

**An investigation into patterns of translanguaging in classrooms in
the Foundation phase in a primary school in the Limpopo province**

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my son Morongwa, my wife Anita Koka and the Mokolo family.

DECLARATION

I, **MOKGALAKANE FRANCE MOKOLO**, hereby declare that this mini-dissertation 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 mini-dissertation has not been previously submitted in part or in full for any other degree to any other university.

Signature

Mokolo MF 

(Researcher)

Date

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I would like to give thanks to God for giving me strength, wisdom, knowledge and skills to make this study possible.

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ABSTRACT

The research reported in this mini-dissertation is a qualitative study, which sought to investigate the patterns of translanguaging in classrooms in the Foundation phase in a primary school in the Limpopo province. The aim of the study was to investigate the ways in which translanguaging is used by teachers and learners in the Foundation phase in a selected primary school in the Limpopo Province. The research focuses on how Grade 1 and Grade 3 learners and their teachers engage with texts and the strategies that teachers use to promote the use of two languages in classrooms to help learners to understand content and concepts in English and Sepedi. An innovative element of the research was the intervention teaching done by university lecturers to provide alternate practices for regular teachers in the school to discuss and engage with.

The data collection instruments included classroom observations, audio and video recordings, interviews with the class teachers and a focus group discussion between the teachers. The data analysis involved identifying all instances of translanguaging that occurred in the lessons and to explore in what ways they facilitated learning. The results showed that hardly any translanguaging took place in the regular lessons and teachers seemed to be operating with a monolingual consciousness. Teachers also revealed in the focus group discussion that the Curriculum assessment and Policy Statement (CAPS) required them to keep the two languages apart and not to use both of them in lessons. In the intervention lessons, however, there were some examples of translanguaging, which seemed to facilitate interaction and greater participation from the learners.

The mini-dissertation ends 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.

ABBREVIATIONS

ANA	Annual National Assessments
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CAPS	Curriculum Assessment and Policy Statement
CUP	Common Underlying Proficiency
DBE	Department of Basic Education
FAL	First Additional Language (English)
HL	Home Language (Sepedi)
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
L1	Language1 (Mother tongue) Sepedi
L2	Language 2 (Second language) English
SUP	Separate Underlying Proficiency
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction and background to the study

The study reported in this mini-dissertation is an investigation into patterns of translanguaging in classrooms in the Foundation phase in a primary school in the Mankweng Township of the Limpopo province. Translanguaging is a term that refers to the use of two or more languages by individuals who are bilingual or multilingual. It has been suggested that translanguaging, if used in classrooms, would facilitate learning. This study investigates if this is indeed the case in the selected school.

This section provides the background to this study by examining the current educational crisis in South Africa, especially in rural and township schools. Numerous assessments of learners' literacy and numeracy levels have shown that learners are failing to achieve in these crucial areas of the curriculum. Results of the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS 2006) show that South African learners who have had at least five to six years of schooling obtain the lowest marks in numeracy and literacy when compared to learners from 44 other countries. Summarising findings from the Southern and East Africa Consortium for monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ II, 1994-2004), Moloji and Strauss (2005) show that South Africa's grade 6 learners came 14th in a list of 15 African countries.

The most recent systematic assessments being carried out in the Foundation phase of South African schools are the Annual National Assessments (ANA). It was introduced by the Department of Basic Education in 2011 to measure the quality of learning outcomes in the education system. ANA focuses on the learners' performances in the early years of schooling (grades 1 to 6) and also in grade 9 and provides yearly feedback to teachers and parents on the achievement of learners in literacy and numeracy.

The ANA (2011) results demonstrated that grade 3 learners obtained an average of 35% in literacy and 28% in numeracy while grade 6 learners obtained 28% in languages and 30% in Mathematics. These results suggest that learners are not meeting the required competencies and that there is an educational crisis in most of the impoverished South African schools in rural areas and townships. The ANA findings for the Limpopo province show that learners do not achieve grade-level

benchmarks in vocabulary development and have little exposure to reading and writing even in their home language Sepedi, and almost no exposure to the use of their first additional language, English. The ANA report (2011:5) says, “Comprehension skills were generally low to poor”.

Another problem that has emerged from the ANA results is that learners showed an inadequate ability to produce even simple sentences when asked to write about what they saw in pictures given to them. When asked to answer questions on these pictures, the learners tended to attempt only the simple questions. This seems to suggest that the learners are not introduced to reading for meaning at an early stage, and cannot tackle complex and challenging questions. The report further confirms that learners are unable to answer questions that demand reasoning skills (*Why* questions) and questions that require learners to give their own view (questions such as *What do you think?*).

1.2 Factors that may impact on learning

Several factors may have an effect on learning outcomes. The literature on South Africa’s educational crisis points to many complex factors that may have an impact on teaching and learning. It is clear that the socioeconomic status of the families that these learners come from may be a central reason. This has been highlighted by Louw & Wium (2011) who state that 40% of children in South African schools come from extremely poor households, in which unemployment or unskilled/temporary employment may be the norm. Such homes cannot afford to support literacy development through the purchase of books or other materials for learning. In many households, literate adults who can help children with homework or give other kinds of assistance may not be present.

Children from such homes may also suffer from nutritional deficiencies that may affect cognitive development. Though many schools in these areas may have feeding schemes, such schemes do not always function as they should because of poor delivery of supplies or due to corruption. Many common health problems such as seasonal ear infections may also affect children living in rural areas or townships. Clinical services may be difficult to access apart from the inability of parents to pay for medical advice and medicines.

Many of the schools in the rural areas are under-resourced and do not have basic facilities such as sufficient classrooms, or amenities such as electricity. Many schools do not have functioning libraries or sports fields. Subjects such as art and music, which are taken for granted in richer and better-resourced schools, are absent from the school curriculum. In some schools even textbooks are not delivered in time. For all these reasons, children in many impoverished schools underperform and do not acquire basic competence in literacy and numeracy.

However, it may be the case that the reason for academic failure is the inadequate or ineffective use of whatever resources children bring to school, especially their knowledge of and fluency in their own language. The register of the home language used by teachers may be unfamiliar to learners and in the English lessons, teachers and learners may be inhibited from using their own languages to facilitate comprehension. According to the Curriculum Assessment and Policy Statements (CAPS, which is currently being implemented in South African schools), English as First Additional Language (EFAL) is only introduced orally in grade 1 and teachers and students are discouraged from using their home languages in the English lessons. As a result, learners simply do not understand what the teachers are teaching and resort to rote-learning and repetition. It is in these kinds of contexts that the concept of translanguaging may be a useful tool in teaching and learning, especially in an additional language that is unfamiliar to learners.

1.3 Aim and objectives of the study

Following from the discussion in the preceding section, the aim of the proposed study is to investigate the ways in which translanguaging is used by teachers and learners in the Foundation phase in a selected primary school in the Limpopo Province.

It needs to be pointed out that the current study is one aspect of a collaborative project funded by the National Research Foundation (NRF). The research was managed by a team of senior researchers from the Human Science Research Council (HSRC), the University of Pretoria (UP) and the University of Limpopo (UL), who together formed a consortium. Postgraduate students from all three institutions carried out the research which focussed on different aspects of language and literacy learning in the Gauteng and Limpopo provinces. As pointed out earlier in this

chapter, the study reported here was concerned with translanguaging as a teaching and learning strategy.

The objectives of the current study were to:

- find out whether translanguaging as a teaching and learning strategy is used in language and literacy classrooms
- establish the patterns of translanguaging in language and literacy learning and teaching
- investigate the causes of translanguaging
- explore how translanguaging could be used more effectively as a teaching and learning strategy

These objectives may be reformulated as research questions as follows:

- Is translanguaging used as a teaching and learning strategy in Foundation phase language and literacy classrooms?
- What patterns of translanguaging can be seen in these classrooms?
- What are the causes of translanguaging?
- How can translanguaging be used more effectively as a teaching and learning strategy?

Such a study would enable teachers and teacher educators to devise ways of teaching and learning that would utilize the bi/multilingual resources that children bring to school.

1.4 Organisation of the mini-dissertation

This mini-dissertation is organized into six chapters as described below:

Chapter 1 contextualises the study in the light of the educational crisis in South Africa and while recognizing the complex factors that might impact on learning outcomes, suggests that the failure to use the multilingual resources of learners may be a central cause of underperformance in literacy and numeracy. This chapter makes a case for investigating the use of translanguaging as a teaching and learning strategy and sets out the aims and objectives of this investigation.

Chapter 2 is a review of the scholarly literature on translanguaging and summarises some of the key arguments put forward by academics for including translanguaging in classroom lessons. Various definitions of the term 'translanguaging' are reviewed and the relation between concepts such as scaffolding, language transfer, biliteracy and translanguaging is discussed.

Chapter 3 presents the research design of the study and thus highlights the overall research paradigm within which the investigation is located. It describes the site of the research, the research subjects, the kind of data needed to address the research questions, the data collection and analysis procedures and the ethical considerations.

This chapter will also discuss the rationale for the introduction of the intervention lessons, which together with the regular lessons taught in the school, constitute the primary data for this study.

Chapter 4 describes the data collection process in detail. It contextualizes the data collection by describing the research site, the socioeconomic status of the school and the resources available. It will elaborate on the observational data, in the form of audio and video recordings, the teacher interviews and focus group discussions and the transcription of the data. Some of the problems that arose in the actual data collection phase of the study will also be highlighted.

Chapter 5 presents the analysis of the data and the key findings of the research. It specifically highlights the differences between the regular lessons and the intervention lessons in terms of the presence or absence of translanguaging and the effect of this on classroom interaction. The views of the regular teachers on aspects of their experience will also be presented in this chapter.

Chapter 6 is the final chapter of the study and will therefore provide an overview of the main findings of the research. It will also address the limitations of the research, and spell out the implications emerging from the findings of the study and recommendations arising from the research.

A list of references and all the appendices are provided at the end of the mini-dissertation.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

In a literature review, the scholarly work in an area of interest is traced and important ideas and concepts in this area are discussed to investigate their relevance to the research questions. Debates in the work of previous scholars are identified and examined. In this chapter the literature in the area of translanguaging will be reviewed. Related concepts such as scaffolding, language transfer, biliteracy and code switching will also be discussed to explore the connections between them.

2.2. Translanguaging

The term 'translanguaging' was first introduced by Williams, a Welsh scholar in 1994. However, it is only recently that this concept has attracted the interest of academics working in the area of bilingual and multilingual studies. Williams (1994; 1996) defined translanguaging as the planned and systematic use of two languages for both teaching and learning inside the same lesson. Williams (1996:64) argues that "translanguaging was initially coined to name a pedagogical practice which deliberately switches the language mode of input and output in bilingual classrooms."

This definition was taken up by Baker (2003; 2011) and elaborated as "the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages" (Baker 2011:288). From this perspective, meaning-making may involve the use of two languages (L1 and L2) in concept formation. Both Williams and Baker therefore use the term "translanguaging" as a strategy which would help to build up learners' cognitive development using two languages. Williams (2003) suggested that translanguaging often uses the stronger language to develop the weaker language thereby contributing towards a potentially relatively balanced development of a child's two languages. Through children's L1 experience, they are likely to have developed an understanding of concepts they will encounter in their early reading of L2 (Cummins, Baker and Hornberger 2001:83). However, it may be possible that concepts learnt in the weaker language can also contribute to the development of the stronger language.

The main aim of translanguaging is not only to help learners understand words, phrases and sentences in two languages but to use both languages to help them

learn concepts and facilitate cognitive development. Translanguaging focuses on both learners' and teachers' use of two languages; it is seen as a strategy used to bring about better learning. The thinking underlying translanguaging is that when all the languages present among the learners are used, then the quality and depth of learning will improve. This means that learners will gain concepts better, participate more fully and understand more effectively.

Translanguaging gives children the freedom to use their languages in any way they find productive while encountering new ideas. This means that when a teacher introduces a task in English, the learners will feel free to discuss and try to make sense of the task using their mother tongue. After the discussion, they may be required to give feedback using English (Murphy 2011). Baker (2006:11) says that 'translanguaging' and transliteracy may promote a deeper and fuller understanding of subject matter.

Estyn (2002:3) states that "the skills involved in dual literacy are sometimes called 'translanguaging' or 'transliterative' skills". Gruyter (2011:8) states that "translanguaging is a naturally-occurring phenomenon for multilingual students". This means that many learners who know more than one language use translanguaging without being aware that they are using it. It occurs unintentionally during conversation when one of their peers does not understand the second language; they may switch back to their mother tongue that everyone in their group understands. So while this phenomenon is pervasive in the communication that occurs in multilingual communities, Gruyter emphasizes its pedagogic value. He asserts that in addition to everyday interaction, translanguaging can also occur with minimal pedagogical efforts from the teachers (Gruyter 2011:8). This view seems to suggest that translanguaging is not a strategy that requires a great deal of planning or preparation, but can be used almost spontaneously and without much thought.

Some scholars have also commented on the value of translanguaging for promoting a sense of multilingual identity. Moyles, Georgeson and Payler (2011) state that translanguaging promotes a language identity which is brighter and more intense than a monolingual one. It can also lead people beyond the constraints of the current "monolingualizing" ideology of the English system and encourage people to think

differently about language pedagogy. Skutnabb-Kangas (2009:151) points out that “it is translanguaging itself that enables us to make sense of the multilingual worlds.”

Furthermore, translanguaging enables people to understand their multilingual linguistic landscape and understand the different signs, visual, audio, and physical, spatial, and verbal (written) that surround them. Translanguaging also builds linguistic competence and performance in both languages. “Translanguaging attempts to develop academic language skills in both languages leading to a fuller bilingualism and biliteracy” (Baker 2011:290). Translanguaging includes the reprocessing of content and it may lead to deeper understanding and learning. With the use of translanguaging as a teaching and learning strategy, child will expand their knowledge, extend and intensify what they have learned through one language (English) in school through discussion with the parents at home in the other language (mother tongue) (Baker 2011).

García (2009:307-308) argued that “translanguaging is indeed a powerful mechanism to construct understandings, to include others, and to mediate understandings across language groups”. Furthermore, García (2009:44) views translanguaging as “an approach to bilingualism that is centred not on languages, but on the observable, natural communicative practice of bilinguals and, if properly interpreted and understood and practiced in schools, as a means to enhance pupils’ cognitive, language and literacy abilities”. From this perspective, translanguaging helps to promote bilingualism and it gives indigenous languages a chance to be used in education and to help learners to understand concepts better. It helps children construct meaning with peers and adults. It also fosters an understanding and acceptance of linguistic differences.

2.3. Code-switching

It may be postulated that code-switching is one form of translanguaging that has been a topic of research for several decades. It is a phenomenon based on bilingualism which Sander (2009) defines simply as the ability to speak and understand two languages. Eastman (1992:159) defines code switching as “the use of more than one language in the course of a single communicative episode.” According to Gluth (2008:6) code switching is “the mixing of elements of two linguistic varieties within a single utterance or text”. This implies the code switching is

not practiced only orally but it is also practiced in a written form and would involve biliteracy, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Code-switching is the ability of individuals to select a language according to the interlocutor, the situational context, the topic of the conversation and other factors that influence communication. Participants are often able to switch languages within an interactional sequence in accordance with sociolinguistic rules and without violating specific grammatical constraints (Cantone 2007). Switching from one language to another can happen intentionally or unintentionally. But whatever the case, the purpose of code-switching may be cognitive (to bring about better comprehension) or social (to show solidarity with other speakers of the same language). Deibert (2008:3) defines code-switching as the term for different languages coming into contact with one another in a conversation. Furthermore, he explains that bilingual and multilingual speakers normally tend to code-switch.

Mesthrie (1995:195) states that there are two types of code-switching, conversational code-switching and situational code-switching. Conversational code-switching refers to the alternation of languages or dialects happen within a conversation on one topic often within one speaker's turn. Ammon et al (2005:1478), whose definition is similar to Mesthrie's, describes situational code-switching as "switching that occurs in a relation to a change in the situation (topic, participant or setting). Situational code-switching occurs to some extent in most bilingual and bidialectal speech communities, but the members of such communities do not necessarily engage in conversational code-switching".

Code-switching allows a speaker to meet another speaker half-way, establish common ground and show flexibility and openness (Wardhaugh 2011). Furthermore, Wardhaugh (2011) explains that in black South African townships, people are prepared to accommodate each other and believe that it is important to do so because the issue of communication is at stake. According to Wardhaugh (2011:417), "code-switching shows one to be cooperative person, someone who can recognize that everyone does not have the same background". However, Mey (2009) views code-switching as serving a referential function by compensating for a speaker's lack of knowledge in one language, perhaps on a certain subject.

All these views suggest that translanguaging, like code-switching, involves the use of two or more languages. However, translanguaging may refer to the use of two or more languages in classroom or learning contexts, and may refer to the process by which bilingual students perform bilingually in a myriad ways when reading, writing, taking notes and discussing (García 2009).

2.4. Distinction between translanguaging and code-switching

The term “translanguaging” is relatively recent one used in line with code-switching in literature. Translanguaging is similar to code-switching in that it refers to multilingual speakers’ shuttling between languages in a natural manner. However, the concept of translanguaging started as a pedagogical practice where the language mode of input and output in Welsh bilingual classrooms was deliberately switched (Williams 1996). 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 (Baker 2003 and Williams 1996).

Code-switching is a bilingual-mode activity in which more than one language, typically speakers’ native language and second language (L2), are used intrasententially (where the switching occurs within a sentence) or intersententially (the switching occurs after a sentence in the first language has been completed and the next sentence starts with a new language) (Cook 2001). Moreover, code-switching has not been welcomed in traditional L2 classrooms where the students’ target language and native language are clearly divided, and the target language has to be the ‘official’ language in the classroom. Many researchers now admit that code-switching commonly takes place in multilingual contexts, not simply due to lack of knowledge in a particular language, but for different communicative functions. In a nutshell, translanguaging can be used as teaching and learning method in education while code-switching is used in daily or social context not in education as a strategy by bilingual or multilingual speakers.

