DOCTORAL THESIS

The use of Translanguaging in assisting educators to teach African languages: A case study of Tshwane South Education District, Pretoria

By

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ABSTRACT

South Africa is a diverse and multicultural country with too many more spoken indigenous languages. It is also one of the fastest developing countries on the African continent. This multilingual nature coupled with migration from neighbouring countries, presents serious challenges for language planners and education authorities, especially the impact on education. This study, therefore, explores the use of Translanguaging and how it has facilitated the teaching of African languages in multilingual classrooms at the Tshwane South Education District in Gauteng Province. The primary objective of the research happened to track the transitioning of dialect or variant development across different grades in these multilingual areas. The secondary aim was to observe and document language practices in these schools to provide a firm base for future language planning efforts in South Africa. The research was conducted in two schools: one primary school and one high school. The focus of the study was on the entry and final standards of the fundamental classes, the middle classes, the exit primary classes (standard 5), and entry classes (standard 6), up until the year of schooling (standard 10).

The data were collected using interviews, questionnaires as well as observation. The data were subjected to thematic analysis to get an in-depth understanding as well as to identify and generate new insights into Translanguaging. Whereas many of the educators speak more than one language, many were not aware of their Translanguaging practices in teaching. The participating educators also affirmed that they have been using Translanguaging without realising it. Educators further indicated that raising awareness about their language practices facilitated their teaching because they felt at ease switching and mixing languages in their teaching. In addition to the positive outcome, some educators alluded to the fact that in some areas they were faced with language barriers. The study therefore recommends that in addition to raising awareness amongst educators, the Department of Education and the Fundza Lushaka Bursary scheme should assess the language repertoires of teachers before commencement of employment. The study further recommends that language policy makers and planners need to be mindful of the impact of multilingualism and migration on the education system.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACE	Advanced Certificate in Education
AIL	African Indigenous Languages
AL	Alien Language
ALH	Acquisition Learning Hypothesis
CAPS	Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements
CLIL	Content Language Integrated Learning
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DBSTs	District-Based Support Teams
DOE	Department of Education
EC	Eastern Cape
FAL	First Additional Language
FET	Further Education and Training
FLA	First Language Acquisition
FP	Foundation Phase
GDE	Gauteng Department of Education
HL	Home Language
HODs	Head of Departments
IIAL	Incremental Introduction African Languages
ILSTs	Institutional-Level Support Teams
IP	Intermediate Phase
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LiEP	Language in Education Policy
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
MBESC	Ministry of Basic Education, Sport, and Culture
MEAC	Ministry of Education, Arts, and Culture
NCS	National Curriculum Statement

OBE	Outcomes-Based Education
PAM	Personnel Administrative Measures
PANSALB	Pan South African Language Board
PGCE	Postgraduate Certificate in Education
PYP	Primary Years Programme
PTC	Post-Teaching Certificate
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SACE	South African Council for Educators
SAL	Second Additional Language
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SLT	Social Learning Theory
SP	Senior Phase
TSED	Tshwane South Education District
UCT	University of Cape Town
UN	United Nations
USA	United States of America
WCED	Western Cape Education Department

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

This is the opening chapter, under the topic: "*The use of translanguaging in assisting teachers to teach African Languages, the study of Tshwane South Education District, Pretoria*". The research explains this as the section that delves into the research of many scholars who have investigated the use of Translanguaging in facilitating teaching and learning at two schools in Tshwane South Education District, Pretoria. It then summarizes the current study, including the background and definition of the term Translanguaging, as it encompasses the entire study. Moreover, the chapter elaborates on the research problem and explains the key questions that this study will address. Furthermore, the chapter delves into the planning and implementation of the in this country (SA), Department of Basic Education (DBE). It then also outlines the study's purpose, goals, and outcomes, as well as demonstrating the study's relevance in the field of knowledge. This is in accordance with the relevant literature & theories, which highlights scholarly perspectives on Translanguaging and its impact.

The study's goal is to determine the effectiveness of Translanguaging techniques combined with pedagogy in the teaching of African languages. Translanguaging is a strategy or approach used by educators (teachers) in bilingual to multilingual classrooms. Academics, scholars, authors, and researchers have long debated the concept of Translanguaging. Several papers have investigated Translanguaging (Omidire and Ayob, 2022; Suresh 2021, Cenoz & Gorter 2017 to name a few), but there is no literature on the role of facilitators or educators in translanguaging as it relates to African languages. The chapter discusses the use of translanguaging in education and how this practice has caused the most controversy while also piquing the public's interest.

1.1 Translanguaging: Background and Definition

Many scholars have previously developed the concept and description of translanguaging, including Nagy, (2018), Wei (2019), Conteh (2018), Williams, (1980), Garcia, (2017, Makalela (2013), Laura & Prinsloo (2016), Mkhize & Makalela (2016), Sefotho & Makalela (2017), and others. Wei (2019) advocates for a comprehensive and precise definition, as well as an argument based on educators' experience with pedagogical issues in the multilingual

classroom. These scholars defined translanguaging in the context of their classroom experience and provided a suppositional definition.

According to Nagy (2018: 42), translanguaging is a relatively new technique for language instruction. Further explained, translanguaging is a linguistic technique in which pupils' variants are lacking awareness of the language they know. Pupils speak this not aware of repertoire for as pedagogy is adhered and up to function. Differs from standard monolingual or bilingual procedures in that it implies a degree of fluidity between language systems as well as between linguistic abilities and competencies (Nagy, 2018).

The term translanguaging has replaced more commonly used terminologies such as code-switching, code-mixing, and tri language. However, these were informal techniques that did not consider the linguistic abilities of the languages in use. Furthermore, the interpretations of translanguaging by other scholars differ. The term translanguaging was coined by Williams, a leading educationalist in the 1980s, giving an explanatory planned and unfamiliar approach of teaching accommodating two languages in one lesson.

This statement was made by a well-known educationist back in the day, and it has been studied throughout history by local and international scholars such as Wei (2011, 2016b, 2017, Makalela (2013, 2015a, 2015b, 2015c), Prinsloo and Krause (2019), all of whom came to the table with knowledge and experience gained in the classroom. None of them considered how this might benefit educators in the educational process.

Baker (2001) defined translanguaging as a language activity in the classroom that includes a deliberate switch between input and output languages. After being converted to a worldwide well-spoken language, as mixing variants unaware, the phrase was changed to plurilingualism (Lewis, Jones, & Baker) (2012: 643). It was then later used, however, to refer to the form and goal of this linguistic activity, as well as the substance of the process itself. It is now frequently used to refer to a linguistic practice known as translanguaging, which includes the deliberate switching between two or more languages in one lesson during pedagogy.

Moreover, Canagarajah (2011: 401) gives a more explanation of the plurilingualism approach as the capacity of monolingual to speakers, speak more than two variants to navigate amid variants of languages while discussing the many tongues in their range as a single cohesive system, rather than a collection of talents. The approach of plurilingualism, would be linguistically in support of a translanguaging approach in a multilingual classroom. The

obvious relationship experience during the data collection. Other definitions include those writings of Garcia, (2009: 140), which explains the different term as the tool that identifies the second language in the classrooms and in general.

Furthermore, it encourages speakers to speak in their native tongues in the classroom and reinforces the second language (Baker, 2001: 288). On the other hand, plurilanguaging the tool in constructing, makes sense to the listener, as well as the speaker, this does not deprive them of having skills during the lesson, and makes them pluralistic.

Translanguaging, according to Garcia and Kleyn (2016), is the use of a speaker's entire linguistic repertoire that does not conform to the boundaries of identified languages as defined by social and political organizations. Thus, the term "translanguaging" refers to the idea that each language has its grammar, as well as the fact that the content of each language differs from the teaching of the other languages. The study of how speakers use their entire language to express meaning through interaction is known as translanguaging. One of the most distinguishing characteristics of translanguaging is the dynamic and functionally integrated use of multiple languages and linguistic variations in the same context.

Translanguaging, in contrast to code-switching, at many times is associated with a monoglossic viewpoint in which speakers of two languages are encouraged and also able to transfer knowledge skills from one language to another, having mindfulness of the linguistics repertoires of that language. Whereas, reinforcing code-switching expresses a heteroglossic viewpoint in which language systems are seen to be in flux with no clearly defined boundaries (Nagy, 2018:44). Furthermore, translanguaging is concerned with the functions of translanguaging as well as the languages involved. Different from speaking two tongues, which utilised a preferred approach to more dialects in the classroom, it has its roots in pedagogy and, as a result, is inextricably linked to educational methods from which it differs. It encourages learners to expand their educational repertoires to become bilingual, thereby improving their linguistic ability.

In the education setup, Translanguaging can be seen as a way of allowing many different tongue speakers to demonstrate their understanding of their native during the pedagogical activities in one lecture lesson. The setting up of the classroom may be seen as the community where learning takes place (Wenger, 1998: 2), providing the ideal place for learners, and teachers, alike to put all their language talents and linguistic repertoire to use and flourish.

According to (Williams, 2002), using one language to reinforce another promotes understanding and boosts the pupil's activity in both languages (Lewis, et.al, 2012: 40) cited in Nagy 2019:42). In education, translanguaging is the use of one language to reinforce another, boost knowledge, and raise the pupil's activity in both languages. Translanguaging could thus be regarded as an intervention when learners may experience language barriers. I agree with Krause & Prinsloo (2016: 347), across the nation academics are so overwhelmed with many variants of speakers, speaking different tongues, and educators by that time are becoming more bilingual.

As students see themselves as more racially and linguistically diverse, schools are experiencing a transformation in their social realities. Many educators are perplexed about how to teach students who speak languages that their educators are unfamiliar with. Simultaneously, the country's educational system forbids the use of any other language when educating in another language. This sort of argument demonstrates the need to revise one's perspective of the importance of language in response to the more diverse character of the student population and the increasing usage of students' mother tongue learning.

As a result, the use of home languages has had a significant influence on schools across the country, especially in terms of teaching and learning. Every day, students converse in their mother tongue and with diverse dialects and slang. This demonstrates the massive transformations that occur when people migrate or cross borders, resulting in increasingly linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms Makalela (2017:1). Educators sometimes impede or disregard students' abilities to learn more than one language during the educational process. According to Makalela (2015a, 2015b, or 2015c), learners respond to teaching and learning by expressing themselves in their native languages during the teaching and learning process.

1.2 Effectiveness of Translanguaging in the South African Education System

The curriculum in South Africa encourages educators to teach African languages in their original language repertoire. In the policy that governs and legislated the policy of South Africa, their constituents encourage and applaud people around and across the country to be taught in their mother tongue, as a possible system can assist (RSA, 1996). Following the end of the Apartheid regime, the Constitution was adopted and across the South African educational system, it became unlawful under such a system to teach vernacular languages in schools.

The main question is whether this has been applied in primary school. Is the South African educational system capable of educating learners without the need for a second language? Following the Union of South Africa in 1910, the government instituted an education program intended at entrenching white supremacy in the country's increasing social, economic, and political scene. This strategy included making education essential for white children, developing a more formal curriculum, extending technical education for white adolescents, and implementing industrial and agricultural training programs for white working-class individuals.

The government abandoned the British government's policy of forcing Afrikaans students to study English in favour of implementing a bilingual plan that equalized English and Afrikaans in white education. Racial segregation in education was implemented in the Cape and Natal, while integrated schooling remained the official norm, albeit seldom (Cubberley, 1920). Furthermore, between 1915 and 1920, the new curriculum was adopted in black schools to prepare black pupils for vocations as industrial, agricultural, and domestic workers. White children were prepared for specialized labour in one area, whilst black children were either not educated at all or were instructed to be low-skilled labourers in another (Cubberley, 1920). This continued until the Apartheid era and beyond, resulting in an unequal education system.

Madiba (2012) adds to the ongoing debate and assessment of vernacular variants in the local country (SA). Vernacular variants have been suppressed by so-called English language speakers, preventing educators and students from speaking and writing in their mother tongues. It is critical to recognize equality and diversity, as well as the need to move away from a history in which education, particularly language education, was used to build and reinforce apartheid. This right recognizes the uniqueness and individuality of learners, which can help with the critical goal of unleashing their potential and learner expressions.

1.3 Research Site

1.3.1. Brief background of the site

The research or investigation was conducted in SA, in a famous well-renowned province of Gauteng, in the capital city of Pretoria. As the country’s legislative offices and democratic demarcation, it is regarded as one of the three big cities of the country. It has been known as the capital city of South Africa.

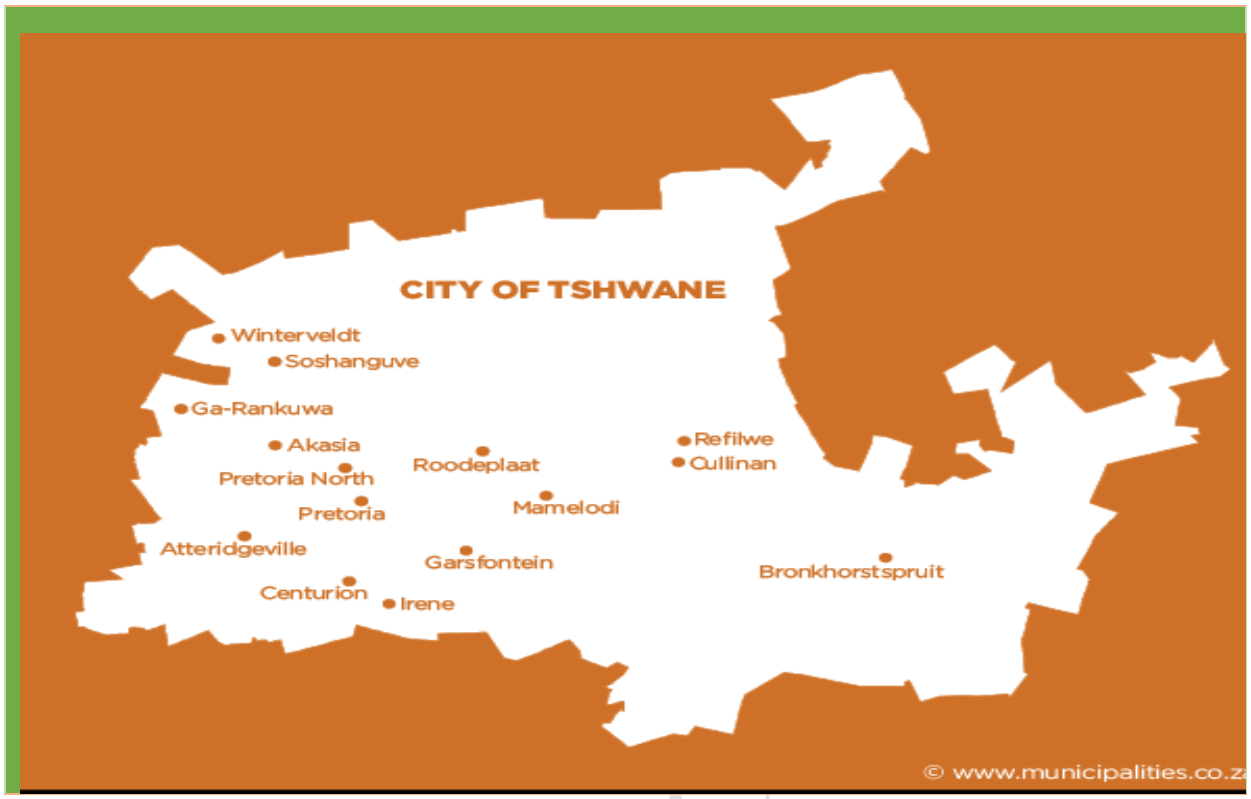
Pretoria houses several municipalities, and the investigation was conducted in one of the municipalities, Tshwane municipality schools. Pretoria is the capital of the Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, which was founded by the merger of numerous former local authorities, including Bronkhorstspruit, Centurion, Cullinan, Hammanskraal, and Soshanguve. The government has advocated altering Pretoria's official name to Tshwane, which has sparked some public debate. Pretoria is named after the Voortrekker commander Andries Pretorius. Pretoria is also known as Jacaranda City because of the hundreds of jacaranda trees that have been planted along its streets and in its parks.

