. There are only 3000 of them left in countries in West Africa such as Guinea.

On 22 March 2012 a pygmy hippo was born at the Cango wildlife Ranch in Oudtshoorn. Pygmy hippos are smaller than the hippos we normally see in the wild. The baby pygmy hippo weighed 5.1 kg at birth. He was named Harry.

Harry's mother refused to feed him at birth. This sometimes happens when animals are born in captivity. He was taken care of by Toni Inngs, a volunteer, who would feed him many bottles of nutritious cow's milk per day. Toni and the baby hippo became very close because she took care of him 24 hours a day. She fed, bathed and trained Harry. She was like a mother to him.

One day Harry became sick. Toni had the vet come in, to see Harry. The vet had to do a small operation because Harry had a problem in his stomach. During the operation Harry developed breathing problems and had heart failure. The vet tried to save Harry but unfortunately Harry died.

Toni and the team at the Cango wildlife Ranch were very sad. They decided to celebrate his short life by putting up a memorial stone at the Ranch. This is their way of remembering this little wildlife celebrity who helped people understand the challenge of the pygmy hippo as a species.

(Adapted from Oxford Successful)

FIGURE 5.4 READING COMPREHENSION, MRS LILLY'S LESSON



FIGURE 5.5 OBSERVATION, MRS LILLY'S LESSON

5.4.2.2.4 Mr Tember's lesson (School B)

Pedagogical translinguaging takes the learners' familiarity of the task into consideration and the task adapted according to their level of understanding (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). The learners' proficiency in the LOLT is also taken into consideration. Mr Tember, the Grade 7 teacher and the HOD of English, compiled booklets using the textbook as a guide. He had adapted the content, as he was aware that most of his learners in the English Home Language class were not home language speakers. Here translinguaging notions to learning were evident, as the teacher does not only focus on the content but also on the learners' level of knowledge.

He explained how he adapted the content for his learners:

"I found that the first language students, the textbook is not very user friendly for them, so I'm not using that one. So, what I am doing is, I'm using the same textbook for both first home language and first additional language children. But like you said, if you look at the level of the work that is done in that booklet which is taken from the first additional language textbook, you will see that it helps in the sense that, it helps with the children understanding the work much better, just because they are, because English is, can I say second language. Some of them not even their second language, so it's for me it's useless trying to be extravagant and use a textbook that is high above the children's literacy level." (Mr Tember's interview transcription, line 55-66)

By introducing the work on the learners' level of understanding, he found that the actual home language textbook was not suitable for his learners. He realised that the content within the Home Language textbook was too difficult for his learners. He instead used his selection from the FAL textbook. He had selected all the exercises from the textbook and incorporated them into the form of a booklet for each learner. His home language and FAL learners each received the same booklet. Mr Tember also used the work covered within this booklet in his assessments (tests) for his learners. This is a taxing process, which required a lot of effort on his part; this relates to a sense of community and the values of Ubuntu implemented by this teacher. These are aspects that form part of translinguaging pedagogy in the classroom. Mr Tember personally got to know his learners and was aware of the background knowledge they possessed; hence, he was able to adapt the content according to their level of understanding.

He stated:

"...you have to adapt and try to sort of come to the level of where they are and to be very practical in the presentation of the lesson, as you saw in my class, I could have

just taken a textbook and said, “take this textbook, go to page 55, write the answers”. You see, but that’s not how I work, I like to be hands on, I like to be very practical, so that I know that the children do the work.” (Mr Tember’s interview transcription, line 2-8)

Mr Tember was also sympathetic towards his learners and recognised each one's strengths and weaknesses; therefore, he included all his learners when writing up assessments. He was the only teacher within the school to have obtained a master’s degree in education and had remained committed to teaching within this community for 27 years. By having this specialist knowledge, he is able to draw up different types of assessments.

“I do cater for all kinds of levels. You know the poor child, in terms of understanding the concepts that I’m trying to teach and then the middle child, and also the child that can easily get 100% if you give easy questions, so I have to challenge that as well. So, I include all of those when I set up my tests and question papers.” (Mr Tember’s interview transcription, line 20-26)

When presenting his lesson, Mr Tember used an element of translanguaging known as translation and explanation. Teachers who use a translanguaging pedagogy responsively adapt classroom language activities and policies to reflect the needs and preferences of their learners; an example would be where a teacher shifts between languages to clarify a concept (Machado & Gonzales, 2020). Mr Tember shifted between English and Afrikaans in his English lesson in order to clarify instructions. The two images (Figure 5.5) below illustrate that the teacher adapted the content in the language structures and conventions booklet by adding local names such as *Ngonyama* to the examples he had given to his learners; this made the work more context specific and relatable to his learners.

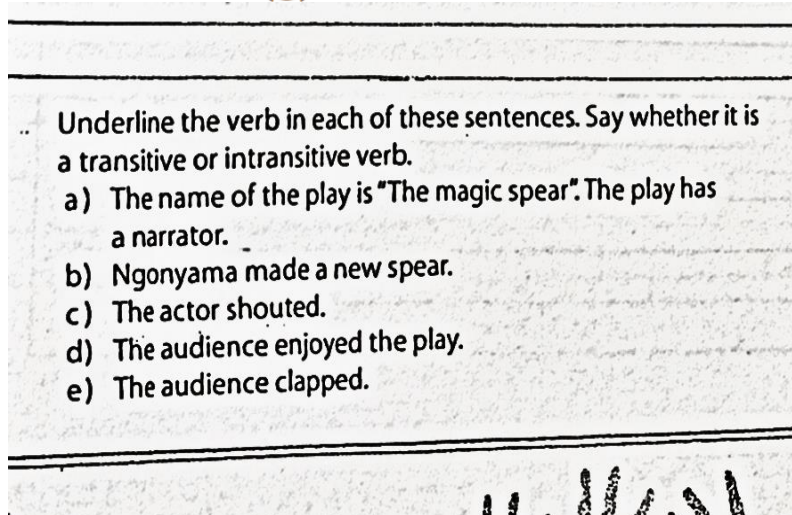


FIGURE 5.6 LANGUAGE STRUCTURE AND CONVENTIONS BOOKLET ACTIVITY

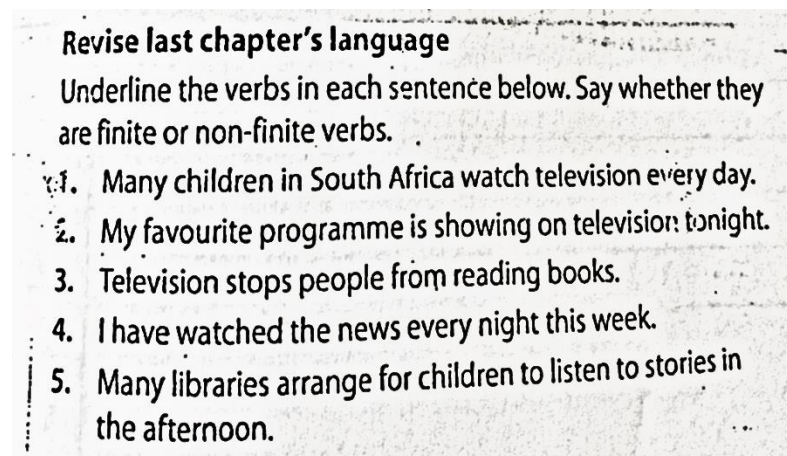


FIGURE 5.7 LANGUAGE STRUCTURE AND CONVENTIONS BOOKLET ACTIVITY


5.4.2.2.5 Mrs Min's lesson (School A)

In Mrs Min's Grade 4 English FAL lesson, learners read a short story from their DBE (Department of Basic Education) books. Mrs Min first began with reading the beginning of the story to her learners. She then identified individual learners to read parts of the story. Mrs Min stated during the observation that because Afrikaans was the learners' home language, she had to resort to bilingualism in the classroom in order for learners to understand what was required of them. Even for the learners from Eersterust, school was the only place where they heard and spoke English. During the lesson, Mrs Min asked her learners who spoke English at home: only three learners raised their hands. Subsequently, even though this was an English lesson, Mrs Min presented the majority of the lesson in Afrikaans. Mrs Min used a form of translanguaging

where reading and listening of the story was conducted in English, while speaking was done in Afrikaans. The writing part was also done in English. Mrs Min deliberately alternated the language of input and output during her lesson. Instructions would then also be explained in Afrikaans, and she would revert to English to give the same instructions in English to her learners.

Mrs Min had her learners read the story in the DBE book (Figure 5.6) again by themselves and then asked them to circle the words that they did not understand. Learners stated that they did not understand what “paraffin” and “did” in the first paragraph of the story meant (Figure 5.6). Mrs Min also used a translanguaging strategy of translation to translate the meaning of each of these words in order for her learners to have understanding of these new words. This was done through the use of their home language (Afrikaans) which was then transferred onto a new language (English) (Hamman-Ortiz, 2020). Translation can be used as a tool for evaluating the learners' levels of understanding when they translate back to the home language from English, and then through collaboration, meanings are negotiated. Translating and explaining words and having the majority of the lesson presented in Afrikaans, allowed for classroom engagement between the teacher and her learners.

After Mrs Min had read the first line of the story “Mapula did not come to school”, she reverted to Afrikaans and said: “Whoo, Mapula is nou stout!” “*Whoo, Mapula is naughty!*” Learners then laughed resulting in higher motivation and excitement to continue reading the story. Mrs Min explained certain aspects of the story that they might not understand, in Afrikaans, due to their lower proficiency in English. She also allowed her learners to express ideas in the language they were most comfortable with, being Afrikaans. Thus, giving them the ability to understand and make sense of the story that was being read to them. In this lesson, Mrs Min allowed her learners to leverage their full linguistic repertoire and offset ‘rigid boundaries’ that exists between languages (Makalela, 2017).



Beginning of the story

Mapula did not come to school today. There was a big fire at her home. Mapula's family uses paraffin for cooking at home. They have a **red** paraffin stove. Mapula has a **young** brother, Thami, who never listens to anyone. Last night Thami played with the stove, even though it is not allowed. He also found the matches that someone had carelessly left lying around.

The **little** boy lit the stove and then, in his excitement, knocked the stove over onto the carpet. Soon the **small** room was on fire.


Middle of the story

Luckily for Thami, Mapula carried him out of the house. She asked the **kind** neighbours to phone the fire brigade. They arrived very quickly, and they used their **long** hoses to put the fire out. Soon the whole house was filled with water and smoke.

The fire was put out before Mapula's **angry** parents came home. Everything in the room was burned, and Mapula was very sad because her favourite **baby** doll and her **beautiful** workbooks were also burned in the fire.

End of the story

Today, Mapula helped her mother to clean their house. She hung all the **wet** blankets and curtains in the sun to dry. Meanwhile little Thami had been sent to preschool, so that he could stay out of trouble. Tomorrow Mapula will go back to school. Her mother will buy her a **new** school bag.



Let's write

The words in red are all adjectives. Underline the noun that each adjective describes.

0

FIGURE 5.8 DBE BOOK STORY



FIGURE 5.9 OBSERVATION, MRS MIN'S LESSON

5.4.2.2.6 Mrs Crey's lesson (School A)

The researcher observed Mrs Crey's Grade 5 English Home Language lesson. During the lesson, learners were busy with an activity from their DBE books. The topic of the lesson was conjunctions and the joining of sentences. Mrs Crey presented this lesson to her learners in English and did not use any other languages. Mrs Crey did state during the focus group discussion that Afrikaans was sometimes used within her FAL classrooms. For each question, Mrs Crey asked for input from all her learners. Even if the wrong answer was given, she would then guide them to the correct answer. The majority of the learners understood what was required of them by correctly answering the questions from the activity in their DBE books. A few learners did struggle in answering questions and completed the activity much slower than the others. From observation of this lesson, the researcher found that, although an interactive pedagogy was employed, no specific translinguaging strategies were implemented.



FIGURE 5.10 OBSERVATION, MRS CREY'S LESSON

5.4.2.2.7 Mrs Bee's lesson (School A)

Mrs Bee's – Grade 7, English FAL classroom – did Grade 6 revision work with her learners of how a story is structured. She explained how the beginning (exposition), middle (climax) and

ending (denouement) all make up a story. Due to Mrs Bee only having proficiency in English, she did not use any other language. During the focus group discussion, she stated she preferred to use a monolingual approach as it forced her learners to speak English. She did not translate any words during the lesson, which was conducted in English. This is a stark contrast to Mrs Min's lesson, which was presented primarily in Afrikaans. Mrs Bee did also mention that by the time learners come to Grade 7, they have a good understanding of English. During the lesson, Mrs Bee constantly asked her learners if they understood what was being taught, in which the learners responded that they did.

5.4.2.3 Focus group discussion

The socio-cultural background of teachers and learners of School A and B are similar as both schools are only a km radius from one another. At School A, translanguaging strategies such as translation and explanation took place in two languages (English and Afrikaans) with FAL learners, who spoke Afrikaans as a home language. For learners from outside of Eersterust, teachers at this school implemented translanguaging strategies of scaffolding and peer learning. At School A, a greater effort was made by teachers to implement specific translanguaging practices, such as peer learning and multilingual turn-and-talk partners. Peer learning strategies were not implemented at School B, teachers indicated that this was due to time constraints regarding the amount of work which needed to be covered and issues around discipline.

Mrs Bee from School A, a monolingual teacher, was only able to communicate in English to her learners. However, in what she called a serious case, where a learner who came from another province was not able to speak English at all, she needed assistance from other learners and then had to implement a translanguaging strategy.

Mrs Bee said:

“...in the serious cases for example, we had a learner who came in last year from Limpopo, so he couldn't speak any English and obviously couldn't understand me so I would get one of the learners that spoke the same language (Sepedi) as him to explain the instructions or whatever.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 26-31)

Mrs Crey used a similar method and also stated:

“...because we can't speak other languages. So sometimes we have to ask one of the clever children to translate.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 45-46)

Mrs Min said:

“...in the home language classroom, then I would normally ask which of the same children they will speak the same language. So, if it’s a Zulu child then there’s another one that speaks Zulu then I make them sit next to each other most of the time. Because when you explain a concept and they don’t understand clearly then the peer next to him will explain it to him in their understanding. But they will first ask you is this what you mean and then they will translate it to them.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 84-92)

Teachers at School A did, however, mention that due to the Covid-19 pandemic it was difficult to have learners sit next to one another and implement peer-learning activities due to learners having to social distance. They were no longer able to implement peer learning strategies. However, smaller classes allowed for more classroom engagement and interaction amongst teachers and their learners. Teachers (School A) also indicated that smaller classroom sizes improved discipline and encouraged a learning culture in the classroom.

5.4.3 Sub-theme 1.3: Is translanguaging an effective strategy in the English language classroom?

This theme explored whether teachers considered translanguaging as an effective strategy. Teachers also gave accounts regarding the role translanguaging played in helping their learners to achieve confidence or competence in English and in bettering their understanding of instructions given by the teacher.

5.4.3.1 Semi-structured interviews

In the individual interviews at School B, participants had similar responses as to whether translanguaging was an effective strategy in the English language classroom. Mr Best viewed translanguaging as an effective strategy especially as it related to an improvement in marks. Mr Best stated during his interview that English and Afrikaans were fairly close to one another especially regarding their high frequency words such as ‘a’ and ‘n’. The two languages relate well to one another. Mr Best said:

“yes, definitely, it [translanguaging] has [benefits]. Um, we see an improvement in the English marks at the same time. Then we see an improvement in the Afrikaans marks. So, the average went up last term for Afrikaans, the grade average, especially for the three Afrikaans FAL classes. And so, the English average went up because they’ve got English as a home language.” (Mr Best’s interview transcription, line 24-31)

Mr Tember viewed translanguaging as an effective strategy, especially in translating words in order for the learners to understand. He said:

“Yeah, definitely it does. Because if they don’t understand the work in English then I can translate into Afrikaans and then they understand.” (Mr Tember’s interview transcription, line 118-120)

Mrs Bops, an African teacher, who majored in Afrikaans as one of her languages during her teacher training, was able to communicate to learners in Afrikaans and other South African languages. Therefore, her translanguaging was effective for both the African and Coloured learners. She explained that learners from Eersterust, who were in her English FAL class struggled with grasping concepts in English and she would then switch over to Afrikaans.

Mrs Bops said:

“Mmmm, it does, even these ones, even if you explain in Afrikaans. But the English First Additional language, they are mostly Afrikaans, because they are from Eersterust, for them English it’s as if I’m talking French.” (Mrs Bops’s interview transcription, line 99-102)

Mrs Lilly, who had limited proficiency in Afrikaans, tried to implement translanguaging mainly during reading comprehension activities and the subsequent discussion of questions. She explained in English and when it was required she switched over to Afrikaans. She indicated that if learners did not understand she would ask them what terms or concepts needed to be explained in Afrikaans and which part she needed to repeat for her learners who did not speak Afrikaans.

Mrs Lilly said:

“They basically after I’ve read I ask them to read, and then they go onto the question part. When they read it again, they become aware of what are the things that we need to explain in Afrikaans.” (Mrs Lilly’s interview transcription, line 123-126)

5.4.3.2 Focus group discussion

The teachers at School A found the translanguaging strategies of peer learning, multilingual turn-and-talk partners, and translation as effective pedagogical tools, particularly in the English Home Language classrooms. The learners in School A come from neighbouring townships as well as Eersterust. Mrs Crey and Min were able to communicate in English and Afrikaans; they

found that it was helpful to shift from English to Afrikaans when their English FAL learners (who took Afrikaans as a Home Language) were not able to understand. They felt that their EFAL learners did not need as much support as their English HL learners, as EFAL learners better understood the easier subject content of English FAL, as compared to the more difficult English HL. Their Home Language learners posed more challenges.

In reviewing the CAPS outcomes for English as Home Language, it was found that learners are required to be able to have phonic awareness, word recognition skills and reading fluency in English (DBE, 2010). Mrs Bops (School B) and Mrs Min (School A) both indicated that when learners start Grade 4, they do not know their vowels or consonants and are not able to write or spell in English. This foundation not being set in place makes English as a home language more challenging for the learner. Mrs Min also stated that she is able to implement translanguaging with her FAL learners, due to her proficiency in Afrikaans and English. In her home language lesson, she found it difficult to implement the same strategy with her learners who did not speak Afrikaans. She then had to implement strategies of peer learning (such as having learners who speak the same home language sit together) in order for her other learners to receive the same type of support.

Mrs Min said the following:

“...in FAL they speak Afrikaans. So, it’s easy for you to, um revert the concept from Afrikaans to English.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 52-53)

Mrs Bee found that by the time learners reach Grade 7, they have already developed competence in the LOLT, which is English. She, however, found that in the case of the learner from Limpopo, who could not speak English, the strategy of peer learning was helpful. Peers were able to help in translating the work for this learner. Mrs Bee found that implementing translanguaging strategies was a challenge, as she was not able to speak any other language and like Mrs Lilly (School A), felt that she herself was a barrier. Mrs Bee felt that only being able to speak English forced her learners to speak English, which then lead to an improvement. In the statement below, she mentioned how peer learning was helpful within her English Home Language and FAL language classrooms.

She stated:

“...um, in my case the only barrier would be that I don’t speak that language, so that’s where the challenge comes in. It works peer to peer to get the children to help

each other and whatever, um but when it comes from the teachers' side, I think that would be a problem. Because even with the Afrikaans children, I only speak English to them because the lesson it's an English lesson so we just communicate in English. But it has its benefits because then they're forced to speak that in English." (Focus group discussion transcription, line 97-104)

Mrs Crey and Mrs Min added that even though translanguaging is an effective strategy, the learners in the English Home Language class still did not feel confident in their ability to speak English and were often too embarrassed to ask a question in front of other learners. These learners consulted Mrs Crey at her desk in order for her to explain certain concepts to them. Mrs Crey was able to revert concepts (English to Afrikaans) for her learners who spoke Afrikaans. Other studies indicate how learners will often experience shyness when speaking in English, in contrast to their confidence when speaking in their home language (Hurst & Mona, 2017).