2.5. Scaffolding

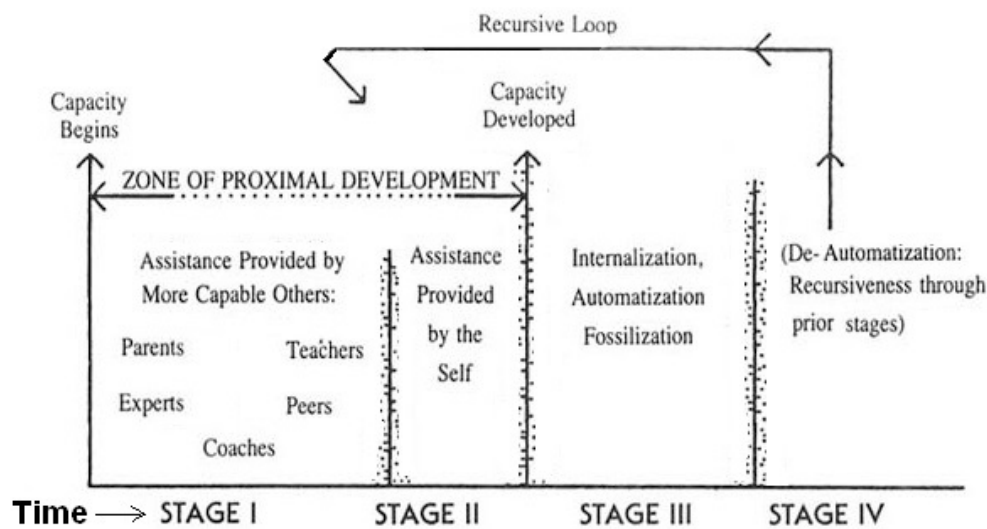
One may also consider the connections between translanguaging and scaffolding. The original idea of scaffolding comes from the work of Jerome Bruner, who defines scaffolding as “a process of setting up the situation to make the child’s entry easy and successful and then gradually pulling back and handing the role to the child as he becomes skilled enough to manage it” (Bruner 1983:60). Scaffolding is a metaphor used to describe the balance between challenge and support that adults intentionally or unintentionally create when teaching a child a novel task (Siobhan and Richards 2006:9). Stierer and Maybin (1994:97) state that “scaffolding is not just any assistance which helps a learner accomplish a task. It is help which will enable a learner to accomplish a task which they would not have been quite able to manage on their own and it is help which intended to bring the learner close to a state of competence which will enable them eventually to complete such a task on their own”

Furthermore, Norbert (2012:2923) explains the concept of scaffolding as “a reciprocal feedback process in which a more expert other (teacher or peer with greater expertise) interacts with a less knowledgeable learner, with the goal of providing the kind of conceptual support that enables the learner over time to be able to work with the task content or idea independently.” This means that learners who are unable to perform a task on their own are helped through scaffolding by someone else to enable learners to work independently.

Taking up this idea, Richard and Kilgo (2010) view scaffolding as a concept related to Vygotsky’s notion of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). It refers to the assistance given to a child by adults and peers that allows the individual to function independently and construct new concepts. The concept of the ZPD is widely used to study children’s mental development as it relates to education. Vygotsky (1978:86) defines the term “Zone of Proximal Development” (ZPD) as the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.

This simply means that there are activities that a child can do at his/her own and there are other activities that need support from a peer or an adult. In this sense, it is only within the ZPD that scaffolding can occur.

Figure 1: Zone of Proximal Development Diagram



In the above diagram, the first stage demonstrates how children develop language and speech by relying on others such as caretakers or instructors for performing a task. In the second stage, the children or learner uses prior knowledge to carry out the task without any guidance. The zone of proximal development occurs between the first and second stage. In the third stage, the task is performed automatically after being internalized, and according to Vygotsky, is fossilized. The last state, the process is de-automatized through recursion (<http://www.buzzle.com/articles/zone-of-proximal-development.html> [date accessed 6/07/2013]).

In scaffolding instruction, a more knowledgeable other provides scaffolds or supports to facilitate the learner’s development. The scaffolds facilitate a student’s ability to build on prior knowledge and internalize new information. The activities provided in scaffolding instruction are just beyond the level of what the learner can do alone (Olson and Pratt 2000). This implies that parents or teachers help young children in tasks that children cannot do on their own. This helps the learners to develop cognitively and to do these task independently. However, an important aspect of scaffolding instruction is that the scaffolds are temporary. This means that as the

learner's abilities, knowledge and learning competency increases, the scaffold which is the support will be withdrawn from the learner. According to McKenzie (1999) scaffolding helps learners to perform tasks given to them more easily. Scaffolding keeps learners on the task.

One may now examine in what ways translanguaging may be seen as an effective form of scaffolding. When dealing with learners who are learning a new language, a strong form of scaffolding may be offered by using the home language of the child or by encouraging the child to use his/her own language. If children do not understand a task presented in their second or additional language, or have difficulty going about solving it, using their language or languages may remove one barrier, and thus provide a scaffold.

2.6. Language transfer

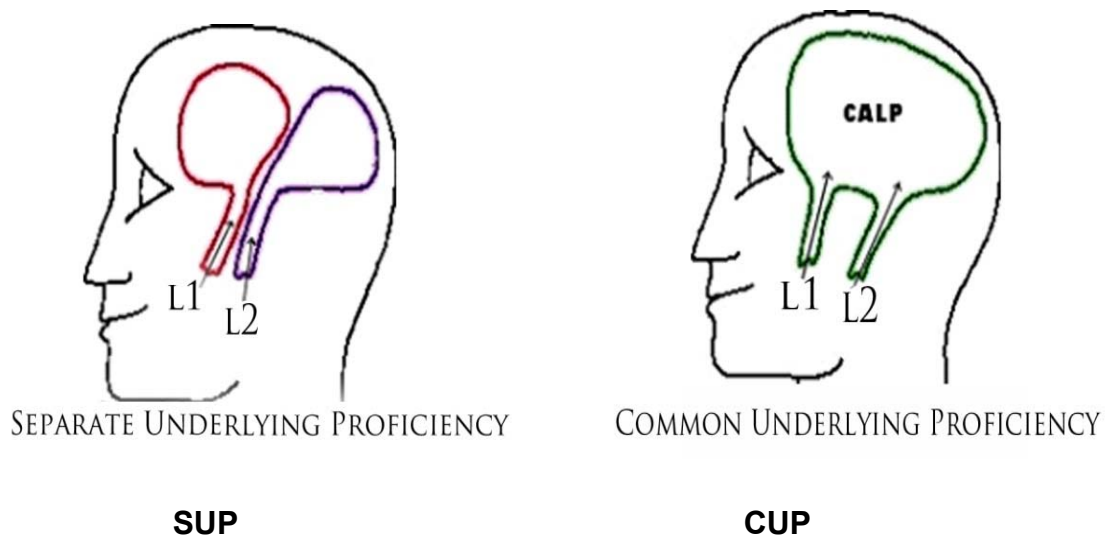
If translanguaging enables children to learn new concepts by using two or more languages, then it is likely that concepts learnt in one language can be processed and articulated in another language. This kind of movement between one language and another may be termed as language transfer. Lems, Miller and Soro (2010) define language transfer as the action, conscious or unconscious, of applying features of a first language in the learning of a new language. Learners may therefore compare sounds, words, syntax and concepts between their own language and a new language that they are learning. Language transfer could also occur when skills learnt in one language are transferred to another language. For example, when children learn to read and write in one language, they can readily transfer some aspects of their literacy experience to learning to read and write in another language. Knowledge such as how a book is structured, the use of headings and sub-headings, the organization of paragraphs, and conceptual skills like mind-mapping can be transferred between languages.

The concept of transfer is central to the proposed research as it highlights the value of using two (or more) languages in teaching and learning. Learners in the Foundation phase may particularly benefit from the influence of transfer. This implies that L1 is a foundation for L2 learning, and the stronger one's foundation in one's home language, the more likely it is that the learner will develop L2 competence.

Due to cross linguistic influence, language competence and performance in L1 may be needed by the learner in order to be able to transfer skills to L2.

Cummins (2007) is one of the leading advocates of bilingual education and his argument is based on the concept of transfer. He argues that language competence is a unified entity in which the different languages of a learner interact with each other to form what he calls a Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP). He does not believe that a child or adult's competence in each language is separate and independent forming a Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP).

Figure 2: Separate and Common Underlying Proficiency (Cummins 2007)



The concepts of CUP and SUP are captured well in the metaphors he presents in his SUP and CUP diagrams. In the first, the brain is shown as having two separate balloons, each with its own inlet (input) and in the second, the brain has only one balloon but with two inlets. The above figures are called Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP) and Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) models by Cummins (2007).

According to Cummins (2007:131) “cognitive/academic proficiencies underlying literacy skills in L1 and L2 are assumed to be interdependent”. The term “interdependence” simply means working together or helping each other. This means that one language can help the other language to develop.

For example, literacy in Sepedi can help a learner to become literate in L2 (English). To explain these models further, in the SUP model, when a learner learns

concepts and skills in the L1, only the L1 balloon increases in content and the L2 balloon remains the same and no transfer occurs. In the CUP model, when literacy or academic skills are introduced in L1, the L2 balloon also gains in size. In this model, it is believed that gains made in the L1 result in gains in the L2. Equally gains made in L2 affect competence in L1.

Cummins (2000) explains the concepts of BICS and CALP as Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). According to Cummins (2000:170), BICS is said to occur when there are contextual supports and props for language delivery. Face-to-face “context embedded” situations provide, for example, non-verbal supports to secure understanding. Actions with eyes and hands, gestures, instant feedback, cues and clues support verbal language.

BICS enables learners to participate in everyday interactions such speaking to a friend on the cell phone or taking part in simple transactions. In short, BICS is conversational talk that occurs outside of the classroom. BICS is informal and is easy to understand as it deals with everyday language. Elizabeth and Barker (2009:78) state that “BICS is social communication language, the language used to “fit in” with peers, or the language needed to successfully complete daily activities such as shopping, ordering at restaurants, or opening a bank account”.

CALP on the other hand, is required in context-reduced academic situations where higher-order thinking skills like analysis, evaluation, generalizing, predicting and classifying are required by the curriculum. CALP is specific to the context of schooling (Cummins 2000). According to Cummins (2007), the CUP model of bilingualism, based on the interdependence hypothesis, would predict that the stronger the learners are in their Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) in their L1 the more likely that they will develop CALP in their L2. This suggests that the longer learners are allowed to use their L1 as a medium of instruction and learning, the stronger their CALP in their L1 will be. This will influence the quality of learning in their L2.

Figure 3: The dual iceberg (Cummins 2000)

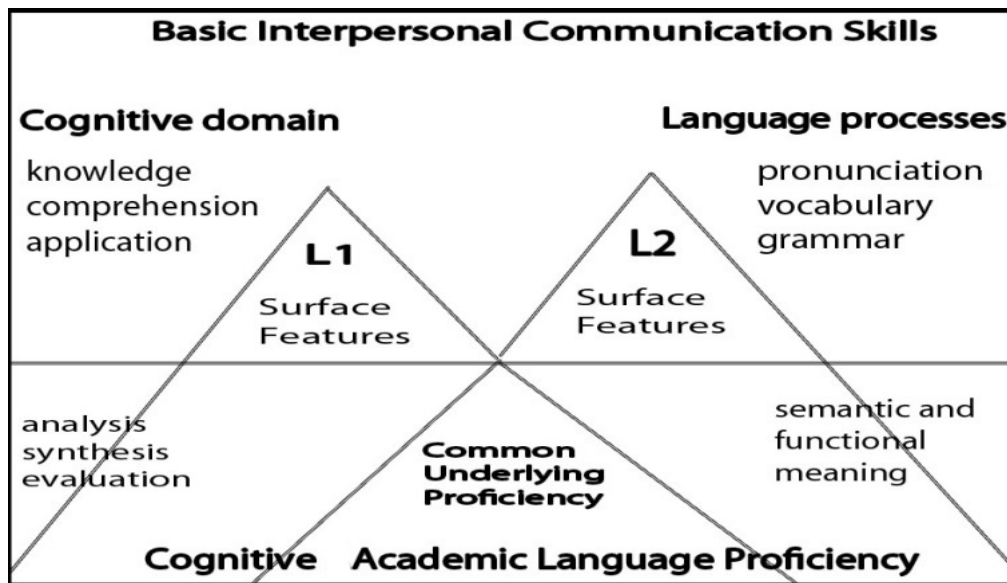


Figure 3 above is referred to the iceberg model and is used to show how L1 and L2 can develop each other at two different levels. This model shows two icebergs floating in the water. One iceberg represents the learner's L1 and the second iceberg represents the learner's L2. While the peaks of the two icebergs protruding above the water are separate, under the water level, they form one solid iceberg, with a common base.

According to Cummins (2007) the peaks for the two icebergs represent the surface structures of the two languages, namely, the sounds, words and sentence structures. In other words, the peaks represent the phonology, morphology and syntax of the two languages. These are distinct and separate. However, below the water line, where the two icebergs merge into each other, lie the deep-level competencies, such as conceptual understanding and higher-order thinking.

At this level, skills, competences and meaning acquired in one language transfer and interact with those acquired in an additional language to form a bedrock which is strengthened each time new deep-level skills are acquired.

There is a common underlying proficiency that determines an individual's performance on academic tasks which is reading or writing in both L1 and L2. Garcia (2011) explains that students who have developed literacy in their native language will tend to make stronger progress in learning literacy in second language because

they will already have learnt how to decode words, know where words begin and end, and know how texts are structured and the use of punctuation. These do not need to be learnt again for a second time.

2.7. Biliteracy

Strongly related to the concept of translanguaging is the idea of biliteracy. Hornberger (2003) defines biliteracy as the use of two or more languages in reading and writing. When students use two languages to read (for example, a bilingual text book) or take notes in two languages, they are using biliteracy. Biliteracy therefore involves cognitive activity in two languages in which literacy development in both languages is facilitated. The ability of an individual to read and write in two languages is a form of translanguaging. Biliteracy is the ability of people to use reading and writing to meet their pragmatic needs and achieve their goals (Guzzetti 2002:57). Estyn (2002:1) defines biliteracy as “the ability to speak, read and write easily in both languages together with “the added ability to move confidently and smoothly between languages for different purposes”.

In addition Guzzetti (2002) explains that biliteracy and bilingualism are related and developing biliteracy results in stronger bilingual abilities. He further states that biliteracy plays important functions in the lives of people as in many societies, people need to be able to read and write in two languages to be able to participate in the social and academic life of dominant communities as well as in local communities. Pontecorvo (1997:206) defines biliteracy as “a possession, access to the competences and information required to accomplish literacy tasks in everyday situations in two languages”.

“Biliteracy comprises more than just a technical skill required for reading and writing in both languages; it subsumes all the capacities needed to produce and understand written information in the speaker’s everyday life” (Pontecorvo 1997:206). Reyes (2001) defines biliteracy as the ability of understanding the use of two different languages. Including the knowledge and mastery of the fundamentals of speaking, reading, and writing in two languages.

In the internationally competitive world, people who are literate in two or more languages have market value (Baker 2007). This means that literate people have

better opportunities than illiterate people in the society. Children's development in reading in the second language is greatly helped by their learning to read in the first language. However, learning to read in one or two languages is a continuous and gradual development that extends to the teenage years and well beyond (Baker 2007).

Blackledge (2000:25) states that "a number of studies have demonstrated that young children participate in or observe a range of literacy activities in their homes as part of daily living". This means that middle-class families children live in an environment where there are television, radios, posters on the walls of the child's bed room, shopping list, newspapers and many other reading and writing activities. The term "emergent literacy" refers to "the behavior of very young children which reflected an understanding of reading and writing when were not yet reading and writing in a conventional sense" (Rhyner 2009:7).

When children have access to more than one writing system, their ability to differentiate between different scripts is found to develop at an early age. But Alvermann, Unrau and Ruddell (2013: 23) explain that not only could children differentiate between different writing systems. They also make use of cues in their native language to constantly reinterpret their concepts of writing in what the authors described as engagement in the process of appropriating the principles of writing for themselves.

According to Baker (2007:102), "learning to read in the second language is valuable for the development of that language". For example, reading in a second language such as English will extend the learner's vocabulary in English and also improve their grammatical competence in the language.

Furthermore, Baker (2007) states that some children learn to read two languages at the same time, though this is not frequently practiced. When these children learn to read in two languages, that provides a successful route to biliteracy.

Learning to read fluently, independently and critically takes time; literacy skills do not occur in either language overnight, but grows steadily and slowly through middle and later childhood and even into adulthood (Baker 2007). According to Estyn (2002:2) biliteracy assists individuals' intellectual development by refining their ability

to think, understand and internalize information in two languages, it prepares individuals to learn additional languages, by developing flexibility of mind and a positive approach towards other languages and cultures and it prepares individuals effectively for situations where they need to use both languages and transfer from one language to the other.

2.8. Transliteracy

The term ‘transliteracy’ refers to “the ability to read , write and interact across a range of platforms, tools and media from signing and orality through handwriting, print, TV, radio and film to digital social networks” (Thomas, Joseph, Laccetti, Mason, Mills, Perril and Pullinger 2007:449). Marquardt and Oberg (2011:137) state that “transliteracy has found value amongst librarians as a way of understanding and articulating a rationale for supporting and developing work and services in schools and allows librarians to incorporate information literacy, digital literacy and reading literacy as a fluent and immersive socially-networked approach to learning across all traditional and new media.”