This province is one of South Africa's nine provinces. It has long been renowned as the "City of Gold" due to its geographical characteristics. Everyone in South Africa wants to come and work in this forward-thinking region. It has been positioned as the province that has the most rapidly growing cities, municipalities, and townships. The population is estimated to be around 15 million people. These individuals are fluent in all eleven of the country's official languages. Furthermore, this province is the most diverse, with citizens coming from all over the nation and abroad in quest of suitable and competent career opportunities for their progress.

Even after the end of Apartheid, Pretoria has had a white majority, but a growing black middle class. However, in the townships of Soshanguve and Atteridgeville, black people constitute nearly the whole population. The Afrikaners are the main white ethnic group, while the Northern Sotho is the largest black ethnic group. The lower estimate for Pretoria's population comprises mostly former white-designated districts, implying a white majority. However, combining the physically distinct townships pushes Pretoria's population beyond a million and turns whites into a minority.

Therefore, individuals from all over the world are arriving with their native languages and traditions, which will eventually be shared with the city's population. The research for this current study was carried out in Pretoria, South Africa's capital city. Pretoria's primary languages are Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, and English. Pretoria has the highest proportion of white people in Sub-Saharan Africa. It has been a prominent Afrikaner population centre since its inception, and around 1 million Afrikaners are residing in or near the city. Pretoria is actively seeking and retaining people from a variety of backgrounds. This was the primary motivation for the decision to investigate language practices in the education system in this area. It drew attention to a study that examines how educators would educate multilingual kids if they only knew one African language.

Figure 1.1 City of Tshwane Municipality



This map in Fig. 1.1 (Google images) illustrates the metropole's data collection locations. Data was collected in two towns, namely, Atteridgeville and Centurion (Olivenbosch). The initial data collection site was Atteridgeville where a primary school is located.

The second data collection point was a high school in Centurion. The data collected focuses on the literature, language, and languages that are used in teaching content subjects, as these educators do not only teach languages.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

For the past five years, the researcher has worked as a teacher in Hermanus, Western Cape. Hermanus is also a predominantly Afrikaans speaking area, however, the home languages in the schools include IsiXhosa, Sesotho and many other indigenous African languages. The researcher's experience during that period aroused interest to explore the use of translanguaging in educational settings. Previously, the researcher taught isiXhosa and English in primary school. With time, the researcher did manage to find a diverse variety of experiences, in terms of acquiring the language.

During the lecture, the mother tongue of isiXhosa and pupils were invited to contribute using examples. Students wrote in their mother tongue and translated what was written in English at times. This was notable and these children were practicing vividly translanguaging, although at the time it was not called translanguaging. This implies that translanguaging existed in schools, it was just not termed as such.

The researcher's interest was sparked by an incident when in one class a learner responded to the teacher in Sesotho, and the teacher could not understand the language at all. Moreover, educators are not necessarily as multilingual as the students. This is to say, in most cases experienced educators will be bilingual, or trilingual, whereas learners are multilingual. People as they grow up somehow lose the ability to know or acquire more than one language. How do educators then see the usage of translanguaging lessons conducted, that, and incapacitate, re-imagine mother tongue lessons? Another concern was the assignment of educators to teach one of the African languages. The mandate carried out by the Department of Education focuses on learners regardless of their language repertoire.

Furthermore, these educators are not university-trained language specialists. Educators would educate, and the difficulty would begin when it was time for action, during the lesson in the classroom, pupils start speaking their native tongues, or dialects of the mother tongue to offer examples and responses, and students would interact. However, learners continue to struggle to express themselves in unfamiliar languages which in this case is English. This has posed a significant challenge in educational practice. Some educators, as they qualify to teach, are sometimes not equipped to teach indigenous languages.

According to Madiba (2012), a dearth of literature looking at the rise of the mother tongue in practice in lessons, and learning. Indigenous African languages' potential role in South Africa's educational system has not been adequately explored or acknowledged. As a result, there is still scepticism about the use of foreign languages for academic purposes among parents, educators, students, and the government. This ambivalence is reflected in current national language education policies, school language policies, language curriculum, and language practices in schools.

There have been very few studies in South Africa that have used translanguaging as a pedagogical method (Madiba, 2014; Makalela, 2015a, 2015b, and 2015c). Makalela (2015a, 1025b and 2015c) utilized narratives from a pre-service educators' course to allow students to

articulate their identities and history of contact with their numerous languages in any language they understood.

The research (Makalela 2015) sought to introduce and develop students' understanding of the link between language and society by using fundamental concepts such as dialect, register, idiolect, and sociocultural in the context of undermining African Indigenous Languages (AIL). The researcher in this study discusses the major challenges experienced by educators in teaching African languages in multilingual environments including how educators experience translanguaging and its usefulness in the classroom. This, however, has motivated the researcher to dig further and explore the underlying reason for the problem. Furthermore, the researcher contends that the notion is fundamental in primary school classrooms taught by educators who are unqualified to teach languages. This study investigated the obstacles that educators encountered while teaching learners who come from multilingual backgrounds, such as those in Pretoria. The study provides recommendations for the use of translanguaging in the classroom.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The investigation is driven by the country's rainbow nation, which means that South Africa is home to numerous indigenous people who speak a variety of languages. Nagy (2018) advocates for the usage of the previously coined term code-switching in today's translanguaging which promotes the heteroglossia pedagogical method. Canagarajah (2011) promotes the use of translanguaging, particularly in multilingual classrooms and many educators have benefited from it. The pedagogical framework in SA is similar just before that of the United States of America (USA) and Europe, which serve as a centre for many individuals from all over the world.

The study, therefore, explored several options for reducing the high failure rate among students who are taught by unilingual instructors. Garcia & Kleyn (2016) propose very thorough information outlining the effects of translanguaging; it is not here to eliminate other languages, but rather to support and promote marginalized African languages. According to Makalela (2015a), children are viewed as empty vessels into which you may pour whatever you want. They are taking it a step further and making it their own. This is because children from various language backgrounds are coming together. This is supported by Vygotskian theory and Skinner's Behaviourism in that children acquire language more than adult people. This study

challenges DBE and language policymakers in the country to review the language policy to accommodate language diversity in the country. South Africa has many foreign nationals who come in and work in both the public and commercial sectors. As a result, it limits the language of teaching and learning to English as a common language. It is therefore necessary to explore the use of these other home languages and how they contribute to learning and teaching practices.

1.6 Research Questions

The discussion in the previous section highlighted the role played by English in mediating education in an environment where learners have varying home languages. It is therefore important to understand the role played by the various African languages in this context. The fundamental question is therefore to understand whether educators employ translanguaging to teach African languages as well. This study also aims to explore the challenges that teachers face when teaching African languages in the context of translanguaging. The following subsidiary questions will be explored:

- What methods does a teacher employ while teaching African languages?
- In what ways do teachers use or incorporate the most widely spoken languages in their teaching?
- What is the role of the teachers' home language in facilitating learning in a multilingual classroom?
- To what extent do teachers apply the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) when teaching African languages in a multilingual classroom?

1.7 Study aims

The study investigates the hurdles and problems that educators have when teaching African languages to multilingual students as part of the research. As a result of early exposure, children are intrinsically skilled at acquiring more than one language which is evident from the researcher's experience as an educator at a primary school. The primary goal of this research is to look at the use of translanguaging to teach African languages in multilingual classrooms as first language educators.

Subsidiary aims

- To understand strategies and methods that teachers use to teach African languages in multilingual classrooms.
- To investigate how teachers incorporate the most widely spoken languages in their teaching.
- To highlight the role of teachers' home language in facilitating learning in a multilingual classroom.
- To investigate the extent to which teachers apply the CAPS guidelines in teaching language in multilingual classrooms.

1.8 Methodology of the Study

The data for the study was gathered using a qualitative research approach. According to Creswell (2013), a qualitative research approach is an anthropological, institutionalizing method of bringing the researcher's hidden knowledge to the surface. It is a non-probability approach with predictable and relevant results for the reader. The study further adopted a themed framework which included interviews, observations, and a deliberate snowball sampling. This technique of establishing the validity of the findings required the participation of a researcher in the quality control of the procedure as the researcher previously worked as a teacher.

The investigation of the meaning that individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem starts with assumptions and the application of interpretive/theoretical frameworks. To investigate this issue, qualitative researchers use an evolving qualitative method of inquiry, data collection in a natural context sensitive to the people and places under investigation, and data analysis that is both inductive and deductive in nature, establishing patterns or themes. (Creswell, 2013: 44). In the data collection and analysis process, qualitative research prioritizes language and humanity above quantitative approaches, and the results are conveyed in words, information about feelings, opinions, and attitudes. The premise that social life is the result of social interaction and relationships, and that actions define social reality, is usually associated with qualitative research (Babbie, 2010). Indeed, it typically focuses on events as seen from the perspective of the people involved.

According to Salubi (2017: 71–72), this technique allows the researcher to dive deeper into what may be the participants' hidden issues by gathering qualitative data using qualitative design approaches such as observations, interviews, and focus group discussions. According to Stangor (2011), a qualitative research process focuses on perceiving and describing events as they occur to capture all the richness of daily behaviour. Qualitative research is carried out in the natural setting of the phenomenon under investigation (Ngulube, 2009).

Field notes, audio, or video recordings are used in qualitative research (Stangor, 2011). The data is presented in a narrative format to capture the spirit of the natural surroundings (Ngulube, 2009). The investigation and explanation of social and cultural phenomena using qualitative data such as in-depth interviews, documentation, participant observation, and ethnography are what qualitative research encompasses (Myers, 1997; Ngulube, 2009). The fundamental accepted flaw of this technique is that: in many notable instances, the researcher deviates from the study's basic objectives. This is occasionally seen because of emotional involvement in the process. This may hurt the study's principal goal of constructing the study's setting. Since this is an ethnographic technique, researchers communicate with and agree with participants, distorting the study's results. This complicates attempts to establish causal links between distinct study activities. This would need a greater degree of researcher skill, as well as a lack of consistency and dependability because the researcher can use a range of probing strategies and the respondent might choose to give certain tales while omitting others (Cassell & Symon, 1994).

1.9 Ethnographic Input

The researcher was a primary school teacher for many years and is familiar with the language because he used to teach it at school. By observing the lessons, the researcher would be able to contribute to the data-gathering process. There was a learner who was fluent in the researcher's language and throughout the presentation, this student asked questions for clarification. Due to his vast expertise as a teacher, the researcher assumed command and further clarified the idea to the student. Alternatively, when a teacher required assistance related to the language repertoire, the researcher was able to help.

1.10 Anticipated Contributions of the Study

The brief review of the literature presented in the preceding sections reveals that there is a shortage of research on educators who teach African languages in multilingual classrooms and the strategies they employ. This current research project seeks to fill that void by investigating instructors' experiences teaching multilingual students in a language classroom. The study also investigates teachers' pedagogical challenges in the teaching and learning of African languages. Through interviews, the study hopes to draw teachers' attention to the importance of understanding learners' linguistic background and the importance of incorporating this knowledge when teaching language in multilingual classrooms.

The CAPS (2011:5) document emphasises the importance of "infusing the principles and practises of social and environmental justice and human rights. The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 is sensitive to issues of diversity such as poverty, inequality, race, gender, language, age, disability, and other factors". By drawing teachers' attention to this statement, particularly as it relates to language and valuing indigenous knowledge systems, the study will go a long way towards conscientizing teachers to the critical role learners' different home languages play as part of acknowledging rich South African history and heritage.

1.11 Limitations of the Study

An examination took place in (TSED), Gauteng Province in South Africa ("the region"). The use of translanguaging in assisting educators to teach African languages in multilingual classrooms was the focus of this study. This study was narrowed to two schools in the District, the Atteridgeville and Olivenbosch locations. Although the findings of the study cannot be generalized to the entire country, they can be used as a starting point for a policy review of schools' language policymakers.

The data collection took place during the language teaching time slot in the schools, which meant there was not enough time to observe. Despite this limitation, the researcher was able to find enough participants to participate in the study. The method used in this study was only to generate exploratory and descriptive data, which may be sufficient to explain all of the challenges that are experienced by educators in teaching in multilingual classrooms. Moreover, what might have negatively affected the study was the willingness of participants, since at the

time especially in the Olivenbosch learners were busy with term formative assessments. Thus, experiments may have delayed the researcher to collect sufficient data in the school.

1.12 Ethical Consideration

The researcher is aware of the policy on ethical considerations at the University of Cape Town (UCT, "the University"). The study utilised qualitative data which involved observation, questionnaires, and interviews. Since the collection of data involved human participants, ethical clearance was obtained from the UCT Humanities Ethics Committee. As part of ethical research conduct, permission was sought from the Tshwane Department of Education as well as from the schools where data was collected. In addition, the participants were informed about the aims of the study and what it involves. As part of obtaining informed consent from the parents and teachers, as well as learners, participants were informed about voluntary participation, the right to withdraw from the study at any time. The participants were also assured that they will remain anonymous and no information that may identify them will not be disclosed. This included the names of the schools. Participants signed a confidentiality agreement and were given descriptive names such as Respondent 1, the purpose of this was to assure participants of their confidentiality.

1.13 Thesis Outline

The thesis is divided into six chapters and via those chapters. The study follows the basic structure associated with the research report.

Chapter One: Introduction

Chapter one introduces the topic by highlighting key ideas associated with translanguaging. This chapter serves as a conceptual framework for the study by proving the introduction, identifying key issues of translanguaging, presenting the statement of the problem, the study's aims and objectives, a brief introduction of the methodological element, and an ethical considerations statement.

Chapter Two: Literature Review & Theoretical Perspective

Chapter two presents a review of the literature related to the research questions. This chapter is broken into two sections. The first section is a review of the literature as it relates to translanguaging. This section aims to review the current literature on the topic and also to use

this literature to highlight the gaps in the knowledge base. The second section of this chapter deals with literature that addresses theoretical viewpoints.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Chapter three outlines the methodological approach taken in the data collection process. The chapter also outlines the data analysis procedures. It also gives the map, as to how the data will be collected and why it is collected in the area collected. The collection of data requires some skills to find what seems to be the problem.

Chapter Four: Data Analysis

Chapter four presents the results of the study and the analysis of data. The data was analysed using a thematic data analysis approach tool. It was chosen to find the emanated problem around the concept of translanguaging.

Chapter Five: Discussion of Findings

This chapter provides a discussion of categories and themes that emerged from the findings.

Chapter Six: Conclusion and Recommendations

The concluding chapter provides conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of the study. It provides a summary of the key findings and presents recommendations that emerged from the study, which makes a scholarly contribution to the field of translanguaging.

