The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former Model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape)

By

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to my children (Mothusi, Rekaofela and Reabetswe), my beloved wife Kebone and the entire Lepheana royal family. I also dedicate this work to my maternal grandparents Gideon Mchitheki and Isabel Nolanga Ndlovu. I wish they were still alive so that we could rejoice together on such a remarkable achievement.

Declaration

I, Jeremia Lepheana, hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been duly acknowledged and indicated by means of complete references. This dissertation has not been previously submitted in part or in full for any other degree to any other university.

J. Lepheana (Researcher)

Signature: _____ Date: _____

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Abstract

This thesis explores the possibilities of multilingual language instruction within multi-ethnic classrooms in former Model-C schools shaped by multiple discursive practices. The researcher reviews current research on multilingualism and teaching and proposes strategies for overcoming the English prescriptivism, and monolingual mind-set in education.

The research reported in this dissertation is both a qualitative and quantitative study, which sought to investigate the patterns of translanguaging in classrooms in five primary schools in Alfred Nzo West district (Maluti sub-district). In quantitative research, questionnaires were used to gather data from teachers and learners. In the qualitative research methodology, document analysis method of collecting data was employed. Purposive sampling was the major sampling method to ensure that relevant data was collected. Language in Education Policy formed the major analytical framework for this study.

The aim of the study was to investigate the impact of translanguaging as it is used by teachers and learners in the class in selected primary schools in Alfred Nzo West district. The research focuses on how primary school learners and their teachers engage with teaching and learning, and the strategies that teachers use to promote the use of two or three languages in classrooms to help learners to understand content and concepts in English, Sesotho and isiXhosa as there are multi-ethnic classrooms in the district.

The dissertation concludes with some reflections on the findings, implications of the findings for future research and training, and recommendations to use the languages of school children as rich resources for teaching and learning.

The Socio-cultural theory formed the theoretical framework that guided this study. According to Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development, children learn through social interaction that includes collaborative and cooperative dialogue with someone who is more skilled in tasks they are trying to learn.

The findings of this study show the misunderstandings of the LiEP, translanguaging and multilingual education. The study also shows the lack of confidence in the ability of African languages to provide quality education.

Keywords: Model-C schools, multi-ethnic classroom, multilingualism, translanguaging

List of Acronyms and abbreviations

ANA	Annual National Assessment
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DET	Department of Education and Training
DoE	Department of Education
FAL	First Additional Language
HL	Home Language
IIAL	Incremental Implementation of Indigenous African Languages
LANGTAG	Language Plan Task Group
LiEP	Language in Education Policy
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
MLE	Mother Language Education
MoI	Medium of Instruction
NCCRD	National Centre for Curriculum Research and Development
NEEDU	National Education Evaluation and Development Unit
NEPI	National Education Policy Investigation
PanSaLB	Pan South African Language Board
SAL	Second Additional Language
SASL	South African Sign Language
SASA	South African Schools Act
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Appendices

List of Appendices

Chapter 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Language, like life, is bigger than any one of us, because its changes happen spontaneously and uncontrollably over time. Language is an evolving phenomenon and people should adjust to that language revolution as this is inevitable. Language is the vehicle that gives a sense of belonging and attachment to one's ethnic groups, panegyric legends and totems that give us a sense of ethnic identity, as well as a foundation for morality. If one is alienated from his or her language, it is like taking a fish out of water.

According to Iannacci (2006), in many parts of the world, including South Africa, teachers are facing new challenges due to rapidly increasing numbers of linguistic and culturally diverse learners in their classrooms. Such shifts point to the fact that language-in-education research needs to keep pace with rapid global, social, technological and demographic change. Although there is a large body of available research on second language teaching and learning, there remains a gap in the research on young children's experiences in today's multilingual/multicultural second language classrooms.

South African language policies have always been interwoven with the politics of domination and separation, resistance and affirmation. Over the past two centuries, South Africa's colonial and white minority governments have used language policy in education as an instrument of cultural and political control. This political control was first used in the battle for supremacy of English over Afrikaans; and subsequently in elevating English and Afrikaans over indigenous African languages. Thus, colonial/apartheid governments' language policies were aimed at entrenching linguistic imperialism through divisive language legislation (Mashiyi 2010). Hence, Phillipson (1992) defines "linguistic imperialism as the tendency to value and promote colonial languages while de-valuing and marginalizing indigenous languages." The suppression of one's language also involves cultural imperialism, which is the erosion of one's ethnic identity. Given that situation, culture and language have always been a controversial subject in the South African education system.

South Africa is a multilingual country with entrenched policies on multilingualism, and on the promotion and development of indigenous African languages. Multilingualism refers to speaking more than two languages competently. The recognition of the multilingual nature of societies, particularly the role of indigenous languages in developing countries, has led to the increased attention to multilingual education (MLE). According to Corson (1990), multilingualism is the recognition and the use of more than two languages in every sector of the community. Apart from Corson's definition of multilingualism, Jessner (2008: 18) defines it as an acquisition of more than two languages and he indicates that it covers a wide range of meanings including the mastery of two languages. This implies that bilingualism may be used interchangeably with multilingualism. In addition to these definitions, Mateene (1999) contends that multilingualism means both the ability to speak, write and read one's languages. This implies that multilingualism does not mean only an understanding and the ability to speak more than one language, but that it must also include the ability to read and write in those languages. Generally, there are both the official and unofficial multilingualism practices. Multilingualism exhibits both the political and the linguistic consequences. In line with the Constitution of South Africa, the LiePP (1997) recognises that our cultural diversity is a valuable asset and hence is tasked, amongst other things, to promote multilingualism, the development of official languages, and respect for all languages used in the country, including South African Sign Language and the languages referred to in the South African Constitution (Section 29 subsection 2).

Following the catastrophic consequences of Bantu Education, the policy is based on the recognition that South Africa is multilingual and that the mother tongue (or Home Language) is the most appropriate language for learning. According Heugh (2002), the addition of a second and third language as part of an additive bi-/multi-lingualism that makes provision for a strong proficiency in another language, very often English by default, which is seen to guarantee linguistic and academic success. However, as per the 1997 LiePP, obligatory official languages that are offered include the Home Language (HL) and one First Additional Language (FAL) subject. Foreign languages can be offered at SAL level and do not include official languages. Unfortunately, the narrow implementation of the policy has undermined multilingual education for several reasons, first and foremost because of the early transition to English medium instruction for most African language-speaking students, resulting in poor learning outcomes. According to Ferreira (2017), very often, access to languages beyond English and Afrikaans is not guaranteed, meaning that historically inherited horizontal

bilingualism has, to a large degree, been maintained. In short, little has changed in providing upliftment and equity to indigenous African languages at school level.

The current Language-in-Education Policy adopted by government in 1997 (Department of Education, 1997) promotes additive bilingualism/multilingualism, that is, the maintenance of home language and the learning of at least one additional language. The policy provides guidelines on the teaching of African languages as subjects of study and as media of instruction. The view is to elevate their status to that of English and Afrikaans, which were the only official languages of South Africa up to 1994. The current linguistic map tells us that the linguistic distribution is quite diverse among the eleven official languages across the nine provinces. The South African Constitution (1996, Section 6) states that in recognising the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages, the state must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and to advance the use of indigenous languages. Kaschula (2018) is of the opinion that multilingualism in education must be celebrated as a resource, and it should not be seen as a problem. He continues to state that instead of celebrating its official languages though, South Africa is caught in a rip current of English which is sweeping the country further away from accepting, promoting and advancing the use of the other 10 languages. There's been insufficient buy-in from the government about the importance of developing, promoting and using African languages, particularly in education. Most South Africans are ill-informed about the advantages of mother-tongue being used as the medium of instruction.

According to the Daily Dispatch (January 8, 2020), language policies and laws have governed the way pupils learn at school. The South African Schools Act outlines how the constitution insists in Section 29 (2) that every child has the right to receive a basic education in the languages of his or her choice. The introduction of new language policies, together with mother tongue-based learning, seeks to promote the indigenous languages that were marginalised by the minority group through the Bantu Education Act (1953). The introduction of mother tongue-based education and learning in a province such as the Eastern Cape might prove feasible in terms of achievement across all grades, especially Grade 12, in the near future. During apartheid, languages such as isiXhosa and Sesotho were deemed irrelevant by the Bantu Education Act.

In a decision that will have major implications for isiXhosa and Sesotho speaking pupils in the province, the Eastern Cape Education Department has given the go-ahead for matric pupils to answer exam questions in their home language from 2020. The announcement was made by MEC Fundile Gade. To date, matric students have only been able to answer exam questions in English and Afrikaans. Multilingual examinations will ensure that pupils receive question papers in their home languages as well as in English and Afrikaans and they can then choose which language to use. Eastern Cape schools will be the first in the country to apply this exam model in grade 12. It will mean that pupils who struggle to understand English or Afrikaans will now be able to understand subject content more easily, according to some education experts. In his announcement, Gade (Eastern Cape Education MEC) regarding Grade 12 isiXhosa and Sesotho examination papers, he even made mention of countries like China, Singapore and Germany which use their own languages and use English as a secondary language, like other languages. English is not given preference as if pupils cannot learn and develop outside of the use of English.

While there are, of course many successful individuals who only speak one language, several recent studies indicate that teaching and learning in more than one language has many positive effects on the learner. In 2009, the EU (European Union) published an extensive study on multilingualism in 29 countries, which were 27 European Union countries plus Norway and Turkey. Today, many countries have more than one national or official or official languages, with any number of smaller linguistic groups within them. Governments make difficult decisions on which language or languages to promote in education and which to omit from the school curriculum. Currently, the major language of international communication and education is English. Some countries have encouraged an exclusively English-medium education, meaning there is a danger of the loss or near loss of their national or local languages. Others preserve the use of their own languages in education, treating English as a separate subject. Many people feel strongly that their first language is part of their identity, yet if the current dominant language is neglected, learners may have difficulty in accessing information and entering the job market. This situation poses serious questions for education policy.

Many of the recommendations in recent research reports either implicitly or explicitly speak to the strengthening of African language teaching to improve learning outcomes. The National Education Evaluation and Development Unit (DBE, 2012) report applauds the incremental introduction of an African language. Arguably, the planned introduction of an African language

for all learners is a positive policy in the interests of nation building and social cohesion. According to Heugh (2002: 4), previously there was segregated education, with a language policy designed for separate development, unequal resources, and a cognitively impoverished curriculum, which has resulted in the massive under-education of much of the population. The Department of Education introduced a new policy called "The Incremental Introduction of African Languages (IIAL) in South African Schools", the explicit aims of which are to improve proficiency in African languages; increase access to languages to all learners beyond English and Afrikaans and promote social cohesion, economic empowerment and the preservation of heritage and cultures (Department of Education 2013: 6). In terms of the new policy framework, which was implemented from 2017, learners will be offered three official languages from the first year of School, one at HL level and two at FAL level. By adding one obligatory African language to the curriculum, the policy constrains learners of all backgrounds to take at least one African language (other than Afrikaans) at all phases of learning: Foundation, Intermediate, Senior and Further Education and Training (FET) phases (Grades 1-3, Grades 4-6, Grades 7-9, Grades 10-12, respectively). This means that offering a SAL, typically at FET phase, would constitute a fourth subject of learning (out of a total of eight subjects). As noted by the Independent Board of Examiners (IEB) (responsible for the assessment of non-official languages) in a submission to the Department of Education, the effects of this policy are potentially detrimental to the teaching of foreign languages at School level, in that the curriculum is overburdened.

IIAL is also targeting non-African home language speakers to speak an African language, and in this way, the utility of African languages at First Additional Language and Home Language levels will be enhanced. The issue of languages at school extends further than non-African home language speakers, however, and we have observed in South Africa the state of no-First language English speakers struggling to keep up with the curriculum, because it is not taught in their first language. The IIAL aims to correct this, too. The majority of the African learners are studying in a language that is not their mother tongue, and so government is committed to redress this unbecoming practice of the past.

The IIAL policy rolled out by the Department of Education to promote the acquisition of African languages as well as the IEB submission to defend the value of teaching non-official languages are based a priori on similar rationales – first and foremost, the promotion of multilingualism, and with it, social cohesion, cultural and linguistic awareness, and tolerance.

In the case of the IIAL policy, this is articulated within the local project of nation-building (DoE 2013: 6).

Community life takes place mainly in African languages. Learners proficient in African languages are thus able to participate and take leading roles in local institutions and organizations. However, the linguistic skills and knowledge acquired in this formal education system are often not compatible with the linguistic skills and competencies needed in other, less formal contexts, especially in the informal sector.

The Incremental Introduction of African Languages (2013) policy aims to:
(*1) Promote and strengthen the use of African languages by all learners in the school system by introducing learners incrementally to learning an African language from Grades 1 to 12 to ensure that all non-African home language speakers speak an*
African Language;
(2) Strengthen the use of African languages at Home Language level;
(3) Improve proficiency in and utility of the previously marginalized African languages at First Additional Language level;
(4) Raise the confidence of parents to choose their own languages;
(5) Increase access to languages by all learners beyond English and Afrikaans; and
(6) Promote social cohesion by expanding opportunities for the development of African languages as a significant way of preserving heritage and cultures.

The IIAL (2013) policy has been implemented incrementally commencing in Grade 1 in 2017 and will continue until 2026 (DBE) when it will be implemented in Grade 12. The motive behind the introduction of African languages in all schools is to promote the development and increased utility of African languages by introducing learners incrementally to learning an African language.

The IIAL (2013) requires all learners to be offered an African language at First Additional Language level. This effectively means that all schools should have an African language teacher. The provision to promote African languages will differ from one province to the other. It would be simpler in provinces with few official languages and more complex in those with more official languages. The same applies to the rural and urban situation. It is expected that in a rural situation only one African language will be selected as a subject at FAL level. But in

an urban or cosmopolitan area more than one African language can be selected for this purpose. Based on the demographics of the school population and considering the "language majority" of the learners, schools will select their languages of choice to represent that majority. Staffing to meet this need can be achieved by using different models. The most ideal situation is to provide all schools with African language(s) teacher(s). Depending on the school context, this might mean a provision of one or more African language(s) teacher(s).

One of the main aims of the introduction of incremental indigenous African languages is to promote multilingualism as an important tool for social cohesion and for individual development in terms of academic achievement. The incremental introduction of African languages to our schools and training institutions remains one of many challenges that educationalists, policy makers and publishers face. In doing so, their commitment to finding solutions to multicultural, multilingual education in South Africa is as much about dealing with the ghosts of the past as it is about reimagining the future.

The introduction of IIAL can also assist in the understanding of enculturation/acculturation. Enculturation is the process by which people learn the requirements of their surrounding culture and acquire values and behaviours appropriate or necessary in that culture (Grusec *et al*, 2007). As part of this process, the influences that limit, direct, or shape the individual (deliberately or not) include parents, other adults, and peers. If successful, enculturation results in competence in language, values, and rituals of the culture. Enculturation is related to socialization. In some academic fields, socialization refers to the deliberate shaping of individuals. In others, the word may cover both deliberate and informal enculturation.

In an appearance before the Portfolio Committee on the 28th of June 2017 the Department of Basic Education Minister, Angie Motshega and senior officials of the Department of Basic Education briefed the committee, among other things, regarding progress achieved so far on the implementation of the Incremental Introduction of African languages (IAAL) and on progress on the plans to make History a compulsory subject in the South African schools. According to Mr Matanzima Mweli, the Department of Basic Education Director-General, he emphasised that the National Development Plan (NDP) states that few non-African South Africans speak any African language and that they should be encouraged by both government and society to develop conversational competency in an African language to promote understanding and social cohesion. The IIAL thus flows from the NDP. Mr Mweli told the

committee that to achieve more progress on the implementation of the IIAL, addressing the Council of Education Ministers Management Meeting, that all public schools that are not offering a previously marginalised official language should implement the IIAL in 2018 i.e. all 3558 schools should implement the IIAL in Grade 1. The Committee heard that the Department of Basic Education has provided the necessary support to all the implementing schools. The support included the provisioning of teachers, teacher orientation, provisioning of teaching and learning support materials, monitoring and support of the implementation of the IIAL and vigorous advocacy campaign.

According to the report of the meeting mentioned before, in 2013 the DBE announced plans to strengthen the teaching of African languages through the IIAL. The IIAL targets all schools that are currently not offering a previously marginalised official African language. The end plan was to reach a total of 3558 schools. IIAL was piloted in Grades 1 and 2 in 2014 in 264 schools and across all provinces in 2015 and this number grew to 814 schools in 2016, which constitutes about 23% of total applicable schools. The reach continued to increase to 973 schools in 2017, which is about 27% of schools which are set to implement the IIAL programme.

The legislative framework for IIAL is found in the Constitution, section 6 of the South African Schools Act and section 4 of the National Education Policy Act of 1996. There is also the Language and Education Policy of 1997, which stressed the notion of multilingualism and promotion of home languages. The objectives of the IIAL are to improve proficiency in previously marginalised African languages, raise the confidence of parents to choose languages for their children and increase access to languages beyond English and Afrikaans. There is progress, because the languages covered are specific to regions and mainly informed by languages used for communication in each of the nine provinces. Some of the challenges are availability of willing and competent teachers to teach African languages and attitudes and the misconception that African languages are having little value in a global scheme of things. Gauteng is the leading province when it comes to the implementation of IIAL and they have shared how they have dealt with these challenges.

February 21 of every year is celebrated worldwide as the International Mother Language Day (IMLD) to promote awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity as well as to promote multilingualism. Since the first announcement of this day by United Nation's Educational,

Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) in 1999, the global community unites around one cause: "to promote the preservation and protection of all languages used by peoples of the world. According to Sizwe Nxasana (2020) founding chairman of the National Education Collaboration Trust, language is an instrument of human expression and transaction. It is a tool with which we negotiate meaning, develop a concept and transmit culture and heritage. The more languages one speaks and understands, the more likely one is able to operate seamlessly, make more friends and do more business with relative ease than those who cannot. Former president of South Africa, Nelson Mandela, famously said: "If you talk to man in a language he understands, that goes to his head. If you talk to a man in his language that goes to his heart." This arguably relates directly to the process of learning and teaching. Research shows that children who are introduced to learning and teaching in their mother tongue, develop a firm grasp of the concepts they are being taught rather than those who do not use their mother tongue. The enduring legacy of colonial repression over Africa, becomes of paramount importance at this stage in understanding language use in schools.

Nxasana (ibid) further states that if a language is such a basic trait, why is it that Nigeria has over 500 local languages, but teaching remains mainly in English? South Africa recognises 11 official languages, but with its history of apartheid and colonialism, there are only English and (previously) Afrikaans universities, meaning only these two and not the nine others are regarded as academic languages.

In Senegal, French is the mode of instruction, a language which is spoken fluently by a mere one-third of the population. In fact, in the so-called Anglophone Africa only 10 million out of 690 million citizens speak English as their first language. In Francophone Africa, 20 million out of 442 million speak French as their mother language and in Lusophone Africa, 14 out of 63 million. In brief this represents only 4 percent of African students, affecting development on the continent (Wolff 2016).

Furthermore, Nxasana (ibid) has often challenged educationists, policy makers and other practitioners in education to explain this anomaly. Eminent Kenyan author Ngugi wa Thiong'o famously said: "if only English and French are taught, it creates the impression that knowledge only comes from abroad." The use of indigenous language supports local culture and parental involvement in the education of their children. It bridges formal schooling and home or community so that learners can receive positive formative influences from more than just their

teachers at school. If teaching and learning are in foreign languages, there is a perception to the learners that education can only come from the West, in English, French or Portuguese. Instead of being able to receive instruction in their mother tongue, enabling more effective interaction with their peers, teachers and parents, foreign language teaching disqualifies parents and any other person who cannot speak the language.

Presenting the curriculum in unfamiliar languages requires an enormous time to teach children to speak, read and write in that language. This time could be spent in learning academic concepts and acquiring 21st century skills in the mother tongue. Time is wasted on negotiating meaning and translating what should be considered as simple intellectual concepts. Learning then becomes about translation rather than cognition.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The researcher's observation is that there are challenges faced regarding multilingual education in relation to the introduction of indigenous African languages (isiXhosa) in former Model-C schools. This is attributed to racism and tribalism. Racism is the belief that groups of humans possess different behavioural traits corresponding to physical appearance and can be divided based on the superiority of one race over another. It may also mean prejudice, discrimination, or antagonism directed against other people because they are of a different race or ethnicity. Tribalism implies the possession of strong cultural or ethnic identity that separates one member of a group from the other group based on strong relations of proximity; members of a tribe tend to possess a strong feeling of identity.

In this district of Alfred Nzo West (Maluti sub-region) there is use of both Sesotho and isiXhosa by learners as their mother tongues. The introduction of indigenous African languages (isiXhosa) in former Model-C schools around Maluti is perceived as having a detrimental effect to learners of languages other than isiXhosa and Sesotho as they are compelled to struggle with isiXhosa and Sesotho. Even the Coloured learners and White learners share the same sentiments. They ignore the fact that teaching of English and Afrikaans also promotes bilingualism or multilingualism. There is a negative attitude from Principals, learners and their parents who perceive that teaching isiXhosa/Sesotho at their schools undermines them as they assume that English use and understanding means prosperity and civilisation.

1.3 Rationale

The rationale behind this study is to study the effects of the increase in terms of access to languages by all learners, beyond English and Afrikaans (multilingual education using translanguaging). It also argues that this serves to promote social cohesion and expand opportunities for the development of African languages as a significant part of preserving heritage and cultures. It also seeks to assess the conundrum of negative attitudes from both parents and learners of the participating schools in the programme of IIAL.

1.4 Aim of the study

The aim of the study was to investigate the ways in which translanguaging is used as a vehicle for multilingualism by teachers and learners participating in the Incremental Introduction of African Languages programme at schools in Alfred Nzo West.

1.5 Objectives

This thesis explores the possibilities of how multilingual language instruction within multi-ethnic classrooms in former Model-C schools can be shaped by multiple discursive practices.

The following were the objectives of the study:

1. To assess the use of translanguaging as a pedagogy to improve proficiency and utility of the previously marginalized African languages.
2. To examine factors that may impede schools from using African languages effectively within curricula.
3. To create spaces for multilingual education in South African classrooms.
4. To promote plurilingualism against monolingualism in education system that elevate the use of English only for pedagogy (English prescriptivism).
5. To explore other benefits (that include intergenerational, acculturation and enculturation) in using African languages for teaching.
6. To assess the promotion of social cohesion by expanding opportunities for the development of African languages as a significant way of preserving heritage and cultures.

7. Intellectualisation of African languages.

1.6 Research questions

This study aimed to find possible answers to the following research questions:

1.6.1 Main research question

- What is the impact of translanguaging towards implementation of multilingual education in multiracial and multi-ethnic classrooms?

The following are sub-questions underlying the main research question:

- What are the effects of translanguaging in teaching and learning?
- Can translanguaging be used as a vehicle to drive multilingual education?
- Is English the only language that should be used for pedagogy?
- What are the benefits of translanguaging and multilingual education?
- Does the language policy really address multilingualism in South African classrooms or schools?
- Is teaching aligned with assessment practices regarding language use?
- Can intellectualisation of African languages be an alternative or solution against the hegemonic dominance of English in the South African education system?

1.7 Significance of the study

The findings of this study can assist with addressing the following needs:

- The National Department of Education might need to review its language policy.
- The results of the investigation might bring about changes in policy implementation in relation to incremental introduction of African languages in all schools and translanguaging to enhance learning and teaching.
- Expose challenges that emerge because of introduction of African languages in multi-racial classrooms.
- The Department of Education might see the importance of the use of translanguaging as a pedagogy and its relationship to multilingualism.

1.8 An outline of the structure of the thesis

The thesis is divided into the following chapters:

Chapter 1 is an introduction to this research. It provides a bird's eye view of what this study is all about. It consists of the formulation of the research problem, the background of the research, the research questions, the aims and objectives of the study, a discussion of multilingual education including the sociolinguistic profile in South Africa, comment on the research design and methodology, and an outline of the structure of the thesis.

Chapter 2 provides a detailed literature review that forms the background of this study. The following aspects are discussed in this chapter: multilingual education in the world and multilingual education in South Africa, enculturation & acculturation, translanguaging and theoretical frameworks.

Chapter 3 provides detailed discussion of the research design and methodology. This includes the research approach, population and sampling, data collection methods, presentation and analysis as well as reliability and validity. The research approaches that were followed in this study include quantitative and qualitative approaches. Purposive sampling was applied for all learners and teachers of the schools. Two tools for collecting data were discussed in detail, namely, questionnaire and comprehension. Ethical considerations, limitations and delimitations of study were discussed as well as validity and reliability.

Chapter 4 contains the data presentation and discussion of findings.

Chapter 5 contains further analysis of data and interpretation. Data from the questionnaires were put into graphs and tables to enable a better understanding and to represent the data in a statistical way.

Chapter 6 provides the summary of the research report as well as the conclusions and recommendations. This chapter also provides the proposed model that might be useful for multilingual education in South African school situations.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter sought to emphasise the use of translanguaging for teaching and learning in a multi-racial/multi-ethnic classroom. South Africa is a highly multilingual country, with 11 official languages and numerous other languages spoken as first or home languages and learned

in the early years of schooling. However, from Grade 4 onwards education is dominated by the English language, a result of the colonial history of the country and its education system. There are several problems attached to this dominance of English, the most important of which is that not all young South Africans have equal access to English in their schools, leading to a situation in which some learners are unable to attain adequate marks for progression due to their limited access to English. Multilingualism, using translanguaging can minimise the hegemonic optimum use of English for teaching and learning. Chapter 2 provides a literature review that underpins the research for this thesis.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Since the first occupation of South Africa by the Dutch in 1652, through successive periods of British rule, the Union of South Africa, and subsequently the establishment of the Republic of South Africa and the apartheid regime, government language policy and the power elite failed to recognise South Africa's linguistic diversity. This situation was reversed only with the advent of democracy in 1994 and the Constitutional provisions on official multilingualism.

South Africa's former apartheid government discriminated against indigenous and minority language groups by decreeing a language policy that gave recognition to Afrikaans and English. According to Reagan (1988), from 1652, the question of the language of instruction was not an issue because most of the white population spoke Dutch. At the time, African communities had not then realized the implications of the side-lining of their languages and culture in education. While native languages occupied no position whatsoever as media of communication, the position of English as a medium of instruction came into play. Reagan (1988) reminds us that preparations for this began as early as 1809 when General Colin proposed that English teachers be imported to ensure that the next South African generation, both black and white, would be 'English.'

The architects of Bantu Education, Dr. W.M. Eiselen and Dr. Hendrik F. Verwoerd introduced a bill in 1953 to remove black education from missionary control and to place it under the Native Affairs Department. This bill became the Bantu Education Act (No. 47) of 1953, which widened the gaps in education for different racial groups. Christian National Education supported the National Party programme of apartheid by calling on educators to reinforce cultural diversity and to rely on mother-tongue instruction as means to achieve the government's separatist philosophy. This philosophy also espoused the idea that a person's social responsibilities and political opportunities were defined, in large part, by that person's ethnic identity and language they speak. The role of African languages in South Africa is complex and ambiguous. Their use in education has been governed by legislation, beginning with the Bantu Education Act of 1953.

Following the advent of democracy in South Africa in 1994, the African National Congress government sought to reverse discrimination of African languages by initiating a multilingual language policy as stipulated in the constitutional framework (Madiba, 2005). In addition, in terms of the constitution, the Department of Education recognises that our cultural diversity is a valuable national asset. It is therefore, tasked to promote multilingualism which respects all languages used in the country.

The *National Education Policy Act* (Act 27 of 1996) empowers the Minister of Education to determine a national policy for language in education. Subsequently, the *Language-in-Education Policy* was adopted in 1997. This policy seeks to dispel the dominance of English and Afrikaans and equally elevates the status of the other nine indigenous languages (isiXhosa, Sesotho, sePedi, xiTsonga, tshiVenda, isiZulu, seTswana, isiNdebele, siSwati) in terms of section 6 of the Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996). Despite the government's commitment for multilingualism and the promotion of language rights in all spheres of public life, the education sector does not totally reflect the multilingual nature of South Africa in schools. English is still the dominant language and the language of learning and teaching. In addition, the input of African parents is not sought regarding the language for teaching their children, hence the governing body of a public school may determine the language policy of the school subject to the section 6 of the Constitution ((Act No. 108 of 1996), this Act and any applicable provincial law (South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996) must be applied.

Based on the policies, all languages in South Africa are awarded the same status, however, African languages remain marginalized even by African people themselves**.** Because of the political history of colonialism and apartheid in South Africa, English and Afrikaans have been well established as languages of learning to the exclusion of African languages.

The issue of language in education and multilingual education (MLE) has not been discussed adequately in South Africa. Generally, literature on language in education shows that there is a strong link between language, academic achievement at school, economic competitiveness as well as social development (Cummins, 1978; Heugh, 2002c & UNESCO, 2010). As such the choice of language of learning and teaching (LoLT) as well as language policy in schools is very crucial, since language and communication are critical factors in the learning process (UNESCO, 2010). Language in education can be viewed on two levels: (i) language as medium of instruction (MoI) or LoLT, as well as (ii) language as a subject of learning.

South Africa has multifarious classroom language situations. Schools must organise learning and teaching at a minimum of two language levels or more. These levels are described as Home Language (HL) and First Additional Language (FAL). There is also a possibility of offering a second additional language (SAL) within the current school curriculum. Many schools do not offer the home language (mother tongue or main language) of all the learners. Thus, the term, Home Language, must be understood as a required "proficiency level," rather than the main or strongest language of the learners (Department of Basic Education [DBE], 2011: 8). Some learners have the advantage of a match between their main language and the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) of the school, but other learners do not have this privilege. While many learners can use their strongest language during the initial few years of schooling, most start using an additional language, usually English, in Grade 4 (DBE, 2011).

Although there are resonances between the South African language context and that of other countries, there are also important differences. As in many parts of the world, English is a dominant and dominating language. However, the impact of political and social history has meant that the language issues of the Global North and Global South should be considered carefully and not necessarily conflated. Heugh (2015: 281) alerts us to this by alluding to:

> The tension between rarefied views of language as hermetically sealed entities found in language policies and practices that emerged from the late 19th-century in Europe on the one hand, and a recognition of the more fluid use of language in multilingual settings in Africa on the other hand.

2.2 South Africa is a multilingual country

South Africa is facing a challenge on the basis that transition to multilingualism should not be merely a replacement of one language with another, but an addition of such a language so that both or more languages are used as LoLTs in an MLE perspective, or alternatively as LoLTs while they are also studied as subjects. This study focused on what Mabiletja (2015) has referred to as additive multilingualism. The focus is on maintaining mother tongue (MT) as MoI and adding L2 in order to achieve dual medium instruction later. The idea would be that two or more languages are used in parallel i.e. the way transition to MLE is done in South Africa while taking into consideration LiEP constraints and other socio-economic as well as

regional factors. The study also took into consideration the constitutional provisions about LiEP, more specifically the equitable use of all languages and the right to choose the LoLT(s) (Section 29 (2) of the Constitution, Act 108 of 1996).

Multilingualism is a common phenomenon which is found in most parts of the world including South Africa. Different scholars define multilingualism in various ways. For example, Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) defines multilingualism as the mastery of more than one language. It is noticeable that Skutnabb-Kangas' definition has to do with competence rather than language usage. This study focusses only on language as it is used in class communication since language proficiency is out of the scope of the present study. According to Webb (1998), multilingualism can be defined quantitatively as well as qualitatively. A quantitative definition embraces knowing three or more languages by an individual and the presence of three or more languages in a community referring to societal multilingualism. This deals with the number of languages an individual is able to use, and the number of languages spoken by members of a community. On the other hand, Webb (1998) states that the qualitative definition of multilingualism is determined by peoples' language attitude. In this case it depends on how people rate the value of languages according to what they are used for in the community. Different languages might be used for different purposes. For example, one language may be used in formal domains such as in government, education, and media, whereas others are used for non-formal situations like at home. This concurs with Corson (1990) who defines multilingualism as the recognition and the use of more than two languages in every sector of the community. Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) asserts that the qualitative definition has to do with identification where one identifies himself/herself or where a community is identified with more than one language. Heugh (1993) states that being multilingual means being able to communicate in at least two languages. In South Africa the knowledge and the use of both English and Afrikaans were regarded as being multilingual.

This was due to the fact that these were the only official languages that were recognised by the apartheid government. The concept of multilingualism also embraces the concept of bilingualism as the latter means the knowledge and the use of at least more than one language (UNESCO, 2010). In this study the concept of multilingualism is viewed as including all forms of multilingualism together with bilingualism, trilingualism, etc.

In the democratic era now, it is officially acknowledged that South Africa is characterised by linguistic diversity. According to Wurm (1999), multilingualism is therefore regarded as a norm in South Africa. This country consists of many languages and even the Constitution of this country declares eleven languages as official at national level to show this linguistic diversity. Curriculum 2005 (DoE, 1997a), the new Revised National Curriculum Statement (DoE, 2002a), and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (DBE, 2011b) encourage the learning of at least two languages at Grade 12, whereas the new curriculum, CAPS, encourages the learning of two languages from Grade 1. This linguistic situation necessitates the need for an education system which includes everyone in the country and that is MLE.

Language use in education is a crucial issue that needs special attention. According to Bloch (2002), for successful and competitive national development of multilingual states in Africa there must be recognition of MLE among other factors. UNESCO (2011), prefers multilingual education to refer to at least three languages in education. According to UNESCO (2003b & 2011), MLE may involve the use of at least three languages in education, that is, the mother tongue, a regional language or national language and an international language. In MLE one is encouraged to access education in both home language and a language of wider communication, which is usually an ex-colonial language in most African countries such as Nigeria (Simire, 2003), Tanzania (Brock-Utne, 2005) and South Africa (Heugh, 1999).

MLE can be organised in the form of models such as immersion, transitional, maintenance and submersion programmes that are discussed briefly in Section 2.3.1 below. Various models and theories in multilingual environments have proposed that transitional arrangements should be made with regard to LoLT. According to UNESCO (2010), most of the models prefer that such transition should be geared towards using an official second or additional language (L2) after the first three years of formal schooling. One may argue that such models were designed for environments where monolingualism is a norm and where one official language is preferred in the schooling system. It is usually an attempt to address the problem of immigration where an immediate transition to a national official language of the country is required for easy communication with the citizens of that country.

According to Cenoz and Genesee (1998a), MLE refers to a situation where more than two languages are used as LoLTs. This includes bilingual education where two languages are used simultaneously. This also includes educational programmes that use languages other than the

first languages of learners as LoLTs. MLE programmes aim at developing communicative proficiency in more than one language. This means that the need for an individual to become more competent in other languages than one's own may be promoted through MLE.

Heugh (2002c) asserts that MLE does not mean choosing between English or African languages, but it means developing the L1 with an addition of a L2 in a manner such that L1 is used side by side with L2 for successful learning of the latter. It may be argued, however, that the transition to the use of more than one language as LoLT should be substantive rather than be cosmetic. Certain factors should be taken into consideration, including the development of indigenous languages and the need to learn a language of wider or global communication. With regard to LoLT, UNESCO (2011) argues that the language of instruction at the beginning of one's education at such a crucial moment for future learning should be the mother tongue. This may also suggest the importance of maintaining mother tongue education throughout the period of learning.

Teachers in national and regional schooling systems in many different locations around the world (though not everywhere) face linguistically and socio-culturally diverse groups of students (Blackledge and Creese 2010; Gardner and Martin-Jones 2012). However, schooling policies have often developed on the pretence that schooling is the same thing for all teachers and students, where students get tested as if such tests are neutral measures of personal ability. There is often little acknowledgement that schooling can be a very different experience depending on differences in socio-economic, sociocultural and language backgrounds among student and teacher populations. Sociocultural and linguistic diversity is a relatively recent focus and concern in European and North American contexts (Vertovec 2007), brought to research attention by the prolific contemporary flows of people across regions, national borders and continents, into European and North American cities.

South Africa as alluded to before, is a multilingual country with entrenched policies on multilingualism, and on the promotion and development of indigenous African languages, with the view of elevating their status to that of the two ex-colonial languages, English and Afrikaans, which were in fact the only official languages of South Africa up to 1994. During my two decades of teaching primary school learners, I have realised that teaching in English only without the use of home language is a futile exercise. Multilingual education aims at the

development of multilingualism and multiliteracy in two or more languages. When I use a multilingual approach in my teaching, understanding of concepts and the entire lesson is better understood by learners. The misconception that teaching using English is the best must be done away with as this is misleading the African community who are still mentally colonised and still give respect to their former colonial masters. Intellectual potential or ability has nothing to do with English understanding, but has something to do with understanding of facts and concepts through the language you understand best (Wolff, 2016). Research suggests that multilingual competence plays a significant role in students' academic performance. Most developed countries use home languages to facilitate teaching and learning i.e. Japan, Russia, Germany, United States of America, Britain and so forth. If African languages are only used as subjects in the South African education system and not for pedagogical purposes, the likelihood is that they are going into extinction. According to Phillipson (1997) this is referred to linguicide. Multilingual teaching is the answer to South African classrooms in creating spaces for multilingual approach for pedagogical purposes.

According to Madiba (2017), there is a difference in understanding a concept and getting it. Madiba encounters this problem all the time with students whose mother tongue is not English. Madiba holds a wealth of insight into multilingual students' difficulties when learning in a monolingual environment such as the University of Cape Town. When a student understands content, they can take it in and store it for the purposes of reproduction. But this is not the same as "getting it", or internalising it, he explains. Recognising the importance of creating a learning environment that works for all students, instead of only mother-tongue English speakers. Hurst, Morreira and Madiba (2017) co-authored a chapter titled "Surfacing and Valuing Students Linguistic Resources in an English-Dominant University", which was published in Academic Biliteracies: Multilingual Repertoires in Higher Education. The chapter outlines the value that students' multilingual resources can bring into the learning environment, by bringing complex social histories to bear on abstract mathematical academic content. They propose this be done through a process called translanguaging.

Monolingual learning is a legacy of colonialism. The call for a decolonised pedagogy has not yet directly addressed issues of language and multilingualism. But multilingualism is crucial to the process of decolonisation. Madiba, Hurst and Morreira (2017) are of the view that we need to shift away from the idea that teaching involves only one language. Those who introduced these systems of education came from a background where there was only one national language. This is not the case in South Africa. Madiba, Hurst and Morreira's point is

that there is no way we can complete decolonisation unless you look at the language issue. That is why people like Ngũgĩ wa Thiong'o (1986) all say decolonisation should start with language.

Multilingual students mix languages as necessary, say Hurst, Morreira and Madiba (2017). If given the space to do so through translanguaging, they will engage with the content in their languages. That does not mean these students cannot report back to their tutors or lecturers in English. They are already doing this. As a matter of fact, translanguaging improves students' academic English, notes Hurst, as students are better equipped to own these concepts. Once you take away the issue of language, what remains is meaning making. Hurst, Morreira and Madiba (2017) are also of the view that, when students arrive at the University of Cape Town, they often feel like all of their resources have been stripped away and suddenly they are at a complete disadvantage compared with students who come from English language schools and English language dominant backgrounds.

Hurst, Morreira and Madiba (2017) assert that multilingual students arrive at university with valuable linguistic resources that can be used in very powerful ways in thinking through concepts. But as it currently stands, students do not see the value of their linguistic resources in the classroom setting. Hurst, Morreira and Madiba (2017) describe a typical lecture or tutorial scene: where non-mother-tongue students remain silent. After the lesson ends, they decode the entire session together, mixing English with a variety of other languages as necessary. This leads to the discussion, debate and engagement that should be happening in the classroom. The assumption that is made at UCT is that all students are monolingual, which is not the case. Yet their study (with his colleagues) shows that some students can engage in up to seven different languages. Translanguaging will allow them to draw on those resources in the classroom.

Hurst, Morreira and Madiba (2017) are also of the opinion that when learners are asked to say something in their own language, they begin to think. They are not trying to memorise. They explain the difficulty with African languages, that there is a cognitive way of classifying things. Words need to belong somewhere. So, students need to determine if a concept belongs within the noun class, the human class, the animal class, the processes class, and so forth. In so doing, they begin to engage with the concept on a cognitive level. Inevitably, students end up with long and complicated definitions, which they will then attempt to shrink down to a single world. But it is through building this full and complex definition that the students really engage with these weighty concepts. Multilingual students mix languages as necessary, say Hurst, Morreira

and Madiba (2017). If given the space to do so through translanguaging, they will engage with the content in their languages. That does not mean these students cannot report back to their tutors or lecturers in English. They are already doing this. As a matter of fact, translanguaging improves students' academic English, notes these scholars, as students are better equipped to own these concepts. Once you take away the issue of language, what remains is meaning making.

The current linguistic map tells us that the linguistic distribution is quite diverse among the eleven official languages across the nine provinces. To do justice to the previously marginalised languages, nine indigenous African languages were accorded the official status by the first democratic government in 1994. The teaching of languages in South African schools has long been fraught with debate, tensions and sensitivities, particularly in relation to the continued exclusion and marginalisation of African languages. The democratic dispensation has attempted to counter this situation through linguistic policies, which actively promote multilingualism1 and the teaching/learning of local African languages, in line with the general goals of nation-building, diversity and tolerance (Language-in-Education Policy, 1997). The teaching of foreign languages at school level, ("second additional languages"), that is languages that are neither official nor national languages, has been absent from debates regarding local language ecology and multilingualism in South Africa. Generally, the teaching of these languages occupies a double role: as value adding "international" languages (such as in the case of French) and/or in cultivating minority linguistic and cultural communities in South Africa (such as in the case of Hebrew, Greek, Serbian, Portuguese or any other language). In this respect, the Second Additional Language (SAL) has been typically seen as distinct from existing local language repertoires (and cultures).