The concept of transliteracy is embedded in the very earliest histories of human communication providing cohesion of models relevant to reading, writing, interpreting and interaction (Adams, Gibson and Arisona 2008: 101). Moreover, the term, “transliteracy” goes beyond language and includes other multimedia systems of communication and information sharing. Biliteracy is one aspect of transliteracy. While biliteracy refers to being able to read and write in two languages, transliteracy goes beyond writing systems to include multimedia; it includes the ability to move fluently across different meaning-making systems, including visual and graphic systems, and technology.

This brief review of some of the scholarly literature in the areas of translanguaging shows that the topics covered are related to each other. However, it is difficult to find a satisfactory definition and explanation of translanguaging that sharply and rigorously differentiates it from practices such as code-switching. However, it is clear from the literature that translanguaging is seen as a pedagogic tool in teaching and learning. With the background of this understanding, the next chapter will spell out the research design for the study which focuses on instances of translanguaging in Foundation phase classrooms.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the research design for the current research will be described focusing on the research site, the research subjects, methods of data collection and possible ways in which these data can be analyzed. The investigation will take the form of a single case study, in which the focus is on an in-depth understanding rather than on the coverage of many sites.

3.2. Research methodology

3.2.1. Qualitative study

The current research falls under the qualitative interpretive paradigm. Willis (2008:40) points out that the great strength of qualitative research is that it is “naturalistic.” It focuses on real people in real situations; its central concern is to understand human beings as they act in the course of their daily lives. Furthermore, this research approach enables the researcher to deeply investigate the object of the research, in this case, the presence of translanguaging as a pedagogic tool in teaching and learning.

Marshall and Rossman (2010:2) explain that “qualitative research typically is enacted in naturalistic settings, draws on multiple methods that respect the humanity of the participants in the study”. Furthermore, qualitative study focuses on context, is emergent, evolving and is fundamentally interpretive. Qualitative research is an approach that allows a researcher to examine people’s experiences in detail by using a specific set of research methods such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, observations, content analysis, visual methods and life histories or biographies (Hennink, Hutter and Bailey 2010).

Yin (2011:8) states that “qualitative research involves studying the meaning of people’s lives under real-world conditions. People perform in their everyday roles or express themselves through their own dairies, journals, writing and even photography.” Moreover, this research approach is able to represent the views and perspectives of the participants in a study. Capturing participants’ perspectives may be a major purpose of a qualitative study (Yin 2011).

Karkukly (2011:61) highlights that “ the design of qualitative research has significant flexibility as it is often unstructured and capable of being adapted to the inquiry as understanding deepens or situations change and allows the researcher to pursue new paths of discovering as they emerge”. In this sense, qualitative approaches are best suited for research that is aimed at gaining a deep understanding rather than a surface description of a large sample of a population. In addition, qualitative research aims to provide an explicit account of the structure, order, and broad patterns found among a group of participants engaged in specific activities at home or in their work places.

3.2.2. Research site

Though a number of schools were initially identified as sites for the current research, in the end only one school met all the ethical requirements for the study and was selected. It is a primary school in the township of Mankweng in the Limpopo Province and is only about a kilometre and a half away from the University. This proximity to the university made the school physically very accessible and in addition, both the principal and the foundation phase teachers were very open to the idea of being a research site for a university-directed research project. In fact the principal and teachers were also very eager to get advice and help on how to improve teaching and learning in the school.

3.2.3. Research subjects

Subjects of the current research were grade 1 and grade 3 learners from the Foundation phase, and their teachers who teach the selected learning areas in these grades. The focus of the study is on English FAL (First Additional Language) and Sepedi Home Language (HL), and at least one Numeracy lesson, to investigate if translanguaging occurs in a content lesson. The learners were observed during lessons, and other types of data, including video recordings and field notes were made.

3.3 Data collection procedures

It was decided that four kinds of data that would be collected, that is, classroom observations, (supported by audio and videorecordings), field notes, teacher

interviews and focus group discussions. Each of these procedures is discussed fully below.

3.3.1 Classroom observation

This method of collecting data involves sitting in classroom lessons and taking detailed notes of what is taking place in the classroom. Teaching and learning in the three learning areas in the Foundation phase were observed, to investigate the patterns of translanguaging. The observation was done in as unobtrusive a way as possible so as not to disrupt regular classroom activity. The observation protocol includes aspects such as the kind of reading and writing activities conducted, and the language/s in which the activities take place.

Audio and video recordings were made to supplement the observation and to enable systematic analysis of classroom data. Video recordings enable repeated viewings of classroom events and also allow different levels of analysis to be performed on the same data. Rival interpretations of the same data are also possible through the use of video data. Heath et al (2010:7) point out that “ the permanence of video also allows data to be shared with colleagues and peers in different ways”. Therefore, digital video provides flexible ways of manipulating, presenting and distributing social scientific data (Heath et al 2010). According to them, video enables colleagues, students and supervisors to work on the materials together. It can support close collaborative analytic work as well as providing others with the opportunity to scrutinize with tentative observations and discuss findings. with respect to data on which they are based.

3.3.2 Field notes

Field notes are the notes generated by researchers during observation or other data collection procedures including audio and video recordings. Andrew, Pedersen and McEvoy (2011:123) state that “field notes come in various types including scratch notes, detailed descriptions and analytic notes”. They explain that scratch notes that are also known as cryptic jottings or fly notes, are brief statements produced by the researcher about various activities, interactions, behaviors or anything related to the research aims during the observation process (Andrew, Pedersen and McEvoy 2011).

According to these authors, scratch notes are usually handwritten observations and comments on a loose piece of a paper or notebook. In analytical notes, the researchers articulate their comments and ideas about what they observe. They are used for data analysis, interpretation and brainstorming notes where researchers explain what their various scratch notes and detailed descriptions may mean (Andrew, Pedersen and McEvoy 2011). Luton (2010) recommends that when writing field notes, researchers need to record immediate observations and impressions. In addition, when writing field notes, researchers are warned against making sweeping generalisations and are instructed to focus on the specifics of what they observe.

In planning to use this method of data collection, the researcher decided to focus on the teaching and learning environment of the classrooms where lessons took place, which may not all be captured by video recordings. The scope of field notes included practices around oracy and writing using L1 and L2. Detailed field notes was taken on the classroom interactions between teachers and learners, during the teaching/learning process. Where necessary photographs were taken to provide visual evidence of the classroom environment.

3.3.3 Teacher interviews

One of the richest and most productive tools used in qualitative research is the interview. Kadushin (2012:23) defines interviews as a conversation with a deliberate purpose that is accepted by all the participants in the interview. However, conversations involve diffuse content while interviews focus on a specific content, driven by the researcher's intention to obtain responses to research questions. It was planned that teachers would be interviewed immediately after their lessons to find out what the aim of their lesson was and to gather any insights or views they had about how well their lessons went and what the learners could have learnt.

A semi-structured interview framework was used. Schensul, Schensul and LeComte (1999:149) explain that the questions on a semi-structured interview protocol are merely a guide for the researcher. Questions may be reformulated, or even changed in response to the kind of answers given by the interviewees. The questions are open-ended, and the emerging dialogue between the researcher and the interviewee could determine the further course of the interview see **appendix 1**.

Questions may be expanded at the discretion of the interviewer and the interviewee and they can be enhanced by probes.

The aim of these interviews was to obtain the teachers' perceptions of translanguaging in the light of what was observed during the lessons. The teacher interviews could help to find out to what extent they may be taking an additive bilingual approach to developing their learners' abilities in Sepedi and English in the Foundation phase. This includes the way they assess the learners. Teachers were interviewed from their perspectives about how can they promote the development of biliteracy. They were also be asked to comment on aspects of their work that might be improved with better resources.

3.3.4 Focus group discussions

Traditionally, focus group research is seen as “a way of collecting qualitative data, which essentially involves engaging a small number of people in an informal group discussion (or discussions), ‘focused’ around a particular topic or set of issues” (Wilkinson 2004:177). According to Connaway and Powell (2010) during focus group interviews, the researcher is able to benefit from the interactions of more than one respondent. Moreover, people tend to be less inhibited than in individual interviews. Gratton and Jones (2010) explain that during focus group interviews, members of the group are able to interact with each other, leading to a greater depth of discussion. Focus group discussants may build on each others ideas, or express differences. New ideas can be generated and discussed between the group members allowing for richer information to be gathered than if participants were asked individually.

Liamputtong (2011) shows that the primary aim of focus group discussions to gain an understanding of a specific issue from the perspective of the participants of the group. They are called focus group because the discussions start out broadly and gradually narrow down to the focus of the research (Connaway and Powell 2010:173). The research design for the current investigation included focus group discussions to gather the views of the teachers on different aspects of teaching and learning, but focusing specifically on their understanding and experiences of translanguaging.

3.4 Data analysis

In this section, the process of data analysis envisaged for this research will be presented. Data analysis is a systematic process of selecting, categorizing, comparing, synthesising as well as interpreting to provide explanations of a single phenomenon (McMillan & Schumacher 2001:462).

The first step in data analysis would be the conversion of the video data into transcripts, using the audio data where necessary to confirm the actual words uttered. The video data would be the primary data as it would be used to also indicate actions and gestures, as well as gaze direction and eye contact. Descriptions of what the students are doing (if they are paying attention or are distracted and confused) would also depend on the video data.

The analytical framework to be used to examine the video and audio data (based on transcripts) will focus on all instances of translanguaging that occur in the data. The first step will be to identify in the data collected all instances where two or more languages are used either by the teacher or the learners. Each episode of translanguaging will then be qualitatively analysed to establish the languages in which it takes place, the purpose of the translanguaging, and in what ways the occurrence of translanguaging either promotes or hinders understanding and learning. It would also be important to discover if any regularities in the use of translanguaging occur. The data will be presented as a description of classroom lessons for grades 1 and 3, capturing learners' interaction with the teacher and among learners themselves. It is expected that translanguaging will occur in both the Sepedi Home Language (L1) and English First Additional Language (L2). The teaching and learning materials will also be analysed to examine if they promote the use of translanguaging. The print material on display on the walls of the classrooms will be described and commented on in terms of their use of many languages.

3.6. Ethical issues

In any research where human subjects are involved, as in this one, the consideration of ethical issues is extremely important. Three aspects of the ethical dimensions are briefly discussed in this section: getting informed consent, maintaining anonymity and the use of the research findings of this investigation.

Consent forms were used to get permission from the school principals, parents and guardians and the learners themselves. These consent forms are provided as Appendices 2, 3 and 4. The principal of the selected school had already shown willingness to be part of this research project. A written request seeking permission to conduct research in the school was made. The consent request letter spelt out the full details of the study and assured all participants that the study would only be conducted for research purposes. Futhermore, the letter stated that the findings of the data, and the data itself would be not shared with anyone outside the study.

Both parents and children were given opportunities to consent to being part of the study. The letters were translated into Sepedi for those parents who might not be fluent in English. The teachers were also urged to speak about any issues that might concern them. They were assured that anonymity would be maintained and the privacy of the participants would be respected and protected. They were also reassured that only psuedonyms would be used in the research report. Finally, the school and the teachers would be offered a summary of the findings of the recorded data to use in any way they like. The researcher offered to make an oral presentation of the research to the teachers in the school, if the principal and teachers wish.

The next chapter deals with the actual process of data collection.

CHAPTER 4: DATA COLLECTION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will describe the process of collecting data for this study. As mentioned in Chapter 3, four kinds of data were collected, namely, data from classroom observations (supported by audio and video recordings), field notes, teacher interviews and focus group discussions. To contextualise the data, it is important to describe the research site, the resources available at the school and the socioeconomic profile of the school.

4.2 Research site

Research data were collected on the location of the school, the socioeconomic status of the community and the resources of the school. All the demographic data were collected through interviews with the teachers in the Foundation phase of the school.

4.2.1 Location of the school

The school observed is a township school situated in Mankweng (Turfloop). The school is about one and half kilometres from the University of Limpopo. It is a rural area about 30 km away from Polokwane, which is the capital city of the Limpopo Province. Most of the people living in this area are Sepedi-speaking, with a small proportion of Venda and Xitsonga speakers. In the last decade or so, Mankweng has grown enormously, with many infrastructural developments that have attracted an influx of people from the surrounding villages. There are four primary schools in the Mankweng area and one secondary school. There are health facilities (Mankweng Clinic and Mankweng Hospital) conveniently located close to the heart of the township. A taxi rank is located next to the hospital and travel between Mankweng and cities close by such as Polokwane and Tzaneen is fairly convenient. There are a few supermarkets, banks, a public library, a sports complex and a children's park. A spaza shop close to the school is a convenient facility.

4.2.2 Socioeconomic and demographic status of the community

This section presents information collected from the teachers of the school on the socioeconomic status and demographic details of the learners who attend the

school. The teachers highlighted that most of the families that the learners come from are unemployed and they depend on social grants. Learners from families who attend the school speak different languages that include Sepedi, Selobedu (dialect of Sepedi) and Setlokwa but when they enter the premises of the school the lingua franca which is used is Sepedi. The majority of the learners speak and understand Sepedi.

According to the teachers interviewed, half of the families that the learners come from have no formal schooling; therefore there is a low level of schooled literacy amongst the inhabitants of the area around the school. Most parents of the learners are unable to help their children with their academic work at home. And as one would expect, there is lack of resources such as story books and newspapers at their homes.

The teachers interviewed further highlighted that the school has a feeding scheme and learners are also provided with stationery. Learners do not pay for any school material as the government provides for them. There are computers at school for learners to learn but there is no one who can teach them computer skills. The computers lie unused in a room that is currently being used as a kind of store room. The teachers explained that the school has a crisis because of the shortage of teaching materials such as learners work books. Though there is no school library, there is a public library next to the hospital, within walking distance of the school. However the learners are never taken to the library and have no idea what a library looks like from the inside.

4.2.3 School resources

Though the school is in a poor township area, it is equipped with water facilities, and electricity. The school is secured with a fence all around with two entrances, one for pedestrians and another for vehicles, which is kept locked and manned by a security guard. On the front wall is painted the name of the school and its mission statement.

The school has six blocks of buildings within its yard and four mobile classrooms. Some of the blocks are reserved for staff-rooms for teachers including the principal's office. All classrooms are well secured including the computer room. The school

offers primary education starting from Grade R up to Grade 7. There are three Grade 1, three Grade 2 and three Grade 3 sections, occupying different classrooms.

However, the school still faces the challenge of overcrowding especially in the Grade 3 class (which was observed during the research). Learners are responsible for the tidiness of their classrooms and clean the classrooms at the end of each day in preparation for the following day. The school has allocated specific tasks to parents; some are responsible for looking after the cleanliness of the school yard and other parents for implementing the school feeding scheme; they cook and serve meals to the learners during lunch time. The school also has a vegetable garden, where spinach and other vegetables are grown to augment the feeding scheme supplies. The school seems to be well-managed with a committed and professional principal.

4.3. Research subjects

The subjects of this research are Grade 1 and Grade 3 learners at this school and their teachers. There are three teachers (all females) who are responsible for all the learning areas of Grade 1 and Grade 3. The learning areas for Grade 1 and Grade 3 are Literacy (in Sepedi and English), Numeracy (Sepedi) and Life Skills (Sepedi). The lessons observed were three Literacy lessons by the regular teachers (in Sepedi and English), and one Numeracy lesson (Sepedi).

4.3.1 The learners

The school has three Grade 1 sections which are referred to as Grade 1 A, Grade 1 B and Grade 1 C and three Grade 3 sections which are referred to as Grade 3 A, Grade 3 B and Grade 3 C. However, the study focused only on Grade 1 A, Grade 1 C and Grade 3 B classes. As mentioned earlier, all the grades in the foundation phase have four learning areas namely, Numeracy, Sepedi, English and Life Skills and three of them (Numeracy, Sepedi and Life Skills) are taught through the medium of Sepedi. Separate classrooms are allocated to the different learning areas.

Grade 1 A consisted of 42 learners (both boys and girls) with ages ranging from 6 to 9 years while Grade 1 C consisted of 27 learners with similar age range to Grade 1 A. Grade 3 B consisted of 28 learners with ages ranging from 8 to 10 years.

4.3.2. The teachers

As mentioned earlier, three teachers, all female, teaching in the Foundation phase were observed. Each teacher handles all four learning areas in the Foundation phase. For this reason, the learners do not experience a change of teacher throughout the school day. To protect the teachers' identities, the teachers observed will not be referred to by their and will remain anonymous. They will be referred to by letters of the alphabet as teachers A, B and C. Teacher A is responsible for Grade 1A, teacher B for Grade 3B, and teacher C for Grade 1C.

4.4. Intervention lessons

Apart from the regular lessons taught by the teachers in the school, a few intervention lessons were planned. These intervention lessons, which were taught by university lecturers to the same groups of students, were based on observations made on the regular lessons in terms of the teaching methods, use of materials and types of classroom interaction. These interventions were not meant to be model lessons but were rather aimed at confronting teachers with alternative practices so that a discussion could begin on teaching and learning. It was hoped that by observing these intervention lessons and discussing them with other teachers and the researcher, the teachers might see the benefits of using a larger range of strategies and activities and might consider revising their own practises.