1.13 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter focused on the introduction, research problem, and implementation of the entire thesis. This chapter provided an outline of the study including the problem statement and primary research questions, purpose of the study, aims of the study, anticipated of the study, and objectives of the study as it is, this highlights the significant milestones that will occur as the study continues and expected contribution of the study to the world of knowledge. In the next chapter, the literature and theoretical viewpoints are explored. The next chapter therefore explores the theoretical perspectives of many scholars on translanguaging, and the alignment the read literature has on the study.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

2.0. Introduction

The previous chapter introduces the study, and layout to what is expected across the thesis. This chapter is divided into two: a literature review and a theoretical perspective. The first section is the literature review and will examine the perspectives of various scholars such as Williams (2002), Wei (2018), Nagy (2018), Makoni & Pennycook, (2007) Vogel & Garcia, Baker (2011), Canagarajah (2011), Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021), Makalela (2014), Motlhaka, Probyn, Prinsloo & Krause (2016) etc., who has studied and written extensively on translanguaging. Furthermore, the researcher identifies gaps that emerged from the review of the literature.

The second section focuses on the theoretical framework that underpins the study. It critically discusses empirical writings found in various literature. It is worth noting that they have done research on the definition and have limited literature on what educators are experiencing. Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021) did, however, produce comparable articles detailing educators' experiences that coincide with the study. This section explores important theoretical perspectives that support and are pertinent to this study, which is Translanguaging by Cen Williams (Nagy, 2018). The Vygotskian theory was invented by Vygotsky, while Behaviourism was invented by Skinner. These theories are pertinent to our study since they both address language acquisition development in children.

2.1. Translanguaging

The notion of translanguaging was created many years ago by Cen Williams, a well-known educational consultant at the time (Nagy, (2018: 42). Nagy emphasizes in his article that Cen Williams transformed the Welsh term ‘trawsieithu’ into the well-known concept of translanguaging. This is a method of teaching in which two or more languages are utilized in the same lesson. Furthermore, this notion was eventually renamed translanguaging from ‘trawsieithu’ in Welsh (Nagy, 2018: 42).

Nagy agrees with the description provided by (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012), stating that translanguaging is utilized in teaching to include linguistic repertoire. Canagarajah (2011: 401), on the other hand, repeated the identical writing of (Lewis et.al 2012: 643). According to Garcia & Baetens (2009: 140) and Baker (2001: 288), the use of translanguaging allows students to grasp the lesson in their native language independent of the educators' repertoires. As a result, the researcher wanted to establish if educators can accommodate multilingual courses by using two languages simultaneously.

Wei (2017) illustrates this approach as a novel technique for teaching in multilingual classrooms in his study. However, the theory has existed and has been utilized or recognized as code-switching, and code-mixing by researchers such as Garcia & Baetens, (2009). This is reflected in the study written by Wei (2017), which is a method of teaching multilingualism, and instead of the previous knowledge of code-switching, code-mixing. Many writers have recognized the idea or model, and it has been active in instructional techniques.

Wei (2017) goes on to say that this is a strategy that goes above and beyond the standard way of teaching multilingualism. However, (Wenger, 1998) makes a significant remark, stating that translanguaging is a heteroglossia technique that accepts all languages during the instruction (Nagy, 2018: 45). These are useful submissions, nevertheless, the major goal of this study is to determine whether educators can accept the heteroglossia approach from students in the classroom.

Translanguaging, according to DeNicolo (2019) is the intentional application of linguistic knowledge to exhibit cross-cultural and social understandings (Garcia, 2010) and facilitate new learning. Language, according to Swain (2006), is the act of employing language to mediate thought. In other words, language is the technique through which cognition occurs, not the reporting of thinking and understanding. 'Language, as the term is used in the study, refers to the act of producing meaning and moulding knowledge and experience using language,' as defined by Swain (2006: 98). Moreover, Garcia & Baetens (2009) broadens this concept of language to include the process of engaging linguistic repertoires to communicate.

Translanguaging is more than only engaging with others in more than one language or moving from one language to another (Garcia & Baetens, 2009), it is also about having access to all resources for language. This viewpoint views bilingualism as the intentional use of languages to produce meaning rather than the formation of conventional forms of language.

Translanguaging is neither a new phenomenon (Anzalda, 1987), nor is it based on an individual's knowledge of many languages, but rather focuses on the capacity to interact with people across languages to establish understanding.

Over the years in Western Europe, it has been observed that in the teaching and learning of the language, the system has neglected the acknowledgment of indigenous languages in favour of promoting the commercial language (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007), As a result of these structuralists' observations, they set out to decolonize such activity and introduce very basic terminology that caters to all languages in the domain. That was the time when the concept of translanguaging emerged especially after much investigation and altering of bilingualism, multilingualism, code-switching, code-mixing, and polylanguaging, among others (Wei, (2017).

Furthermore, Wei (2017), perceives translanguaging as a theoretical lens that provides a distinct perspective on bilingualism and multilingualism. The idea proposes that, rather than having two or more autonomous language systems, as has been previously assumed, bilinguals, multilingual, and all language users choose and employ certain communication settings. This debate is intended to give proof as to how this notion was seeded. This research takes a practical approach. The research aims to comprehend the practical application of theory in a multilingual setting including how it has aided educators in their teaching and learning methods.

The translanguaging technique arose as a means of decolonizing the traditional method of teaching language in multilingual classrooms. It serves as a tool to recognize that there are numerous African languages spoken in each nation throughout the world and that all these languages need to be allowed an opportunity to grow and flourish. According to Vogel & Garcia (2017:2), the notion is defined as an instructional technique that uses learners' fluid languaging to increase their engagement and comprehension of complicated information and texts. Furthermore, translanguaging pedagogy promotes both identified languages that are the subjects of bilingual education exactly because it perceives them as part of a horizontal continuum.

Nagy (2018: 42) expands on what he has previously said and defines translanguaging as a language activity that allows language learners to employ all their linguistic abilities, experience, and competencies acquired in their home language as well as other languages for meaning-creating purposes.

It differs from typical monolingual approaches in that it assumes some fluidity across language systems as well as the language learner's linguistic abilities and competencies. According to Garcia & Kleyn (2016), translanguaging is the use of a speaker's whole linguistic repertoire, which does not conform to the socially and politically imposed bounds of identified languages. The term also translanguaging refers to the concept that each language has its grammar, as well as content that differs from language instruction. Translanguaging, on the other hand, focuses on how speakers engage with their full language arsenal to produce meaning. One of the primary characteristics of translanguaging is the dynamic and functional integration of several languages and linguistic variants.

As opposed to mono-language which is based on a monoglossic view where bilinguals are considered to operate between separate and isolated linguistic systems, translanguaging expresses a heteroglossia point of view that sees language systems in fluidity, lacking rigid boundaries (Nagy, 2018: 44). Moreover, translanguaging also concerns the functions of diglossia. It has taken its root in pedagogy and, as such, it is closely connected to pedagogical practices, unlike code-switching which is used to describe the alternation of languages in all kinds of situational contexts. It promotes the bilingualism of learners' pedagogical repertoires promoting the linguistic skills they have in the language.

When teaching a language, heteroglossia allows for several voices, which intersects with the goals of translanguaging. The practice of translanguaging forces instructors to be more aware of other current spoken languages within the constituency of South African languages. Furthermore, this requires educators to be particularly alert because multiple languages and linguistic abilities exist inside the home. Cenoz & Gorter (2020) make a clear distinction and discusses, that translanguaging is different from code-switching and code-mixing because it is more than just a shift between languages, but this model of the teaching addresses the speaker's construction and use of original and complex interrelated discursive practices.

The use of translanguaging assistance and scaffolding encourages the speaker to be flexible in speaking while addressing the topic (Garcia & Wei 2014: 22). Translanguaging in education takes a heteroglossia approach to teaching, which enables and encourages the use of diverse language practices. The classroom may be viewed as a community of practice (Wenger, 1998: 2), providing the ideal environment for students and instructors alike to utilize and develop all of their language abilities and linguistic repertoire.

According to Williams (2002), as cited by (Lewis et al. 2012: 40), translanguaging in education refers to the use of one language to reinforce the other, boost knowledge, and augment the pupil's activities in both languages. The researcher focuses on the proposition given by (Lewis et al. 2012:40) and agrees to disagree in the argumentative sense that a person is born with a language. The so-called mother tongue is also known as the home language in various educational settings. The requirement to use one's mother tongue in defining translanguaging would be improper. The researcher agrees that this technique should not be feared or misunderstood. It is a straightforward strategy that encourages heteroglossia and should be promoted instead.

On the other hand, Canagarajah (2011) appears to agree with Wei (2017) in that bilingualism and multilingualism allow bilinguals and multilinguals to speak a second language without being admonished or halted. The study does not consider that since it aims to propagate this notion during classroom instruction. Translanguaging is said to have influenced language development and vernacular language expansion. Wei (2017), notes very vividly, and concurs with other scholars on the concept of translanguaging such as Williams, (1994) and Baker, (2001) with a view that the theory of translanguaging is proven and viewed as an effective pedagogical practice in a wide range of schooling contexts where the school language of learning and teaching is not the same as the learners' and educators' native languages. Some colleges will keep that one Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) for decades and believe it is still relevant.

In addition, the researcher agrees with Creese & Blackledge (2010) and Makoni & Pennycook (2007), as they are repeating the same academic and emotional writing on the subject. This idea encourages and is applied in multilingual classroom language acquisition and provides for the innateness of children or speakers, as well as language growth and linguistic repertoires. This has given speakers more confidence and enabled them to speak any language without fear of prejudice. Looking at Wei (2017) & Nagy (2018), the topic is all about how the notion came to be recognized and how it has influenced language teaching and learning.

Wei (2017) provided a highly informative and descriptive data quotation. Translanguaging space is a place generated by and for translanguaging activities, as well as a space where language users engage to break down ideologically laden dichotomies between the macro and the micro, the society, and the individual, and the social and the psychological. A

translanguaging environment allows language users to merge social spaces and, as a result, linguistic codes that were previously divided by various behaviours in different locations.

Bourdieu (1991) came with a socio-cultural shape, which emerges from the impact of being socially and culturally influenced. Furthering this argument of socio-cultural shape. This study seems to agree with what Bourdieu (1991) encored in the paper, as the researcher investigates how educators accommodate translanguaging in teaching and learning. Bourdieu's explanation is linked to what the researcher discusses in this study. As previously said, translanguaging involves transcending beyond diverse language structures, cognitive and semiotic systems, and modalities. The process of translanguaging creates a social space for the language used by combining several components of their personal history, experience, and surroundings; their attitude, belief, and ideology; and their cognitive and physical capabilities into a single coordinated and meaningful performance. This hypothesis did not change how the language was or is taught in multilingual classrooms in schools. However, translanguaging created a different landscape for language diversity in identifying different vernacular languages.

Wei (2017: 23) argues that translanguaging is more than just a hybrid approach to teaching and learning. It enables children and educators to comprehend and conceptualize the abilities of language education in a multilingual classroom. The most important skill is to comprehend the environment in which you will teach and to ensure that the lesson is applied effectively to all students in the classroom.

Recently, research done in Africa by Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021) tackles a very contemporary study that esplanades around the subject of translanguaging at the Foundation Phase. This research is being undertaken in the Zambian education system to identify a lack of literacy in multilingual classrooms. This has had a significant impact on student outcomes since they are taught in a single language during this period. Albert (2017) reiterated that instructors should not dismiss the possibility of pupils becoming bilingual at a young age. In this situation, the system is eroding children's linguistic repertoires. This study will look at how successful translanguaging is in multilingual classrooms. Translanguaging is often used in such classrooms, given the educational environment. The researcher will examine African scholarly papers and presentations on the topic of translanguaging hierarchically. This will help the researcher discover gaps and determine how they will be connected and valuable for the study. Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021) contend that the literature has made it clear that when using translanguaging pedagogy, instructors face a variety of challenges. Educators and students have

not been immune to the teaching and learning issues that have arisen because of the use of translanguaging and related practices in second language teaching.

This implies that the aid of translanguaging is only felt during the transition of one language's pedagogy to another. Nagy (2018) emphasizes that translanguaging may be utilized effectively in the classroom as a heteroglossic approach, as well as the impact of language on teaching and learning. Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021) discusses multilingual primary school language. This is because Zambia has multiple vernacular languages, with Swahili and English receiving the most emphasis. These languages must have an influence on classroom teaching and learning since the children are living with individuals who have a diverse language repertoire.

Krause and Prinsloo (2016) maintain that instructors or educators in national and regional education systems across the world (albeit not everywhere) encounter linguistically and sociocultural varied groups of pupils. The researcher agrees with Krause and Prinsloo because students are becoming increasingly ethnically and linguistically varied, resulting in new social realities in today's education system. As a result, educators must contend with the issue of how to teach pupils who speak languages with which they are unfamiliar.

Such inquiries highlight the need for a rethinking of the function of language in response to the increasingly diverse makeup of the student body and the rising usage of home languages in classrooms. Furthermore, it has had an impact on schools in this way. Every day, in our mainstream classes, students converse in a variety of languages. These discussions reflect the enormous transitions that are taking place as individuals traverse borders, resulting in classrooms that are becoming increasingly linguistically and culturally complex (Alberta, 2017:1). During pedagogy, educators tend to weaken or disregard students' abilities to acquire more than one language. Makalela (2014) observes that during the teaching and learning process, learners respond by expressing themselves in their home languages. Furthermore, Gxilishe (2012) addresses how urbanization influences children's language development or repertoire. This relates to the study's intend, that there are so many things that influence one's language development.

Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021) completed and presented a study that provided a very clear description and findings like educators, they suggest, are aware of children's verbal repertoire. They are particularly informative since youngsters know more about language articulation than instructors do. As a result, it is quite close to what the study intends to explore in conjunction

with translanguaging in multilingual classrooms. The research is being carried out in an African context and a multilingual setting. This determines the escalation of this study's growth and continued rocking

According to Hornberger & Link (2012a or b: 240), there is a submission to be made and the view that there are scenarios from diverse educational contexts, in a collaboration that delivers samples of students engaging in translanguaging, a practice that is becoming more extensively documented across educational contexts in a progressively globalized world. Translanguaging refers to how bilingual pupils transfer and produce meaning by drawing on and engaging with linguistic characteristics from multiple languages. Developing an adjustment to translanguaging practices such as those in the following two scenarios provides a more complete understanding of the diverse repertoires that students bring to school and aids in identifying how to draw on those repertoires for successful educational experiences for all students. Following the presentation of the two examples, the authors briefly describe translanguaging and then introduce the concepts of biliteracy as a tool for organizing teaching to appreciate and build on students' translanguaging behaviours to assist their learning. In essence, educators and policymakers might benefit from appreciating kids' and their families' extensive and varied communication repertoires and translanguaging practices.

Since most South African students in school speak African languages, English is given more recognition and power (Probyn, 2019). There is an agreement between Probyn (2019) & Wei (2017) in discussing the effect of translanguaging and how it is perceived and implemented. Many researchers have long ago developed the term translanguaging because of disagreement with the notion of translanguaging, which has long been observed in many spaces and spheres throughout the world. This study zooms in on educators who are particularly multilingual in the idea of multilingualism. According to Bourdieu (1991), the effect of children's multilingualism is influenced by urbanization and other economic factors.