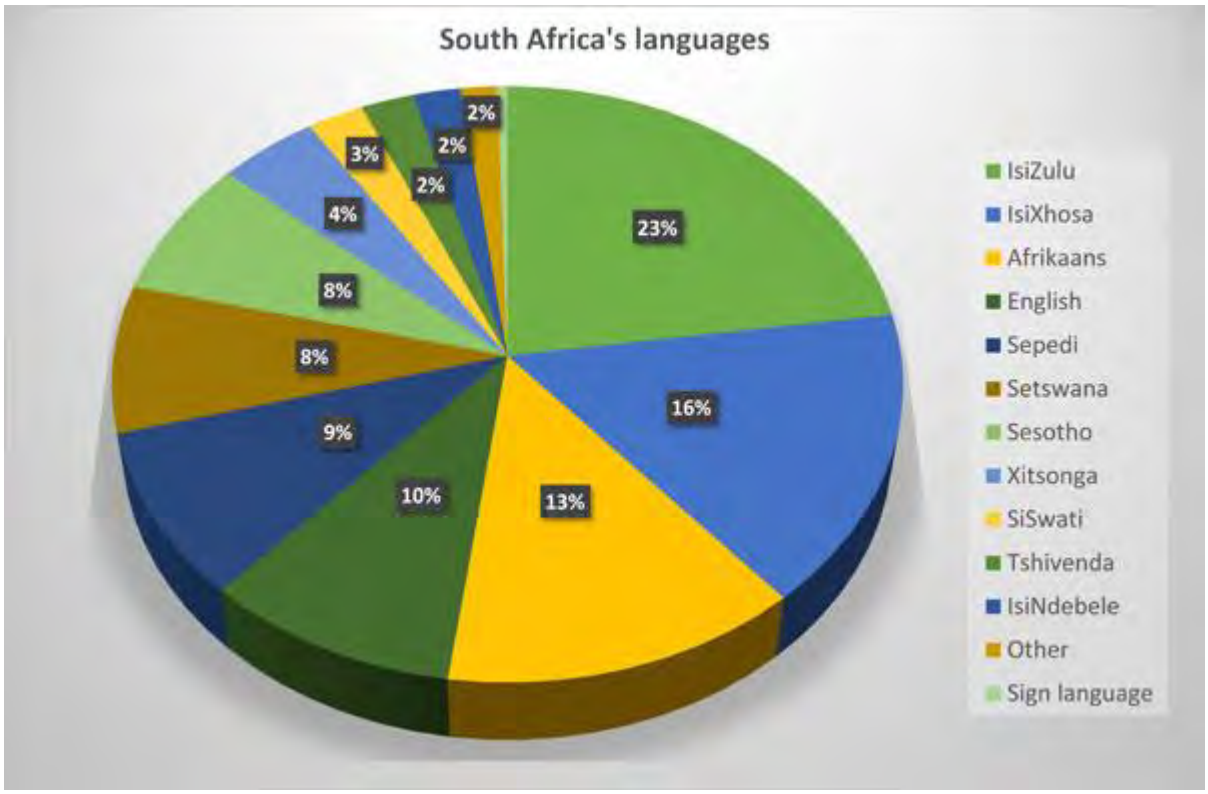
Makoni, Smitherman, Ball, and Spears (2005) echo the South African Constitution discussed below when he argues that in recognising the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages, the state must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of indigenous languages. This does not currently take place in South Africa, twenty-six years into democracy, as lack of implementation of government's language policies by some schools is glaring. The argument is that, to this effect, the government has, however, taken a step by formulating policies – the onus is now on native speakers of these languages to also play their part by ensuring that their languages are promoted by themselves, and by educational institutions they send their children to.

In line with the Constitution of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), the LieP (1997) recognises that our cultural diversity is a valuable asset and hence is tasked, amongst other things, to promote multilingualism, the development of official languages, and respect for all languages used in the country, including South African Sign Language and the languages referred to in the South African Constitution (Parliament's Constitutional Review Committee, 2018).

Following the catastrophic consequences of Bantu Education, the policy is based on the recognition that South Africa is multilingual and that the mother tongue (or Home Language) is the most appropriate language for learning. The addition of a second and third language as part of an additive bi-/multi-lingualism makes provision for a strong proficiency in another language, very often English by default, which is seen to guarantee linguistic and academic success (Heugh, 2002). As per the 1997 LieP, obligatory official languages that are offered include the Home Language (HL) and one First Additional Language (FAL) subject. Foreign languages can be offered at SAL level and do not include official languages. Unfortunately, the narrow implementation of the policy has undermined multilingual education for several reasons, first and foremost because of the early transition to English medium instruction for most African language-speaking students, resulting in poor learning outcomes. Very often, access to languages beyond English and Afrikaans is not guaranteed, meaning that historically inherited horizontal bilingualism (Ferreira-Meyers and Horne, 2017) has to a large degree, been maintained. In short, little has changed in providing upliftment and equity to indigenous African languages at school level.

Statistics of South African languages

South African languages according to percentages of people who speak those languages (Statistics South Africa, 2018)



South African languages according to provinces

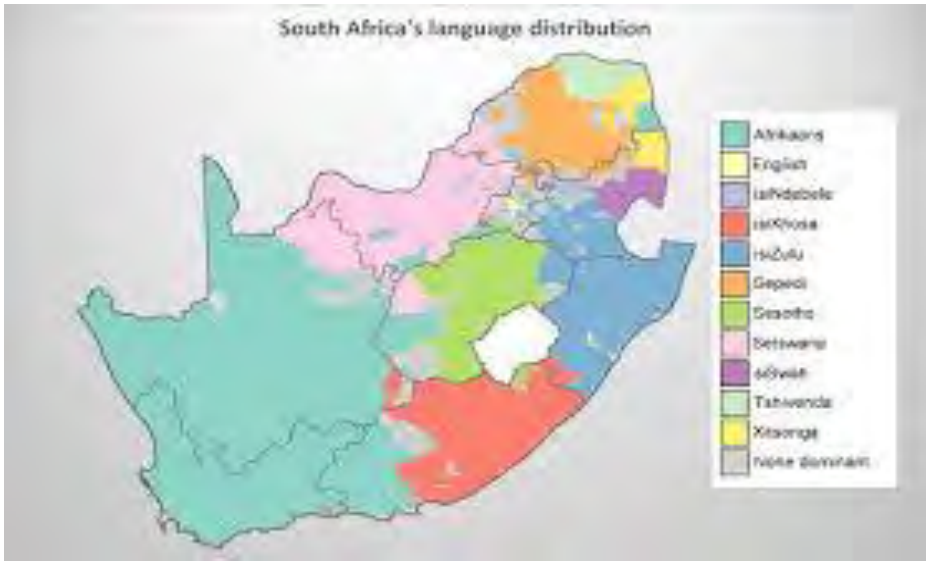


Table 3.1: Percentage of languages spoken by household members inside and outside household by population group, 2018

	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		South Africa	
	Inside	Outside	Inside	Outside	Inside	Outside	Inside	Outside	Inside	Outside
Afrikaans	0,9	1,0	77,4	68,8	1,3	1,5	61,2	37,2	12,2	9,7
English	1,6	8,6	20,1	28,3	92,1	95,8	36,3	61,0	8,1	16,6
IsiNdebele	1,9	1,6	0,0	0,0	0,3	0,2	0,3	0,1	1,6	1,3
IsiXhosa	18,2	15,6	1,1	1,3	0,4	0,0	0,1	0,1	14,8	12,8
IsiZulu	31,1	30,8	0,3	0,3	0,9	1,0	0,5	0,5	25,3	25,1
Khoi, Nama and San languages	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,1
Sepedi	12,4	12,0	0,3	0,2	0,5	0,2	0,1	0,3	10,1	9,7
Sesotho	9,7	9,6	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,3	0,0	0,1	7,9	7,8
Setswana	11,1	11,5	0,7	0,8	0,2	0,2	0,4	0,4	9,1	9,4
Sign Language	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
SiSwati	3,5	3,2	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	2,8	2,6
Tshivenda	3,1	2,7	0,0	0,0	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0	2,5	2,2
Xitsonga	4,4	2,9	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,0	3,6	2,4
Other	2,1	0,5	0,1	0,0	4,0	0,7	1,1	0,5	1,9	0,5
Total Percentage	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0
Total (Thousands)	46 307	46 135	4 961	4 930	1 430	1 426	4 442	4 420	57 143	56 914

South Africa developed several language policies before the adoption of the new LiEP in 1997. The following language policies have been adopted in South Africa over the past years:

• In 1652, after the early settlement of the white people in South Africa, Dutch was adopted as a language of education used to teach the Khoi and San children in the Cape area (Bekker, 1999);

• Between 1806 and 1848 the Cape became a British colony and a policy of Anglicisation was adopted with a view to replacing Dutch with English (Hartshorne, 1992; & Bekker, 1999);

• During the union government in 1910 both Dutch and English were used as official languages (Hartshorne, 1989 & 1992);

• In 1925 Afrikaans replaced Dutch, where both English and Afrikaans became the official languages of the country (Hartshorne, 1989 & 1992);

• In 1948 the government that was led by the National Party followed a mother tongue education policy of separate English and Afrikaans medium schools. This was followed by the Bantu Education Act of 1953 which was implemented in 1955 (Hartshorne, 1989 & 1992). In primary schools, mother tongue instruction was used up to the age of six years followed by the use of English (Mbude-Shale, 2013). Afrikaans was introduced as compulsory MoI alongside English in secondary schools. Learners in secondary schools were forced to write some subjects in English and some in Afrikaans during examinations. The resistance to this enforcement led

to the Soweto uprising in 1976 where students were protesting against the policy (Hartshorne, 1989). They wanted an English only policy in secondary schools. At the end of the 1980s English was the only medium from Grade 5 upwards in the African schooling system (Hartshorne, 1995). In 1990, after the release of Nelson Mandela from prison, a workshop on language matters was held in Harare where the status of English was discussed (Bekker, 1999). The National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) was established in 1990 to provide policy options in all levels of education (Bekker, 1999:10). In addition, the Education and Training Act of 1979 was also amended in 1991 to allow parents to decide on which LoLT they wanted for their children (Bekker, 1999). In 1995, "the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology (DACST) established the Language Plan Task Group (LANGTAG)" to conduct research and advise the Minister about issues surrounding language use in the country (Bekker, 1999:109). The LANGTAG report was announced in 1996. The goal for this report was to facilitate meaningful education by promoting multilingualism, and the elaboration and modernisation of African languages (Alexander, 1997). Following the inception of democracy, the new LiEP was adopted in 1997. After the adoption of the LiEP in 1997, other documents were also provided tackling the issue of language policies in South Africa and in education such as the National Language Policy Framework (DAC, 2003), the South African Languages Act (2012) (PanSALB, 2014), and the Use of Official Language Act (DAC, 2014) as well as the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (DBE, 2011b).

The formulation of the new LiEP in 1997 was informed by the previous LiEPs, the above-mentioned initiatives by the government, the other policy frameworks such as the National Education Policy Act (Act 27 of 1996) and the South African Schools Act (DoE, 1997b). The main aims of the Ministry of Education in formulating the new LiEP are outlined in the LiEP policy document and include, among other things, the promotion of the additive multilingualism approach to language in education.

The LiEP (DoE, 1997b) also makes provisions that learners should learn through the medium of any official language of their choice. It further provides that learners should learn a home language as well as at least one additional language (DoE, 1997b). The LiEP emphasises the maintenance of mother tongues while providing access to the learning of additional languages (DoE, 1997b). The language policy is, therefore, intended to encourage or promote the use of mother tongue alongside other languages of wider communication such as English (Heugh, 2000).

The LiEP is also aimed at negating the disadvantages resulting from any kind of mismatch between home languages and LoLTs and at achieving non-linguistic goals such as building a non-racial nation in South Africa. This policy also seeks to ensure that no one is discriminated against at school by not using their languages as LoLTs or by not offering their languages as subjects. To promote additive multilingualism, the policy requires that learners must pass at least two languages in Grade 12. One of these languages to be passed in Grade 12 should be a home language. The policy provides support for single-medium schools, but it encourages schools to provide for more than one LoLT where the need arises (DoE, 1997b).

Regardless of the problems that may be related to the current LiEP, this policy shows a democratic approach to language in education planning because it is inclusive of all official languages. The main challenge is how the transition to multilingual education in provinces that have different linguistic complexities should be done. Another challenge is that there is no synergy between the current LiEP and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) because in the NCS and CAPS the choice of three languages is never emphasized.

The new LiEP addresses two important language issues, namely, language as a subject of study and language as language of learning and teaching (LoLT).

Languages as subjects

The LiEP (DoE, 1997b) makes the following provisions with regard to languages as subjects:
• All learners shall learn at least one approved language as a subject in Grade 1 and Grade 2.
• From Grade 3 onwards, all learners shall learn their language of learning and teaching and at least one additional approved language as subjects.
• All language subjects shall receive equitable time and resource allocation.
The following promotion requirements apply to language subjects:

1. From Grade 1 to Grade 4 promotion is based on performance in one language and Mathematics.

The linguistic situation in provinces such as Limpopo seems to be more complex in view of the high number of major official languages (i.e. more than five languages are spoken). More on this will be discussed in the following chapter. Another issue is that of transition to English. This is confusing since mother tongue or a native language should ideally be used as LoLT.

2. From Grade 5 onwards one language must be passed.
3. From Grade 10 to 12 two languages must be passed, one on the first level, and the other on at least the second language level. At least one of these languages must be an official language.
4. Subject to national norms and standards as determined by the Minister of Education, the level of achievement required for promotion shall be determined by the provincial education departments.

According to Heugh (2000), the policy is intended to develop the mother tongue of learners, but at the same time to make adequate provision for effective learning of other languages. This implies that the learners must be bilingual with their home language and English at the end. The challenge faced with implementing this policy is the use of several languages as LoLTs rather than the teaching of these languages as subjects of study. In fact, at present, all nine indigenous African languages are offered in most schools as subjects of study, especially where they are regionally based. It is particularly the use of the nine African languages as LoLTs beyond foundation phase that remains a challenge although the LiEP does not emphasise it.

Language of learning and teaching (LoLT)

Furthermore, the LiEP (DoE, 1997b) makes a provision regarding the language of learning and teaching that:
• The language(s) of learning and teaching in a public school must be (an) official language(s). Learners have the right to apply for the provision of the LoLT, taking into consideration issues of practicability.

According to UNESCO (2003b), language of instruction is the language used for teaching the basic curriculum of the educational system. This implies that the LoLT refers to the language of instruction as described by UNESCO.

From these provisions, it is not clear how the new LiEP will promote multilingualism and develop and respect all official languages in South Africa. It is possible that any official language may be used as LoLT. The policy encourages flexibility, equity, freedom of choice and practicability. The issue of the specific languages to be used in education is not discussed anywhere in the policy document. It only states in its preliminary statement that L1 may be used with an addition of an additional language as a subject of study and it further encourages

a structured bilingual approach whereby a two-way immersion programme may be introduced by stating that "… most learners benefit cognitively and emotionally from the type of structured bilingual education found in dual-medium (also known as two-way immersion) programmes" (DoE, 1997b:2). However, Bamgbose (2004:640) writes that "it is unrealistic to expect all languages to be used at all levels of education". According to Heugh (2000), the language policy is intended to enforce the use of mother tongue alongside other languages of wider communication such as English. This is what has become commonly known as additive multilingualism in South Africa.

According to previous research including that of Probyn, Murray, Botha, Botha, Brooks, & Wesphal (2002) and National Centre for Curriculum Research and Development (2000), research shows that the current LiEP has not been implemented as required due to the following reasons:

• the lack of an implementation plan;
• the fact that the current LiEP is overshadowed by the Curriculum 2005 because the LiEP and Curriculum 2005 were nearly introduced at the same time and Curriculum 2005 does not emphasise language learning;
• the perceived need to access English and the assumption that time is a necessary condition for acquisition;
• the perception that African languages have not developed the necessary corpus for academic use;
• a lack of available textbooks to support the extended use of African languages as LoLT;
a lack of capacity for policy formulation by the School Governing Bodies in townships and rural areas; and
• a lack of political will.

Concerning the LiEP, the report (DoE, 2002b) only states the principles and aims of the 1997 LiEP because it indicates that LiEP only recognises cultural diversity and promotes multilingualism in education with respect to South African Sign Language (SASL) and the eleven official languages. The report further states that the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) for basic education provides for all learners from Grade R to Grade 9 to offer at least two languages, one of which must be the LoLT. This encourages multilingualism, diversity and respect for all languages at both national and provincial levels. The provincial departments are therefore obliged to arrange for the strategies to meet the language requirements at the local

level. The provincial departments must also make sure that the SGBs determine concrete language policies.

The report (DoE, 2002b) is silent about strategies for implementing the LiEP and the extent to which it is already implemented. It still lacks a monitoring tool to check with the provincial departments and SGBs as to how far they have gone with policy implementation. Furthermore, the DoE (2003) states that an interdepartmental committee has been established to manage the implementation of the LiEP. The report further states that the Department took steps to implement the LiEP by conducting research in KwaZulu-Natal on improving maths and science educators' language skills.

According to the DBE (2010b), it is important to encourage the use of home languages as LoLTs. It is found by the World Bank (2005) that it is an advantage if a child learns in his/her own language. Some of these advantages include having "increased access, improved learning outcomes, reduced chances of repetition and drop-out rates, and cultural benefits" (DBE, 2010b:29). The findings of this project include the following:

- The majority of learners do not learn in their home language from Grade 4 onwards. English and Afrikaans are the dominant LoLTs after Grade 3;
- Although the number of Afrikaans single medium schools declined over the past decade, there was a corresponding increase in the number of parallel medium schools over this period;
- The number of African single medium schools also has increased. (DBE, 2010b:29).

According to the 2010/2011 Annual Report (DBE, 2011a), there are some achievements regarding the issue of languages. Achievements include the development of the curriculum for the South African Sign Language (SASL) and the appointment of writers. But the implementation in schools has not yet started. On the issue of improving the quality of learning and teaching, a training module for languages across the curriculum was developed; and a language seminar was held, and a report was produced. However, the document is not yet approved, and provinces still have to give inputs. The last aspect on this issue is the issuing of workbooks in all official languages and English First Additional Language (FAL) for Grade R to 6 in all public schools. The project of issuing workbooks has stopped until the finalisation of the subject statements for the new curriculum, namely, Curriculum and Policy Statement (CAPS).

In 1992, Dr Neville Alexander developed the Project for the Study of Alternative Education in South Africa (PRAESA). This is an independent programme which was aimed at dealing with issues around the apartheid education. After 1994 the project started working on language policy in education. Until recently it focused on issues around the implementation of the LiEP. It works on areas of language planning and policy, in-service teacher education, developmental research into multilingual classrooms, early literacy, dual-medium primary schooling, and language surveys, as well as generating publications and learning support material. Hence, many research projects are undertaken in the fields mentioned above and pilot studies are also introduced in the schools of the Eastern Cape and Western Cape Provinces.

Presently, according to Bloch (2002), PRAESA is a programme which emphasises learning through the medium of isiXhosa and English. It focuses on learning how to read and write in both languages in early education (Bloch, 2002). Bloch (2002) further states that this programme developed the love of reading and story demonstrating by children and developed fluency in both languages. This achievement illustrates how successful the programme is in the Western Cape Province. In conclusion, it is clear from the reports that the issue of implementing the LiEP is still debatable. There is no strategy yet to implement this additive multilingualism policy. Reports also show that the DBE lacks a framework that will guide it through the implementation process.

Indeed, the policy does put forward a 'two silos' approach to classroom language, where 'home language' can be used for occasional explanatory purpose, while the 'language of learning or teaching' (or LoLT) should predominate. In this case, the teacher assumes that they are supposed to focus on using monoglossic English as the LoLT and only use isiXhosa in cases where learners do not understand, even though learners' Standard English language competence is very limited indeed and the teacher is not a fluent user of Standard English themselves. The excerpt shows, however, that the classroom register is heteroglossic or translingual. The teachers' languaging is fluid, sometimes leaning more towards English, then again more towards isiXhosa and often mixing them. We have titled this discourse pattern 'complementary translanguaging', as isiXhosa is not used to translate what was being said in English or vice versa, just as in the example from Blackledge and Creese's (2010) study, but resources commonly associated with the different languages complement each other (Bloch, 2002).

Those responsible for drawing up language policies and curricula must be aware of what scholar Richard Ruiz (1984) said, who spearheaded a revitalisation of indigenous South American languages, calling for the orientation of language planning. Orientation, Ruiz says, refers to a complex of disposition toward language and its role, and toward languages and their role in society. There are three orientations: language as a problem, language as a right and language as a resource (Ruiz, 1984). Part of South Africa's challenge is that language, and multilingualism, is generally seen as a problem rather than as a rich resource. Several other African countries view their indigenous languages as resources: Kiswahili in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda and Afan-Oromo in Ethiopia are all good examples of this (Wolff, 2017) Some small corners of South Africa are getting it right, isiXhosa is used to teach maths and science in the Cofimvaba district of the Eastern Cape (Mbude, 2020).

The present *Language in Education Policy* provides for languages to be offered as language(s) of learning and teaching, and subject(s). The powers of determining a school language policy are vested with the School Governing Body subject to the provisions of the Constitution, the South African Schools Act and any applicable provincial law. According to Kaschula and Docrat (2018), the country does not need a single central language policy, as is currently the case. Policies should be drafted and enacted at provincial and localised levels instead. South Africa has nine provinces, and their majority languages differ. That is why a "one size fits all" central language policy is not working. Each province's dominant African language should be promoted equally alongside English and Afrikaans. There is also a need for ordinary South Africans to find their voice in fighting for multilingualism. Language activists must work together with bodies like Pan South African Language Board, the National Language Services (which is part of the Department of Arts and Culture), NGO's, schools, universities and the media to create multilingual awareness. This will help people to see language as a rich natural resource. Kaschula and Docrat (2018) further say that there is a need for the emergence of a united and transformed multilingual voice, where South Africa is seen as a country for speakers of all official languages rather than an English-only elite.

The Incremental Introduction of African Languages (IIAL) requires all learners to take an African language at First Additional Language level. This effectively means that all schools should have an African language teacher. The post provisioning norm to promote African languages will differ from one province to the other. It would be simpler in provinces with few official languages and more complex in those with more official languages. The same applies

to the rural and urban (cosmopolitan) situation. It is expected that in a rural situation only one African language will be selected as a subject at FAL level. But in an urban or cosmopolitan area more than one African language can be selected for this purpose. Based on the demographics of the school population and considering the "language majority" of the learners, schools will select their languages of choice to represent that majority. Staffing to meet this need can be achieved by using different models. The most ideal situation is to provide all schools with African language(s) teacher(s). Depending on the school context, this might mean a provision of one or more African language(s) teacher(s).

The South African Constitution recognises languages as one of the seven founding provisions. Section 6 of the Constitution states the following:

- (1) The official languages of the Republic are Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu.
- (2) Recognizing the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages of our people, the state must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages.

The analysis of the Annual National Assessment (Report on the ANA, 2014) results have indicated that even in those schools where a learner is not being taught in their home language, that learner is able to access learning using his or her home language, but not proficiently. Currently many schools are still not affording learners the opportunity to learn an African language, and not fulfilling the Constitutional mandate. In my opinion, if African languages are not shown to have utility for teaching and learning, it is likely that these languages will be lost – together with culture and heritage.

2.3 Acculturation as an effect of IIAL

One of the main aims of the introduction of the incremental indigenous African languages proposal is to promote multilingualism as an important tool for social cohesion and for individual development in terms of academic achievement. The introduction of IIAL can also assist in the understanding of enculturation/acculturation. Enculturation is the process by which people learn the requirements of their surrounding culture and acquire values and behaviours appropriate or necessary in that culture (Grusec *et al*, 2007). It also refers to the process of

learning our own (native) culture, whereas, acculturation is the process of learning and adopting host cultural norms, values and beliefs. Learning native cultural norms of a particular society are essential for an individual, to function in a society. As part of this process, the influences that limit, direct, or shape the individual (deliberately or not) include parents, other adults, and peers. If successful, enculturation results in competence in language, values, and rituals of the culture. Enculturation is related to socialization. In some academic fields, socialization refers to the deliberate shaping of individuals. In others, the word may cover both deliberate and informal enculturation.

Enculturation is sometimes referred to as acculturation, a word recently used to more distinctively refer only to exchanges of cultural features with foreign cultures (Kottak, 2008). The base word of acculturation is culture. Acculturation explains the process of cultural and psychological change that results following a meeting between cultures. According to Berry and Sam (2006) acculturation refers to changes in behaviour and attitudes through contact between individuals from different cultural backgrounds. Acculturation is a multifaceted construct that distinguishes between acculturation orientations, acculturation outcomes, and conditions of acculturation (Arends-Toth and Van der Vijver, 2006). Enculturation is an anthropological term used for socialization, both terms refer to, the process of learning through social interaction. However, the term enculturation is only confined to culture. Whereas, socialization refers to each and every social interaction of an individual with other people of a society. If people adopt those learned values of the other culture and modify their own culture, it will fall under the category of acculturation.

On the other hand, adopting foreign culture or other cultural norms and values is known as acculturation. In this new technological era people can interact with other people living thousands of miles away from them. Due to social interaction through technology and with mass media, people learn new values. According to García-Vázquez (1995), studies conducted on acculturation have focused on defining, conceptualizing, operationalizing and measuring acculturation (Graves, 1967; Matthiasson, 1968; Olmedo, 1980; Poggle, 1973; Szapocznik, Scopetta, Kurtines, & de los Angeles, 1978). While many definitions have been given for acculturation, Redfield, Lenton and Herskovits' (1936) definition has become most commonly used among researchers. Acculturation is a process which occurs as the result of first-hand contact between autonomous groups leading to changes in the original cultures of either or both

cultures. In essence, acculturation is a way to describe the adaptation process of diverse individuals to the dominant culture.

García-Vázquez (1995) is of the view that, the process of acculturation results in direct lifestyle changes at the individual or group level and is developed in three phases: contact, conflict and adaptation (Padilla, 1980). Contact occurs when two or more autonomous cultural groups interact (Mena, Padilla, & Maldonado, 1987). In the educational setting contact occurs when children from different backgrounds, African and African-European or Caucasian and others enter school.

South African children who were born after the 1994 elections have had much more direct exposure than previously to other cultures in the school situation due to schools becoming more culturally diverse. In such multi-cultural schools where teenagers are exposed to language of other learners, there will inevitably be cross-pollination of cultural identity during the process of learning about one another's language. In 1994 the new democratic government brought with it a desegregated national education system that resulted in an influx of large numbers of black learners into formerly white schools, whether in urban or rural areas. These schools became thus the sites of cultural convergence - where diverse and previously divided cultures met for the first time, on supposedly common ground. According to Meier (2005), some of the black learners who were integrated into formerly white schools found it difficult to adjust to the new educational environment because they lacked the language skills and required background to deal with the curriculum content and medium of instruction (Afrikaans and/or English) whilst white educators, representing the majority of the staff complement (Kivedo, 2008), are often not motivated because they lack the culturally diverse teaching skills, the Africanisation of learning content and strategies in the management of overcrowding in classrooms. In concurrence with the latter, national and local media frequently report on aspects relating to culturally diverse learning environments and how it coincides with numerous challenges (racial conflict amongst learners; cultural misunderstandings, negativity, confusion and low morale amongst educators) facing schools in rural communities.

According to Khosa (2001), after the 1994 South African elections, all schools were open to all children. This led to a process of black flight from schools located in black residential areas to those within white residential areas. This flight was, however, only unidirectional. The influx of black learners to previously exclusively white schools led to the emergence of diverse races,

cultures and religions in schools – a phenomenon for which educators had not been trained or prepared. The problem of de-racialisation and integration was exacerbated by the education policy prior to 1994. The apartheid education policy was aimed at brain-washing all races into believing that everything about blacks was barbaric and inferior and vice versa. Soudien (2001) records the availability of very little research work done in post- apartheid South Africa on how learners are coping within their new settings, and how they are dealing with integration at predominantly white schools. Furthermore, he argues that there seems to be a limited understanding of the complex relationship between school and identity and that this complexity applies both to the apartheid and post-apartheid period. In South Africa, the pre-apartheid education systems have openly marginalised African indigenous knowledge. In post-Apartheid society emerging debates/discourses are enhanced by bringing indigenous knowledge systems into focus as a legitimate field of academic enquiry (Mkabela, 2005). The Afrocentric paradigm attempts to locate research from an African viewpoint and it is an attempt to create Africa's own intellectual perspective – it focuses on Africa as the cultural centre for the study of African experiences. The paradigm aims to interpret research data from an African perspective (Asante & Asante, 1995). Africanisation is closely related to the Afrocentric paradigm. Teffo (1996) describes Africanisation as: "the process of inseminating African value systems, concepts and moral ethics into all our human activities. The true search for an African identity, the recognition of the environment in which that identity is sought, become a concept that enables blacks and whites alike, to conceptualise and articulate Africa as the motherland. This ought to be done to affirm our being, personhood and nationhood."

Acculturation in multicultural and multiracial schools is constantly taking place on a daily basis. It is my opinion based on observations in the former Model-C schools in my district where there are different ethnic groups which include Basotho, amaXhosa, amaHlubi, Coloureds and Afrikaners There is an indication that learners are subtly influenced by other cultures and languages in their community or schools and that acculturation is constantly taking place. Taking this point further, acculturation continually takes place among African learners from diverse cultural backgrounds and across other races like Whites, Indians and Coloureds in these schools.

Culture is the characteristics and knowledge of a particular group of people, encompassing language, religion, cuisine, social habits, music and arts (Zimmermann, 2017). This means acculturation has to do with individuals or groups of people transitioning from living a lifestyle

of their own culture to moving into a lifestyle of another culture. They must acculturate, or come to adapt to the new culture's behaviours, values, customs and language (Gudykunst & Kim, 2003). This is a recent development, as acculturation in some literatures has the same meaning as enculturation. When two cultures mix together, there can be exchanges in beliefs, customs, traditions, clothing styles, food types etc. In fact, Schumann (1978) proposed that language is the largest factor in successful acculturation. Sometimes the process of acculturation does not necessarily include learning a new language, but instead includes learning the meaning of certain words or adjusting to the local dialect.

The effects of acculturation can be seen at multiple levels in both interacting cultures. At the group level, acculturation often results in changes to culture, customs, and social institutions. Noticeable group level effects of acculturation often include changes in food, clothing and language. At the individual level, differences in the way individuals acculturate have been shown to be associated not just with changes in daily behaviour, but with the numerous measures of psychological and physical well-being. As enculturation is described as the process of first-culture learning, acculturation can be thought of as second culture learning (Zondervan, 1988).

One of the major causes of acculturation is migration. This is the world in motion. Throughout human history, people have been on the move, and migration and acculturation have been facts of the human condition ever since peoples of the African savannah radiated outward in their treks to new lands (Cann, Stoneking, & Wilson, 1997; Jin et al., 1999; Stringer, 1988). The migration of Europeans, Asians, Americans and others to Africa have propelled acculturation in many ways. It comes as little surprise, then, that migration and acculturation are global concerns in our own time. Everywhere one looks, the numbers of foreign nationals are increasing. Most contemporary societies are far from culturally homogenous, but entertain socio-political conditions associated with such vibrant emigration and immigration. Migration is consequently one of the defining issues of the 21st century and currently forms an essential feature of the social and economic life virtually in every contemporary nation state (Bornstein, 2007).

Acculturation transpires at both individual and societal levels. At the societal level, acculturation involves changes in societal structures, service institutions, and cultural practices. At the individual level, acculturation involves changes in person's customs, habits, activities,

language and values. Immigrants face multiple challenges in acculturation within a dominant or existing society, retaining or surrendering beliefs and behaviours from their culture of origin while eschewing or adopting those from their culture of destination. Thus, acculturation is a complex phenomenon comprising multiple processes and it is rightly thought of as an instance of the most thoroughgoing sort of individual disorganization and reorganization. According to Schartz et. al., (2010) immigrants may convert overnight from membership in the majority group in their culture of origin to membership of the minority group in their culture of destination. This process has been observed within the researched schooling system that forms part of this thesis.

2.4 Translanguaging as an effect of IIAL

Another effect of the Incremental Introduction of African languages (IIAL) is translanguaging. IIAL might not be properly employed without the use of translanguaging to enhance multilingualism. This is because learner's home languages are not the same in a multi-ethnic classroom. This seeks to suggest that translanguaging can be used as a vehicle to drive multilingualism.

Translanguaging is a concept that came about in the 1920s because of the struggle against English hegemony in Wales, in which Welsh was threatened, and to counter argue the fallacy that held that bilingualism caused mental confusion (Baker, et al., 2012). The concept is attributed to Williams (García, et al., 2006; Baker, et al., 2012; Hornberger & Link, 2012), and refers to a pedagogical practice in a multilingual classroom in which a learner receives input in one language and gives output in a different language. Translanguaging is a spontaneous practice among multilinguals in which the interlocutors subconsciously switch the modes of input and output during the communication process. In other words, it is a process in which one receives a message in one mode of communication and, in return, interprets, actions or responds in another. Translanguaging has been broadened to include multiple discursive language practices (García, 2009) including technology (Vogel, et al., 2018) as a multilingual person engages to make sense of the world and to formulate and express thoughts.

Translanguaging is the dynamic process whereby multilingual language users mediate complex social and cognitive activities through strategic employment of multiple semiotic resources to act, to know and be (Garcia and Li Wei, 2014). According to Lewis et al. (2012), translanguaging has been used in Wales since the 1980s. The term was first coined in Welsh "trawsieithu" by Williams and Whittall and translated to English first as "translinguifying" and

later as "translanguaging." It refers to a pedagogical practice that alternates the use of Welsh and English for input and output in the same lesson. Williams (1994) define it as "the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system" (Canagarajah 2011:401).

According to Williams (2002), the pedagogical practice of translanguaging works both ways, from Welsh to English as well as from English into Welsh. As Lewis et al. (2012) explain, "translanguaging" uses the stronger language to develop the weaker one, and in this way, it implies a deep understanding of meaning and can result in increased proficiency in the two languages. Lewis et al. (2012) explain the pedagogic and cognitive foundations of translanguaging, and according to Williams' (1996) "the process of translanguaging uses various cognitive processing skills in listening and reading, the assimilation and accommodation of information, choosing and selecting from the brain storage to communicate in speaking and writing. Thus, translanguaging requires a deeper understanding than just translating as it moves from finding parallel words to processing and relaying meaning and understanding."

According to Lewis et al. (2012), translanguaging emerged in a historical context in the 1980s in which the idea of holistic additive Welsh-English bilingualism was being developed after many years of separate monolingualism in Welsh and English. The concept of translanguaging brings Welsh and English together so that they can reinforce each other, and by doing so, it shares some aspects with the holistic proposals of bilingualism made by Grosjean (1985) and Cook (1992). Canagarajah (supra) also referred to it as a pedagogical practice where students' alternate languages for the purposes of reading and writing. Many authors use translanguaging as a conceptual tool to better understand the language practices of multilinguals and the teaching strategies that must accompany those practices. According to Wolff (2018), the nowadays widely current term translanguaging is most frequently related to the works of Ofelia Garcia (e.g., Garcia and Li Wei, 2014) and serves to describe actual fluid language practices of multilingual individuals, in particular in a pedagogical perspective on bilingual education. García (2009:45) defines translanguaging as "multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds."

As García and Li Wei (2014:22) explain, translanguaging is different from code-switching because bilingual speakers construct complex discursive practices by using their complete language repertoire, and these practices cannot be easily assigned to one language or another.

Translanguaging has been associated with the development of multilingual identities. Creese and Blackledge (2010) distinguish "separate bilingualism" from "flexible bilingualism"; the latter places the speaker at the heart of the interaction and views languages as a social resource without clear boundaries. The concept of translanguaging has become quite popular but its meaning is not unitary. Nowadays translanguaging is an umbrella term. It can refer to pedagogical strategies used to learn languages based on the learners' whole linguistic repertoire. It can also refer to spontaneous multilingual practices and to the way those practices can be used in a pedagogical way (see also Gort, 2015). In any case, translanguaging implies that there are no hard boundaries between languages. The concept of translanguaging is dynamic and implies activity rather than the interaction of closed systems. The understanding of translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy is in some cases closer to the origin of the concept coined by Williams for bilingual education in Wales, and in other cases, it is closer to the extension of the term proposed by García (2009). Translanguaging is much broader than the pedagogical strategies that are described in the rest of this section as it can also be seen in García and Wei (2014).

In comparison with earlier terminology related to language contact phenomena, such as borrowing, codeswitching, language interference, etc., it is said to involve an epistemological shift of focus from "an external view of language" towards global migration in terms of movements of people reflecting more ethnicities, languages and countries of origin. As a new contemporary word, the term has been picked up since then by various social sciences including sociolinguistics, simultaneously widening its original restricted focus on the United Kingdom and Europe to a global application. According to Grosjean, (2016) translanguaging is more than going across languages; it is going beyond named languages and taking the internal view of the speaker's language use. Translanguaging is not code-switching. Translanguaging differs from the notion of code-switching in that it refers not simply to a shift or a shuttle between two languages, but to the speakers' construction and use of original and complex interrelated discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or another traditional definition of language, but that make up the speakers' complete language repertoire (García and Wei, 2014).

Literature on code-switching assumes that the languages of multilinguals are separate monolingual codes that could be used without reference to each other (Canagarajah, 2011). Instead, translanguaging posits that multilinguals have one linguistic repertoire from which they select features strategically to communicate effectively. According to Garcia (2012) translanguaging takes as its starting point the ways in which language is used by multilingual

people as the norm, and not the abstract language of monolinguals, as described by traditional usage books and grammars.

In his paper, Felix Banda (DUT 3rd Annual Academic Literacies Symposium, 2017), put emphasis that the conceptualisations of language/multilingualism as a social practice and multimodal and transmedia literacies results in translanguaging as pedagogic discourse (Williams, 1996; García, 2009; García, 2014; García and Wei, 2014). Banda (ibid) defers to 'translanguaging' rather than 'code-switching.' First, translanguaging has been theorized as "the purposeful pedagogical alternation of languages in spoken and written, receptive and productive modes" (Hornberger and Link, 2012:262). The purposive nature of the practice means teachers and learners use their extended linguistic repertoire as normal classroom practice free of retributions. Second, Banda (ibid) sees translanguaging as a novel approach quite different from the monolingual/monoglot biased code-switching. In this regard, it is informative as Hornberger and Link (2012:263) state that code-switching "tended to focus on issues of language interference, transfer or borrowing." García (2009:51) states however that "translanguaging 'shifts the lens from cross-linguistic influence' to how multilinguals 'intermingle linguistic features that have hereto been administratively or linguistically assigned to a particular language or language variety.'" The work of García (2009; 2014), García and Wei (2014) and Canagarajah (2001) in particular, on Tamil-English bilingual learners has shown how learners transcend the limitations imposed by the Tamil only and English only ideology through strategic translanguaging. Canagarajah (2001:210) concludes that the learners were able to gain "sufficient agency … [to enable] them to resist policies that contribute to symbolic domination." Translanguaging can then be used as a pedagogical tool in multilingual classrooms to bridge communication in nuanced ways and bring about a more humanising experience for both learners and teachers. Translanguaging as a structured metacognitive language process enables epistemological access (Heugh, 2015) and the crafting of sociocultural identities (García and Wei, 2015).

Translanguaging as a pedagogy describes planned and systematic use of two or more languages for teaching and learning, which recognises ways in which learners alternate and blend languages, using the repertoires available to them, for learning and meaning making. Translanguaging can also be used spontaneously outside the classroom. In the true sense, it discourages the dominance of one language over another (it discourages the dominance of English and Afrikaans in the South African context). Translanguaging is recognised as having

pedagogic value in bilingual classrooms where children benefit from the flexible, combined and separate use of languages, according to learning task and context (Creese and Blackledge, 2010). Various models through which translanguaging could be viewed and incorporated as a pedagogy have been suggested.