4.5 Kinds of data collected

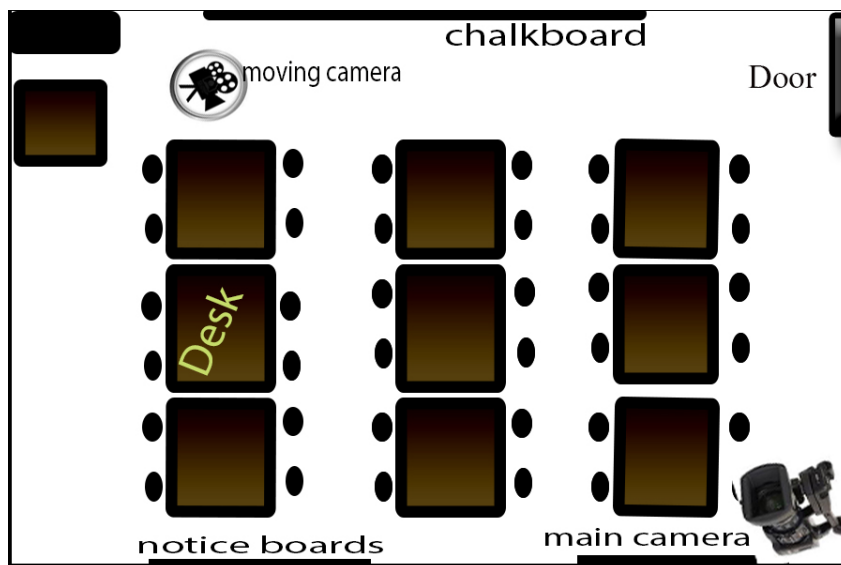
4.5.1 Classroom observation

Before starting on observations and videotaping the lessons, there was one challenge that the researcher had to face. Some of the learners did not bring back signed consent letters and had to be sent to other sections and the observation groups had to be reconstituted. This delayed the process of collecting data because all the consent forms had to be checked for parents' and learners' signatures. Some of the learners could not write their names and had to be taught how to do this and supervised while they wrote their names on the forms.

Collecting classroom data involved sitting in on lessons and taking detailed field notes of whatever occurred in the classroom. During the classroom observation, two

video recorders were used to record the classroom events. One video recorder was placed unobtrusively in the back of the classroom and the other one was used as a roving camera aimed at recording specific interactions at the blackboard or capturing learners' reading and writing efforts. The video positions are captured in the diagram below.

Figure 4: Position of video cameras



As mentioned in the previous chapter, teaching and learning in the three learning areas in the Foundation phase (Sepedi, English, and Numeracy) were observed. The observations were done in as unobtrusive way as is possible so as not to disturb the flow of classroom lessons. An observation protocol was prepared to enable the accurate recording of classroom events. Teaching and learning in the three learning areas in the Foundation phase were observed, to investigate the patterns of translanguaging. This means that the instances of translanguaging were observed between the teacher and learners. The observation includes aspects such as the kind of reading and writing activities conducted, and the language/s in which the activities take place.

The classroom observation began on 05 of February 2013 and ended on 05 March 2013. Each learning area was observed from the beginning of the lesson till the end. However the duration of the lessons did not always adhere to the timetable. Sometimes the duration of a certain lesson would take less time and sometimes they

would take longer than the scheduled time. The classroom observations reflect the dates that the lessons were observed, the name of learning area, the duration of that specific lesson and the number of learners who were present during the lesson.

The information about the lessons observed is presented in the table below.

As can be seen below in Table 1, there were three lessons observed and recorded for Sepedi HL learning, while two of the recorded lessons were English FAL. In addition, a content subject, Numeracy, was also observed and recorded in both grades 1 and 3.

Table 1: Breakdown of regular lessons

Date	Lesson taught	Number of learners	Grade	Teacher	Duration
5 th Feb 2013	Numeracy	27	1C	Teacher A	18 min,40 sec
5 th Feb 2013	Sepedi HL	27	1C	Teacher A	17 min
5 th Feb 2013	English FAL	27	1C	Teacher A	33 min,8 sec
6 th Feb 2013	Numeracy	28	3B	Teacher B	18 min,23 sec
6 th Feb 2013	Sepedi HL	28	3B	Teacher B	29 min,19 sec
6 th Feb 2013	English FAL	28	3B	Teacher B	33 min,35 sec
13 th Feb 2013	Sepedi HL	42	1A	Teacher C	51 min,21 sec

Data about the six intervention lessons are also given below:

Table 2: Breakdown of intervention lessons

Date	Lesson taught	Number of learners	Grade	Teacher	Duration of lesson
04 March 2013	English FAL	46	1A	Teacher D	49 min,33 sec
04 March 2013	Sepedi FAL	46	1A	Teacher E	39 min,52 sec
04 March 2013	English FAL	39	3B	Teacher D	49 min,54 sec
05 March 2013	Sepedi HL	39	3B	Teacher E	46 min,3 sec
05 March 2013	English FAL	39	3B	Teacher D	59 min,37 sec
05 March 2013	English FAL	46	1A	Teacher D	52 min,49 sec

Teachers D and E are university lecturers and taught the Grade 1 and Grade 3 lessons using the same materials that the regular teachers were using and in the same classroom settings. No new resources were brought into the classrooms. The only difference was that Teachers D and E used different activities and strategies with the hope of showing that even with limited resources, teachers could explore alternatives.

By the time the intervention lessons began, learners were more familiar with the process of getting parental forms signed and therefore there were more learners in the intervention lessons than in the regular ones. More learners returned signed parental consent forms and were also able to sign their own consent forms.

4.5.2 Teacher interviews

As mentioned earlier, in addition to the audio and video recordings done during the classroom observations, and the field notes, the teachers were interviewed. The aim of the interviews was to find out about the teachers' backgrounds, qualifications, training they had received and experience of teaching. The interviews were also meant to gain more understanding about their beliefs about literacy development and specifically the use of two languages (biliteracy) to develop literacy in their classrooms. This includes seeking more understanding of the teaching pedagogy of translanguaging during lessons or during the academic activities.

Interviews with teachers followed after each lesson that they taught during the observation period. These interviews also focussed on the teachers' goals for each lesson and some reflections on how effective their teaching had been. In addition, the teachers were also asked about what they thought their students had learned. These interviews enabled the individual teacher and the researcher to engage in an open dialogue based on the teachers' own perceptions and experience of her own lesson. Teachers were also asked about the progress that they see in their learners.

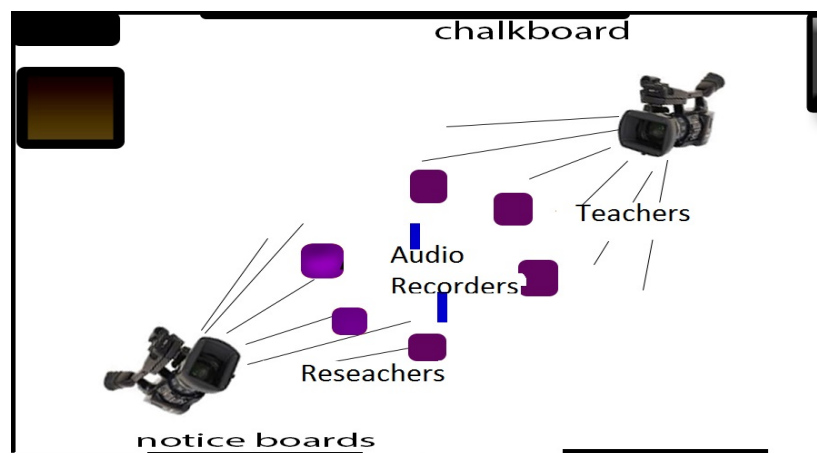
Another purpose of the teacher interviews was to find out to what extent the teachers had any awareness of the benefits of using two or more languages in their lessons; in other words whether they had any familiarity or knowledge of translanguaging as a strategy for teaching and learning. They were also asked about the factors which in their view promote or hinder the development of translanguaging pedagogy and

asked to comment on aspects of their work that might be improved with better resources.

4.5.3 Focus group discussion

The focus group discussion included the university researchers' team and the teachers from the selected school from grade 1 and grade 3. All of the teachers were females, handling all the learning areas in the Foundation phase. The duration of the focus group discussion was 1h 23 minutes. Two video recorders and two audio recorders were used to collect data during the focus group discussions. The video recorders were placed in two positions to be able to capture the teachers and the group of researchers who took part. This can be seen from the diagram below.

Figure 5: The set-up for the focus group discussion



4.5.4 The classroom environment

Finally, it is important to comment on the classroom environment, which was studied during the observation and recording of the lessons. Detailed field notes were taken on the materials that were displayed on the walls to establish whether teaching and learning takes place in a print-rich or print-impooverished environment and whether the materials are monolingual or bi/multilingual. Photographs were taken during the observation period to provide visual evidence of the classroom environment. Notes were also taken of the teaching and learning materials found in the classrooms and the organisation of space in the classrooms.

Though the desks are placed close to each other, the classrooms are not overcrowded, and there is enough space between the desks for the teacher to move around.

Teachers used most of the materials they have in their classrooms during the lessons, such as the workbooks, posters on the classroom walls, posters showing the letters of the alphabet and the numbers from 1 to 100, which are placed next to the chalkboard. The chalkboard is used quite a lot by the teacher and occasionally by the learners.

This chapter has described the process of data collection using the instruments described in chapter 3. Some of the challenges that were encountered during this process were also highlighted. The next chapter provides the analysis of the data and seeks to present some preliminary findings which will be interpreted and discussed in the final chapter.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, an analysis of the data collected from the classroom observations, the audio and video recordings and from the interviews and focus group discussion will be presented. The analysis will deal with instances of translanguaging found in the interactions between teachers and learners in both the regular lessons and the intervention lessons. The findings that emerge from the analysis will be spelt out focussing on whether the occurrence of translanguaging contributed to better classroom interaction and improved participation and learning. In lessons where no instances of translanguaging occurred, the possible reasons for this will be explored.

5.2 Transcript selection

As described in the design of the research, the videotapes of both regular and intervention lessons were repeatedly viewed to identify instances of translanguaging. These episodes were then transcribed. Selected episodes transcribed from the regular lessons are from the Grade 1 and Grade 3 Home Language (Sepedi) lessons, Grade 1 and Grade 3 English First Additional Language lessons and a Grade 1 Numeracy lesson. In addition, one Grade 3 English First Additional Language from among the intervention lessons was also transcribed.

5.3 Data Analysis

The data analysis will be presented in three stages:

- i. Contextualizing the data by describing some features of the lesson, not captured by the audio and video recordings, including the number of learners present in the classroom lesson observed and seating arrangements
- ii. Describing the aim of the lesson, if possible and
- iii. Presenting the analysis in terms of whether the classroom procedures used are developing the learners' language, literacy and conceptual skills. As mentioned earlier, a specific focus will be on the occurrences of translanguaging: why the instance of translanguaging may have occurred and what effect it might have had on the learners and the processes of learning.

5.3.1 Regular lessons

Excerpts from the regular lessons will first be presented.

5.3.1.1 Excerpt 1: Grade 1C (English First Additional Language lesson)

Teacher B

On 05 February 2013, a Grade 1 EFAL lesson was observed. There were 27 learners present and the lesson lasted 33 minutes. The aim of the lesson seems to have been to rehearse the names of parts of the body in English. The lesson began with learners singing a song with the teacher leading the singing. The song, which seemed familiar to the learners, goes as follows:

“Head and shoulders, knees and toes

Knees and toes

Knees and toes

Head and shoulders, knees and toes.”

This part of the lesson can be seen in the transcript below. In the table, the first column gives the line numbers, the second column shows the speaker/actor, the third column presents the actual words uttered or the action and the fourth column is a commentary mostly focusing on non-verbal actions. Instances of translanguaging are in italics. T stands for the teacher, L for a single learner and LL for more than one learner:

Line No.	Speaker/actor	Utterance	Comments
1	T	Let us sing	
2	LL	Head and shoulders, knees and toes	Touching the relevant parts of the body, bending to touch knees and toes
3	T	We are going to learn about your parts of your body, your body has many parts. Parts of your body, this is, show me	

		your head.	
4	T	Show me your head,	Pointing at her head
5	LL	This is my head	Pointing at their heads
6	T	This is my head, show me your head	Pointing at her head
7	LL	This is my head	Pointing at their heads
8	T	Show me your nose	Pointing at her nose
9	LL	This is my nose	Pointing at their noses
10	T	Show me your nose	
11	LL	This is my nose	Pointing at their noses
12	T	Show me your ears	Holding their ears
13	LL	This is (are) my ears	Holding their ears
14	T	Show me your ears	Holding her ears
15	LL	This are my ears	Touching their ears
16	T	I got how many ears?	
17	LL	Two	Touching his head
18	T	Gora gore ka Sepedi re tlo re tse ke ditsebe, gore tsebe ke ditsebe <i>(These are... this means in Sepedi we are going to say these are my ears, this means they are ears.)</i>	Showing the learner by holding her ears
19	LL	This is my ears.	

As can be seen, the lesson consists of a great deal of choring, with the teacher pointing to certain parts of her body (head, nose, ears) and the learners repeating after her. At line 3, the teacher explicitly states the aim of her lesson, which is to learn about parts of the body. But it seems to be the case that the learners already know how to name the parts of the body that the teacher is focusing on, so that the lesson may be a revision of something they have learnt before. To capture the lesson visually, the following two photos are presented.



The lesson proceeds as the teacher wants it to go till line 16, when for the first time, the teacher asks a question “I got how many ears?” The reason she is asking this question may be because the learners said at line 15, “This are my ears” instead of “These are my ears.” Her aim may have been to highlight the point that since they have two ears, they need to say “These are my ears.” However, this is only a speculation as the teacher does not actually take up this point as an opportunity for explaining and establishing the difference between ‘this’ and ‘these’. This may therefore be seen as a missed learning opportunity.

In line 18, the first instance of translanguaging occurs, when the teacher switches to Sepedi and points out that she is referring to (two) ears. This could be a response to the learner, who at line 17, points to his head instead of his ears. By using Sepedi, she might be clarifying for this learner that she is referring to her ears and not to her head. However, if her aim was to highlight the difference between ‘this’ and ‘these,’ it does not register as the learners continue to say “This are my ears.” The use of translanguaging here is therefore quite ineffective.

Translanguaging often occurs when concepts or ideas expressed in English are too difficult to understand and the teacher switches to the home language to explain the new concepts. In other words, the stronger language of the learners is used to express or explain ideas which are difficult to understand in the learners’ weaker (target) language. However, in this lesson, the teacher is teaching learners concepts that they know already like the parts of the body. She could have increased the cognitive challenge of the task by asking them about the function of the different parts of the body. She could have converted this into a literacy task by teaching the learners how to write the names of the parts of the body; instead the lesson remains a low-order oracy task which is focused on knowledge that the learners already

possess. In other words, the learners have learnt nothing new by way of knowledge or language.

5.3.1.2 Excerpt 2: Grade 1A (Sepedi Home Language lesson) Teacher A

On the 13 February 2013, a Grade 1 Sepedi Home Language lesson was observed. There were 42 learners present and the lesson was 51 minutes long. At the beginning of the lesson, the teachers instructed the learners in Sepedi to place their pencils inside their books and to sit in one large group on the floor in front of her. She sat on a chair with a large picture book on her lap with the aim of getting learners to look at the pictures and tell her what they saw. This activity may be seen as a pre-reading lesson in which her questions and their responses were to prepare them for reading the text in the picture book. The text in the book was titled *Letsatsi la sekolo* which may be translated as “School Day” or “A day at school.” The lesson was taught in Sepedi; English translations of all utterances are provided in English in bold italics.

As can be seen from the excerpt below, some instances of minimal translanguaging occurred.

Turn No.	Speaker/actor	Utterance	Actions
1	T	Tsentsa pensile yeo ya gago mo bukeng o e tswalele <i>Put your pencil in your book and close the book.</i>	Instructing the learners put their pencils in their book. Standing in front of the learners next to chalkboard.
2	T	O e kereile? <i>Did you find it? (referring to the pencil)</i>	Packing their books as instructed by the teacher.
3	LL	“Yes mam”	
4	T	Etlang mono pele. <i>Come in front.</i>	Instructing the learners to sit down in front

5	LL		Leaving their chairs.
6	T	Lebelela mo, le seke la lebelela kua, o “crossa” maoto. <i>Look here, do not look that side, cross your legs.</i>	Giving instructions.
7	T	Gare kgorometsane, gare patane, “space” se ke se segolo. Akere bana baka? <i>We do not have to push each other, the space is enough. Is that true my children?</i>	
8	LL	“Yes mam”	
9	T	Learner (M) o ya kae? Dula botse, “crossa” maoto. O lebelele nna. <i>Learner (M) where are you going? Cross your legs. Look at me.</i>	

Translanguaging, in this excerpt, mostly takes the form of transliteration, in the sense, that English words are ‘sothoised.’ Instances of this are found in line 1 (*pensile* for pencil), line 6 (*crossa* for cross), and line 7 (*space*). It is not even really clear that these uses of English words which have found their way into the Sepedi language should be considered as instances of translanguaging.

García (2009) includes all instances of code-switching and code-mixing as examples of translanguaging, even if they do not include attempts by the teacher to make her input understandable. But her use of these sothoised English terms shows that students are familiar with these words in English and can follow her instructions

5.3.1.3 Excerpt 3: Grade 1A (Sepedi Home language lesson) Teacher A, continued

During the same lesson, the teacher focused on individual speech sounds. As can be seen from the excerpt below, in this section of the lesson, the teacher dealt with the sound /i/.