Bourdieu (1991) speaks on the concept of translanguaging, as the influential concept that is emanated from sociocultural factors. In this study, the researcher is of the view that those are major contributions made by the coined translanguaging to surface in the classroom. Makalela & Mkhize (2016) contribute significantly to what makes and supports the use of translanguaging in multilingualism. The statement repeated by these researchers appears to make volume to Bourdieu (1991).

Mgijima & Makalela (2016) see translanguaging as a tool approach theory that allows learners' metacognition to be livelier and more dynamic. This encourages students to master more than one language and to be able to express themselves freely. Shifidi (2014) investigated the presence of translanguaging in Namibian schools, the extent to which translanguaging happened during classes, and teacher perspectives on whether translanguaging could improve learners' grasp of the topic matter. Translanguaging was found to be common in Namibian schools, according to the data. Translanguaging was also found to be more prevalent in rural schools, according to the research. Furthermore, the study found that translanguaging has the potential to improve learning and comprehension, involvement, and socializing in multicultural/lingual classrooms.

The time has come for translanguaging to decolonize the first educational technique of a monoglossic approach to teaching and learning. Probyn (2019) alludes to post-colonial orthodoxies, which means that during the Apartheid era in South Africa, African languages were marginalized to the point that they were no longer used, as compared to today's schooling. The modification of this brought translanguaging in multilingualism and garnered respect in the country's educational environment. Continuing with the preceding conversation, Probyn, (2019: 219) highlights that,

> *"In addition to recent interest and research in translanguaging in multilingual classrooms in the global north, there has been a corresponding interest and research in translanguaging in South African classrooms, some of which documents spontaneous language use in classrooms and some of which document's interventions that have adopted planned heteroglossia pedagogies that engage with learners' full linguistic repertoires."*

The inclusion of heteroglossia encourages the usage of many languages in Li's teaching and learning Wei (2017). The study accords with what this scholar has said, nevertheless, how this heteroglossia is found to be a contributory factor in teaching in a multilingual classroom is not mentioned. This indicated that the focus was only on the verbal ability of youngsters.

As a result, this study will promote educators' effectiveness and their capacity to carry out teaching and learning in this classroom setting. Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021) highlight how instructors in multilingual classrooms are better prepared to teach those subjects, but Albert (2017) disagrees with what Nyimbili, and Mwanza are saying.

Bourdieu (1991) asserted that the urbanization of people has influenced instructors' capacity to create other languages. Learning African languages may be tough at times, especially if it is one's first exposure to the language. However, translanguaging may bridge that gap.

Piaget (1997) emphasizes the increase in language change as individuals become older. The purpose of this research is thus to gain a better understanding of educators' multilingual approaches and their linguistic repertoire in African languages inside the educational system. According to the study done by Nyimbili and Mwanza (2021), observe that on the research that has been done, instructors are having some difficulty adopting translanguaging in their classrooms. They are straining to teach a second language because of this precursor. This suggests that there might be more forces at work. This study however focuses on educators' effects, which were discovered to be a contributory element in their struggles with translanguaging. This explains why students answer in their original tongues in the classroom during tuition time.

Human social engagement is defined as practice, classroom instruction, and learning, and their psychological effects. When distinguishing between pedagogical and spontaneous translanguaging, Cenoz & Gorter (2017a) bring together the initial application of translanguaging as a specific teaching method and the broader usage of translanguaging as discursive activities. Wei & Lin (2019) present a very distinct argument on the current translanguaging endeavour and its uniqueness in the national educational system. Williams (1994) and Baker (2001) defined translanguaging as an educational technique that includes listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Translanguaging, as a theoretical notion, encompasses the multimodal social semiotic idea that language signals are part of a larger repertory of modal resources available to sign creators and that bear specific socio-historical and political connections (Kress, 2015).

Krause (2019) states that scholars who have studied diverse language in schooling and beyond have done so primarily through the lens of code-switching. By utilizing these precise boxes, code-switching studies succeeded a great deal in encouraging the inclusion of language practices that do not fit conventional linguistic models into linguistic analyses, as we will show. Gumperz (1977) expanded on his landmark work on verbal repertoires by focusing on language practices characterized by conversational code-switching, which he describes as the juxtaposition of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems inside the same interaction.

Gumperz developed a typology of code-switching functions in interactions based on his research into such practices in various language constellations: quotations, addressee specification, interjection, repetition, message qualification, and personalisation versus objectivization (Gumperz, 1977: 14–18). It emphasizes the many ways in which language users utilize, generate, and interpret various types of signals to communicate across contexts and participants and act on their various subjectivities. Translanguaging emphasizes how language users make use of tensions and conflicts among distinct signs because of the socio-historical connotations the signals convey, in a cycle of refermionization and transformation.

Today we are talking about the translanguaging technique in education. This is because children's linguistic awareness makes them aware of numerous items around them (Muthivhi & Broom 2008). That is, every psychological function, such as conceptual comprehension, learning, processes, memory functions, and language development, may be seen as part of the cultural history of human psychology. Furthermore, Vygotsky (1982:163) alludes to and discusses the fact that each function in a child's cultural development occurs twice, or on two levels.

According to the researcher's observations and prior experience as a teacher, instructors who teach African languages are not multilingual; instead, they are bilingual or trilingual. They frequently do not understand the cultural vernacular language in which they are lecturing. Children learn their first language, then their second language, and finally their third language. If they are exposed to a multilingual culture, they learn, adapt, and construct formal/informal language. Piaget (1965) expands on this by stating that children learn via the space they occupy the most, coming up with diverse linguistic techniques and forming new terms. Language, according to behaviourism, is a taught behaviour: a collection of patterns or habits. Adopting the patterns of a certain behaviour, which is the linguistic system, is required for learning a language, and the formation of this new linguistic system is controlled by reactions to external stimuli.

Linguistic acquisition, according to behaviourists, entails toddlers acquiring habits by replicating the sounds and language patterns they encounter in their immediate surroundings. Children's habits develop because of the reinforcement they receive from their surroundings. They establish habits of accurate language usage when they practice the sounds and patterns of the language at their disposal and receive encouragement (reinforcement) from their immediate surroundings (Lightbown & Spanda, 1993).

2.2. Code-switching and Translanguaging Core Argument

Code-switching and translanguaging are not the same things, according to Garcia & Wei (2014). Code Switching begins with unique grammar for each language, whereas translanguaging focuses on language practices employed in multilingual communication. Translanguaging involves a comprehensive understanding of bilingualism and multilingualism, and it may be seen as part of a new paradigm in the study of bi/multilingualism and language learning. This paradigm is distinguished using a holistic understanding of language and suggests a fresh perspective on language, speakers, and repertoires. The borders between languages are getting weaker, and the multilingual speaker's distinctive resources are valued. Multilingual speakers are no longer expected to be fluent in many languages (Garcia & Wei, 2014).

Lin (2019), in a similar endeavour, expands on Halliday's (2013) idea of trans-semiotic and coined the term trans-semiotizing to emphasize the tension-filled yet fluid flow of entanglement of diverse meaning-making resources. Hawkins (2018) proposes the concept of trans modalities, which is linked to critical cosmopolitanism, to embrace processes of semiosis across the place, space, and time that transcend the local, becoming trans local and transnational, indexing the diversity of actors engaged in new configurations of communicative engagements in a globalized, technologized world. In the classroom, the distinction between code-switching and translanguaging is thus ideological as well as educational. The monoglossic orientation that gives birth to code-switching as a deficit behaviour is rooted in a colonial ideology of linguistic hierarchies, colonial supremacy over indigenous languages, and conceptions of linguistic purity that reflect colonial ideals of racial purity and superiority.

According to Krause, (2019: 49), code-switching tends to create studies that adhere to the statist view of languages rather than forcing researchers to adopt a radical enough counter-perspective to it. As a result, this notion has broken new ground and made significant progress in placing varied language practices on the radar of linguists. Translanguaging is a word that has emerged in reaction to code-switching studies. Such perspectives become normalized over time and are difficult to change, especially in the face of the very clear learning problems that the majority of learners in the township and rural schools confront when engaged in studying a language they do not fully know.

Translanguaging approaches, on the other hand, provide alternative ways of perceiving languages in the classroom: as resources to be fully utilized in the construction of knowledge to expand rather than limit possibilities to learn (Probyn, 2019). South Africa is a multilingual country, and societal multilingualism is the norm. The post-Apartheid Constitution (RSA, 1996) recognizes eleven official languages: nine African languages as well as the colonial languages Afrikaans and English, which were the two official languages before 1994. However, even though English is the home language of less than 10% of the population, these constitutional provisions have not had the intended effect of promoting and expanding the relative power and status of previously marginalised African languages; instead, English continues to dominate the political economy (Statistics South Africa, 2012).

Heugh (2014) identifies the horizontal and vertical aspects of multilingualism in postcolonial Africa based on Heine's (1977) analysis of people that employ local languages at the community level, which are part of a language continuum across space with porous boundaries; and written standardised languages at this level reflect fixed representations that are the consequence of missionary decisions and geographical accidents. This contrasts with the vertical features of multilingualism, in which languages, especially imposed colonial languages, are placed in a hierarchy reflecting political power relations, affording, or limiting access to forms of political, social, and economic power. Those who feel excluded from arenas of power are acutely aware of these aspects, and schools must offer students access to them.

Whilst translanguaging is not the only concept that seeks to go beyond code-switching explanations of diverse language practices. Rather, as Canagarajah observes, the theorization of this technique (translanguaging) is taking place in multiple fields under different identities Pennycook & Otsuji, (2015: 2). To mention a few, metrolingualism Pennycook & Otsuji (2015), polylingual language Jorgensen (2008; Jorgensen, Karrebæk, Madsen & Moller (2011), and code-meshing (Michael-Luna & Canagarajah 2007). The corpus of work dealing with the subject is rapidly developing and is beginning to be categorized under a new study paradigm, translingualism. Under the umbrella of translingualism, Canagarajah recognizes various developing research orientations. He avers that Translingualism sees verbal resources interacting synergistically to generate new grammar and meanings beyond their separate structures, in contrast to traditional multilingualism understandings of language relationships, which assume languages maintain their separate structures and identities even when in contact.

According to this concept, the prefix 'trans' denotes a method of viewing communication processes as transcending independent languages." (Canagarajah, 2018:31).

According to Makalela & Mkhize (2016), the movement of people within and between nation-states has expanded tremendously in the early part of the twenty-first century, and as a result, languages have increased interaction and overlapped. As a result, the distinctions between states on the one hand and languages on the other have become muddled and, at best, hazy. Globalisation and the end of the Cold War, we find, have both enhanced linguistic mobility in a variety of ways. These include a lot of individuals from the developing world traveling to former colonising nations, as well as an open-market policy that resulted in expanded trading regions in former colonising states. With the onset of civil wars, terrorism, and starvation, more stable nations have recently experienced a flood of immigration, hosted refugees and provided educational opportunities for migrating children. All of these initiatives, taken together, have dramatically altered the way we think about language, re-established multilingualism as a standard for the new world order, and called for a re-theorization process based on this new linguistic dispensation.

Translanguaging has taken many forms and shapes, from the simple idea of exchanging languages of input and output in a bilingual Welsh class to an all-terrain vehicle and incompletion of one language without the other and continues to intrigue educationists worldwide as an alternative pedagogical practice that disrupts monolingual bias in complex multilingual classrooms (Makalela, 2015a,). Far from being an outcry that translanguaging taints the pristine models of standard languages, it is a metadiscursive regime that the majority of speakers in and out of school engage in in the twenty-first century (Garcia, 2009). By using the translanguaging lens, the focus could be on what speakers do with languages rather than what the languages seem like. The study, therefore, explores various manifestations of translanguaging, focusing on its potential to improve epistemic access and confirm multilingual speakers' identity positions in schools and higher institutions throughout the world.

Makalela (2015a, b or c) notes that even while examples of the latter may be part of the former, there are epistemological distinctions between translanguaging and code-switching. Translanguaging, as opposed to code switching, refers to the use of two or more independent languages and the shifting of one code to another Hornberger & Link, (2012a or b). Speakers select language characteristics and then construct their language practices in ways that match their communication requirements from these repertoires (Garcia, 2011:7). Furthermore, code-

switching frequently contains language-centered notions of language interference, code transfer, or code borrowing, whereas translanguaging moves the focus from cross-linguistic effect to how multilingual intermingle linguistic aspects (Hornberger & Link, 2012a or b: 263).

Furthermore, Mgijima & Makalela (2016) distinguish between code-switching and translanguaging. Translanguaging differs from previous theories of language acquisition such as the linguistic and threshold hypotheses in that it recognizes the numerous linguistic varieties learned by a learner as a single repertoire that the learner uses to communicate (Celic & Seltzer, 2011). Translanguaging advocates for the simultaneous use of the learners' tapestry of languages to acquire, construct, and communicate knowledge, as opposed to the linguistic interdependence and threshold hypotheses, which claim that the successful development of a second language at school is dependent on First Language (L1) – Second Language (L2) transfer (Cummins, 2005).

The linguistic and threshold theories appear to presume a linear approach to language development, in which a skill must first be acquired in one language and then transferred to another at a later point. Furthermore, these ideas appear to take a monoglossic approach to language learning, seeing the languages in a learner's repertoire as distinct and independent entities. In essence, these explanations do not appear to account for shared underlying skills that enhance talents across languages, which might allow for simultaneous growth in two or more languages. Translanguaging varies from code-swapping in some ways.

According to the theory of translanguaging, bilinguals have a single integrated language repertoire from which they strategically pull suitable aspects to communicate successfully. Translanguaging differs from code-switching in that the former posits that a multilingual person's linguistic repertoire consists of numerous different language systems between which the speaker shifts to communicate a notion. As a pedagogical strategy, the instructor often code changes from the required official language of instruction to another language or the learners' native language and back again (Probyn, 2015).

Translanguaging, as a pedagogical strategy, differs from code-switching in that it involves the purposeful changing of input and output languages between the instructor and the learners to maximize understanding. In essence, translanguaging may be defined as a process in which a teacher allows students to construct and convey ideas utilizing a rich tapestry of terminology from their full linguistic range. It provides a platform for multilingual language learners to

integrate many aspects of their experiences and linguistic knowledge into a single coordinated and meaningful performance.

Where the possibility for translanguaging exists, the obstacles lay in policy implementation, since there is no clear guideline for educators to adopt translanguaging techniques in schools. Cummins (2008) contends that a skilled teacher would recognize that students are not prepared to speak a language different from their native tongue in a learning scenario in class. Helot (2014) discovered that certain populations were not ready to study in a language other than their native one. The paper presented by Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021), alludes to the benefits of translanguaging I quote

Baker (2001) identified four educational benefits of translanguaging. These are as follows:

- It may develop a deeper and more complete grasp of the subject topic.
- It may aid in the growth of the less developed language.
- It may enable home-school collaboration and linkages.
- It might aid in the merging of proficient speakers and early learners."

Translanguaging has been defined as both the ability of multilinguals to easily switch between languages without regard for socially and politically defined boundaries, and as a pedagogy in which educators enable children to see and use all their languages for learning by using scaffolding methods (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016; MacSwan, 2017). Translanguaging is a recent and exceptionally effective idea in the domain of bilingual and multilingual education that has received extensive support in the literature in a short period, writes Cenoz & Gorter (2017: 910). However, creating significant translanguaging techniques in the classroom is difficult and runs the danger of being romanticized or labelled as simple (Canagarajah, 2011a).