Mrs Crey said:

"I usually just explain it in English and if they don't understand they will usually come to my table and they will ask me in English because they are shy to ask in front of the other children." (Focus group discussion transcription, line 94-96)

Mrs Min also agreed with this:

"...they [are] still shy to speak English because they're scared of making mistakes and the friends laughing at them. So, they're not actually confident, unless they [speak] one-on-one with you and they have to come and read to you only in English, then they are confident, but other than that I won't say that they are confident in speaking English." (Focus group discussion transcription, line 64-69)

5.5 Theme 2: Language Ideologies

Language ideologies are defined as a set of ideas, beliefs, principles, and societal orientations around the ways in which language should be understood and used in society (Mkhize & Balfour, 2017). Language is linked to identity, institutions, and values. Teachers like any other individuals adhere to ideologies, including language ideologies. Their belief in one language having more importance than another and whether they teach their learners to value their home languages and cultural backgrounds play a role as to whether multilingualism is encouraged or

not (Holdway & Hitchcock, 2018). This theme explores two subthemes: 2.1 Teachers' views of translanguaging teaching strategies and 2.2 Teachers views of multilingualism.

5.5.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Teachers' views of translanguaging teaching strategies

How teachers view translanguaging teaching strategies and their willingness to be flexible in accommodating multilingual learners have an impact on how they view such strategies. There was consistency in the responses of teachers from both schools: monolingual teachers who were not able to speak the learners' home language implemented a translanguaging method to accommodate all learners by introducing peer tutoring.

5.5.1.1 Semi-structured interviews

Teachers' (School B) views on translanguaging were consistent in that they found the strategies to be helpful. Mr Best in particular indicated that it had more benefits than disadvantages. He provided worksheets to his learners, which were made available in various languages; learners were then asked to compare their worksheets. The disadvantages for Mr Best are that spelling is affected as learners will get the words mixed up between English and Afrikaans during comprehension exercises and tests. Teachers from other studies (Krause & Prinsloo, 2016), described in the literature also found that implementing more than one language especially in content subjects had its disadvantages in writing and spelling.

Mr Best stated:

“Oh, it’s absolutely wonderful, there are worksheets available in Afrikaans, but they are offered in English and/or other languages as well. It then makes it easier for the child to acquire the language, while also keeping their home language or vernacular language. It also encourages multilingualism, which in the world that we are currently living in, is very, very, very important. If you look at European countries that have got seven languages at schools for instance. A country like New Zealand, that has two, three languages, it is very beneficial to have more languages. Problem is, it comes with in later with spelling, because they write phonetically. But only benefits to be found, in my humble opinion” (Mr Best’s interview transcription, line 34-45)

Mr Tember felt that multilingualism should be encouraged and that he was in favour of translanguaging teaching strategies:

“I am 100% for that, really, because like I said, if the learners don’t understand the wording in English, then I can translate that word into Afrikaans. I think it’s very useful.” (Mr Tember’s interview transcription, line 140-142)

Mrs Lilly, a monolingual teacher, stated that translanguaging strategies were effective and she would use them when the opportunity arises; she was also open to receiving training in the form of a translanguaging workshop.

She said:

“No, I’ll definitely, I definitely would and if the opportunity arises and I’m given the opportunity to actually do it as a course or something of that kind so that I can apply it in my class.” (Mrs Lilly’s interview transcription, line 148-151)

Mrs Bops said that using more than one language within her English Home Language classrooms had benefits especially to help learners understand what was expected of them. She stated that:

“It really helps, sometimes, because usually when we go one-one-one with the child and you explain in their own language they understand, ne. But then after teaching I always say, explain to me in English what did you understand. Though they will struggle to put in sentences, but you can see the idea is there.” (Mrs Bops’s interview transcription, line 109-114)

5.5.1.2 Focus group discussion

Participating teachers at School A found the translanguaging strategy of multilingual turn-and-talk partners to be very helpful. They indicated that this strategy helped learners within the classroom to get to know one another and to share ideas on their work. Learners also seemed to enjoy being able to work with their peers. Learners who were much more competent in the language would often want to engage with other learners to help the teachers. This fostered a sense of community within the classrooms. In the statement below, Mrs Min mentioned that peer learning was beneficial in her English Home Language classroom, where there was a diverse group of learners.

Mrs Min said:

“...because most of the time when we give the activities, the learner who is much stronger in the activity will be done first so the one that’s struggling will keep the

others behind. So, when you use the peer, um, peer assessment and peer marking and all that, then the peer that's finished first will then assist the learner that's slower. So, then it will also enhance them in a way, it will enrich them." (Focus group discussion transcription, line 129-135)

Mrs Bee also realised the benefits of peer learning in helping the learner who came from another province and who was not able to speak a word of English. Even though the learner had to repeat Grade 7, he was able to learn to communicate in English through an intervention of peer learning and by involving his family. Mrs Bee worked one-on-one with the learner's mother and gave specific instructions for how they could improve his ability to speak English at home. She gave his mother English books that they could read together and homework that they could do together. She, however, did add that her Grade 7 learners in both her Home language and FAL classes were competent in English and that there was generally no need for her to translate. Only in the case of one or two learners who come from another school or province. Mrs Bee said:

"by the time they come to grade 7 they are confident in the English it's just the one or two that will come from outside schools and I stick to English I don't translate because I found that the only time they speak English is when they speak to me."

(Focus group discussion transcription, line 71-74)

5.5.2 Sub-theme 2.2: Teachers' views of multilingualism

Multilingual learners within South Africa translanguage on a regular basis and move between their various languages, despite the fact that the curriculum gives preference to monolingualism (Makalela, 2018). Teachers at both schools recognised this and that on the playgrounds, the learners do not just stick to using one language but often communicate to peers in their home languages. Even though Eersterust is a linguistically diverse community, one teacher from each school that participated in the study was monolingual. Even though they were monolingual, they were able to implement translanguaging practices through the help of their learners. Mrs Bee from School A indicated that parents also preferred that their children learn through the medium of English. The literature also indicates that most parents in South Africa prefer that their children learn through the medium of English due to its perceived global status (Strauss, 2016).

5.5.2.1 Semi-structured interviews

Teachers at School B varied on their views as to whether multilingualism is encouraged or not at the school. Mr Best, a white teacher and not from Eersterust, believed he offered an outsider's perspective. His views varied from other English language teachers such as Mr Tember and Mrs Lilly, who believed that allowing learners to speak another language on the playgrounds was detrimental to their ability to acquire proficiency in English and that they should only be encouraged to speak English at school.

Mr Best stated:

“Multilingualism is encouraged all of the time, and um, most of the teachers, I would say 7/8th of the teachers use more than one language, three languages even, every day in class. So even though they might teach social sciences through the medium of English, they will use Afrikaans and also Sepedi or IsiNdebele, or Zulu or whatever the case may be to also enlarge the scope of the lesson.” (Mr Best's interview transcription, line 49-56)

Mr Best added that the more languages primary school children acquire from a young age, the more beneficial it was for them.

He stated that:

“we are a primary school and with young children the more languages you introduce, the easier you make the acquisition of a language, the better for them. Also, the teachers converse amongst themselves in various languages and across demographical differences in gender, race, religion, age. People communicate in more than one language. It is normal here. Multilingualism is definitely encouraged, I would say and used by all, it's not frowned upon at all.” (Mr Best's interview transcription, line 65-71)

Mr Tember and Mrs Lilly acknowledged the benefits of multilingualism; however, there was still a common belief held by these two participating teachers that if learners speak another language outside of the classroom, they may be doing so to the detriment of developing their English. For a majority of learners within these two schools, English is heard and spoken at school and not at home. These views held by teachers correspond with what is presented in the literature (Yuvayapan, 2019; Al-Bataineh & Gallagher, 2018): teachers view translanguaging

positively because of its potential for developing bi/multilingualism, however, there was still a general belief in English as a preferred language.

Mr Tember replied:

“It is encouraged for learners to only speak English at school, but I can tell you now, it's, um. When the black children when they interact with coloured children they will speak English. But if they are alone, if two black children talk to one another they not gonna speak English, they gonna speak vernacular. But it is encouraged for them to speak English so that it improves their vocabulary.” (Mr Tember's interview transcription, line 157-162)

Mrs Lilly stated:

“If you're going to allow the child to walk out of the class and go speak another language outside of the class, then I don't think we improve them in the language, the schools chosen medium of instruction. So, yeah, like I said the situation I find myself in I wouldn't encourage another language until they have mastered the language that has been chosen for learning.” (Mrs Lilly's interview transcription, line 167-175)

Even though Mrs Lilly showed a preference for learners to speak English, she was still open to discussing the researcher's views on multilingualism and what the research on translanguaging says about how multilingualism should be promoted. She also mentioned, as stated previously, that she would want to attend a workshop on translanguaging.

Mrs Bops believed that multilingualism had caused problems; School B is dual medium (both English and Afrikaans are used as LOLT) and there is often a clash between English and Afrikaans at the school. She also added that Afrikaans learners struggled more in mastering English as the LOLT. She stated:

“Yeah, the home language, English as a home language has a clash with the Afrikaans. And mostly the Afrikaans are the ones who are giving problems, because most of them they are struggling. And I really don't understand because they speak Afrikaans at home, so why do they struggle at school with English and Afrikaans?” (Mrs Bops's interview transcription, line 118-123)

5.5.2.2 Focus group discussion

Teachers at School A all agreed that multilingualism should be promoted. Mrs Min believed that only using one language was not ideal, as it would leave a child behind who struggled. She also stated that not allowing peer-learning interventions hampered their improvement.

Mrs Min stated:

“...it’s difficult to just stick to one language, especially if what if the child doesn’t understand you then you leave them behind. And then you move forward and then he’s gonna be left behind because most of [the] time they struggle to get someone to help them at home. So, then who’s gonna explain it to them at home. So, I don’t believe in that, only using one language.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 110-116)

It was not certain whether Mrs Crey supported multilingualism; however, she believed that multilingualism could not be avoided at the school. She added that you could use one language within the classroom and try to enforce this; however, on the playgrounds learners often preferred to speak in their home language to their peers from the same language group. Learners moved between languages in the classroom and on the playgrounds. She said:

“...and even during break, they’ll speak to each other in their vernacular; they don’t just speak English.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 176-177)

Mrs Bee stated that it was preferable for a child to first learn in their home language and for the foundations to first be laid in this language. This teacher indicated that learners, who for example were Zulu speaking, were not able to read or write proficiently in Zulu either: this was a challenge for both teacher and learner. The literature states that the knowledge a learner acquires in their home language can transfer to a new language (Liu & Fang, 2020).

Mrs Bee said:

“I think that at primary school level your home language should be used because all your foundations are laid in primary school so home language is definitely, I think if the child learns in their home language they will, what do you say? Prosper more as far as learning is concerned, but um, if a child is coming from a Zulu background Grade 1, he is just suddenly forced to learn at an English school. I think that’s a setback for that child, whereas if he was taught in his language how to count and how to read, once he’s got his foundation and then after that, you know transfer him to an

English class, where he can incorporate what he's learnt in his own mother tongue [home language]." (Focus group discussion transcription, line 117-127)

5.6 Theme 3: Response from learners

The attitude of pupils and the environment in which they are taught are crucial to both the language being taught and the learner. Building a classroom culture that is inclusive of all languages and cultures is important for learners (Kleyn, 2016). The literature states that learners feel 'emotional disempowerment' when they are told to stop using their home language (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). A favourable situation is where teachers plan lessons based on translanguaging and learners are included in the class' teaching community (Torpsten, 2018). This is important because when classroom settings openly acknowledge learners' flexible use of language, learners feel more empowered and accepted (Bauer, Presiado & Colomer, 2017). Rather than feeling ashamed of speaking a language other than English, learners should view their multilingualism as a resource (Kleyn, 2016). This also leads to increased motivation to learn. This theme is divided into two subthemes: 3.1 what the learners' responses are when the home language is used, and 3.2 what other languages are used within the classroom.

5.6.1 Sub-theme 3.1: Learners' response when home language was used

Learners experience a sense of empowerment when they are able to use their home language in the classroom and this enhances a sense of pride in who they are (Makalela, 2018). During interviews, participating teachers stated that learners responded well to translanguaging; this enabled them to understand subject content and they were excited when the teacher used their home language.

5.6.1.1 Semi-structured interviews

Mr Best stated that he was able to communicate in different languages and tried to incorporate various languages within his English classroom. Mrs Lilly mentioned that she used Afrikaans on a few occasions within her English FAL classroom. She added that this definitely helped the learners to gain an understanding of what was expected of them.

Mr Best affirmed:

"They are comfortable with the use of multiple languages; they enjoy it and very often it is a learning curve, because when I ask them for feedback in English, um they will say to me 'oh wonderful'. Um, we understand better now. Also, when I do use the vernacular language, at first there is disbelief because of old stereotypes, until they

get used to it. Then I get conversations prolonged in vernacular languages, like Sepedi, Venda, or Tsonga who I have elementary command of. And, um, the learners then become very positive towards English and/or Afrikaans. As I say, it doesn't help to gain attitude without altitude.” (Mr Best's interview transcription, line 77-87)

Mrs Bops said:

“They get excited, they are very excited because they understand very easy, when you use their home language.” (Mrs Bops's interview transcription, line 133-134)

Mrs Bops mentioned that her learners were excited when they heard the teacher use their home language to teach. She felt they were then able to understand what was required of them and that ultimately led to an increase in motivation to learn.

5.6.1.2 Observations School B

During Mrs Bops lesson, learners were paired for their oral assessment and were given five minutes to prepare. Learners were able to complete the task and what was required of them. During the oral assessment (Figure 5.1), Mrs Bops made it clear to the learners that they were only allowed to speak in English: many were able to communicate and answer in English. There was one learner who spoke in his home language (Sotho), and he was reprimanded by Mrs Bops. According to the translanguaging theory, teachers should allow learners to use their home language, and should allow learners to draw on their own language features for learning (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). In a Home Language lesson, Mr Best first gave instructions for the assessment in English and then clarified certain concepts in Afrikaans to make sure the learners understood what they needed to do. This gave his learners a clearer understanding of what was expected of them.

Mrs Lilly's English Home Language lesson consisted of a reading comprehension and questions. The reading comprehension (Figure 5.3) was context specific and about the story of a Hippo on a wildlife ranch in South Africa. Learners were intrigued to find out what a Pygmy Hippo was. This was relatable to their context, as the larger Hippo species is found in South Africa. Learners wanted to participate and many offered answers to the questions that were asked; not much effort was required by the teacher for her learners to participate as there was an interest in learning about Harry the Hippo. In Mr Tember's English Home Language lesson, he too gave instructions first in English, and then clarified concepts in Afrikaans to make sure learners understood what was expected of them. Activities in the booklet (Figure 5.4) that each learner received was done as a class discussion and there was a clear understanding of the work

and what was expected of them. Mr Tember's use of Afrikaans terms to clarify instructions, indicated to learners that he did not have a problem with other languages being used in the English classroom. This encouraged some learners to ask him questions in Afrikaans.

5.6.1.3 Observations School A

The majority of Mrs Min's Grade 4 English FAL lesson was presented in Afrikaans. Mrs Min allowed her learners to ask and answer questions in Afrikaans; this allowed them to better understand what was being taught. Learners were able to effectively engage with her and answered questions in both English and Afrikaans. Learners were excited and motivated while reading the story, as Mrs Min presented the majority of the lesson in their home language. Studies have shown that when the home language is used in the classroom, it results in more engagement and motivation to learn (Guzula, McKinney and Tyler, 2016). In reading the story together (Figure 5.6), a few learners struggled with their English and were not able to read full sentences or make meaning of what they were reading. Mrs Min stated that often learners would be promoted to Grade 4 without knowing how to read or spell in English. This is a challenge for both the teacher and her learners.

In Mrs Crey's lesson, no other languages were used; the entire lesson was presented in English. The learners within this Home Language classroom were able to effectively engage with their teacher and answer her questions on the activity within their DBE books. A few learners were, however, slower in completing the activity; Mrs Crey stated that these learners often struggled with language and with concepts in English. Similar results were observed in Mrs Bee's Grade 7, English FAL lesson; she only communicated with learners in English and learners only answered her questions in English. From the observation, the researcher could see that learners did understand what was being explained to them. Mrs Bee explained that by the time the learners were in grade 7 they were able to communicate in English and their proficiency improved.

5.6.1.4 Focus group discussion

Applying aspects of an Ubuntu translanguaging pedagogy such as peer learning and scaffolding improves learning and empowers learners (Makalela, 2016). Learners develop closer relationships with their peers and this fosters a sense of community in that they want to help their classmates who have similar home languages. The three teachers at School A agreed with Mrs Min's answer. Mrs Min said:

“...they actually enjoy it because most of the time through peer learning it helps them to get to know one another as well. And also, they will understand, as soon as you’re done explaining in English then they’ll already know they must finish their work to go and help someone else, they actually feel as if they are leaders. So, then they ask mam can I help you with anything?” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 138-144)

5.6.2 Sub-theme 3.2: What other languages are used in the classroom

With Eersterust being a linguistically diverse community and with teachers coming from various backgrounds, a multiplicity of languages are used within the classrooms. This theme explores whether teachers allowed other languages within their English classrooms or whether they preferred that learners only used the LOLT, English within the classroom.

5.6.2.1 Semi-structured interviews

Mr Best who had elementary command in a few languages encouraged learners to learn about the origins of languages such as Afrikaans. Mr Best said:

“Elementary Venda, elementary Tsonga and also because Afrikaans is a mixture of various languages, I refer to German, French, and Dutch from time to time, to show the origin of words. Also, we get people in who are Dutch and German speakers to converse with learners in these languages to show them the origin of Afrikaans. So, a multitude of languages are used ad hoc. Though not every day or every week, but when the opportunity presents itself, we definitely do use it. Also, in choir outreach programmes, so the children who are in the choir were exposed to German, English, exposed also to IsiNdebele and other languages as well. So, when you work extra mural wise, you work with the child holistically. This also encourages multilingualism.” (Mr Best’s interview transcription, line 90-102)

Mr Tember is not familiar with the technicalities of other languages other than Afrikaans; he mentioned that he did use other languages to reprimand his learners. The literature mentions how teachers often use home language for classroom management (Strauss, 2016). He said:

“Not in terms of the technicalities of the language in the other languages they speak, so I know a little bit of Sotho and a little bit of Zulu but I only use them just to reprimand them. But I don’t, um, necessarily use those languages in my lessons because I’m not too technically fluent in those.” (Mr Tember’s interview transcription, line 123-127)

In a study done by Yuvayapan (2019), teachers agree that communication in the home language in the classroom is more efficient, especially for disciplinary purposes. Learners also paid more attention when they heard certain words in their home language (Yuvayapan, 2019). Globally monolingual teachers are often under the assumption that when other languages are used within the English classroom, it will not improve the learners' ability in the LOLT (Liu & Fang, 2020). Mrs Lilly being a monolingual teacher and who is not originally from Eersterust struggles to incorporate other languages. Mrs Lilly said:

“I do try, I really do try, but like I said I as a teacher is probably one of the shortcomings I have is that I try to explain to them but really it’s not as easy as it may seem. And yes many people can understand um Afrikaans is a dominant language in Eersterust but I’m not from Eersterust.” (Mrs Lilly’s interview transcription, line 193-197)

Mrs Bops communicated in Afrikaans with her learners from Eersterust; she also used other languages with her learners who do not live in Eersterust. She said:

“I also speak Afrikaans, I majored in Afrikaans while I was in varsity. Sotho, Sepedi, Tswana and English and Afrikaans [I use in my classroom]” (Mrs Bops’s interview transcription, line 55-58)

5.6.2.2 Focus group discussion

Mrs Min and Mrs Crey stated during the discussion that within their English FAL class they used a blend of English and Afrikaans. Teachers within this school (A) stated that their FAL learners (who are from Eersterust and take Afrikaans as a Home Language) did not struggle as much as their Home Language learners to grasp concepts and to understand what was required of them. English FAL is easier than English Home Language. In English Home Language there are more technicalities around language, which require learners to be proficient in English. These teachers were able to communicate in Afrikaans, and they found it promoted learning when a mixture of both languages were used in their FAL classrooms.