These include Hornberger's continua of biliteracy (Hornberger and Link, 2012) and Makalela's Ubuntu Translanguaging (Makalela, 2016) models. The Continua of Biliteracy lens posits that learning occurs along and across continua. The lens provides the focal points in the continua at which one's knowledge and use of different language varieties and literacies meet. In a learning environment, biliteracy develops along reciprocal intersections between the various languages that exist in the learners' repertoire, and the various semiotic means by which they acquire and express the same. The continua enable one to see how possible it is for infinite, elusive, unpredictable, interrelated and simultaneous opportunities for literacy to develop within the continua, taking into account various contexts, content, linguistic and literacy repertoires that learners bring to the learning environment. Research has often assumed that literacy acquisition occurs in a linear and sequential way (Cummins, 2005), ignoring numerous possibilities of crisscrossing, backtracking, and simultaneity in the process. According to Hornberger and Link (2012) "the continua of biliteracy lens reminds educators that the more students' contexts of language and literacy use allow them to draw from across the whole of each and every continuum, the greater are the chances for their full language and literacy development and expression." At the centre of the continua of biliteracy are multilingualism as a resource, and translanguaging as a vehicle through which biliteracy can be achieved. Makalela (2016) proposes a model in which an African value system of interdependence, ubuntu, is the framework for translanguaging. The model is introduced through a scenario about international trade and co-existence of numerous language groups in the Limpopo Valley to show the notion of confluence between African multilingualism. It shows how confluent, fluid and porous languages have become and questions the relevance of the separatist orientation towards language education and literacy development in the 21st century. The ubuntu lens fits well as a pedagogical strategy in a multilingual context since, in an African context for example, one language is not enough to complete the cycle of meaning-making. This, therefore, explains why "the notion of translanguaging fits in to account for complex multilingual encounters where speakers use more than one language for exchange of input and output" (Makalela, 2016:190).

The term translanguaging can easily be confused with code-mixing or code-switching (MacSwan, 2017). It is understandable though since translanguaging is a new concept and is related to code-switching in a number of ways, among which is that the two disrupt the traditional isolation of languages in language teaching and learning (García and Lin, 2016). Code-switching, on the one hand, is understood to refer to switching or mixing languages - going back and forth from one language to another – by a speaker within a single utterance or conversation (García and Lin, 2016). In other words, the speaker switches between different languages. Translanguaging, on the other hand, posits that bilinguals have a single integrated linguistic repertoire from which they strategically draw appropriate features to communicate effectively.

Code-switching differs from translanguaging in that the former assumes that the linguistic repertoire of a multilingual person comprises multiple separate language systems between which the speaker switches to express a thought. In code-switching, it is often assumed that each language possesses and preserves its own structure, autonomy, and separate identity (Lee and Canagarajah, 2018) There is usually a primary or host language and one or more guest languages between which the switching occurs. Therefore, the notion that code-switching is different from translanguaging is based predominantly on whether a multilingual individual has internally differentiated linguistic systems (MacSwan, 2017) or a single integrated linguistic system (Otheguy, Garcia and Reid, 2015). As a pedagogical approach, the teacher often code switches by switching from the prescribed official language of teaching to another language or the learners' home language and back again (Probyn, 2015). Codeswitching often leaves teachers feeling guilty when they switch to 'illegitimate' languages in contexts where monolingual expectations of language separation prevail (Fielding, 2016; Probyn, 2009). Unlike code-switching, translanguaging as a pedagogical approach is a result of deliberate alternation of languages of input and output between the teacher and the learners in order to optimise understanding. In essence, translanguaging may be regarded as a pedagogy that affords learners the opportunity to formulate and share ideas using a tapestry of vocabulary in their entire linguistic repertoire. It allows a space for multilingual language learners to apply different dimensions of their experiences and linguistic knowledge into one coordinated and meaningful performance.

Translanguaging might also be confused with translation (see, for instance, Caruso, 2018). Translanguaging differs from translation in that the former is proactive while the latter is

reactive. In other words, translation entails reiterating what has been said albeit in a different language; whereas, translanguaging is a proactive process - a planned initiative that alternates the input and output languages. Unlike translation, translanguaging is intended not only to scaffold instruction and to make sense of the language of communication, but to allow multilinguals to optimally utilize their broad linguistic repertoire, and to function in the standardized academic languages required in schools (García and Sylvan, 2011). While translanguaging is the concurrent use of two languages, translation is more about language separation, scaffolding, and working mainly in the stronger language (Lewis, et al., 2012). In other words, as it is the case with code-switching, translation treats the translator's repertoire as comprising separate linguistic dialects, while translanguaging treats the interlocutor's repertoire as one idiolect that is readily available to decipher or express thoughts.

As much as translanguaging and translation are different, there is some relationship between the two in that translanguaging includes translation. The two are similar in that they attempt to aid bilinguals to make sense and to actively participate in the communication process. However, one might be lost in translation and confusion might ensue when words are simply transposed from one language to the other. In her study, for instance, Caruso (2018) provides that the process of learning content using several languages may lead to confusion in terminology.

Translanguaging differs from theories of language acquisition in that it recognises the various linguistic varieties a learner has acquired as a single repertoire which a learner utilises to communicate. Unlike the linguistic interdependence hypothesis which claims that the successful development of a second language at school depends on L1-L2 transfer (Cummins, 2005), translanguaging advocates for the simultaneous use of the learners' tapestry of languages to acquire, construct and communicate knowledge. The linguistic hypothesis assumes a linear approach to language development – a skill has to be obtained in one language first and then transferred to another at a later stage. Furthermore, this hypothesis seems to engage a monoglossic approach to language acquisition in that it treats the languages in a learner's repertoire as separate and unrelated entities. In essence, this hypothesis does not appear to cater for common underlying proficiencies that aid abilities across languages, which might allow for simultaneous development in two or more languages.

Translanguaging is a spontaneous practice among multilinguals but, as a pedagogical approach, the practice deliberately switches the modes of input and output in a well-planned and organised manner to mediate information processing (Lewis, Jones, and Baker. 2012). It emphasizes the dynamic use of multiple means of expression to clearly express thoughts and, in a school environment, to enhance learning and make schools more welcoming environments for multilingual learners and communities. Contrarily, the current practice regarding the language of assessment requires a test taker to respond to the assessment instructions in a prescribed language of assessment. While learners can attempt to express their thoughts in the language, the prescribed use of a specified dialect tends to cloud the assessed abilities as multilingual test takers often have a hard time expressing themselves clearly when they are made to forgo their idiolect (DBE, 2011b). This hinders academic success of multilingual learners at elementary grades since they lack enough vocabulary to express thoughts. Translanguaging promotes a literacy acquisition process in which all languages are understood to be resources that can be accessed and invoked strategically to accelerate the acquisition process and encourage maximum participation on the part of the learners (Hopewell, 2011).

In a classroom, translanguaging is a teacher planned alternation of receptive and productive modes of communication aimed at enhancing learners' cognitive and comprehension skills (Baker, et al., 2012). However, translanguaging can also be learner driven in instances where learners work independently of the teacher. For instance, when working together in a group, they often use their home languages and other means of meaning-making relevant to them as peers. Translanguaging, in this regard, becomes the process by which a multilingual learner accesses and utilises the lexicosemantic knowledge from the tapestry of languages in their repertoire to formulate and clearly express a thought. Therefore, translanguaging aids meaning making in class by providing room for two or more languages to be utilised in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner.

Translanguaging also enables learners to overcome the 'home language' fallacy. While various education systems in multilingual communities assume that learners can speak or, at the least understand, the language offered as a home language when they start their first grade, research shows that learners in many countries speak a different language at home from the one they are taught and tested in at school. In their study in which they sought to examine a mismatch between teaching practices and the provisions of educational policy in a multilingual primary school in Khayelitsha, Krause and Prinsloo (2016) observe that the isiXhosa that is spoken by

learners at home differs considerably from the standard isiXhosa home language the learners are taught and tested in at school. Thus, translanguaging provides for effective communication between speakers of allegedly different but intelligibly inexclusive languages in which the focus will be on meaning-making between the interlocutors instead of the diminutive discrete features of their languages. In this regard, translanguaging also enables the would-be disadvantaged learners to learn the school language and catch up quicker with regards to the school culture from their peers.

This term, as alluded to before has its origins in bilingual education in Wales, where it was first used to describe the planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning within the same lesson (Lewis et al. 2012a; 2012b). The use of this term signifies a step away from bilingual pedagogies that aim to keep languages separate, to recognition of the value of the fluid and overlapping use of two or more languages in the classroom to support learning (Cummins, 2007; Garcia and Wei, Li 2013). Translanguaging takes the position that language is action and practice, and not a simple system of structures or discreet sets of skills. That is why translanguaging uses an –ing form, emphasizing the cognitive action and practice of languaging multilingually. Translanguaging refers to both the discourse practices of bilinguals, as well as to pedagogical practices that use the entire complex linguistic repertoire of bilingual students flexibly in order to teach rigorous content and develop language practices for academic use. Translanguaging, coupled with culturally relevant pedagogy and multicultural education, is a form of social justice. These pedagogies are transformative because they help highlight the strengths of the linguistic repertoires that the children bring to the classroom, while still building on new language practices. It also provides an opportunity for instructors to work with families as co-learners, helping to bring light to varying family dynamics, social systems, and socio-political issues impacting children in their households.

The term translanguaging is among many terms associated with bi-/multilingual education. The term is understood differently by different scholars with some confusion with other related concepts. For instance, Childs (2016) notes that while translanguaging, like codeswitching and translation, fits within work on multilingualism it is, however, not the same as the other two concepts. Childs (2016) argues that the distinction is evident in that codeswitching and translation are responsive, while translanguaging is a planned teaching strategy. The confusion can be attributed to the fact that translanguaging is a new and developing term (Lewis, Jones

and Baker 2012) that serves to fill a gap in the description of language practices in multilingual educational settings (Mazak, 2016). It then becomes imperative to clarify what translanguaging entails. In this respect, Velasco and García (2014) assert that translanguaging is not about the usage of separate languages in education. Rather, it is 'the flexible and meaningful actions through which bilinguals select features in their linguistic repertoire in order to communicate appropriately' (Velasco and García, 2014:7). An example could be when students are required to extract the main ideas in a text by drawing from their entire language repertoire to demonstrate what they know and can do with any language rather than within the confines of a defined medium of instruction (García, in Grosjean, 2016; García and Wei, 2014; Otheguy, García and Reid, 2015). This could include students receiving information in one language and reproducing it in another language (Mazak, 2016, citing Baker, 2006), such as when they read in English and write a summary in an African language.

A teacher that adopts this approach, particularly in a context where the students' first language is not the medium of instruction, engages in a democratic endeavour for social justice because they do not undermine the students' right to learn in a language of their choice or that with which they are most familiar (Velasco and García, 2014, citing García, 2013). The definition of translanguaging by García suggests the emancipatory nature of this practice and its facility to disrupt the power imbalances of languages. Translanguaging in education can be defined as a process by which students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices that include all the language practices of students in order to develop new language practices and sustain old ones, communicate and appropriate knowledge, and give voice to new socio-political realities by interrogating linguistic inequality

For instance, in the home of a bilingual family, you will notice that many language practices are used. Sometimes the children are speaking one language and the parents another, even to each other. Often both languages are used to include friends and family members who may not speak one language or the other, and to engage all. Translanguaging is not code-switching. "Translanguaging differs from the notion of code-switching in that it refers not simply to a shift or a shuttle between two languages, but to the speakers' construction and use of original and complex interrelated discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or another traditional definition of language, but that make up the speakers' complete language repertoire." (García and Wei, 2014). The academic literature on code-switching assumes that the two languages of bilinguals are two separate monolingual codes that could be used without reference to each other. Instead, translanguaging posits that bilinguals have one linguistic

repertoire from which they select features strategically to communicate effectively. That is, translanguaging takes as its starting point the ways in which language is used by bilingual people as the norm, and not the abstract language of monolinguals, as described by traditional usage books and grammars.

The term translanguaging is a relatively recent one used in line with code-switching in the literature. Translanguaging is like code-switching in that it refers to multilingual speakers' shuttling between languages in a natural manner. However, it started as a pedagogical practice, where the language mode of input and output in Welsh bilingual classrooms was deliberately switched (Williams, 2002). Through strategic classroom language planning that combines two or more languages in a systematic way within the same learning activity, translanguaging seeks to assist multilingual speakers in making meaning, shaping experiences, and gaining deeper understandings and knowledge of the languages in use and even of the content that is being taught (Cenoz and Gorter, 2011; Lewis, Jones, and Baker, 2012; Williams, 2002). García (2009) extended the scope of translanguaging to refer to processes that involve multiple discursive practices, where students incorporate the language practices of school into their own linguistic repertoire freely and flexibly. The act of translanguaging is expected to create a social space for multilingual speakers "by bringing together different dimensions of their personal history, experience and environment, their attitudes, beliefs and performance" (Wei, 2011:1223). The languages are, thus, utilized flexibly and strategically so that classroom participants can experience and benefit from the permeability of learning across languages. This allows the participants to be free from undergoing language separation or coping with sociolinguistic matters, such as language power and identity, which frequently affect the performance of speakers of minority languages in typical monolingual classrooms (García, 2009).

As pointed out above, translanguaging can serve as pedagogy. Translanguaging as pedagogy means that the teacher is aware that the linguistic repertoire of the students goes beyond that of the language practices in the classroom, and that they tap into that repertoire flexibly and actively to educate. Translanguaging as pedagogy refers to any instance in which the learners' home language practices are used to leverage learning. In some cases, the teacher plans those translanguaging spaces actively and supports them through teacher-led specific activities. In other cases, the teacher allows those translanguaging spaces to happen moment-to-moment, as they engage bilingual students in learning and students themselves make choices about their

language use. Whether translanguaging as pedagogy is used as an active teaching practice, or as a learner learning process, it is always used strategically, and is never random. A translanguaging pedagogy is important for language-minority students, whether they are emergent bilingual or not, because it builds on students' linguistic strengths (García and Wei, 2014).

All students would benefit from the translanguaging instructional contexts and strategies offered. For students who speak but one language at home, translanguaging strategies would "awaken" them to language diversity, and would build the linguistic tolerance the world needs, and the linguistic flexibility that would enable them to learn additional languages throughout their lives. For students who speak languages other than English at home, these translanguaging strategies would validate their home language practices, even when there is no instruction in their home languages. It would also extend the ways in which the home language is used, enabling bilingual students to practice reading and writing in the additional language. For those who are at the beginning points of developing an additional language like English, those we call emergent bilinguals, these translanguaging strategies may be the only way to teach rigorous academic content, as well as to develop language. For those who are developing biliteracy by following a bilingual education program, translanguaging strategies would help them become more metacognitively conscious, so that they could regulate their language use. That is, translanguaging also develops the self-regulation that all bilinguals need so as to suppress certain language features and enact those that are more appropriate for specific situations. Translanguaging as pedagogy is critical for emergent bilinguals, although it is important for all students. Because of the importance of translanguaging for bilingual students, especially those at the beginning points on the bilingual continuum, much of our discussion will refer to those students (Garcia, 2016).

All teaching uses language to communicate concepts and to develop academic uses of language. Many times, the language of instruction is similar to that of the students' home language, and although differences may exist, there is some continuity. But in the case of bilingual students, the language used in monolingual programs breaks abruptly with their range of language practices. And the strict language separation used in some bilingual programs at all times also is different from the bilingual students' language practices. Translanguaging affords the opportunity to use home language practices, different as they may be from those of school, to appropriate content and knowledge, as well as to practice the language of school for

academic purposes. A translanguaging space in teaching also allows bilingual students to compare the different ways in which the home language and the school language is used, building their metalinguistic awareness. At the same time, the inclusion of a translanguaging space legitimizes a role for the home language in school, leading to students' increased self-esteem and investment in learning. For monolingual students who live in homes where only English is spoken, being involved in activities where translanguaging is used legitimates the other languages of the class and sparks their interest in other languages, scripts, and cultures. It is a way of expanding their knowledge and their experiences.

In the 1980s Jim Cummins posited that there was interdependence, a Common Underlying Proficiency, among the languages of bilinguals. Cummins and other scholars view bilingual competence from a cognitive perspective. But the concept of dynamic bilingualism refers to a bilingual competence that is not solely based on cognitive differences, but also on the different practices of bilinguals. Dynamic bilingualism refers to the repertoire of bilingual language practices that can only emerge and expand in interrelationship with each other and through practice and socialization. Dynamic bilingualism is enacted precisely through translanguaging. Dynamic bilingualism values the complexity of the language practices of bilinguals, as it recognizes the ability of bilinguals to adapt to the communicative situation of the particular moment. Translanguaging is the enactment of this dynamic bilingualism (Cummins, 2007).

Translanguaging recognizes and values the language diversity and multilingualism of the community, while enabling students to practice their home languages and literacies. Actually, translanguaging more than any other practice or pedagogy, sustains home language practices. Notice that one is here speaking of sustainability of language practices, and not of simple language maintenance. Because one views language as practice, it is my opinion that one can then believe that minoritized languages in bilingual communities must be practiced in interaction with their plural social, economic and political contexts. It is not enough to maintain languages as enacted in another society, at another time, under different circumstances. It is important to bring these practices into a bilingual future as suggested by Cummins (2007).

By placing dynamic bilingualism at the centre of language use, translanguaging disrupts the idea that the minority language is only a "heritage" language that is static in form, as used in the past. As part of a bilingual repertoire, speakers select features that are socially assigned to one language or the other, bringing all language practices into a bilingual future.

Translanguaging permits speakers to appropriate all language practices as their very own, and use them in bilingual contexts, including the language other than English that now becomes part of a bilingual repertoire and is not simply assigned to the category of "heritage," taught only in heritage language classes. Instead, these practices in the language other than English are used in interaction with English throughout the child's education. This places African languages back at the centre of the educational process, or at least alongside English in the case of the research conducted for this thesis.

Having translanguaging spaces for instruction does not in any way dismiss the need for separate spaces in which children are asked to perform in one language or the other. These separate spaces have been created so that the teacher knows what language to use, and so that students must expand their language practices to meet the exigencies of communication with monolinguals. Just as teachers allocate time to different content areas but make connections among them, bilingual teachers in dual language bilingual classrooms must also allocate a different space to each of the languages, but they must also make connections among the different language practices. It is in any event good teaching practice for teachers to make connections between the different content areas, even when they are taught by separate teachers or in different time periods. Thus, for example, science teachers make connections to mathematics, social studies and language arts content. In the same way, bilingual teachers must allow students to make connections between their different languages practices because they are teaching the whole child who must integrate all the language practices as his or her own. Bilingual teachers are not just teaching language content, but they are teaching a bilingual child.

García (2013) suggests that a translanguaging space allows emergent bilingual and bilingual children to:

1. Compare and contrast their two ways of using language, thus building their metalinguistic awareness.
2. Use different language practices for different reasons within the same lesson, thus extending their bilingual expertise.
3. Represent the language practices of their homes and communities in school.
4. Develop consciousness of multilingual audiences and negotiate language practices so as to communicate across language differences.

5. Use all their language resources to engage with difficult material at all times, to learn from different sources, and to self-regulate their learning.
6. Experiment and "play" with all their language resources, building not only metalinguistic awareness, but also give potential to their divergent thinking and creativity.

One of the challenges of transitional bilingual education is precisely when to transition language use and how linguistic transfer occurs. Translanguaging gives the answer to this question. Translanguaging allows the teacher to adjust the linguistic complexity of the task at hand for newcomers, as well as for those who remain. At the same time, translanguaging builds the explicit connections between language practices that enable positive transfer to occur. Transfer is thus not left to chance. Translanguaging is used strategically so that what is learned in one language is then practiced in the other. Translanguaging does not just facilitate transfer from students' home languages into English. Translanguaging also facilitates transfer from English into students' home languages, thus, developing bilingual and biliterate abilities.

Translanguaging is a beneficial practice for students considered at risk because of the flexibility of language practices involved. In the case of students with interrupted formal education, it enables students to find key ideas and details, identify the craft and structure of a text, and integrate knowledge and ideas through oral and visual texts first, before they do so with written texts in the home language, and later English. In the case of students whose new language/literacy development is slow, often referred to as "Long Term English Learners," their English oral skills are often very developed, in contrast to their English literacy skills. These students are often in the same ESL or bilingual classes as newcomers whose English oral skills are emerging. A teacher using translanguaging practices can then ensure that these students get more English literacy practice, while serving as oral models for newcomers. Students with disabilities are perhaps the ones that can benefit the most from translanguaging pedagogies. Students with disabilities often have very varying abilities. The flexibility in language practices afforded by translanguaging enables the teacher to meet the student where he or she is at, and to adjust the language/literacy load, as well as the cognitive load, to meet the needs and strengths of students with disabilities.

In a nutshell, translanguaging is important for bilingual students in all types of programs and classrooms in which they are found because it builds on their discursive norm the flexible use of their complex and developing linguistic resources to make meaning and engage in learning,

and to develop language practices for academic use. According to Probyn (2019), the majority of learners in South African schools are African language speakers, yet the dominance of English in the political economy has meant that schools choose to switch to English medium of instruction by Grade 4, before learners have the necessary English proficiency to access the curriculum, with negative effects on learning. She further suggests translanguaging as an approach that can break the post-colonial ideologies prevalent in classrooms and engages with learner's linguistic resources to provide knowledge.

As reflected above, research suggests that considerable positive outcomes can be achieved using translanguaging to enhance teaching and learning. Translanguaging is one model that can help multilingual learners understand better in class, and at the same time restore the dignity of indigenous African languages in the classroom. Therefore, translanguaging should not be seen only as a language practice of multilinguals, but as a pedagogical strategy to foster language and literacy development (Hornberger and Link, 2012). Also, translanguaging must not be seen as a problem, but as a solution for pedagogical hindrances.

2.5 Benefits of Translanguaging

2.5.1 Promotion of social cohesion

According to García (2009), diversity as a social phenomenon poses a range of social, cultural and material challenges to educational systems that were developed around the dictates of a 'monoglossic language ideology' where variations from the Standard are understood to be deficiencies. At the most elementary level, educational institutions commonly insist on monolingual instruction through the medium of a standard regional, national or international language. However, increasing awareness of diversity would seem to require more dynamic and mobile concepts around language and literacy than the monolingual, standard orientations often prevalent in educational discourse (Makoni and Pennycook, 2006; Blommaert, 2010; Blommaert and Rampton, 2011).

Translanguaging promotes social cohesion by expanding opportunities for the development of African languages as a significant way of preserving heritage and cultures. However, if teachers fail to acknowledge linguistic diversity among students and incorporate it into our teaching practices, this creates a new means of segregation, thus negating the purpose of multilingual

classrooms. By employing translanguaging within the monolingual education classroom, teachers both acknowledge and celebrate linguistic diversity among students. They also grant learners opportunities to expand their understanding of diversity. Regardless of their linguistic abilities, teachers who create multilingual learning opportunities for their students create a learning environment in which students are not only allowed to work within their developmental level, but also within their individual comfort level. This facilitates cross-cultural sharing in the classroom and increases student collaborations and individual self-esteem. There are positive associations with the other languages and there is a permeable cross-cultural ethos that goes beyond discrete language units.

2.5.2 Translanguaging increases/Builds Parental Involvement

Parents can also use the translanguaging model when helping their children with home-work. For example, the child can explain a task either in the home or school language to the parent, and they can then together discuss the topic and find out more information using the home language. Finally, the child would complete the homework in the school language. Having to process a task in two languages allows for a deeper understanding and learning of words, phrases and concepts in both languages.

Cloe-Peha (2015) is of the opinion that most multilingual students in monolingual education classrooms speak a language other than English at home. Often that language is the exclusive family language, meaning that English is not spoken in the home by the parents or primary guardian. As a result, parents who do not speak English may feel excluded from their child's academic development. Through the use of translanguaging in the monolingual classroom, teachers create spaces in which non-English speaking parents can support their child's development as well as feel welcome in the classroom. This then generates multiple collaborative opportunities between school and home.

2.5.3 Translanguaging for Standardized Testing

In order to facilitate the participation of all students in standardized testing, multilingual education students are granted varying levels of modifications and accommodations. One of the accommodations granted to multilingual education students who are also classified as

English Language Learners is the ability to take content-area tests in their home language. If student learning is limited to the target language only, this accommodation is less effective because it requires the use of skills that students have not been exposed to and, as such, does not reflect a familiar learning environment. Cloe-Peha (2015) further states that, translanguaging allows teachers the ability to provide learning opportunities that are reflective of student linguistic abilities and that prepare students to take full advantage of the testing accommodations available to them. In addition, multilingual testing platforms allow students a greater number of opportunities to be successful because they are not limited by language in sharing what they know.

2.5.4 Translanguaging as a way of enhancing learning

As it has been said before, the term translanguaging was coined in Welsh by Cen Williams to refer to a teaching practice of deliberately changing the language of input and the language of output. Williams (2002) further clarifies translanguaging in education and refers to using one language to reinforce the other in order to increase the understanding and in order to augment the pupil's activity in both languages (as cited in Lewis, Jones and Baker, 2012b:40). However, Williams refers to a pedagogical theory that involves students' learning of two languages through a process of deep cognitive bilingual engagement. Lewis, Jones and Baker (2012b) summarize Williams's (1996) theory as saying:

The process of translanguaging uses various cognitive processing skills in listening and reading, the assimilation and accommodation of information, choosing and selecting from the brain storage to communicate in speaking and writing. Thus, translanguaging requires a deeper understanding than just translating as it moves from finding parallel words to processing as well as relaying meaning and understanding.

According to Baker (2001) in his discussion of four potential educational advantages of translanguaging he states that translanguaging may promote a deeper and fuller understanding of the subject matter, may help the development of the weaker language, may facilitate home-school links and cooperation and may help the integration of fluent speakers with early learners. Baker (2001) in his explanation put emphasis that reading and discussing a lesson in one language, and then to write about it in another language, means that the subject matter must be processed and "digested".

Translanguaging as a form of pedagogy and as a natural result of languages in contact have different features and come about for different reasons. To use one language to talk about content that is expressed in another is thus an example of translanguaging that is quite familiar in the bilingual literature (Lewis, Jones, and Baker, 2013). The activity of more consciously analysing two different language extracts is also seen where learners are asked to compare language features, or to critique or provide a translation from one language to another.

For deaf learners this might involve comparing features of a signed and equivalent written narrative, providing a written version of a signed narrative or a signed version of a written narrative (Koutsoubou, 2010; Koutsoubou, Herman, and Woll, 2006; 2007). Although sign languages have often been considered un-writable, translanguaging can include producing written sign language texts using sign writing. This writing system (originally developed for dance notation) is being increasingly explored by signers worldwide to articulate and challenge established conceptions of language and writing (Hoffmann-Dilloway, 2011). All these translanguaging activities require a repertoire of skills in both languages as well as the ability to analyse, compare and contrast languages. For deaf learners this translanguaging process also involves recognizing, selecting and evaluating the equivalent ways in which meaning can be expressed in different languages and through different modalities (Evans, 2004; Kelman and Branco, 2009; Swanwick, 2001; 2002; Wilbur, 2000). Translanguaging in deaf education needs to be considered in terms of learner-led and teacher-led practices (Garcia and Li Wei, 2014). Translanguaging can also support the learning process by enabling deaf learners to express something in one language that they do not have the skills or vocabulary for in the other by switching, for example, between spoken English, BSL and written English (Rinaldi and Caselli, 2014; Walker and Tomblin, 2014). Translanguaging in this context facilitates a fuller contribution to dialogue in the classroom than deaf learners normally experience. Klatter-Folmer, van Hout, Kolen, and Verhoeven (2006) found that the use of mixed sign and spoken language enabled deaf children to communicate with greater linguistic complexity than was available to them in either one of their languages.

The alternate and blended use of language in the classroom facilitates individual engagement in the process of learning and supports the acquisition of new language, and the development of conceptual understanding. There are multiple ways in which this is achieved. Spoken, sign and written language and fingerspelling are sometimes used alongside each other or alternately to provide support for curriculum vocabulary; to support individual understanding and/or model either the correct use of spoken English. Translanguaging implies the mindful use of

two languages in the classroom to support learning, where the alternate and blended use of these languages is purposeful and responsible. This critical approach to the use of language in the classroom requires nuanced decisions by teachers who can use their language awareness to build on children's linguistic abilities for learning (Childs, 2016).

Translanguaging was originally in Welsh to teach bilingually, it has been Welsh scholars who have paid the most attention to its development as a pedagogy. Williams (2012) sees translanguaging as a distinct pedagogic theory and practice that varies the language of input and output but with 'dual-language' processing for deeper learning. Williams also give a distinction between natural translanguaging and official translanguaging. According to Wlliams (2012), natural translanguaging refers mostly to acts by students to learn, although it may also include teachers' use of translanguaging with individuals, pairs and small groups to ensure full understanding of the subject matter. On the opposite side of the scale, Williams describes official translanguaging as a process where translanguaging is conducted and set up by the teacher. An official translanguaging pedagogy includes more planned actions of the teachers with interaction with the students. Sometimes teachers adopt an official translanguaging pedagogy and translanguage to deepen explanations to the class of complex parts of the topic being taught or have profound discussions of language or social issues.

In a classroom, translanguaging can mean that minority language learners are not only allowed, but encouraged to use their language to help with learning. This does not necessarily require that the teacher also knows the minority languages, instead the learners can use the languages when speaking between them and use them to find information on the topic at hand, for example in the form of videos or texts. This is an approach that is already (often unofficially) in practice in many schools, children use the language that they are comfortable in to acquire and process knowledge they need for completing a task. However, we still find classrooms where learners are discouraged or even forbidden from using any other language than the official school language. The rigid restrictions are based on the (false) presumption that children learn (especially languages) most efficiently when there is no interference from other languages.

Allowing learners to use all their language skills in the classroom enhances their learning and allows them to participate more in class. Actively encouraging the learners to use their home languages further helps with the learner's confidence and identity and raises the status of the minority languages overall.

2.6 Reading comprehension for understanding

Comprehension remains one of the issues that needs to be addressed when dealing with reading and writing, as well as literacy and language acquisition in general. Comprehension, as Pretorius (2000:34) puts it, "…is the sine qua non of reading." Without it, reading cannot fulfil any purpose for which it is meant or hoped. While the decoding process helps learners learn to read, comprehension helps them read to learn, and in so doing, fulfil their purpose of reading a particular text. Comprehension is considered one of the crucial skills upon which success in academic programmes depends. In order to read successfully, one needs to acquire appropriate reading skills and strategies, and appropriate comprehension skills and strategies.

Although the two terms, skill and strategy, may be used interchangeably in some instances, there is a fundamental difference between the two. A skill refers to one's ability to perform certain procedures in the same way every time without much conscious thought and effort, whereas a strategy is well thought out and amounts to an adaptable plan regarding the execution of a particular procedure. The same skill may be applied effectively in the same manner in similar or related contexts almost all the time, while a strategy might need to be adjusted to suit the needs of a context. The two terms are inextricably interwoven in that they deal with the procedural knowledge applicable in different ways and in varying conditions and contexts. It is worth noting that comprehension strategies are not an easy skill to teach and cannot be taught by drill. It calls for the coordination of individual strategies, which involves altering, adjusting, modifying, testing, and shifting tactics as is fitting, until a reading comprehension problem is solved (Roit, 2016).

When it comes to reading, comprehension plays a pivotal role in that it helps a reader decipher and respond appropriately to a written code. However, one may wonder if there are any techniques that teachers apply to help learners approach texts in ways that promote comprehension. Previous research (Duke and Pearson, 2002; Zimmerman, 2014; Block and Duffy, 2008; Roit, 2016) suggests a few essential components that ought to be considered when developing, hopefully, a successful reading comprehension strategy. These include the use of prior knowledge; asking relevant questions before, during and after reading a text; visualising and drawing inferences from the text; making plausible predictions on how the events might unfold in the text; and, determining what is important when retelling or summarising the text, to mention a few. Therefore, reading comprehension can be defined as a strategic process during which a reader is constantly constructing and reconstructing meaning using a variety of

strategies, such as activating background knowledge, monitoring and clarifying, making predictions, drawing inferences, asking questions and summarizing (Roit, 2016).

Research (Schunk, 2012) suggests numerous ways in which reading comprehension strategies may be taught. For instance, one of the ways in which the strategies can be inculcated may be through reciprocal teaching. Reciprocal teaching involves a dialogic interaction between a teacher and a group of students in which the teacher models the reading activities, after which learners take turns remodelling what the teacher did. Therefore, reciprocal teaching comprises social interaction and scaffolding as students gradually develop skills. Reciprocal teaching is commended for greater comprehension gains and improvements in the quality of summaries (Schunk, 2012). For the process to unfold smoothly, it is recommended that the teacher should explain clearly so that it can be easy for the learners to understand and model.

Another way in which reading comprehension can be taught is through think-aloud. Think aloud comprise teacher modelling in which the teacher vocalises his/her thinking, thus letting the learner know what s/he is thinking and how s/he is thinking about it. Thinking aloud makes teaching metacognitive: it helps learners think about their thinking, and thus monitor their comprehension. (McIntyre, Hulan, and Layne, 2011). Texts that are light in terms of vocabulary and background knowledge demands are preferable when introducing comprehension strategies.

In a nutshell, for reading to be effective, there ought to be a symbiotic interplay between comprehension skills and comprehension strategies. Teachers should help learners acquire the necessary reading comprehension skills, and then provide the suitable reading comprehension strategies to enable the learners to apply the suitable skills in appropriate situations. Research, however, shows that learners in Grade 4 cannot decode print information; thus, cannot make sense of written words. For reading comprehension strategies to be effective, the text and the reader's knowledge of the word, the world and the language ought to match. However, when learners have no basic decoding skills, it may be impossible to inculcate reading comprehension skills like predicting, inferencing, and summarising. Comprehension is blocked from the word go by the reader's lack of the requisite basic decoding skills before other reading comprehension strategies like the use relevant background, and pragmatic knowledge even come to the fore. Thus, without the word recognition abilities, like phonemic awareness and decoding, it is unlikely that a learner can comprehend texts. Learners who understand how words are made up by putting together different sounds when they start school are in a good

position to do well in the alphabetic system. They start reading independently more quickly and, through more opportunities to practice, develop automaticity and meaningful reading.

In order to apply reading comprehension strategies, certain basic reading processes must be automatized to free up resources for more demanding higher-level processes. According to O'Reilly and Sheehan (2009), when basic reading skills are lacking, learners might have a hard time drawing valuable resources from the higher-level processes to deal with tasks that demand them. Any attempts by a teacher to teach further reading comprehension strategies can lead to the Matthew effect, a principle which posits that learners who fail to master the basic reading skills until Grade 4, are likely to have a hard time learning to read thereafter (Protopapas, et al., 2011). Instead, such learners will read less and less, and get worse in their reading ability while those who thrive get better and better, thus widening the gap between the 'able' and the 'unable'. The concept derives its origin from the Bible, in which it is provided: "Whoever has, will be given more, and they will have an abundance. Whoever does not have, even what they have will be taken from them" (Matthew 13:12 & 25:29). In their research, in which they sought to evaluate the presence of Matthew effects in reading comprehension for Greek elementary school students, Protopapas and his colleagues (2011) observe that for the Matthew effect to be present, there must be divergent trajectories of growth in the development of reading comprehension between low and high ability students in the context of a stable rank ordering of individual student performance. The Matthew effect occurs on the one hand as a result of the poor performing learners getting more and more demotivated due to their inability to comprehend texts while the difficulty of the texts they are expected to read is mounting, whereas on the other hand, those with better reading skills enjoy reading and are gaining even more therefrom. Therefore, without adequate foundation, the significance of teaching further reading comprehension skills becomes inconsequential.

While instruction in comprehension can help students understand what they read, remember what they read, and communicate with others about what they read, there is no available clear evidence that comprehension skills are taught in schools - see appendices for an example.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

This section provides briefly the theoretical framework that forms the basis for this study. The study is grounded in sociocultural theory, which conceptualises learning as a social

phenomenon. Sociocultural theory is grounded in the perspective that the individual is not separated from social context (Vygotsky, 1978). It argues that an individual's knowledge is formed from the social context in which they live, making the individual a fundamentally social being (Lantolf, 2006). Socio-cultural theory is a theory of development which posits that language is central to thinking and learning. Although originally conceived by Vygotsky in a predominantly monolingual frame, it has long been appropriated in the study of bilingual learners (e.g. Anton and Di Camilla, 1999; Donato, 2000; Frawley and Lantolf, 1985; Lantolf and Appel, 1994; Moll, 2014; Ohta, 2000; Swain, 2006), and now, as stated, in reference to translanguaging. Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of human learning describes learning as a social process and the origination of human intelligence in society or culture. The major theme of Vygotsky's theoretical framework is that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition.

The study used sociocultural discourse analysis (Mercer, 2004) to examine instances of classroom interaction in classes in which translanguaging occurs. Sociocultural discourse analysis focuses on the use of language as a joint social mode of thinking for constructing knowledge. It involves the analysis of naturalistic interaction between pupils jointly solving a task. Socio-cultural theory creates spaces for dialogue and instil values of consciousness among researchers, scholars and communities in efforts aimed at redefining and redressing domination. The theory used also share similar characteristics of being grounded on social constructivism where social phenomena are created and recreated through people's day-to-day activities as opposed to being submissive.

Vygotskyan theories of learning have impacted language education for some decades (Lantolf and Appel 1994; Swain and Lapkin 2013; van Lier 2004). Sociocultural theories give a pivotal role to social interaction in the construction of knowledge and one's own understanding of self, others and the world. Unlike cognitive theories of learning, sociocultural theories see the construction of one's knowledge and understanding of the world first on the social plane. A child is born into the sociocultural milieu of its communities and becomes socialized into the ways of speaking, thinking, acting, feeling and relating through its social interactions with its caretakers (Vygotsky 1978).

2.8 Conclusion

Indeed, regarding classroom discourse, some studies have shown the beneficial effects of multilingual linguistic practices in classrooms in South Africa. For instance, in South Africa, multilingual language practices have been shown to be beneficial for primary and secondary school teaching and learning of mathematics (Setati, 1998); science and English (Setati and Adler, 2001; Setati, Adler, Reed and Bapoo, 2002) and Economics and Biology (Banda 2010; Paxton, 2009). In other words, although the data from this article are based on one class, the translanguaging practices are common in multilingual South African schools, as is also seen in Setati and Adler (2001), Setati, Adler, Reed and Bapoo (2002), Banda (2010), Stroud and Kerfoot (2013), Makalela (2014, 2015a, b), Probyn (2015), Mwinda and Van der Walt (2015) and Antia (2014), to name a few studies.

It is not surprising that there is growing literature in South Africa championing translanguaging as pedagogical discourse to engender and unlock the knowledge embedded in learners' multilingual repertoire (see Banda 2010; Makalela 2014, 2015a, b; Probyn 2015; Mwinda and Van der Walt 2015; Antia 2014). Drawing from these studies I want to argue that multilingual learners have an extended language repertoire drawn from their lived experiences. The learners draw on the language repertoire "to take control of their own learning, to self-regulate when and how the language, depending on the context in which they are being asked to perform" (García and Wei 2014: 80). The flexibility in languaging practices as was shown in this study enabled the learners and teachers to demonstrate creativity and agency, which would be impossible to achieve in monolingual education contexts. The chapter that follows outlines the research design and methodology that was used when conducting the research and collecting empirical data.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research design and methodology used in this study. The discussion in the chapter is structured around the research design, population sampling, data collection and data analysis. Ethical considerations and measures to provide trustworthiness are also discussed.

3.2 Research Paradigm

The term paradigm was first introduced by Kuhn in his seminal work The Structure of Scientific Revolution. Kuhn defines paradigm as "an integrated cluster of substantive concepts, variables and problems attached with corresponding methodological approaches and tools" (cited in Flick, 2009).

There are various definitions of a paradigm. The following definitions are found. According to Leedy (1997), the term 'paradigm' is used to refer to a set or cluster of commonly held beliefs or values within the research or scientific community about a field of study. The beliefs shape or dictate how the researcher should go about carrying out a scientific study. This includes what they should focus on, what methods to use and how the researcher should interpret the results.

Denzin and Lincoln (2011:91) define a paradigm as "a set of beliefs that guide action." According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011) a paradigm includes four major beliefs that will guide a research action. These are axiology (ethics) which is about the role of values in the research process; epistemology which states that there is a relationship between the researcher and what is learnt in a research process; ontology which asks about the nature of reality; and methodology which focuses on the procedures the researcher will follow to answer research questions.

According to Neuman (2006), a paradigm refers to a general organizing framework for theory and research that includes basic assumptions, key issues, models of quality research, and methods for seeking answers.

Guba and Lincoln (1994:105) call a paradigm "a basic system or worldview that guides the investigator." Likewise, for Chalmers (1982:90), a paradigm is "made up of the general theoretical assumptions and laws, and techniques for their application that the members of a particular scientific community adopt." A system of beliefs, ideas, values, and habits that is a way of thinking about the real world. A paradigm is an example, model or pattern, especially the most basic or central one. The three most common paradigms are positivism, constructivism or interpretivism and pragmatism. Each of these can be categorised further by examining their ontology, epistemology, methodology and axiology.

Paradigms are conceptual and practical "tools" that are used to solve specific research problems, in other words, paradigms function as heuristics in social research (Abbot, 2004). Each paradigm has a different perspective on the axiology, ontology, epistemology, methodology, and rhetoric of research. In brief, for instance, post-positivism, one of the older approaches of social research, is often associated with quantitative methods and highly formal rhetoric which focuses on precision, generalizability, reliability, and replicability. Postpositivist researchers view inquiry as a series of logically related steps and make claims of knowledge based on objectivity, standardization, deductive reasoning, and control within the research process (Creswell, 2013; Creswell and Clark, 2011; Lanham, 2006). Constructivism is typically associated with qualitative methods and literary and informal rhetoric in which the researcher relies as much as possible on the participants' view and develops subjective meanings of the phenomena. Thus, constructivist research is shaped from the bottom up, i.e., from individual perspectives, to broad patterns, and ultimately to broad understandings (Creswell and Clark, 2011). If we situate postpositivist and constructivist research on a paradigm continuum, they will be anchored on its two opposite ends (Betzner, 2008).