According to Magwa (2010), what is to be known about the problem of language development in this country is credited. The South African constitution recognizes the languages that are marginalized, and post-Apartheid was made floating in the country's education system. However, as it is, this language does not appear to have widespread recognition, and this should be noted. Charamba & Zano (2019) make a clear argument with this pedagogical approach, for eons upon eons, the mainstream of subjects elevated in general debates connected to knowledge teaching have rotated everywhere edifices and modernisations of philosophies of cognitive scarcity, which have been supposed to be associated with orality, nonstandard language, and multilingualism.

> *"They, however, fail to recognize that translanguaging is a social achievement. Translanguaging entails a person not only communicating in all of the languages in his or her repertoire, but also switching between the languages brought by the other to co-construct meaning. It is a creative improvisation based on the situation and setting." (Canagarajah 2011: 4–5)*

Ticheloven et al. (2019:492):

> *"Translanguaging is a method of teaching in which students become co-creators of knowledge."*

As a result, there is an urgent continuous need to examine and cross-question the way an obsession with purported cognitive inadequacies is repeated and dominates conversations about current educational policy and practice. It is critical to recognize that bilingual pupils who are not yet completely fluent in English account for around 80% of the overall Grade R-12 student population in black South African institutions (DoE, 2017). It demonstrates that children are multilingual, and instructors are bilingual (meaning they know two or three languages excluding English). At some time, the policy and system of education in the South African setting will be prejudiced.

That is, policymakers are ignoring the usage of the country's African Indigenous Languages. This is seen and experienced by them when they stress these languages in the lower grades of children's learning. The suppression of these languages causes students to become more bilingual and multilingual, posing a significant problem for instructors when teaching new concepts in a foreign language. Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021), on the other hand, imply that between children and instructors in the classroom.

The difficulty here is that these youngsters are extremely bilingual, which delays the effectiveness of teaching and learning, even when translanguaging is encouraged. As learners become more bilingual, there is a delay and tortoise movement in pedagogy, which causes educators to delay. Prinsloo & Krause (2018), add that teaching a multilingual classroom has proven to be a difficult task since it requires language repertoires that promote a sound pedagogical approach.

However, according to Wortham (2006), instructors do not consider this translanguaging technique as an efficient manner of teaching since they are not multilingual in contrast to the students in the classroom. Nyimbili and Mwanza (2021) blame the system for educators' inability to be properly bilingual as they should be. Educators may be able to comprehend the

dynamical repertoires of language and linguistics, but if the students in the classroom are multilingual, the process of teaching will be hampered.

2.2.1. The Concept of Translanguaging Worldwide

According to Cenoz (2017), educational translanguaging was first used as a pedagogical strategy in bilingual schools in Wales but it is now frequently used to refer to discursive practices in the context of bilingual and multilingual education in other parts of the world. The term translanguaging is frequently used to refer to code-switching, notably among scholars working on bilingual education in the United States, although translanguaging suggests a distinct perspective. Garcia & Wei (2014) define the distinction as follows:

> *"Translanguaging differs from code-switching in that it refers to the speakers' creation and use of unique and complex interconnected discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or more traditional definitions of a language but comprise the speakers' entire language repertoire."*

If the language finds multilingualism, this strategy will necessitate a teacher to translanguaging. Furthermore, Hoque (2016) developed the following technique, which instructors may use effectively in their pedagogy. The learner-centered approach is predicated on the idea that the learner is also a valuable resource since he or she knows something and is therefore capable of sharing it. This agrees with Vygotsky (1979) when they suggest that children are not blank, but rather state they are tabula rasa, and the mentor writes something unto them.

According to Makalela (2015a, b or c: 278)

> *"Translanguaging encompasses code-switching, language switching in context, and translation; however, it differs from these simple practices in that it refers to the process by which bilingual students perform bilingually in a variety of classroom activities such as reading, writing, taking notes, discussing, signing, and so on. Translanguaging is not only a means to scaffold education and make sense of learning and language, but it is also part of the meta discursive regimes that students in the twenty-first century must engage in."*

On the other hand, Gill & Kusum (2016) suggest something new, if children are allowed the opportunity to explore, a teacher may lose the lesson along the way. Yes, here is where students discover the educational arrangement; it is nicely presented and new to them during the

foundation period. This is where kids discover what school is all about. They are exceptional at converting their knowledge and making academic concepts understandable.

The subject being taught by the teacher in that class is currently attracting more attention than the students (Hoque, 2016). The subject-oriented strategy pushes and submits subject outcomes. As a result, individuals who are associated with policy manage the descriptors obtained from the department of education language and topic policy development. When educators are teaching students, they are viewed as the only source of knowledge. And the department of basic education trusts in doing that. Learners are now expected to sift and infiltrate that knowledge they didn't know formally. Yes, they do know some knowledge and skills about what is happening around them. But they are guided around that knowledge now by the instructor in front of them. Hoque (2016), continues to say that because of the skills embedded in them, teachers, and instructors now are experts and role-play changes in the lives of receivers.

The instructor is now dominating, and the teacher's voice is heard and followed throughout the lesson throughout the instruction. The instructor appears to be the sole agent who understands all the policy's outcomes and skills. Hoque (2016) goes on to present a new technique that is now interactive. Both agents have power and contribution in escalating the lesson to reach its objectives and outcomes acknowledged. The engagement helps and allows youngsters to express themselves and be heard by the instructor. To ensure that the instruction is well-structured and communicated. A constructive attitude should be encouraged, and youngsters should be encouraged to rely on their understanding. No judgment should be applied to reject children's contributions to the lesson, but rather to encourage them to participate and to supplement and scaffold what they have already included in the lesson. It appears to be critical to assess children's prior understanding of the topic discussed in the session.

The instructor is now storing knowledge in the minds of youngsters who were previously thought to be empty. And the transformation of current words and morphemes into new terms and morphemes. Any function in a child's cultural development appears twice, or on two levels, according to Vygotsky (1982: 163). It manifests first on the social level, then on the psychic plane. It first arises as an inter-psychological category between individuals, and subsequently as an inter-psychological category inside the child.

Mgijima & Makalela (2016), on the other hand, discuss the meta cognitive abilities that are attained via the translanguaging strategy used in multilingual classrooms. It is in a multilingual classroom that translanguaging is achieved, proved, and graphically portrayed. Children in South African schools are taught in their native language in all disciplines during the Foundation Phase. When children reach the intermediate stage, they are introduced to a new language. Now is the period and grade where translanguaging is validated and understood by both instructor and pupil (Mgijima & Makalela 2016).

On the other side, the survey showed that several schools had internal laws that forbade students from speaking their native languages on school grounds, even going so far as to charge them a fee as a punishment for doing so. This indicates that, despite the emphasis on the mother tongue as a medium of teaching in junior primary, it has little significance in educational circles. As a result, stakeholders such as parents, instructors, and students may be dismissive of their mother languages and undervalue their cultural and linguistic legacy. Nonetheless, the conclusion is that translanguaging is common in Namibian classrooms (Mashinja & Mwanza, 2020).

This relates to the fact that children are verified to be bilingual, but instructors are not (Garcia 2009; Hornberger & Link, 2012a or b). The researcher states that the study focuses on confirming that educators are multilingual as opposed to the youngsters who will be tried and evaluated in this investigation. The researcher argues that translanguaging has arrived to decolonize the monoglossic method of teaching and to bring a new dimension of venturing in the other direction of the heteroglossic approach and understanding its success. The writers regularly examine the reading comprehension strategy and discover a useful use of translanguaging.

Feller (2021) states that in many instances learning two languages concurrently can make students lose their native language's linguistic repertoire. This should not be the case because learning a second language reinforces the growth of the main language (Garcia & Wei, 2018:1). When these multimodal and linguistic characteristics are viewed as a continuum, instructors and students can draw from different stages of their development to construct sense and utilize languages in and out of the classroom. Language learning and reinforcement should always be seen as tools to acquire more languages and deliver knowledge effectively.

This explains why students answer in their original tongues in the classroom during tuition time. Their psychological awareness of certain items as well as their awareness of their

surroundings. Human social engagement is defined as practice, classroom instruction and learning, and their psychological effects. The examination of such activity considers its origins in social interactions as well as its transition into the individual's interior psychological plane Muthivhi & Broom (2008:91). This activity is carried out to improve the children's word bank and knowledge.

The instructor combines what the students know and comprehends and puts things into context. Since children are at least familiar with other terms, children and instructors connect and form their language, making learning simpler. Draw this lesson and make it more accessible across disciplines, as well as more familiar with other interdisciplinary vocabularies. Learners are sometimes permitted to utilize their native so-called mother tongue language for expression and emphasis in the class for the benefit of teaching and learning advancement.

2.3. Language Acquisition and Learning

Lightbown & Spanda (2006) outline the role of language acquisition in children's cognition. Lightbown & Spanda claim that language acquisition is one of human development's most amazing and fascinating aspects. For example, people enjoy hearing a three-month-old infant, laugh and reply to older infants' conversational *ba/ba/ba* babbling, and share the joy and excitement of parents whose one-year-old has uttered his or her first goodbye. Learning a language is a remarkable accomplishment that has long piqued the curiosity of linguists and psychologists. Language is a strong social identity factor. One often uses it in conjunction with other variables such as religion and ethnicity to classify people. Social identities are established in this way, which is utilized to attach features, talents, and social rank (Banks, 2001, 2002). Furthermore, knowing more than one language improves interpersonal, academic, and social communication, broadens intellectual horizons, and fosters awareness and tolerance for diverse cultures. at an age of globalization and internationalization (Burbules, & Torres 2000: 21).

Given this, democracy and multilingualism are not distinct factors but are inextricably linked (Biseth, 2008: 8). Cummins (2000a) and Ruiz (1988) emphasize the importance of viewing language as a right and a resource rather than a problem. On the other hand, they see a language-as-resource approach as more fruitful and challenge the language-as-right approach. The use of a student's mother tongue as a medium of teaching elevates the significance of a language in society and promotes multilingualism. Furthermore, language promotes the development of self-esteem and identity in each citizen (BrockUtne, 2000; Erickson 2001). Learning a second

language broadens a citizen's cultural repertoire and, according to Erickson (2001) is a requirement for success in the modern world. This will make it easier for individuals to coexist in a heterogeneous society, and the balance between cultural, national, and global identifications may be equalized (Banks, 2002).

What motivates youngsters to pursue the development of complicated grammatical language even though their early rudimentary communication is successful for the most part? Is it true that children's language development is consistent all over the world? How do bilingual youngsters learn to speak more than one language in the meantime (Kuhl, 2000)? A well-publicized argument between a strong nativist and a strong learning theorist sparked debate about the origins of language in the latter part of the twentieth century. B F. Skinner, a behavioural psychologist, offered a learning theory in his book *Verbal Behaviour* in 1957, suggesting that language, like other animal behaviour, was an operant that evolved in infants because of external reinforcement and shaping.

Skinner (1957) proposes that new-borns learn a language in the same manner that a rat learns to push a bar by monitoring and adjusting reward conditions. Chomsky (1965) provided a drastically different theoretical approach in a review of Verbal Behaviour. Traditional reinforcement learning, according to Chomsky, has little to do with humans' ability to learn a language. Chomsky posited a language faculty with inherently defined constraints on the various kinds of human language. Chomsky claimed that the fundamental language constraints of new-borns included the development of universal grammar and universal phonetics. The language was one of the first examples of what Feodor called a module, which was something domain-specific, informationally encapsulated, and intrinsic (Kuhl, 2000).

Vygotsky, (1979) and Piaget, (1964) explore language acquisition, and the debate demonstrated by this researcher appears to be in favour of this study. Prinsloo & Krause (2018) argue in favour of publishing. The debate and comments show that there are several elements such as socio-cultural form, urbanization, curricular changes, diverse tribe marriages, and an immense dynamic language repertoire in encouraging children's multilingualism. Thus, children have contributed to the linguistic shift and change, as well as the advancement of the translanguaging theory in many multilingual classrooms in South African schools.

Cromarty & Balfour (2019) confirm that the so-called desire for your children to attend previous model-c schools influenced linguistic shift and change. As a result, children's

language learning has been accelerated in modern understanding. According to Tomasello (1992), a language is made up of conventional symbols that are formed by their social-communicative functions. Tomasello's writing is essentially in agreement with Cromarty and Balfour's. Children learn these lexical and syntactic symbols in the context of culturally constructed event structures that highlight their functions. Children rely on cultural learning skills during the acquisition process i.e., imitative learning.

These abilities stem from their ability to interact inter-subjectively with adults in cultural activities i.e., joint attention, which underpins their ability to comprehend how adults use specific bits of language. The development of communicative competence, comprising not just lexical and syntactic abilities but also diverse pragmatic skills, is heavily reliant on feedback concerning communicative efficacy received by children from various interactants. Children utilize this input to form further conclusions about the typical functional relevance of certain language utterances.

This social-pragmatic approach to language acquisition eliminates the necessity for a priori format restrictions on the language learning process, notably linguistic limitations. This, as explained by Tomasello, is consistent with what Vygotsky (1979) has always said about language development and language acquisition. The very important common feature that these experts are debating is the necessity for students to be able to communicate in a variety of ways in the classroom. It manifests first on the social level, then on the emotional plane. It first arises as an inter-psychological categorization between persons, and later as an inter-psychological category inside the child. This explains why students answer in their original tongues in the classroom during tuition time. Their psychological awareness of certain items as well as their awareness of their surroundings. Human social engagement is defined as practice, classroom instruction and learning, and their psychological effects. The examination of such activity considers its origins in social interactions as well as its transition into the individual's interior psychological plane (Muthivhi & Broom, 2008).

According to Vygotsky (1981), human cultural processes are concretized via social interactions. As a result, what is social is also cultural in the sense that the relationship between individuals is mediated by signals, or cultural instruments, which are products of human history and culture. That is, civilizations' cultural traditions are defined by their historical evolution. That is why the term social is so important in our context. Above all, it means that everything cultural is social in the broadest sense. Culture is the result of human social action and social

existence. As a result, just mentioning the issue of cultural development of behaviour introduces the social plane of growth (Vygotsky, 1961:164).

Since society's practices acquire shape during its historical development, the cultural development of human behaviour happens within the social plane of human development. The term past refers to variances in society's techniques and customs, as well as the incorporation of culture into societal processes. These distinctions are seen in social processes such as child parenting, schooling, adolescent socialization activities, and so on. According to Wei (2017), language acquisition is relatively easy if the youngster has a repertoire of his or her mother tongue. The youngster quickly progresses to the next language taught at school. However, this reduces monoglossic and successfully increases heteroglossia.

Language learning for children is a particularly interesting aspect of the schooling system's overall pedagogy. Swain (2006) asserts that the cognitive process negotiates a very informative intelligible output as the vehicle for language learning. Henceforth, the researcher considers the youngsters in this study to be multilingual rather than instructors. Vygotsky (1978) expands on this notion by stating that children mediate.

Children participate in a systematic activity under the supervision of an adult, and after the activity, they will be able to do it on their own. The adult is now beginning to act as an observer, correcting when required. This mediation paradigm assists youngsters in becoming linguistically aware. Children from the neighbourhood have access to it and can stand on their own, and their level of expression is infused. Children seize whatever is available in their environment. Children's awareness of their surroundings causes them to comprehend the following: language, colour, music, forms, space, voices, statues, mobilities, sizes, and motions. this has also been confirmed by Vygotsky when noting that All human mental processes are mediated by tools, but these are specific, psychological tools like language, signs, and symbols," he went on. Humans are not born with these tools; any more than labour tools are born with them. Human culture develops these skills, which children learn through interpersonal interactions with adults or more experienced peers. Once learned and internalized, these psychological skills come to mediate children's mental processes." Vygotsky (1978).