The three teachers at this school (A) stated that learners' home languages were used during peer-learning classroom activities, so that no learner was left behind. Teachers group learners together who have the same home language or asked a learner to translate for their peer. Teachers were accommodating and developed collaborative relationships with their learners. Even though they were not able to speak the learners' home language, they required the help of

a learner who was able to communicate in that language. Mrs Bee used the help of fellow learners to translate concepts for the learner who came from Limpopo.

Mrs Bee also said that using English only was impossible. For many of her learners in her home language classroom, English was not their home language. She said:

“...it’s not 100% their home language because there are Afrikaans speaking children that are sitting in home language English class but English is not their home language. They’re doing it because the parents have preferred for them to learn in English, so, home language is not technically home language. Because even with the black children the English is their third or fourth language. It’s very rare that you’ll find a child that goes home and they’ll speak in English at home as in the home language class. Most of them go home and they speak Afrikaans or any other language.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 165-175).

5.7 Theme 4: Teachers’ perceptions of community participation

The African proverb ‘it takes a village to raise a child’ best encapsulates how the entire community plays a role in the teaching and training up of children (Ned, 2019). Members of the community, such as elders pass on the wisdom, knowledge, and skills they have acquired over the years onto the younger generation. Community participation and the values of Ubuntu play a considerable role within Eersterust, as the community believes it provides a sense of belonging or identity, a commitment to common norms, a willingness to take responsibility for oneself and others, and a readiness to share and interact with members in society (Springveldt, 2008). The study looked into whether the participating schools involved the community and whether the teachers within the school hold to the value systems of Ubuntu and its view of humanity that people are bound together and that their lives are interwoven with one another. Participating teachers at the schools embedded themselves in the community, formed good relationships with their learners and exhibited communal values. What was also considered are how the aftereffects of Apartheid created many social problems, especially in previously disadvantaged communities such as Eersterust. This theme will explore three subthemes: 4.1 Parental involvement; 4.2 Teachers’ perceptions of community participation; and 4.3 Teachers’ perceptions of community circumstances.

5.7.1 Sub-theme 4.1: Parental involvement

An important aspect of translanguaging is to foster home-school literacy links by including parents in the teaching and learning of their children. Translanguaging design centres around language and home-school-community connections in writing activities, aims and objectives of assessments, and learning activities (Machado & Gonzales, 2020). Learning may be influenced at the family level by a number of factors such as language spoken in the family in relation to the LOLT at school, values held by the family in relation to school achievement, and the cognitive and emotional support given at home for the task of learning (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014: 48). The family influences learning and if education is prioritised by family and members of the community, it will improve learner achievement (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014).

The education level of parents especially, has a strong link to learner achievement (Reddy et al., 2019). Translanguaging involves reprocessing of content and learning to expand, extend, and intensify what was learnt through one language in school through discussion with the parent at home in the other language (Ebe, 2016). Learner achievement can be hampered by low education levels from parents and when ones family is not interested in being involved in the teaching and learning of the child. According to the PRILS (2016) study many South African parents and caregivers showed little to no interest in the education of their children. The teachers participating in the study had divergent views on parental involvement in the Eersterust community.

5.7.1.1 Semi-structured interviews

Mrs Lilly (School B) indicated during her interview that there is “*no parental involvement*” (Mrs Lilly’s interview transcription, line 230). During the covid-19 pandemic there was an alternation of learners coming to school three times a week; for the days when they remained at home, she realised that no learning had taken place at home and no homework was done. She stated:

“Look, at the present moment you have one day off and one day on, so today (Friday) we have the two classes we give them work and Tuesday again. But between today and when they come back on Tuesday nothing happens. We will have one, or two or three, four in between where parents are involved and you can see it in the class. But majority of the children, their parents, when they leave here they will pick up their

books on Tuesday morning when they come to school, and that is the reality....” (Mrs Lilly’s interview transcription, line 238-245)

Mrs Bops indicated that she created one-on-one opportunities with learners who were struggling. She also reached out to parents in order to discuss the learners’ progress and ways in which improvements could be made; however, she felt that parents were not interested and it was a difficult process to try and involve them. She indicated:

“...the parents are young, I don’t know if they don’t see the importance of school or, there’s few who are interested, but others you’ll send a letter home, come let us discuss the situation about your child. The parent don’t come, they don’t come, I don’t know if it’s lack of interest or if, I don’t know.” (Mrs Bops’s interview transcription, line 144-149)

Mr Tember stated that due to the social circumstances (such as drug and alcohol abuse, and low-income households) in the community and parents’ low levels of education, parents were not able to assist their children with their homework. This was especially in content subjects such as English, which includes many technicalities:

“...give the children homework and then the child gets home, there’s no time to do homework, like they have chores to do, some of them, if they don’t have chores they play, they don’t do homework.” (Mr Tember’s interview transcription, line 11-12)

His approach was not to involve parents in helping with homework: parents had to sign the work that had already been done. Mr Tember also said:

“...the social circumstances at home are not very conducive for them to learn and that’s why the approach like I told you earlier, to rather not, not involve the parents, but what I do, I let the parents check the work and let them sign.” (Mr Tember’s interview transcription, line 193-197)

Mr Tember also added that he had to make more of an effort with parents who preferred to home school their children because of the pandemic. Mr Tember said:

“...the few parents that are home schooling then would then come, usually on a Friday. And the work that we have done that week they will locate the answers they have done with the children, the memo that I give them, to see whether they are on track or not.” (Mr Tember’s interview transcription, line 187-191)

Mr Best, unlike the other three teachers, disagreed with the statement that homework was not completed at home; he provided learners with work to take home. He also encouraged parents who wished to home school their children, to get the work from school and to do it with the children. He stated that some parents made use of this opportunity and that positive feedback was received from the parents. Mr Best also mentioned that lines of communication at School B had improved between the school and parents during the Covid-19 pandemic, as some parents preferred to home school their children. He provided parents with memoranda and indicated that there was more parental involvement due to the pandemic. He stated:

“...we not only encourage parents to come forward if their children wish to stay at home, but also furnish them with the relevant materials. Also, guidelines on how to repeat it and then a memorandum are also handed to the parents, so that the children may self-assess or if the child wishes to hand in for marking, we do allow that, the child hands it in for marking and feedback is given.” (Mr Best’s interview transcription, line 119-125)

5.7.1.2 Focus group discussion

The same challenges were reported by the teachers at School A as that at school B in that parental involvement was limited. The challenges faced by young parents along with low educational levels hampered the development of home-school links. Mrs Min shared how she had created a WhatsApp group for parents, where messages were posted on the work their children had to complete on the days that they were not at school. She also let parents know they were welcome to contact her at any time should they need any assistance; she felt that she had gone out of her way to communicate with parents; however, when learners returned to school, only half the class had done their homework. Mrs Min stated that:

“...we do contact the parents but most of the time it’s difficult because sometimes the number is off, or you can’t get hold of them, there are some people who are involved.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 205-207)

Mrs Min also added that teachers were often involved in afterschool activities for more one-on-one contact time with their learners; they developed intervention programmes themselves; however, these initiatives were hampered by lack of interest from the parents and economic factors that included a lack of transport:

“Even some of the teachers we have an intervention programme but the parents won’t allow the child to stay because there’s no transport for afterwards when they go home, so it is very challenging.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 231-234)

In certain instances, a parent developed a close collaboration with the teacher. Mrs Bee’s Grade 7 Limpopo learner was not able to speak a word of English. Through involvement, not only from peers and the teachers, but also from the learner’s parents, he was able to improve his ability to speak English. She went on to share this experience:

“I worked together with his mother and gave him little grade one books; you know those one sentence stories and it helped him to repeat and he’s able to understand and speak yeah. He was under pressure to learn English as I only spoke English to him and I also told his mother at home they mustn’t speak any other language. Like if they sent him to the shop then they gave him the instruction in English. So, I worked together with the family.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 36-43)

Mrs Bee, who used a monolingual approach in involving the learner’s parent, was the only participant who mentioned the personal involvement from a parent. However, in the end, Mrs Bee agreed with Mrs Min:

“...in general, we don’t get a lot of support from the parents. It’s like it’s your problem, you sort it out.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 235-236)

5.7.2 Sub-theme 4.2: Teachers’ perceptions of community involvement

Community participation and the values of Ubuntu play a considerable role within Eersterust; the community aims to provide a sense of belonging or identity to its members, in that one takes responsibility for oneself and others, sharing and working together with members in society (Springveldt, 2008). An important aspect of community life in Eersterust is to be associated with various groups and churches that aim to give back towards the community (Springveldt, 2008). The principals of both participating schools were involved within the community; they encouraged teachers to mentor certain learners and to involve themselves in their lives. Subsequently, the seven teachers who were part of the study developed a sense of community within their classrooms and also involved the parents.

5.7.2.1 Semi-structured interviews

Teachers (School B) responses differed as to how the school involved parents and other members of the community in the teaching and learning process. One teacher whose responses

stood out from the rest is that of Mr Best; he believed that he offered an outsider's perspective because he was white and lived outside Eersterust. He was the only teacher to mention that the school took part in community interschool athletic events where four primary schools within Eersterust were involved; parents and teachers were all welcome. He also mentioned that the school was constantly in touch with many stakeholders and organisations within Eersterust who were personally involved in the welfare of the children; this created a sense of community. He stated:

“The school is constantly in touch with the community policing forum, with the police, with the clinic, and other stakeholders. So definitely we are not a lone island. We are integrated and are part of the community.” (Mr Best's interview transcription, line 113-116)

He also made a point to add, that with the pandemic measures were put in place by the school to cater for learners with comorbidities. The learners who were most at risk were placed in isolation rooms to write their assessments. Parents who preferred to home school were furnished with relevant materials. This teacher believed that there was increased communication between the school and parents than in the past due to Covid-19. He said:

“...there's definitely more communication (in English and Afrikaans) now, we've opened the channels when it comes to WhatsApp groups, we've used social media extensively as well, um, more letters have been sent out now more than before. Parents do come to the school the moment they identify a problem; we tell them that our door is always open and indeed it is.” (Mr Best's interview transcription, line 133-138)

Mrs Lilly's view differed from Mr Best's; she felt that there was not much of an effort made by the school or surrounding community to cooperate. She questioned whether the school was trying to involve parents and other community members. She said that with the frustrations involved in teaching under pandemic circumstances, no one was really up for implementing more measures. Mrs Lilly felt that it would be more effective if community organisations initiated interventions and encouraged participation from community members.

She said:

“...we've got outstanding community members who are doing very well, but somehow, I think finance is a problem. But there are people, if we can make that

effort, um, to get our community involved it's difficult. Teaching itself is, under circumstances like this is difficult. You just not up for trying to get things going, yes if somebody on the outside liaise with that person and things like that. How much do we go out of our way to involve the community? But we as a school, what do we do to involve those people?" (Mrs Lilly's interview transcription, line 249-259)

5.7.2.2 Focus group discussion

Teachers at School A paid more mention to involving outside organisations that partner up with the schools. Eersterust as a community has many social welfare organisations set in place in the form of non-government, faith-based and community-based organisations that address the many social issues that the community faces. The researcher herself is part of an organisation that aims to address some of these issues by working in partnership alongside the school. The organisations are also involved in helping learners with homework and establishing various literacy programmes being set up as well. Teachers within this school also tried to develop their own translanguaging intervention strategies, such as giving certain learners more one-on-one attention after school.

Mrs Bee regularly encouraged her learners to become involved in what outside organisations offered. She stated that:

"...there are different organisations that have, for example I think it's the Catholic church, they have an afterschool programme, where from school the children go there and they sit and help the children with homework, so there are a few private organisations or non-profit organisations should I say that help the children and the community." (Focus group discussion transcription, line 222-227)

Mrs Min added to this by saying:

"...there is a church group that also comes and do the reading on a Friday after school. Even some of the teachers we have an intervention program but most of the parents won't allow the child to stay because there's no transport for afterwards when they go home, so it is very challenging." (Focus group discussion transcription, line 230-234)

5.7.3 Sub-theme 4.3: Teachers' perceptions of community circumstances

The impact of Apartheid legislation in South Africa such as the Group Areas Act, which removed certain groups of people (African, Coloured, and Indian) from their homes; lead to

disastrous consequences, families were torn apart, resulting in the degradation of lifestyle. The aftereffects of Apartheid lead to high levels poverty, which have also resulted in unemployment, inept work, insufficient pay, domestic turmoil, alcohol abuse, crime, and poor diet, has had far reaching consequences for this community (Springveldt, 2008). A lack of adequate proficiency in the LOLT, English, is also an additional barrier to both teaching and learning; this disadvantages the previously academically disadvantaged groups even more (Mwinda & van der Walt, 2015). Learners within these communities also enter the school system in South Africa without having mastered their home language; this adds further strain on their ability to master the LOLT (Leask, 2019).

5.7.3.1 Semi-structured interviews

Circumstances such as drugs, alcohol, and low literacy levels affect the lives of children within Eersterust on a daily basis. These factors have an impact on the teaching and learning of the children within the community (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014). With parents also not having high levels of education, home school links are difficult to establish, causing even more barriers to learning; this can then also have an impact on a child's ability to improve in the LOLT. Parents are poor and many were not able to afford data to communicate on WhatsApp groups created by School B; this created further strain on teaching during the pandemic. As Mrs Bops indicated, there were parents who felt that the department was to blame as the current curriculum was not one that catered for their involvement. Parents often had lower levels of education and the content of the current curriculum was too difficult for them to transfer to their children; this negatively affected the implementation of home-school links. They were not able to assist their children with homework.

As teachers, including Mrs Bee and Mrs Bops, indicated there were learners at the school who had not mastered their home language; this added further strain on their ability to master the LOLT. Knowledge was then not transferred from the home language to the LOLT. Mrs Bops added that the school did not receive enough support from district-based support teams, teachers and parents would often mistake language as a barrier to learning to a learning disorder. Many parents and teachers were under the impression that learners had learning disorders when in fact more one-on-one time was needed in order for them to catch up with the work. She stated:

“there’s children in foundation phase without knowing their vowels or without knowing their sounds, and when they write you’ll find a child writing only

consonants, without having vowels and you know vowels of sounds. It's a problem, seriously, they must really consider that because there are special schools, but you'll find they only give the whole district one facilitator to come and help. It's been two years now, we don't have anybody to help us to take the children in special schools but some, I feel they don't need special schools, they just need time." (Mrs Bops's interview transcription, line 75-84).

Mrs Bops stated that many social circumstances in the community influence a learner's ability to learn outside of school; she stopped giving learners homework and completed all the work within the class, as learners did not complete the work at home. She felt that parents did not view their children's education and achievements as a priority and that there was not much interest in wanting to be involved:

"I feel like since, a few years ago, I don't give them homework anymore, we do everything in class, because if you give homework. You'll find only three children did it. Mostly children whose parent they don't go to school ne, they can't help their children with their homework, they can't assist because sometimes we give them homework the child will come without having done anything because there was nobody to guide them. Because the parents themselves. Number one, it's a language barrier, number two they don't have a high education, so they don't know what is happening, you understand?" (Mrs Bops's interview transcription, line 1-11)

Mr Tember also concurred with this and added that it was not only the teachers who faced many challenges within the schools and community but also the learners themselves. He said:

"...it's not just the teacher that needs to be resilient it's also the children" (Mr Tember's interview transcription, line 1).

"...some of the parents are not very good at English, you'll find the parent did not pass matric or something like that and so they would struggle with teaching the child at home." (Mr Tember's interview transcription, line 184-186)

5.7.3.2 Focus group discussion

Teachers from School A gave similar responses to those in School B with regards to the many challenges the community faces. Low education levels from parents also had far reaching consequences for the learners. Teachers indicated that parents were not able to afford to place their children in nursery schools. They were not able to teach their own children and lay the

foundations that were needed for the child to start school. The Principal of School A indicated that during the early stages of the lockdown parents came to the school to collect the work teachers had prepared for the learners; however, as time went by fewer parents came to the schools; this indicated that children were not learning at home.

Mrs Min, a Grade 4 teacher said:

“it’s very difficult because the child still doesn’t have the foundation laid properly for them. So, when you get to grade 4 there’s still children that can’t write, they can’t spell in English, nor can they do that in Afrikaans.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 196-201)

The issue of drugs and alcohol is very prevalent within this community where children are exposed from a young age. This in large has an effect on their schooling and the communal approach to living and learning.

Mrs Min stated:

“...there are outside organisations who are involved but it’s not like how we would want them to be involved. Because children are very exposed to alcohol and drugs, and all that around them so the few people that are involved. It doesn’t make that big of an impact because the time that they spend with those few people it does not amount to the time they have been exposed to all the drugs, and the violence and things around them.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 215-221)

Mrs Bee also added that the foundation not being laid for the learner in their home language also affected their ability to learn the LOLT:

“So, the problem, like with the African black children, they coming to learn English but they go home and they speak their mother tongue but what I’ve picked up they cannot read and write in their mother tongue [home language]. But if they’re speaking Zulu at home they can’t read and write in Zulu. So that is also a challenge for them.” (Focus group discussion transcription, line 179-184).

5.8 Summary of findings

It is evident that teachers within the two schools had a good understanding of what translanguaging is, although for most it took a bit of probing. All participating teachers realised that translanguaging strategies of translation, explanation and peer learning featured daily

within their classroom practices and that many acts of instinctive translanguaging took place. The second theme: Language Ideologies also indicates that all teachers found translanguaging an effective and helpful practice, even though some teachers preferred that their learners spoke only English at school. These divergent views are also identified in studies by other authors (Al-Bataineh and Gallagher 2018; Yuvayapan, 2019). Some participating teachers were uncertain about promoting multilingualism, although they felt that multilingualism could not be prevented, as their learners spoke a variety of languages on the playground.

Theme three: Response from Learners, reveals that all teachers felt that their learners were excited and felt empowered when they heard their home language being spoken in the classroom. They noted that a variety of languages featured daily in the lives of participating teachers and their colleagues at both schools. The final theme: Teachers Perceptions of Community Participation illustrates that participating teachers all had similar perceptions of parental involvement; in particular, they noted that the absence of parental involvement hampered translanguaging at home and impaired the learners' ability to progress. Many social circumstances faced by teachers and learners within the community presented challenges regarding learning and affected translanguaging strategies being implemented by teachers.

5.9 Conclusion

This chapter presented the data collected at two township primary schools within the Tshwane South District area of Gauteng. The data which were collected through semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, observations and documents were analysed through thematic content analysis. The findings revealed the different types of translanguaging methods teachers implemented within their English classrooms and that spontaneous acts of translanguaging occurred within their daily lives and within their lesson plans and assessments. In the following chapter, the findings are related to the literature review and the study's theoretical framework.

Chapter 6

Discussion of findings

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the study that are presented in Chapter 5. The discussion relates the findings to the literature review and theoretical framework of the study and specifies whether there is agreement or disagreement with the literature review and framework. The four themes this chapter considers are teacher conceptualisation of translanguaging, language ideologies, response from learners, and teachers' perceptions of community participation.

6.2 Teacher conceptualisation of translanguaging

Translanguaging is a new and developing concept and there is robust debate over whether it is a theory, practice, or naturally occurring phenomenon (Makalela, 2019). Some authors see it as a combination of all of these factors (Chaka, 2020). Due to translanguaging being a new concept, most teachers within the study were not aware of it. Through probing and explanation, teachers became fully aware that it is the ability of bi/multilingual speakers to shift or move between languages (Canagarajah, 2011). Teachers realised that translanguaging is a natural occurrence among their multilingual learners, and for the multilingual teachers, who translanguaged on a regular basis in the classroom. All teachers within the study agreed that allowing bi/multilingual learners to use their home language in the classroom led to greater learner motivation and improved understanding of the learning content (Makalela, 2016). It is clear from the findings that all participating teachers had an instinctive understanding of translanguaging as a pedagogy, even though they were not initially aware of this term.