Unlike the fundamental underpinnings of these worldviews, participatory action research is conducted with an agenda of reform and empowerment, i.e., the focus is on transforming the lives of socially marginalized populations. It is a collaborative approach in which participants are involved at each step of research. Participatory action research is often associated with qualitative methods and rhetoric of advocacy and change (Creswell, 2013; Creswell and Clark, 2011). Finally, pragmatism is a paradigm that claims to bridge the gap between the scientific method and structuralist orientation of older approaches and

naturalistic methods and freewheeling orientation of new approaches (Creswell, 2013; Creswell and Clark, 2011).

Hussain, Elyas and Nasseef (2013) believe that the term paradigm can be utilised in three ways in human sciences: it can be used for the institutionalisation of intellectual activity, for the broad groupings of certain approaches and perspectives to the study of any subject, and for the description of broad approaches to research, e.g. the positivist or interpretive paradigms (Grix, 2010). It is generally believed that the paradigms we build in our minds have a powerful effect as they create the lens through which we see the world (Covey, 1989).

3.2.1 Pragmatic paradigm

Pragmatists believe that reality is constantly renegotiated, debated, interpreted, and therefore the best method to use is the one that solves the problem. This study belonged to the pragmatic paradigm.

Pragmatism as a research paradigm finds its philosophical foundation in the historical contributions of the philosophy of pragmatism (Maxcy, 2003) and, as such, embraces plurality of methods. As a research paradigm, pragmatism is based on the proposition that researchers should use the philosophical and/or methodological approach that works best for the research problem that is being investigated (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). It is often associated with mixed-methods or multiple-methods (Biesta, 2010; Creswell and Clark, 2011; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Maxcy, 2003; Morgan 2014a; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009), where the focus is on the consequences of research and on the research questions rather than on the methods. It may employ both formal and informal rhetoric (Creswell and Clark, 2011). The pragmatist scholars completely rejected the notion that social science inquiry can access the reality solely by using a single scientific method (Maxcy, 2003).

3.2.2 Pragmatism ontology, epistemology and methodological perspectives

According to Grix (2004:5), “ontology is a philosophy that relates to the nature of social reality, claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how the units interact with each other.” It focuses on the questions such as what we believe about the

nature of reality and raises the arguments relating to the possibility of singular, verifiable reality and truth as opposed to the inevitability of socially constructed multiple realities (Patton, 2002). It is concerned about what we mean when we say something exists (Mack, 2010). In a nutshell, it is a philosophy that studies reality.

The ontology is the reality of knowledge that exists and that the research wants to seek out. For each research paradigm there is an ontological view that the researcher seeks through research. The ontology cannot be reached without knowing the epistemology of research. Reality of reality is totally an objective way to find answers to the research questions. While interpretivism, constructivism, and pragmatism paradigms have relativism as ontological approach; monism, pluralism, idealism, dualism, materialism are some of the ontological views that one can follow. Antwi and Hamza (2015) aver that ontology and epistemology are studies that relate to the research paradigms. In simple terms, they guide the selection of a research methodology upon which research is anchored. Researchers in this paradigm assume that reality is objective and is measurable. In other words, at ontological level, positivists hold a view that knowledge is objective and quantifiable (Antwi and Hamza, 2015). By implication this means that the researchers in this paradigm develop scientific methods, systematize knowledge generation processes and with the help of quantification ensures precision of results attained. This view describes society as being driven by principles which are proven by scientific means. It also focuses on the social construction of people's ideas and concepts. On the other hand, realist ontology holds a view that the world is objective and real. Ontology therefore helps researchers to adopt an objective approach to reality, which is what the researcher has sought to do in this thesis.

Epistemology is the branch of philosophy that is concerned with the look of nature of knowledge and truth (Mack, 2010). Epistemology relates to what we mean when we say we know something. It is concerned with questions such as how we know, what we know and how that knowledge is produced. This paradigm is based on the view that knowledge is real, acquirable and is based on control and the manipulation of reality (Mack, 2010). Quantitative researchers working on this paradigm develop and test the hypothesis and measure how the variables interact, dictate the events and finally arrive at the outcomes. Therefore, multivariate analysis and statistical techniques are employed to arrive at the outcomes of the research. On the other hand, qualitative researchers are concerned with the understanding of reality from subjective experiences of individuals. They use

methodologies such as interviews, observations and the relationships between the researcher and his subjects. Researchers in qualitative approaches use inductive approaches and on the other hand quantitative approaches use deductive approaches in order to obtain knowledge and understanding.

Epistemology is the philosophical view to seek the reality. It paves the way to find the truth that is ontology. Epistemology and ontology are woven together, and none is possible without each other. Epistemology and ontology are like nail and hammer, none can work without each other. Realism, rationalism, relativism, and irrationalism are some of epistemologies that can be used. If you want to know the reality, you should use an epistemology to get the answer. Interpretive methodology seeks an understanding of phenomena from an individual's perspective, investigating interaction among individuals as well as the historical and cultural contexts which people inhabit (Creswell, 2009:8).

The methodology can be quantitative or qualitative and within each of these methodologies there are several research techniques. As a combination of both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies, there is a mixed-method methodology that is more adaptable and in use in both pure sciences and social sciences. It is this approach that is used in this thesis as both qualitative and quantitative data is presented in chapters 4 and 5.

3.3 Mixed Research Approach

The research approach informs the reader how data were collected and explains the method that was used to process it (Leedy, 2001). In other words, the research approach and methodology are likely to be the same. There are two research approaches that determine the direction followed by the research study. These approaches include qualitative and quantitative research approaches. Because there is a paradigm war that exists in scientific research, there is a third approach, the mixed methods approach, which was developed to close the gap between qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

For the purpose of this research, a mixed methods approach was employed. Mixed methods research is defined as a procedure where collection of data is based on both quantitative and qualitative method (Creswell, 2005; Maree, 2007). Various scholars define the mixed methods approach differently. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) describe mixed methods research as an approach that involves collecting, analysing, and interpreting quantitative and qualitative data

in a single study or in a series of studies that investigate the same underlying phenomenon. According to Dörnyei (2007:24), "Mixed methods research involves different combinations of qualitative and quantitative research either at the data collection or at the analysis level."

Dörnyei (2007) concurs with Cresswell (2003) by defining mixed methods research as an approach which collects both quantitative data and qualitative data and which is geared towards answering "pragmatic knowledge claims." According to Cresswell (2003), the need to use mixed methods is influenced by the relationships between the data sets needed. Cresswell and Clark (2007) further state that there are several reasons for using mixed methods research. Quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously to complement each other, and emphasis is given to a particular approach.

Mixed research, or what is referred to as mixed methods research, involves "mix[ing] or combin[ing] quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study" (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Using both methods enhances the validity of data. The mixed methods approach is flexible in that it uses multiple methods and contextual interpretations and the best strategies to address research questions about real life problems (Paton, 2002; Maree, 2007:260). Pragmatists argue that quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible and can be combined in a single study because of their similarities in fundamental values (Howe, 1988; Reinharst and Rallis, 1994; Maree, 2007:263).

The quantitative research approach establishes statistically significant conclusions about a population by studying a representative sample of the population (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). It has the following general characteristics:

• data is numerical, where tables and graphs are mostly used to explain the trends of the findings;

• the questionnaire is the main instrument used for data collection (Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

A qualitative research approach, however, relies on non-numerical data (Johnson and Christensen, 2000). This approach is explorative, descriptive and contextual (Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Cresswell, 2007). This research explored and described the experiences of learners and educators in classes composed of learners with similar or different home languages through semi-structured interviews and observations. This approach helps to achieve better informed results because, through interviews, follow-up questions may be asked to seek clarity and the researcher may allow the respondent to reach a saturation point, unlike in a quantitative

approach where the respondent is not able to elaborate and the researcher cannot ask follow-up questions.

The following have been given by Creswell et al. (2003) and Maree (2007:261) as the main reasons for employing a blended approach which utilizes both quantitative and qualitative techniques within one study:

- Explain or elaborate on quantitative results with subsequent qualitative data.
- Use qualitative data to develop a new measurement instrument or theory that is subsequently tested.
- Compare qualitative with quantitative data sets to produce well-validated conclusions.
- Enhance a study with a supplemental data set, either quantitative or qualitative.

The mixed methods approach minimizes researcher bias and thus increases reliability (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). The qualitative findings helped to strengthen the qualitative findings (Henning, 2004:50-59).

3.4 Mixed Methods Research Design

Mouton (2001) defines a research design as a plan or blueprint of how one intends to conduct the research. It provides a set of guidelines and instructions on how to reach the goals the researcher set for themselves (Mouton, 1996). Research design is, therefore, a framework on which the study is based. It explains how this study is planned to be conducted. For this study both quantitative and qualitative approaches are used to overcome the pros and cons of one approach. Statistical data as well as interviews were conducted with learners and classroom observations were also carried out in the five selected schools which formed part of the research.

The word “design” has at least two distinct meanings in mixed methods research (Maxwell, 2013). One meaning focuses on the process of design; in this meaning, design is often used as a verb. Someone can be engaged in designing a study (in German: “eine Studie konzipieren” or “eine Studie designen”). Another meaning is that of a product, namely the result of designing. In mixed methods design, both meanings are relevant. To obtain a strong design as a product, one needs to carefully consider a number of rules for designing as an activity. Obeying these rules is not a guarantee of a strong design, but it does contribute to it. A mixed

methods design is characterized by the combination of at least one qualitative and one quantitative research component. For the purpose of this study, mixed methods research is defined as the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis and inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration (Johnson, Anthony, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007).

Research design is a procedure for collecting, analysing, interpreting, and reporting data in research studies. It represents different models for doing research, and these models have distinct names and procedures associated with them. Rigorous research designs are important because they guide the methods and decisions that researchers must make during their studies and set the logic by which they make interpretations at the end of their studies and research.

There are three broad research traditions in the social sciences: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. As pointed out above, both the quantitative and qualitative traditions are well established. In quantitative research, researchers gather numeric data, for example, proficiency test scores or multiple choice question (or 'closed-response item') responses on questionnaires; they then try to objectively analyse this data using a variety of statistical techniques, and let the numeric results prove or disprove a hypothesis so that those results can be generalized from a sample to a larger population. On the other hand, in qualitative research researchers try to understand participants' experiences with the central phenomenon (the focus of the study) in a natural setting, using research approaches such as ethnography or case study. Instead of numbers, researchers collect words (text, such as interviews or observation notes), and images (pictures or audio-visual footage) about the phenomenon of the study. Without preconceived hypotheses or ideas, they analyse the data for common patterns (themes) in order to allow multiple interpretations of participants' individual experiences (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). In this type of research, the goal is not to try to prove or disprove something; rather, the aim is to explore and then describe in rich detail the phenomenon that is being investigated. As compared with quantitative and qualitative research, mixed methods research is an emerging field of study and may be less recognized than more conventional research traditions. It is defined as a procedure for collecting, analysing, and mixing quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study in order to understand a research problem more completely (Creswell, 2008). In mixed methods research, a researcher collects both numeric information (for example, through closed-response items on questionnaires) and text (from

face-to-face interviews, picture descriptions, and so on) to better answer a study's research questions. The term 'mixing' implies that the data or the findings are integrated and/or connected at one or several points within the study. Although many models and designs have been discussed in the mixed methods literature (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989; Morgan, 1998; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998), the four mixed methods designs most frequently used are Explanatory Design, Exploratory Design, Triangulation Design, and Embedded Design. What follows is a description of the general characteristics that these designs share and then a brief discussion of each one.

This study adopted an explanatory design. The explanatory design is the most straightforward mixed methods design (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann and Hanson, 2003), and it is used extensively in applied linguistics research. The word explanatory in the design name suggests explanation: qualitative findings are used to help explain, refine, clarify, or extend quantitative results. Quantitative and qualitative data are collected and analysed in sequence: first quantitative data is collected and analysed, and then qualitative data. A typical example would include conducting follow-up qualitative interviews of representatives or in extreme cases to more deeply explore quantitative results. The weight in this design is typically placed on quantitative data because the quantitative data collection represents the major aspect of this mixed methods data collection process; it also comes first in the sequence. The mixing of the two methods occurs at two stages in the research process: first, while developing the qualitative interview protocol and choosing the participants for in-depth exploration of the quantitative results; and second, while integrating the results from both quantitative and qualitative phases at the interpretation and discussion stage of the study.

3.5 Research setting

The study took place in selected South African public primary schools in the Alfred Nzo District, Maluti sub-district in the Eastern Cape Province. These settings were selected based on accessibility, and the nature of the mixed groups of learners and teachers in terms of multi-ethnicity and multi-racial.

3.6 Population and Sampling procedures

Sampling refers to the use of a subset of the population to represent the whole population. According to Johnson and Christensen (2000), sampling is the process of drawing a sample from a population for research purposes. They further argue that when we sample, we study the characteristics of a subset selected from a large group in order to understand the characteristics of the larger group. De Vos (2000:191) defines sampling as "a small portion of the total set of objects, events or persons which together comprise the subject of our study." In this study purposeful sampling is used to ensure the gathering of relevant data and the trustworthiness of the research. According to De Vos (2000:192), "purposive sampling bases the selection of study settings and participants on each feature and characteristics that will enable the researcher to gather in-depth information on the areas of research interest." This sampling method ensures that only the most suitable participants for the research are interviewed, for example, Grade 5 IIAL learners and their IIAL educators.

The participants of this study were learners and teachers from five public schools from various circuits. One hundred and fifty learners were sampled and five teachers from those schools. Teachers were chosen irrespective of race, age and without consideration of socio-economic status. Only teachers who are teaching languages participated in the study.

All Grade five learners, irrespective of age (the whole class, all races) and one teacher per school were chosen. Grade five learners were chosen because they are already participating in the IIAL programme. Learners were sampled from both genders and from both African language and English mother tongue speakers. Learners were selected without looking at their socio-economic status. Learner ages varied from 10 to 12 years. Only learners whose parents signed a consent form participated. The first section of the educator questionnaire consists of personal particulars, such as gender, age, teaching experience, academic qualifications and subject specialization (see Appendices). The second section dealt with questions. Even the first section of learner questionnaires consisted of personal particulars such as gender, age and grade. Similarly to the teacher questionnaire, the second section dealt with questions. Two teachers researched were found to possess matric and a four year teacher qualification and three of the teachers possessed a matric qualification and a five year teacher qualification. Research was conducted with two male and three female teachers. Regarding age, there was only one teacher between the age of thirty-one and thirty-five and four teachers were between the ages of thirty-six and above.

3.7 Data collection instruments

This section focuses on the selection of tools that were used to collect the required type of data according to the research methodology followed. As discussed in the earlier section, this study followed both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Several instruments were used to collect data in order to make sure that almost all issues were covered in this study. Data were, therefore, collected by using various instruments, namely questionnaires, observations and comprehension.

3.7.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires have many uses, most notably to discover what the masses are thinking. A '*questionnaire*' is the instrument for collecting the primary data (Cohen, 2013). Bell and Waters (2014) and O'Leary (2014), each offer clear checklists for creating a questionnaire from beginning to end. Bell and Waters (2014), highlight a plethora of potential difficulties in wording your questions, including ambiguity and imprecision, assumptions, memory, knowledge, double questions, leading questions, presuming questions, hypothetical questions, offensive questions, and questions covering sensitive issues. It is imperative that one checks for jargon within your language and return to your hypothesis or objectives often to decide which questions are most pertinent (Bell and Waters, 2014).

Bell and Waters (2014) suggest that the researcher should check his or her wording when formulating questions. O'Leary (2014) goes into detail to point out problems with questions such as ambiguity, leading, confronting, offensiveness, unwarranted assumptions, double-barreled questions, or pretentiousness. Questions to avoid according to O'Leary (ibid) are those that are:

- Poorly worded
- Biased, leading, or loaded
- Problematic for the respondent, including:
    - Recall-dependent questions
    - Offensive questions
    - Questions with assumed knowledge

- Questions with unwarranted assumptions
- Questions with socially desirable responses.

Clear and unambiguous instructions for respondents are emphasized by both authors (O'Leary, 2014; Bell and Waters, 2014). This step is followed by a 'layout', or rearranging of questions, in both descriptions, likely because this is the best time to review once the questions and other writing is complete. O'Leary (2014) warns researchers to use professional and aesthetically pleasing formatting, as well as to be organized in order to attract respondents and to lower the probability of making your own mistakes (in repeating questions, for example). O'Leary (2014) offers final instructions to include a cover letter that describes who you are, the aim of the project, assurances of confidentiality, etc. More pertinent steps would be to pilot-test your questionnaire with preliminary respondents (even family and friends) and follow-through to preliminary data analysis in order to ensure your methods are effective, making adjustments accordingly (Bell and Waters, 2014).

Bell and Waters (2014) briefly consider distribution methods; they emphasize the need to ensure confidentiality, to include a return date, to formulate a plan for 'bounce backs' via email, and to record data as soon as it arrives. O'Leary (2014) lists typical methods: face-to-face, snail mail, e-mail, and online. Bell and Waters (2014) highlight the advantage to administering your questionnaire personally, as it enables the researcher to explain the purpose of the study and increases the probability of receiving completed questionnaires in return. The authors go on to emphasize the value of online methods. In particular, they mention "Survey Monkey" as the most popular and versatile survey tool available (Bell and Waters, 2014). O'Leary (2014) suggests sending out reminder letters or E-mails in order to increase response rates and the speed of response.

O'Leary (2014) suggests some obvious strengths for this research method, as administering a questionnaire allows the researcher to generate data specific to their own research and offers insights that might otherwise be unavailable. In listing the additional benefits of questionnaires, O'Leary (2014) suggests that they can:

- Reach a large number of respondents
- Represent an even larger population

- Allow for comparisons
- Generate standardized, quantifiable, empirical data
- Generate qualitative data using open-ended questions
- Be confidential and even anonymous

Bailey (1987) defines a questionnaire as a list of questions to be answered by the survey participants. Bailey (1987) further states that a questionnaire is a self-administered instrument where a respondent is left to fill it in alone as opposed to an interview where the researcher talks to the participants. In addition to Bailey, Johnson and Christensen (2004:164) define a questionnaire as "a self-report data collection instrument that each research participant fills out as part of a research study." This implies that the participants respond to the questionnaire in their own time without being helped by the researcher.

This approach had the advantage that most learners could be reached within a very short period (Chiwome and Thondhlana, 1992). Questionnaires are advantageous because they can reveal beyond the physical reach of the researcher. By completing the questionnaire, the participants may tell what the researcher is unable to note (Leedy, 1993). This implies that the participants may reveal what the researcher did not expect, more especially if the questions are open-ended.

Another advantage is that it is easy to fill in answers because in most cases more options are given, and that the data are easier to compare as they are more uniform (Robinson, 1996). Robinson (1996) states that questionnaires are less expensive to administer because they can be given to many participants at a time. This implies that questionnaires save time and money for transport to the venue as in the case of interviews, and then the researcher may either send questionnaires to the participants by post or email. Lastly, the data are more reliable because questionnaires are given to the participants at the same time. This ensures that participants do not discuss and influence each other's responses.

Structuring of a questionnaire is also a relevant issue. As Bailey (1994) points out, some of the pitfalls in constructing a questionnaire include:

• Using double-barrelled questions. Bailey (1994) and Johnson and Christensen (2004) note that double-barrelled questions combine two or more issues in a single question. Double-

barrelled questions lead to participants misunderstanding the questions or answering only one of the two questions.

• Ambiguous questions lead to misunderstanding and therefore erroneous answers, for example using different words for the same meaning. Consistency in using a term/word is important for eliciting the same kind of response.

• Using abstract questions rather than factual questions. The questions in the questionnaire should refer to concrete and specific matters rather than being abstract.

• Biasing the question by using leading words. A leading question is the "one that is phrased in such a way that it suggests a certain answer" (Johnson and Christensen, 2004:167).

• Questions dealing with sensitive issues should be worded correctly to avoid challenging the participant's immediate feelings.

It is important, therefore, that questionnaires are well formulated. Questionnaires may be formulated in two ways, namely open-ended questions where participants decide what to say, how to say it and also give reasons for their choice, and closed questions where participants choose from a list of options determined by the researcher to avoid the pitfalls such as that of dealing with unnecessary information and ambiguous questions (Nunan, 1992).

The researcher physically interacted with respondents because "the best way to enter a person's life world is to participate in it" (Van Manen, 1990:69). The researcher explained to participants as to what was expected of them. Questionnaires were used as a data collecting instrument with teachers. Questions were based on the perceived impact of translanguaging as a pedagogy in a multilingual classroom. To avoid any biases and pitfalls that may arise from questionnaires, in this study, questionnaires were formulated and piloted before using them in an actual study.

3.7.1.1 Learners' questionnaire

The learners' questionnaires were divided into two sections. The first section (A) is about the personal details of the learners and the second section (B) deals with language usage. In this survey the questionnaires for learners were returned on different dates as they were distributed on different dates to different schools. Learners were not allowed to take the questionnaires

home to ensure that all questionnaires were returned. Language problems were addressed immediately, and all questionnaires were filled in by learners themselves. These aspects helped to guard the validity of the findings.

3.7.1.2 Teachers' questionnaire

The teacher's questionnaire was the same as learners' questionnaire in terms of how it was divided. The first section is about the personal details of the learners and the second section deals with questions related to language use.

3.7.2 Observation

Observation is one of the procedures normally used to collect data in a qualitative study (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). Seliger and Shohamy (1989) state that this is a measuring instrument used to measure truthfulness and honesty. The researcher usually observes a number of behaviours taking place in interviews and in the classroom or even outside the classroom.

Observations can be structured, semi-structured, or unstructured. On the one hand, researchers often use a checklist to conduct structured observations as they are interested to study specific themes or explore specific issues. On the other hand, unstructured observations do not follow a checklist; they record all the data (O'Leary, 2014). Observations can be divided into direct or indirect observation. Direct observation is often defined as observing events or behaviours as they occur without altering the environment in which the events occur. This can be explained by an example of a teacher being observed while he/she executes the class plan for the day. Indirect observation is observing the results of an interaction or behaviour. Indirect observation can be explained by receiving feedback from the students about how the teacher performed during his/her class activity (Seale, 2004).

Another way researchers use the tool of observation is by placing a focus on participant observation and splitting it into Overt or Covert. Overt observation requires the researcher to be open about his/her intentions and requires the researcher to inform the participants in order to ensure that they are aware of what is happening. A critical advantage of overt observation is that it enables the researcher to build some kind of rapport with the participants because the researcher, from the very beginning, is open and honest about the intentions of his/her research.

However, the perceived weakness of this method is that it could allow the participants, to change their behaviour in that it aligns with the researcher's goals since they are aware of what the researcher is looking for. Overt observation is apparent when the subject being observed is aware of the presence of the observer, while covert observation is best exemplified when the observed is unaware or the presence of the observer. The covert form of observation is preferred in the field of observational research because it preserves the natural behaviour of the one being observed, which ensures and allows for minimal bias in the observed behaviours. On the contrary, overt observations have been preferred to avoid ethical dilemmas in research (Savage, 2000).

According to O'leary (2014), researchers need to plan their observations carefully and consider the following aspects before they use it as a research method.

- The type of Observation Study: This includes direct, indirect, covert, overt/candid, participant, and nonparticipant types of observation. It is interesting to note that O'leary (2014) uses different terminologies to describe some aspects of observations. For example, other authors have usually used the term "overt" to describe observations that disclose researcher's identity. However, O'leary (2014) uses the term candidly to describe the same concept.
- Researchers need to think about our population and the people we are going to observe. In research terminology, the latter is referred to as our sample.
- Awareness of the environment in the observational study. This specifically includes the cultural background.
- A checklist to explore specific themes that fit well to their research question. This is done when the researcher is planning to conduct a structured observation.
- Timelines.
- Ethical considerations.
- Planning for the unexpected: A researcher should always have a contingency plan if their original plan does not work out during their observational study.

There are several advantages and disadvantages of Observation as a data collection modality (Cohen, and Manion et al., 2000). The advantages include collecting data at the site of activity; data collection is independent of the participant's willingness to participate and decreased bias like recall bias as information is being collected first-hand by the researcher. The disadvantages are an increased likelihood of the "Hawthorne effect", which means that the observed is

conscious of the observer's presence and performs better than how they would in an unobserved situation, potential of observation bias where the observer only observes activities of interest and lastly that it only allows the observer to observe a certain event or behaviour without understanding the reasons behind those behaviours or events.

Baker (2006:187) suggests, that "observational research differs from the other methods in that it requires the research to have more specialized training on how to observe, what and how to record the data, how to enter the field and leave it, and how to remain detached and involved at the same time." This is clearly a challenge to the method of observation. Researchers would need to be highly skilled to perform accurate and ethical observational techniques.

In this study, observations took place before any questionnaire or interview was conducted to avoid the influence that interview questions or questionnaires may have on participants. Both outside and inside the classroom, learners' and teachers' behaviour was observed in terms of language of communication. Teachers were observed as they were teaching in class. An observation sheet was used to control the data needed and to guard against collecting unnecessary data. Even though observation may seem to be a simple method at first glance, it can be quite rigorous and time consuming. This research method requires the researcher to be careful in terms of what is gathered within observation. Observation in research not only refers to the questions that the researcher is looking for, it is also related to the setting and context where the study is taking place. This flexibility makes observation an effective method as well as a source of data collection. Finally, effective observation requires a strong rapport with the participants studied in order to be able to become familiar with the norms and practices of the community.

3.7.3 Document analysis

Document analysis is a form of qualitative research in which documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around an assessment topic (Bowen, 2009). Analysing documents incorporates coding content into themes similar to how focus group or interview transcripts are analysed (Bowen, 2009). A rubric can also be used to grade or score documents.

Document analysis is a social research method and is an important research tool in its own right and is an invaluable part of most schemes of triangulation, the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon (Bowen, 2009). In order to seek convergence and corroboration, qualitative researchers usually use at least two resources through using different data sources and methods. The purpose of triangulating is to provide a confluence of evidence that breeds credibility (Bowen, 2009). Corroborating findings across data sets can reduce the impact of potential bias by examining information collected through different methods. Also, combining qualitative and quantitative sometimes included in document analysis is called mixed-methods studies as indicated earlier.

In this study each school was requested to provide the school language policy to check if it was available and whether it was formulated according to the Language-in-Education policy of 1997. Furthermore, the IIAL policy was also requested. The information from school language policies and the IIAL policy were compared with the outcomes of the observations and questionnaires. The information checked included the LoLT, language subjects and language policy developers who signed the policy documents and if policies accommodate all learners at school.

There are many reasons why researchers choose to use document analysis. Firstly, document analysis is an efficient and effective way of gathering data because documents are manageable and practical resources. Documents are commonplace and come in a variety of forms, making documents a very accessible and reliable source of data. Obtaining and analysing documents is often far more cost efficient and time efficient than conducting your own research or experiments (Bowen, 2009). Also, documents are stable, "non-reactive" data sources, meaning that they can be read and reviewed multiple times and remain unchanged by the researcher's influence or research process (Bowen, 2009:31).

Document analysis is often used because of the many ways it can support and strengthen research. Document analysis can be used in many different fields of research, as either a primary method of data collection or as a compliment to other methods. Documents can provide supplementary research data, making document analysis a useful and beneficial method for most research. Documents can provide background information and broad coverage of data and are therefore helpful in contextualizing one's research within its subject or field (Bowen, 2009). Documents can also contain data that no longer can be observed, provide details that informants have forgotten, and can track change and development. Document analysis can also

point to questions that need to be asked or to situations that need to be observed, making the use of document analysis a way to ensure your research is critical and comprehensive (Bowen, 2009).

3.7.4 Comprehension

Comprehension written in English, isiXhosa and Sesotho was dispatched to each learner for reading and answering questions in writing at the end to show understanding (see appendices).

There was a reading of a comprehension by teachers along with learners which is written in English, isiXhosa and Sesotho. Some paragraphs were in isiXhosa and Sesotho and some were in English in the same comprehension. After reading, there were questions asked to learners. The questions sought to assess the learners' higher cognitive and critical thinking skills and whether translanguaging was used and assisted in this process. To this effect, the learners were required to respond in writing to questions in which they must use English, isiXhosa or Sesotho to show understanding. The exercise had 10 questions, which were considered for this research and deemed enough to enable the researcher to make deductions from the answers to determine whether learners could reflect comprehension of the read passage and how they did so. The reading passages were fictional narrative texts about animals and contained approximately 300 words. To ensure the quality and the appropriate level of the language, the reading texts were adopted from the Nal' ibali story collection (see Appendices). Before the tests, the comprehension was read aloud by the teacher while learners listened to and read along silently. The questions for the written test had been typed and printed out onto A4 size sheets. Each participant had a copy to read from and answer the questions on the answer spaces provided for each question/item. Even though the content was different, similar text types (i.e. narratives of approximately the same length) for the three languages were used for the comprehension. Even though the purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of translanguaging as a teaching approach, in which two or more languages are juxtaposed in the same text or lesson, for the written test it is deemed appropriate to require learners to provide answers in the same language as the one the passage and assessment questions had been asked.

3.8 Data analysis and interpretation

Data analysis is a process of organizing and interpreting the data (Cresswell, 1994). Data is examined to look for both common and distinctive ideas. Interpretation involves attaching meaning and significance to the analysis, explaining patterns and looking for relationships (Cresswell, 1994). In other words, data analysis involves manipulating data in order to generate information from it. Data interpretation refers to a stage in a research process where the researcher makes sense of the data collected. The researcher attempts to bring it all together by relating data to other variables and to the theory or hypothesis he/she wants to prove. This implies that in a research process data are collected, manipulated and interpreted to answer the questions that the researcher asked.

Seliger and Shohamy (1989:201) define data analysis as a process of "sifting, organizing, summarizing, and synthesizing the data so as to arrive at the results and conclusions of the research". Seliger and Shohamy (1989) further argue that, like data collection, there are various techniques that are used for analysing data. According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989), the selection of the specific data analysis technique depends on the nature of the research problem, the research design chosen, and the nature of the data collected. Considering the above argument made by Seliger and Shohamy (1989), techniques for analysing qualitative data and those utilized for analysing quantitative data differ. The main reason for this difference is that quantitative data is basically numerical, and this leads to the use of statistics. Qualitative data is mainly non-numerical and can be analysed using qualitative data analysis techniques. According to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006), data analysis in mixed methods research can either be parallel, concurrent or sequential. This is because in mixed methods research, we have two types of data, namely, qualitative and quantitative data.

Collected data from learners and teachers was ordered and coded for analysis (statistical analysis). Abhilak (1994:216) suggests that the analysis of data involves both descriptive and inferential statistics. In this study the analysis of data will involve descriptive statistics and inferential because there are hypotheses to be tested. The term descriptive statistics (also called summary statistics) refers to statistical methods used to describe data which have been collected as a research sample (Borg and Gall, 1983:356). Descriptively, the data are summarised and reduced to a few statistics for the actual sample (Abhilak, 1994:216). Descriptive statistics serve as a tool for organisation, tabulation, depicting and describing, summarisation and reduction to comprehensible form of an otherwise unwieldy mass of data (Sibayan, 1993:165).

Therefore, it does not involve testing of hypotheses for making generalisations about the population parameters. In this study descriptive statistics was used for summarisation and reduction of the data which have been collected from the research sample and presented in chapter 4.

Inferential statistics allows a researcher to make predictions (inferences) from that data. With inferential statistics, you take data from samples and make generalisations about a population. There are two main areas of inferential statistics which are estimating parameters (taking statistics from your sample data and using it to say something about a population parameter) and hypothesis test (use sample data to answer research questions). Inferential statistics use statistics models to help you compare sample data to other samples or to previous research. With inferential statistics, you are trying to reach conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data alone. One uses inferential statistics to try to infer from the sample data of what the population might think. one also uses inferential statistics to make judgements of the probability that an observed difference between groups is a dependable one or one that might have happened by chance in this study. Thus, one uses inferential statistics to make inferences from one's data to more general conditions.

Analysis of the respondents in the sample according to their personal particulars (Section A of the Questionnaire) was done first. Descriptive analysis of the sample data for the various statements (Section B of the Questionnaire) was then done using respondent counting and percentages.

Orlich (1978:132) states that the preliminary step in analysing data is usually counting the responses for every item or respondent counting, using either hand tabulations or electronic data processing. Hand data processing is used in this study. Respondent counting involves counting the number of teachers who marked strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, slightly disagree, agree, strongly agree categories in each statement (see Appendices). Respondent counting provides a summary of the tabulated frequency for which each category is marked, therefore frequency data can be converted to percentages, indicating the number of respondents who marked a particular category in relation to the total number of respondents (Orlich, 1978:136). Data from teachers and learners was categorised and displayed as graphs and as description where a simple statistical method was used to analyse the data. Questions in the questionnaire were used to categorise the results when analysing the results.

A literature control was used to compare and contrast the results of this study with other findings (Cresswell, 2007). This means that literature from other scholars was used to show the trends discovered in other research findings as compared to the findings of this study.

3.8.1 Parallel mixed analysis

Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) state that in parallel mixed analysis the following conditions apply: (a) both qualitative and quantitative data analysis are done separately, (b) neither type of analysis builds on the other during the analysis stage, and (c) the results from the two types of data are neither compared nor consolidated. This implies that qualitative data are analysed qualitatively, and quantitative data are analysed quantitatively. The two data sets are integrated in the interpretation stage of the research (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2006).

3.8.2 Concurrent mixed analysis

According to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006), in concurrent mixed analysis integration is done in the data analysis stage. The two data sets, namely qualitative and quantitative data, are collected at the same time and analysis is done after all data have been collected. This type of data analysis can be used when analysing quantitative data qualitatively or analysing qualitative data quantitatively.

3.8.3 Sequential mixed analysis

Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) state that in sequential mixed analysis, data analysis is done in phases. They further state that one type of data is collected and analysed and then followed by another type of data collection and data analysis. Quantitative data analysis can be done first and qualitative data analysis later with the same type of data or vice-versa. Qualitative data analysis can be done first and inform the subsequent quantitative analysis, or quantitative data analysis can be done to inform subsequent qualitative data analysis.

In this study parallel mixed analysis was used because both qualitative and quantitative data were analysed separately. Questionnaire data, observation data and document analysis were

analysed separately. The data analysis findings were integrated at the interpretation stage as represented in chapters 4 and 5.

3.9 Analysing documents

Documents (schools' language policies and the IIAL policy document) were read in conjunction with the Language-in-Education policy (1997) to relate their contents. When reading the documents issues that can be dealt with in comparative analysis were identified. Comparative analysis involves comparing incidents as they emerge from the documents under study (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The school language policy documents were compared with the Language-in-Education policy of the Department of Education. In these documents the following aspects were noted for further elaboration: LoLT's, language subjects, people who signed those documents, contents of the documents, the underlying assumptions, the target audience for each document, the date on which each document was signed, and the intertextuality of documents.

3.10 Analysing questionnaires

A quantitative data analysis technique was used to analyse the specific data from the questionnaires. The analysis made use of simple descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Tables, frequencies and charts were used, which are presented in chapter 4 of this thesis.

3.11 Analysing observation data

Data from observations were compared by using Miles and Huherman's (1994) suggestions for coding qualitative data. I identified and categorised all the observations as per the observation sheet.

3.12 Ethical considerations

Research studies are required to follow procedures and ethical considerations to ensure the participants' confidentiality and to show respect for their rights. The purpose of the research

was communicated to the participants before continuing with the survey. In this study I made sure that all participants signed consent forms before participating in the study. Parents were requested to sign consent forms on behalf of their children to indicate that they allowed them to take part. Learners were also given the choice to withdraw from taking part even if their parents had signed on their behalf. Questionnaires were administered with all learners in the presence of the researcher to clarify where there was a misunderstanding of the language used and for selected participants. Accordingly, participants were allowed to withdraw at any stage from taking part in this research. All participants were furnished with the aims as well as the objectives of the study and also their rights to participate in the study, such as the right to privacy, to withdraw from the study and to remain anonymous before part-taking (see Appendices).

The Rhodes Ethics Committee was consulted for guidance regarding ethical issues. The anonymity of learners and teachers was assured. Although the researcher foresaw no possibility of harm to the participants in this regard, as a norm, attention had to be paid to ethical considerations before conducting the research. This is of utmost importance so that all the participants must be aware of what the research entails and their role in the research itself.

The following ethics were considered:

- Permission from Rhodes University
- Informed consent i.e. Parents' consent as learners are young to take some decisions. A fair explanation of the procedures to be followed and their purpose was disclosed. A disclosure of appropriate alternative procedures that might be advantageous to the participants. Consent from Principals of participating schools.
- An instruction that the person was free to withdraw consent and to discontinue participate in the project at any time without prejudice to the participant.
- Ethical dilemmas - involving people without their knowledge or consent coercing them to participate.
- When ethical dilemmas arose, the researcher needed to consult other researchers or teachers.

- Deceiving participants in other ways.
- The dignity, privacy (anonymity) and interests of the participants was always respected and protected.

3.13 Limitations of the study

This study was limited by the following aspects:

As the study was restricted to the population of the Alfred Nzo West district (Maluti sub-district) schools to investigate the impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former Model-C schools, the researcher did not get comprehensive conclusions regarding the said topic from the entire Province. He took assumptions as a final product which can deceive the researcher's expectations. Because of time constraints and the ever-tight work schedule of the researcher, the researcher was therefore bound to use a small sample but having all the units of investigation. The researcher might not have addressed the sample meant for this study in its entirety, hence its generalization is confined to the geographical area of Alfred Nzo district (Maluti sub-district). Another limitation for the study was that the researcher is a full-time school principal and is always pressed by his service delivery obligations. As a result of that, time was not adequate for him to spread the study to a wider or bigger sample. Again, that might have compromised the generalization of the study hence it was confined to five selected schools in the geographical area of Maluti Education sub-district. Despite the limitations of the study, the respondents' voices were expected to be revealed through the study.

Some of the participants may not participate as expected as they would undermine something that deals with indigenous languages as these languages are perceived as primitive and uncivilised by others. The available participants, principals and teachers might not be at liberty to divulge the necessary data; they might be reserved on the matter. Some principals may deny giving consent for this study in their schools as there are racial lines that are conspicuous because of the former apartheid government educational policy that birthed Model-C schools. This happened in two schools which were selected as research sites. One principal denied consent because he was previously accused by the parents of racism towards learners for having classes for African learners and classes for non-African learners which led to the intervention by the Eastern Cape Department of Education. Another principal denied giving consent out of

ignorance and attitude towards the topic and being pompous and arrogant as a principal. Some of the participants may want to withdraw from the project as it is their right to do so at any time during the study. Some schools which were initially selected for the study have done away with the implementation of the IIAL programme as they perceive it as a waste of time and interjection to curriculum delivery for the examinable subjects. The researcher had to resort to other schools. The COVID 19 Corona Virus pandemic had detrimental effects on the study as it made it difficult for me to verify some of the information towards the end as the thesis was concluded during this time. This accounts for not being able to verify some of the data in the way that it could have been done. However, it was too late to change the direction of the study, though document analysis and literature review could still and did continue.

3.14 Delimitation of the study

Initially, this study was confined to questionnaires and comprehension which related to the impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former Model-C schools. In this study, only the learners and teachers from selected schools were interviewed.

3.15 Reliability and validity

Validity is defined as the extent to which an instrument measures what it intends to measure (Kimberlin and Wnterstein, 2008). Validity also requires that an instrument is reliable. According to Crocker and Algina (1986), the test developer has a responsibility to identify the sources of measurement error that would be most detrimental to useful score interpretation and design reliability study permits such errors to occur so that their effect can be assessed. Pre-testing the instrument is an effective way to ensure that the instrument is valid and reliable.

Reliability and validity are criteria used to evaluate the quality of the research study. Reliability is the ability of separate researchers to come up with similar conclusions using the same design or participants in a study, whereas validity refers to the ability of an instrument to measure what it is supposed to measure (Leedy, 1993). This implies that if an instrument is used repeatedly on the same object, it would always produce the same results. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), there can be no validity without reliability. As a result, a demonstration of

validity is sufficient to establish reliability. To ensure reliability, questionnaires and comprehension were administered and conducted to assist participants where they needed clarity.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) further argue that validity is ensured by using strategies for trustworthiness, which include strategies such as credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability to ensure the trustworthiness of the research.

Credibility (Truth value)

Credibility informs a reader about the extent to which a researcher has a basis for confidence in presented findings. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the study is credible when it presents accurate descriptions and interpretations of human experiences that can also be recognised by others. Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommend the following set of activities to improve credibility of the results in a research project: prolonged engagement in the field, persistent observation, triangulation (the use of several data collection techniques), negative case analysis, checking interpretations against the raw data, peer debriefing, and member checking. In this study, credibility or truth value was ensured by conducting a pilot study that equipped me as a researcher with the necessary information about fieldwork. I also designed the data collection and data analysis procedures to ensure credibility of the results. Furthermore, a peer debriefing process was involved by the usage of experienced researchers such as my supervisors to reduce the impact of using a single researcher. Furthermore, I used a voice recorder to capture interviews and the literature review was also conducted to link the findings with the previous research.