Turn No.	Speaker/actor	Utterance	Actions
1	T	Re tlo bala lentsu se le, lefoko se lile ka gare ga leboxana le, wa lebona? <i>(We are going to read this word, there is a phrase in the little box, and can you see it?)</i>	
2	LL	Yes mam	
3	T	A reyeng re baleng, re balele wena “L” <i>(let us read, you (L) read for us)</i>	
4	L	e...tu....kele.....i...na <i>(Itu is a name)</i>	Reading slowly
5	T	Ka nnete? <i>(Is it true?)</i>	
6	T	Mothusi e bale gabotse <i>(Help her, read it well)</i>	Pointing at another learner
7	L	Itu ke leina <i>(Itu is a name)</i>	
8	T	Itu ke leina, Itu ke leina <i>(Itu is a name, Itu is a name)</i>	
9	T	Mamohla re tlo ithuta ka modumo wa /i/ <i>(Today we are going to learn about speech sound /i/)</i>	
10	LL	/i/	
11	T	Wa eng? Wa /i/ <i>(Which sound? /i/)</i>	Writing letter /i/ on the board

12	LL	/i/	
13	T	Eeh leshetse le o tseba lena? <i>(Eeh, you already know the sound?)</i>	
14	LL	Yes mam	
15	T	Mamohla re tlo ithuta ka modumo wa..... /i/, nke o e ngwale mo moyeng rebone <i>(Today we are going to learn about speech sound..... /i/, let us see, write it on air)</i>	

As can be seen, the learners already know the sound /i/, but even after the learners say it at line 14, the teacher continues to say that they are going to learn that sound. Instead she could have got them to give her examples of words that begin with /i/. She could also have got them to write these words on the board and thus could have converted an oracy activity into a literacy one. In this excerpt there are no instances of translanguaging, as the teacher is using Sepedi throughout.

What is quite clear from the first two excerpts however, is that the teacher is engaging the learners in lower-order activities that do not require much cognitive or linguistic effort. They seem mostly to be repeating the teacher's actions and words and are thus not challenged to move beyond what they already know.

5.3.1.4 Excerpt 4: Grade 3B (English First Additional Language lesson) English lesson Teacher C

On the 06 February 2013, a Grade 3 EFAL lesson was observed. There were 28 learners and the lesson was 33 minutes long. The lesson began with a reading activity where the teacher gave the learners books from which to read aloud. The text was entitled "Family and friends," which was the topic of the reading activity. Learners read aloud together at the same time.

However, it was not clear whether the learners could read independently or whether they were simply recalling what the teacher had rehearsed with them on a previous

occasion. Some of the learners could not read but a few learners seemed to be making an effort to read on their own. This can be seen in the following transcript;

Turn No.	Speaker/actor	Utterance	Actions
1	T	Let us turn on page 22.... Page 22	Holding the book
2	T	Family and friends. That is family and friends	Moving around the learners' desks
3	LL	Family and friends (in a very low voice)	Repeating after the teacher
4	T	Let us read there	Holding a reading book
5	LL	This is a (inaudible) Baloi family; they have a house with a (inaudible)... Mr. Maloi...	
6	T	Maloi.....Mr. Maloi	Correcting the learners
7	L	Mr. Maloi is 36 (inaudible). works in a "tol" factory	
8	T	He works in a "tool" factory (loudly)	Correcting the learners
9	LL	He works in a tool factory in town	Repeating after the teacher.

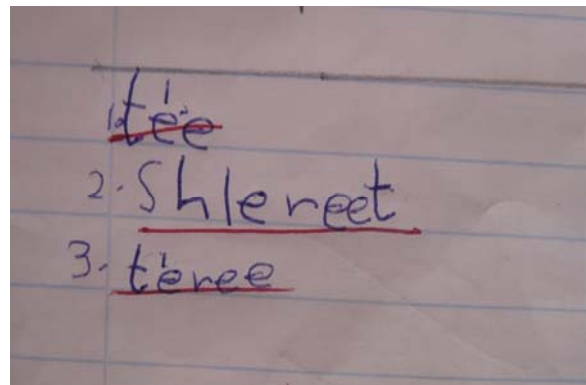
As can be observed the learners are reading aloud at the same time and it is difficult to find out which learners are actually reading and who is not. In the excerpt above, the teacher intervenes once to correct the pronunciation of the word 'tool' but does not get learners to practice the word individually or as a whole class.

After the reading activity, the teacher asks the learners to look for words that have double letters such as "ee" in the story they were reading, words like "tree, street and three." The teacher then wrote these words identified by the learners on the chalkboard as can be seen in the following pictures. The teacher then asked the learners to repeat the words after her and then erased the words on the board. She then engaged the learners in a dictation task on these very same words.



Teacher pointing to words on the board Learner identifying words that contain ee

It should be noted that in the learners' books, the words with the double letter ee are highlighted in red, thus making it easy for the learners to identify these words. This task is therefore also not cognitively or linguistically demanding.



Learner doing the dictation task Result of one learner's dictation task

Despite the teacher's sustained focus on these words (by getting the learners to identify these words in the text, by writing them up on the chalkboard and getting the learners to repeat them), a number of learners got the spellings wrong, as can be seen in the picture above. This could be because the learners do not really engage with this task as a meaningful activity, in which the words may have some relevance for them, but rather as a mechanical exercise. The teacher does not work with the learners to establish the meanings of these words or help them with clues to recall their spelling.

Additionally, no patterns of translanguaging were observed in this lesson and the teacher used only one language. Scaffolding only occurred in line 8 when the teacher modelled the correct pronunciation of the word “tool”. However, this kind of scaffolding is focused more on form than on concepts, and is a minimal level of support, which is not sustained.

It might be interesting to speculate on why there may not have been instances of translanguaging in this episode. It could be that the activities were not challenging and did not require much thinking or processing of information. It is not clear if the learners knew the meanings of words such as ‘tree’ or street.’ If these were new concepts for the learners, the teacher could have got the learners to provide the equivalents in their own language. Or it could be the case that no new concepts that might require mediation in the learners’ own language were introduced. This simply means that learners did not learn any new or difficult concepts. There was no motivation for the teacher to use translanguaging as a strategy of teaching as the activity was easy. As pointed out earlier, translanguaging occurs when students face difficulties in understanding new concepts in an unfamiliar language. It could also be the case that the teacher believes that code-switching is not beneficial or has the view that the curriculum policy does not permit the use of an indigenous language during an English First Additional Language lesson.

5.3.1.5 Excerpt 5: Grade 3 (Sepedi Home language lesson) Teacher C

On 06 February 2013, a Grade 3 Sepedi Home Language lesson was observed. In this lesson there were 28 learners and the duration was 29 minutes and 19 seconds. The lesson began with an activity that was focused on parts of the body in Sepedi. The teacher asked the learners to touch or point to different parts of the body. During the lesson the teacher did not conduct any activities that required the learners to think. None of the questions were challenging. She once again asked lower-order questions such as “How many eyes do you have?” This kind of question does not require learners to think deeply. The learners are being required to reproduce their everyday knowledge, which they already possess.

Translanguaging did not occur at all. The main reason for this can be that the teacher was teaching the learners what they already know and the learners were taught in their own language. This means the learners understood what the teacher

was teaching. The transcript below shows that only one language was used during the lesson. The teacher used Sepedi from the beginning of the lesson and no instances of translanguaging occurred.

Turn No.	Speaker/actor	Utterance	Actions
1	T	Re rile re bolela ka, re bolela ka ditho tsa mmele. We said we are talking about, about parts of the body.	
2	T	Re rile re bolela kaneng? We said we are talking about?	
3	LL	Ditho tsa mmele. Parts of the body.	
4	T	Re bolela ka ditho tsa mmele. We are talking about parts of the body.	
5	T	A re emeleleng. Let us stand up.	
6	T	Rare re nale ... We say we have.....	Touching her head
7	LL	Hlogo, ditsebe, mahlo. Head, ears, eyes	Touching parts of their bodies (head, ears, eyes)
8	T	Haeh, rebolela relebeletse mo pele No, we speak looking at front.	Admonishing some learners who were not looking at the teacher

Another aspect worth commenting on is that though this is a grade 3 class, the teacher is still dealing with parts of the body, a topic that was covered in the grade 1 EFAL lesson. It is indeed surprising that a theme that the learners encountered in

grade 1 is still being taught in grade 3. It is as if the learners have made no progress from grade 1 to grade 3. This serves to highlight the point that learners seem to be often revising aspects of language and topics that they had mastered earlier. The cognitive and linguistic implication of this is that the learners are not engaging in progressively more challenging activities and hence neither conceptual nor linguistic development seems to be occurring in a cumulative way.

5.3.1.6 Excerpt 6: Grade1C (Numeracy lesson) Teacher B

On the 05 February 2013, a Grade 1 Numeracy lesson (taught in the home language, Sepedi) was observed. In this lesson there were 27 learners and the lesson was only 18 minutes long. The main aim of the lesson was to teach learners the concept of odd and even numbers. This can be seen from the following transcript:

Line no.	Speaker/actor	Utterance	Actions
1	T	Re bone nomoro ya mathomo ke tee, ga e pane le selo. <i>We saw that the first number is one; it is not pairing with anything.</i>	
2	T	Ge re etla go ya bobedi, pedi e namile e panne še. <i>When we come to the second number, two is pairing.</i>	
3	T	Tee le pedi di panne, tharo še ga se e pane. <i>One and two they are pairing, three is not pairing.</i>	
4	T	Ya mo..... ke nomoro ya go se pane, ka mo eya pana, Ke gore ge ke re ya pana, ye e tsamaya le mogaboyona. <i>Yes, here....it's a number which is not pairing, this means that</i>	Teacher goes to the board to write the odd and even numbers.

		<i>when I say it pairs, this one goes with its member.</i>	
5	T	Re a kwana na? <i>Do we understand each other?</i>	Asks a question to find out if the learners understand the concepts
6	T	Ke ka ntwela ka sekgowa re e bitšago gore ke di (<i>odd le di even numbers</i>). <i>In English we call them odd and even numbers.</i>	The teacher is getting confused of the concept of the odds and even numbers
7	T	Re e bitša gore ke eng? <i>What we call it?</i>	
8	T	Nna a ke tsebe gore na, nna ka Sepedi ke tla e bitša eng? <i>I don't know what odd numbers are in Sepedi.</i>	
9	T	Ka Sepedi odd number ga e bitšege. <i>In Sepedi there is no term for odd number.</i>	
10	T	Mara re na le "one" ya go se pane e le tee, raba le pedi e tsamaya ka menwana ye mebedi. <i>But we have one that is not pairing alone, and then we have two that pairs with two fingers.</i>	

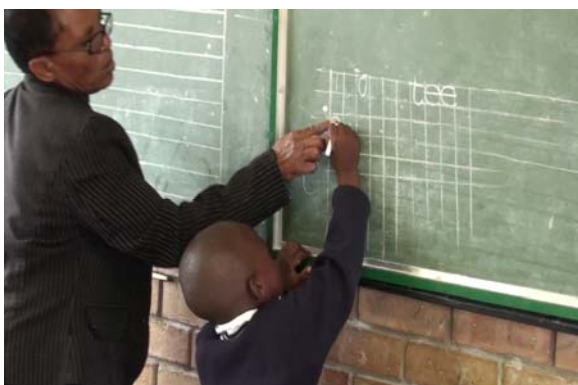
As can be seen the teacher is trying to get the learners to understand what is meant by even numbers and odd numbers. From lines 1 to 5 she gives her own explanation by saying that some numbers pair with each other and other numbers do not. It is not

really clear whether the learners understand her or not as there is no response from the learners. In fact in this excerpt there is no learner response at all.

In line 6, the teacher uses the terms 'odd' and 'even' numbers for the first time and then goes on to say that she does not know what the terms are in Sepedi for odd and even numbers (lines 8 and 9). The use of the English terms 'odd' and 'even' numbers may be considered to be an instance of translanguaging but not a strong example. Her use of the English terms is necessitated by the absence of these terms in Sepedi. In line 7, she continues to ask if the learners understand her.

The learners do not respond to her question; they just kept quiet and shake their heads showing that they do not understand her. As can be seen in the transcript, the teacher alone speaks and the learners do not respond verbally at all. When the teacher realises that the learners are unable to grasp the concept of odd and even numbers, she invites one of the students to come to the board and write the numbers from 1 to 10 in Sepedi (*tee, pedi, tharo*, etc). While the teacher is focussing on this one learner at the chalkboard, the other learners in the class are restless and bored.

It is clear that no new concept was learnt during the lesson. The learners were confused. The only part where the learners were actively participating is when the teacher switched to a writing activity on the board. It seems as if the teacher converted a numeracy lesson to a literacy lesson by focusing on handwriting. The lesson became one in which the learners came up to the board and wrote the Sepedi numerals in words. The teacher and the learner at the board focussed on the correct spelling of the numbers in word form. This can be seen from the pictures below.



To conclude the commentary on this excerpt, it is clear that even if the teacher uses the home language of the children, namely Sepedi, she is unable to communicate

maths concepts to the learners. This seems to suggest that the teacher's own content knowledge is weak and in addition she is unable to mediate whatever knowledge and understanding she has to her learners.

5.3.2 Intervention lessons

As mentioned earlier, a number of intervention lessons taught by university lecturers were planned to provide the regular teachers with an opportunity to engage with lessons different from their own. In the following sections, some of the intervention lessons will be analyzed to provide a comparison with the use (or absence) of translinguaging in the regular lessons.

5.3.2.1 Excerpt 1: Grade 3B English FAL lesson: Teacher D

On 05 March 2013, a Grade 3B EFAL intervention lesson was observed. There were 39 learners present and the lesson lasted 59 minutes and 37 sec. The aim of the lesson was to collectively read a story from the prescribed book and find out if the learners understood it by answering questions posed by the teacher.

As the intervention teacher for the EFAL lessons (Teacher D) is not Sepedi-speaking, she was compelled to use English throughout the lesson, which put a lot of pressure on the learners to try to understand her. However as can be seen from the transcript, the teacher used certain interesting strategies to enable comprehension. The lesson was based on a text (**A visit to the library**) in the learner book for Grade 3 English First Additional Language (terms 1-2). The cover of the book and copies of the lesson pages can be seen in **Appendix 5**.

But before she began dealing with the text, she asked the learners various questions to find out to whether they read story books, if their parents or siblings read at home, if newspapers were purchased at home and whether they ever visited a library. Though it did seem as if the learners understood the teacher's questions, only a few responded by saying that they sometimes listened to stories and their fathers sometimes purchased newspapers. This interaction confirmed what seems to be well-known: learners in many rural and township schools have few opportunities to read for pleasure and a library is an unfamiliar place to almost all of them.

Moving on to the analysis of this lesson, as the excerpt below shows, there are some interesting examples of translanguaging.

Turn No.	Speaker/ actor	Utterance	Actions
116	T	“Can you see ... why is this written like this? ... Why is everything else written the same way, and only this line ... ‘how the elephant got its trunk’ ... only that line is written so dark? ... Why?”	Teacher points to the place in the book again where the title of the story appears.
117	T	“Do you know? ... Do you know? ... Why? ... Tell me! ... Do you know? ... Tell me! ... Tell me! ... Why?”	Teacher allows time before pointing to a learner. Teacher directs the question to learners on the far left of the class.
118	T	“Yes? Yes? ... OK, can you tell me in Sepedi? Let her tell it in Sepedi, we’ll tell the rest ... (unclear) ... Tell it in Sepedi!”	
119	L1	“... Sepedi?”	Learner seeks confirmation that she can indeed talk in Sepedi.
120	T	“Yes, speak in Sepedi. Speak in your language. ”	Teacher confirms that it is acceptable to speak in Sepedi
121	L1	<i>Bare o bolele ka Sepedi</i> (Say it in Sepedi)	One of the learners translates the teacher’s instruction into Sepedi
122	T	“... .. Do you know the	Teacher allows a

		answer? ... Then tell me! Tell it in Sepedi. It's OK. They will explain to me."	long pause before speaking again.
123	L2	"... (Inaudible) ..."	
124	T	"You know? ... You know the answer? ... No."	Learners in the opposite row are watching and leaning over their chairs.
125	T	"OK, here's the only person who knows the answer and she's not telling us, hey?"	
126	L1	<i>Bare ba botse ka Sepedi.</i> (They say tell them in Sepedi)	A girl learner leans over her chair and speaks to another learner in Sepedi.
127	T	"OK. ... Tell her. ... Tell her. ... Tell her. ... Tell her in Sepedi."	
128	L1	<i>Bare o mpotse ka Sepedi</i> (They say tell me in Sepedi)	The two learners are interacting and communicating in Sepedi. When one of them cannot hear the other clearly, she leans forward and further out of her chair.
129	T	"OK, the question is: 'Why is this, only this line, 'how the elephant got its trunk' – Why is only that line written so dark ... and black? ... That's the question	Teacher repeats the question to ensure that everyone remembers the question

130	T	“Ask her in Sepedi ... does she know the answer, and can she tell you the answer. Ask her this for me.”	L2, L1 and teacher, off camera.
131	L1	<i>Bare o bolele ka sepedi</i> (They say speak in Sepedi)	
132	T	“Does she know the answer? ... You don’t know?”	
133	T	“OK. I think that ... I think I must give you the answer. Nobody knows that? ... Nobody knows the answer? You know? ... OK, tell me!”	Teacher moves to the middle of the class at the front. Teacher points to L2
134	L2	<i>Go bane ke leina la puku</i> (It is because it’s the name of the book).	Softly spoken by L2 having gotten to her feet once pointed out by the teacher.
135	T	“Say it loudly to the whole class, because we all want to know. ... Say it loudly.”	Teacher waves her hands over the class.
136	L2	<i>Go bane ke leina la puku</i> (It is because it’s the name of the book).	
137	T	“Yes! It’s because it is the name of the book. ... It is the name of the story. Do you understand?”	Teacher nods
138	LL	“Yes.”	
139	T	“So, if you take any book and you look in the front of the book, you’ll find that a name is written very	Teacher starts paging through the book and points out

		dark. Do you see this?"	the name of the book.
140	LL	"Yes."	

This interaction actually begins in line 95 (not shown in the transcript), where the teacher repeatedly asks the learners, why certain words in the text are in bold letters. The answer she is seeking is that the words in bold are the name or title of the book. The learners struggle to understand her but the teacher persists in repeating and reformulating the question, hoping that someone in the class would understand the question and answer. The teacher's aim here is to introduce learners to certain conventions of writing/print, namely that the titles of books are always set apart in some way, through the use of bold letters or italics.