The literature indicates that some researchers view translanguaging as a planned practice within the classroom (Ngocobo et al., 2016). Although the study's aim was to look into teachers' perceptions of translanguaging, the unplanned translanguaging practices that they used within their classrooms emerged as a theme. The unplanned acts of translanguaging that most of the teachers implemented on a regular basis affected their perceptions. Evidence from the study indicates that translanguaging is more than a planned practice; the teachers within the study were not consciously aware of the many acts of unplanned and spontaneous translanguaging which took place within their classrooms. This was evident not only in the accounts they gave and during the observations of their lessons but also through the analysis of lesson plans.

Participating teachers connected with learners on their level of understanding by modifying the content that they taught in their language classrooms. Mr Tember (School A) realised that the language proficiencies and background knowledge of the learners have to be considered and that an appropriate form of assessment has to be applied (Baker, 2001). This teacher held to the constructivist and translanguaging notions of learning, which involve focusing on the learner and not only on the subject content. Mr Tember compiled booklets from a textbook that he felt were more on the learners' level of understanding and that connected with their background knowledge. Consequently, Mr Tember was aware of his learners' content and language knowledge (Johnson, Garcia & Seltzer, 2019).

The participating teachers viewed learning not as a passive acceptance of knowledge by the learners but as an active process of knowledge construction through classroom engagement and interaction between teachers and learners (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014: 109). Through these social interactions, learners individually and socially construct their own knowledge. The findings and classroom observations revealed that social interaction took place either through scaffolding or classroom discussions; these strategies form part of social constructivism and its tenets of teacher and learner interaction and learner-to-learner interaction. Translanguaging as a theory and practice also capitalises on social interaction; teachers at both participating schools promoted social interaction among peers and between teachers and learners and thus opened up a 'translanguaging space' (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). This is a social space for multilingual language users in which they merge different dimensions of their 'knowledge, surroundings, opinions, values, their intellectual and physical capacity into one coordinated and expressive performance' (Wei, 2010:3).

The literature states that constructivism in translanguaging emphasises the collaboration among learners through scaffolding or by grouping learners together who share the same home language (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014; Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). Through group work activities learners engage in discussions, reflection, debate, and problem solving in their home language, which allow them to build confidence in their language skills (Amineh & Asl, 2015). At School A, this learning support was offered by learners, whom the teachers felt were more knowledgeable and who were able to translate certain concepts for emergent bilingual peers within the classroom. Through this method, learners were able to transfer knowledge to one another and from the home language to the LOLT, which was English. This is supported in the literature that indicates that if learners are given opportunities to interact with more

knowledgeable others, who share a common language, they appropriate new language features (Hamman-Ortiz, 2020).

Ubuntu and the Ubuntu translanguaging pedagogy (Makalela, 2018), which consist of classroom strategies that include multilingual turn-and-talk partners featured strongly in the daily practices at School B. Similarly, Mrs Min (School A) stated that she grouped learners together who spoke the same home language. Collaboration took place amongst learners in these groups, resulting in a better understanding of the curriculum content. Another aspect of Ubuntu translanguaging pedagogy present at both schools was that within the language classrooms, walls displayed greetings in different languages; learners seeing and learning how to greet in one another's language develop a closer bond and this encourages acceptance of others and their differences. Therefore, multilingualism is a teaching and learning resource in the classroom.

Teachers within both schools used translanguaging strategies that included translation and explanation (Liu & Fang, 2020) within the classroom to make meaning of certain concepts. This helped in supporting the learners' acquisition of new terms and concepts (Hamman-Ortiz, 2020). For teachers at both schools, the translanguaging strategies of translation and explanation by alternating between languages were effective in conveying the intended message to learners and in improving marks. In the study by Guzula, McKinney, and Tyler (2016), translation was used as a tool for ensuring understanding by learners, who were at different levels in their proficiency in isiXhosa and English, by allowing them to translate their own and their peers' answers; this scaffolded their understanding of the work. Translation is a tool for evaluating the learners' levels of understanding; they translate back to the home language from English, and then through collaboration, meanings are negotiated (Guzula, McKinney, and Tyler, 2016). Allowing the usage of two languages in order to explain concepts and to translate words relate to elements of Ubuntu translanguaging where both languages are used in order to make meaning.

Mrs Min at School A did more than just translate and clarify certain concepts through her learners' home languages. She also allowed her learners to leverage their full linguistic repertoires, by allowing them to ask questions in the language they were most comfortable with (being Afrikaans) (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). She had implemented a translanguaging method where reading and listening were conducted in one language while speaking and writing were done in another. The literature indicates that this strategy often results in a greater motivation

to learn and understanding the subject content (Makalela, 2015). Through this process, Mrs Min scaffolded her learners in helping them connect the familiar with the unfamiliar, by making use of the learners' background knowledge of words that she would explain in Afrikaans in order that they might transfer that understanding onto English (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014: 109). The literature states that spontaneous translanguaging should be accepted as a legitimate practice within classrooms, which in turn allows bi/multilingual learners to participate in the process of learning (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). This was also evident in the study by Maseko and Mkhize (2019) where two languages (English and Zulu) were required during a reading exercise in order for learners to make meaning of texts. This supports Ubuntu's view of translanguaging, in which languages are in a constant state of transition within classrooms and rigid boundaries that exist between languages are broken (Makalela, 2017). Ubuntu's Translanguaging pedagogy encourages learners to cross between all known languages in multilingual classroom contexts in order to gain understating of learning content (Hurst & Mona, 2017).

Translanguaging was viewed as an effective strategy by all participating teachers in the study. This answers the first research question of the study: what are teachers' perceptions of translanguaging? Mr Best (School B) indicated that there was an improvement in marks due to the inclusion of translanguaging practices in the classroom; all teachers also agreed that translanguaging results in greater motivation to learn among learners. Some teachers' classroom practices contradicted their verbal responses: they considered translanguaging to be an effective strategy; however, they still preferred that learners speak English in their classrooms. Even though some of the teachers had this view, they did not shy away from implementing some translanguaging strategies. Mrs Lilly (School B) wanted to learn more about translanguaging by attending a workshop. Teachers at School A did mention that learners were not confident in their ability to speak English and shied away from asking questions in front of their peers. As indicated in other studies (Hurst & Mona, 2017), learners are more confident communicating in their home language. A common thread is that teachers within the study, even those who considered themselves as monolingual, were prepared to be more flexible in their methods of teaching in order to respond to the learners' language repertoires (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016).

Analysis of this theme confirms that translanguaging took place as a natural occurrence in and outside the classroom. Learners within both schools translanguaged on a regular basis on the playgrounds with their peers and within the classroom. Evidence of many acts of unplanned translanguaging was found in all the participating teachers' classroom practices. Furthermore, translanguaging as a pedagogy was evident in all the scrutinised lesson plans.

6.3 Language Ideologies

All seven participating teachers in the study viewed translanguaging teaching strategies as effective, even though initially some were not aware that they were implementing translanguaging practices on a daily basis. All methods of translanguaging practices that the teachers implemented were spontaneous and included translation, explanation, peer learning, capitalising on social interactions, and allowing learners to leverage their full linguistic repertoires. Within each of the lesson plans and assessments, translanguaging strategies were also evident. Mr Best and Mr Tember (School B), however, added that spelling mistakes were often made when learners mixed languages (English, Afrikaans, and other home languages). This was also evident in the case study by Krause and Prinsloo (2016), where spelling mistakes were often made during examinations when translanguaging was used in the classroom.

Despite agreeing on the general benefits of translanguaging, teachers such as Mrs Lilly, Mr Tember (School B), and Mrs Bee (School A) shared the common belief that allowing learners to translanguage indiscriminately may be to the detriment of developing their English skills. The literature shows that teachers hold these two opposing views relating to implementing translanguaging within classrooms (Gorter & Arocena, 2020). Some studies reveal that some teachers are opposed to it and others hide the fact that they translanguaged from their colleagues (Al-Bataineh & Gallagher 2018; Schissel, De Korne & López-Gopar 2018; Yuvayapan, 2019). Conversely, some school principals embrace translanguaging to improve motivation and learning. The literature also indicates that there are contradictions in teachers' views on translanguaging, in that, even though they find it helpful, they are still steeped in monoglossic language ideologies and give preference to English (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020). This was also evident in statements made by Mrs Lilly and Mr Tember (School B) who stated that in order for the learners to achieve proficiency in English, they should only speak English.

The literature refers to language ideologies as a set of opinions, views, ideas, and social orientations about ways in which language should be understood and used in society (Mkhize & Balfour, 2017). Teachers within the study, such as Mrs Bee (School A) and Mrs Lilly (School

B) showed preference for English as a language of teaching and learning. Mrs Bee (School A), in particular, preferred a purely monolingual approach in her classroom and believed that this method forced learners to communicate in English. She indicated that there were benefits to this method, in that learners do eventually achieve proficiency in the LOLT. Mrs Bee also mentioned that she preferred to speak only English with her family; according to the literature, a reason for this could be due to the global status English has as a shared language within the workforce (Fawole & Pillay, 2019). However, Ubuntu translanguaging holds to the notion that all languages in South Africa should receive equal status, and that one should aim to offset rigid boundaries between the 11 official languages (Makalela, 2017).

Teachers within the study also recognised that English was one of the languages in the learners' linguistic repertoires, but not necessarily their first language (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020a). Even though the learners were placed in the English Home Language classroom, English was their third or even fourth language. The literature indicates that for many South African learners this is often the case (Childs, 2016). Multilingual learners in South Africa translanguange all the time between, for example, the academic and home language, and the formal and informal language amongst their peers (Schissel, De Korne & López-Gopar, 2018). Participating teachers believed that outside of the classroom and on the playgrounds, learners should only communicate with their peers in English; the literature also indicates that this is a common view held by teachers (Childs, 2016). Teachers often assume that allowing learners to use their home language in the classroom leads to negative consequences for learning. Another objection against translanguaging practices, which was raised by two monolingual teachers in the study, was that their lack of proficiency in the learners' home languages limited their ability to translanguange. Mr Best (School B), however, made a conscious effort to learn greetings and phrases in his learners' home languages: Sepedi, Tswana, Zulu, and Venda. He embraced the values of Ubuntu that promote multilingualism within the classroom.

Mrs Min and Mrs Bee at School B, however, added that learning in one's home language led to better outcomes for the future – for individuals, cultures, and nations as confirmed by UNESCO (2003b, 2020). They argued that the foundations in the learners' home language had to be laid first before they could learn English as a FAL. Most participants agreed that learners required full comprehension in their home language and that this prior linguistic knowledge should be activated when learning the second language; this view is supported by Lewis, Jones, and Baker (2012a).

Analysis of this theme also relates to the first research question and indicates that the participating teachers viewed translanguaging practices as beneficial and, subsequently, these teachers regularly employed them. There, however, were contradictions in the responses by teachers, who included Mrs Lilly, Mr Tember (School B), and Mrs Bee (School A). They preferred that learners only speak English at school. This answered the second research question of why teachers perceived translanguaging in this way. Mrs Lilly and Mr Tember believed that allowing learners to speak their home language at school was detrimental to developing their English. Mrs Lilly was monolingual, but she did state that she tried to implement translanguaging; Mr Tember reverted to Afrikaans during his observed lesson and also made mention of how he used other South African languages for disciplinary purposes. Subsequently, it was clear that all participating teachers agreed that multilingualism should be promoted; they indicated that it could not be avoided, as learners speak other languages amongst their peers on the playgrounds.

6.4 Response from learners

The literature shows that the social and cultural background of language learning indicates that children are influenced by the attitudes, ideas, and traditions of the community in which they live (Baker, 2001). Translanguaging answers the question of differentiation: how to encourage participation of all learners from diverse language backgrounds and English abilities. All teachers at School A and B agreed that learners got excited when they heard that their home language was used in the classroom; initially, there was disbelief among the learners but they then gained a sense of empowerment, as they were able to understand the work. Teachers at School A added that the practice of collaborating with peers through the usage of the learners' home language helped learners to gain a sense of leadership and acceptance of others. Learners wanted to help their fellow peers who were struggling, which in the end developed a sense of community within the classroom and a closer bond was established amongst peers. This corresponds to Ubuntu's insistence on embracing diversity amongst learners (Makalela, 2018).

The literature indicates that allowing learners to translanguage and to leverage their full linguistic repertoires lead to the acceptance of peers who come from different backgrounds and who have different language abilities (Torpsten, 2018). Studies conducted internationally by Torpsten (2018), Woodley (2016), Ebe (2016) and Duarte (2019) revealed that learners valued learning from their peers. There is evidence in the literature that bi/multilingualism strengthens cultural connections and enhances a sense of social belonging and psychological well-being within classrooms (Ned, 2019). The participating learners were comfortable with using a

variety of languages during class sessions and became more linguistically accepting towards others. This is also evident in case studies described in the literature by Ebe (2016): learners became used to hearing a variety of languages during class sessions. Woodley (2016) stated that when multilingualism is promoted, learners express value in learning from fellow classmates. For learners within Duarte's (2019) study, conducted in Germany, translanguaging was a natural process, which played a central role in learning through collaborative talk and developmental processes during peer interaction.

In the case studies conducted at complementary schools within the UK (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, 2015), learners viewed using more than one language as an acceptable practice. Participating teachers within the study, who include Mr Tember, Mr Best (School B), and Mrs Min (School A) modelled this practice for their learners. The literature states that a favourable learning situation is created when the teachers plan lessons and use teaching strategies that lead to learning settings where pupils feel accepted by their teachers and are included in the class's teaching community (Torpsten, 2018). Through constructivism in translanguaging, knowledge is constructed within these classrooms through a dialogic space, where learners realise the relevance of their sociocultural and emotional histories, and communicative repertoires (Lin, 2019).

All teachers in the study agreed that learners should be allowed to use their home languages (Zulu, Sepedi, Sotho, Tswana, and Afrikaans) in the classroom; the teachers who were not able to communicate in the learners' home languages implemented translanguage strategies through the help of other learners. The literature provides two views on this. International studies by Al-Bataineh and Gallagher (2018), Schissel, De Korne and López-Gopar (2018), Yuvayapan (2019), and a local study by Krause & Prinsloo (2016) indicate that the teachers in these studies were opposed to other languages being used in English classrooms and content subject classrooms. However, studies conducted locally by Banda (2018), Charambo (2020), Guzula, McKinney, and Tyler (2016), Maseko and Mkhize (2019) and Strauss (2016); and internationally by Ebe (2016) and Woodley (2016) reveal that the combination of home languages and the LOLT was embraced by teachers in their classrooms and that this led to pedagogical gains within these classrooms.

Analysis of this theme shows what is also evident in the literature; when learners hear their home language and are allowed to use their home language in the classroom, there is greater motivation and excitement among them to learn and an increased engagement within

classrooms. Better relationships are also formed within the classroom, amongst the teacher and her learners, and amongst peers. What was also evident in this study was the use of other South African languages for the purpose of classroom management by teachers such as Mr Tember and Mr Best (School B). The literature (Yuvayapan, 2019) states that most teachers agree that communication in the home language in the classroom is more efficient, especially for disciplinary purposes.

6.5 Teachers' perceptions of community participation

The literature indicates that the family influences learning and if education is prioritised by family and members of the community, it improves learner achievement (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014). Translanguaging as a practice emphasises close home-school links and encourages support from family members. This is done by involving the family and community in school activities and inviting them to share in readings, telling stories, teaching, experiences, and funds of knowledge (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016; Machado & Gonzales, 2020). This practice is also emphasised by Ubuntu translanguaging which integrates knowledge from the home with the classroom and that creates a culturally responsive pedagogy (Maseko & Mkhize 2019). Through translanguaging, learners expand on what was learnt through the LOLT in school by discussions with the parents at home in the home language (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a). Translanguaging design centres on making language and home-school-community connections through writing activities, its aims, and objectives of assessments, and learning activities (Machado & Gonzales, 2020).

Constructivism also postulates that there are certain tools that affect learning. These tools can vary in type and quality and include culture and the values and beliefs learners bring to the classroom, and the language the learners, family, and friends speak at home (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). Constructivism views learning as a social activity where teachers, peers, families, and community members interact with one another and all play a role within the learning process (Hein, 1991). The theories of Constructivism, Translanguaging, and Ubuntu translanguaging all emphasise the knowledge that the learner acquires from families and the community.

Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, some parents at the participating schools preferred to home school their children; this led to greater parental involvement in the learners' schooling. Mr Best and Mr Tember from School B gave parents memoranda and rubrics in order for the

learners to be able to self-assess at home. These two teachers made an effort in opening up lines of communication between themselves and the learners' parents. Mr Best believed that due to the pandemic, communication between teachers and parents improved. Mrs Bee from School A collaborated closely with parents; one of her learners from another province could not speak English. Mrs Bee worked with his family by providing books and relevant materials for them to work on at home, which resulted in an improvement in his ability to speak English. These teachers were able to establish home-school links. Mrs Min (School A) also made a personal effort to communicate with parents; she ensured that learners had homework to do during the days they remained at home.

Even with these personal efforts made by participating teachers, parental involvement was still lacking at the schools due to a variety of factors: many parents were young, with low education levels, and, subsequently, were not able to be involved in the teaching and learning of their children. This hampered the reprocessing of subject content learnt at school in English, as parents could not discuss the content in the learners' home languages. Although teachers such as Mr Best, Mr Tember (School B), and Mrs Bee (School A) indicated a few cases where school-home cooperation was a success, they stated that it remained a challenge to involve the majority of parents. Within southern Africa, many social problems occur at a high frequency and severity and previously disadvantaged communities such as Eersterust still suffer disadvantages (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014). The after-effects of Apartheid generated many social problems, such as drug and alcohol abuse, teenage pregnancy, HIV and Aids, and low educational levels. These problems resulted in cultural and identity loss, isolation, and a confusion of values and norms; these factors affect the learners' ability to learn at school and within the home. Many of these learners are also from low socioeconomic contexts. The PIRLS (2016) study states that many South African parents and caregivers showed little to no interest in their child's schooling. This was a challenge faced by participating teachers when attempting to establish home-school links.

Ubuntu is crucial within the context of home-community-school cooperation. It holds that being a human entails being relational with others (Etieyibo, 2018). One exhibits this relational essence by behaving in certain ways such as surrounding oneself by community members, establishing compassionate relationships, and displaying certain communal values (Etieyibo, 2017). The values of Ubuntu play a considerable role within Eersterust; the community aims to provide a sense of belonging or identity to its members, in that one takes responsibility for

oneself and others, sharing and working together with members in society. However, accounts given by participating teachers of the many social challenges the community faced have resulted in unemployment, inexpert work, insufficient pay, domestic turmoil, alcohol abuse, crime, and poor diet has had far reaching consequences for this community (Springveldt, 2008). It is also evident in the literature that factors such as these affect the teaching and learning of children; these previously academically disadvantaged groups become even more disadvantaged. Participating teachers also indicated that it was not only the teachers who needed to be resilient but also their learners.

These factors affected the Eersterust community and its involvement with schools and with the teaching and learning of their children. There were many organisations, including non-government and faith-based organisations that worked with schools and individually with learners. However, as Mrs Min (School A) indicated the time the organisations spent with the learners was not enough. Notwithstanding, the values of Ubuntu were upheld by the teachers, in that no learner was left behind; the participating teachers endeavoured to involve parents and developed mentor relationships with their learners. Teachers developed programmes along with the principals at both schools that fostered mentorship responsibilities. Ubuntu translanguaging took place in the classrooms, as learners mentored other learners; this developed a sense of leadership and community within classrooms.

Analysis of this theme indicates that within the community of Eersterust, Ubuntu values were incorporated at both schools. This theme also answered the second research question of why teachers perceived translanguaging in this way. Participating teachers made a personal effort to include each learner and to ensure that none was left behind. The absence of parental involvement, however, had many consequences in the teaching and learning of children at both schools. Long after Apartheid, the many aftereffects were still evident in Eersterust. As a whole, these circumstances negatively affected the translanguaging practice of fostering home-school links and hindered translanguaging practices from being fully implemented within classrooms.