Confirmability (neutrality)

Confirmability (neutrality) refers to the extent to which the findings are shaped by the participants rather than the researcher who may be biased or interested (Kairuz et al., 2007). Furthermore, Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that the way the researcher describes the characteristics should be confirmed by other people who review the results. Neutrality was ensured by selecting an expert, including my promoters, to look into all instruments such as the questionnaires, the interview schedule, and the observation sheet, the recordings before implementing them and the standard of the research in general. I have also kept safe the voice recordings, transcriptions and field notes taken during the observations for future reference.

Confirmability is, therefore, determined by checking whether there is coherence within the research products, such as the data, findings, interpretations and recommendations.

Dependability (Consistency)

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), consistency refers to whether the findings would be consistent if the study were replicated in the same context. I used statistical analysis to check consistency. I have also kept safe the detailed documentation of the data processing procedures to enable future researchers to make their own judgements on the results of this study. After the identification of criteria and coding, my supervisors also verified the results.

Transferability (Applicability)

Transferability (Applicability) refers to the degree to which the findings of the study can be applied to other contexts and settings or even with other groups (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). This implies that the research findings were used to check if they can have implications for other settings beyond the one included in this research or not. Transferability was made possible in this study by a detailed documentation of data collected in schools. The documents such as questionnaires and comprehension responses are safely locked away to allow other users to make judgements of whether this can be transferred to the whole population or other situational contexts.

3.16 Conclusion

This chapter describes the research design and methodology. Population, sampling techniques, data collection tools, interaction with participants and ethical issues have also been discussed. Limitations and delimitations form part of this discussion and chapter.

The research methods and design which were employed in this study were effective in that they provided answers to the research questions which were asked in chapter one. The research study enabled the researcher to gather relevant information relating to the title of the study. The use of different data collection methods employed also helped the researcher to have insight about the title of the study. In the chapter that follows the data that was collected using the methodologies outlined in chapter 3, is presented, primarily from a statistical and quantitative perspective.

Chapter 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents empirical data collected from the five schools in the Maluti sub-district of the Alfred Nzo West district municipality. The data were generated through questionnaires, observation and comprehension as indicated and discussed in chapter 3. The literature review and the theoretical framework outlined in chapter 2 have been integrated into the evaluation of the findings in order to assist the researcher to reflect on the study questions and formulate the conclusions and recommendations in the last chapter. The schools which served as research sites were coded as school A, school B, C, D and E.

4.2 Questionnaires and administration of research instruments

In the first phase of the study, data analysis was organized and presented using the SPSS statistical package for social scientists and the following analyses were done:

Descriptive statistics with frequency tables and relevant charts were performed and inferential statistics.

Both frequency tables and charts present the findings in different formats. A summary of the findings is presented in tables and charts/graphs for each question and brief explanations on the frequency tables are given.

4.3 Comprehension

As indicated in the previous chapter, a marking rubric was employed to score marks on comprehension writing. The questions were asked in English, isiXhosa and Sesotho, given the nature of the learners and home languages spoken in the district. Learners were at liberty to provide answers in any of the three languages. Most of the learners provided answers in their home languages, whereas some questions were asked in English. This showed that they understood what was asked. I say this because out of 151 learner respondents, 131 learners (87%) answered in their home languages (isiXhosa and Sesotho) while 20 learners (13%) answered in English only.

4.4 Document analysis and observation

Documents that include schools' language policy and the IIAL were requested from each school. Observations were done in all five schools and document analysis conducted.

4.5 Linkages to literature

Language policy development and implementation in post-colonial states has always been an emotive topic because of the history that these countries shared with their colonizers. Many of them modelled their language policies after those of their colonizers. South Africa has tried at least at the level of LIE policy development, to break away from the legacy of colonialism by crafting a multilingual LIE policy. Mashiyi (2011) suggests that, for some scholars the source of African learners 'language problems are largely the unequal relationship between English and indigenous languages (Alexander in Phillipson, 2000:170). Furthermore, Mashiyi (2011) is also of the view that the uncoordinated way the LoLT is implemented in contexts where learners and teachers speak the same indigenous languages is a contributory factor in learner achievement in the school system. For example, in the current study it emerged that learners are taught in a code-switching mode but are assessed in English only. This is a disservice to the learners, since they might know the answer but are unable to present it correctly in the "required language". The observations made in the course of this research therefore corroborate with the literature presented in chapter 2 of this thesis. It is not possible to teach in one language and to examine in another. This does not scaffold and support learner cognition as found in the research related to comprehension presented in this thesis.

4.6 Data presentation

4.6.1 Quantitative Data from learners

Biographic information of learners

The biographical data analysis comprised nine variables that described the participants' profiles, and these are given below. The respondents' bio-data analysis started with the participant's gender and proceeded to other variables, culminating with the parents' occupation. The interpretation following includes the proportional allocation of percentages and the corresponding frequencies related to the data.

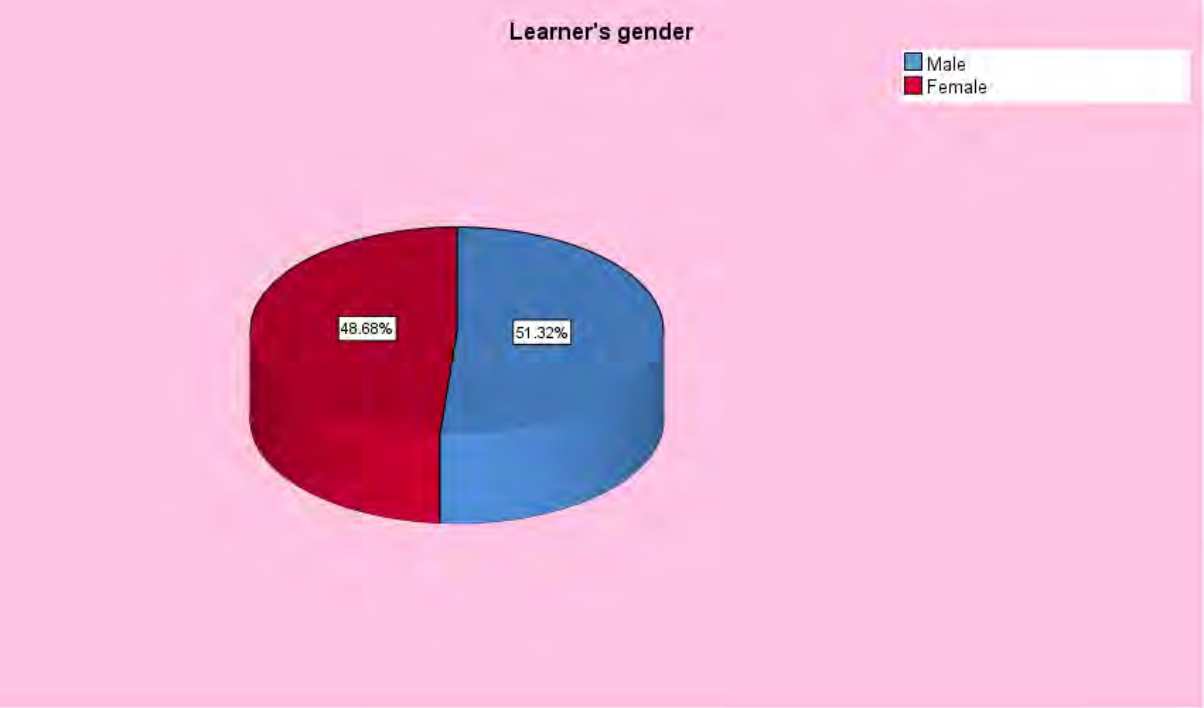
4.6.2 Gender for learners 51% were male learners. This was followed by 48.4% who were females. In many surveys females usually outnumber males, but in this instance it is not the case.

Learner's gender

Table 1: Learner's gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	78	51.0	51.3	51.3
	Female	74	48.4	48.7	100.0
	Total	152	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		153	100.0		

Seventy-eight male learners (51%) participated in this study and seventy-four female learners (48.4%). One learner remained missing from the data.



While there is no specific data to indicate that male and female learners affected the research significantly, it is still worthy to note form a gender perspective that the research subjects were almost evenly matched between male and female learners, though with a propensity towards male learners in the five schools.

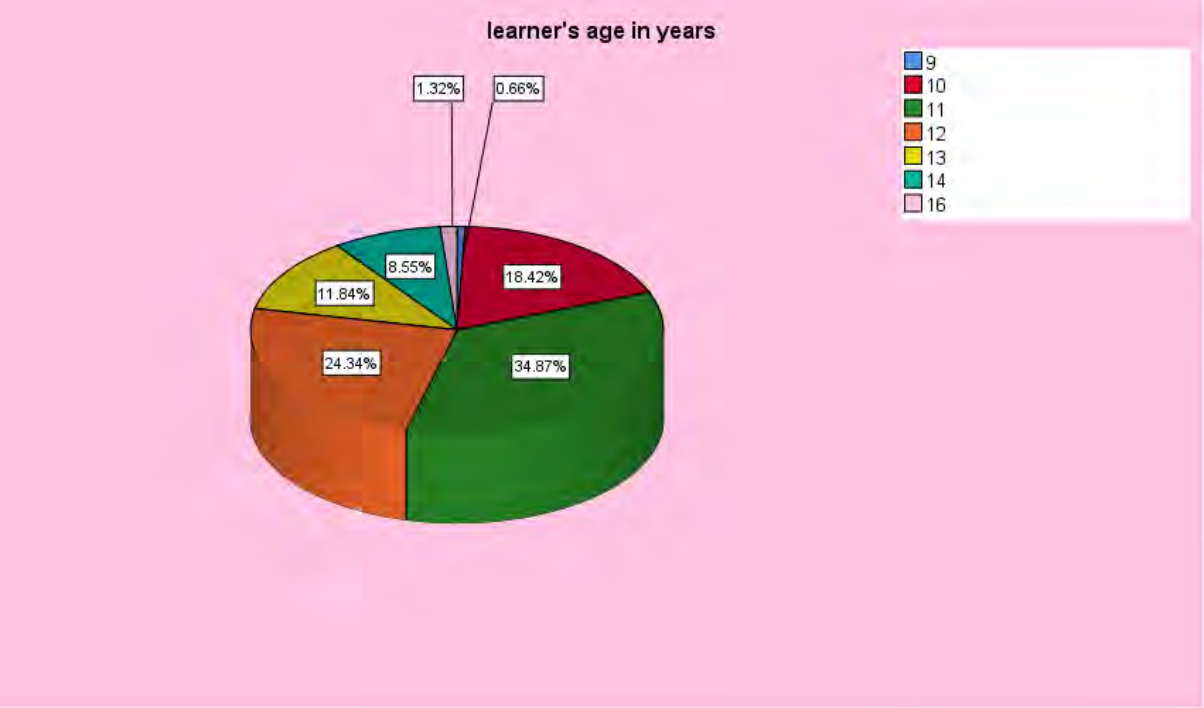
4.6.3 Age of participants

Table 2 shows that the majority of the respondents (34.6%) were aged 11 years, followed by (24%) 12 years, (18.3%) 10 years, (11.8%) 13 years, (8.5%) 14 years and (1.3%) 16 years. The researcher merged the first six percentages of the analysis and obtained 99.3%. In relation to the data this is significant as it shows that learners in a particular grade are not of the same age and therefore would bring different life and language experiences to the learning environment. This could in turn affect and reflect their learning capabilities in a translanguaging environment.

Learner's age in years

Table 2: Learner's age in years

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	9	1	.7	.7	.7
	10	28	18.3	18.4	19.1
	11	53	34.6	34.9	53.9
	12	37	24.2	24.3	78.3
	13	18	11.8	11.8	90.1
	14	13	8.5	8.6	98.7
	16	2	1.3	1.3	100.0
	Total	152	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		153	100.0		



The discrepancy and age difference presented in these statistics speaks more generally to the complexities that are faced by teachers in the classroom i.e. differences in age as well as relating this to gender issues and the levels of adolescent as well as language development that present themselves in the learning environment.

4.6.4. Descriptive analysis of learners

Table 4: Being simultaneously taught in English and isiXhosa/Sesotho in content subjects is enjoyable

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	120	78.4	78.4	78.4
	No	22	14.4	14.4	92.8
	Not sure	11	7.2	7.2	100.0
	Total	153	100.0	100.0	

One hundred and twenty (78.4%) learners enjoyed being simultaneously taught in both English and isiXhosa/Sesotho through a translanguaging process as theorised in chapter 2, while twenty-two learners (14.4%) did not and eleven learners (7.2%) were not sure.

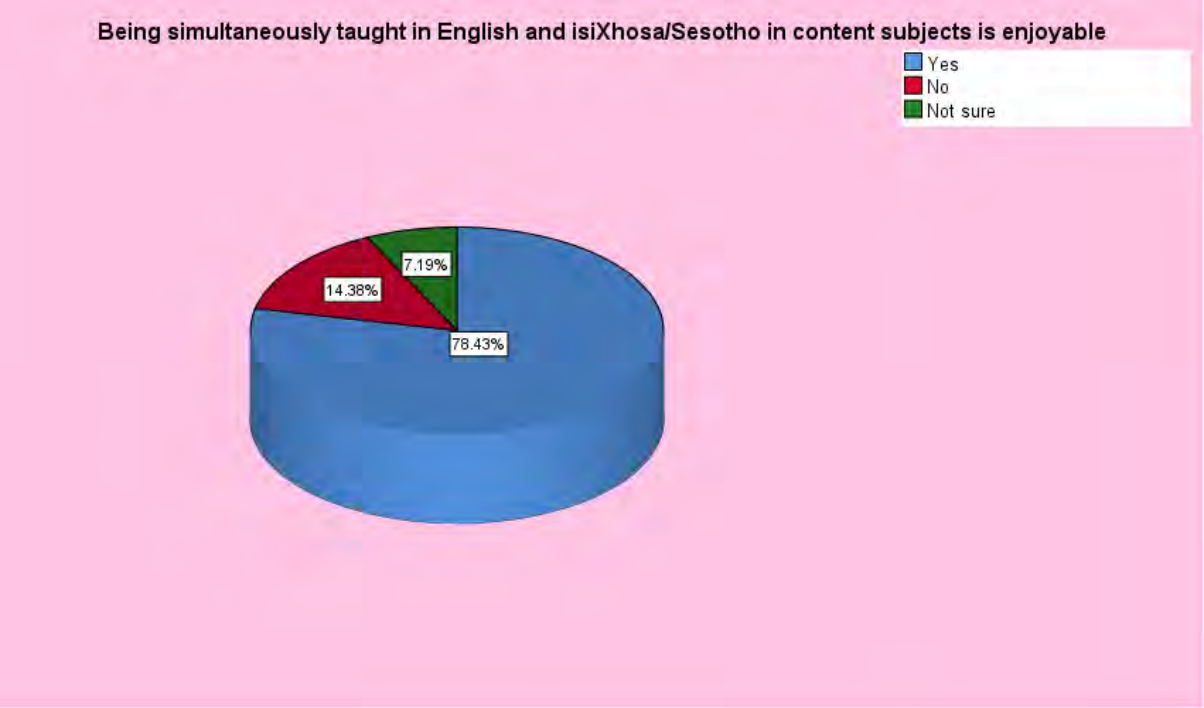


Table 5: It is better when one is taught in isiXhosa/Sesotho than being taught in English

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	109	71.2	71.2	71.2
	No	35	22.9	22.9	94.1
	Not sure	9	5.9	5.9	100.0
	Total	153	100.0	100.0	

One hundred and nine learners preferred to be taught in isiXhosa/Sesotho than in English (71.2%), while thirty-five learners preferred to be taught in English (22.9%) and nine learners (5.9%) were not sure. This again correlates with the notion that one learns best in a language(s)

one understands best and that this is normally the mother tongue. The preference for translanguaging between the two African languages is also worth noting.

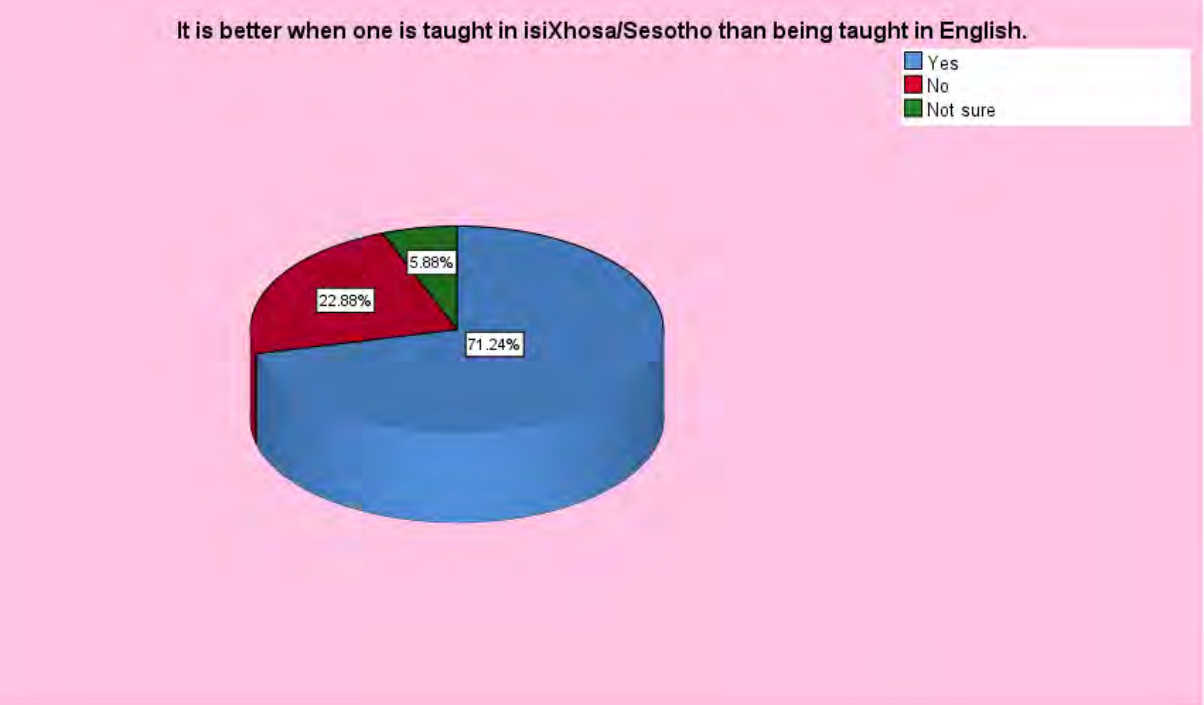


Table 6: If instructions in tests were given in isiXhosa/Sesotho as against English, there would be no problem understanding them

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	94	61.4	62.3	62.3
	No	40	26.1	26.5	88.7
	Not sure	17	11.1	11.3	100.0
	Total	151	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		153	100.0		

Ninety-four learners (61.4%) supported the notion of tests being given in isiXhosa/Sesotho for better understanding, whilst forty (26.1%) learners were against that view and seventeen

learners (11.1%) were not sure. Again, even though a quarter of learners disagreed with the question, the vast majority showed a preference to be taught in an African language translanguaging process or in their mother tongue.

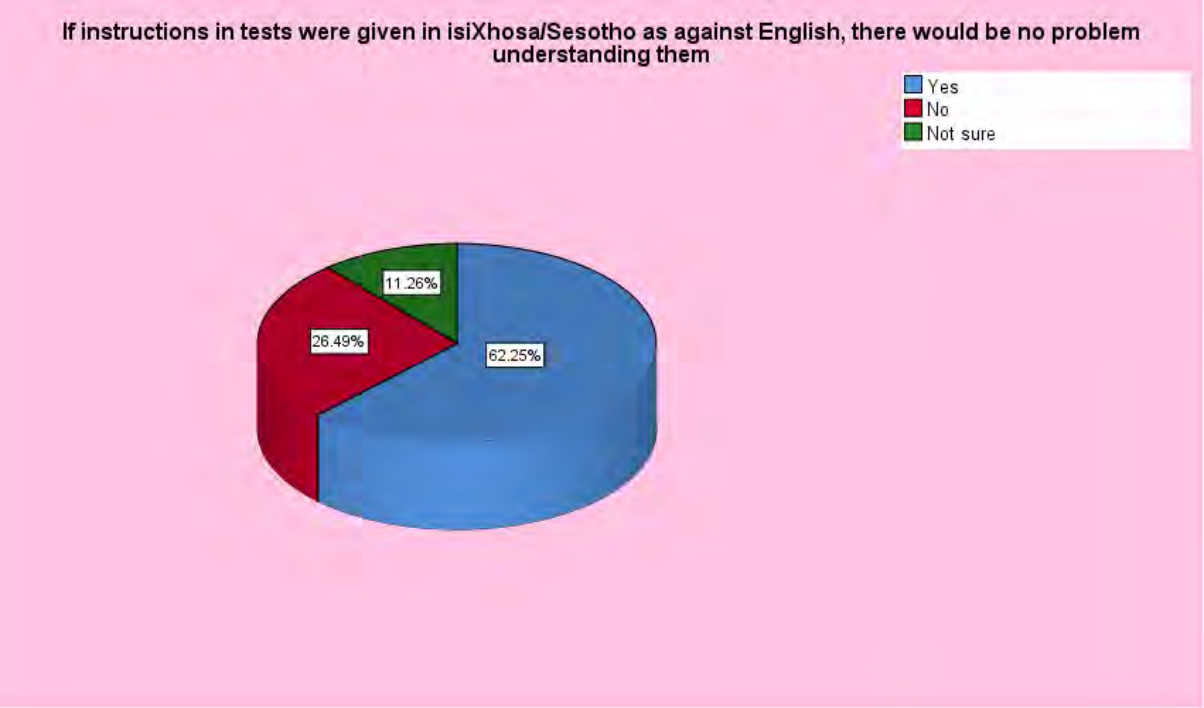


Table 7: It is not appreciable being forced to speak English at school even when I am not in class

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	64	41.8	42.1	42.1
	No	58	37.9	38.2	80.3
	Not sure	30	19.6	19.7	100.0
	Total	152	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		153	100.0		

Sixty-four learners (41.8%) did not appreciate to be forced to speak English at school, even when not in class. Fifty-eight learners (37.9%) appreciated the enforcement of speaking English at school while thirty learners (19.6) were not sure. This is an interesting statistic as it speaks to learners wanting to learn English at whatever cost, even at the cost of their own mother tongue and it seems to show disagreement with the statistical data above. It speaks to Alexander's (2012) notion of English being 'unassailable' yet it is often 'unattainable', even though drastic means such as forcing learners to speak it artificially in the school environment.

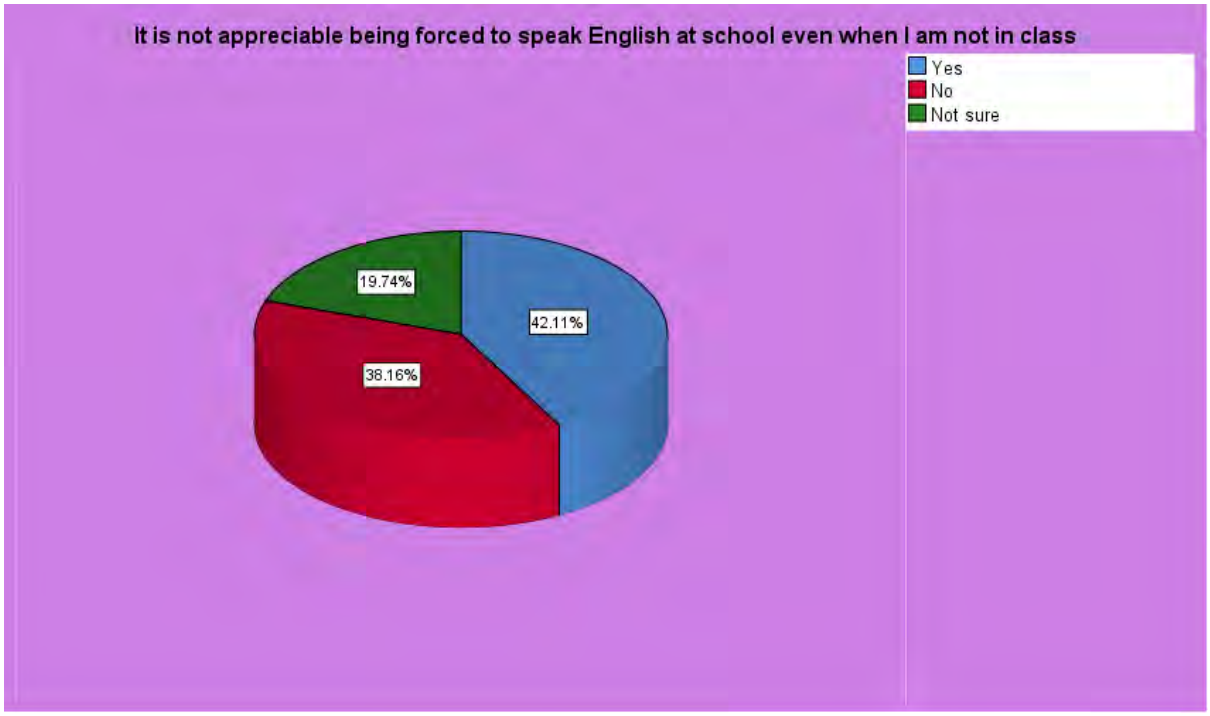


Table 8: Learning isiXhosa/Sesotho at school has helped me gain knowledge of this language more than learning English

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	117	76.5	76.5	76.5
	No	22	14.4	14.4	90.8
	Not sure	14	9.2	9.2	100.0
	Total	153	100.0	100.0	

One hundred and seventeen learners (76.5%) have gained knowledge of isiXhosa/Sesotho through learning these languages more than learning English. Twenty-two learners (14.4%) did not support that opinion and fourteen learners (9.2%) were not sure. Again, this speaks to teachers not being able to impart knowledge appropriately in English in order to ensure effective learning of the language, as well as learners not having sufficient exposure to the language in order to facilitate the learning process. In regard to the African languages, these are larger lived and heard in communities and are therefore easier to teach and embed in the learning and education process, thereby facilitating a translanguaging teaching and learning pedagogy.

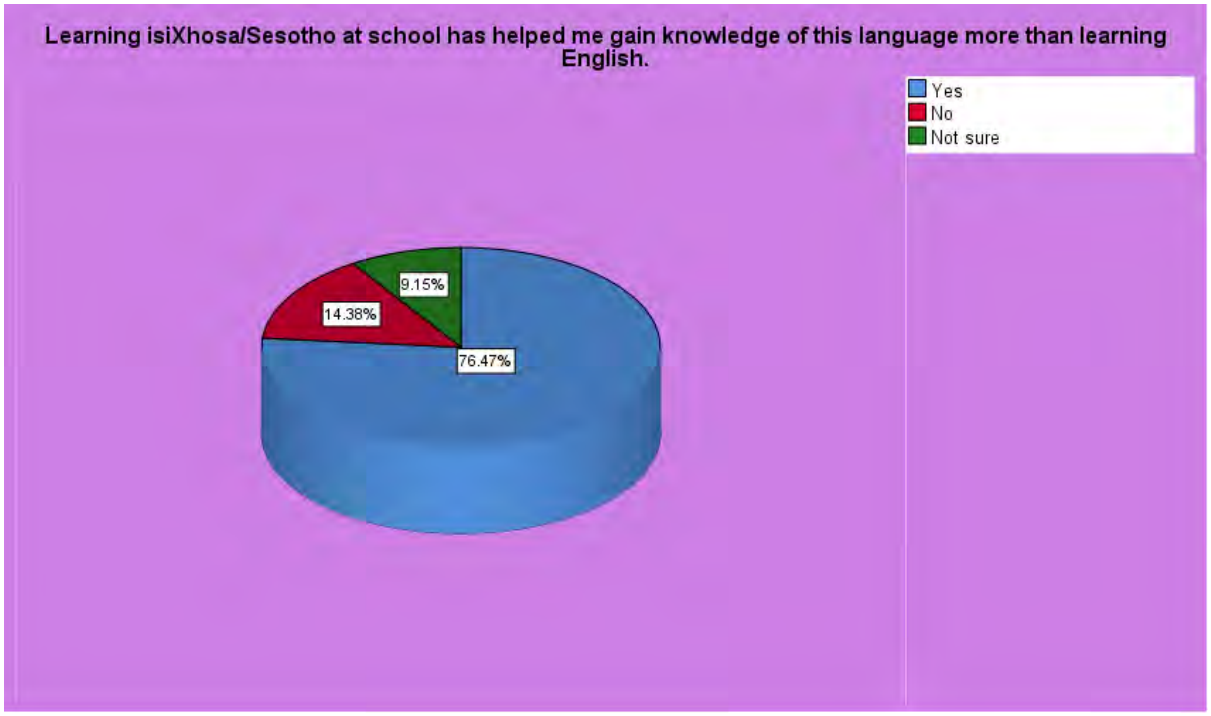


Table 9: The use of isiXhosa/Sesotho in the classroom promotes social cohesion (unity) and promotion of new words as I frequently interact with other isiXhosa/Sesotho speakers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	121	79.1	80.7	80.7
	No	20	13.1	13.3	94.0

	Not sure	9	5.9	6.0	100.0
	Total	150	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.0		
Total		153	100.0		

One hundred and twenty-one learners (79.1%) supported the use of isiXhosa/Sesotho for social cohesion (unity) and a new vocabulary because of frequent interaction with the speakers of this language, while twenty learners (13.1%) were opposed to that view and nine learners (5.9%) were not sure. This speaks to the power of language in contributing to a process of unity in diversity, thereby also forming the possible hidden underpinning of a translanguaging pedagogy based on mutual respect and social cohesion regardless of linguistic differences.

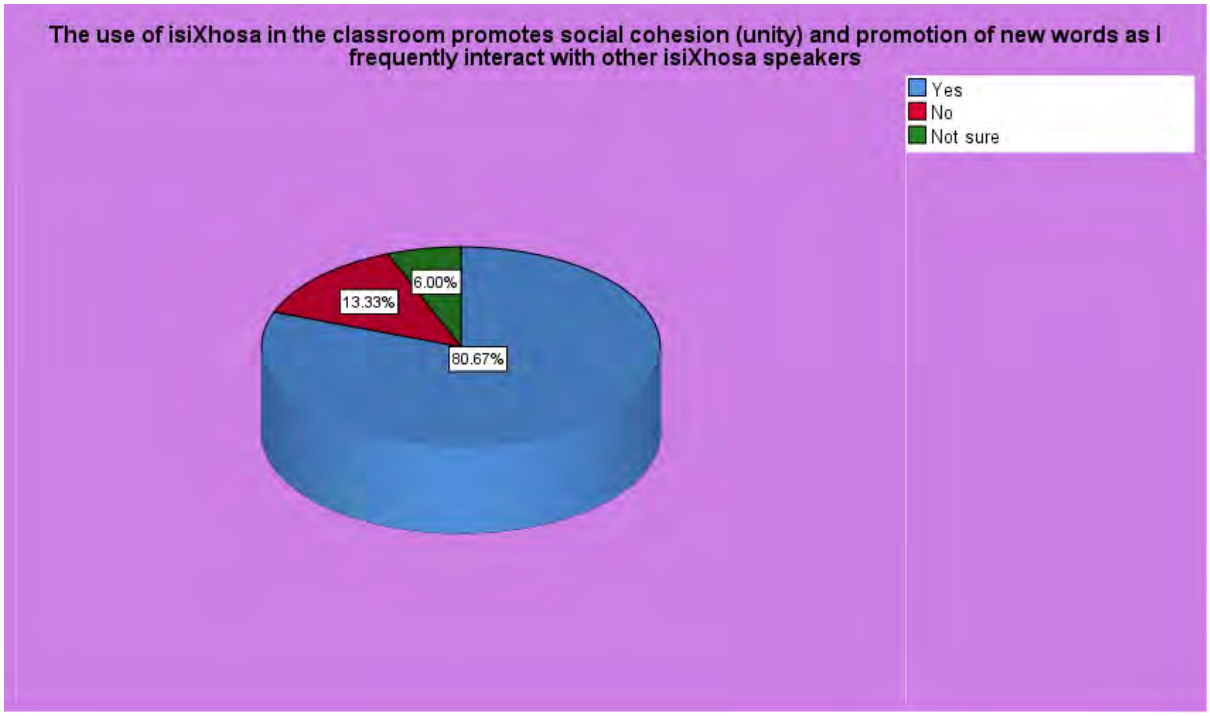


Table 10: It is fruitless to be taught isiXhosa/Sesotho in a school where the medium of instruction is English

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	33	21.6	22.0	22.0
	No	89	58.2	59.3	81.3
	Not sure	28	18.3	18.7	100.0
	Total	150	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.0		
Total		153	100.0		

Thirty-three learners (21.6%) negated the teaching of isiXhosa/Sesotho in an English medium school and eighty-nine learners (58.2%) approved of the teaching of isiXhosa/Sesotho in an English medium school. Twenty-eight learners (18.3) were unsure. Again this speaks to post-democracy changes in attitudes to language(s). Immediately after democracy the pendulum arguably swung towards English as the language of prestige. This is evidenced in the demise of many university African language departments (Kaschula, in Kaschula and Wolff, 2016). These statistics show that in multicultural and multilingual schools such as those that formed part of this study, that there has been a gradual recognition of the value of studying in and about African languages (Obanya, 2004), whether from a first or first additional language perspective, again adding to the underpinning of the possible strength of a translanguaging pedagogy as outlined in chapter 2 of this thesis.

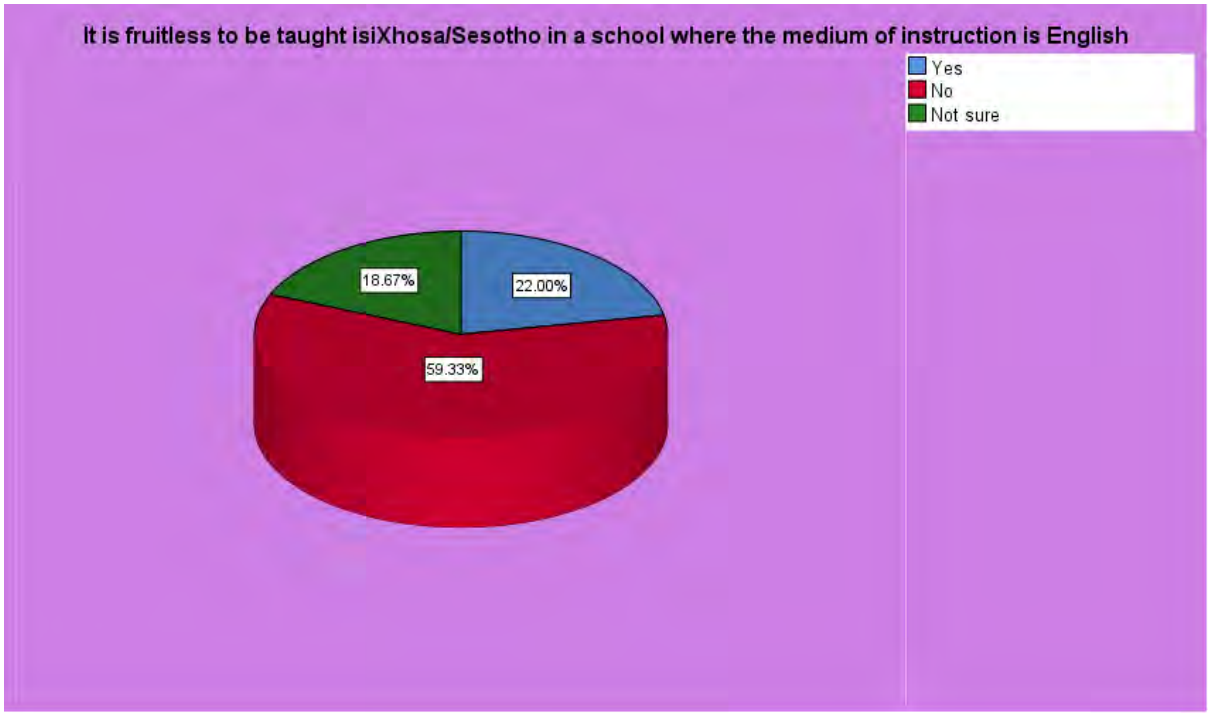


Table 11: Interaction and communication are better with isiXhosa/Sesotho as a result of acquiring new words and terminology

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	112	73.2	74.2	74.2
	No	26	17.0	17.2	91.4
	Not sure	13	8.5	8.6	100.0
	Total	151	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		153	100.0		

One hundred and twelve learners (73.2%) were of the impression that interaction and communication are improved as a result of acquiring new words and terminology. Twenty-six learners (17%) were against the aforesaid view and thirteen learners (8.5%) were uncertain.

The statistics clearly show that the vast majority of learners value the growth in lexicon and terminology development that comes with language learning, particularly in an African language. This shows a positive disposition to multilingualism and language learning.

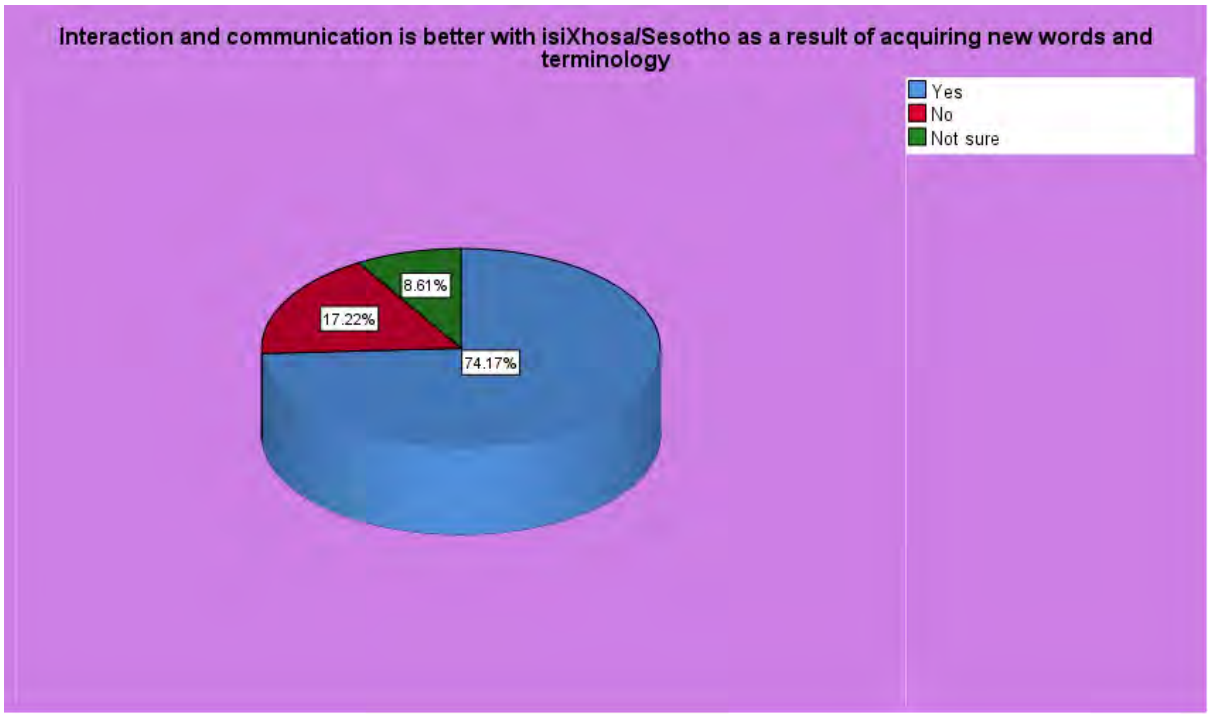


Table 12: There are existing isiXhosa/Sesotho cultural festivities that one would like to know in future

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	129	84.3	85.4	85.4
	No	19	12.4	12.6	98.0
	Not sure	3	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	151	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		153	100.0		

One hundred and twenty-nine learners (84.3%) stated that they would want to know about existing isiXhosa/Sesotho cultural activities and nineteen learners (12.4%) were not intending to know or find out about isiXhosa/Sesotho cultural activities. Three learners (2%) were unsure. Again, this shows a correlation between positive attitudes towards language learning and cultural activities which are informed through language. Understanding the importance of cultural events by the vast majority of students (mother tongue and other tongue) can also be seen as an indicator of the acceptance of language(s) and culture(s) as possibly underpinning a translanguaging classroom pedagogy.