From line 116 up to line 120, the teacher asks the learners the same question but tells them that they can answer using their mother tongue, Sepedi.

Finally in line 121, one of the learners (L1) translates the teacher's instruction to speak in Sepedi to the rest of the class. However, even after this, the learners remain silent. In lines 126, 128 and 131, L1 repeats the teacher's instruction in Sepedi. In line 129, the teacher repeats the question to the learner and in line 130 the teacher asks the L1 to ask another learner (L2) to answer the question in Sepedi. In line 131, as pointed out earlier, L1 explains to L2 that she can answer the question in Sepedi. In line 134, finally, L2 answers the question in Sepedi by saying that it is the name of the book. The teacher then in line 135 requests L2 to repeat her answer loudly for the benefit of the whole class and L2 does so in line 136.

In line 138, the teacher starts paging through the book and points out how the titles of each chapter is written in bold. From line 139 up to line 159 (not shown in the transcript), the teacher reinforces this conventional way of presenting titles by pointing to many examples in the book. It is quite clear that by the end of the lesson, many learners have grasped this idea.

What is interesting about this episode is that the teacher encouraged the use of translanguaging by the learners. The instances of translanguaging occurred when the teacher gives the learners a chance to use their mother tongue to participate in

classroom activities. Translanguaging is used as a means of facilitating comprehension and helped the learners to understand. The use of translanguaging in this episode is in tune with what Baker (2011:288) elaborates as “the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages.”

In addition, as the teacher introduces translanguaging she also uses scaffolding to help the learners to understand the activity by asking one learner (L1) to interpret the message into the mother tongue for the rest of the learners. Scholars like Stierer and Maybin (1994:97) state that “scaffolding is not just any assistance which helps a learner accomplish a task. It is help which will enable a learner to accomplish a task which they would not have been quite able to manage on their own and it is help which intended to bring the learner close to a state of competence which will enable them eventually to complete such a task on their own.” It does seem that in this episode, the use of the learners’ home language Sepedi enabled the learners to comprehend and complete the task. Translanguaging here is therefore a form of scaffolding.

Furthermore, when learners are able to translate and interpret from English to Sepedi or Sepedi to English, they have learned that both their languages can be used to make meaning of ideas that are initially difficult. Translanguaging in the intervention lesson was encouraged by the teacher and then the learners were able to use their mother tongue to participate in the classroom activity. Williams (2003) suggests that translanguaging often helps the learners to use their stronger language to develop their understanding of something uttered in their weaker language. In the process, their weaker language also begins to develop. This is different to what happened in the regular lessons.

In the regular lessons, the teacher largely used only one language, the language they were meant to be teaching. In the Sepedi Home Language lesson they used only Sepedi and in the English First Additional Language lesson they used only English. Learners were not encouraged to use other languages. In addition, the activities that the learners are engaged in require only lower-order thinking.

5.3.2.2 Excerpt 2: Grade 3B English FAL lesson: Teacher D

On 04 March 2013, a Grade 3B EFAL intervention lesson was observed. There were 39 learners present and the lesson lasted 49 minutes and 54 sec. The aim of the lesson was to get learners to use their birthdays to do some simple calculations to answer questions based on their dates of birth. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher asked learners to come to the chalkboard and write their names and their birthdays in full (day, month and year). The learners were very enthusiastic about writing their names and birthdays as can be seen in the pictures below, when many of them came forward to the chalkboard.



The teacher then designed a task based on the information written on the board. She selected four names and birthdays and asked the class to determine who was the oldest and who was the youngest, using the information on the board. The learners did not understand the teacher's question. As mentioned earlier, the intervention teacher for the EFAL lessons is not Sepedi-speaking, and she was compelled to use English throughout the lesson. This put a lot of pressure on the learners to try to understand her during the lesson.

When the learners were unable to understand her question, the teacher facilitated the use of translanguaging, as can be seen in the transcript below.

Turn No.	Speaker/actor	Utterance	Actions
27	T	Now you must say, who is the oldest and who was born first and who is the youngest, who was born	

		last ok.	
28	T	Think, think, think and if you know the answer put up your hand and I will give you a chance to answer.	
29	T	Do you know the question? Do you understand?	
30	LL	Yes	
31	T	Do you all understand, everyone?	Pointing at the learners.
32	LL	Yes	
33	T	Do you understand? Do you understand what I am asking you?	Pointing at a learner.
34	L	No	
35	T	Can you explain to her, whoever understands	Pointing at learners next to the camera.
36	T	Who understands my question?	
37	LL	Yes	
39	T	Do you understand the question?	Pointing at a different learner.
40	L2	Yes	
41	T	Explain it to her in your language what I am asking.	
42	T	I am asking you to tell me, we have four birthdays and names, right? Correct.	

43	T	I want to know who was born first and who was born last. That means who is the oldest and who is the youngest? Now they do not understand. Then can you tell them in your language?	Pointing at L2.
44	T	Tell them in Sepedi; tell them in Sepedi what I want. Stand up, tell them.	
45	T	Tell them so they understand you. Stand here and tell them.	
46	L2	Inaudible	Standing in front of the class.
47	T	Who can tell them in your language? Ok tell them. In your language, tell them.	
48	L3	Bare, bare o monyane ke mang, bare o, o, o a belegilego pele kemang le o a belegilwego mafelelong ke mang? <i>(They say who is the youngest, the one who was born first and the one who was born last).</i>	
49	T	Did she say it correctly?	
50	LL	Yes	
51	T	Did you understand what she said? Know you know the question. Can you answer?	
52	T	Think, think, who is the oldest here?	Pointing at the chalk board.
53	LL	Masilo	

This interaction actually begins in line 1 (not shown in the transcript), when the teacher introduces the lesson. In line 27 the teacher poses her question. She asks the learners to identify who is the youngest and who is the oldest according to the dates of birth written on the chalkboard. In line 28 the teacher tries to encourage learners to think about her question and calculate the answer. When the learners are silent, the teacher asks the learners, in line 29, if they understand the question. In lines 30 and 32, the learners indicate that they understand the question but they still do not attempt an answer. Then in line 34, one learner admits that she does not understand the question.

In lines 35 and 36, the teacher tries to identify if there is any learner who understands her question. In line 40, a learner answers the teacher by saying 'Yes' and the teacher asks this learner (L2) to interpret the question in Sepedi so that other learners will be able to understand it. L2 speaks in a very soft voice and is inaudible. Then in line 48, another learner (L3) translates the question into Sepedi for the whole class and finally in line 53, the learners are able to provide an answer to the question, 'Who is the oldest here?'

In this episode, translanguaging was used productively by the teacher even if she herself was unable to use the language of the learners. By getting a learner to translate her question, she was finally able to get the learners to engage with the task. As Garcia (2009) affirms, "Translanguaging is indeed a powerful mechanism to construct understandings, to include others, and to mediate understandings across language groups" (p 307-308).

As Williams (2003) and Baker (2003, 2011) point out, translanguaging is a strategy which would help to build up learners' cognitive development using two languages. Norbert (2012:2923) explains the concept of scaffolding as "a reciprocal feedback process in which a more expert other (teacher or peer with greater expertise) interacts with a less knowledgeable learner, with the goal of providing the kind of conceptual support that enables the learner over time to be able to work with the task content or ideal independently." In the excerpts analysed above this certainly seems to be the case.

The findings emerging from the analyses of transcripts provided in the preceding sections will be summarised in the next chapter. What follows is an analysis of the teacher interviews and the focus group discussions.

5.4 Analysis of teacher interviews

This section will provide an analysis of the data that was collected during the interviews with the teachers. During the interviews the teachers expressed their views on a number of issues relating to their teaching experience and these have been captured in this section. On 05 and 07 June 2013, the foundation phase teachers from the selected Grades (Grade 1A and Grade 3B) were interviewed by the researcher. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the interview questions were semi-structured.

5.4.1 Teachers' qualifications

One of the aims of the interviews was to find about the background of the teachers and the professional training that they had received as well as about their teaching experience. The table below summarises information about the teachers.

Teachers	Grade	Home language	Qualification	Subjects taught	Experience
Teacher A	3A	Sepedi	B Ed	All subjects for grade 3	17 years
Teacher B	3B	Sepedi	B Ed	All subjects for grade 3	15 years
Teacher C	1C	Sepedi	B Ed	All subjects for grade 1	24 years

As can be seen, all three teachers are mother-tongue teachers of Sepedi; they are also all female as is the case with most Foundation classes. Teachers are allocated to a particular class and teach all the subjects in the syllabus for their grade. They also all have a university degree and several years of teaching experience. In fact, teacher C was due to retire in a few months after the research began.

5.4.2 Literacy development

Many important insights emerged from the interview process relating to the teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. The teachers said that they are eager to improve the literacy and biliteracy levels of their learners and explained that the most appropriate ways in which this could be done is as follows:

- ❖ By teaching learners in both languages (English and their mother tongue).
- ❖ By using the posters on the classroom walls to teach and give learners a chance to explain what they see on the posters.
- ❖ By asking government or department of education to supply enough resources such as reading books in both languages since parents cannot afford some of the materials needed for use in lessons, while some of the books cannot be found in the book shops.

Furthermore, teachers explained that the school has one computer classroom which is not working properly. They explained that the computer classroom only works if there is a teacher who can teach (computer skills) learners how to operate the computers. This is unfortunate because if learners are encouraged to learn computer literacy with the right support, they would be able to develop many useful skills which would help them in their academic work.

However, some interesting contradictions were also noted. In response to a question about using both languages in their lessons, one teacher revealed that she felt that L1 and L2 must be kept apart as the learners could get confused. The example she gave was of the fact that the sound 'c' does not exist in Sepedi and only the sound 'k' exists. So introducing two languages would result in learners not being able to differentiate the sounds in words in which 'c' is pronounced as 'k.' Her underlying assumption seems to be that when two languages are taught, there is interference and neither language is learnt well.

Similarly, the teachers also seemed to believe that English should only be taught orally in grade 1 and writing should be postponed either to grade 2 or to the last term of grade 1. As a result the lessons were oracy-dominated with very little writing encouraged in grade 1.

When writing was in fact taught, the focus was very much on the mechanical aspects of writing such as writing neatly, 'staying between the lines,' use of capital and small letters and punctuation. When interviewed about this, the teachers said that it was important to emphasize these aspects in the early stages of schooling. Reading and writing were therefore not seen as activities that have the potential for meaning-making and for relating the children's experiences with the world of texts.

5.5 Analysis of the focus group discussions

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the focus group discussion was made up of the university researchers' team and the teachers from the selected school from grade 1 and grade 3. The aim of the focus group discussion was to get the teachers to share their views about the intervention lessons, what differences they saw between their own lessons and the intervention lessons and whether there was anything from the intervention lessons that they might want to use in their own teaching.

The teachers all articulated the need to focus on phonics and commented on the poor grasp of phonics that the learners had and how important it was to drill the sounds of both Sepedi and English. Their view that the two languages must be taught separately was emphasised. It was clear that they had very low expectations and believed that the learners should first master the sounds of the language before they could be expected to understand, read or write, especially in English. The view that learners could use all their language resources to aid learning was absent. Equally, that the learners may already be able to use words and sentences in both Sepedi and English as part of their linguistic repertoire was not recognised.

The intervention lessons were positively viewed as bringing about more participation from the learners but the intervention teachers were criticised for not focussing adequately on the conventions of writing, such as writing between the lines already marked on the chalkboard, and for not focussing on punctuation and spelling. They were critical also of the fact that the EFAL teacher asked learners to use their own language to interpret her instructions, when the CAPS policy does not permit the use of two languages. They insisted that the policy states that only English should be used in the EFAL lessons and the teachers should only use English. The teachers felt that when learners do not understand something in English, it is better to simplify

or paraphrase instead of using the home language of the learners. They felt that if the teacher used the learners' language, the learners would begin to rely on this and therefore not be motivated to make an effort to understand English or use it. It was very clear that the teachers did not view translanguaging as a useful strategy for teaching and learning.

Cummins, Baker and Hornberger (2001:83) claimed that "Through children's L1 experience, they are likely to have developed an understanding of concepts they will encounter in their early reading of L2." In their teaching of literacy, the teachers of the regular lessons do not seem to operate with this principle and therefore make every effort to keep the learners languages apart.

In the next and final chapter, the findings will be summarised, the implications arising from these findings will be spelt out and some recommendations for the productive use of translanguaging will be made.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This final chapter of the mini-dissertation has four aims: to provide a reflective summary of the key findings of the research focussing on the use of translanguaging in the regular and intervention lessons, to spell out some of the limitations of this research, to address the implications of the study, and finally to explore some of the recommendations arising from the study. This chapter will outline the answers to the main research questions: whether translanguaging is used as a strategy in Home Language (HL) and English First Additional Language (EFAL) lessons in the Foundation phase, what forms and patterns of translanguaging occur in these lessons, what are the causes and roles of translanguaging and how translanguaging can be used more effectively during lessons.

To restate the aim of this research, this study sought to investigate the ways in which translanguaging is used by teachers and learners in the Foundation phase in a selected primary school in the Limpopo Province. Such a study would enable teachers and teacher educators to devise ways of teaching and learning that would utilize the bi/multilingual resources that children bring to school. The following section will seek to summarise the findings of this study with reference to the scholarly literature.

6.2 Summary of the research findings

This section summarizes the findings of this research relating to the regular lessons and intervention lessons.

6.2.1 Findings related to regular lessons

It is very clear from this study that teachers of the regular lessons are not aware of translanguaging as a teaching and learning strategy. The teachers seem to be operating with a view of language and literacy development in which each language is taught and learnt separately and no interaction between the two languages occurs. The teachers do not seem to realise the huge potential for learning that could be realised if they used the stronger language of the learners, especially in the EFAL lessons, to bring about understanding.

Related to this is the finding that teachers rely on very traditional methods of teaching, using repetition and choring as the dominant ways of teaching and learning. The transcripts show that consistently across both Sepedi HL and EFAL lessons, teachers use similar patterns of teaching, which are limited in their ability to challenge learners to think or move much beyond what they already know. The data point to a consistent pattern observable across lessons, showing that learning and teaching occur at a low cognitive level and below the learners' linguistic and cognitive capacities, even in their home language. Even when learners engage in reading exercises, they are mostly dealt with at superficial level, and learners don't have meaningful opportunities to engage in reading as a meaning-making activity.

According to Cummins (2007:131) "cognitive/academic proficiencies underlying literacy skills in L1 and L2 are assumed to be interdependent". The term "interdependence" simply means working together or helping each other. This means that using one language to promote understanding and production in another language can help learners to develop competence in both their languages. When learners learn to read and write in one language, they can readily transfer some aspects of their literacy experience to learning to read and write in another language.

However the teachers seem to be functioning with a monolingual view of literacy and use each language to the exclusion of the other. This means that the learners' competence in their own language is never deployed in the learning of English. Equally, learners are not led to see similarities or differences between their own language and English. They therefore do not develop the metalinguistic awareness so characteristic of bilingual learners.

The separation between the two languages in the classroom could be seen as partially due to how teachers interpret the CAPS policy, which does not seem to encourage translanguaging. In fact, during the focus group discussions, the teachers said that the CAPS policy does not refer to translanguaging as a pedagogic strategy and seems to also be imposing a monolingual view of language and literacy development. Teachers are not encouraged to code-switch in the EFAL lesson and use it minimally, mostly for classroom management, such as giving instructions and maintaining discipline. Bilingualism is not seen as valuable for conceptual growth or cognitive development.

Further, from the data collected and analyzed, the nature of interactions in the classroom is heavily teacher-centred. Most of the time, teacher talk is dominant during lessons. This means the teachers seemed to be unable to create space for learner-initiated talk. This has an impact on learner's ability to develop oral fluency in their second language (EFAL) and indeed even in their home language. Questions posed by teachers rarely required more than single-word responses.

It is disturbing to note that the teachers do not create opportunities for learners to engage in meaningful activities that will enable them to acquire new knowledge and skills. Even in the numeracy lesson in the home language Sepedi, the teacher was unable to put across fundamental maths concepts such as odd and even numbers. The teacher seemed to lack the maths knowledge as well as the pedagogic knowledge to enable learners to grasp these concepts.

According to the ANA report of 2011, learners showed an inadequate ability to produce even simple sentences when asked to write about what they saw in pictures given to them. When asked to answer questions on these pictures, the learners tended to attempt only the simple questions. The report further confirms that learners are unable to answer questions that demand reasoning skills (*Why* questions) and questions that require learners to give their own view (questions such as *What do you think?*) (ANA 2011).

The ANA findings for the Limpopo province show that learners do not achieve grade-level benchmarks in vocabulary development and have little exposure to reading and writing even in their home language Sepedi and almost no exposure to the use of their first additional language, English. As seen in the lesson transcripts, teachers are more interested in how learners articulate and pronounce words and whether they recall words they have encountered in texts through dictation and spelling tests. This focus on individual words means that learners are unlikely to develop an understanding of the structure of language and text-making. For example, in a grade 1 Sepedi HL lesson, the teacher focused on individual speech sounds to build words, even though it was clear that the learners knew these words and could use them correctly and appropriately.

When it comes to the development of writing, it is clear that in all the lessons observed, the amount of writing was minimal and once again, the focus was mostly on discrete, individual words. Though it was obvious from the Sepedi intervention lessons that learners are able to independently produce meaningful and correct sentences, they are not given opportunities to deploy their sentence-level competence and to develop it further. Some of the learners were even able to construct logically-connected paragraphs in Sepedi in grade 3, but the regular teachers seem to be unaware of this and persist in giving students writing tasks that are boring and repetitive.

Another key finding from the regular lessons was the reality that teachers lacked essential training and knowledge on how to appropriately use mediation strategies during teaching to enable learners to make explicit connections between their already existing knowledge frameworks and new knowledge.