6.6 Similarities with the literature

Teachers within the study all had a thorough understanding of translanguaging, even though only two had heard of the term. The literature states that teachers in South Africa and other multilingual societies translanguage on a daily basis as an unplanned and natural occurrence

by alternating and blending languages in order for learners to grasp learning concepts (Kretzer & Kaschula, 2019). Aspects of translanguaging were present as unplanned occurrences within both schools; even though teachers were not aware that they were using this approach, it featured strongly in their daily practices. Aspects of translanguaging in teaching were implemented at the schools, as learning was the result of social production and collaboration amongst teachers and their learners. Teachers did not use the “chalk-and-talk” method and their learners played a key role in the construction of knowledge. Teachers linked the content of the lessons to the learners’ prior-knowledge by taking their background knowledge into consideration.

The translanguaging strategies of translation, multilingual explanation and peer learning were implemented at both schools. These strategies also included Ubuntu pedagogy, for example, multilingual turn-and-talk partners, and teachers reading in one language and explaining concepts in another language. A sense of Ubuntu was established at both schools among principals, teachers, and learners. What also corresponded with the literature is that teachers had contradictory views regarding translanguaging and multilingualism; although teachers including Mrs Lilly, Mr Tember (School B), and Mrs Bee (School A) found these practices helpful, they still preferred that their learners speak English in the classroom. The reason for this was that these teachers wanted to expose the learners to English as much as possible because most learners only spoke and heard English at school.

6.7 New insights

According to Yuvayapan (2019), internationally there are few publications on teachers’ perceptions of translanguaging and multilingualism, such as the ones presented in the literature (Al-Bataineh and Gallagher, 2018; Gorter & Arocena, 2020; Schissel, De Korne & López-Gopar, 2018; Yuvayapan, 2019). Locally studies done by Banda (2018), Charambo (2020), Krause and Prinsloo (2016), and Maseko and Mkhize (2019) considered how aspects of translanguaging featured within multilingual classrooms and how teachers perceived the use of other African languages alongside English. While Makalela’s (2013, 2015a) studies focused on the perceptions of pre-service teachers, Strauss (2016) and Guzula, and McKinney and Tyler (2016), looked into specific aspects of translanguaging such as translation between different languages during after school programmes.

From the studies mentioned above, only a few looked into teachers’ perceptions of translanguaging and multilingualism. A few studies within the literature investigated the types

of translanguaging strategies that teachers implement, how unplanned translanguaging takes place as a natural occurrence and how this natural occurrence features in lesson plans. In multilingual contexts, teachers, and learners translanguage on a regular basis, inside and outside the classroom (Kretzer & Kaschula, 2019). Studies have also not fully investigated how teachers modify subject content or assessments in order to accommodate their multilingual learners. Consequently, this study contributes to new knowledge in its findings that spontaneous and instinctive acts of translanguaging feature strongly on a daily basis within multilingual classrooms in Eersterust. In this study, lesson plans and assessments included translanguaging pedagogy even when it was not consciously planned by the teacher. The focus of this study was more on teachers' perceptions of translanguaging rather than what type of translanguaging strategies they use; however, these were new themes that emerged. The study provides new insight into teachers, who regularly employ strategies of grouping learners together and using the learners' home language to transfer knowledge to the LOLT, although not being aware of or exposed to the term translanguaging.

Translanguaging also emphasises that home-school links should be made; the literature does not account for the effects of parental involvement and the low education levels of parents on learning. Studies conducted by Ebe (2016) and Song (2016), looked into how translanguaging was used within immigrant family households to create home-school links. These studies were conducted in a first-world context and focused on immigrant families, whose parents had a higher level of education. It is difficult to apply this to the South African context. These factors influence how translanguaging is implemented in the learners' homes. The current study provides new insights into how circumstances within previously disadvantaged communities influence teachers' perceptions of translanguaging and whether this approach should be implemented within language classrooms.

The literature studies done internationally show that teachers often shy away from spontaneous acts of translanguaging due to criticism by their fellow colleagues, who support a monolingual teaching approach, as seen in studies conducted by Yuvayapan (2019); Al-Bataineh and Gallagher (2018); Schissel, De Korne and López-Gopar (2018); and Krause and Prinsloo (2016). However, the current study found that teachers implemented acts of translanguaging without receiving any criticism from colleagues or from the school principals. Mrs Lilly, a monolingual teacher, praised one of her colleagues for being proficient in two languages (English and Afrikaans) and that she was able to translanguage when teaching her learners. Mrs Lilly (School B) and Mrs Bee (School A) both monolingual teachers, indicated that

although they preferred that learners only communicated in English, they viewed themselves as barriers to learning as they could not draw on the learners' home languages in the classroom.

Translanguaging studies conducted in South Africa (Banda, 2018; Charambo, 2019; Guzula, McKinney & Tyler, 2016; Krause & Prinsloo, 2016; Maseko & Mkhize, 2019; Strauss, 2016), reveal that many teachers were able to communicate in the learners' home language and were multilingual. However, even in such a multilingual community as Eersterust, one finds teachers who are monolingual and view themselves as a barrier to learning for not being able to communicate in the learners' home language. Crucially, the teachers within this study viewed learners' and other teachers' multilingualism as a resource.

6.8 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the findings of the study based on four themes: teacher conceptualisation of translanguaging, language ideologies, response from learners, and teachers' perceptions of community participation. It is evident from the findings discussed above that translanguaging occurs as an everyday practice in the lives of the teachers and learners in the study. Even for teachers who are monolingual and are not able to speak the language of their learners, translanguaging strategies are implemented through peer interaction and within lesson plans. The findings highlight that translanguaging was a spontaneous act by the teachers within the study and not planned. The following chapter discusses the recommendations and conclusions for the study.

Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations for the study. It provides a summary of the study, indicates how the findings address the research questions, and identifies the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research. The aim of the study was to identify teachers' perceptions of translanguaging, specifically within township primary schools, as these represent linguistically diverse groups of teachers and learners.

7.2 Summary of the study

In Chapter 1, the study was introduced along with its purpose, which is to determine teachers' perceptions of translanguaging, specifically within township primary school contexts. In schools in Eersterust, there are two groups of learners in the English language classrooms. The FAL learners reside in Eersterust and the Home Language learners stay in Eersterust and the surrounding townships of Mamelodi and Nellmapius. This makes for a culturally and linguistically diverse group of learners. Language is one of the biggest barriers to learning, specifically within the South African context because previously disadvantaged communities still suffer low levels of literacy due to the consequences of Apartheid. Teachers and learners are expected to be proficient in English, which is chosen as the LOLT in most primary schools within South Africa. Parents also prefer their children to learn through the medium of English because of its perceived status as a preferred language in the workplace. For most of these learners, English is their first additional, and even second or third additional language. This represents a challenge for many language teachers, whose home language is not English. Therefore, it was appropriate to formulate the main research question of this study as the perceptions of translanguaging among English teachers in township primary schools, and why do teachers perceive translanguaging in this way. The study investigated the perceptions of these English teachers within linguistically diverse classrooms.

In Chapter 2, the literature was reviewed on teachers' and learners' perceptions of translanguaging, both internationally and locally. What is evident in the literature are the debates amongst scholars on whether translanguaging is a planned or unplanned practice. It

was evident in the study that translanguaging did not take place as a planned practice within classrooms but that it was a naturally occurring phenomenon and a practice multilinguals engage in during their everyday lives. There were inconsistencies in the perceptions teachers had of translanguaging. The problems faced are institutional language policy (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020), a lack of direction on how translanguaging can be implemented, and their own monoglossic language ideologies. Teachers also have expectations of apparent dangers, such as an overreliance on the home language by learners or the loss of community language and identity. These challenges are highlighted by Liu and Fang (2020:4). In the current study, there was often tension in the participants' perceptions of translanguaging due to opposition from mono-linguistically inclined colleagues. Hence, it is important to conduct further studies on teachers' perceptions of translanguaging and to recognise its importance.

Within South African classrooms, there are issues related to time pressures, and a belief in the use of only one language at a time; this also gives rise to resistance to translanguaging (Childs, 2016). The literature indicates that more studies should be conducted to look into teachers' perceptions of translanguaging (Yuvayapan, 2019). The case studies presented in the literature internationally by Al-Bataineh and Gallagher (2018), Ebe (2016), Gorter and Arocena (2020), Schissel, De Korne and López-Gopar (2018); and locally by Makalela (2013, 2015a), Guzula, McKinney, and Tyler (2016), and Strauss (2016) did not investigate the spontaneous acts of translanguaging by teachers and how they implemented these strategies within their multilingual contexts. Nor did these studies scrutinise lesson plans in order to document these planned and unplanned acts of translanguaging.

In Chapter 3, the theoretical framework for the study was discussed. The theories of Constructivism, Translanguaging theory, and Ubuntu translanguaging theory were chosen due to their insistence that learning a language is a social process that takes place through interaction among teachers, peers, and the family. The theories have also been used successfully by other researchers and, thus, formed a suitable framework to analyse and interpret the data of this study.

Chapter 4 discussed the research design and methodology that were used for collecting and generating data, and for analysing and interpreting the findings. Nominalism and interpretivism were chosen as research paradigms for the study. Nominalism is relevant to the study as the participants' views of reality and the world were identified, specifically in a school setting. The participants' perceptions were based on how they viewed reality and, subsequently, how they

perceived knowledge being constructed according to their world-view. Interpretivism was also relevant to the study as researchers seek to form multiple understandings of their participants' worldviews. This was crucial in gaining knowledge from teachers on their perceptions of translanguaging and how or if they applied the strategy in their English language classes. A multiple case study was selected for a better representation of the class of cases, allowing for breadth as well as the depth of focus (Rule & John, 2011). The goal of the study was to gain multiple perspectives from different teachers on their translanguage interactions with learners in township primary schools.

In Chapter 5, the findings of the study were presented. In Chapter 6, the findings were discussed under the themes, which had emerged during data analysis. The findings revealed that teachers' perceptions of translanguaging within the study were consistent, in that they viewed translanguaging as an effective teaching and learning strategy. The findings also revealed the many acts of spontaneous translanguaging that featured in the daily practices of these teachers, which were included in their lesson plans and assessments. New themes emerged of why teachers perceived translanguaging in this way. The findings revealed the social circumstances of the community due to the aftereffects of Apartheid. There was a lack of parental involvement, which corresponds with the findings of the PIRLS (2016) study, which indicate that South African parents (and guardians) are not involved in the education of their children. These findings provide new insights, as the main benefits of translanguaging are to establish home-school links and to create opportunities for families to read stories together in the home language (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a).

The literature states that the debate on translanguaging is ongoing, with confusion over whether it is a theory, everyday practice, or pedagogy (Makalela, 2019). For some authors, it is viewed solely as a planned practice within the classroom (Ngocobo et al., 2016). However, the results from the current study prove that it takes place as a natural occurrence for multilingual teachers, who employ translanguaging instinctively/subconsciously so that their learners are able to make sense of subject content. The perceptions of translanguaging among teachers were influenced by their willingness to implement translanguaging instinctively to scaffold their multilingual learners' understanding of the learning content. This influenced their views of translanguaging and promoting multilingualism in the classroom.

7.3 Research questions revisited

This section represents conclusions for the study based on its two research questions. *Research question 1: What are the perceptions of translanguaging amongst English teachers in township primary schools?* The findings in relation to this primary research question of what teachers' perceptions are of translanguaging revealed that all seven participating teachers in the study agreed that translanguaging was an effective strategy when used in their English language classrooms. Teachers recognised the effectiveness of translanguaging teaching strategies in both their Home Language and FAL classrooms. Teachers, however, differed in their accounts of whether translanguaging helped learners to develop confidence in speaking in the LOLT, English. The main translanguaging strategies that were identified by teachers included translation and explanation, peer learning, classroom interaction, modifying subject content to adapt it to the learners' level of understanding, and allowing learners to leverage their full linguistic repertoire.

The two monolingual teachers who were part of the study also employed translanguaging teaching strategies; they felt that a shortcoming of their classroom practice was that they were not able to communicate in the home language of their learners. Crucially, the teachers within the study subconsciously and instinctively employed various translanguaging teaching strategies on a regular basis. However, notwithstanding the general belief in the effectiveness of translanguaging strategies, three of the participating teachers indicated that native English should be the target of English language teaching. These teachers felt that learners should only communicate amongst themselves in English in the classroom and on the playground. They believed that allowing learners to speak their home language at school may be to the detriment of them developing competence in English as the LOLT.

Research question 2: Why do teachers perceive translanguaging in this way? Teachers within the study spontaneously employed various translanguaging strategies; they were aware that if they did not make an effort to employ these strategies, certain learners would be excluded from the learning process. However, two of the participating teachers doubted whether translanguaging helped their learners to develop confidence and competence in the LOLT, English. Other factors that originally had not been considered also came into play in the study, which include the socio-economic circumstances of the schools and community. Participating teachers at School B felt that time constraints concerning implementing the curriculum and discipline challenges affected their perceptions of translanguaging strategies, such as peer

learning. These teachers did not implement peer scaffolding and translations or same-language peer groups in the classroom.

Low parental involvement and education levels played a contributing role in how translanguaging strategies could be implemented within the home. The literature indicates that learning and knowledge transfer from the home language to the LOLT is promoted when children repeat what is learnt at school through discussion with their parents. All participating teachers within the study tried to involve parents in the learning process. However, only a few accounts were given where it was a success and where there was a personal effort made on the part of the parent to assist their children with homework. This frustrated the teachers and one teacher indicated that there was an unwillingness even on the side of some teachers to implement any learner-centred strategies. The literature (Liu & Fang, 2020) indicates that there is a general belief that English should be the only LOLT in the English language classroom. Three participating teachers believed that learners should be encouraged to communicate in the LOLT at school, which is English. These teachers viewed learners communicating in their home language on the playground as a barrier to learning and them achieving proficiency in the LOLT.

7.4 Limitations of the study

The study had the following limitations:

- Only two schools could be used as research sites, as the current Covid-19 pandemic did not allow for access to more schools. Therefore, the findings are not generalisable.
- There is also subjectivity within the study; the researcher brought personal perspectives and interpretations to the study as she has worked within the participating community for three years.
- The study is not generalisable, as it is a qualitative case study of two schools within the Eersterust community. Therefore, the findings can only be applied to the two participating schools and not to another context.
- The willingness of the teachers to participate was a limiting factor. More teachers did not want to participate due to the pressure the Covid-19 pandemic placed on teaching and the subsequent increased workload.
- The HOD of English at School A could not attend the focus group discussion. Her input and perspective on translanguaging and multilingual education could have benefited the study.

A final limiting factor of this case study is that the researcher does not have a formal education degree. Therefore, interpreting the perspectives of teachers and reviewing education policies may be a limiting factor as well. The following limitations mentioned above, however, do not make the findings of the study irrelevant or subjective. Although the study is not generalisable, it was not the aim to make generalisations, but rather to contribute towards knowledge construction. Methods of data collection, which included observations, interviews, documentation, photos, audio recordings, and field notes, allowed for rich data to be collected from the seven participating teachers. The researcher's supervisor acted as an 'independent, distanced and critical eye' (Creswell & Miller, 2000), for the study. This helped in forming a clearer interpretation of the findings.

7.5 Recommendations for future studies

With the study's aim of determining teachers' perceptions of translanguaging, there are a few recommendations discussed below for future studies.

7.5.1 Translanguaging by teachers

The focus of the study was not to determine what types of translanguaging strategies teachers employ, but rather to identify their perceptions of translanguaging. However, the types of translanguaging strategies teachers employed emerged as a theme; there was also evidence of translanguaging strategies in the participating teachers' lesson plans. Future studies should look into the unplanned and spontaneous acts of translanguaging that take place regularly within linguistically diverse classrooms in South Africa. Even monolingual teachers within the study implemented unplanned acts of translanguaging. Studies within the literature conducted on translanguaging focused on intervention strategies that were implemented with teachers through planning. Few studies have considered teachers' perceptions of translanguaging and multilingualism in South Africa and how spontaneous or unplanned acts of translanguaging feature within their classrooms. Studies should also document teachers' lesson plans and how these documents incorporate elements of translanguaging.

7.5.2 Parent education

One of the main benefits of translanguaging is that it creates home-school links; studies conducted internationally by Ebe (2016) and Song (2016) emphasise this factor but do not consider the impact of parents' levels of education. These studies by Ebe (2016) and Song (2016) were also conducted in a first-world context with participants who were immigrants.

However, this current study revealed that parents' low levels of education were barriers to the implementation of home-school links and learning. As stated previously, one's family influences learning and if education is prioritised by family and members of one's community, it will improve learner achievement (Donald, Lazarus & Moolla, 2014). Future studies should look into implementing workshops on translanguaging strategies not only with teachers but also with parents to increase their involvement in the learning of their children. Adult literacy and numeracy programmes should be set up in previously disadvantaged communities in order to develop close collaboration with the community and schools within the community.

7.6 Implications of the study

The impact this research might have on policy, workshops, and future studies will be discussed below.

7.6.1 Teacher workshops

Teacher training and workshops on translanguaging have yet to be implemented within schools and communities in Eersterust. Teachers are often under the impression that they are unable to implement translingual methods of teaching if they do not speak the learners' home languages. However, international studies show that this does not have to be the case. Implementing other methods through multiliteracy and multimodality could also be used; these include using movements, objects, visual cues, touch, sounds, and words in the classroom (Liu & Fang, 2020). An appropriate form of 'formative' and 'summative' assessment may also be applied, which includes activities, drawings, and oral or written tasks. By helping teachers to view the learners' home language as an asset to build on, learners are in a better position to learn an additional language and to learn content in general. Teachers in South Africa should be encouraged to regularly plan for and implement translanguaging strategies within their classrooms.

Teachers should also be encouraged to create a translanguaging classrooms through the following:

- Lesson plans and other forms of pedagogic documents can be collected by teachers to help them reflect on whether they included planned or instinctive translanguaging practices (Van Viegen, 2020).
- Labelling objects within the classroom in multiple languages.

- Allowing a learner who is proficient in English to partner with an emergent speaker and to work together on classroom activities.
- Emphasising the positive aspects of both the home language and LOLT.
- Making available multilingual and multimodal sources in the classroom.
- Allowing for more group work activities by grouping learners according to the same home language.
- Learning key words or greetings in the learners' home languages.

7.6.2 English language dominance

Both Grade 4 teachers in the study indicated that it is challenging when the learners have not yet acquired the ability to read or write in English when starting this grade. Most children in South Africa have not acquired the basic reading skills that are needed in a language; furthermore, they have not met the requirements set by the curriculum to be able to read for meaning by Grade 3, but they are nonetheless promoted to the next grade (Berg, Spaul, Wills, Gustafsson & Kotze, 2016). In Grade 4, many learners transition from learning in their home language to the LOLT, which is predominantly English. For many of these learners, the language foundation has not been laid and many teachers find that they are not able to read or write in their home language either. Many parents in South Africa prefer that their children learn through the medium of English. Hence, many parents from surrounding townships send their children to schools within Eersterust, as they believe they will learn English better. As stated in the literature, parents should alter their misconceptions that English is the dominant language for learning and teaching (Brock-Utne, 2016).

Parental preference for English also reinforces the perception among learners that their home language has no value; subsequently, they forget their unique heritage and lose pride in their indigenous identity. Teachers should create classroom environments in which all learners' home languages are valued. The dominance of English places strains on teachers and learners alike. Cenoz and Gorter (2017), and Fallas-Escobar (2019) indicate that spontaneous translanguaging within classrooms should be valued as a legitimate practice within multilingual classrooms. Teachers within these classrooms should allow learners to leverage their full linguistic repertoire and to find value in their home languages.

7.6.3 Circumstances within the community

As previously mentioned, within southern Africa many social problems occur with high frequency and severity; previously disadvantaged communities are still disadvantaged.