Any function in a child's cultural development appears twice, or on two levels, according to Vygotsky, 1978). It manifests first on the social level, then on the psychic plane. It first arises

as an inter-psychological category between individuals, and subsequently as an inter-psychological category inside the child. The examination of such activity considers its origins in social interactions as well as its transition into the individual's interior psychological plane Muthivhi & Broom (2008:91). In their study, Lightbown and Spanda (2006: 10) employed Skinner's behaviourist approach, which posits that children will copy the language used by others around them as they grow older.

Children may generate new vocabulary by listening to their environment and, as a result, begin to build lexical morphemes. Vygotsky (1978) adds that children are quite adept at not just imitating what is modelled in their presence, but they may also learn grammatical and linguistic skills. Some children can learn and speak more than one language at a very young age; nonetheless, they first learn their first language at the age of 2-3 years. This ability is ingrained in them as a result of their environment and popular language. Children, on the other hand, may be able to know more than their parents or guardians about every school topic taught in school.

This is due to diverse talents, which are based on cognitive-affluence learning. They can also comprehend charts, colours, forms, maths, spoken commands, linguistics, literature, stories etc. By the time a kid enters formal school, he or she is bilingually/multilingually proficient and intellectually focused. According to Cummins (1979), additional AIL is marginalized and is not standardised. Most of the time, this language is not taught to children/people who know it since they were exposed to it as they grew up. African indigenous languages are those spoken by indigenous peoples. This is commonly known across the cosmos. Some indigenous languages are neither written nor recognized by various countries.

Children are excellent at acquiring a second language because they first absorb the native language repertoire and then quickly transfer to the second exposed language, whether at home or school or anywhere they meet people who speak a language other than their mother tongue. They learn and master the second most widely spoken language (Vygotsky, 1978). Bandura's (1965) argument in behaviourism: with its emphasis on experimental procedures, concentrates on factors we can watch, measure, and alter, and avoids everything subjective, internal, and inaccessible, mental.

The normal strategy in the experimental method is to modify one variable and then assess its effects on another. All this boils down to a personality theory that states that one's environment

influences one's behaviour. As a result, phases of development, Muthivhi & Broom (2008: 91) emphasize the Vygotskian notion of the broad generic rule of cultural development. That is, every psychological function, such as conceptual comprehension, learning, processes, memory functions, and language development, may be seen as part of the cultural history of human psychology. This hypothesis stands out because it has a clear description and an intelligible method of explaining why learners know more than one language. Children's environments have an impact on their learning at school; others at school speak English, while parents and family speak in vernacular.

Piaget (1964) contends that children learn as they get older. Piaget devised what is known as staged development, and he divides these stages according to the ages of the kid. The professor thinks that when youngsters develop, their minds should naturally adjust to the age they are entering. As a result of their previous age experience, children might progress in terms of their learning. Furthermore, he agrees to disagree with the notion that children are born unaware. B.F. Skinner invented the term behavioural theory in the 1940s and 1950s. This notion was immensely popular and influential, particularly at the United Nations. This idea, as widely accepted, was/is still relevant even in the late many decades near millenniums.

It is an idea that is well-rooted in the psychological inducement of the child as he or she grows up. As a result, encouraged by their surroundings, the youngsters would continue to imitate and practice the noises they had heard. Later, they can produce their sounds and patterns, until they are corrected to form a sound language. This idea goes on to argue that learners, or rather youngsters, are highly effective at inventing words and creating ambiguous sentences since they are still learning the language with the assistance of conscious mental abilities. Furthermore, youngsters take note of charts made available to them and begin to correlate words they learned at a young age, as well as record morphemes heard in their surroundings and build sentences.

They may generate new vocabulary by listening to their environment and, as a result, begin to build lexical morphemes. Second, youngsters take note of charts that are made available to them and begin to correlate terms they learned in their early years. Since the researcher discovered by reading and seeing students, particularly in the primary school where I teach, learners are extremely bad at reading, writing their native languages, and failing implication while learning. As a result, learners' grasp of their native languages and ability to translate has suffered.

When a child is born into a linguistic community, he or she feels compelled to converse with members of that group (Chambers, 2009: 165). This sensation promotes the need to replicate the sounds and patterns in the environment, and this desire is satisfied when caregivers make utterances that the infant imitates. According to Skinner (1957), positive reinforcement is given to the child's imitation utterances if they mirror those of the caregiver, and positive reinforcers include pleasurable experiences such as incentives or praise. However, if the child's imitations do not match those of his or her caregiver, they are given negative feedback to foster the creation of acceptable language habits, which are then favourably rewarded.

These rewards and feedback aid in the acculturation of the novice learner into the world of new language behaviour and are utilized until the novice learner adheres to the standards of this new verbal culture. According to Skinner (1957), language arises from a bodily urge to talk and serves a goal, and parental reinforcement is an important element of the process. Skinner (1957) intended to increase language teaching efficiency through his research on home language acquisition, and since he saw language learning as habit formation, Skinner researched observable behaviours in language learners. Furthermore, Nabavi (2012) provides an intriguing case of behaviourism.

This hypothesis is founded on the premise that we learn from our social interactions with others. People adopt comparable behaviours through witnessing the behaviours of others. People absorb and mimic the behaviour of others after witnessing it, especially if their observational experiences are good or contain incentives connected to the observed behaviour. Imitation, according to Bandura, entails the real duplication of observed motor movements (Bandura (1977).

According to Abdulaziz (2009), Kenya is one of the African countries with more than 40 languages. That causes individuals to develop their lingua franca as a means of communication. This is to show that when individuals develop and encounter new people, their language shifts, and changes which has an impact on the uniformity of an official language. This change and shift influence individuals who educate children in the first and second grades. Each race and inhabitant of the cosmos has its language. This language is referred to as a native language and is often referred to as a home language.

Humans are born with one language, but owing to global needs, their desire to adapt, and their curiosity, they acquire additive languages. Lightbown & Spanda (2006) wrote an intriguing

piece on children's initial language learning. Children across the world learn the language that they are exposed to in their surroundings first and foremost. Their minds are sophisticated enough to watch and mimic what adults say in the language, and you will notice them saying what an adult said earlier the next time you meet them.

Mnukwa (2019) makes a valid point about the paucity of true African Indigenous Languages (AIL). Indigenous languages are being wiped from the linguistic landscape, putting their lives in jeopardy. According to Kamwangamalu (2003:70), African languages are on the verge of extinction, with only a few people aware of the linguistic change that threatens African languages. African parents who send their children to English medium instruction schools in the suburbs from an early age feel they are more privileged and that their children will obtain higher social and economic mobility because their language competence in English is a contributing reason to such behaviours.

Given the huge number of African students leaving township schools for schools in the suburbs, it is understandable that African languages may ultimately become a taboo (Kamwangamalu, 2003:70) among some segments of our community. Globally, some continents and nations refer to their African languages as foreign languages, not because they are not indigenous. These countries will primarily be based in America. Foreign languages are acknowledged in African languages. They are most likely labelled as such because they are marginalized and were never given enough attention to be scribed. Furthermore, every human being on the planet has a native language. People are born with a language.

In the American States, the dominantly spoken language is English and other indigenous languages, like Mandarin etc. It is very seldom in America that they somehow regard additional languages as foreign languages because it is spoken by a certain group of people. Kamwangamalu, (2003:70), America, being a developed country, always picks English as a commercial and commerce language.

Humans seemingly have more than one language throughout the world, making us bilingual. Other African-indigenous languages, on the other hand, are neglected because they are spoken by minorities and groups that are not visible, such as the Khoisan language in South Africa. Furthermore, if you travel to African countries, you will discover that Africans in Africa mostly speak Swahili, which has been standardized within the educational system. Travelling around

Africa, you will discover that Swahili is either the native language or an extra language within their constituency.

2.3.1. Language Learning

Language acquisition and language learning are distinguished by Chomsky (1965), Gass (2013), Krashen (1982, 1985, 1987), and Littlewood (1984). Language acquisition, on the other hand, refers to a subconscious process in which one instinctively picks up a language from one's immediate environment and uses it to convey one's communication requirements (Krashen, 1982; Gass & Selinker, 1994). This type of learning is referred to as subconscious acquisition by Littlewood (1984: 90).

Krashen (1982) claims in the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis (ALH) that learners employ two distinct systems to internalize knowledge of a new language: the acquired system and the learnt system. The learned system is the result of a subconscious effort by which learners take up a linguistic behaviour and is indistinguishable from the process by which youngsters acquire an L1(Krashen, 1982, 1987). It necessitates a meaningful yet natural engagement in the L2, with an emphasis on communication rather than linguistic form. Krashen (1987:10) puts it this way:

> *"We are generally unaware of the rules of the language we have learned. Instead, we charge a fee for what is appropriate. Grammatical statements sound or feel correct, whereas errors feel incorrect, even if we are unaware of the rule that was broken."*

Krashen's statements above echoed Chomsky's (1965) poverty-of-stimulus arguments that language acquirers take up linguistic habits from their surroundings without being instructed. According to Krashen (1987), the learned system is the outcome of formal education, and it is a deliberate effort that results in conscious knowledge about the language, such as understanding grammatical rules: being aware of them and able to discuss them.

According to Krashen, although language development in a learner can be acquired or learned, learners use the language created in either method for distinct objectives. The learned knowledge is internalized and used for producing language, generating utterances, and the acquired system is edited allowing the learner to screen the obtained knowledge for accuracy at the performance stage (Conteh-Morgan, 2002). Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis is based on this screening.

L1s are those that are learned subconsciously from the immediate surroundings from birth, and every kid is inclined to learn any language (Chomsky, 1965). Language learning, on the other hand, is a concerted effort, an intentional process of internalizing a language. Knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to discuss them are all part of learning a language (Krashen, 1982:10). This indicates that language learning is explicit, whereas language acquisition is implicit. L2s and foreign languages are languages learned via formal instruction in educational settings.

Littlewood (1984), on the other hand, argues that language learning may be both conscious and unconscious and contends that learners can make deliberate attempts to learn a language. According to Littlewood, improvement in language acquisition occurs because of unprompted subconscious mechanisms that are engaged when learners interact with the L2. As a result, L2s can be learnt or gained naturally outside of the classroom. Chomsky's Universal Grammar Theory predicts that children's hypotheses (about the input data) would be influenced by the structure of the language during L1 learning (Chomsky, 1975: 32). As Flynn and O'Neil (1988) argue, it may be argued that if universal grammar principles can explain how L1s are learned, they may likewise control L2 acquisition. As a result, the study will determine the concern over pupil multilingualism and instructor monolingual-bilingualism, based on the area in which the school is located.

Chomsky (1965, 1980, 1986) maintains that an L1 is learnt instinctively and develops in a predictable manner independent of the kind or quality of linguistic information. Humans are born with certain characteristics of language that are triggered by maturation (Maybin & Swann, 2010: 218). In other words, as a child develops from infancy the initial zero condition to adulthood the ultimate state, so does the linguistic instinct gift with people. A kid is born knowing no language, but by the time he or she reaches maturity, the 'child' has mastered the community language.

2.4. Monolingualism, Bilingualism, and multilingualism

Lin (2016) reports that since teaching in a monolingual classroom, the teacher has seen that students respond to expressiveness questions in their native languages. Garcia, Lin & May (2016) is correct, according to the researcher. Learners become multilingual because of their bilingualism, to the point where they can express themselves in any language they have ever heard. Classroom language and bilingual education, according to Prinsloo & Krause (2016:

160), continue to understand the language practices of local communities through a monolingual lens that obscures the fluid language of these communities, and this is what you find in the classroom as a teacher, children bring informal language.

During the dynamic pedagogical equivalency of monoglossic and heteroglossia in the classroom, infusing that with the consequence of learning a second language. The goal of second language learning is to know the repertoire of the first language and transfer information to the next. The argument presented by Prinsloo & Krause, (2019) makes a significant contribution to the discussion of the monolingual, monoglossic method in explaining the benefits of such an approach in teaching. According to the two experts, the use of monolingual language in teaching and learning has drawn and submitted the inequities in teaching and learning (Blommaert et al., 2015; Arnaut & Spotti, 2015; Prinsloo & Krause., 2018).

The use of one-language pedagogy has influenced children's learning. In a multilingual classroom, children learn as they interact with progressive teaching. This relates to the fact that translanguaging arose to accommodate many additional spoken written vernacular languages inside the educational system. Furthermore, Prinsloo & Krause (2018) argue in this debate that the entry of foreign nationals or migrants in domestics often disrupts monolingual instruction. The language they add to South Africa's current language vocabulary is disrupted by the introduction of dialects of that language.

Children learn by playing, imitating, and interacting with one another (Piaget, 1964). On the other hand, Malone (1975) noted that youngsters learn as they go, which has been shown and confirmed in the study. The researcher agrees that youngsters are tabula rasa, that everything they come across is absorbed in their minds, and that they are adept at forming new morphemes. Children are quite multilingual because of the experiences they have throughout their lives. To be monolingual means to be fluent in only one native language and grasps the language teaching, literature, and linguistics in that language. Monolinguals are often adept at passing themselves off as bilinguals since they always transfer knowledge.

However, mono implies one, which indicates one first knows your native language and may then move on to a second exposed language. According to Clegg & Afitska (2011), some instructors in Sub-Saharan Africa are so monolingual that they fail to transition to the most generally spoken language in the area. The researcher supports this viewpoint since as an African language instructor he observed this phenomenon in his multilingual classroom. At

some times, learners would utilize their native languages or dialects of the language, and the instructor would fail to follow that lesson in the classroom.

Sefotho (2019) made an intriguing remark in her thesis when she highlights that human beings all over the world are born monolingual, but because of commerce and numerous languages, they are multilingual. You do not become bilingual at birth; rather, you are born monolingual and learn the second language based on your parents' linguistic abilities. For example, if your mother is Xhosa and your father is Sotho, the kids of these parents will be bilingual from birth. Many cross-cultural children's parents will send their children to an English-speaking school, and the youngster will grow bilingual in that sense.

This practice contributes to the high incidence of neglect in the development of our African-indigenous languages. Youngsters would thus lose interest in expressing themselves fully in their first language as they develop. They can, however, discuss and bring up instances in their African-indigenous languages at school to increase their learning confidence and, at times, identity. Bilingual implies you can communicate fluently in two languages. According to Hamers & Blanc, (2002), this idea of bilingualism appears to be non-problematic at first glance. According to Webster (1961), bilingualism is defined as having or using two languages, particularly as spoken with fluent characteristics of a native speaker, a person who uses languages habitually and with control like that of a native speaker, and bilingualism as the continuous oral use of two languages.

A bilingual, according to Lim, Lion, Lincoln, Chan & Onslow, (2008), is somebody who can communicate in two languages via speaking, writing, listening, or reading, regardless of nativelike skills. Being bilingual, according to common belief, implies being able to speak two languages properly. Bloomfield (1935: 56), describes bilingualism as the intuitive control of being able to speak two languages correctly, which is also the method of oral usage of two languages. In contrast to this definition, which includes only perfect bilingualism, Macnamara (1967) proposes that a bilingual is anyone who has a minimum level of competence in only one of the four language skills, listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing, in a language other than his/her mother tongue.