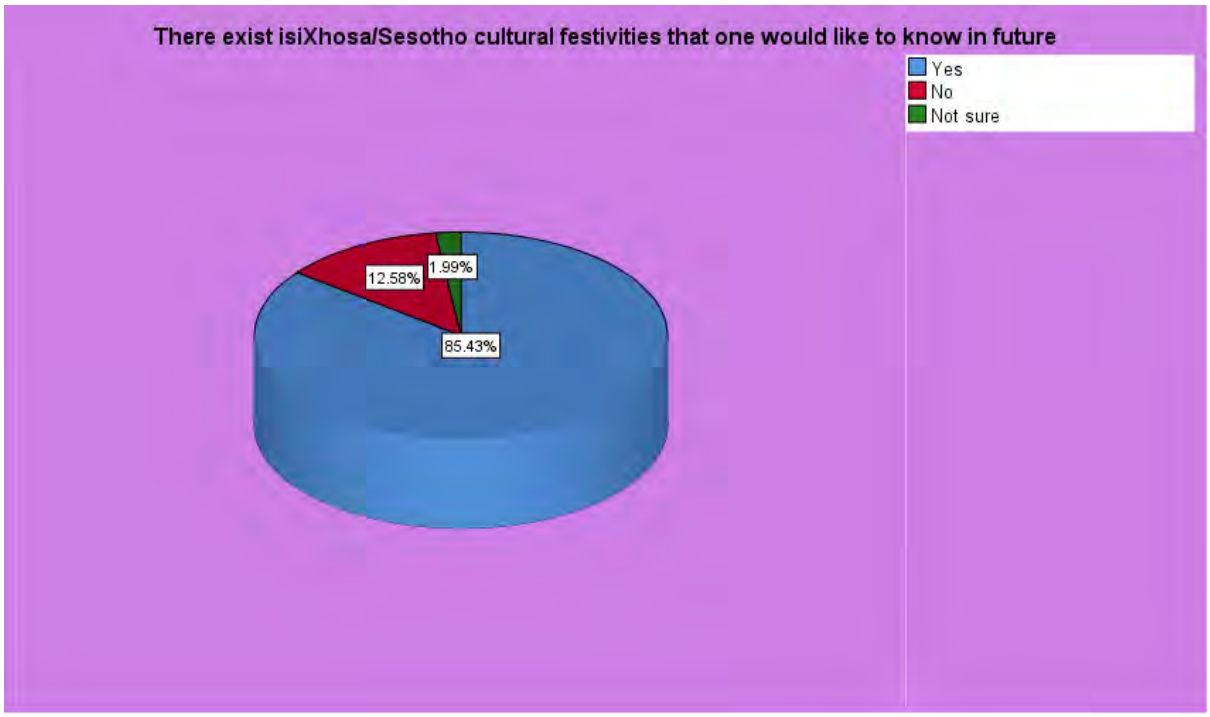
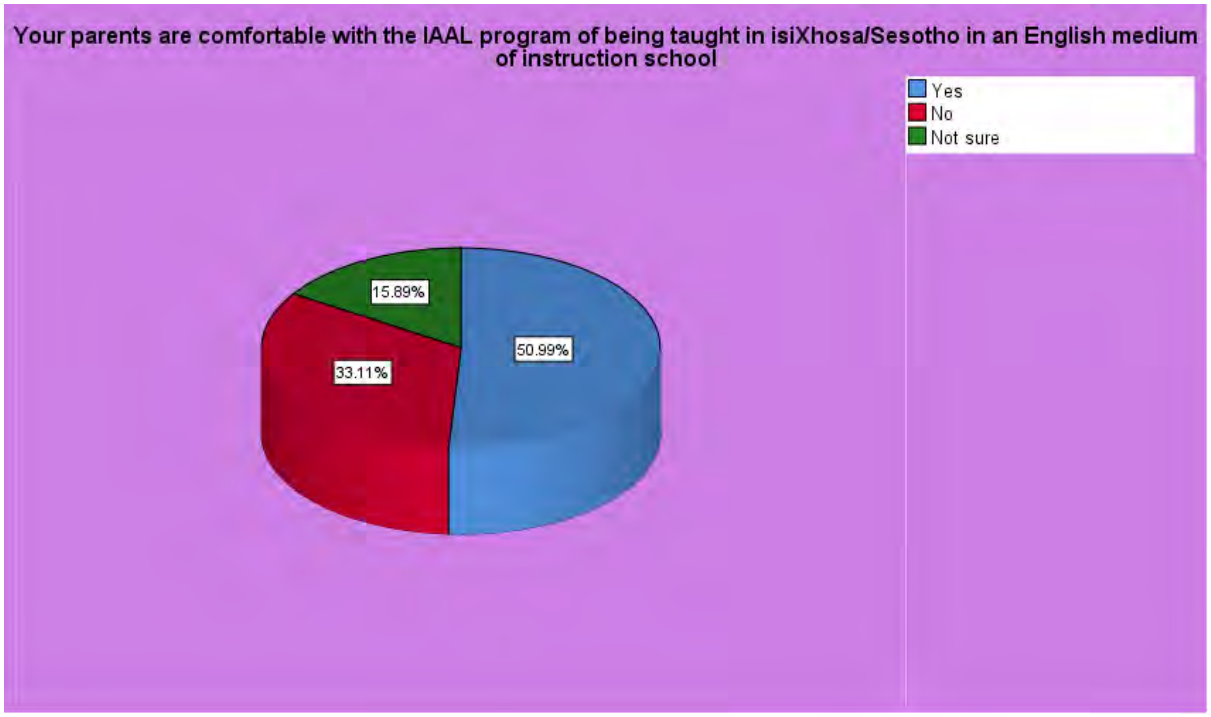


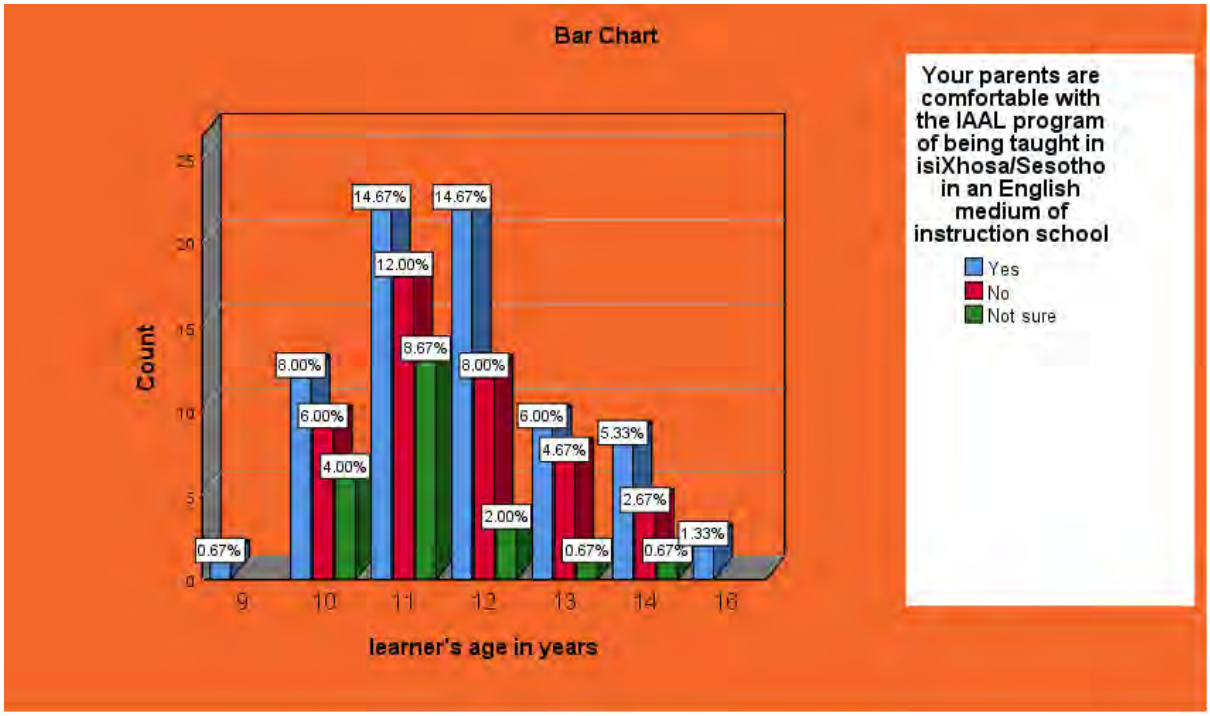
Table 13: Your parents are comfortable with the IIAL program of being taught in isiXhosa/Sesotho in an English medium instruction school

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	77	50.3	51.0	51.0
	No	50	32.7	33.1	84.1
	Not sure	24	15.7	15.9	100.0

	Total	151	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		153	100.0		

Seventy-seven learner's (50.3%) parents were comfortable with the IIAL program in an English medium instruction school and fifty learners' (32.7%) parents were against the IIAL program with teaching of isiXhosa/Sesotho in an English medium instruction school. Twenty-four learners (15.7%) were not sure about this situation. This is an interesting statistic as it shows how parents see schools as an avenue for learning English rather than gaining a holistic education through use of various languages including English. This statistic seems to show a disjuncture between the expectations of parents as opposed to the expectations of learners who are more welcoming of a translanguaging pedagogy.





The statistics presented above provide some tentative and interesting data for analysis, primarily in relation to the attitudes of learners and parents towards not only medium of instruction, but also to the notion of translanguaging and using more than one language in the classroom. What is noted is that learners seem to be more welcoming of multilingualism and multilingual pedagogies in the classroom as well as showing an interest in cultural activities that are underpinned by language.

4.6.4.1 Gender for teachers

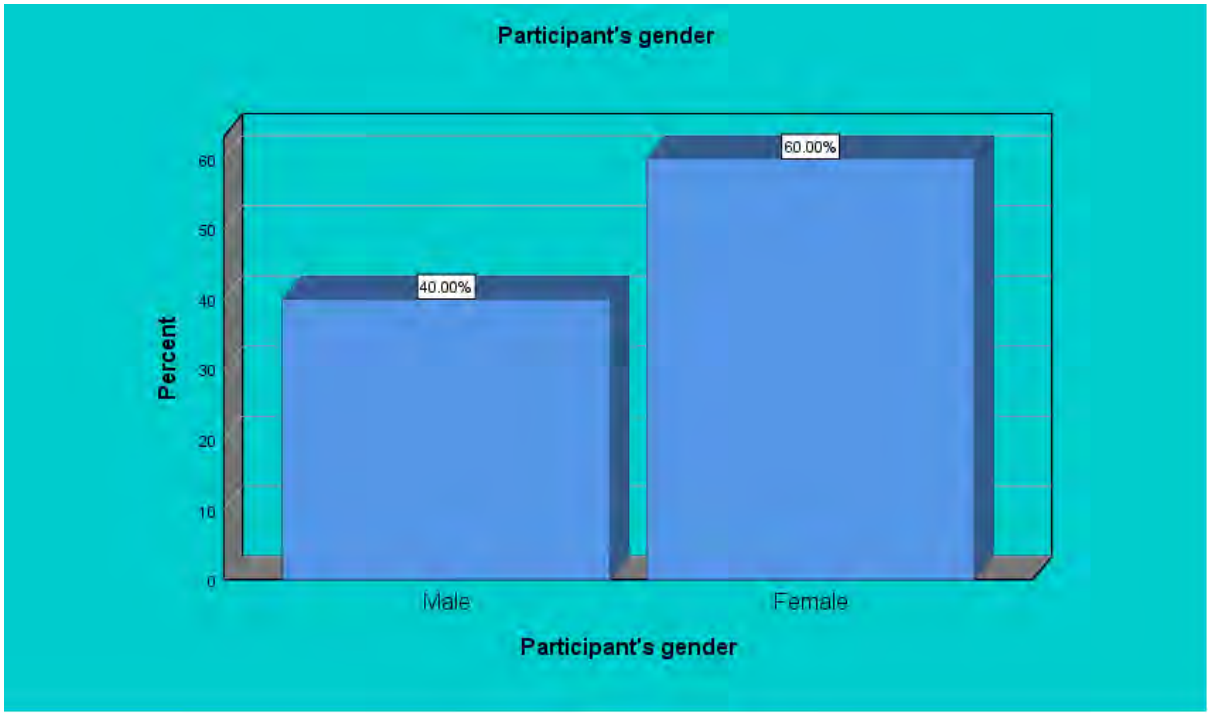
In relation to the collection of data, three female teachers and two male teachers participated in the study. This may be a relatively small sample but what follows below does provide some perspective on the background of teachers as well as regarding how the teachers view the learner experience in the classroom from a language or translanguaging point of view.

Participant's gender

Table 2: Participant's gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent

Valid	Male	2	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Female	3	60.0	60.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

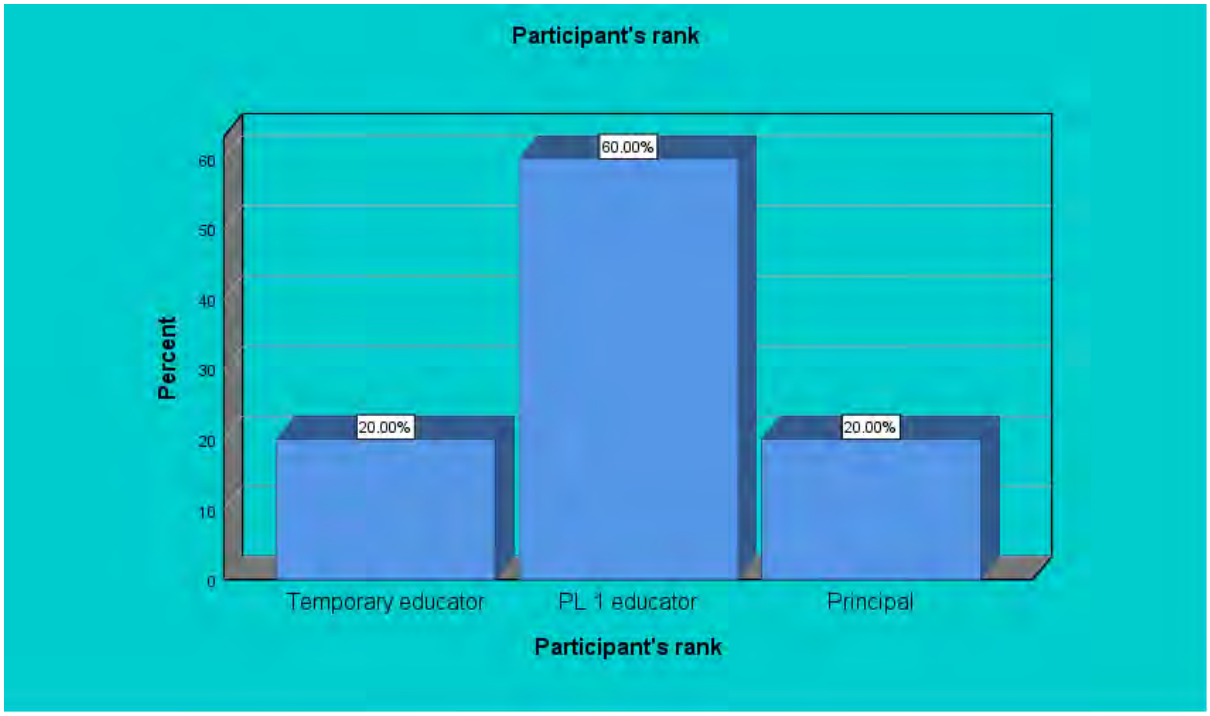


4.6.6.4 Participant's rank

One temporary teacher, three post level one educators and one principal participated.

Table 3: Participant's rank

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Temporary educator	1	20.0	20.0	20.0
	PL 1 educator	3	60.0	60.0	80.0
	Principal	1	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

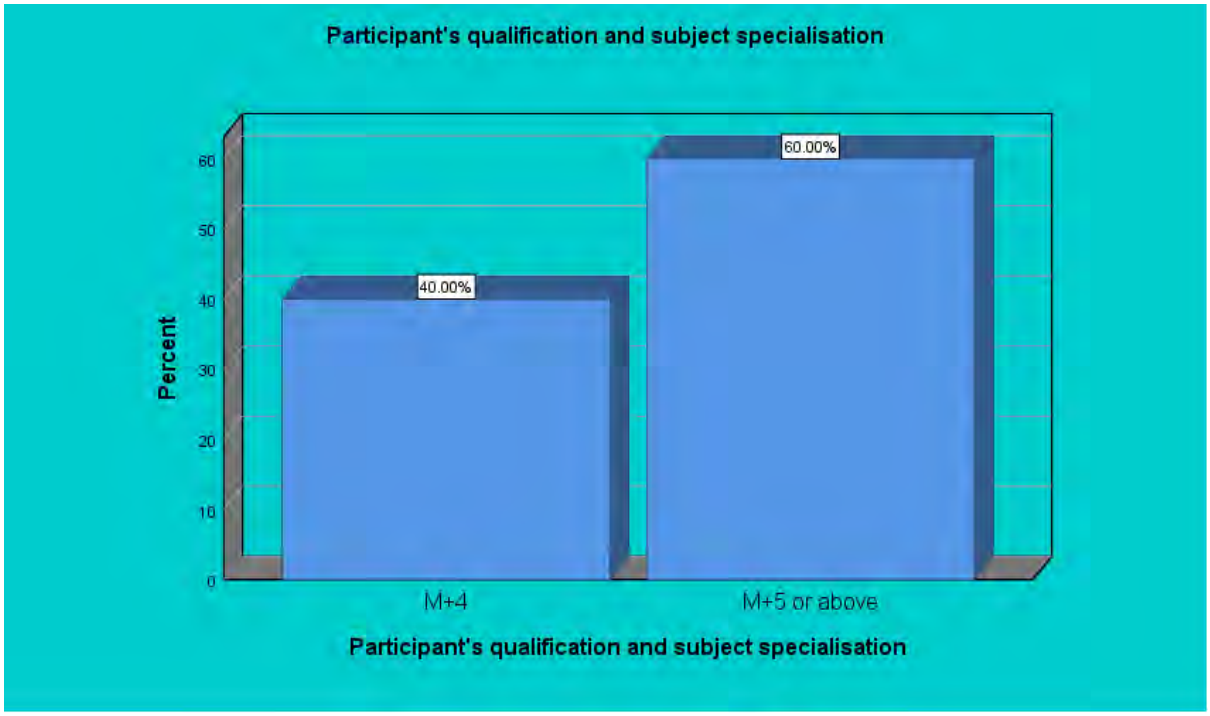


4.6.4.2 Participant's qualification and subject specialisation

Two matric plus four years' teacher qualification teachers participated, three teachers 1who possess matric plus five years' teacher qualification participated.

Table 4: Participant's qualification and subject specialisation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	M+4	2	40.0	40.0	40.0
	M+5 or above	3	60.0	60.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	



4.6.4.3 Descriptive analysis of teachers

Table 5: Learners enjoy being taught in isiXhosa as a First Additional Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Slightly disagree	1	20.0	20.0	40.0
	Agree	1	20.0	20.0	60.0
	Strongly agree	2	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

One teacher (20%) strongly disagreed that learners enjoyed being taught isiXhosa, one teacher (20%) slightly disagreed, one teacher (20%) agreed and two teachers (40%) strongly agreed. Although only a tentative sample, it does show that there are improved perceptions regarding the teaching of isiXhosa and how this is received by learners.

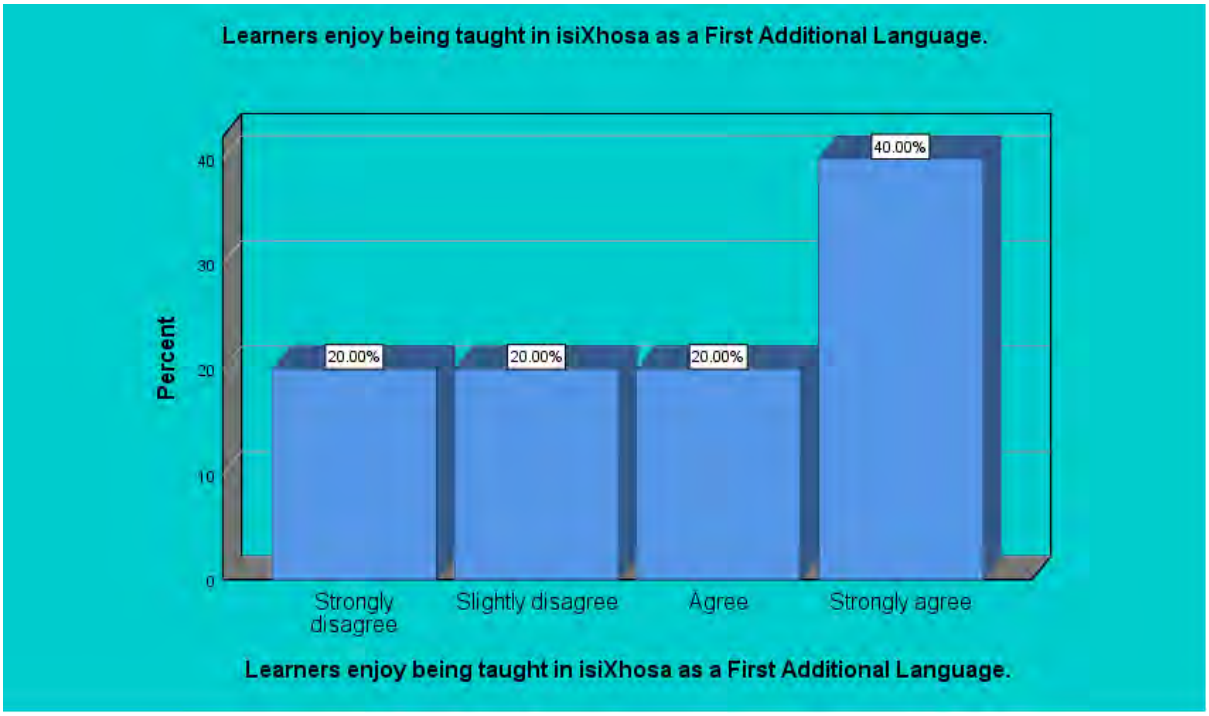


Table 6: It is enjoyable teaching isiXhosa to multi-racial learners in the same classroom

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Slightly agree	1	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Strongly agree	4	80.0	80.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

One teacher (20%) slightly agreed that there was some enjoyment in teaching isiXhosa to multiracial learners in the same class while four teachers (80%) strongly agreed. Again, this is a positive statistic if one is to pursue a translanguaging pedagogy as there is already teacher support for the use of more than one language in the classroom and the perception already exists that this i.e. multilingualism is a resource that can be used in the classroom (Ruiz, 1984).

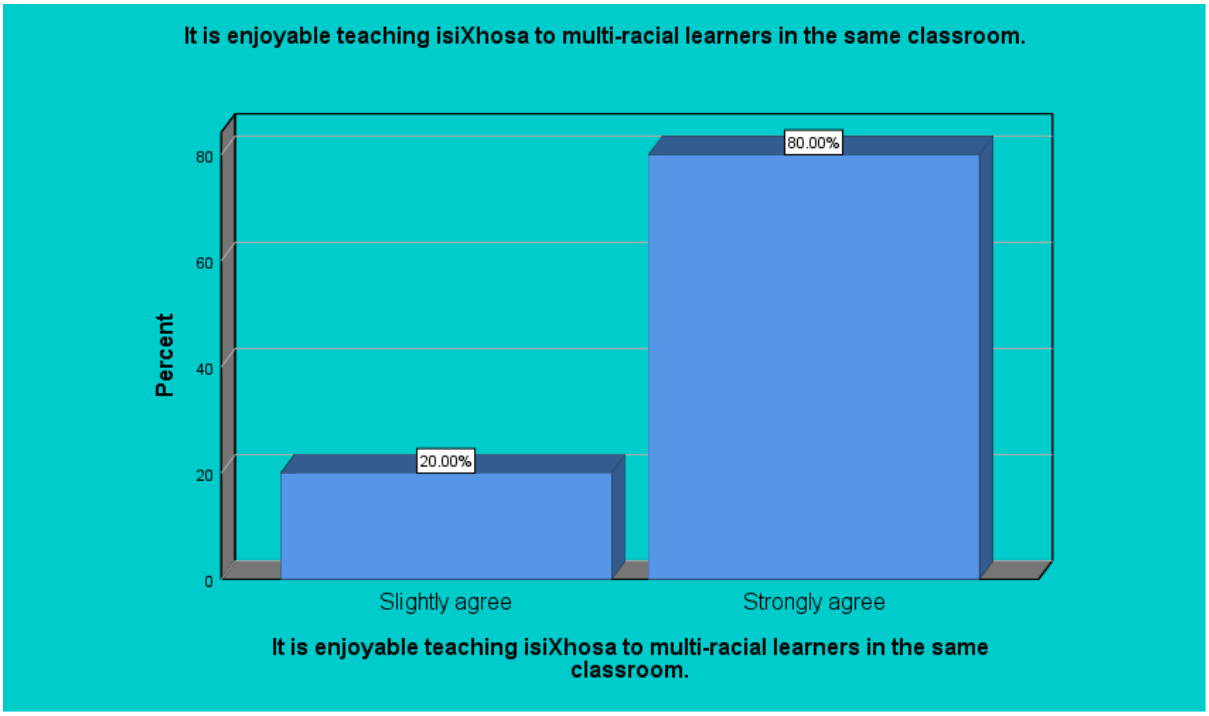


Table 7: Learners always ask follow-up questions in class in isiXhosa

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Slightly agree	1	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Strongly agree	4	80.0	80.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Only one teacher (20%) slightly agreed that learners always ask follow-up questions in isiXhosa and four teachers (80%) strongly agreed that learners do so. Again, this shows that learning takes place in languages that one understands best (Alexander, 2012). These statistics show that the majority of teachers are also aware of this process, thereby acting as an encouragement to a translanguaging pedagogy, even though this may be a subconscious process.

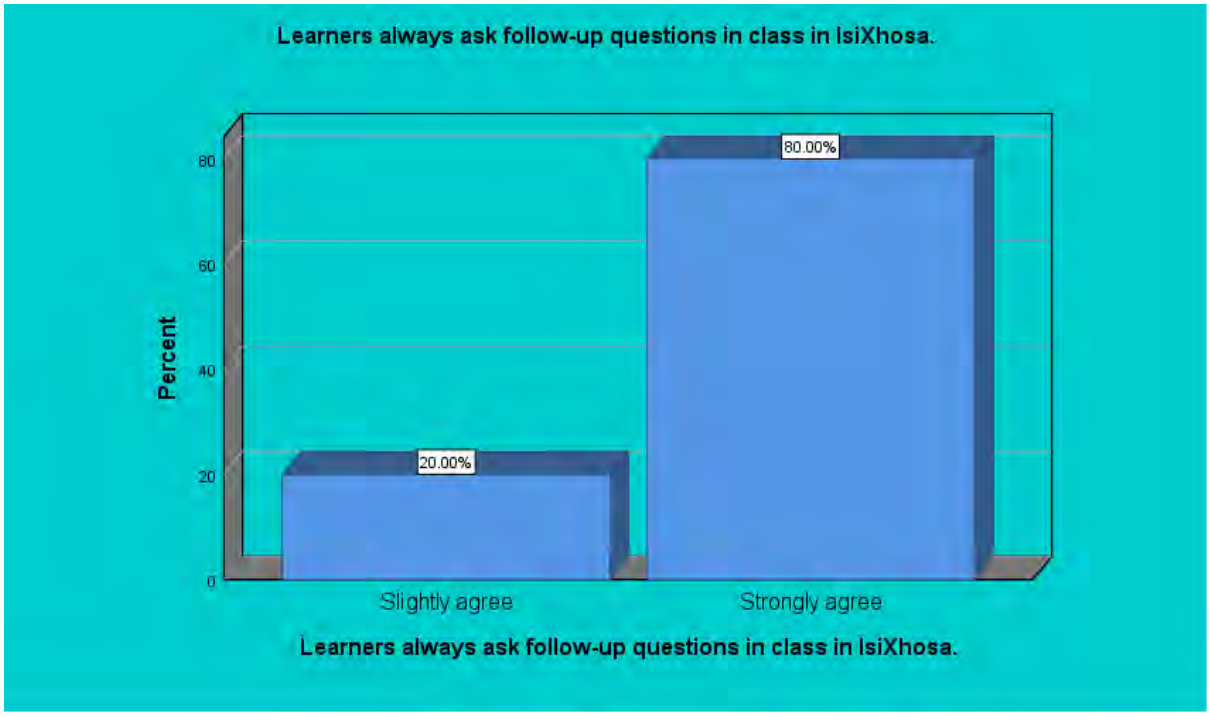


Table 8: I sometimes feel discouraged to teach learners in isiXhosa as it makes learners not to have a better understanding of the concepts

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Slightly disagree	1	20.0	20.0	60.0
	Slightly agree	1	20.0	20.0	80.0
	Agree	1	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Two teachers (40%) disagreed, one teacher (20%) slightly disagreed, one teacher (20%) slightly agreed and one teacher (20%) agreed that they felt discouraged to teach learners in isiXhosa for better understanding of concepts. This possibly speaks to the perception that understanding must take place only in English as the assessment process is through the medium of English. This perception does not encourage translanguaging and removes the impetus from

the use of African languages. If translanguaging were to become the norm, then these statistics suggest that language of assessment would need further interrogation.

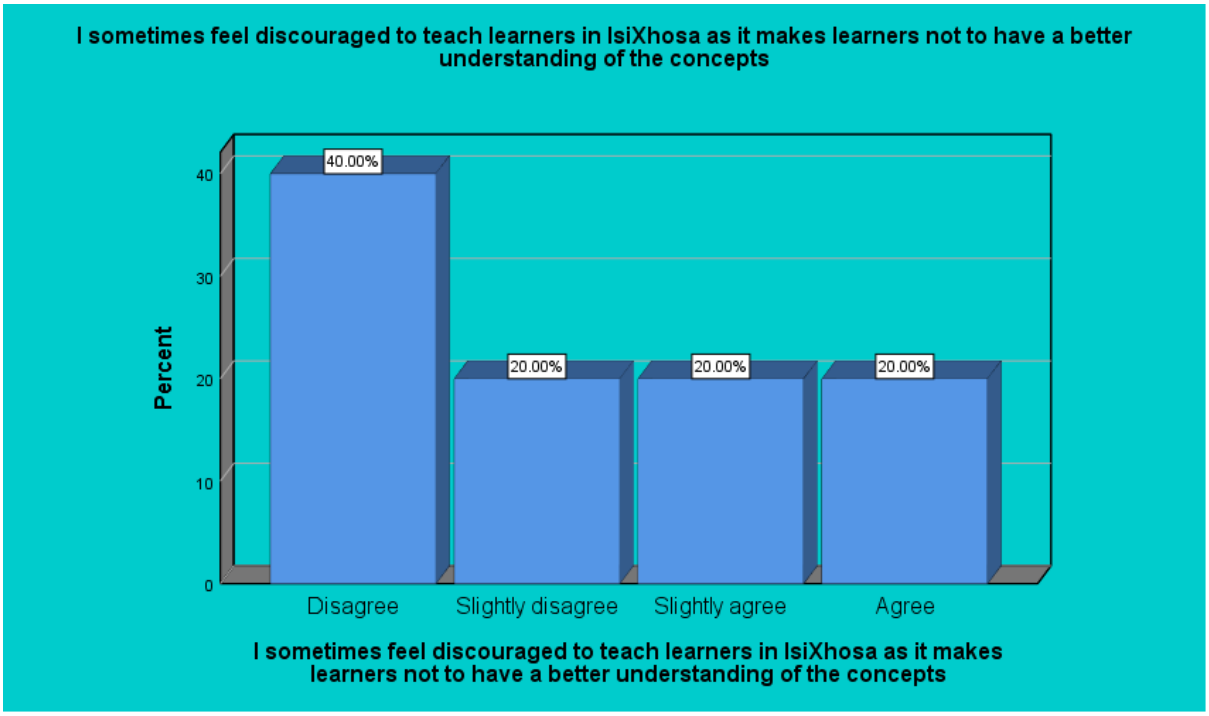


Table 9: I sometimes feel discouraged to teach learners in English as it makes learners not to have a better understanding of the concepts

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Slightly disagree	1	20.0	20.0	60.0
	Slightly agree	1	20.0	20.0	80.0
	Agree	1	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Two teachers (40%) disagreed, one teacher (20%) slightly disagreed, one teacher (20%) slightly agreed and one teacher (20%) agreed that they feel discouraged to teach learners in English for better understanding of concepts. Again, the perception garnered from these

statistics is that English remains the only language in which content can be accessed, again fuelling the misnomer that African languages are not necessarily an important contributing factor in the learning environment.

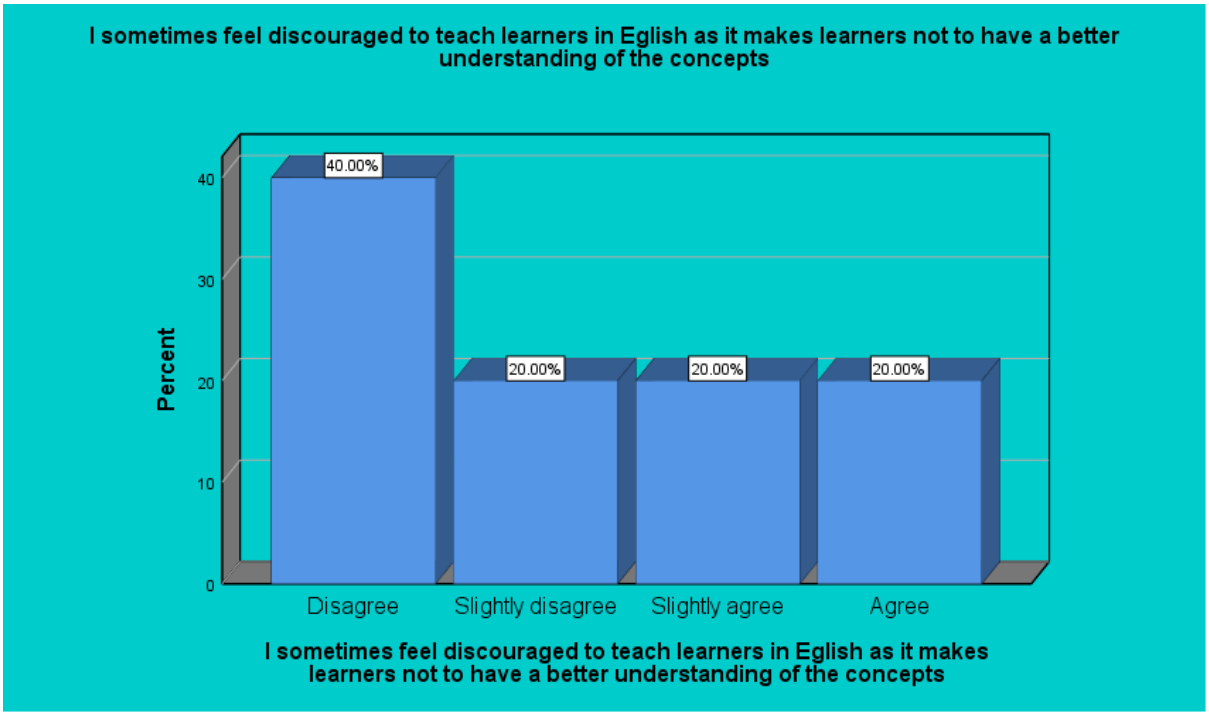


Table 10: Teachers are sometimes compelled to code-switch to isiXhosa for better understanding of English sentences

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Slightly agree	2	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Agree	2	40.0	40.0	80.0
	Strongly agree	1	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Two teachers (40%) slightly agreed that code-switching to isiXhosa was important for better understanding, two teachers (40%) agreed, and one teacher (20%) strongly agreed to code-switching. This positive emphasis on code-switching is interesting as it again shows that subconsciously teachers understand the value of using other languages, while the previous

statistics showed an emphasis on English for learning. This incongruence again speaks the notion of English 'unattainable' yet 'unassailable' mentioned above. It also speaks to the notion of valuing African languages, again forming the underpinning to a translanguaging pedagogy.

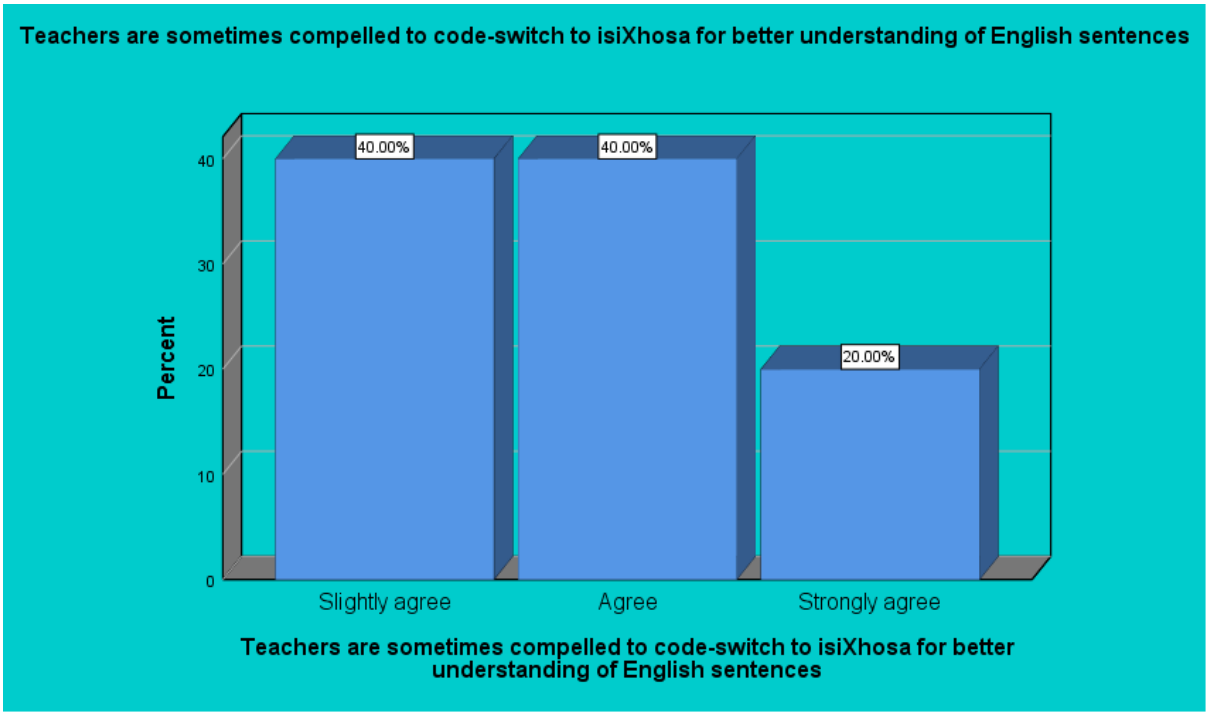


Table 11: Teachers are sometimes compelled to code-switch to English for better understanding of isiXhosa sentences

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Slightly agree	2	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Agree	3	60.0	60.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Two teachers (40%) slightly agreed to code-switch to English for better understanding of isiXhosa sentences while three teachers (60%) fully agreed. These statistics make sense in a multicultural, multilingual environment where some learners are learning an African language as a first additional or second language. In a sense it again shows the power of learning in the

mother tongue, in this instance English, while acquiring another language, thereby again supporting translanguaging.

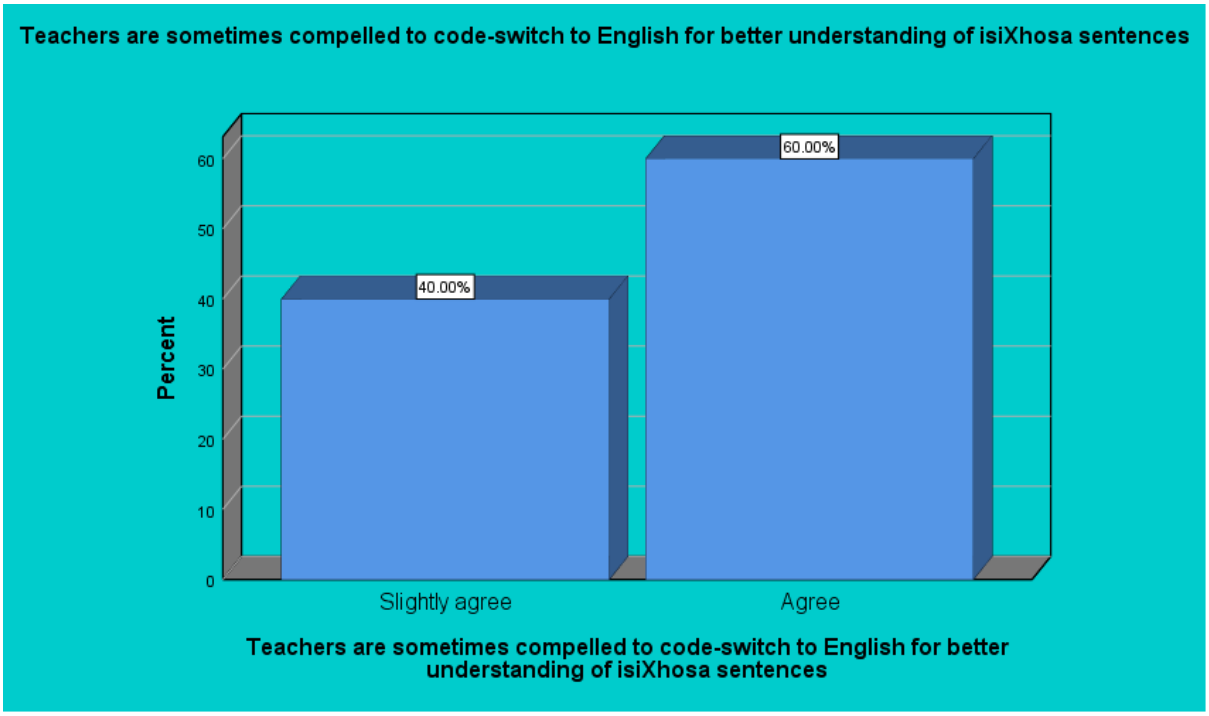


Table 12: Multilingualism is an important tool for social cohesion, and for individual and social development

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	4	80.0	80.0	80.0
	Strongly agree	1	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Four teachers (80%) acceded that multilingualism is an important tool for social cohesion, and for individual and social development and one teacher (20%) strongly agreed. In essence these statistics show again that everyone understands the importance that language(s) have to play in creating a united and socially cohesive society, thereby again opening up the way for a translanguaging pedagogy if it were to be clearly articulated and allowed as part of policy making.