Learners in the schools in Eersterust suffer these disadvantages, which affect their ability to learn at school; this causes more barriers to learning. These problems may result in cultural and identity loss, isolation, and a confusion of values and norms, which affect the learners' ability to learn at school and within the home. The study's aim was to look into teachers' perceptions of translanguaging; however, the findings from interviews with teachers revealed that community circumstances also affect the communal way of learning. With not much collaboration from parents and other community members, the values of Ubuntu are not able to be practiced.

7.6 Conclusion

The study concludes that teachers do realise the benefits and effectiveness of implementing translanguaging methods within their English language classrooms. The participating schools were not opposed to other languages being used in the classroom. Teachers did not shy away from revealing that certain teaching and learning methods needed to be modified in order to accommodate all learners and to foster a strong sense of community. In an increasingly diverse world, multilingualism is encouraged by educational researchers. However, the issue of English language dominance is still prevalent amongst many previously disadvantaged communities. The methods used within the study and the teachers' views of translanguaging collaborated the study's theoretical framework. Although this study was done on a small scale by looking into the perceptions of seven English teachers, it indicated that teachers, even those who were monolingual did not stick to the regular 'chalk and talk' methods of teaching. They engaged with learners and used a variety of translanguaging practices in their classrooms.

References

- Adam, I. (2017). Vygotsky's social constructivists theory of learning. *Unpublished Research Paper*. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.
- Adom, D., Hussein, E. K., & Agyem, J. A. (2018). Theoretical and conceptual framework: Mandatory ingredients of a quality research. *International journal of scientific research*, 7(1), 438-441.
- Ajagbe, A. M., Sholanke, B. A., Isiauwe, T. D., & Oke, A. O. (2015). Qualitative Inquiry for social sciences. *In the Proceedings of the Covenant University International Conference of African Development Issues, CU-ICADI 2015 held on 11-13th May 2015*, pp. 319-325.
- Al-Bataineh, A., & Gallagher, K. (2018). Attitudes towards translanguaging: How future teachers perceive the meshing of Arabic and English in children's storybooks. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 24 (3) 386-400.
- Aluko, F. R.. (2019). Multilingualism as a resource for teaching and learning: overcoming persistent challenges. In Omidire, M. F. (2019). *Multilingualism in the classroom: teaching and learning in a challenging context* (pp 36-47). UCT Press.
- Amineh, R. J., & Asl, H. D. (2015). Review of constructivism and social constructivism. *Journal of Social Sciences, Literature and Languages*, 1(1), 9-16.
- Anstey, M., & Bull, G. (2018). *Foundations of multiliteracies: Reading, writing, and talking in the 21st century*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315114194>
- Assembly, U. G. (2019). Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 19 December 2018: *Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration*.
- Babbie, E. (2010). *The practice of social research* (12th ed.). Belmont: Thomson Wadsworth
- Bada, S. O., & Olusegun, S. (2015). Constructivism learning theory: A paradigm for teaching and learning. *Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 5(6), 66-70.

- Baker, C. (2001). Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism (3rd ed.). Clevedon: *Multilingual Matters*.
- Banda, F. (2018). Translanguaging and English-African language mother tongues as linguistic dispensation in teaching and learning in a black township school in Cape Town. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 19(2), 198-217.
- Barbour, R. S. (2014). Analysing focus groups. *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data analysis*, 313-326.
- Bauer, E. B., Presiado, V., & Colomer, S. (2017). Writing through partnership: Fostering translanguaging in children who are emergent bilinguals. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 49(1), 10-37.
- Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The qualitative report*, 13(4), 544-559.
- Black, N. (1994). Why we need qualitative research. *Journal of epidemiology and community health*, 48(5), 425-426.
- Bokamba, E. G. (2014). Multilingualism as a sociolinguistic phenomenon: Evidence from Africa. *Languages in Africa: Multilingualism, language policy, and education*, 21-48.
- Borghini, A. (2020). Understand the Philosophical Theories of Nominalism and Realism. Retrieved from <https://www.thoughtco.com/nominalism-vs-realism-2670598>.
- Breton-Carbonneau, G., Cleghorn, A., Evans, R., & Pesco, D. (2012). Pedagogical and political encounters in linguistically and culturally diverse primary schools. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 42(3), 373-391.
- Brock-Utne, B. (2016). The Ubuntu paradigm in curriculum work, language of instruction and assessment. *International Review of Education*, 62(1), 29-44.
- Brock-Utne, B. (2018). Researching language and culture in Africa using an

- autoethnographic approach. *International Review of Education*, 64(6), 713-735.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social research methods* (4 ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Byrd, D. (2012). Cognitive benefits of being bilingual. *Journal of the Washington Academy of Sciences*, 19-30.
- Budria, S., & Swedberg, P. (2019). The impact of multilingualism on host language acquisition. *Empirica*, 46(4), 741-766.
- Carstens, A. (2016). Translanguaging as a vehicle for L2 acquisition and L1 development: students' perceptions. *Language Matters*, 47(2), 203-222.
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 401-417.
- Cenoz, J. (2013). Defining multilingualism. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 33, 3-18.
- Cenoz, J. (2017). Translanguaging in school contexts: International perspectives. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 16(4), 193-198.
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2017). Minority languages and sustainable translanguaging: Threat or opportunity?. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 38(10), 901-912.
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2020a). Pedagogical translanguaging: An introduction. *System*, 92, 1-7.
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2020b). Teaching English through pedagogical translanguaging. *World Englishes*, 39(2), 300-311.
- Cenoz, J., & Santos, A. (2020). Implementing pedagogical translanguaging in trilingual schools. *The modern language journal*, 95(3), 356-369.
- Chaka, C. (2020). Translanguaging, Decoloniality, and the Global South: An Integrative Review Study. *Scrutiny2*, 25(1), 6-42.
- Charambo, E., & Zano, K. (2019). Effects of translanguaging as an intervention strategy in a

- South African Chemistry classroom. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 42(3), 291-307.
- Charambo, E. (2020). Organic Translanguaging in Science Classrooms: Perceptions of Pre-service Primary School Teachers. *e-Bangi*, 17(7). 117-132.
- Childs, M. (2016). Reflecting on translanguaging in multilingual classrooms: Harnessing the power of poetry and photography. *Educational Research for Social Change*, 5(1), 22-40. 435-436.
- Chowdhury, M. F. (2014). Interpretivism in aiding our understanding of the contemporary social world. *Open Journal of Philosophy*, 4(1):432-438.
- Connelly, L. M. (2016). Trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Medsurg Nursing*, 25(6), 435.
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2015). Translanguaging and identity in educational settings. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 35, 20-35.
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching?. *The modern language journal*, 94(1), 103-115.
- Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into practice*, 39(3), 124-130.
- Creswell, J. W., Hanson, W. E., Clark Plano, V. L., & Morales, A. (2007). Qualitative research designs: Selection and implementation. *The counselling psychologist*, 35(2), 236-264.
- Creswell, J.W. (2007). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches* (2nd Edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J.W. (2014a). *Educational research: planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). England: Pearson International Edition.
- Creswell, J.W. (2014b). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method*

approaches (4th ed.). London: SAGE publications, Inc.

Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of educational research*, 49(2), 222-251.

Cummins, J. (1999). BICS and CALP: *Clarifying the Distinction*. 438-551.

Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power, and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire* (Vol. 23). Multilingual Matters.

Cummins, J. (2008). BICS and CALP: Empirical and theoretical status of the distinction. *Encyclopaedia of language and education*, 2(2), 71-83.

Department of Education (DoE). (1997). *Language in Education Policy*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Basic Education (2010), *National curriculum and assessment policy statement (CAPS): Foundation Phase – First Additional Language, Grades R – 3*. Pretoria: Department of Basic Education. Retrieved from <http://www.education.gov.za>.

Department of Basic Education. (2010). *The status of the language of learning and teaching in Schools: A quantitative overview*. Pretoria: Department of Basic Education. Retrieved from <http://www.education.gov.za>.

Department of Basic Education. Republic of South Africa (2014). *Report on the Annual National Assessment of 2014*. Pretoria: Department of Basic Education. Retrieved from <http://www.education.gov.za>.

Derry, J. (2013). *Vygotsky: Philosophy and education*. John Wiley & Sons.

Desai, Z. (2016). Learning through the medium of English in multilingual South Africa: Enabling or disabling learners from low income contexts?. *Comparative Education*, 52(3), 343-358.

Diamond, J. (2010). The benefits of multilingualism. *Science*, 330(6002), 332-333.

Djité, P. G. (2008). *The sociolinguistics of development in Africa*. Multilingual Matters (139),

- Dlamini, C. (2008). Policies for enhancing success or failure? A glimpse into the language policy dilemma of one bilingual African state. *Pythagoras*, 2008(1), 5-13.
- Donald, D., Lazarus, S., & Moolla, N. (2014). Constructivism and Learning. In Donald, S. Lazarus, & N. Moolla, *Educational Psychology in Social Context* (pp. 109 - 116). Cape Town: *Oxford University Press Southern Africa (Pty) Ltd.*
- Donaldson, R. (2014). South African Township Transformation. In: Michalos A.C. (eds) *Encyclopaedia of Quality of Life and Well-Being Research*. Springer, Dordrecht. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-0753-5_4186
- Duarte, J. (2019). Translanguaging in mainstream education: A sociocultural approach. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(2), 150-164.
- Eersterust Our Community (2020). Eersterust Our Community. <http://www.eersterust.com> Matters.
- Ebe, A. (2016). Student voices shining through: exploring translanguaging as a literary device. In García, O. & Kleyn, T. (2016). *Translanguaging with Multilingual Students*. New York: *Routledge*. Retrieved from: <https://doi.org/uplib.idm.oclc.org/10.4324/9781315695242>.
- Ebongue, A. E., & Hurst, E. (Eds.). (2017). *Sociolinguistics in African Contexts: perspectives and challenges*. Springer. (20), 1-9.
- Elosua, P. (2016). Minority language revitalization and educational assessment: Do language-related factors impact performance?. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 20(2), 212-228.
- Etieyibo, E. (2017). Moral education, ubuntu and ubuntu-inspired communities. *South African Journal of Philosophy*, 36(3), 311-325.
- Fallas-Escobar, C. (2019). Translanguaging by Design in EFL Classrooms. *Classroom Discourse*, 10(3-4), 290-305.

- Fawole, A., & Pillay, P. (2019). Introducing the English Language to learners in a multilingual environment: a dilemma that must be resolved. *Gender & Behaviour, 17*(1), 12583-12596.
- Fernando, S. Y., & Marikar, F. M. (2017). Constructivist Teaching/Learning Theory and Participatory Teaching Methods. *Journal of Curriculum and Teaching, 6*(1), 110-122.
- Flynn, E. E., Hoy, S. L., Lea, J. L., & García, M. A. (2021). Translanguaging through story: Empowering children to use their full language repertoire. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy, 21*(2), 283-309.
- Franceschini, R. (2011). Multilingualism and Multicompetence: A Conceptual View. *The Modern Language Journal, 95* (3), 345-355. DOI: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01202.x 0026-7902/11/344-355
- García, O. & Kleyn, T. (2016). Translanguaging theory in education. In García, O. & Kleyn, T. (2016). *Translanguaging with Multilingual Students. New York: Routledge.*
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). Language, bilingualism, and education. In *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism, and education* (pp. 46-62). Palgrave Pivot, London.
- Glaw, X., Inder, K., Kable, A., & Hazelton, M. (2017). Visual methodologies in qualitative research: Autophotography and photo elicitation applied to mental health research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 16*(1), 1609406917748215.
- Gillham, B. (2000). *Case study research methods*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Goodman, B., & Tastanbek, S. (2020). Making the Shift from a Codeswitching to a Translanguaging Lens in English Language Teacher Education. *TESOL Quarterly.*
- Gorter, D., & Arocena, E. (2020). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism in a course on translanguaging. *System, 92*, 1-10.
- Green, H. E. (2014). Use of theoretical and conceptual frameworks in qualitative research. *Nurse researcher, 21*(6), 34-38.

- Guzula, X., McKinney, C., & Tyler, R. (2016). Languaging-for-learning: Legitimising translanguaging and enabling multimodal practices in third spaces. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 34(3), 211-226.
- Hamers, J. F., & Blanc, M. H. (2000). Cognitive development and the sociocultural context of Bilinguality. *Bilinguality and bilingualism*.
- Hamman-Ortiz, L. (2020). Unpacking Translanguaging. *Educational Leadership*, 77(4), 64-66.
- Hein, G. E. (1991). Constructivist learning theory. *Institute for Inquiry*. Available at: <http://www.exploratorium.edu/ifi/resources/constructivistlearning.html>
- Heugh, K. (2015). Epistemologies in multilingual education: Translanguaging and genre-companions in conversation with policy and practice. *Language and Education*, 29(3), 280-285.
- Heugh, K. (2017). Lessons from Africa prove the incredible value of mother tongue learning. The Conversation. <https://theconversation.com/lessons-from-africa-prove-the-incredible-value-of-mother-tongue-learning-73307>
- Hillman, S., Graham, K. M., & Eslami, Z. R. (2019). Teachers' translanguaging ideologies and practices at an international branch campus in Qatar. *English Teaching & Learning*, 43(1), 41-63.
- Hirtle, J. S. P. (1996). Social constructivism. *English Journal*, 85(1), 91.
- Holdway, J., & Hitchcock, C. H. (2018). Exploring ideological becoming in professional development for teachers of multilingual learners: Perspectives on translanguaging in the classroom. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 75, 60-70.
- Hornberger, N. H., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging in today's classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *Theory into practice*, 51(4), 239-247.
- Howie, S. J., Combrinck, C., Tshele, M., Roux, K., McLeod Palane, N., & Mokoena, G.

- (2017). *PIRLS 2016: South African highlights report*. Centre for Evaluation and Assessment (CEA).
- Hurst, E., & Mona, M. (2017). " Translanguaging" as a socially just pedagogy. *Education as Change*, 21(2), 126-148.
- Huynh, T. (2021). How to support translanguaging with Dr Gina Rojas. *Empowering ELLs*.
https://mailchi.mp/9f0118745932/dr-gini-rojas-on-translanguaging?fbclid=IwAR02rcLK_3EskDOxRFQzihEMLlxYjw6mI4aI9QzjmsX4N0qxHN4uCK0TrfM
- Imenda, S. (2014). Is there a conceptual difference between theoretical and conceptual frameworks?. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 38(2), 185-195.
- Johnson, B. & Christensen, L. (2017). *Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Approaches*. 6th ed. London: SAGE.
- Johnson, S. I., García, O., & Seltzer, K. (2019). Biliteracy and translanguaging in dual-language bilingual education. In *Dual language education: Teaching and leading in two languages* (pp. 119-132). Springer, Cham.
- Kemp, C. (2009). Defining Multilingualism. In Aronin, L. & Hufeisen, B, *The Exploration of Multilingualism* (pp. 11-24). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: *John Benjamins Publishing Company*.
- Kiramba, L. (2014). Classroom discourse in bilingual and multilingual Kenyan primary schools. *Languages in Africa: Multilingualism, language policy, and education*, 17-33.
- Kleyn, T. (2016). Setting the path: implication for teachers and teacher educators. In García, O. & Kleyn, T. (2016). *Translanguaging with Multilingual Students*. *New York: Routledge*.
- Kleyn, T., & García, O. (2019). Translanguaging as an act of transformation: Restructuring teaching and learning for emergent bilingual students. *The Handbook of TESOL in K-12*, 69-82.

- Krause, L. S., & Prinsloo, M. (2016). Translanguaging in a township primary school: Policy and practice. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 34(4), 347-357.
- Kretzer, M. M., & Kaschula, R. H. (2019). South African teachers switch languages in class: why policy should follow. *The Conversation*. <https://theconversation.com/south-african-teachers-switch-languages-in-class-why-policy-should-follow-122087>
- Kroll, J. F., & Dussias, P. E. (2017). The benefits of multilingualism to the personal and professional development of residents of the US. *Foreign Language Annals*, 50(2), 248-259.
- Leask, M. (2019). Enablers of teaching language for learning in multilingual classrooms. In Omidire, M. F. (2019). *Multilingualism in the classroom: teaching and learning in a challenging context* (pp 23-36). UCT Press.
- Leavy, P. (Ed.). (2014). *The Oxford handbook of qualitative research*. Oxford University Press, USA.
- Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012a). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 641-654.
- Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012b). Translanguaging: Developing its conceptualisation and contextualisation. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 655-670.
- Leung, C., & Valdés, G. (2019). Translanguaging and the transdisciplinary framework for language teaching and learning in a multilingual world. *The Modern Language Journal*, 103(2), 348-370.
- Lin, A. M. (2019). Theories of trans/languageing and trans-semiotising: Implications for content-based education classrooms. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(1), 5-16.
- Liu, Y., & Fang, F. (2020). Translanguaging theory and practice: How stakeholders perceive

- translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *RELC Journal*, 1-9.
- Lüpke, F. (2015). Ideologies and typologies of language endangerment in Africa. *Language documentation and endangerment in Africa*, (16), 59-105.
- Maree, K. (Ed.) (2012). *Complete your thesis or dissertation successfully: Practical guidelines*. Cape Town: Juta & Company Ltd.
- Maree, K. (Ed.) (2016). *First steps in research* (Revised edition). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Machado, E., & Gonzales, G. C. (2020). “I Can Write in My Language and Switch Back and Forth?”: Elementary Teacher Candidates Experiencing and Enacting Translanguaging Pedagogies in a Literacy Methods Course. *Literacy Research: Theory, Method, and Practice*, 69(1), 211-229.
- May, S., Hill., & Tiakiwai., S. (2004). Bilingual/Immersion Education: Indicators of Good Practice. *Final Report to the Ministry of Education*.
- Makalela, L. (2013). Translanguaging in kasi-taal: Rethinking old language boundaries for new language planning. *Stellenbosch Papers in Linguistics Plus*, 42, 111-125.
- Makalela, L. (2015a). Breaking African Language Boundaries: Student Teachers’ Reflections on Translanguaging Practices. *Language Matters*, 46(2), 275-292.
- Makalela, L. (2015b). Moving out of linguistic boxes: The effects of translanguaging strategies for multilingual classrooms. *Language and education*, 29(3), 200-217.
- Makalela, L. (2016). Ubuntu translanguaging: An alternative framework for complex multilingual encounters. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 34(3), 187-196.
- Makalela, L. (2017). Bilingualism in South Africa: Reconnecting with ubuntu translanguaging. *Encyclopaedia of Bilingual and Multilingual Education*. New York: Springer, 297-309.