6.2.2 Findings related to intervention lessons

It is clear from the analysis of the transcripts of the intervention lessons, that translanguaging occurred and was used effectively as a pedagogic tool in these lessons. As was shown in an intervention EFAL lesson, even though the teacher was not Sepedi-speaking, she was able to engage learners in meaning-making by allowing and encouraging them to use their own language to make sense of unfamiliar talk and texts in English. The EFAL intervention lessons demonstrated that the teacher could persist in using English throughout a lesson (thus providing input in the target language) while learners, who at this stage are unable to produce their own sentences in English, could be permitted to use their language to understand content in English. In the case of the intervention lessons, there were examples of peer interpretation initiated by the teacher, which encouraged learners to translate difficult tasks and instructions for their fellow learners. Such strategies also build up the confidence of learners in their ability to mediate the learning of their classmates in a helpful way.

Murphy (2011) argues that translanguaging gives children the freedom to use their languages in a facilitative and productive way to engage with tasks that might seem difficult initially. When a teacher introduces a task in English, and learners are encouraged to make sense of the task using their mother tongue, they are enabled

to participate actively in meaning-making. When learners are allowed to talk to each other in their own language even in an EFAL lesson, they are encouraged to share their understandings with each other and learn from each other. Peer interaction enables learners to develop their ability to think and discuss. The translanguaging that occurred during the intervention lesson was productive and the learners' participation was greater than in the regular lessons.

6.3 Limitations of the study

Before discussing the implications of the study, it would be important to briefly discuss the limitations of the study.

The first limitation is the small sample used for the data collection. Only one school was finally able to participate in the investigation and even in this one research site, only a few students and teachers were involved. As this is a qualitative case study, the small sample is not necessarily an issue as the aim is not to generalise the findings but to provide an in-depth understanding of the issues of teaching and learning in this site. Even so, if it had been possible to include a few more sites from the same township, a more general picture of the kind of teaching and learning occurring in these schools may have emerged.

A second shortcoming could be the small number of intervention lessons that were taught and analysed. Given the fact that it was only in the intervention EFAL lessons that instances of translanguaging occurred, it would have added more substance and depth to the analysis if more such lessons had been taught and analysed. This could have yielded more instances of translanguaging, which could have been more varied. The interactions with the regular teachers on the intervention lessons was superficial and fleeting and did not result in deep reflection on how translanguaging could be used to enhance learning. It is therefore difficult to assess if teachers actually took up any of the insights they might have gained from the discussions on the intervention lessons.

Finally, it would have been interesting to observe whether and how teachers from grade 4 onwards (where the medium of instruction is English) use translanguaging to deal with the teaching of academic concepts which occur in the many school subjects that students learn from grade 4 onwards. It is very likely that in the higher

grades, the learners' competence in English would have made it inevitable for teachers to resort to translanguaging practices to help students make meaning of unfamiliar academic terms and processes. However, for all the practical and logistical reasons discussed earlier, this was not possible.

6.4 Implications of the findings

This section deals with the implications of the findings of this research. One of the serious implications of this study is that the use of the home language in teaching and learning does not guarantee quality education. Given that learners come to school with a reasonable oral fluency in their own language, Sepedi, it is unfortunate that teachers do not seem to build on this competence by setting learners tasks that would promote thinking and conceptual understanding. The focus on the everyday knowledge of the learners is disabling and prevents learners from developing the potential they have for more challenging work.

The amount of writing done in the lessons (both Sepedi HL and EFAL) is minimal and mostly restricted to isolated words (as in the spelling tests or getting learners to write individual words on the board). The absence of extended writing, in the form of sentences or paragraphs, deprives learners of the opportunities to engage with the meaning-making processes involved in the production of texts.

As seen from the intervention data, translanguaging can be a resourceful tool for meaningful learning in helping the learners grasp concepts in their second language. The research shows that opportunities for learning are maximized when learners draw from their stronger language (mother tongue) to make sense of abstract and challenging tasks set in English. This in turn, allows the child to expand, extend and intensify what he/she has learned through one language in school through discussion with the parents or siblings at home in their own language (Baker 2011).

The main implication of the findings of this study is that learners are being deprived of a very powerful resource, namely their knowledge of and fluency in their mother tongue, to develop their cognitive abilities and conceptual understanding. According to Cummins (2007), as cited in Chapter 2, language and literacy development are underpinned by a Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP), which asserts the idea that the development of two or more languages in a learner's repertoire occurs in a

mutually supportive way. Language proficiency does not develop independently for each of the languages. Skills and practices acquired in one language transfer readily to another language, provided they are deep aspects (such as the structure of a paragraph or book, thinking and reasoning practices) and not surface aspects (such as pronunciation).

However, as was shown in the data, the teachers in the regular lessons, focused predominantly on precisely the surface aspects of language such as phonics and spelling and not on activities that involved reasoning or logic. Teachers therefore seem to be operating with a monolingual view of language development, even though they are teaching two languages. It must be recalled that in the Foundation phase the same teacher deals with all the learning areas.

It is also important to comment on the implication of the finding that most of the work done by the learners involved their everyday knowledge and lower-order thinking. Because most of the activities were of a low cognitive challenge and did not require higher-order thinking from the learners even in their mother tongue, the learners do not seem to be developing thinking and problem-solving skills, which could transfer to their learning of English. The absence of any translanguaging in the EFAL regular lessons shows that the teachers are not introducing their learners to concepts and activities that require mediation through the use of the mother tongue.

6.5 Recommendations

In this final section of the report, some the recommendations arising from this research will be spelt out. The recommendations relate both to the kind of future research that needs to be done and on the development of teachers to enable them to recognise and use translanguaging as a tool for learning.

6.5.1 Research

As shown in Chapter 2, which reviews the scholarly literature on translanguaging, it is still not very clear what exactly translanguaging is and how it is related to concepts such as code-switching. If translanguaging is to be seen as a useful pedagogic strategy for learning both language and content, as shown in this study, then more classroom-centred research needs to be undertaken to identify instances of its occurrence. It would be especially important to examine if translanguaging is used as

a tool for mediating difficult concepts by both teachers and learners especially in the higher grades where students learn disciplinary concepts in English.

6.5.2 Professional development

It is clear from this study that teachers are working in isolation of each other and generally do not receive much support from the provincial Department of Basic Education. In the interviews the teachers said that they do not engage with local educational officials. Apart from a few workshops that the teachers attended when CAPS was first introduced, there has been no follow-up and the teachers are unsure if they are complying with CAPS fully. Most of the training they have received has focussed on the administrative aspects of CAPS and not on the pedagogic aspects. The teacher manuals are highly scripted and teachers are expected to comply with the schedule of curriculum topics to be covered, and the sequence and pace at which it is to be covered. As a result, teachers are unsure if they are allowed to experiment with strategies such as translanguaging.

While the Department of Basic Education supports multilingualism and the Language in Education Policy (1997) is meant to encourage the use of the learners' own languages in learning, in actual practice teachers interpret this to mean the separate learning of different languages. Hornberger & Link (2012: 262) cite Baker (2001; 2003) and Williams (1994) in defining translanguaging as referring to "the purposeful pedagogical alternation of languages in spoken and written receptive and productive modes." Relating the concept to translanguaging to the continua of biliteracy (Hornberger 1989) Hornberger and Link assert that multilingual learners "develop biliteracy along reciprocally intersecting first language-second language, receptive-productive, and oral-written language skills continua." However, teachers generally do not interpret multilingualism and biliteracy in this positive way.

In terms of the professional development of teachers, therefore, it is important to challenge their thinking, not by offering alternative theories, but by demonstrating through example, what translanguaging looks like in practice. A recommendation arising from this is that teacher trainers and researchers of bilingual education need to do at least the following:

- Enable teachers to interpret the CAPS curriculum in ways that go beyond the rigid and highly-scripted lesson plans in the teacher manuals. This would mean helping teachers to identify the resources that learners bring, namely, their oral fluency in their own language, to build both mother tongue literacy and competence in English.
- Teach lessons to Foundation phase learners, with the regular teachers as observers and critics, so that the trainers and researchers can show how their theories get operationalised in practice. This role reversal (researchers becoming teachers, and teachers becoming observers) would enable teachers to assess for themselves what would work in their own classrooms.
- Enable teachers to work together by setting up support groups and thus ending the isolation that teachers often experience. Teachers working together can evolve solutions to the common problems they face by sharing resources and insights. University researchers could facilitate such discussions.
- Enable teachers to develop biliteracy by encouraging their learners to use their languages in meaning-making activities that go beyond the practice of focussing on single sounds and words (such as in dictation tests).

This study has shown that teachers are not aware of the strategy of translanguaging, a resource pervasively used by bi- and multilingual people in their everyday lives. If this natural sociolinguistic practice could be used as a pedagogic strategy, as shown in a few episodes from the intervention lessons, learning could be facilitated and enhanced. To be able to deploy translanguaging effectively and productively, teachers need the kinds of support spelt out in this chapter. More sustained interaction between researchers and teachers could lead to the kinds of thinking that promote innovation and the desire to experiment with new ways of using the resources that learners bring to school.

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1 Semi-structured Teacher Interview Schedule

- 1.1 What is your mother tongue / home language? *(Do they differ in your case? How competent are you in reading, speaking and writing your mother tongue / home language?)*
- 1.2 Which languages are you proficient in? *(Note how well you can read, write and speak each of them.)*
- 1.3 Which formal teacher training qualification/s have you obtained? *(And any other qualification/s?)*
- 1.4 How long have you been teaching? *(Differentiate in terms of language and other subjects, grade levels taught at, and durations at your present and previous school/s.)*
- 1.5 What is the language profile of learners and parents in your school's feeding area? *(Which home and additional language/s are learners exposed to, and how much: (a) at home, and (b) in their broader environment? Who do they live with? Socio-economic status level? Parent involvement?)*
- 1.6 What do you think should a literate child be able to do?
- 1.7 What is the best way to teach literacy?
- 1.8 In which literacy and language teaching techniques have you been taught? *(Wait for a first response before exploring the next: What formal grammar, phonics, linguistics, whole-language, communicative or other "theoretical" elements of language didactics and pedagogy have you been trained in? Which do you use still, and how?)*
- 1.9 Do you think learners read and write better in Sepedi (or other home languages) than they do in English? *(Explore reasons and explanations for the answer.)*
- 1.10 What can teachers do to improve literacy and language teaching in South Africa? *(If it was seen as in crisis, what would be their strategy to address that?)*
- 1.11 Do you have a library? *(Is it for the whole school, or a classroom library? If there isn't any, what would you at least want to have? How would you use it for the learners?)*
- 1.12 How do open-ended questions such as 'What did you like about this story?' work with children?
- 1.13 Does CAPS allow you to use the mother tongue in an English language class? *(How do you feel about CAPS in relation to teaching in an English language class?)*
- 1.14 What does CAPS allow you to teach, and what not?
- 1.15 What is (are) your school's Language(s) of Learning and Teaching (LOLT) in actual practice? *(Does it differ from the school's official Medium of Instruction (MoI)?)*
- 1.16 Do you know if your school has an explicit Language in Education Policy (LiEP)? *(Have you seen it? Where? Are you able to show us a copy?)*

Appendix 1

- 1.17 When are children required to move from one language to a different LOLT? (*What is the effect of that? Do you consider it to be too soon, too late, or just right?*)
- 1.18 Are teachers aware of the use of two languages (translanguaging) in one lesson?

Appendix 2

Learner-consent form

Hello, we are researchers. We would like to make recordings of your language lessons for a research project we are currently doing. We hope to learn more about how teachers teach language and literacy in the foundation phase. This research will help inform many other teachers about how they can best teach learners to read and write well in both mother tongue Sepedi and English.

We have already sought written consent from your teacher and parents/guardians and caretakers, and reassure you that we shall never show the video to anyone who is not in our team. Furthermore, we will safeguard the research videos and files in our offices.

Copies of video and audio recordings will be made available to your School. The summary of the research findings will also be provided to your teacher and principal in due time.

Attach your name and sign underneath to confirm.

Thanks for your consideration

Iagree to be included in the recordings to be done in my classroom.

Nna ke a dumela go tšwelela kgatišong ya diswantšho, yeo e tlogo diriwa ka phaphošing yeo ke lego go yona.

*Further consent was sought from parents before the learner was provided the opportunity to sign this consent forms .

Appendix 3

Teacher- consent form

We have selected your school for a research project we are currently undertaking. We write this letter to seek your consent to include you and your learners in our research project which is going to include audio and video recording of lessons in your classroom.

We are researchers from University of Limpopo, undertaking the research aimed at learning more about how teachers teach language and literacy in the foundation phase.

We guarantee that the recordings will be kept confidential, and secured at all times. The copies of all recordings will be made available to the School. The summary of the research findings will also be provided to principal and teachers in due time.

The research will thereupon inform many other teachers about how best they can teach learners to read and write well in both mother tongue, Sepedi and English.

Kindly sign underneath to certify your confirmation.

Thank you.

Your name: _____ Grade you are teaching: _____

Signature

Date signed

[Type text]

Appendix 3

Parents/Guardian/Caretaker

We have selected your child's school for a research project we are undertaking. We write this letter to seek your consent to include your child in our research project, which is going to include audio and video recording of lessons in the classroom in which your child is in.

We are student-researchers from University of Limpopo, undertaking the research aimed at learning more about how teachers teach language and literacy in the foundation phase.

We guarantee that the recordings will be kept confidential, and secured at all times. Copies of all recordings will be made available to the School. The summary of the research findings will also be provided to principal and teachers.

The research will thereupon inform many other teachers about how best they can teach learners to read and write well in both mother tongue and Sepedi.

Thank you.

Your child's name _____ Grade _____

Kindly sign underneath to certify your confirmation.

Signature

Date signed

Thobela.

Re le ngwalela go kgopela tumelelo ya motswadi go dira dikgatišo tša mafelo a boithutelo, ka mphatong wa ngwana wa gago. Ka go realo, re kgopela tumelelo go akaretša ngwana wa gago mo dikgatišong.

Rena re baithuti Yunibesithing Ya Limpopo. Mo nyakišikišišong ye re duma go ithuta ka mokgwa wo barutiši ba rutago bana polelo, go bala le go ngwala mephathong ya fasana.

Re itlamma go kgonthiša maikarebelo mo dikgatišong.

Nyakišišo ye e tlile go ruta le go bontšha barutiši ba bangwe mekgwanakgwana yeo ba ka rutago bana polelo, go bala le mongwalo. Gape re tla kgona go laetša barutiši ba bangwe mekgwa ya go šomana le ditšhitišo tšeo ba tlhakanogo le tšona thutong.

Saena mo fase go thekga projeke ye.

Saena: _____ Tšatšikgwedi _____

Appendix 5



Appendix 6

Classroom observation – Verbatim transcription of video footage: from 11:45 in video 00002 (17 min); up to 27:24 in video 00003 (27½ (or 29) min)

EFAL (Limpopo, 5 Mar 2013) – “The Library” (individual learner reading from books; teacher writing questions on the chalkboard; learners write answers to these in their books; class ends with teacher giving some learners feedback)

Spoken words: verbatim transcription <i>[Indication of time lapse every two minutes]</i>	Activity / action; non-verbal behaviour <i>(also sometimes in merged columns)</i>
1. After explaining what and where the library is, the innovation lesson starts (based on p.36 of learners' books) on the topic of the library.	
2. Teacher: “So, if you li ... want to read, if you want to learn how to read, if you want to like how to read books, then you must go the library to ... and borrow books. OK?”	Teacher is expressive with hands and leans on the table towards learners. Learners listening quietly.
3. T: “So today, we are going to read ... about ... a library. OK? So please open your books to Page 36. (... unclear ...)... Here. ... Here ... Page 36.”	Teacher collects book from desk whilst talking. Learners paging through books. Teacher helps some learners opening their books.
4. T: “Have you found it, everyone?”	Teacher circulates through class
5. Learners: “Yes ... Yes ... Yes ... Yes.”	Continued into teacher’s subsequent words.
6. T: “Page 36. ... Page 36. ... 36 ... Has he got 36? Just look. ... Help him. Help him to find 36. ... Help him. Help him. All of you are there on Page 36? OK. Good!”	Teacher points to learner. Some learners are still paging.
7. T: “I want to see if there’s anybody who can read this. OK? Who can try to read this?”	Teacher holds up and points to the place in her own book.
8. T: “... ... One person. Put up your hand if you can read it. I just want you to try to read it. Who can read that? ... Just this line.”	Teacher points to the place in her own book. One learner raises hand (learners seem shy and unresponsive)
9. T: “David? Come here. Stand here, and just read it aloud ... for them. Everybody, listen!”	Teacher points to position in from of the class for the learner to stand. Learner stands with his book in his hands. Teacher raises hand to get classes attention.
10. L: “...” (Inaudible)	

Appendix 6

156. T: "That is the name of the story. OK?"	
157. Ls: "Yes."	
158. T: "That is the name of the story. ..."	Teacher looks at book in her hands.
159. T: "OK, children, I want you to just answer one more question. You must write the answer in your book. I know you are tired, OK. The answer ... the question is: 'At what time did the children go home?'"	One: teacher raises index finger. Write: teacher waves hand to book on desk. Teacher closes the book when asking the question.
160. T: "At what time did the children go home? ... Just write the answer for that question. ... Do you understand the question?"	
161. Ls: "Yes."	
162. T: "At what time did the children go home? ... Read ... read this ... read the story to find out what time they went home."	Teacher circulates between learners. Read: teacher taps on a learner's book.
163. T: "... at what time they went home. ... At what time did the children go home?"	Teacher moves to a learner and pages through their book, finds page and asks question again. Then teacher allows ample time while writing on the chalkboard: 'At what time did the children go home'.
164. T: "OK. Don't write the question. ... At what time did the children go home – question mark. ... I just want you to write the answer: 'At ...' ...and then write the answer. OK? Just write: 'At ...' ... and write the time when they went home."	Teacher points to the question on the board. Teacher points out and draws a question mark.
165. T: "You're finished? OK. ... Allright! ... Good! ... Very good! ... Did you write?"	Teacher circulates and checks learners' books. Good: teacher pats learner on the back to congratulate him/her for getting it correct... and then another learner.
166. T: "Yes! That's very good! It's very good! ... Did you write? ... Did you write? ... Not yet? ... OK. ... Did you write? At what time did they go home? Write the answer to that question. ..."	Teacher leans over learners to see their work.
167. T: "Can you ... can you tell the class where they can find the answer ... from the book?" [28 min]	Teacher selects one girl, but gives more time to think.
168. T: "You can find the answer around there. ..."	Teacher points to the place in her book.
169. T: "Very good! ... Good! ... Good! ... Did you write? ... No. ... Right! ... Be	Teacher leaves the selected learner as she continues to circulate between the learners.