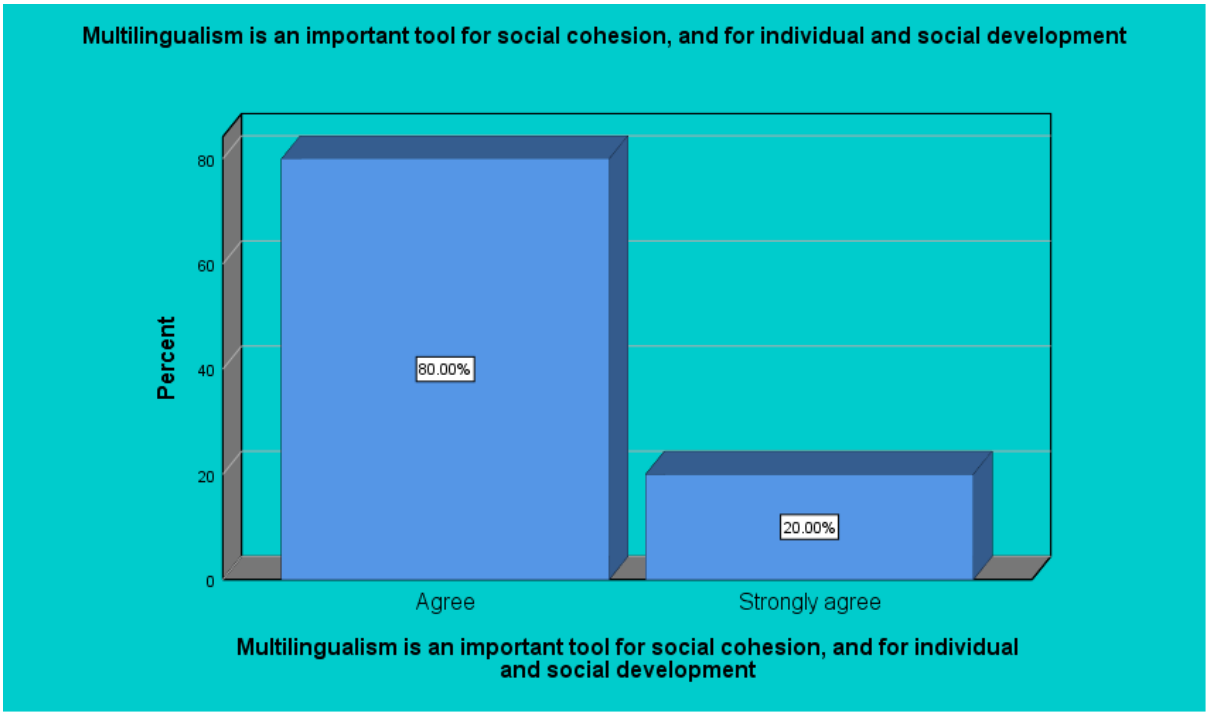


Table 13: Intellectualisation of African Languages can serve as an intellectual pedagogy

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Slightly agree	1	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Agree	4	80.0	80.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

One teacher (20%) slightly agreed that African languages can serve as an intellectual pedagogy while four (80%) fully agreed that African languages can do that. This again reinforces the view that African languages can develop market value and be seen as resourceful in the process of teaching and learning. However, the disjuncture remains, that English is the medium of instruction in the five researched schools.

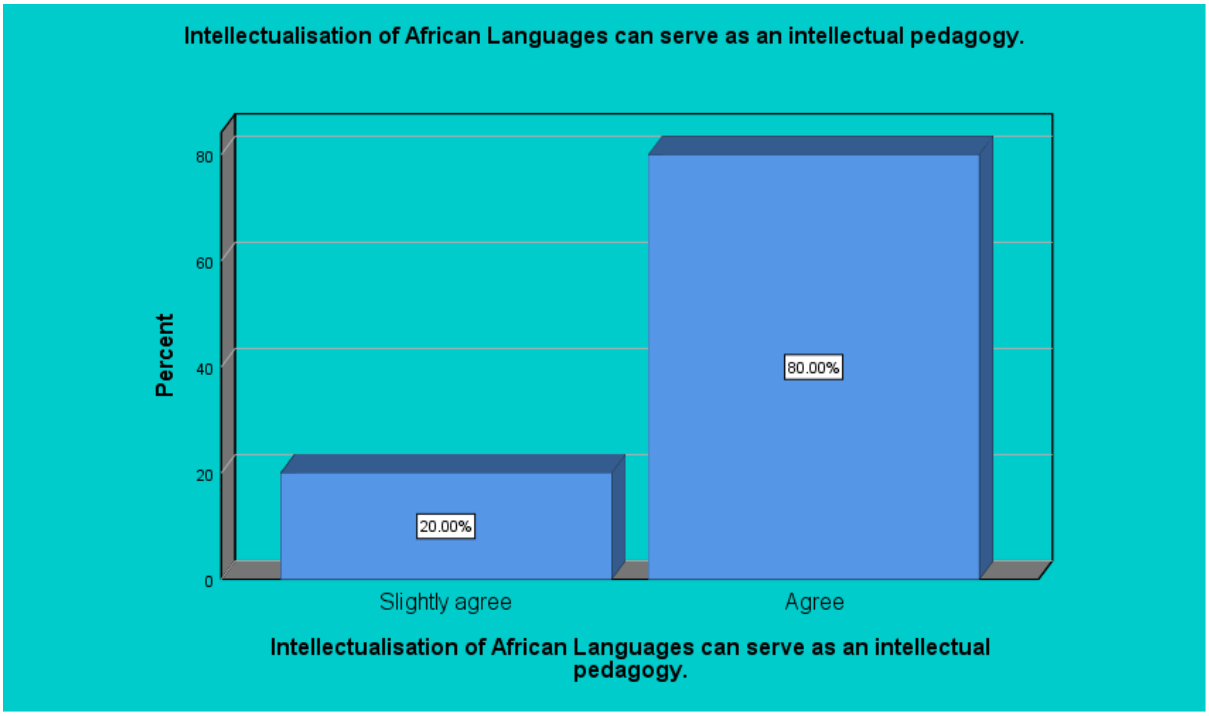


Table 14: Multilingualism can lead to the process of teaching an individual the norms and values of a culture through unconscious repetition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	3	60.0	60.0	60.0
	Strongly agree	2	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Three teachers (60%) agreed that norms and values can be dealt with through multilingualism and two teachers (40%) strongly agreed. These statistics again reinforce the notion that language and culture are inextricably linked (Kaschula and Anthonissen, 1995) and that any translanguaging pedagogy would need to take this into account. This again reinforces how language can further contribute to social cohesion through cultural understanding and awareness through repetition of the learning of linguistic devices and lexicon.

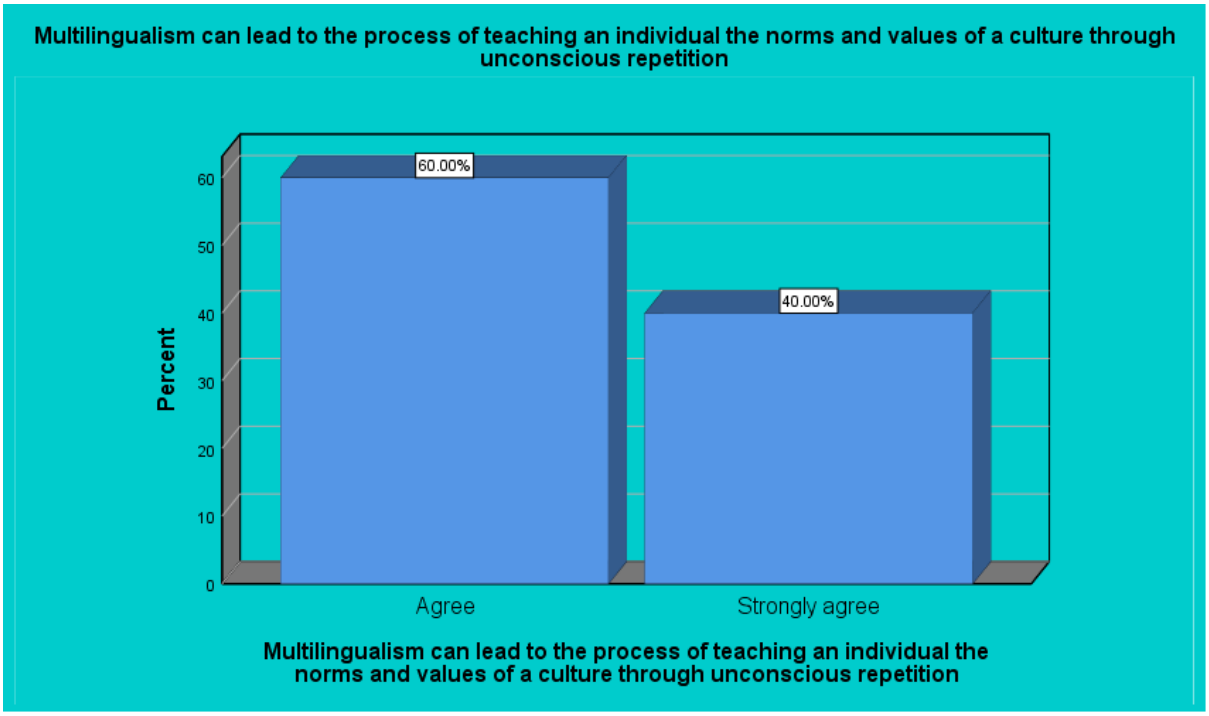


Table 15: Development of African languages is a significant way of preserving heritage and cultures that can be understood by people from other races and ethnic groups

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Slightly agree	1	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Agree	1	20.0	20.0	40.0
	Strongly agree	3	60.0	60.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

One teacher (20%) slightly agreed, one teacher (20%) agreed and three teachers (60%) strongly agreed that African languages development is a prerequisite to preserving heritage and creating understanding across cultures, again speaking to the strength of multilingualism.

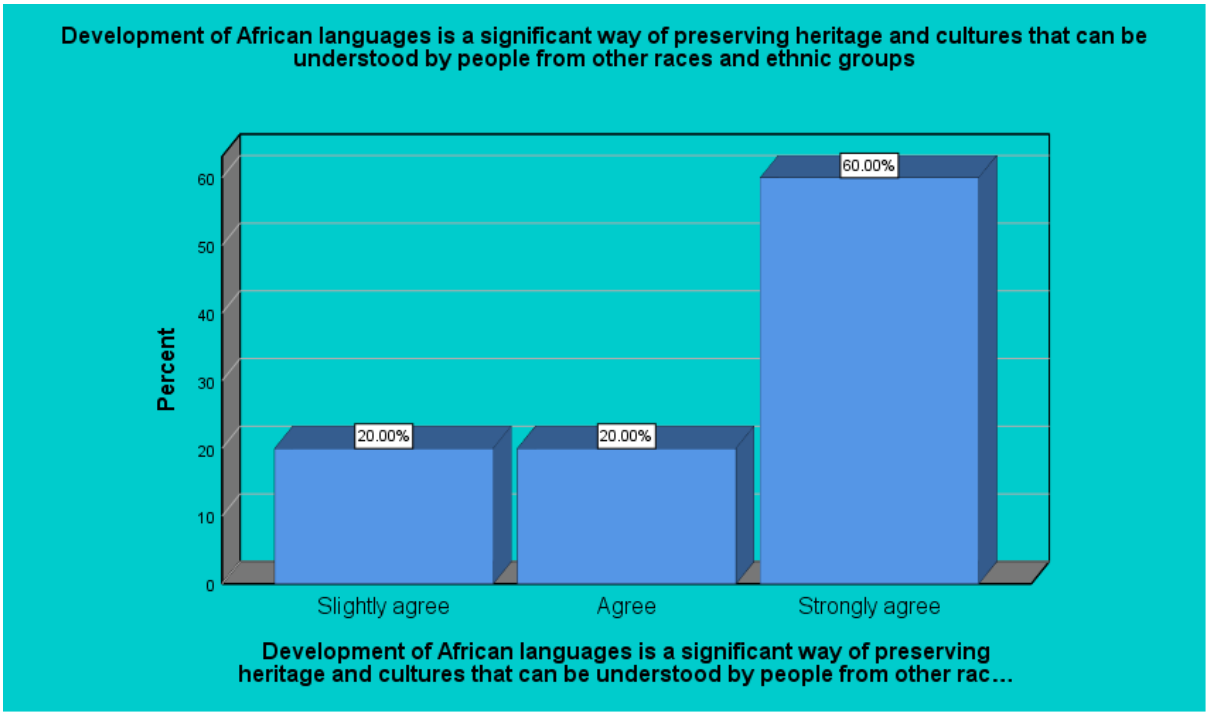
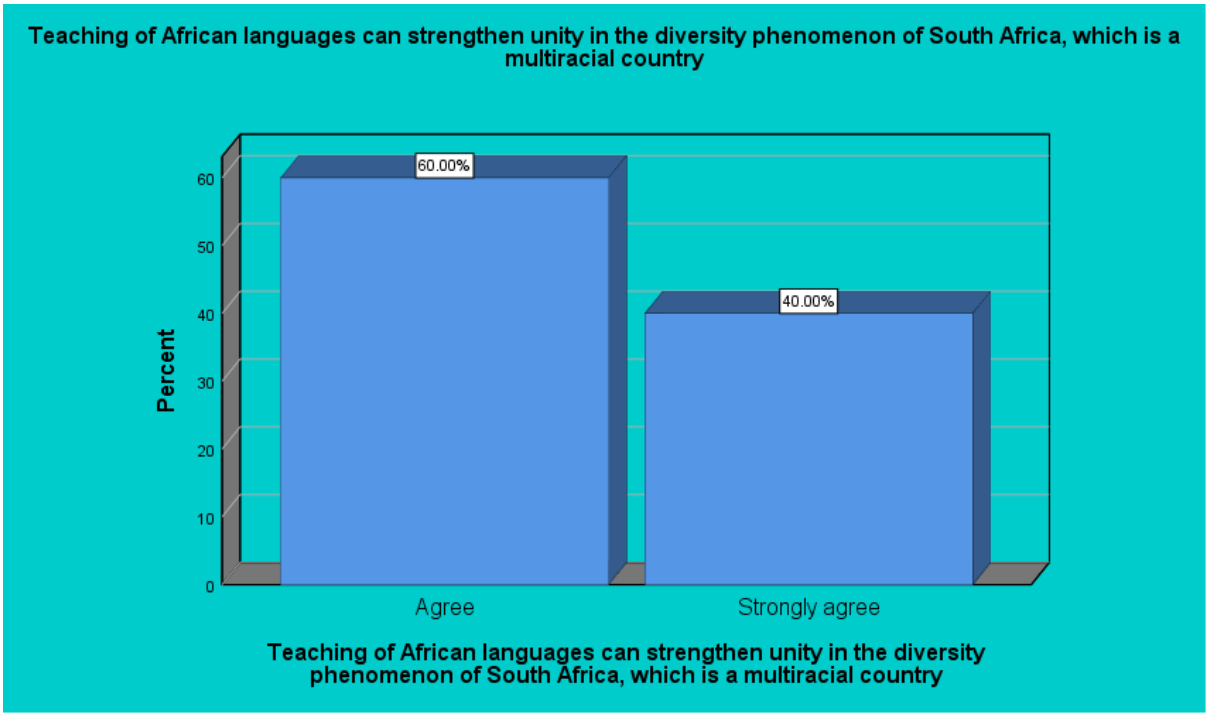


Table 16: Teaching of African languages can strengthen unity in the diversity phenomenon of South Africa, which is a multiracial country

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	3	60.0	60.0	60.0
	Strongly agree	2	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Three teachers (60%) agreed that teaching African languages can strengthen unity in a diverse South Africa, while two teachers (40%) strongly agreed. This is again presenting an almost unanimous sentiment regarding the importance of language in creating awareness and tolerance in a multilingual society.



The statistics presented above portray the view of the teachers that formed part of the study and research. Mostly one is left with the understanding from the statistics that teachers see the importance of multilingualism and translanguaging, especially in contributing to a socially cohesive society. However, there is still the disjuncture between this perception and the fact that only one language, namely English, is accepted as the medium of instruction even though the learning environment lends itself towards translanguaging and multilingualism. In the section that follow, comparative observations from the selected schools are presented. This ethnographic data again provides a supporting background to the statistical data and the thesis as a whole.

4.7 Observation results

Observation data of School A

An observation sheet was used as a guide to ensure that only relevant data were collected. Notes were taken in the classroom as educators were teaching as well as outside the classroom. The researcher was able to identify the following:

Table 1: Observation results from school A

Criteria	Findings
School environment	The school is situated in Alfred Nzo West District (Maluti sub-district).
Subjects observed	Social Sciences and Mathematics.
Language (s) used by the teacher to teach.	English and isiXhosa.
Learners' understanding of the lesson.	Yes, learners understood the lesson.
Indicators of learners' understanding.	Learners were able to follow instructions and respond to questions in English.
Language(s) spoken by learners outside the classroom.	They mix languages. They speak Sesotho and isiXhosa.
Language(s) spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom.	English, isiXhosa and Sesotho.
Language(s) spoken by teachers and other staff members around the school.	They speak Sesotho and isiXhosa when speaking to each other.

In the observation it was noticed that teachers teach in English and code-switch to isiXhosa or Sesotho and learners seem to understand the lesson because they were able to answer questions and follow the teacher's instructions. Outside the classroom teachers and learners continue to speak isiXhosa and Sesotho when they talk to each other. The environment is therefore in essence a translanguaging environment as explicated din chapter 2 of the thesis.

Observation results from school B

As indicated above, the researcher observed two lessons to see how language is used in the classroom and also outside the classroom. The following were found:

Table 2: Observation results from school B

Criteria	Findings
School environment.	The school is situated in Alfred Nzo West District (Maluti sub-district).
Subjects observed.	Social Sciences and Life Skills.
Language (s) used by the teacher to teach.	English.
Learners' understanding of the lesson.	Yes, learners understood the lesson.
Indicators of learners' understanding.	Learners were able to follow instructions and respond to questions in the same language.
Language(s) spoken by learners outside the classroom.	They mix languages. African learners speak Sesotho and isiXhosa and Coloureds and Whites speak Afrikaans and English to each other.
Language(s) spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom	English.
Language(s) spoken by teachers and other staff members around the school.	Africans speak Sesotho and isiXhosa when speaking to other African teachers but English with white and Coloured teachers.

In the observation it was noticed that teachers teach in English and learners seem to understand the lesson because they were able to answer questions and follow the teacher's instructions. Outside the classroom teachers and learners continue to speak English as it prohibited to speak African languages in the school premises. This again speaks to the unconstitutional nature of some school governance policies as well as fuelling the myth that English is the only language that should be heard and seen in the learning process.

Observation results from school C

As indicated above, the researcher observed two lessons to see how language is used in the classroom and also outside the classroom. The following were found:

Table 3: Observation results from school C

Criteria	**Findings**
School environment.	The school is situated in Alfred Nzo West District (Maluti sub-district).
Subjects observed.	Social Sciences and Mathematics.
Language (s) used by the teacher to teach.	English and isiXhosa.
Learners' understanding of the lesson.	Yes, learners understood the lesson.
Indicators of learners' understanding.	Learners were able to follow instructions and respond to questions in English.
Language(s) spoken by learners outside the classroom.	They mix languages. They speak Sesotho and isiXhosa with some learners and English with others.
Language(s) spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom.	English.
Language(s) spoken by teachers and other staff members around the school.	Africans speak Sesotho and isiXhosa when speaking to other African teachers but English with white and Coloured teachers.

IsiXhosa and Sesotho are used more often than English for learners' understanding of concepts and content. In this instance it would make sense then for assessment to be in either isiXhosa or Sesotho rather than in English as is presently the case, or that translanguaging itself can possibly be implemented as both medium of instruction and for assessment purposes.

Observation results from school D

As indicated above, the researcher observed two lessons to see how language is used in the classroom and also outside the classroom. The following were found:

Table 4: Observation results from school D

Criteria	Findings
School environment.	The school is situated in Alfred Nzo West District (Maluti sub-district).
Subjects observed.	Mathematics and Social Sciences.
Language (s) used by the teacher to teach.	English, isiXhosa and Sesotho.
Learners' understanding of the lesson.	Yes, learners understood the lesson.
Indicators of learners' understanding.	Learners were able to follow instructions and respond to questions English as questions were asked in English.
Language(s) spoken by learners outside the classroom.	They mix languages. They speak Sesotho and isiXhosa with each other.
Language(s) spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom.	In a Social Sciences class, the teacher used isiXhosa most of the time when speaking to learners but teaches in English. In a Mathematics class, they were speaking in isiXhosa but also taught in English.
Language(s) spoken by teachers and other staff members around the school.	Sesotho and isiXhosa when speaking to each other.

Teachers use Sesotho and isiXhosa when they are speaking outside the classroom with each other and with learners, but in class they mix English, isiXhosa and Sesotho mostly in teaching various subjects. This again reinforces the notion that there are both overt language policies in schools where English is accepted as medium of instruction, but the real covert policy on the ground speaks rather to translanguaging and use of multiple languages, forming part of a covert policy to aid cognition (Kretzer, 2019).

Observation results from school E

As indicated above, the researcher observed two lessons to see how language is used in the classroom and also outside the classroom. The following were found:

Table 5: Observation results from school E

Criteria	Findings
School environment.	The school is situated in Alfred Nzo West District (Maluti sub-district).
Subjects observed.	Mathematics and Natural Sciences.
Language (s) used by the teacher to teach.	The teacher used English, but sometimes switched to Sesotho and isiXhosa.
Learners' understanding of the lesson.	They seem to understand more when a teacher explained in Sesotho and isiXhosa.
Indicators of learners' understanding.	They were able to respond to instructions or questions if explained in Sesotho and isiXhosa.
Language(s) spoken by learners outside the classroom.	They mix languages. They speak Sesotho and isiXhosa with each other.

Language(s) spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom.	They mix languages. They speak Sesotho and isiXhosa with each other.
Language(s) spoken by teachers and other staff members around the school.	They mix languages. They speak Sesotho and isiXhosa with each other.

The observations show that Sesotho and isiXhosa are used in many areas at the school. For almost everything learners do, they use Sesotho and isiXhosa except for writing formal documents.

In all the five observed schools it therefore seems that there is a disjuncture between official policy in relation to language and what is actually happening on the ground. It would seem that language already presents itself as a resource in these schools, even though it is not always seen like this, especially as in one school where only English was permitted to be spoken. The reality is that translanguaging is already taking place and is being utilised by both learners and teachers both within and outside of the classroom. In the section that follows document analysis of actual policies is presented and analysed to further tease out the already mentioned disjuncture between overt and covert language policies within the respective schools, or where there is no policy at all.

4.7.1 Documents Analysis

Data from document of School A

This section displays data from the school language policy. The school has no written language policy, except the language policy on Department of Education policy books or files. There are no minutes that relate to the School Governing Body taking a decision regarding the schools' language policy.

Data from document of School B

The IIAL policy document is available. The school had a policy document which was written in Afrikaans as it is a former Model-C school, and then this document was translated into English but not into any African language. The policy quoted the South African Schools Act of 1996 and the Language-in-Education policy which was announced on 14 July 1997. The following objectives of the language policy were mentioned in the document:

- Promoting multilingualism, which includes the development of all languages and thereby promoting the full participation of every individual in the society and the promotion of communication across all borders.
- Keeping the home language(s), while at the same time access to and use of other languages is made possible.
- To fulfil the right of the learner to choose the language in which he/she wants to be taught.
- The Governing Body of School B, in accordance with the legal provisions, decided that English would be the language of teaching and Afrikaans the First Additional Language for Grades R to 7. Afrikaans would also be the language of learning and teaching and English the First Additional Language for Grades 4 to 7 – Afrikaans learners (Home Language) as agreed upon by the governing body.

In essence this school's policy is fairly accepting of the use of other language, however the emphasis remains officially on English and to some extent Afrikaans, with the further marginalisation of African languages.

Data from document of School C

The school has a school language policy. The IIAL policy is also available. The school language policy contains the following:

- Our Constitution states that all eleven official languages are equal, and they are treated equally at this institution.
- The predominant languages spoken by most learners in the school are isiXhosa and Sesotho.
- The languages used for learning and teaching (medium of instruction) are English and Afrikaans in all learning areas.
- English is chosen as our communication medium and must therefore be used during all official contacts i.e. staff-meetings, circulars, etc.
- The parent/guardian must choose the language of learning and teaching upon application for admission.

This school presents an interesting scenario in that it recognises multilingualism as contained in the constitution of the country, yet the medium of instruction is expressly stated as English

and Afrikaans. It was not possible to assess whether any parent or guardian has in fact chosen a language other than English or Afrikaans as a language of learning, though this remains very doubtful given the statistics analysed above.

Data from document of School D

This school did not have the IIAL policy nor any language policy, in the same vain as the first school. Again, this speaks to the inconsistency that prevails in terms of language policy and implementation within the schooling system, even within a single district.

Data from document of School E

The school has a language policy and also adhered to the IIAL policy. The language policy indicates that the school is aware of the policy as stipulated in the SA Constitution and South African Schools Act. The language policy states the following:

- The medium of instruction for the learners in our school is predominantly English; however, Section 29 of SA Constitution covers other languages.
- Medium of instruction is English for Grades 4 to 7.
- Grades R – 3 who are speaking Sesotho (Home Language) their language of instruction is Sesotho and for those who are speaking isiXhosa (Home Language) their language of instruction is isiXhosa.
- Grades R – 3 FAL for learners speaking Sesotho and learners' speaking isiXhosa is English.
- In all grades that IIAL has been introduced, Sesotho learners (home language) are to be taught isiXhosa and isiXhosa learners (home language) are to be taught Sesotho.

Even though this policy seems complicated, it does take into account the incremental implementation of African languages and it allows for home language instruction up until Grade 4 when the medium of instruction then becomes English. This is largely the case presented within most schools in the system in South Africa. It has been argued that this sudden move to English in Grade 4 is in fact disruptive and pedagogically unsound (Mbude-Shale, 2013; Mbude, 2020). This again calls for the development of an effective translanguaging pedagogy that can become official as it is already represented as part of covert policies as indicated by statistics presented in this thesis.

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the statistics that have been captured from the five respective schools. These statistics have been presented both from the learner perspective as well as the perspective of selected teachers. It is largely noted from the statistics that a number of languages are already being used in the learning process within these schools, although the official language policy in three of the schools seems to suggest an English-only medium of instruction. Even in the schools where there is no policy in place, English becomes the default language of instruction. However, it is clear from the statistics as well as the observations presented in the five schools that a translanguaging pedagogic approach would be best suited in these multilingual scenarios where many languages are already used subconsciously within the learning process. In the chapter that follows further interpretation of data is presented.

CHAPTER 5
DATA ANALYSIS AND FURTHER INTEPRETATION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents further analysis and interpretation of the data presented in chapter 4. As pointed out in chapter 3, the study used the mixed-method research (MMR) design. The two approaches are applied under this study. Each analysis was done separately but both results were integrated into the interpretation and also into this further discussion chapter. The analytical empirical framework is used to analyze quantitative data from questionnaires whereas an interpretive-hermeneutic framework is used to analyze qualitative data from comprehension (Andrew and Halcomb, 2009). This data analysis is informed by the research questions, the aims of the study and the theoretical framework underlying the study.

According to Creswell (1994), data analysis is a process of organizing and interpreting the data. In other words, data analysis involves manipulating data in order to generate information from it. This implies that data analysis means making sense of text or image data. Data interpretation refers to a stage in a research process where the researcher makes sense of the data collected. The researcher attempts to bring it all together by relating data to other variables and to the theory or hypothesis he/she wants to prove. This implies that in a research process data are collected, manipulated and interpreted to answer the questions that the researcher asked.

Seliger and Shohamy (1989:201) define data analysis as a process of "sifting, organizing, summarizing, and synthesizing the data so as to arrive at the results and conclusions of the research". Seliger and Shohamy (1989) further argue that, like data collection, there are various techniques that are used for analyzing data. According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989), the selection of the specific data analysis technique depends on the nature of the research problem, the research design chosen, and the nature of the data collected. Considering the above argument made by Seliger and Shohamy (1989), techniques for analyzing qualitative data and those utilized for analyzing quantitative data differ. The main reason for this difference is that quantitative data is basically numerical, and this leads to the use of statistics (see chapter 4). Qualitative data is mainly non-numerical and can be analyzed using qualitative data analysis techniques as discussed in chapter 3 of this thesis.

The interpretation considers all the output resulting from the analysis. However, the

interpretation was divided into two parts based on the level of analysis. The first one was the descriptive analysis, which was followed by inferential analysis. According to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006), data analysis in mixed methods research can either be parallel, concurrent or sequential. This is because in mixed methods research, we have two types of data, namely, qualitative and quantitative.

In Chapter 4 data from questionnaires were presented and discussed. In this chapter these data will be analyzed and interpreted further to determine how far they support the aims outlined in Chapter 1, namely the use of translanguaging as a pedagogy to improve proficiency and utility of the previously marginalized African languages and to analyze the situation of LiEP implementation in South African schools. Both quantitative and qualitative data are analyzed in this chapter.

5.2 Analysis of data

5.2.1 Learner's data analysis

The data analysed below is presented in the previous chapter. For a better understanding of the analysis, one needs to be reminded about what a language policy entails. According to Orman (2008:39) language policy refers to the formulation of laws, regulations and official positions regarding language usage and the allocation of linguistic resources by some government and other political organisations. Orman (2001:1) argues that "policies are designed and implemented for specific purposes …" This implies that language-in-education policies are formulated at national level and cascaded down to provinces and schools to address language usage issues. These proximal language policies are essential to avoid taking unnecessary decisions which are often used when there is a dispute or a case of unfair treatment when it comes to language. Educational and general or national language policy principles need to be considered when formulating language-in-education policies.

Documents like the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) (DoE, 1997b), the South African Schools Act (84 of 1996) (DBE, 2012), the National Language Policy Framework (NLPF) (DAC, 2003), the South African Languages Act (Act 12 of 2012) (PanSALB, 2014) and Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (DBE), 2011b) influenced the formulation of questionnaires as discussed in chapter 3.

It is deduced from the above documents and discussion that school language policies should deal with matters such as:

• Language of learning and teaching (LoLT);

• School curricular which include language subjects; and

• Language related duties of the school governing bodies

(DAC, 2003).

When dealing with these matters LiEPs should mainly address the following principles:

• Retention of home language for learners and encouragement of addition of another language (DoE, 1997b); and

• Promotion of language equity, language rights and multilingualism (DoE, 1997b).

For schools to implement language policies well, they must first assess their language skills and needs, and know the current changes as well as proposals of their government. The LiEP (DoE, 1997b) encourages an approach to multilingual education by providing two ways as outlined below. Section 5 subsection 2 (5) of this policy suggests that MLE can be approached in different ways: the one medium approach, preferably home language and the learning of additional languages as subjects, or the dual-medium approach, where both home language and another language are used as LoLTs in the same classroom. In this way the policy encourages an additive bilingualism approach, which is the use or the knowledge of at least two languages, one of which should be the mother tongue. In addition to this, the policy encourages that all learners in primary schools from Grade 3 should learn at least two languages as subjects, the LoLT and an additional language, believing that the LoLT will be a mother tongue. This could then form the basis of a translanguaging classroom pedagogy if permitted and incorporated into policy making.

Publishers, DOE officials nationally, in the provinces and districts, as well as teachers in the schools are key agents of linguistic imperialism in the South African education system. Each of these actors has a different role to play in the promotion of English in education. Book publishers promote linguicism through marketing teaching-learning materials written in English and mainly about English. Recent developments in the publishing industry include the translation of class readers from English into isiXhosa. Although some of the stories may have a cultural bias for speakers of indigenous languages in South Africa, the initiative is commendable since it introduces black learners to the written form of their languages at an early age. An ideal situation though would be to have teachers and parents forming writing teams.

One of the roles of DOE officials is to raise awareness about government policies, monitor and to evaluate implementation of policies by teaching personnel. The policies, strategies and plans are written in English exclusively and no attempts are made to make them available in the languages spoken by the teachers. Teachers are at the tail-end of policy implementation; and at times some implement policies uncritically, while others adapt them to suit their circumstances. There is therefore a need for a more bottom-up rather than top-down approach to language policy implementation. Desai (2001:323) maintains that language policy can either enable or deny citizens the opportunity to participate in the political, educational, social and economic life of one's country. In South Africa, language policy has perpetuated inequalities since colonization, the apartheid era and even after the promulgation of a multilingual LIE in post-apartheid South Africa. This has resulted in learners being exposed to unequal educational experiences because the language issue has been highly politicized. Consequently, there has not been full-scale use of indigenous languages in areas such as education because of the government's lack of political will (Mda, 2004).

The unequal treatment and marginalization of African languages in South African classrooms has its roots in English linguistic imperialism. Currently and in the past, LIE policies have promoted linguicism through selective resource provisioning for the dominant language, while African languages remained marginalized. Teaching involves the exchange of ideas between the educator and learners, and amongst learners themselves. This necessitates that the educator promotes a classroom climate which allows for two-way communication. The teacher uses language for various purposes, for example, to explain, ask questions, clarify concepts, elaborate, give feedback, assess learners, analyse, compare and contrast, and maintain discipline in order to promote learning.

The current national MoI policy in South Africa is aimed at promoting multilingualism through additive bilingualism, some teachers continued to use English exclusively (as was expected before 1997), even though they shared an LI with most of their pupils, while others employed English and indigenous languages to facilitate learning, an indication that the gap between policy and practice is fuelled by factors such as teacher attitudes, misconceptions, beliefs and out-of-class concerns, resulting in uneven LIE policy implementation. This becomes clear form the observations presented from the five schools in chapter 4. Teachers in rural and township schools use English and indigenous languages for teaching, and in the researched schools there was evidence to the effect that the strategies of code-alternation (code-mixing,

code-switching and translanguaging) were used extensively to promote learning. This is clearly reflected in the learner reflection in table 4 of learner questionnaire as one hundred and twenty (78.4%) learners enjoy being simultaneously taught in both English and isiXhosa/Sesotho (see chapter 4). This is a true reflection that English prescriptivism is not good for multi-ethnic South African classrooms.

In contexts where learning takes place in a language that learners are not familiar with, classroom interaction is compromised. In a comparative study of Tanzanian secondary schools using Kiswahili and English as media of instruction, Brock-Utne (2006) revealed that in classrooms where English-only was employed there was apathy, grave silence, and indifference. Learners obeyed, kept quiet or looked afraid. In contrast, in classrooms where Kiswahili was used as a LoLT, there was constructive cooperation and vibrant discussion. The lesson pace was fast, and questions and answers were spontaneous. There was a relaxed mood, and the teacher developed the learner' critical abilities. In return, the pupils taught their teacher a thing or two, asking challenging questions and using many and long sentences, with the teacher consciously developing their vocabulary through a familiar language. The study was undertaken in a country where Kiswahili is spoken by over 90% of the population. Each language (Kiswahili and English) was employed as a fully-fledged MoI and code-switching was not employed as a bridge to English. In a South African township school in which English was offered as an additional language, classroom discourse was constrained, despite the teachers' use of code-switching to facilitate learning (Robyn, 2001).

Looking at table 5 of learner's data presentation in chapter 4, one hundred and nine learners prefer to be taught in isiXhosa/Sesotho than English (71.2%), while thirty-five learners prefer to be taught in English (22.9%) and nine learners (5.9%) are not sure. This shows that most learners are comfortable when taught in their languages. Qorro (2009:72) contends that teaching learners in a foreign language has detrimental effects on the learner's self-confidence, alienates high school and university graduates from society, and leads to failure and apathy. In the present study, the questionnaire findings showed that the majority of learners prefer to be taught in their home languages (isiXhosa & Sesotho) and table 5 presented in the previous chapter concurs with that.

An anomaly that the current study revealed was the fact that in some rural contexts such as in the Alfred Nzo district, although teaching and learning took place in a code-switching mode, assessment was still conducted only in English. The Table 6 presentation in the previous

chapter echoes this through a reflection of ninety-four learners (61.4%) who support the notion of tests being given in isiXhosa/Sesotho for better understanding, whilst forty (26.1%) learners were against that view and seventeen learners (17%) were not sure. Assessment, whether formative or summative, has always been regarded as the flip side of teaching, and if there is no alignment between teaching and assessment, this puts learners at a disadvantage. The alignment between teaching and assessment is an aspect requiring urgent attention from teachers. For example, the policy could give direction on how much code-switching should be allowed, how learners could be assisted in gaining the necessary vocabulary to answer questions in English when discussions in class were mostly in code-switching mode, and whether some assessments cannot be done in the learners' home languages. Empirical research indicates that code-switching is used extensively to facilitate learning in contexts in which the teacher and pupils share a home language (Probyn, 2001; Adendorff, 1993; Setati, 2000). This is evidence that translanguaging can be a solution for multilingual classrooms, where languages are seen as a unity rather than separate entities and therefore different from code-switching. In order for this to happen it would have to be developed as part of a translanguaging teaching pedagogy that forms part of official policy making.

In the literature of this study presented in chapter 2, culture has been discussed as the characteristics and knowledge of a particular group of people, encompassing language, religion, cuisine, social habits, music and arts (Zimmermann, 2017). In a multicultural or multiracial classroom, there will be a gradual increase of acculturation among learners. They must acculturate, or come to adapt to the new culture's behaviours, values, customs and language (Gudykunst and Young Yun, 2003). This is a recent development, as acculturation in some literatures has the same meaning as enculturation. When two cultures mix together, there can be exchanges in beliefs, customs, traditions, clothing styles, food types etc. In fact, Schumann (1978) proposed that language is the largest factor in successful acculturation. Tables 9 and 11 in chapter 4 do compliment acculturation in a way that they reflect that one hundred and twenty-one learners (79.1%) supported the use of isiXhosa/Sesotho for social cohesion (unity) and a new vocabulary because of frequent interaction with the speakers of isiXhosa/Sesotho language, while only twenty learners (13.1%) were opposed to that view and nine learners (5.9%) were unsure.

From Vygotsky's theory one can deduce that good teaching practice is anchored in accurate profiling of learners, learner engagement, setting meaningful and authentic tasks, providing the necessary scaffolding to ensure that learners appropriate content, and being a good facilitator.

Therefore, if a teacher cannot perform these teaching-learning functions on which good teaching should be based, this affects education negatively. In classrooms where there is limited constructive engagement, the teaching-learning process is compromised, and pupils cannot appropriate ideas and concepts. Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of human learning describes learning as a social process and the origination of human intelligence in society or culture. The major theme of Vygotsky's theoretical framework is that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition as indicated in chapter 2.

5.2.2 Teachers data analysis

Language is the barrier in teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms as teaching officially takes place mostly in English, whereas most of the learners do not speak English in their homes. Teachers as agents of curriculum delivery see themselves compelled to maximum use of English as learner teacher materials are produced in English only. This is a result of their education background as teachers were previously and are still trained in English. They do this practice despite the call by LiEP (1997) advocating multilingualism. The school language policy is mostly silent in this regard as school governing bodies are not quite conversant of their role in relation to language policy.

Looking at tables 5,6 and 7 in chapter 4, mother tongue instruction is of utmost importance. Mother tongue instruction generally refers to the use of the learners' mother tongue as the medium of instruction. It is an important component of quality education, particularly in the early years (UNESCO, 2003: 13). Multilingual education based on the mother tongue (s) in the early years of schooling plays a key role in fostering respect for diversity and a sense of interconnectedness between countries and populations, which are core values at the heart of global citizenship. UNESCO undertakes advocacy and awareness-raising work through the annual celebration of International Mother Language Day (IMLD) on February 21. UNESCO also produces studies and reports that help advance the recognition of multilingual education based on mother tongue(s), notably in early years of schooling. Finally, UNESCO pays particular attention to the promotion of multilingual education in support of indigenous peoples. UNESCO participates in and contributes to the Permanent Forum on Indigenous issues (UNPFII) and the OHCHR and UNESCO joint Indigenous Fellowship programme. The UNESCO views therefore support the IIAL South African policy, but the fault lies in the

implementation thereof and the lack of commitment to further intellectualising and developing African languages.

Intellectualisation of African languages can serve as an intellectual pedagogy. Table 13 in the previous chapter shows that most teachers agree to the notion of using African languages as stated before. The reflection is that one teacher (20%) slightly agreed that African languages can serve as an intellectual pedagogy while four (80%) fully agreed with that view. According to Kaschula and Maseko (2014), the term 'Intellectualisation' could be considered a controversial one when it comes to African languages as there are many questions around this term by people who are pessimistic about the possibility of intellectualising African languages. This is insinuated by those who are pessimistic and still demean African languages and regard African languages as primitive for being intellectualised, hence intellectualisation of African languages is a sine quo non for proper and effective learning and teaching to redress the imbalances of the past in relation to the use of South African indigenous people. The further intellectualisation of African languages is an imperative if we are to develop the education system appropriately. The intellectualisation and promotion of multilingualism therefore needs to feed in from both sides of the education spectrum, a contrary view to that held by some scholars such as Turner (2012) who argue that this initiative needs to be driven by the Department of Basic Education and not at the tertiary level.