- Makalela, L. (2018). Community elders' narrative accounts of ubuntu translanguaging: Learning and teaching in African education. *International Review of Education*, 64(6), 823-843.
- Makalela, L. (2019). Uncovering the universals of ubuntu translanguaging in classroom discourses. *Classroom Discourse*, 10(3-4), 237-251.
- Makalela, L., & Mkhize, D. (2016). Introduction: translanguaging in the 21st century: new pathways for epistemic access and identity formation. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 34(3).
<https://doi.org/10.2989/16073614.2016.1250351>
- Maseko, K., & Mkhize, D. N. (2019). Translanguaging mediating reading in a multilingual South African township primary classroom. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 1-20.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2008). Designing a qualitative study. *The SAGE handbook of applied social research methods*, (2), 214-253.
- Mbirimi-Hungwe, V. (2021). An insight into South African multilingual students' perceptions about using translanguaging during group discussion. *Applied Linguistics*, 42(2), 252-268.
- McDonald, M., Townsend, A., Cox, S., Paterson, N., & Lafrenière, D. (2008). Trust in Health Research Relationships: Accounts of Human Subjects. *Journal of Empirical Research on Human Research Ethics: An International Journal*, 3(4), 35-47.
[doi:10.1525/jer.2008.3.4.35](https://doi.org/10.1525/jer.2008.3.4.35)
- McNeil, L. (2011). Investigating the contributions of background knowledge and reading comprehension strategies to L2 reading comprehension: An exploratory study. *Reading and Writing*, 24(8), 883-902.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Merriam, S. B., & Grenier, R. S. (2019). *Qualitative research in practice: examples for*

- discussion and analysis (2nd ed.). John Wiley & Sons, Incorporated.
<https://public.ebookcentral.proquest.com/choice/publicfullrecord.aspx?p=5630257>.
- Mgijima, V. D., & Makalela, L. (2016). The effects of translanguaging on the bi-literate inferencing strategies of fourth grade learners. *Perspectives in education*, 34(3), 86-93
- Mgqwashu, E. (2009). On becoming literate in English: A during-and post-apartheid personal story. *Language Learning Journal*, 37(3), 293-303.
- Mills, A. J., Durepos, G., & Wiebe, E. (2010). Encyclopaedia of case study research. *Encyclopaedia of case study research*, 2.
- Mkhize, D., & Balfour, R. (2017). Language rights in education in South Africa. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 31(6), 133-150.
- Mohohlwane, N. (2020). Policy options to crack the mother tongue versus English riddle in South African school. *The Conversation*. <https://theconversation.com/policy-options-to-crack-the-mother-tongue-versus-english-riddle-in-south-african-schools-142396>
- Mullis, I. V., Martin, M. O., Foy, P., & Hooper, M. (2017). ePIRLS 2016: *International Results in Online Informational Reading*. Chestnut Hill, MA: TIMSS, & PIRLS International Study Center.
- Mwaniki, M. (2016). Translanguaging as a class/lecture-room language management strategy in multilingual contexts: Insights from autoethnographic snapshots from Kenya and South Africa. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 34(3), 197-209.
- Mwinda, N., & Van der Walt, C. (2015). From 'English-only' to translanguaging strategies: exploring possibilities. *Per Linguam: A Journal of Language Learning= Per Linguam: Tydskrif vir Taalaanleer*, 31(3), 100-118.
- Nagy, T. (2018). On translanguaging and its role in foreign language teaching. *Acta Universitatis Sapientiae, Philologica*, 10(2), 41-53.
- Ndlangamandla, S. C., & Chaka, C. (2020). The intersection between multilingualism,

- translanguaging, and decoloniality in the global south. *Scrutiny*2, 25(1), 1-5.
- Ned, L. Y. (2019). *Reconnecting with indigenous knowledge in education: Exploring possibilities for health and well-being in Xhora, South Africa* (Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University).
- Neuman, W. L. (2014). *Basics of social research*. Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.
- Ngcobo, S., Ndaba, N., Nyangiwe, B., Mpungose, N., & Jamal, R. (2016). Translanguaging as an approach to address language inequality in South African higher education: summary writing skills development. *Critical Studies in Teaching and Learning*, 4(2), 10-27.
- Nilep, C. (2006). "Code Switching" in Sociocultural Linguistics. *Colorado Research in Linguistics. Boulder: University of Colorado*, (19), 1-22.
- Nolen, A. L., & Putten, J. V. (2007). Action Research in Education: Addressing Gaps in Ethical Principles and Practices. *Educational Researcher*, 36(7), 401-407.
- Nsele, T. P. (2018). *Translanguaging in Grade 9 Social Sciences classroom in the Zululand District* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Zululand).
- Okal, B. O. (2014). Benefits of Multilingualism in Education.
- Olifant, F. M., Rautenbach, E., & Cekiso, M. P. (2017). Reading habits and attitudes of Grades 8-10 English second language learners in Eersterust, South Africa. *Journal for Language Teaching= Ijenali Yekufundzisa Lulwimi= Tydskrif vir Taalonderrig*, 51(2), 35-57.
- Orner, P., Cooper, D., Myer, L., Zweigenthal, V., Bekker, L. G., & Moodley, J. (2008). Clients' perspectives on HIV/AIDS care and treatment and reproductive health services in South Africa. *AIDS care*, 20(10), 1217-1223.
- Otheguy, R., García, O., & Reid, W. (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 6(3), 281-307.

- Oviawe, J. O. (2016). How to rediscover the *ubuntu* paradigm in education. *International Review of Education: Journal of Lifelong Learning*, 62(1), 1–10.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11159-016-9545-x>
- Pacheco, M. B. (2016). *Translanguaging in the English-centric classroom: A communities of practice perspective* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Pandey, S. C., & Patnaik, S. (2014). Establishing reliability and validity in qualitative inquiry: A critical examination. *Jharkhand journal of development and management studies*, 12(1), 5743-5753.
- Prawat, R. S. (2003). The nominalism versus realism debate: Toward a philosophical rather than a political resolution. *Educational Theory*, 53(3), 275-311.
- Pretorius, E. J., & Spaul, N. (2016). Exploring relationships between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension amongst English second language readers in South Africa. *Reading and Writing*, 29(7), 1449-1471.
- Prinsloo, M., & Krause, L. S. (2019). Translanguaging, place and complexity. *Language and Education*, 33(2), 159-173.
- Pritchard, A., & Woollard, J. (2010). The precepts of social constructivism and social learning theory. *Psychology for the classroom: Constructivism and social learning*, 34-43.
- Probyn, M. (2001). Teachers voices: Teachers reflections on learning and teaching through the medium of English as an additional language in South Africa. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 4(4), 249-266.
- Posel, D., & Zeller, J. (2016). Language shift or increased bilingualism in South Africa: Evidence from census data. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 37(4), 357-370.
- Reddy, V., Winnaar, L., Juan, A., Arends, F., Harvey, J., Hannan, S., Namome, C., & Zulu,

- N. (2019). *TIMSS 2019: Highlights of mathematics achievement of grade 5 South African learners*. Human Sciences Research Council.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). (2011). South African Languages Bill, Government Gazette No. 34675.
- Rewhorn, S. (2018). Writing your successful literature review. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 42(1), 143-147.
- Ridanpää, J. (2018). Why save a minority language? Meänkieli and rationales of language revitalization. *Fennia-International Journal of Geography*, 196(2), 187-203.
- Rivera, A. J., & Mazak, C. M. (2017). Analysing student perceptions on translanguaging: A case study of a Puerto Rican university classroom. *How*, 24(1), 122-138.
- Rocco, T. S., & Plakhotnik, M. S. (2009). Literature reviews, conceptual frameworks, and theoretical frameworks: Terms, functions, and distinctions. *Human Resource Development Review*, 8(1), 120-130.
- Roulston, K. (2014). Analysing interviews. *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data analysis*, 297-312.
- Rule, P., & John, V. (2011). *Your guide to case study research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Schissel, J. L., De Korne, H., & López-Gopar, M. (2018). Grappling with translanguaging for teaching and assessment in culturally and linguistically diverse contexts: Teacher perspectives from Oaxaca, Mexico. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1-17.
- Schwartz-Shea, P., & Yanow, D. (2013). *Interpretive research design: Concepts and processes*. Routledge.
- Sefotho, M. P., & Makalela, L. (2017). Translanguaging and orthographic harmonisation: A cross-lingual reading literacy in a Johannesburg school. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 35(1), 41-51.

- Shava, S., & Manyike, T. V. (2018). The decolonial role of African indigenous languages and indigenous knowledges in formal education processes. *Indilinga African Journal of Indigenous Knowledge Systems*, 17(1), 36-52.
- Sibanda, J. (2017). Language at the Grade Three and Four interface: The theory-policy-practice nexus. *South African Journal of Education*, 37(2), 1-9.
- Sichula, N. (2018). *Pedagogical practices in non-formal adult literacy classes* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria).
- Simons, H. (2009). *Case study research in practice*. SAGE publications.
- Simpson, J. (2017). Translanguaging in the contact zone: Language use in superdiverse urban areas. In *Multilingualism's and Development: Selected Proceedings of the 11th Language and Development Conference, New Delhi, India 2015* (pp. 207-223). British Council India.
- Smits, J., Huisman, J., & Kruijff, K. (2008). Home Language and Education in the Developing World. *Nijmegen Center for Economics (NiCE) Institute for Management Research Radboud University Nijmegen*
- Song, K. (2016). "Okay, I will say in Korean and then in American": Translanguaging practices in bilingual homes. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, 16(1), 84-106.
- Spaull, N. (2015). Schooling in South Africa: How low-quality education becomes a poverty trap. *South African child gauge*, 12(1), 34-41.
- Spaull, N. (2016). Disentangling the language effect in South African schools: Measuring the impact of 'language of assessment' in grade 3 literacy and numeracy. *South African Journal of Childhood Education*, 6(1), 1-20. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajce.v6i1.475>.
- Springveldt, I. C. (2008). *The relationship between local government and welfare organizations in Eersterust* (Doctoral dissertation, UNISA).
- Statistics South Africa. (2012). Census 2011 Statistical release (Revised). Pretoria: South

Africa. Retrieved from:

<https://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/P03014/P030142011.pdf>

- Stein, N. (2017). Language in schools. *Veriava, Thom en Hodgson*.
- Strauss, S. (2016). *Code-switching and translanguaging inside and outside the classroom: bi-/multilingual practices of high school learners in a rural Afrikaans-setting* (Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University).
- Stuckey, H. L. (2015). The second step in data analysis: Coding qualitative research data. *Journal of Social Health and Diabetes*, 3(01), 007-010.
- Schwinge, D. (2017). Biliteracy and multiliteracy in bilingual education. *Encyclopaedia of language and education: Bilingual and multilingual education*, 147-160.
- Thanh, N. C., & Thanh, T. T. (2015). The interconnection between interpretivist paradigms and qualitative methods in education. *American journal of educational science*, 1(2), 24-27.
- Tongue, B.O.M (2014). Chapter Five Benefits of Mother Tongue in Early Childhood Education: The Case of Kenya CM Ndungo and WW Mwangi. *Multilingualism and Education in Africa: The State of the State of the Art*, 86.
- Torpsten, A. C. (2018). Translanguaging in a Swedish multilingual classroom. *Multicultural Perspectives*, 20(2), 104-110.
- Toutou, Y., Portaluppi, F., Smolensky, M. H., & Rensing, L. (2004). Ethical Principles and Standards for the Conduct of Human and Animal Biological Rhythm Research. *Chronobiology International*, 21(1), 161-170. doi:10.1081/CBI-120030045
- Turner, M., & Lin, A. M. (2020). Translanguaging and named languages: Productive tension and desire. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(4), 423-433.
- Tutu, A. E. M. (2016). South African History Online. <https://www.sahistory.org.za>
- Van der Berg, S., Spaull, N., Wills, G., Gustafsson, M., & Kotze, J. (2016). Identifying

- binding constraints in education. *Ssrn Electronic Journal* (2016). Retrieved from:
<https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2906945>.
- Van Viegen, S. (2020). Translanguaging for and as Learning with Youth from Refugee Backgrounds. *Australian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 3(1), 60-76.
- Vogel, S., & García, O. (2017). “Oxford Research Encyclopaedia of Education.” in *Translanguaging*. Oxford University Press.
DOI:10.1093/acrefore/9780190264093.013.181
- UNESCO. (1953). *The use of vernacular languages in education*. Paris. UNESCO
<https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000002897>
- UNESCO. (1984). *Prospects: quarterly review of education*. Paris. UNESCO
<https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000059079>
- UNESCO. (2001). “*The Human Rights of Linguistic Minorities and Language Policies*”.
Paris. UNESCO <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000145796.page=26>
- UNESCO. (2003a). *Education in a multilingual world*. Paris: UNESCO
<https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000129728>
- UNESCO. (2003b). *Multilingual education: Why is it important? How to implement it?* Paris:
UNESCO <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000226554>
- UNESCO. (2008). *Improving the Quality of Mother Tongue-based Literacy and Learning Case Studies from Asia, Africa, and South America*. Paris: UNESCO
<https://www.afrikaansetaalraad.co.za/wp-content/uploads/2017/09/Improving-the-quality-of-Mother-Tongue-based-Literacy-and-Learning.pdf>
- UNESCO. (2020). *Mother Tongue and Early Childhood Care and Education: Synergies and Challenges*. Paris: UNESCO <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000374419>
- Wei, L. (2010). Moment analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of pragmatics*, 43(5), 1222-1235.

- Wei, L. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied linguistics*, 39(1), 9-30.
- Wolff, H. E. (2018). How the continent's languages can unlock the potential of young Africans. *The Conversation*. <https://theconversation.com/how-the-continents-languages-can-unlock-the-potential-of-young-africans-90322>
- Woodley, H. (2016). Balancing windows and mirrors: translanguaging in a linguistically diverse classroom. In García, O. & Kleyn, T. (2016). *Translanguaging with Multilingual Students*. *New York: Routledge*.
- World Elections (2015). Race, ethnicity, and languages in South Africa. Available at: <https://welections.wordpress.com/guide-to-the-2014-south-african-election/race-ethnicity-and-language-in-south-africa/>[accessed on 17 March 2021]
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: design and methods* (5th ed.). California, London, New Delhi: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Yuvayapan, F. (2019). Translanguaging in EFL classrooms: Teachers' perceptions and practices. *Dil ve Dilbilimi Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 15(2), 678-694.

Appendices



7 July 2020

Dear Teacher,

My name is Shine Aung and I am a Master's student in Curriculum and Instructional Design and Development at the University of Pretoria. I am conducting research under the supervision of Dr Gerhard Genis at the University of Pretoria's Department of Humanities Education. The title of my study is: *Perceptions of Translanguaging among English First Additional Language teachers in a township primary school*. The purpose of the study is to determine the perceptions that teachers have on translanguaging within English First Additional Language classrooms. The findings of the study may also serve as recommendations for the Department of Basic Education to modify the current curriculum in order to cater for linguistically diverse classrooms. The aim of the research is, therefore, to promote learning in linguistically diverse primary school classrooms in Gauteng.

Translanguaging is a strategy where listening and reading are conducted in one language, while speaking and writing are done in another language; this process enables bilingual learners to use their home language resulting in greater motivation and a better understanding of the content being learned at school.

I would like you to participate in this study. Your involvement will be limited to participating in a semi-structured interview in order for me to understand your perspectives on the issues indicated above within your specific context. I also request that I may be allowed to observe your class for a period of 45 minutes to observe the manner in which you interact with your learners in your classroom; this will be done after the interviews have been conducted. The interviews will take place after school hours at 3/4pm at the school and will be audio recorded. The interview should take approximately 40 minutes.

The information obtained during this study will be treated with the strictest confidentiality and will be used solely for this research. Participation is voluntary and you may withdraw from the study at any time. Pseudonyms will be used to protect the identity of the school, teachers and learners. All information collected will be securely stored in line with the University of Pretoria's ethics' regulations. The audio recordings made during this time will only be heard by myself and will be stored securely at all times. The recordings will never be reproduced or broadcasted to any third party now or in the future. There are no risks involved in participating in this study and I will obey the safety rules regarding COVID-19.

We also would like to request your permission to use your data, confidentially and anonymously, for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and using the data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy applicable to this study will be binding on future research studies.

The benefits of taking part in this study lie in furthering the understanding of the various issues surrounding teaching and learning in a multilingual context and in contributing to knowledge in this field. I look forward to your participation and contribution to this study.

Should you have any queries in this regard, please contact me or my supervisor.

Yours sincerely,

Researcher:

Shine Aung

074 535 1407

shiny.whineyo@gmail.com

Supervisor:

Dr Gerhard Genis

gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Declaration of consent

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign this letter as a declaration of your consent. Signing this letter indicates that you understand that your participation in this project is voluntary and that you may withdraw from the research project at any time. Under no circumstances will the identity of the school or research participants be disclosed or published to any party/organisation that may be involved in the research process.

I, _____ (your name), teacher at _____ agree to take part in this research. I agree to allow the researcher to audio record the interviews for the duration of the proposed study. I understand that the researcher subscribes to the following principles:

- **Voluntary participation** - participants may withdraw from the research at any time during the study.
- **Informed consent** - research participants will at all times be fully informed about the research process and purposes and must give consent to their participation in this research.
- **Safety in participation** - participants will not be placed at risk or be harmed in any way.
- **Privacy** - the confidentiality and anonymity of human participants will be protected at all times.
- **Trust** - participants will not be subjected to any acts of deception or betrayal during the research process or when publishing the outcomes.

Teacher's name: _____

Teacher's signature: _____ Date: _____



7 July 2020

Dear Teacher,

My name is Shine Aung and I am a Master's student in Curriculum and Instructional Design and Development at the University of Pretoria. I am conducting research under the supervision of Dr Gerhard Genis at the University of Pretoria's Humanities Education Faculty. The title of my study is: *Perceptions of Translanguaging among English First Additional Language teachers in a township primary school*. The purpose of the study is to determine the perceptions that teachers have on translanguaging within English First Additional Language classrooms. The findings of the study may also serve as recommendations for the Department of Basic Education to modify the current curriculum in order to cater for linguistically diverse classrooms. The aim of the research is, therefore, to promote learning in linguistically diverse primary school classrooms in Gauteng.

Translanguaging is a strategy where listening and reading are conducted in one language, while speaking and writing are done in another language; this process enables bilingual learners to use their home language resulting in greater motivation and a better understanding of the content being learned at school.

I would like you to participate in this study. Your involvement will be limited to participating in a focus group discussion in order to understand your perspectives on the issues indicated above within your specific context. The focus group discussion will take place after school hours at 3/4pm at the school and will be audio recorded. The discussion should last for approximately 50-60 minutes.

The information obtained during this study will be treated with the strictest confidentiality and will be used solely for this research. Participation is voluntary and you may withdraw from the study at any time. Pseudonyms will be used to protect the identity of the school, teachers, and learners. All information collected will be securely stored in line with the University of Pretoria's ethics' regulations. The audio recordings made during this time will only be heard by myself and will be stored securely at all times. The recordings will never be reproduced or broadcasted to any third party now or in the future. There are no risks involved in participating in this study and I will obey the safety rules regarding COVID-19.

We also would like to request your permission to use your data, confidentially and anonymously, for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and using the data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy applicable to this study will be binding on future research studies.

The benefits of taking part in this study lie in furthering the understanding of the various issues surrounding teaching and learning in a multilingual context and in contributing to knowledge in this field. I look forward to your participation and contribution to this study.

Should you have any queries in this regard, please contact me or my supervisor.

Yours sincerely,

Researcher:

Shine Aung

074 535 1407

shiny.whineyo@gmail.com

Supervisor:

Dr Gerhard Genis

gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Declaration of consent

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign this letter as a declaration of your consent. Signing this letter indicates that you understand that your participation in this project is voluntary and that you may withdraw from the research project at any time. Under no circumstances will the identity of the school or research participants be disclosed or published to any party/organisation that may be involved in the research process.

I, _____ (your name), teacher at _____ agree to take part in this research. I agree to allow the researcher to audio record the interviews for the duration of the proposed study. I understand that the researcher subscribes to the following principles:

- **Voluntary participation** - participants may withdraw from the research at any time during the study.
- **Informed consent** - research participants will at all times be fully informed about the research process and purposes and must give consent to their participation in this research.
- **Safety in participation** - participants will not be placed at risk or harmed in any way.
- **Privacy** - the confidentiality and anonymity of human participants will be protected at all times.
- **Trust** - participants will not be subjected to any acts of deception or betrayal during the research process or when publishing the outcomes.

Teacher's name: _____

Teacher's signature: _____ Date: _____



7 July 2020

Principal,

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Shine Aung and I am Master's Student in Curriculum and Instructional Design and Development at the University of Pretoria. I am conducting research under the supervision of Dr Gerhard Genis at the University of Pretoria's Department of Humanities Education. The title of my study is: *Perceptions of Translanguaging among English First Additional Language teachers in a township primary school*. The purpose of the study is to determine the perceptions that teachers have on translanguaging within English First Additional Language classrooms. The findings of the study may also serve as recommendations for the Department of Basic Education to modify the current curriculum in order to cater for linguistically diverse classrooms. The aim of the research is, therefore, to promote learning in linguistically diverse primary school classrooms in Gauteng.