Between these two extremes, there is a wide range of definitions, such as the one proposed by Titone (1972), who defines bilingualism as the ability of an individual to speak a second language while following the concepts and structures of that language rather than paraphrasing

his or her mother tongue. Language learners, according to Garcia & Li (2014), are not learning a different language regardless of context; rather, they are taking command of their learning to appropriate and absorb new linguistic approaches and distinctive meaning-making resources.

This demonstrates that the two languages used in bilingual education were addressed independently. It was usually assumed that language separation was done to minimize cross-contamination and confusion, and that using many languages at the same time was unacceptable (Jacobson & Faltis, 1990). As a result, in a bilingual setting, knowledge of two or more languages was regarded as knowledge of wholly independent and distinct languages (Gort, 2015). It was argued at the time that bilingualism was a cause of mental confusion and language handicaps (Darcy, Peal & Lambert, 1962). As a result, multilingual youngsters underperformed in academic tasks (Cummins (1979).

The researcher agrees with Sefotho (2019) when she mentions that other studies suggest that bilingualism can positively influence both cognitive and linguistic development in a child, contributing to his/her learning process rather than being a source of cognitive confusion and that bilingualism provides economic benefits to bilinguals (Cummins, 1976, 1978c; Makalela, 2015a, b or c). In a multilingual situation, diglossia encourages a speaker to talk or address the audience in more than two languages, depending on the context of the audience. It appears to consume a significant amount of energy recessing additional languages inside the pedagogical process.

In other words, in a classroom setting where more than one language is known, learners end up supporting the other language through their responses during teaching-learning. Other academics regard bilingualism as flexible or additive bilingualism with heteroglossia a bilingual's contemporaneous use of two languages; switching from one language to another (Garcia, 2007; Hornberger, 2006). The multilingual shift, according to Prada & Turnbull (2018), refers to a recent set of innovations in the underlying conceptual underpinnings of conventional foreign and second language classroom practice. These changes help to standardize processes and behaviours that are particular to bi/multilingual speakers.

As previously mentioned, in subtractive bilingualism, one language is more powerful than the other and constitutes a threat to the other. An additive bilingual scenario, on the other hand, is characterized as a situation in which speakers of a certain language learn a second language and its culture without displacing their primary language (Gort, 2015; Garcia, 2007). The

addition of a second language can assist L2 speakers on several levels: linguistically, culturally, socially, and economically. This means that in additive bilingualism, L2 is introduced as a supplement to L1 rather than as a threat (Garcia, 2007); it delivers good results and advantages to the bilingual. The usage of L1 helps bilinguals comprehend and enhance their L2, demonstrating that there is a link between the two languages (Swain & Lapkin, 2007).

According to Biseth (2008), the word multilingualism (the use of two or more languages) can relate to either people or societies. Individuals typically develop multilingualism because of the necessity to communicate in a variety of environments. A person may be exposed to one language at home, another at school, and yet another in the workplace. Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) defines a multilingual speaker as having a linguistic identity (both by the individual and by others), varied competence levels, and the ability to operate in at least two languages. She emphasizes the advantages of having a good attitude toward both languages and having a high degree of conversational abilities in both.

We frequently study a second language at school. It has been discovered that it is critical for linguistic minorities or marginalized groups to have their first language acknowledged in the education sector, as this is the only method to attain the intended aim of additive multilingualism (Cummins, 2000b; Desai, 2000; Kymlicka, 2001). Additive multilingualism is the process of learning a new language while maintaining and developing the learner's mother tongue (Cummins, 2000b; Heugh, 2000). It is now commonly acknowledged that developing abilities in both languages is critical for enhancing cognitive, linguistic, and academic progress.

The primary component that allows this aim to be realized is the status that the educational system bestows on the mother tongue or first language (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000). Subtractive bilingualism is the inverse of additive bilingualism. This suggests that a new language is learnt at the risk of displacing or replacing the mother tongue, and the mother tongue is not taught well (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000).

Language instruction in South African schools has long been fraught with controversy, disputes, and sensitivities, owing to the ongoing exclusion and marginalization of African languages. According to the LieP, the democratic regime has attempted to address this situation by enacting linguistic policies that actively promote multilingualism and the teaching/learning of local African languages, in line with the overarching goals of nation-building, diversity, and tolerance (Department of Education (DoE), 1997). Furthermore, Biseth (2008) adds an extra

definition, namely, the concept of multilingualism may also be used in the situation within a nation-state. Monolingual persons are a minority on a global scale. There are around 200 countries in the globe, but approximately 6,500 distinct languages, but this figure is debatable (Grimes, 1992; Skutnabb Kangas, 1988).

As a result, multilingual countries are the norm, with monolingual countries being the exception. Languages have significantly different degrees of prestige within a country. Some are official, some are nationwide, and some are not even recognized by the government. South Africa has 11 official languages to serve South Africa's diverse peoples. Switzerland has four national languages, but only three are officially recognized (Swissworld, 2004). Official languages are employed in official government, official communication, and national organizations. However, there is no assurance that many official languages within a country would be treated equally. In many African countries with several official languages, the old colonial language is generally given precedence over African languages (BrockUtne, 2000).

Furthermore, they regard indigenous languages as alien languages. This might be the motivation and experience of a broad strategy for marginalizing indigenous languages. Foreign language education at the secondary school level, that is, languages that are neither official nor national languages, has been omitted from debates in South Africa about local language ecology and multilingualism. In general, the teaching of these languages has a dual purpose and serves as a value-added international language as in the case of French and/or it serves to cultivate minority linguistic and cultural groups in South Africa (such as in the case of Hebrew, Greek or Serbian). In this regard, the Second Additional Language (SAL) has always been seen as separate from existing local language linguistic repertoires and cultures (Ferreira-Meyers & Horne, 2017).

Deumert (2016), on the other hand, reiterates the same thoughts she adds a lot of evidence and recognition to this topic. The multilingual turn was appropriately seen as the beginning of a paradigm change in applied linguistics. Critical applied linguists have proposed that multilingual policies are more equitable and democratic for social connections inside and between nations (May 2001; Skuttnab-Kangas, 2002). Scholars from various disciplines are increasingly starting to advocate for social and institutional measures that support multilingualism. Economists have argued that multilingualism can be advantageous in the job (Gazzola & Grin, 2013; Grin, 2001; Pool, 1996).

Superdiversity has been considered a part of modern life by social theorists such as Vertovec (2007), prompting sociolinguists to investigate how social structures may accommodate the semiotic resources that individuals carry with them when they move (Blommaert, 2010). The multilingual shift has resulted in a philosophical critique of key concepts in practical linguistics, such as language competence, acquisition, and competency as well as text building, communicative exchanges, and educational procedures (May 2014).

2.5. Language Policy, Planning in Education

In the 16th century, immigrants and missionaries from Europe and America began to arrive in South Africa and other regions of the world, bringing with them western educational concepts. Their advanced growth, strong religious convictions, and need for land and other resources all contributed to a widespread assumption that they were superior in terms of culture, knowledge, religion, and race (Jansen, 1990). From this vantage point, they justified seizing South Africa's resources and further imposing their culture, religion, and ideas on the indigenous people. Through this activity, the colonizers introduced the country to the value and presence of education.

According to Makoni & Pennycook (2007), White people in South Africa or other parts of the world that are far removed from Europe are still sometimes referred to as Europeans, even if their families have been in South Africa or other countries for hundreds of years because their ancestors originally came from Europe. These supreme nomadic came with education policies that were compulsorily adhered to by settlers of the time, in the transaction to land. The language used at the time was Afrikaans and English, which was the language of teaching and learning.

However, Ferreira-Meyers & Horne (2017), focus on the South African language curriculum at the school level noting the debate surrounding the implementation of the Incremental Introduction of African Languages (IIAL) in South African Schools (2013) policy including its impact on SAL teaching and learning. The role of representations i.e., socially formed attitudes on the value of studying French will be investigated about the language market and multilingualism in South Africa. The article's second section discusses the difficulties of learning French as a foreign language, particularly its late, formalised acquisition, and how these limitations can be overcome by drawing on existing cultural and linguistic repertoires to promote the overall goal of plurilingual and pluricultural education.

The match between the languages used in teacher education and those used by educators in their classrooms and schools was historically taken for granted in the case of Afrikaans and English, whose native speakers have been schooled and teacher trained in their respective home languages for decades. Bantu Education, which was from 1955 to 1976, required African language-speaking teacher trainees to go through a kind of trilingual training that reflected the imposition of the two official languages while allowing their native tongue just a minor part (Hartshorne, 1995). Teacher education in post-Apartheid South Africa has evolved to reflect the societal dominance of English and the eventual death of Afrikaans.

Despite official multilingualism at the Constitutional level, the national language-in-education policy for public schools that promotes additive bi/multilingualism (DoE, 1997), and other pieces of enabling legislation, African languages remain marginalized in both pre-service and in-service teacher education programs. The notion of matching the language of tuition for teacher training with the language of instruction in schools appears to apply exclusively to dominant languages. Nomlomo (1993) added, to say to the best of our knowledge, the only formal use of an African language in teacher education in South Africa is at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, which offers a bilingual PGCE programme at the Foundation Phase level (Grades R-3) in which isiZulu is used alongside English for tuition and assessment.

According to the arguments presented by Wildsmith-Cromarty (2013), the author encourages multilingualism in preparation for high school or college in this nation in this study. Thus, said and done, the researcher agrees to disagree with Wildsmith-Cromarty's idea and conclusions. According to the study, this should be given the required attention throughout the early years of schooling. This will be beneficial in subsequent education years. Children must be allowed, and it must be written in policy developers, to use their home tongue and explain during pedagogy in class.

According to Wei (2017), the true objective of new language learning is to enhance bilingualism and eventually multilingualism, rather than to replace children's first learned language, which means this is translanguaging, not monolingualism. Due to the country's language predicament, South African classrooms have grown linguistically super-diverse (Makalela, 2015c). Children carry with them a wide knowledge of languages that they have learnt before attending school (Sefotho, 2019). According to Section 29(2) of the 1996 South African Constitution,

> *Everyone has the right to receive an education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions, if instruction is practical (RSA, 1996).*

Wildsmith-Cromarty (2013) adds that there is very promising research provided around the country's support for multilingual translanguaging. The South African National Language Education policy (DoE, 2002) enshrines multilingualism as one of its key aims, according to the declaration that has emerged from the study. The adoption of such a strategy, however, is a long process, particularly in the educational arena, where parents, educators, and students favour the dominant, ex-colonial language (English and Afrikaans) for historical and practical reasons (Dalvit & De Klerk, 2005).

This study explores the effect in South Africa from primary to high or secondary school. It has already been established by the researcher that as students continue in their academic journey, they lose one language and become more fluent in the next. This is to say that children are language development agents who contribute to the general language change system of the country. South African education has a complicated history. For more than three centuries, Europeans utilized education to acquire and maintain authority over others in South Africa. Education was employed by Dutch and English settlers to achieve European domination (Jansen, 1990).

This domination was reinforced by the cruel Apartheid system government. People have fought back and utilized education as a vital instrument to liberate themselves throughout the country's tumultuous past. South Africans have strived to change South Africa into a democratic and just country since the fall of the Apartheid regime in the early 1990s. The goal of today's education system is to give a fair and equitable education to all students regardless of colour, class, religion, or gender (Christie, 2008).

However, the system may be a barrier for many marginalised children. As a teacher, it is your professional responsibility to grasp the issues surrounding education in the country and how they have evolved, and what efforts have been done to solve them, as well as to join the fight for an education system that enables all South Africans.

The researcher agrees with the above assertion in that education was offered to individuals to change their life and doing and to provide them with additional understanding of unknown facts. Whereas it is not always equal to all individuals, this is because the system was presented to people by missionaries who came from all over the world with an uneven attitude. The

education provided in rural schools is not the same as that provided to students in the urban space. The education provided to rural students would differ in numerous ways, including infrastructure, resources, and personnel.

South Africa is one of the most linguistically varied countries in the world. Eleven official languages are widely spoken across the nation; however, this does not indicate that they are the only languages spoken in the country. English and Afrikaans, which are predominantly spoken by white people, and nine African/Bantu languages, which are mostly spoken by black people, are among these languages. These Bantu languages have been spatially split based on pre-colonial speaker distribution (Hurst & Mona, 2017). Although most of them are very mutually intelligible, the Apartheid administration actively segregated them and codified them by various missions (Sefotho & Makalela, 2017).

These Bantu languages are divided into two groups/clusters. These are the Sotho and Nguni linguistic groups. The Sotho language cluster includes Sepedi, Setswana, and Sesotho, whereas the Nguni language cluster includes IsiZulu and IsiXhosa, as well as isiNdebele and SiSwati. In addition to the seven recognized languages, there are two more African languages, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. The borders between these languages have stayed unchanged since Apartheid, yet people have mingled to the point that it is difficult, particularly with African languages, to develop a language that can be described as a mother tongue to individuals (Makalela, 2015a, b or c).

Makalela (2015a, b, or c), in his results and discussion of the usage of translanguaging in multilingual classrooms, provides extremely supportive remarks. In response to this limiting language pedagogy, a translanguaging model has been proposed as an alternative teaching strategy for super-diverse multilingual classrooms. This model is based on language practices that break traditional linguistic codes in favour of fluid, mobile, and multiple discursive resources. This implies that schools are becoming more open environments for using many languages in the same session to maximize learning and teaching results. Translanguaging has sparked a significant amount of research that has shown favourable cognitive improvements in bilingual educational situations (Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010). However, little is known about its impact on teaching African languages to speakers of other African languages in established multilingual situations with no clear majority language and more than two languages used in the same classroom.

However, little is known about its impact on teaching African languages to speakers of other African languages in established multilingual situations where there is no clear majority language, and more than two languages are used in the same classrooms because the system does not allow it nor gives it time to be in action. Ministers, dignitaries, and authorities are more concerned with the result than with the process that leads to that conclusion. According to Hooijer & Fourie (2009), the present policy, as stated in the Education White Paper on Special Needs Education (DoE, 2001), is one of the critical issues affecting instruction in South Africa and has been a contributing factor to the establishment of a greater number of trilingual school rooms in South Africa. While inclusive education is on the global agenda, it has specific implications for South African educators due to our country's unique circumstances. The term inclusion implies change and needs restructuring and reform of the education system and each institution.

This entails the development of an education system capable of adapting to a wide range of varied needs as frequently as possible inside traditional teaching classes. It honours diversity, regardless of whether it stems from language, gender, ethnic group, community group, competitiveness, or debility. It is a constitutional right for children to attend any school in their region of residence. Furthermore, the DoE argues that instructors must be adaptable to the curriculum that authorities give to them. Furthermore, during the inequality period or error, schools in the home were defined based on the language spoken and culture (DoE, 2001: 19-20). Moreover, Makalela (2015a,) supports this argument based on the findings he researches in the paper "*Breaking African Languages boundaries*".

South Africa is an example of a country that has established multilingualism in its Constitution and made opportunities for multilingual education available (Du Plessis, 2009). The founding provisions of the Constitution granted official status to 11 languages: Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, SiSwati, Xitsonga, Tshivenda, English, and Afrikaans, and the Bill of Rights stipulates that every child be taught in any language of their choice, provided that such education is practical to carry out (RSA, 1996). These constitutional provisions have invariably generated several chances for indigenous African languages to be taught as extra languages to speakers of other African languages to improve multilingual education for pupils.