Madiba and Finlayson (2002:40) were the first to raise the issue of intellectualisation in the South African context and expressed optimism by stating that "…intellectualisation in South Africa is more likely to succeed than in most developing countries, as it will receive increasing momentum, support and success." Thereafter, Alexander further developed and championed this concept, building on the work of Filipino scholars such as Sibayan and Gonzalez (1995: 11) who argue for the intellectualisation of languages in order for them to be used in government administration, science, technology, medicine, engineering and so on. Madiba and Finlayson (2002:40) define this initiative as "…the planned process of accelerating the growth and development of our indigenous languages to enhance their effective interface with modern developments, theories and concepts." This means creating a 'counter-hegemonic' trend in order to displace English as the only language of power and cultural capital (Sibayan 1999:448). According to Finlayson and Madiba (2002:43), our present language policies use the 1995 Language Plan Task Group (LANGTAG) as a point of departure with recommendations which provided a framework for the development of the indigenous

languages. It is then a question of further intelelctualising and developing African languages so that they can form part of an effective translanguaging teaching pedagogy.

This can be an on-going process, rather than waiting for a beginning and end-point. Languages can be developed and intellectualised as they are required as there will be no perfect moment to implement a translanguaging pedagogy based on inclusive use of languages in the classroom. Certain languages may remain more intellectualised that others, but the challenge is to see languages as a collective rather than as separate units that facilitate teaching and learning as part of a silo effect. Languages are a collective that can aid or deny teaching and learning and this should be the point of departure for policy making. This is largely evidenced in the responses that are presented as part of the data in this research.

5.2.3 Conclusion

The findings of the research presented and interpreted in Chapter 4 and further analysed in Chapter 5 provided the baseline information to answer the research question and to establish the extent to which schools conform to the LiEP and transitioning to multilingual education. Change is needed and desirable in the South African education system informed by language policies and the possibilities of recognising translanguaging pedagogies. All children are ensured equality in our Constitution and they all deserve an equal opportunity to meaningful education. If the system can provide mother tongue education for English and Afrikaans mother tongue speakers; what reason does the same system have for not providing the same for the African child, who forms part of the majority of learners in the education system. The inherited hegemonic influence of imperialism, colonialism and apartheid to disdain indigenous languages must be discarded. The influence of the former colonial masters which has resulted in many Africans to emulate the former colonisers' indoctrination of elevating the use of English as the only language for didactic and pedagogical purposes must be exterminated in the minds of many Africans. The final chapter that follows provides concluding remarks and recommendations based on the research data presented and analysed in this thesis.

CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSION, SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to conclude the study by reviewing each chapter, which is followed by the presentation of the summary of the findings, and the contribution of the study. This chapter further summarises the findings, formulates the conclusions and suggests recommendations based on the findings of the study. The conclusions are informed by the findings and seek policy implementation in relation to multilingual education in the South African Education system through translanguaging as a vehicle.

6.2 Summary of research findings

The major findings derived from the empirical data of the study as discussed in the previous two chapters and correlating with the literature review can be summarized as follows:

- Most schools in the Alfred Nzo District (Maluti sub-district) are multilingual. The schools consist of learners who speak all the major languages of the Maluti sub-district which are isiXhosa, Sesotho and English. The major languages of this province are African languages, namely isiXhosa and Sesotho (Stats SA, 2012).
- English is the predominant LoLT in language policies of the schools, but in practice teachers and learners in most schools use code-switching or spontaneous use of translanguaging in class while teaching.
- Parents show preference of English because it is the only option they are presented with at schools. These parents chose English when they apply for admission of their children at various schools because this is seen as the language of prestige. Sometimes they take their children to the schools in town where mainly English is offered. There is an inability to comprehend that English can be studied effectively and learned as a subject while translanguaging can be effectively used and formalised for teaching other content subjects.
- In the researched schools for this study, African language speaking learners are forced to choose English as home language in former Model C schools, and some learners in ex-DET schools have English as first additional language. This means that all learners learn English either as a home language or as an additional language.

- Most African learners in most schools' experience learning difficulties relating to LoLT which is English.
- Teachers are experiencing problems when teaching learners who are not doing well in the LoLT. Furthermore, teachers are not able to help learners with language problems because teachers themselves use L2 in teaching which some are not proficient in.
- Some parents lack knowledge of schools' language policies. They seem to be excluded from the formulation and selection of language policies. As a result, they are not familiar with what school language policies entail. This further indicates that the majority of SGBs are not aware of their roles and responsibilities with regard to language policy formulation.
- Some parents accept that their children are experiencing problems when learning in a language that they do not understand, but they have no choice as they want their children to be in these schools.

6.3 Contributions of the research

This study aimed to provide many unanswered questions related to multilingual education in South African classrooms, using translanguaging as a tool and suggested pedagogy. Those unanswered questions range from: is multilingual education a possibility in diverse multilingual, multi-ethnic and multiracial South African classrooms? What are the benefits of multilingualism? How multilingual education can be implemented and become a reality instead of just being on paper as policy? Do indigenous languages have adequate learner-teacher material to deal with multilingualism and translanguaging? It also aimed to put more emphasis on the use of African languages for pedagogical purposes and do away with hegemonic imperialistic, colonial and apartheid mentality that English and Afrikaans are the only languages that can be used for pedagogy. This study aimed to analyse the situation of LiEP implementation in South African schools with particular reference to five schools in the Alfred Nzo District as the district is comprised of more than one spoken language which seeks to say, multilingual education can serve a purpose in this district. In light of the impractical or sluggish implementation of LiEP, the Department of Basic Education might take an initiative to make a follow-up and make some recommendations. This can also assist as to why some schools decide to do away with IIAL implementation in their school as it has been realised that schools discard the IIAL on their own without even informing the Department.

The study contributes to a growing body of literature on language in education policy implementation in several ways. The research filled the gap in the literature that deals with transition to multilingual education by providing a distinct case focused on South African schools in a particular district.

6.4 Recommendations

This study has proven that multilingualism is an effective way to enhance teaching and learning for better understanding. This is supported by answers to questions in the questionnaires asking about the simultaneous teaching with the use of both English and the learner's home languages and this is also echoed by classroom observations. Therefore, monolingual approaches that require the use of one language at a time, thus limiting multilingual learners from fully deploying their meaning-making repertoire to clearly express their thoughts should be revisited and replaced by a translanguaging pedagogy, which is clearly understood and forms part of teacher-training programmes. The findings in this study show that the learners' critical thinking skills are reaped and achieved only when translingual techniques are harnessed.

The richness of the linguistic diversity of multilingual learners should be utilised as a critically important resource to promote their educational success (Ruiz, 1984). Therefore, teacher training institutions, curriculum designers and educators in South Africa must create an enabling environment for learners to freely use their tongues and minds. It is only when the linguistic barriers are removed that bi- and multilingual education can truly enable multilingual learners to acquire knowledge and express the same using various languages and semiotic repertoires.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter considered the overall conclusion of this study. The purpose of the study was to examine the possible impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards the implementation of the IIAL and other policies.

The study focused on the use of translanguaging as a pedagogy and as a vehicle to achieve multilingualism in South African classrooms. It also dealt with transition to multilingual education in South African schools and to analyse the LiEP situation in selected schools. It set out to achieve these aims through the use of mixed methods which are qualitative and quantitative. The study has highlighted the complexity of the issues revolving around

multilingual education in South Africa. The language policies of schools' address language as LoLT and language subjects and do not necessarily draw from the national LiEP by promoting additive multilingualism.

It is acknowledged that it is not possible to make conclusive generalisations from this data because of the limitations that were already discussed above. The study is concluded by giving recommendations that are driven by the findings. The recommendations endorse the research questions as well as suggesting ways to implement multilingual education strategies in schools.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

School of Languages (African Language Studies)

P.O. Box 94, Rhodes University, Grahamstown, 6140

Tel:0466038222/7588/8952

2019/10/31

The Principal

Schools A, B, C, D & E

Alfred Nzo West District (Mount Curry Circuit)

Re: Invitation to conduct research at your institution

I, Jeremia Lepheana, under supervision of Professor Russell Kaschula am a postgraduate student (PhD) at Rhodes University carrying research on: **The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former Model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape).** The aim of this research is to investigate the ways in which translanguaging is used by teachers and learners in IIAL programme by schools in Alfred Nzo West (Mount Curry Circuit). The participation and cooperation of your institution is important so that the results of the research are accurately portrayed.

The research will be undertaken using questionnaires distributed to teachers and learners and responses from the read comprehension. The data collected from this research will both qualitative and quantitative. The identity of your institution and the participating teachers and learners who voluntarily consent to participate will be treated with complete confidentiality. The collection of this data will require from each participant about forty-five minutes to complete.

We look to you for guidance in identifying participants at your institution that would be suitable to interview (at a time and date that suite them).

Attached for your information is a copy of the participants Informed Consent Form. If you have questions or wish to verify the research, please feel free to contact us.

If you would like your institution to participate in this research, complete and return the attached form.

Thank you for your time and I hope that you will find our request favourable.

Yours sincerely

J. Lepheana Persal No. **53218043** Professor Russell Kaschula

Research Student Supervisor

CEDARVILLE G.I. PRIMARY SCHOOL
P.O. BOX 325
CEDARVILLE
4720
TELEFAX 039 7575 267
EMAIL : cedarvillegip@gmail.com

Mr. Lepehana
Maluti

Dear Sir

Herewith, I, B.R. Claasen, principal of the above-mentioned school, am granting you the permission, to do your research(fieldwork), at our school, at any given time which is available to you, and all relevant stakeholders from our school.

I wish you all the best in your activities, in this regard(Phd studies), at your institution.

We are looking forward towards this new venture, between you and our school.

Yours in education.
B.R. Claasen (Principal)
..... 16/10/2019

CEDARVILLE G.I. PRIMARY SCHOOL
P. O. BOX 325
CEDARVILLE 4720
TEL/FAX: 039 757 5267
EC.DEPT OF EDUCATION

Department of Education

Nkasele Primary School

P.O. Box 1834

Matatiele

4730

17 March 2020

Mr J. Lepheana

Rhodes University

Grahamstown

Sir

Re: Acceptance of your request to conduct research

It is with great pleasure to inform you that the aforesaid institution accepts your request to conduct research in our school.

We hope that your research outcomes will bring light to the current language policy and its implementation by the Department of Basic Education which elevate the maximum use of English as the only language for pedagogical purposes

I wish you success in your scholarly endeavors to bring change to the hegemonic education system dominated by use of English and Afrikaans to African learners through repressive practices of imperialism, colonialism and apartheid regimes which existed before the advent of democracy in 1994

Yours in quality education

A.K. Mavundla (Principal)

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NKASELE S.P.S
17 MAR 2020
P.O. BOX 1284
MATATIELE 4730
SIGNATURE:.....

Belfort Primary School

Matatiele

4730

27/02/2020

Mr J. Lepheana

Rhodes University

Grahamstown

Sir

Re: Acceptance of Mr Lepheana's request for research

It is with great pleasure to accept your request to research in our school for the topic: **The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape).**

I think this research will bring light to the Department of Education language policy and its implementation to schools to achieve the optimum results of the Department and all stake-holders involved.

I wish you the best in your scholarly endeavours.

Yours in quality education

S.B. Gewabe (Principal)

BELFORT S.P.S
P.O.BOX 243
MALUTI 4740
27 FEB 2020
SIGN.

Department of Education

Mafube Primary School

P.O. Box 531

Matatiele

4730

17 March 2020

Mr. J. Lepheana

Rhodes University

Grahamstown

Sir

Re: Acceptance of your request to conduct research

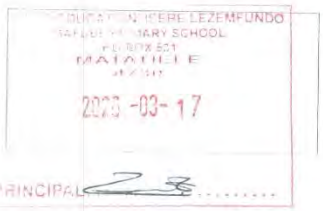
It is with great pleasure to inform you that the aforesaid institution accepts your request to conduct research in our school.

We hope that your research outcomes will bring light to the current language policy and its implementation by the Department of Basic Education which elevate the maximum use of English as the only language for pedagogical purposes.

I wish you success in your scholarly endeavors to bring change to the hegemonic education system dominated by use of English and Afrikaans to African learners through colonialism and apartheid regimes which existed before the advent of democracy in 1994.

Yours in quality education

W.T. Zweni (Principal)



School of Languages

African Language Studies

P O. Box 94, Rhodes University, Grahamstown, 6140

2020/02/20

Dear Teacher

I am Jeremia Lepheana, and I am a PhD candidate in the Faculty of Humanities at Rhodes University.

I have requested permission from your Principal at your school to conduct research at your school. The topic for my research study is: **The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape).** My research will be in a form of questionnaire for both teachers and learners.

I would also like to let you know that:

- Participating in the research is voluntary.
- Only teachers who consent will participate in the project.
- You may decide to withdraw from participating at any time without penalty.
- All information gathered will be treated with confidentiality.
- A report of findings will be made available to the school.
- The school and teacher's names will not be mentioned in any written report.
- Should you need further information about this research, feel free to contact me.

Your anticipated cooperation is appreciated.

Yours faithfully

J. Lepheana Persal No. **53218043** **Supervisor:** Professor R. Kaschula: **0466038222**

Academic Research Information and Consent Form

Research project name: The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape.

Participant Information Sheet

I would like to invite you to take part in the above-named study but before you decide, please read the following information

What is the purpose of this study? The aim of this research is to investigate the ways in which translanguaging is used by teachers and learners in IIAL programme by schools in Alfred Nzo West (Mount Curry Circuit). The participation and cooperation of your institution is important so that the results of the research are accurately portrayed.

Who is doing the study? The study is being conducted by: Mr. Jeremia Lepheana, Supervised by Professor Russel Kaschula, co-supervised by Professor Dion Nkomo.

Who is being asked to participate? Teachers and Learners

Your rights as a research participant Participation in this study is completely voluntary and anonymous. Your role would be to answer questionnaire dispatched to you and to read aloud the comprehension provided. Information gathered during the research will be used solely for this study and all efforts will be made to ensure the confidentiality of participants' personal information. Please note that while your name will be recorded with the data, it will not be used in the report. All identifiable data will be stored securely on a computer with password-restricted access and only the researcher (and supervisor if applicable).

If you decide not to participate there will not be any negative consequences. Please be aware that if you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time and your data will be returned to you or destroyed. You may also decide not to answer any specific question.

What will happen to the results of the study? The results of this study will help in assisting the Department of Education in the incremental use of African indigenous language and intellectualisation of African languages for pedagogical purposes. It will also give concern to the Language in Education Policy in South African education system to be re-visited.

Academic Research Information and Consent Form

Thank you for your participation. By submitting this form, you are indicating that you have read the description of the study, are over the age of 18, and that you agree to the terms as described in the short questionnaire that follows.

I have read this form and received a copy of it. I understand the purpose and nature of this study and I am participating voluntarily. I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time, without any penalty or consequences. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction

Yes	No
✓	

I agree to take part in this study and I hereby grant permission for the data generated from this research to be used in the researcher's publications on this topic.

Yes	No
✓	

I grant permission under the following conditions:

I grant permission for the research to be recorded (visual) and saved for purpose of review by the researcher, supervisor / principal investigator, and ethics committee.

Yes	No
✓	

I grant permission for the research recordings to be used in presentations or documentation of this study.

Yes	No
✓	

Researcher's name: J. Lepheana **Signature:** 

Date: 2020/02/20

Contact if you have any questions at any time about this study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher: J. Lepheana at 072 5983 875/jlepheana@yahoo.com

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet.

I grant permission for the research recordings to be used in presentations or documentation of this study

Yes	No
X	

Researcher's name: J. Lepheana **Signature:** 

Date: 2020/02/20

Contact if you have any questions at any time about this study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher: J. Lepheana at 072 5983 875/jlepheana@yahoo.com

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet.

The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape).

Institution Consent Form

Participation Consent
I consent for you to approach teachers and learners in the intermediate phase (Grade 5) to participate in the: **The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape).** Teachers and learners will be provided with a questionnaire. Teacher will read the comprehension aloud for learners.
I acknowledge and understand:
○ The role of the institution is voluntary. ○ I may decide to withdraw the institution's participation at any time without penalty. ○ Teachers and learners will be invited to participate and that permission will be sought from them too. ○ Only teachers and learners who consent will participate in the project. ○ All information obtained will be treated in strictest confidentiality. ○ Participants names will not be used and will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study. ○ The institution will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study. ○ Participants may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. ○ A report of the findings will be made available to the institution. ○ I may seek further information on the project from Jeremia Lepheana on **072 598 3875.**

Full Name	Mr. B.R. Classen
Position	Principal

Signature:	
Date:	2019/10/17
Please return to:	P.O. Box 866, Matatiele, 4730 or jfepheana@yahoo.com

CEDARVILLE G.I. PRIMARY SCHOOL
P. O. BOX 325
CEDARVILLE 4720
TEL/FAX: 039 757 5267
EC.DEPT OF EDUCATION

The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape).

Institution Consent Form

Participation Consent
I consent for you to approach teachers and learners in the intermediate phase (Grade 5) to participate in the: **The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape).** Teachers and learners will be provided with a questionnaire. Teacher will read the comprehension aloud for learners.
I acknowledge and understand a) The role of the institution is voluntary. b) I may decide to withdraw the institution's participation at any time without penalty. c) Teachers and learners will be invited to participate and that permission will be sought from them too. d) Only teachers and learners who consent will participate in the project. e) All information obtained will be treated in strictest confidentiality. f) Participants names will not be used and will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study. g) The institution will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study. h) Participants may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. i) A report of the findings will be made available to the institution. j) I may seek further information on the project from Jeremia Lepheana on **072 598 3875.**

Full Name	Mr A.K. Mavundla
Position	Principal

Signature:	
Date:	2020/02/20
Please return to:	P.O. Box 866, Matatiele, 4730 or [redacted]

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NKASELE S.P.S
17 MAR 2020
P.O BOX 1384
MATATIELE 4730
SIGNATURE:.....

The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape).

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Full Name:	Mr W.T. Zweni
Position	Principal

Signature:	
Date:	2020/03/17
Please return to:	P.O. Box 866, Matatiele, 4730 or flepheana@yahoo.com

The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape).

Institution Consent Form

Participation Consent
I consent for you to approach teachers and learners in the intermediate phase (Grade 5) to participate in the: **The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape).** Teachers and learners will be provided with a questionnaire. Teacher will read the comprehension aloud for learners.
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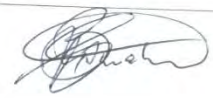
Full Name	Mr. S.B. Gcwabe
Position	Principal

Signature:	
Date:	2020/02/20
Please return to:	P.O. Box 866, Matatiele, 4730 or jlepheana@yahoo.com

RHODES UNIVERSITY

Parental Permission for Participation of a Child in a Research Study at Rhodes University

Title:

The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape).

Description of the research and your child's participation

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Jeremia Lepheana. The purpose of this research is to explore the possibilities of how multilingual language instruction within multi-ethnic classrooms in former Model-C schools can be shaped by multiple discursive practices.

Your child's participation will involve reading of comprehension and answer questions afterwards. Your child will also give answers to the questionnaire that is going to be dispatched to him or her.

The amount of time required for your child's participation will be one hour.

Protection of confidentiality

We will do everything we can to protect your child's privacy. Your child's identity will not be revealed in any publication resulting from this study.

Voluntary participation

Participation in this research study is voluntary. You may refuse to allow your child to participate or withdraw your child from the study at any time. Your child will not be penalized in any way should you decide not to allow your child to participate or to withdraw your child from this study.

Contact information

If you have any questions or concerns about this study or if any problems arise, please contact Jeremia Lepheana at Rhodes University at 072 5983 875 or my Supervisor Professor Kaschula at 046 6038 222.

RHODES UNIVERSITY

Consent

I have read this parental permission form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I give my permission for my child to participate in this study.

Participant's signature _____ Date: 12-11-2019

Child's Name: TLOTLA MPINDA

A copy of this parental permission form should be given to you.

Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
EDUCATION

STRATEGIC PLANNING POLICY RESEARCH AND SECRETARIAT SERVICES
Steve Vukile Tshwete Complex • Zone 6 • Zwelitsha • Eastern Cape
Private Bag X0032 • Bhisho • 5605 • REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA
Tel: +27 (0)40 608 4691/4773 • Fax: +27 (0)86 742 4942 • Website: www.ecdoe.gov.za

Enquiries: B Pamla Email: babalwa.pamla@ecdoe.gov.za Date: 10 September 2019

Mr Lepheana Jeremia

P.O Box 866

Matatiele

4370

Dear Mr Lepheana

PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE A DOCTORAL STUDY: THE IMPACT OF TRANSLANGUAGING AND ACCULTURATION TOWARDS IMPLEMENTATION OF THE INCREMENTAL INDIGENOUS AFRICAN LANGUAGES PROGRAMME IN THE FORMER MODEL-C SCHOOLS (ALFRED NZO WEST DISTRICT, EASTERN CAPE)

1. Your application to conduct the above mentioned research involving 110 learners and 3 educators from two primary schools and one secondary school in the jurisdiction of Alfred Nzo West District of the Eastern Cape Department of Education (ECDoE) is hereby approved based on the following conditions:

    a. there will be no financial implications for the Department;

    b. institutions and respondents must not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation;

    c. you seek parents' consent for minors;

    d. it is not going to interrupt educators' time and task;

    e. you present a copy of the written approval letter of the Eastern Cape Department of Education (ECDoE) to the Cluster and District Directors before any research is undertaken at any institutions within that particular district;

    f. you will make all the arrangements concerning your research;

    g. the research may not be conducted during official contact time, provided that an arrangement to do research at the school including getting inside a classroom has been arranged and agreed upon in writing with the Principal and the affected teacher;

h. should you wish to extend the period of research after approval has been granted, an application to do this must be directed to Chief Director: Strategic Management Monitoring and Evaluation;

i. your research will be limited to those institutions for which approval has been granted, should changes be effected written permission must be obtained from the Chief Director: Strategic Management Monitoring and Evaluation.

j. you present the Department with a copy of your final paper/report/dissertation/thesis free of charge in hard copy and electronic format. This must be accompanied by a separate synopsis (maximum 2 – 3 typed pages) of the most important findings and recommendations if it does not already contain a synopsis.

k. you present the findings to the Research Committee and/or Senior Management of the Department when and/or where necessary.

l. you are requested to provide the above to the Chief Director: Strategic Management Monitoring and Evaluation upon completion of your research.

m. you comply with all the requirements as completed in the Terms and Conditions to conduct Research in the ECDoE document duly completed by you.

n. you comply with your ethical undertaking (commitment form).

o. You submit on a six monthly basis, from the date of permission of the research, concise reports to the Chief Director: Strategic Management Monitoring and Evaluation

2. The Department reserves a right to withdraw the permission should there not be compliance to the approval letter and contract signed in the Terms and Conditions to conduct Research in the ECDoE.

3. The Department will publish the completed Research on its website.

4. The Department wishes you well in your undertaking. You can contact the Director, Ms. NY Kanjana on the numbers indicated in the letterhead or email nelisa.kanjana@ecdoe.gov.za should you need any assistance.

NY KANJANA
DIRECTOR: STRATEGIC PLANNING POLICY AND RESEARCH

FOR SUPERINTENDENT-GENERAL: EDUCATION

Province of the EASTERN CAPE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
ALFRED NZO WEST DISTRICT
Corner of Inkosi Sengelo Jojo and Ntsizwa Street •206 Mt Ayliff•
4735• REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA • Tel: +27 (39) 256 0594Fax: +27 (439) 256 0516• Cell 072 147 3050
Website: ecprov.gov.za • Email: zingisamtebele@gmail.com

Mr. Lepheana Jeremia
P.O. Box 866
Matatiele
4730

Dear Mr. Lepheana J.

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH: YOURSELF

The above subject serves as reference.

Subsequent to your research request dated 01 October 2019, herewith attached, permission is hereby granted. This office urges you to abide by the contents and parameters as contained in your request.

This Office would appreciate if you can make a copy of your findings and recommendations available so as to assist this office in decision making and in strengthening support to our Schools.

This office also wishes to extend a word of gratitude to you for choosing Alfred Nzo West District as your focal point of your research.

Any kind of support from Mr. B.R. Classen of Cerdaville G.I. Primary and Mr. P.I. Ngcobo of Matatiele Primary school is highly envisaged.

Thank you.

G.M Mbangeni
A/District Director:
Alfred Nzo West District

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
MALUTI DISTRICT OFFICE
2019 -10- 02
PRIVATE BAG X1003
MATATIELE 4730
DISTRICT DIRECTOR

02/10/2019
Date

RHODES UNIVERSITY
Where leaders learn

LEARNERS QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Make a cross [X] in the box, against the box that best describes your personal particulars.

Gender

Male	
Female	

Age

10Years		
11 Years		
12 Years		
Other		

Grade

Grade 5	

RHODES UNIVERSITY
Where leaders learn

SECTION B

1. Being simultaneously taught in English and isiXhosa/Sesotho in content subjects is enjoyable.

Yes	No	Not sure

2. It is better when one is taught in isiXhosa/Sesotho than being taught in English.

Yes	No	Not sure

3. If instructions in tests were given in isiXhosa as against English, I would have no problem understanding them.

Yes	No	Not sure

4. It is not appreciable being forced to speak English at school even when I am not in class

Yes	No	Not Sure

5. Learning isiXhosa/Sesotho at school has helped me gain knowledge of this language more than learning English.

Yes	No	Not sure

6. The use of isiXhosa in the classroom promotes social cohesion (unity) and promotion of new words as I frequently interact with other isiXhosa speakers

Yes	No	Not sure

7. It is fruitless to be taught isiXhosa/Sesotho in a school where the medium of instruction is English

Yes	No	Not sure

8. Interaction and communication is better with isiXhosa/Sesotho as a result of acquiring new words and terminology

Yes	No	Not sure

9. There are existing isiXhosa/Sesotho cultural festivities that one would like to know in future

Yes	No	Not sure

10. Your parents are comfortable with the IIAL program of being taught in isiXhosa/Sesotho in an English medium of instruction school

Yes	No	Not sure

RHODES UNIVERSITY
Where leaders learn

(inguqulelo yesiXhosa)

IMIBUZO YOMFUNDI

ICANDELO A

IINKCUKACHA NGAWE

Faka olu phawu [X] kwibhokisi, echaza iinkcukacha zakho.

Isini

Inkwenkwe	
Intombazana	

Ubudala

10 Yeminyaka		
11 Yeminyaka		
12 Yeminyaka		
Eminye		

Ibanga

Ibanga 5	

ICANDELO B (inguqulelo yesiXhosa)

Phendula le mibuzo ingezantsi. Faka olu phawu [X] kwibhokisi yempendulo oyikhethileyo.

1. Ndiyakonwabela ukufundiswa ngesiXhosa nesiLungu ngaxeshanye.

Ewe	Hayi	Andiqinisekanga

2. Ukuba imiyalelo xa kubhalwa uviwo okanye iimvamvanyo bezinikwa ngesiXhosa kunesiLungu, ngeba andinangxaki ekuyilandeleni.

Ewe	Hayi	Andiqinisekanga

3. Ndiva ngcono xa ndifundiswa ngesiXhosa kuna xa ndifundiswa ngesiLungu.

Ewe	Hayi	Andiqinisekanga

4. Andithandi kunyanzeliswa ukuthetha isiLungu esikolweni naxa ndingekho kwigumbi lokufundela.

Ewe	Hayi	Andiqinisekanga

5. Ukufundiswa ngesiXhosa kuphucula ukusebenzisa kwam ulwimi nasekusebenziseni uleimi lobuAfrika ebisele lungahoyekanga.

Ewe	Hayi	Andiqinisekanga

6. Ukusetyenziswa kolwimi lwesiXhosa kwigumbi lokufundela kukhuthaza ibuya-mbo nonxibelelwano lwasekuhlaleni, futhi ikwakhuthaza nokusetyenziswa kwamagama amatsha.

Ewe	Hayi	Andiqinisekanga

7. Kum ukufundiswa isiXhosa kwisikolo esisebenzisa ulwimi lwesiLungu njengolwimi lokufundisa nokufunda yincitha xesha.

Ewe	Hayi	Andiqinisekanga

8. Ndinxibelelana ngcono ngesiXhosa njengoko ndifumene amagama amatsha nesigama esitsha.

Ewe	Hayi	Andiqinisekanga

9. Ingaba ikhona inkcubeko yesiXhosa onqwenela ukuyazi kwixa elizayo?

Ewe	Hayi	Andiqinisekanga

10. Ingaba abazali bakho bayonwabele into yokuba ufundiswa ngesiXhosa kunokuba ufundiswa ngesiLungu?

Ewe	Hayi	Andiqinisekanga

APPENDIX B

EDUCATORS QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: PERSONAL INFORMATION

Make a cross [X] in the box against the item that describes your personal particulars.

1. Age in years

20 and below	
21-25	
26-30	
31-35	
36 and above	

2. Gender

Male	
Female	

3. Rank

Temporary educator	
PL 1 educator	
Head of Department	
Deputy Principal	
Principal	

4. Qualifications and subject specialisation

QUALIFICATION		**SUBJECT SPECIALISATION**
M+1		
M+2		
M+3		
M+4		
M+5 and above		

RHODES UNIVERSITY
Where leaders learn

SECTION B

Below are statements to attend to. Please put a cross [X] through a box that best describes your position. SD=Strongly disagree, D= disagree, SD= Slightly disagree, SA= Slightly Agree, A=Disagree, SA=Strongly agree.

1. Learners enjoy being taught in isiXhosa as a First Additional Language.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

2. It is enjoyable teaching isiXhosa to multilingual learners in the same classroom.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

3. Learners always ask follow-up questions in class in isiXhosa.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

4. I sometimes feel discouraged to teach learners in isiXhosa as it makes learners not to have a better understanding of the concepts

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

5. I sometimes feel discouraged to teach learners in English as it makes learners not to have a better understanding of the concepts

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

6. Teachers are sometimes compelled to code-switch to isiXhosa for better understanding of English.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

7. Teachers are sometimes compelled to code-switch to English for better understanding of isiXhosa.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

8. Multilingualism is an important tool for social cohesion, and for individual and social development.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

9. Intellectualisation of African Languages can serve as a pedagogy. intellectual

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

10. Multilingualism can lead to the process of teaching an individual the norms and values of a culture through unconscious repetition.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

11. Development of African languages is a significant way of preserving heritage and cultures and be understood by people from other races and ethnic groups.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

12. Teaching of African languages can strengthen unity in diversity phenomenon in South Africa as a multilingual country.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

Comprehension/Isicatshulwa/Seratswana

Dog/uNja (English and isiXhosa version)

Author: Kai Tuomi

When the world was young, Dog was a wild thing. He spent wandering the land alone. At night he lay his head on his fuzzy paws and kept guard over his cave. Nobantu, the first woman, lived in a small hut near Dog's cave. One evening as she walked home, Nobantu saw Dog with his head on his fuzzy paws, sleeping with one eye open, and she felt sorry for him.

"I wonder what I can do to help Dog?" she thought. "He looks so lonely. As Nobantu thought about a plan, Dog woke up and barked at her. 'Dog, she called out, "you are an excellent guard." "Yes," Dog growled, "I am the best guard in the whole bushveld. My ears are so good that I can hear the smallest noise, my eyes can see in the dark, and I always sleep with one eye open." "Amazing," said Nobantu. "Could you please teach me how to be a good guard? Come to my hut tomorrow at sunset. If you do, I'll give you a hot meal to eat." Unja wayengazange akhe atye ukutya okushushu ngaphambili, kodwa kwakuvakala kulungile oko.

Ukutshona kwelanga ngosuku olulandelayo, uNja wazula-zula ethafeni elinamatyholo esiya ngakungquphantsi kaNobantu. Wambulisa waza wagragrama, "Ngoku kufuneka ujonge endikwenzayo. Ndiza kufundisa ukuba ngumlindi olungileyo." UNja wangqengqa phandle ngakungquphantsikaNobantu, ebeke intloko yakhe phezu kwamathupha ache amfiliba. Wozela walala evule elinya iliso.

Ngobo busuku wagxotha izilwanyana ezimbalwa zasendle. Kusasa uNobantu wamnika isidlo esishushu ngesitya esidala. "Thatha, watsho uNobantu. UNja wasilwabiza eso sidlo. "Ndikufundisile ukuba ngumlindi olungileyo?" wakhonkotha.

"Ndicinga ukuba ndiphantse ndakufunda oko," waphendula watsho ngoncumo uNobantu, "kodwa mhlawumbi ungaphinda undibonise nangosuku banamhlanje. Ukuba wenza njalo, ndiya kukunika isidlo esishushu FUTHI ndiza kukwandlalela ibhedi encinane ukuze ulale kuyo ndikonwaye umhlana wakho." Dog licked his lips. The hot food had been delicious, and the little was comfortable-much more comfortable than a cave floor and he'd never had anyone scratch his back before.

At sunset Dog came wandering through the bushveld towards Nobantu's hut. Just as she had promised, there was a little bed waiting for him. It was soft and comfortable-much more comfortable than a cave floor. -and Dog fell asleep immediately with one eye open. That night he chased away a few wild animals. In the morning Nobantu brought him a hot meal in an old tin bowl.

"Here you go," said Nobantu. Dog gobbled up the meal.

"Did I teach you how to be a good guard? "he barked.

"Uyazi, Nobantu," uNja wakhonkotha, "sezintathu iintsuku zobusuku ezilandelelanayo ndizama kangangoko ukufundisa ukuba ngumlindi olungileyo, kodwa akude ufunde nakancinane. Phofu andiqondi ukuba uya kuze ufunde ukukwenza oku. "Andinakukwazi?" wabuza ngoncumo uNobantu.

"Hayi, andiqondi," waphendula uNja. "Ingxaki kukuba ulala ngaphakathi kungquphantsi, iindlebe zakho zincinane kakhulu, kwaye akuboni ebumnyameni. Ngoko ke, ndinecebo eliphucukileyo. Endaweni yokuba mna ndifundise WENA indlela yokuba ngumlindi olungileyo, ndingangumlindi kungquphantsi wakho. Ungandibulela ngokundondla, undinike ibhedi yokulala nangokonwaya umhlana wam."

"Uthini ngokudlala?" wabuza uNobantu. "Ukudlala?" wafinga iintshiyi uNja. UNobantu wabonisa uNja indlela yokudlala ngenduku. Kwaba mnandi kakhulu!

When they were done, they agreed that Dog would stay and be Nobantu's guard dog. As the sun set that night, Dog fell asleep on his little bed with a smile on his face, and both his eyes close. And that is how he and his children, and their

children's children came to live with people, and that is why dogs are no longer wild things that wander the bushveld and sleep in caves all alone.

Dog/ntja (English and Sesotho version)

When the world was young, Dog was a wild thing. He spent wandering the land alone. At night he lay his head on his fuzzy paws and kept guard over his cave. Nobantu, the first woman, lived in a small hut near Dog's cave. One evening as she walked home, Nobantu saw Dog with his head on his fuzzy paws, sleeping with one eye open, and she felt sorry for him.

"I wonder what I can do to help Dog?" she thought. "He looks so lonely. As Nobantu thought about a plan, Dog woke up and barked at her. 'Dog, she called out, "you are an excellent guard." "Yes," Dog growled, "I am the best guard in the whole bushveld. My ears are so good that I can hear the smallest noise, my eyes can see in the dark, and I always sleep with one eye open." "Amazing," said Nobantu. "Could you please teach me how to be a good guard? Come to my hut tomorrow at sunset. If you do, I'll give you a hot meal to eat." Ntja e ne e eso ka e eja dijo tse tjhesang haesale, empa ho ne utlwahala eka di monate.

Ha letsatsi le dikela tsatsing le hlahlamang, Ntja ya tla tsamaya hara moru e labile ya Nobantu. Ya modumedisa e bile e rora, "Jwale o lokela ho sheba hore ke etsang. Ke tla o ruta hore o ka ba molebedi ya hlwahlwa jwang."

Yaba Ntja e robala fatshe ka ntle ho ntlo ya Nobantu, e beile hlooho ya yona hodima maoto a boya. Ya kgaleha e ntse e butse leihlo le le leng.

Bosiung boo ya lelekisa diphoofolo tse mmalwa tse hlaha. Hoseng Nobantu a e tlisetsa dijo tse tjhesang ka sekotlolong sa kgale sa lesenke. "Ke tsena he," ha rialo Nobantu. Ntja ya ja dijo tseo ya di qeta. Na ke o rutile ho ba molebedi ya hlwahlwa?" ya bohola.

"Ke nahana hore ke se ke tla tseba, "ha araba Nobantu a bososela, "empa mohlomong o ka mpontsha hape kajeno bosiu. Ha o etsa jwalo, ke tla o fa difo tse tjhesang MME ke be ke o etsetse le bethenyane moo o tla robala teng." Dog licked his lips. The hot food had been delicious, and the little was comfortable-much more comfortable than a cave floor and he'd never had anyone scratch his back before.

At sunset Dog came wandering through the bushveld towards Nobantu's hut. Just as she had promised, there was a little bed waiting for him. It was soft and comfortable-much more comfortable than a cave floor. -and Dog fell asleep immediately with one eye open. That night he chased away a few wild animals. In the morning Nobantu brought him a hot meal in an old tin bowl.

"Here you go," said Nobantu. Dog gobbled up the meal.

"Did I teach you how to be a good guard? "he barked.

"O a tseba, Nobantu," Ntja ya hobola, "ka masiu a mararo a latelanang ke lekile ka hohle ho o ruta ho ba molebedi ya hlwahlwa, empa ke bona eka ha o utlwisise hohang. Ke nahana hore o keke wa hlola o ithuta ho etsa sena. "Nkeke." Ha botsa Nobantu a bososela.

"Tjhe, ha ke nahane jwalo," ha araba Ntja. "Bothata ke hore o robala ka tlung, ditsebe tsa hao di nyane haholo, mme ha okgone ho bona lefifing. Kahoo, ken a le mohopolo o betere. Ho ena le hore nna ke rute, WENA hore o be molebedi ya hlwahlwa, e ka mpa ya eb anna molebedi wa ntlo ya hao. Bakeng sa wena o ka mphepa, wa mpha bethe moo nka robalang teng mme wa nngwaya mokokotlo."

"Jwale ho bapala teng?' ho botsa Nobantu. "Ho bapala?" ha Makala Ntja. Nobantu a bontsha Ntja kamoo ho bapalwang ka thupa. Ho ne ho le monate haholo!

When they were done, they agreed that Dog would stay and be Nobantu's guard dog. As the sun set that night, Dog fell asleep on his little bed with a smile on his face, and both his eyes close. And that is how he and his children, and their

children's children came to live with people, and that is why dogs are no longer wild things that wander the bushveld and sleep in caves all alone.

Imibuzo (English and isiXhosa) Answer in any of the two languages

1. **What can be the title of this story?**
2. **Kutheni ucinga ngolo hlobo?**
3. **Why is the relationship between Nobantu and the dog is important?**
4. **Ziziphi izinto ezintathu ezikhankanywa nguNja ezenza uNobantu angabi ngunogada olungileyo.**
5. **What does this story teach you?**
6. **Ingaba ubomi buka Nja butshintshe njani emva kokudibana noNobantu?**

Di potso (English and Sesotho? Answer in any of the two languages

1. **What can be the title of this story?**
2. **Hobaneng o nahana ha jwalo?**
3. **Why is the relationship between Nobantu and the dog is important?**
4. **Ngola ntho tse tharu tse hlalusitsweng ke Ntja tse ka yetsang hore Nobantu e seke yaba molebedi ya hlwahlwa.**
5. **What does this story teach you?**
6. **Ekaba bophelo ba Ntja botjhintjile jwang ka mora ho kopana le Nobantu?**

ETHICS CLEARANCE

Department/School/Faculty Reporting Template for RUESC – V2 May 2017

Report submitted by SoL/Ling Joint REC for RUESC HE meeting in November 2018

4.															
Protocol Number	**SoL/Ling 2018 99556**														
Protocol Title	The impact of translanguaging and acculturation towards implementation of the Incremental Indigenous African Languages programme in former model-C schools (Alfred Nzo West District, Eastern Cape)														
Level	Staff project			Student project		U		H		M		D	x		
	Post Doc			Name	Mr. Jeremia Lepheana, 617L6603										
Principal Investigator	Prof Russell Kaschula						**RU Staff**	Yes	x	No					
Submission Date	7/10/2018														
Submission Type	Query		Primary		Full	X									
Reviewers	Mark de Vos; Sally Hunt														

Sub-Committee Recommendation	**Approve**	X		**This is the majority recommendation**	X
	Approve with stipulations				
	Disapprove				
	No ethics approval required				
	Refer to RUESC	X		**A minority registers dissent**	
Review comments	As this involves a vulnerable group, the application must serve before RUESC. However, the risks to the subjects appear to have been adequately addressed and the committee recommended approval.				

Further particulars for reporting to NHREC

This project involves *Level 2* Health Research	Yes		No	x
This project is a *clinical trial*	Yes		No	x
This project involves *child participants*	Yes	x	No	
This project requires *ministerial consent*	Yes		No	x
This project involves *human* blood, tissues and genetic material	Yes		No	x
If yes:				
This is in accordance with provisions as per Government Gazette No.35099	Yes		No	
Or				
Biological material purchased from a commercial source	Yes		No	
This research has *environmental implications*	Yes		No	x