Appendix 6

careful of the spelling. What is the spelling? Copy it correctly, children, from the book. The correct spelling. Did you write? No?"	
170. T: "Don't write the question. Just write the answer: 'At ...' ... and then write the time."	
171. L: "... unclear – in Sepedi? ..." [Ask MMM]	Learner who is still standing just begins talking to the class.
172. T: "What did you tell them?"	
173. L: "I say ... I tell them the answer will be in the last two lines." (unclear)	Learner returns to seat.
174. T: "OK. Great! She said you can find the answer in the last two lines of the story. OK. That's where you'll find the answer."	[29 min 10 sec] Teacher nods.

Sepedi	English	Actions / non-verbal
<p>1 Teacher:</p> <p>a. “Danki, ... ok, ... eh ra bona gore na motho ga a le gaabo o dira jang , a kere?</p> <p>b. ... o fa pego ka, ka seo sa se mo kgatlang go, goba seo a nyakang gore botša ka sona.</p> <p>c. So mamotlha re tlo lebelela kanegelo yee lego yona ka mo bukeng, A re yeng,</p> <p>d. Eh.....a re baleng tlakala la ... page 64.</p> <p>e. Ka geke setše rare mamotlha re tlo ithuta go anega le go ngwalolla kanegelo e e leng gore a kabe e badilwe.</p> <p>f. OK ... eh, re fithile ka moka mo peiging, a kere?”</p>	<p>Teacher:</p> <p>“Thanks, ... ok, ... eh. We see what a person does when at home; she is informing us, is that so? ... about what interests her, or whatever she would like to tell us about.</p> <p>So today we will look at the story that is in our book. Let us go, Eh ... Let us read in ... page 64</p> <p>Like I already said that today we are going to deal with story telling and re-writing the story that has maybe been read,</p> <p>OK, ... eh, have we all arrived at the page, is that so?”</p>	<p>The teacher and a learner stand in front of the class. Ls clap hands. She returns to her desk. T indicates the book/page. Ls page through their books. T writes “64” on the board, and circles it. Ls leaf through their books.</p>
2 Learners: “Eng.”	Ls: “Yes. ”	
3 Teacher: “Ke mang yena a ka re balelang temana ya mathomo, ... ja, ... o tla thoma ka temana ya mathomo, a re theeletšeng.”	T: “Who can read for us the first paragraph, ... yes, ... you will start with the first paragraph, Let us listen.”	One L puts up her hand. T asks her to read.
<p>4 Ls:</p> <p>a. “Ke..., ke ... ka fao ke ithutileng go, go bopa, go bopa dipitša tše di botše. ...</p> <p>b. Kgalekgale, mola ke be ke sa le yo monnyane bjalo ke ... k.ka wena ...</p> <p>c. Ke be ke dula le mme le tate mo polaseng.</p> <p>d. Re be re na le dikgomo le dinku tše dintši.</p> <p>e. Fela re be re dula kgole le bagwera barena.</p> <p>f. Go be go sa ... G..Go be go se na le yo nka bapalago le yena.</p> <p>g. Ke be ke fela ke bogela mme ge a bopa dinkgo.”</p>	<p>Ls:</p> <p>”That... , that ... that is how I taught myself to, to build, to build beautiful pots. ...</p> <p>Long long ago, when I was small ... like you, ...</p> <p>I was staying with mother and father at a farm.</p> <p>We had lots of cows and sheep. But we were staying far from our friends.</p> <p>There was ... There was no-one to play with.</p> <p>I used to watch my mother making calabashes.”</p>	She stands up, picks up her book, holds it neatly and reads rather fluently.
5 T: “OK, Danki, eh ... o badile tema ya mathomo a kere? Ke mang ya ka re ballang ya bobedi?”	T: “OK, Thanks, eh, ... did you read the first paragraph, is that so? Who will read for us the second paragraph?”	
6 L:	L:	Another L is asked to read.

Appendix 7

Sepedi	English	Actions / non-verbal
<p>a. "O be a..., a tswaka letsopa le a bego a le kga ka nokeng.</p> <p>b. O be a bopa dinkgo ka diatla tša gagwe, ... gomme a di ... emiša, emiše mo letšatšing ... gore di ome."</p> <p>c. Letšatši le lengwe a dira gore ke ipopele nkgo ya ka.</p> <p>d. Ke ile ka bopa nkgo. Ka ke lekoko.. gomme ka e dikološa ga ntšinyana.</p> <p>e. Ke be ke thabile kudu go ipopela nkgo ya ka.</p> <p>f. Ka morago ke ile ka e emiša letšatšing gore e ome.</p>	<p>"She used to ... to mix the mud which she used to fetch at the river.</p> <p>She used to build calabashes with her own hands, ... and then ... dry them, dry them ... at (in) the sun."</p> <p>One day she made me to build my own calabash.</p> <p>I did build a calabash. As I was..(word not known) therefore I spinned it a number of times.</p> <p>I was very happy to build my own calabash.</p> <p>After that I had to leave it in the sun to dry.</p>	<p>The book is left flat on the desk. L guides her reading with her finger.</p>
<p>7T: "Danki, mm ... ke mang ya ka re ballang temana ya boraro?"</p>	<p>T: "Thanks ... mm ... who can read for us the third paragraph?"</p>	
<p>8L:</p> <p>a. "Bjona bošigo bjoo ge ke sa robotse, pula ya thoma go na</p> <p>b. Ge, geke tsoga ka se bone nkgo yaka.</p> <p>c. E be e fetogile leraga.</p> <p>d. Seo fela ke bego ke kgona go ... go se bona e be e le mohlala wa leraga le lehubedu.</p> <p>e. O...o..le labile tšhingwaneng.</p> <p>f. Ka nyama kudu.Ke ile ka swanela go bopa ye nngwe.</p> <p>g. Kei le ka ithuta ka go bopa gape le gape.</p> <p>h. Ke ka yona nako yeo ke ithutileng go bopa dinkgo tše dibotse kudu."</p>	<p>L:</p> <p>"The same night when I was still sleeping, the rain started falling.</p> <p>As I was waking up I could not find my calabash.</p> <p>It was turned into mud.</p> <p>What I could see was the trace of the red mud.</p> <p>It .. it spread to the garden.</p> <p>I was very disappointed. I then had to build another one.</p> <p>I was then supposed to make the other calabash again and again. It was by that time that I taught myself to make very beautiful calabashes."</p>	<p>Two learners raise their hands. T asks one of them to read on.</p>
<p>9T:</p> <p>a. "OK, eh ... re kwele kanegelo yarena, akere?</p> <p>b. Ke mang ya ka re botsang gore kanegelo e e bolela ka eng?</p> <p>c. E bolela ka eng kanegelo e?</p>	<p>T:</p> <p>"OK, eh ..., we heard our story, is that so?</p> <p>Who can tell us what our story is all about?</p> <p>What is the story all about? It is about Makgolo and (unclear), ..."</p>	<p>More learners raise their hands.</p> <p>The teacher cleans space onthe board.</p>

Appendix 7

Sepedi	English	Actions / non-verbal
d. E bolela ka makgolo le (unclear), ..."		
9.1 L: "E bolela ka ..."	L: "It is about ..."	One learner answers
9.2 T: "E bolela ka makgolo, a kere? A re makgolo o dirang mo kanegelong mo? Ke mang o mong ya ka re botšang, makgolo o dirang?"	T: "It is about Makgolo, is that so? What is Makgolo doing in this story? Who is the other one who can tell us, What is Makgolo doing?"	Teacher cleans space and writes "Makgolo" on the board.
10L: "O bopa dinkgo."	L: "She was building the calabashes."	Learner stands.

107T: a. "O e emiša letšatšing gore e ome. b. Ke mang a ka re ngwalelang ... ei c. A ... re go ... fetša. d. Ke mang a ka re ngwalelang a e emiša letšatšing? e. A e emiša letšatšing, bjatše ka morago šifa ene o e emiša letšatšing, a kere? . f. Eh, go raya gore o e emiša gore e dirang?"	T: "She leaves it in the sun so that it can dry up. Who can write it for us? ... ei ... When ... finishing. Who can write it for us she did leave it in the sun?" She leaves it in the sun, now thereafter here she is she leaves it in the sun, is that so? Eh, What does it mean she leaves it in the sun to do what?"	The learner writes on the board: "Ai emiša letšatšing"
108Ls: "E ome."	Ls: "It should get dry."	
109T: a. "Ehbjale re tšile go tšweletsa polelo ya rena pele, bjale re tšile gore e dirang?" b. Ke mang ya ka feleletsang jwalo. c. Tla le feleletseng jwalo. d. A sile wa tla. e. Tla o feleletseng lefoko leo. f. Ei, ... šu ena o re. g. Eh ... lea a mmona ena Makgolo šu ena o bogela mmagwe a bopa letsopa. h. Ei, ... ka morago ga fao o ile a thoma go, eh o ile a ipopela nkgo ya gagwe, ... a re go fetša ... a ... a ... e ... emiša letšatšing gore e ome, akere?"	T: "Eh..now we are going to continue with our discussion, now what are we going to say? Who will be able to complete that way? Come and complete it now. There she is coming. Come and complete the word Ei, ... here she is saying. Eh .. do you see her Makgolo here she is she is watching her mum building mud. Ei, ... after that she started to, eh .. she build her own calabash; when she finished he .. she left it in the sun to dry. Is that so? Can you see? ... (unclear) ei, how far is out story?"	T writes "eome" on the board. Ls raise their hands. The learner writes on the board: "A re go fetša re emiša letsatsing gore" The teacher shows in the book Teacher pauses and looks at the book

Appendix 7

<p>i. Le a bona ... (unclear) ei, kanegelo ya rena e tla mo kae?</p> <p>j. OK after almost that go diragetseng ka morago ga fao?</p> <p>k. OK a re baleng temana ya boraro.</p>	<p>OK after almost that what happened thereafter?</p> <p>OK let us read paragraph three."</p>	
<p>110Ls:</p> <p>a. "Bjona bošigo bjoo, ge ke sa robetse pula ya thoma go na.</p> <p>b. Ge ke tsoga ka se bone nkgo yaka</p> <p>c. E be e fetogile leraga</p> <p>d. Seo fela ke bego ke khona go se bona e be e le mohlala wa leraga le lehubidu.</p> <p>e. O lebi..o labile tšhingwaneng</p> <p>f. Ka nyama kudu</p> <p>g. Ke ile ka...</p>	<p>Ls:</p> <p>"The same night when I was still sleeping, the rain started falling When I woke up I did not see my calabash It changed into mud What I could only see was the trace of the red mud</p> <p>It was lead..It was leading to the garden I was deeply disappointed I did...</p>	
<p>111T: "OK, a re emeng mo, a re emeng gona mo."</p>	<p>T: "OK,let us stop here, let us stop here."</p>	
<p>112Ls: "Ka ..."</p>	<p>Ls:"on ..."</p>	
<p>113T: "OK, mo temaneng ya boraro go diregang mo?"</p>	<p>T: "OK, at paragraph three, what happened?"</p>	

Appendix 8

LP Sepedi Video 3 Gr 1 00003 8min: Topic: “The sound “... e..ng ...” (“What?) (a few learners have to read from board/book cover)

Sepedi	English	Actions / non-verbal
<p>1 Teacher:</p> <p>a. “e .. ng, e .. ng. He e, re theeditše naa? e .. ng</p> <p>b. Namille wa kwala jwale.</p> <p>c. A kere ke go boditse na gore ke eng.</p> <p>d. Ke e- le -ng. Ya baya, A reyeng ra kwalang.</p> <p>e. Bala gape Madimetša, Madimetša bala kudu ba go theeditše ngwanaka. Bala.”</p>	<p>Teacher:</p> <p>“e .. ng, e .. ng. No no, are we listening? What</p> <p>As such we are writing now. I did tell you what it is. It is e- and -ng. It becomes. Let us write.</p> <p>Read again Madimetša, Madimetša read hard they are listening to you my child. Read</p>	<p>Teacher points at the chalkboard where “eng” is written. She goes to front learner and points to “Na lapa ke eng?” on an A3-sized book).</p>
<p>2 Learner: “Na ... la ... pa ... ka”</p>	<p>L: “What ... is ... fa ... mi”</p>	<p>The learner reads from the book cover.</p>
<p>3 Teacher:</p> <p>a. “He e, modumo o ke eng?</p> <p>b. Gape o athame, o athamela gona mo, ke ya go athamiša yona e?</p> <p>c. Ga se ya go athamiša, bjale bona mo, ska tšoga neh, batho bale ga ba tlo re bolaya, ba tlo no go kwa wena, wena mmeme a go ruta ka moo gore o a kwa naa?</p> <p>d. O kwišiša modumo o, hee wena bago raloka wa ba bona, ge o tlo ba botšiša gaba tsebe nto e o tlo ba botšang yona.</p> <p>e. Mošhe, motho yo, wena o dutse le mang mo wena o dutse fatshe. Mašabela dula fatshe.</p> <p>f. A reye, bala gape mo.”</p>	<p>T:</p> <p>“No no what is this sound? Again are open. You are open here. Is it the one for opening? It is not the one for opening. Now look here, Do not be afraid ok, those people will not kill you. They will only listen to you, you when your mam is teaching you to see that you are listening.</p> <p>Do you understand the sound? Hei you, the playful ones, you can see, when you ask them, they do not know what you will tell them.</p> <p>Moše, this person, you with whom are you sitting there, you who is sitting down.</p> <p>Let us go, read again.”</p>	<p>Teacher first addresses the learner; and talks very fast.</p> <p>Teacher then scolds a learner at one of the desks at the back.</p>
<p>4 L: “Na .. la .. pa .. ko ...”</p>	<p>L: “What .. is fa .. mi .. ly .. at ...”</p>	<p>The learner reads as the teacher points to the words.</p>
<p>5 T: “ke”</p>	<p>T: “is”</p>	
<p>6 L: “ke”</p>	<p>L: “is”</p>	<p>The teacher looks at the learner as she (the teacher) says the word each time.</p>
<p>7T: “ke”</p>	<p>T: “is”</p>	
<p>8L: “ke”</p>	<p>L: “is”</p>	

Appendix 8

62Ls: "...(unclear)."	Ls: "...(unclear)."	
63T: "Ke eng?"	T: "What is this?"	T points to next figure
64Ls: "Ngwanenyana."	Ls: "A girl."	
65T: "Ke ngwanenyana ena o."	T: "Is it a girl this one?"	T points to next figure
66Ls: "He e, mošimane."	Ls: "No, a boy."	
67T: "Bjale o ena ke mo eng?"	T: "Now, which gender is this one?"	T points to next figure
68Ls: "Ngwanenyana."	Ls: "Girl."	
69T: "O ho, ke ngwanenyana. Na ge o re ke ngwanenyana o tlo bona la eng?"	T: "Oh. It's a girl. Now if you say it's a girl, what will you see?"	
70Ls: "mangina"	Ls: "earrings"	
71T: "Lena le a tswana ge lele bjale. Hee?"	T: "Do you look alike as you are? Is that so?"	
72Ls: "...(unclear)"	Ls: "...(unclear)"	
73T: "Le a tswana?"	T: "Do you look alike?"	
74Ls: "No."	Ls: "No."	
75T: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. "Namile le na mo, Aga, Mo godimo ... (unclear), le la mathomo, e tswana le ya ka mo. b. Namile mo ke nyaka gore le mpalele, mo ba reng mo? c. A re kwe, ... a re baleng mo, Mabyane, tlogela go raloka. d. E ke eng e? e. O e lebelele gore na e kae, ye e leng bo waete. f. A re yeng." 	T: <p>"You this side, Aha, on top ... (unclear), this first one, is the same as the one here. And then I would like you to read for me, what are they saying here? Let us hear, ... let us read here. Mabyane, stop playing.</p> <p>What is this? Just look at where it is, the white one. Let us go."</p>	T pages into the book and holds it up. She points at some figures again.
76L: " ka .. ka .. ka .."	L: "at .. at .. at .."	
77T: "Ke tlo boa ke tšwelele."	T: "I will come and continue."	

Appendix 9

Classroom observation protocol

The following questions guided the observation of classroom lessons.

1. What was the aim of the lesson?
2. Did the teacher share the aim of the lesson with the learners?
3. Did the teacher seem to have a clear lesson plan?
4. Did the lesson focus on only one kind of activity or were many activities involved?
5. Were the teacher's questions cognitively challenging?
6. Did the questions require the learners to think? Or they
7. What was the level of participation of the learners? Did many students participate or only a few?
8. Were there any instances of translanguaging in the lesson?
9. Was the translanguaging done by the teacher or the learner/s/
10. Did the teacher encourage the use of translanguaging?
11. Did the use of translanguaging change the lesson in any way?
12. Was the use of translanguaging productive?