Translanguaging is a strategy where listening and reading are conducted in one language, while speaking and writing are done in another language; this process enables bilingual learners to use their home language resulting in greater motivation and a better understanding of the content being learned at school.

I ask for permission to conduct observations, semi-structured interviews and a focus group discussion with English First Additional Language teachers at your school. Data will be collected by means of interviews, observations and a focus group discussions. Semi-structured interviews and classroom observations will be conducted with two teachers, while a focus group discussion will take place with six teachers. The semi-structured interview with each teacher will last for approximately 20 minutes, while the focus group discussion will last for 45 minutes. I also request that I may be allowed to observe two teachers' classes to perceive their interactions with their learners.

The name of the school and participating teachers will not be revealed. The information obtained during this study will be treated with the strictest confidentiality and will be used solely for this research. Participation is voluntary and participants may withdraw from the study at any time. Pseudonyms will be used to protect the identity of the school, teachers and learners. All information collected will be securely stored in line with the University of Pretoria's ethics' regulations. The audio recordings made during this time will only be heard by myself and will be stored securely at all times. The recordings will never be reproduced or broadcasted to any third party now or in the future. There are no risks involved in participating in this study.

We also would like to request your permission to use the data, confidentially and anonymously, for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and using the data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy applicable to this study will be binding on future research studies.

The benefits of taking part in this study lie in furthering the understanding of the various issues surrounding teaching and learning in a multilingual context and in contributing to knowledge in this field.

Should you have any queries in this regard, please contact me or my supervisor.

Yours sincerely,

Researcher:

Shine Aung

074 535 1407

shiny.whineyo@gmail.com

Supervisor:

Dr Gerhard Genis

gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Declaration of consent

If you are willing to allow the teachers and learners at your school to participate in this study, please sign this letter as a declaration of your consent. Signing this letter indicates that you understand that their participation in this study is voluntary and that they may withdraw from the research project at any time. Under no circumstances will the identity of the school or research participants be disclosed or published to any party/organisation that may be involved in the research process.

I, _____ (your name), principal at _____ agree to allow my school to take part in this research. I agree to allow the researcher to audio record the interviews for the duration of the proposed study. I understand that the researcher subscribes to the following principals:

- **Voluntary participation** - participants may withdraw from the research at any time during the study.
- **Informed consent** - research participants will at all times be fully informed about the research process and purposes and must give consent to their participation in this research.
- **Safety in participation** - participants will not be placed at risk or be harmed in any way.
- **Privacy** - the confidentiality and anonymity of human participants will be protected at all times.
- **Trust** - participants will not be subjected to any acts of deception or betrayal during the research process or when publishing the outcomes.

Principal's name: _____

Principal's signature: _____ Date: _____



7 July 2020

Dear Parent/Guardian,

My name is Shine Aung and I am a Master's Student in Curriculum and Instructional Design and Development at the University of Pretoria. I am conducting research under the supervision of Dr Gerhard Genis at the University of Pretoria's Department of Humanities Education. The title of the study is: *Perceptions of Translanguaging among English First Additional Language teachers in a township primary school*. The purpose of the study is to determine the perceptions that teachers have on translanguaging within English First Additional Language classrooms. The findings of the study may also serve as recommendations for the Department of Basic Education to modify the current curriculum in order to cater for linguistically diverse classrooms. The aim of the research is, therefore, to promote learning in linguistically diverse primary school classrooms in Gauteng.

Translanguaging is a strategy where listening and reading are conducted in one language, while speaking and writing are done in another language; this process enables bilingual learners to use their home language resulting in greater motivation and a better understanding of the content being learned at school.

If you allow your child to participate, your child will be observed for the duration of the English First Additional Language lesson period. I will be a non-participant observer and will not interfere in any classroom activities. The learners will not participate directly in this study and will only be observed for one period. The information obtained during this study will be treated with the strictest confidentiality and will be used solely for this research only.

Participation is voluntary and your child may withdraw from the study at any time. Pseudonyms will be used to protect the identity of the school, teachers, and learners. All information collected will be securely stored in line with the University of Pretoria's ethics' regulations.

The audio recordings made during this time will only be heard by myself and will be stored securely at all times. The recordings will never be reproduced or broadcasted to any third party now or in the future. There are no risks involved in participating in this study.

We also would like to request your permission to use the data, confidentially and anonymously, for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and using the data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy applicable to this study will be binding on future research studies.

The benefits of taking part in this study lie in furthering the understanding of the various issues surrounding teaching and learning in a multilingual context and in contributing to knowledge in this field. I look forward to your participation and contribution to this study.

Should you have any queries in this regard, please contact me or my supervisor.

Yours sincerely,

Researcher:

Shine Aung

074 535 1407

shiny.whineyo@gmail.com

Supervisor:

Dr Gerhard Genis

gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Declaration of consent

If you are willing to allow your child to participate in this study, please sign this letter as a declaration of your consent. Signing this letter indicates that you understand that your child's participation in this project is voluntary and that she/he may withdraw from the research project at any time. Under no circumstances will the identity of the school or research participants be disclosed or published to any party/organisation that may be involved in the research process.

I, _____ (parent/guardian) agree to allow my child to take part in this research. I agree to allow the researcher to audio record the observations for the duration of the proposed study. I understand that the researcher subscribes to the following principles:

- **Voluntary participation** - participants may withdraw from the research at any time during the study.
- **Informed consent** - research participants will at all times be fully informed about the research process and purposes and must give consent to their participation in this research.
- **Safety in participation** - participants will not be placed at risk or be harmed in any way.
- **Privacy** - the confidentiality and anonymity of human participants will be protected at all times.
- **Trust** - participants will not be subjected to any acts of deception or betrayal during the research process or when publishing the outcomes.

Parent's/Guardian's

name:

Parent's/Guardian's signature: _____ Date: _____



7 July 2020

Dear Learner,

My name is Shine Aung and I am a Master's student in Curriculum and Instructional Design and Development at the University of Pretoria. I am conducting research under the supervision of Dr Gerhard Genis at the University of Pretoria's Department of Humanities Education. The study focuses on the ideas of teachers on the teaching of English language in such a way where listening and reading are done in one language, while speaking and writing are done in another. The purpose of the study is to see what teachers think about translanguaging within English First Additional Language classrooms. The findings of the study may also serve as recommendations for the Department of Basic Education to change the current curriculum in order to help linguistically diverse classrooms. The aim of the research is, therefore, to help learning in primary school classrooms in Gauteng where learners speak many different languages.

If you take part in this study, you will be observed for the duration of an English First Additional Language period. I will not interfere in any classroom activities. You will not participate directly in this study and will only be observed during one period.

The information obtained during this study will only be used for this research. Your participation is voluntary and you may withdraw from the study at any time. The identity of your school, your teachers and you, the learner will be protected. All information collected will be securely stored in line with the University of Pretoria's ethics' regulations. The audio recordings made during this time will only be heard by myself and will be stored securely at all times. The recordings will never be reproduced or broadcasted to anyone else. There are no risks involved in taking part in this study.



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Should you have any questions, please contact me or my supervisor.

Yours sincerely,

Researcher:

Shine Aung

074 535 1407

shiny.whineyo@gmail.com

Supervisor:

Dr Gerhard Genis

gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Declaration of assent

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign this letter as a declaration of your assent. Signing this letter indicates that you understand that your participation in this project is voluntary and that you may withdraw from the research project at any time. Under no circumstances will the identity of the school or research participants (that is you) be disclosed or published to any party/organisation that may be involved in the research process.

I, _____ (learner) agree to allow the researcher to audio record the observations for the duration of the proposed study. I understand that the researcher subscribes to the following principles:

- **Voluntary participation** - I may withdraw from the research at any time during the study.
- **Informed consent** - I will at all times be fully informed about the research process and purposes and must give assent to participate in this research.
- **Safety in participation** - I will not be placed at risk or harmed in any way.
- **Privacy**- my confidentiality and anonymity will be protected at all times.
- **Trust**- I will not be deceived or betrayed during the research process.

Learner's name: _____

Learner's signature: _____ Date: _____



Teacher Observation Schedule

Date and time	Situation/context	Participant

1. Did the teacher implement translanguaging?

Remark:

2. Did the teacher engage with learners at their level of understanding?

Remark:

3. Did the teacher use other languages to explain or clarify concepts?

Remark:

4. Does the teacher allow learners to ask question in another language?

Remark:

5. Does the teacher implement an interactive pedagogy?

Remark:

Perceptions of Translanguaging among English First Additional Language teachers in a township primary school

Two identified teachers will participate in semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. Six other EFAL teachers will take part in a focus group discussion. The identified eight teachers will be debriefed on what translanguaging is before commencement of interviews and focus group discussions.

Research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of translanguaging amongst English First Additional Language teachers within a township primary school?
2. Why do teachers perceive translanguaging in this way?

Interview Questions

1. What is your understanding of translanguaging?

2. Do you use translanguaging within your EFAL classroom? If yes, explain how and why it is used.



6. What is your learners' responses when you only use English as opposed to using translanguaging in the classroom?
7. What other languages are used in your EFAL classroom? If you do, explain how and why they are used.
8. Do the school and surrounding community take a communal approach to teaching and learning? If yes, explain how and why.



Department of Humanities Education

7 July 2020

The Head of Department,

Gauteng Department of Education,

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT A PRIMARY SCHOOL IN GAUTENG

Your permission is hereby requested to conduct a research study titled: *Perceptions of Translanguaging among English First Additional Language teachers in a township primary school*, in a Gauteng government school. Language is viewed as one of the biggest barriers to teaching and learning, especially within the South African context. I believe this topic is worth exploring as most learners in South Africa do not have English or Afrikaans as a home language. This has led me to conclude that more research needs to be done on translanguaging, a strategy where listening and reading are conducted in one language, while speaking and writing are done in another language. This process enables bilingual learners to use their home language resulting in greater motivation and a better understanding of the content being learned at school. The study wishes to ascertain the perceptions of teachers on translanguaging in their multilingual classrooms.

The findings for the study may serve as recommendations for the Department of Basic Education to modify the current curriculum in order to cater for these linguistically diverse classrooms. Two teachers will be selected for semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. Six teachers will be selected for a focus group discussion. Both will take place after school hours. The interviews will last for approximately 20 minutes, whereas the focus group discussion will last for approximately 45 minutes.

The school will be visited four times after obtaining permission from the school principal in order to:

- interview 8 identified teachers regarding their perceptions on translanguaging being used within English First Additional Language classrooms.
- gain insight into the personal lived experiences of these two teachers within multilingual classrooms.
- observe how the two teachers interact with their learners in their classrooms and whether they use translanguaging practices.
- conduct a focus group discussion with six teachers on their perceptions of translanguaging being used within the English First Additional Language classroom.
- clarify issues that emerged during the observations, interviews and focus group discussion with the identified teachers.

Pseudonyms will be used to protect the identity of the school, teachers, and learners. All information collected will be securely stored in line with the University of Pretoria's ethics' regulations. The audio recordings made during this time will only be listened to by myself and will be stored securely at all times. The recordings will never be reproduced or broadcasted to any third party now or in the future. There are no risks involved in participation. The benefits of taking part in this study lie in furthering the understanding of the various issues surrounding teaching and learning in a multilingual context and in contributing to knowledge in this field.

Data from the teachers will only be collected after school in order to avoid interfering with the daily running of the school's programme. Teachers will be expected to sign consent forms if they agree/not agree to grant permission for the researcher to interview them. The assent and consent of learners and their parents will also be obtained. The study will comply with the following ethical principles:

- **Voluntary participation** - participants may withdraw from the research at any time during the study.
- **Informed consent** - research participants will at all times be fully informed about the research process and purposes and must give consent to their participation in this research.
- **Safety in participation** - participants will not be placed at risk or harmed in any way.
- **Privacy** - the confidentiality and anonymity of human participants will be protected at all times.
- **Trust** - participants will not be subjected to any acts of deception or betrayal during the research process or when publishing the outcomes.

We also would like to request your permission to use the data, confidentially and anonymously, for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and using the data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy applicable to this study will be binding on future research studies.

Should you have any queries in this regard, please contact me or my supervisor.

Yours sincerely,

Researcher:

Shine Aung

074 535 1407

shiny.whineyo@gmail.com

Supervisor:

Dr Gerhard Genis

gerhard.genis@up.ac.za

Mr Best's Interview Transcription

1.	Researcher: so, the first question, do you have any	
2.	understanding of the word translanguaging? Have you ever	
3.	heard of it before?	
4.	Teacher: to my knowledge and perception translanguaging is	Translanguaging
5.	the learning, teaching, and acquisition of a language through the	
6.	usage of another language, in other words the additive	
7.	approach it's also called. In other words, using more than one	
8.	language to teach a language. Usually, the children's home	
9.	language or vernacular language.	
10.	Researcher: Yes, so where input is done in one language, like	Translanguaging
11.	what you did with English, and then output is done in Afrikaans	
12.	Teacher: correct	
13.	Researcher: like what you did in your language classroom just	
14.	now. So that is translanguaging. So, do you use	
15.	translanguaging?	
16.	Teacher: yes, I use it very often. I also use a direct translation	use
17.	and then I encourage the children to look at the word. So, I use	
18.	the Afrikaans word and then get the English equivalent and then	
19.	I tell them to translate. The two languages are fairly close when	
20.	it comes to your high frequency words. Can and "kan", they are	
21.	very close together. "n" and "a"	
22.	Researcher: and in using that strategy has it helped you to, um,	
23.	develop learners' competence in English?	
24.	Teacher: yes, definitely, it has. Um, we see an improvement in	effective
25.	the English marks at the same time. Then we see an	
26.	improvement in the Afrikaans marks. So, the average went up	
27.	last term for Afrikaans, the grade average, especially for the	
28.	three FAL classes. And so, the English average went up	
29.	because they've got English as a home language. So, yes, we	
30.	see a market the improvement in Afrikaans was lower than the	
31.	improvement in English.	
32.	Researcher: and, um, what are your views on translanguaging	
33.	teaching strategies and activities?	
34.	Teacher: oh, it's absolutely wonderful, there are worksheets	strategies
35.	available in Afrikaans, but they are offered in English and/or	



36.	other languages as well. It then makes it easier for the child to	
37.	acquire the language, while also keeping their home language	
38.	or vernacular language. It also encourages multilingualism,	
39.	which I the world that we are currently living in, is very, very,	
40.	very important. If you look at European countries that have got	
41.	seven languages at schools for instance. A country like New	
42.	Zealand, that has two, three languages, it is very beneficial to	
43.	have more languages. Problem is, it comes with in later with	
44.	spelling, because they write phonetically. But only benefits to be	
45.	found, in my humble opinion.	
46.	Researcher: um, so with you and also with the school, is there	
47.	a culture that only one language should be used at a time. Or do	
48.	they promote multilingualism within the school?	
49.	Teacher: multilingualism is encouraged all of the time, and um,	multilingualism
50.	most of the teachers, I would say 7/8 th of the teachers use more	
51.	than one language, three languages even, every day in class.	
52.	Researcher: at this school?	
53.	Teachers: so even though they might teach social sciences	multilingualism
54.	through the medium of English, they will use Afrikaans and also	
55.	Sepedi or IsiNdebele, or Zulu or whatever the case may be to	
56.	also enlarge the scope of the lesson	
57.	Researcher: but, what I found, um, I think with one teacher at	
58.	this school, and with quite a few at Nantes. Is that they are	
59.	actually monolingual, they only, um, because they are English	
60.	teachers, so I think, they are very much for only speaking	
61.	English. And only English being used within the classroom.	
62.	Because you know there comes an ideology.	
63.	Teacher: of only using English as the language of instruction?	
64.	Researcher: yes	
65.	Teacher: not the case here, because remember we are a	multilingualism
66.	primary school and with tellie bops, the more languages you	
67.	introduce, the easier you make the acquisition of a language,	
68.	the better for them. Also, the teachers converse amongst	
69.	themselves in various languages and across demographical	
70.	differences in gender, race, religion, age. People communicate	
71.	in more than one language. It is normal here.	



72.	Researcher: oh, at this school?	
73.	Teacher: multilingualism is definitely encouraged, I would say	multilingualism
74.	and used by all, it's not frowned upon at all.	
75.	Researcher: and do your learners respond when you use their	
76.	home language?	
77.	Teacher: they are comfortable with it; they enjoy it and very	Learner's response
78.	often it is a learning curve, because when I ask them for	
79.	feedback especially with English, um they will say to me 'oh	
80.	wonderful'. Um, we understand better now. Also, when I do use	
81.	the vernacular language, at first there is disbelief because of old	
82.	stereotypes, until they get used to it. Then I get conversations	
83.	prolonged in vernacular languages, like Sepedi, Venda, or	
84.	Tsonga who I have elementary command of. And, um, the	
85.	learners then become very positive towards English and/or	
86.	Afrikaans. As I say, it doesn't help to gain attitude without	
87.	altitude.	
88.	Researcher: and, um, what other languages other than English	
89.	and Afrikaans do you use? In your classroom	
90.	Teacher: elementary Venda, elementary Tsonga and also	other languages
91.	because Afrikaans is a mixture of various languages, I refer to	
92.	German, French, and Dutch from time to time, to show the origin	
93.	of words. Also, we get people in are Dutch and German	
94.	speakers to converse with learners in these languages to show	
95.	them the origin of Afrikaans. So, a multitude of languages are	
96.	used ad hoc. Though not every day or every week, but when the	
97.	opportunity presents itself, we definitely do use it. Also, in choir	
98.	outreach programs, so the children who are in the choir were	
99.	exposed to German, English, exposed also to IsiNdebele and	
100.	other languages as well. So, when you work extra mural wise,	
101.	you work with the child holistically. This also encourages	
102.	multilingualism.	
103.	Researcher: and the school itself, does the school take a	
104.	communal approval to teaching and learning? You know the	
105.	Africans values of Ubuntu, you know like, togetherness, where	
106.	learning is a social product.	

<p>107. 108. 109. 110. 111. 112. 113. 114. 115. 116.</p>	<p>Teacher: we take part in Ayoba athletics which is a community athletics program, the four Eersterust primary schools have athletics, we raise funds for all the schools, but we invite the whole community, to come and join us at a stadium and thus the community benefits from the enjoyment of watching athletics that we as teachers then take control of, so it's not only for the children but it's also for the community. The school is constantly in touch with the community policing forum, with the police, with the clinic, and other stakeholders. So definitely we are not a lone island. We are integrated and are part of the community.</p>	<p>Community</p>
<p>117. 118.</p>	<p>Researcher: and with parents making home school links? When it comes to the learning of their children?</p>	
<p>119. 120. 121. 122. 123. 124. 125. 126. 127. 128. 129.</p>	<p>Teacher: oh yes, we not only encourage parents to come forward if their children wish to stay at home, but also furnish them with the relevant materials. Also, guidelines on how to repeat it and then a memoranda are also handed to the parents, so that the children may self-assess or if the child wishes to hand in for marking, we do allow that, the child hands it in for marking and feedback is given. There is also an isolation classroom for formal the assessments, so that these children with comorbidities may write in a sterile clean environment, where there are no other learners involved. And they have these sessions either in the mornings or in the afternoons.</p>	<p>Parental Community</p>
<p>130. 131. 132.</p>	<p>Researcher: and now with COVID-19, have the kids been learning, has that also built a better relationship between parents and the school?</p>	
<p>133. 134. 135. 136. 137. 138. 139. 140. 141. 142.</p>	<p>Teacher: there's definitely more communication now, we've opened the channels when it comes to WhatsApp groups, we've used social media extensively as well, um, more letters have been sent out now more than before. Parents do come to the school the moment they identify a problem; we tell them that our door is always open and indeed it is. The feedback that we've got is positive. There are learners ad hoc, we take them one by one, that have either made a success of it or that have taken a dip. We try and compensate as much through extended and expanded assessment opportunities and learning curves to</p>	<p>Parental Community</p>



143.	accommodate for the pandemic so that learners might keep	
144.	their work up and also finish the year successfully. At least	
145.	academically	