However, as can be shown, such a multilingual pedagogy is unsustainable in the absence of university teacher preparation programs (Makalela, 2015a). Learners were taught in their

mother tongue for the first four years of schooling, and they were required by law to switch to either Afrikaans or English or both. This is still true in today's schooling, where learners in the Foundation Phase are taught in their native language, and then in Grade 4 a known language is introduced (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2006: Van Schalkwyk, 1988). According to the South African Constitution, everyone has the right to basic education. It qualifies this statement further by declaring that everyone has the right to obtain education in the official languages of their choice in public educational institutions if such instruction is practically possible as stated in sections 29 (1) & (2) of the Constitution (RSA, 1996).

This has resulted in several changes in language learning and teaching in South Africa. South Africa has an estimated 43 million inhabitants and a highly rich cultural past, but only 11 official languages have been alluded to and referenced. Furthermore, there are eleven official languages included in the declaration, each with equal significance under the Constitution. To varying degrees, each of these eleven languages has its associated tradition, shared ethnicity, present spoken language, and story. The notion was that parents would need mother language instruction for their children as a kind of compensation. Today's schooling is flexible and accommodating of different vernacular languages, thanks to the post-Apartheid policies that were implemented in the nation.

Makalela, on the other hand, notices this practice of marginalizing other indigenous languages and makes a highly supportive comment about this research. Translanguaging can be a valuable, teachable method to promote multilingual pedagogy of linguistically diverse pupils, according to research that has continually questioned the validity of language borders in classroom interactions. Because of its separatist emphasis and view of language learning as a linear and sequential process, most of these studies have criticized concepts such as additive bilingualism and stable diglossia (Makalela, 2015a, b). Instead, the research supported a plural perspective in which languages are embedded in one another and integrated to represent communication activities.

However, other parents selected English because it was what they thought was best for their children, and they exercised their choice by enrolling their children in English-medium schools (Fleisch & Woolman, 2007). As a result, many classes in the population have developed a bilingual and multicultural environment. Educators in these classes are now teaching youngsters whose mother language differs from the school's LoLT. As a result, schools have had to adjust to meet the challenge of educating linguistically diverse students while

maintaining educationally acceptable standards. Martin (1997) says that such occurrences are because black intermediate parents who want their children to succeed academically regard English as a more effective tool than their home tongue. Fleisch & Woolman, (2007) discuss a series of court cases in which black parents have won the constitutional right to have their children educated in Afrikaans public schools via the medium of English. Murray (1999) agrees that there has been a major development of black learners into ex-Model C state schools since 1991.

These are schools that were formerly reserved for white children only but are now open to all. Both parents and children feel that studying English will give them an advantage. This is supported by Manzo & Zehr (2006), who confirm that numerous states, notably in Africa, the Middle East, and South America, are choosing English as a medium of instruction in schools and university institutions. The belief is that English is the language of global trade and international relations; it is considered a system of interaction on the international terrain, and communication must be economical to ensure economic survival. This way of thinking has offered many youngsters in South Africa the opportunity to study a second language.

Those instructors, who have had limited experience in multilingualism and second language education, must suddenly find creative methods to educate them because these classrooms are filled with multilingual students. The situation is exacerbated by the fact that, while some parents prefer their children to study in English rather than their native language, others oppose this practice (Nicol, 2004). Some parents feel that if their children do not study their mother language as they grow up, they will lose touch with their culture and the values that define who they are. Tiedt (2002) also points out that there are a lot of academics who do not agree with bilingual teaching or multicultural education.

Through South Africa, opposing viewpoints can be heard in numerous letters to newspapers. For example, in a letter to the Sunday World, one letter writer Maroba, (2004) advocates giving the same significance to African languages as it is done to English. This viewpoint is shared by Madiba (2003), who states that the diplomatic system surrounding South Africa understood tribal and linguistic traits as the primary foundation of culture. She goes on to say that when educators fail to consider this, the outcome is frequently a breakdown in communication between the school and its students. Multilingualism in the classroom and youngsters acquiring a second language are now a global phenomenon (McKay & Hornberger, 1996).

Richard-Amato (1988) and Damen (2003) describe other language learners in education literature separately. They frequently refer to second language learners as children who learn a second language in an individual classroom to be able to speak that language, i.e., they are not learning entirely through the medium of a second language until they reach a certain level of competence, at which point they are placed in content area classrooms and, Wildsmith-Cromarty (2013), however, noted that once South Africa was amalgamated in 1910, the government implemented an education program aimed at establishing white dominance power and control in the country's growing social, economic, and political environment. Making education obligatory for white children, implementing a more formal curriculum, expanding technical education for white children, and introducing industrial and agricultural training programs for white working-class children were all part of this. The government abandoned the earlier British policy of forcing Afrikaans youngsters to study English in favour of a bilingual strategy that placed English and Afrikaans on an equal footing in white education.

Racial separation in education was implemented in the Cape and Natal, where integrated schooling remained the official policy, albeit it was unusual (Ellwood, 1920). Furthermore, between 1915 and 1920, a new curriculum was introduced into black schools to educate black pupils for careers as industrial, agricultural, and domestic workers. While white children were trained for specialized jobs, black children were either not educated at all or were taught to be low-skilled labourers. This continued until the Apartheid era and further until 1994, resulting in uneven education on a holistic level.

The current study looks at contemporary education procedures, as well as classroom teaching and learning, and how they affect students' learning and development. The institutional processes of education, classroom teaching, and learning are examined against the backdrop of their society's development history. For example, the institutional processes of post-Apartheid South African schooling, as represented in the Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) curriculum, need modifications in instructors' and students' previous Apartheid schooling and curricular practices.

These shifts in education and classroom teaching and learning are eventually internalized or incorporated into instructors' and students' growing modes of practice and teaching and learning performance. In the new curriculum framework, for example, educators are officially expected to organize their teaching practices and their student's learning based on new concepts and principles such as learner-centeredness and the teacher as a facilitator rather than a

transmitter of knowledge, which were subsumed by the previous Apartheid curriculum framework. However, for most South African educators, the new environment of education exists as a mingling of the past, Apartheid practices, and new post-Apartheid practices inspired by the transformative principles in the OBE curriculum statement. (Makalela (2015a:278), mentions that due to monoglossic beliefs that prioritize exclusively monolingualism, bilingual children who translanguage frequently experience linguistic guilt. And, far too often, bilingual teachers hide their natural translanguaging behaviours from administrators and others because they have been taught that only monolingual modes of communication are "good" and "useful." They are aware, however, that they must translanguage to teach successfully in bilingual classrooms.

Education is one of the most potent weapons for changing and improving society. Since it is so powerful, there has frequently been debate over who should have authority over education and the best ways to teach. Education has been used both to empower people and as a political tool to oppress them. In terms of elevating people, education may assist in addressing societal inequality. Children from low-income homes, for example, who study hard and achieve useful information might utilize this knowledge to have access to better possibilities in life, according to Jansen (1990). This may be observed in areas like Soweto, a slum in the Southwest of Johannesburg where individuals can speak more than two languages fluently.

In general, the majority of South Africans are bilingual or multilingual. As a result, students in South Africa attend school knowing more than one language, resulting in bi/multilingual classrooms (Sefotho, 2019; Edwards & Ngwaru, 2011). During the Apartheid era in South Africa, the authorized procedure of bilingualism in English and Afrikaans was replaced by a policy of multilingualism embedded in the 1996 South African constitution, which distinguishes nine additional African languages: isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, and Xitsonga.

Furthermore, numerous additional guidelines and judicial tools, such as the 1996 South Africa Schools Act, the Language in Education Policy (LieP) (DoE, 1997), and the 2001 National Curriculum Statement, provide support for what is commonly referred to as mother tongue-based bilingual education in South Africa (Alexander, 2003). The reasons for this strategy have been widely researched on a global scale: pupils who have a strong foundation in their mother tongue participate more eagerly, feel more self-confident about their learning, and outperform colleagues who only function via the medium of a second language (Baker, 2011).

However, effective application necessitates the enhancement of both suitable pedagogies and learning materials. Despite a seemingly favourable policy climate, issues persist about publishers' vision and commitment to African languages. For example, (Beukes, 2005) alludes to an editorial in the Sunday Times that depicts indigenous language publishing as being on its deathbed. Recently, a Minister of Arts and Culture lamented that he had given up hope of the commercial publishing industry joining the party (Jordan, 2009).

Many of the publishers we spoke with believed that stories of their collapse have been overstated. Our goal is to determine the scope of publishing in African languages and to investigate the obstacles that limit growth in this field. These issues include a society's reliance on the education market in a society where most of the population cannot or does not buy books; the consequences of the slow implementation of bilingual education; the specific challenges faced by small publishers; and differing views on the usefulness of translation in increasing the amount of reading material in African languages. Many instructors in South Africa are appointed to teaching positions even though they are not qualified to teach any of the African languages under language legislation.

According to Garcia, Lin & May (2016), South Africa recognized 11 official languages after Apartheid and the government promotes and recognizes South Africa's diversity. As a result, it has thus been recognised that all languages should be treated equally. Each of the nine provinces has its linguistic repertoire. The Pan South African Language Board (PANSALB) and other government stakeholders wield enormous power in language promotion and equality, particularly in teaching and learning.

According to Ghosh (1999), South Africa is a multilingual society with 11 official languages. This diversity is reflected in the student population of South African higher education institutions. According to Czerniewicz and Brown (2005), 39% of higher education students and academic staff in five South African universities spoke English as their first language, while 54% spoke other languages. At UCT, English was identified as the first language of 65% of students, with the remaining 35% having home languages in other South African official languages and other foreign languages.

As a result, many South African university students study English as a second or foreign language. English is taught as a second language in most black South African schools. Students in higher education from poor educational backgrounds must consequently learn their second

or third language. A substantial body of research Cummins, 1996; Gee, (1990) has demonstrated that language and academic performance are inextricably linked, and that academic language mastery in a second language is significantly more difficult to achieve. Students studying in their second or third language are thus at a disadvantage, which is exacerbated by a weak educational background.

According to Beukes (2009), South Africa is going through a democratic transition. The worry that Beukes brings to my attention in my study is that the government language bureaus have chosen to recognize nine African-indigenous languages. The researcher has noticed and experienced that South Africa is still far from respecting different languages and that there are an uneven condition that sabotage human expression and identity. The function of African languages in education, namely mother tongue education, and African languages as mediums of learning and instruction, is a contentious subject (Heugh 2002; Murray 2002; Wolff, 2005a).

Language in education is thus vital in post-Apartheid South Africa. South Africa has received a great deal of popular and intellectual attention Alexander, (2000) South Africa recognized 11 official languages after 1994, with 9 of them being African languages. However, having said that, there is still inequity within languages. English and Afrikaans are still considered the primary languages. Beukes (2009) contends that South Africa is caught between intention and performance and that it is, therefore, necessary to thoroughly analyse and, most likely, rethink present language policies and programs. In this regard, the researcher concurs with this view of Beukes (2009) since as a country, we are held under the shadow of behind-the-scenes officials who control our education system through the government's false manner. The usage of AIL is heavily enforced in rural-township portions of the nation, whilst pupils in contemporary CBDs and metropolitan areas are encouraged to study English or Afrikaans. Martin (1997) makes a noteworthy observation in one of his publications on Apartheid schooling.

The researcher agrees with the inequity that existed throughout that innovative epidemic regime. Under Apartheid, the languages of instruction for black students were separate. Following the Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953, the Department for Native Affairs, which handled Bantu education, implemented the '50:50 policy' in 1959, in which instruction was divided between English and Afrikaans, with mother tongue teaching for non-academic courses (Union of South African, 1953). Religious instruction, music, and physical education, for example, were taught in the native tongue, while general science and practical courses like

needlework, carpentry, and painting were taught in English, Mathematics, Social Studies, Geography, and History were taught in Afrikaans.

This approach engendered animosity among black instructors and pupils, and by 1968, just 26% of Bantu schools had embraced it (National Education Policy Investigation, 1992). As black pupils protested the prominence placed on Afrikaans in the curriculum, this hostility grew. The Afrikaans and English languages were recognized as equal in the 1948 Constitution. However, Afrikaans was favoured and was utilized to forge national unity through assimilation. According to Alexander (1992), the adoption of Afrikaans as a national language is an example of a bottom-up language movement that effectively affected national policy.

It was not a pleasant result, and the use of Afrikaans as the medium of instruction in schools finally prompted the Soweto uprisings in 1976. Given this heritage, the argument over a multilingual language policy in education elicits a variety of responses in contemporary South Africa. Bilingual education relates to Afrikaans and English alone, whereas Bantu education is related to African mother-tongue education. Introducing a bilingual approach into an already under-resourced sector of the educational system raises several concerns about having even fewer resources or experiencing resource breakdown to satisfy the demand.

The affirmation of 11 official languages, nine of which are African languages, has elicited a variety of reactions, ranging from scepticism about the viability of 11 languages to cynicism that the real issue has been masked: English should be the only recognized official language, as it is in neighbouring Namibia. This contribution clarifies the language policy (Hooijer & Fourie, 2009), the educational vicissitudes brought about by the South African Constitution and the Language in Education policy have resulted in many formerly monolingual classrooms becoming bilingual in South Africa. Educators in these classes now educate youngsters whose mother language differs from the school's LoLT.

If South African language policymakers do not adhere to the principle of language parity, the country will cease to be known as a bilingual country. To this day, English and Afrikaans are still recognized as major languages and are widely accepted as a more inexpensive and convenient mode of communication. Like the Nguni grouping of languages, IsiZulu is the major or considered the simplest vernacular language; practically everyone in South Africa speaks or understands IsiZulu. IsiZulu has been identified as the most widely spoken language

in South Africa, with other varieties connected with a specific province, such as isiXhosa, being dominantly spoken in the Eastern Cape.

Many South African schools were divided into sections based on language and culture. Learners were taught in their native tongue for the first four years of school, and they were forced by law to switch to either Afrikaans or English or both (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2006) Van Schalkwyk, (1988). During the Apartheid era, this method made many learners feel discriminated against, and the legacy of so-called Bantu education is well recognized. The freedom to select the language of instruction now resides, at least in law, with the individual because of the passage of the New South African Constitution in 1996 and the political developments that have happened during the previous decade of democracy.

According to the New South African Constitution, everyone has the right to basic education. It qualifies this statement even further by declaring that everyone has the right to obtain education in the official languages of their choice in public educational institutions if such instruction is practically possible as stated in sections 29 (1) & (2) of the Constitution (RSA, 1996). This has resulted in several modifications in South African language learning and instruction.

When a language ceases to be used, it loses recognition and is supplanted by another widely used language in that region. Where is the Khoi language, Nama language, and sign language? These are minority languages that are addressed by a specific group of people and are not yet established in literature or linguistically. Policies for educating bilingual students exist all around the globe, and they may be classified into three groups. There are others that, like Japan, allow just the dominant or official language for teaching and learning and forbid pupils from acquiring any other languages.

According to Brenzinger (2017), the South African Constitution of 1996 recognizes eleven official languages on an equal footing without granting English or any other language. Classroom translanguaging, according to Makalela (2013), has been investigated in many regions of the globe as a new framework that changes the focus from cross-linguistic effect to how multilinguals intermingle linguistic elements that are allocated to a specific language (Hornberger & Link 2012a or b). Well-known studies were undertaken in UK schools to investigate the pedagogic efficacy of translanguaging in multilingual classes. Separate research by Creese & Blackledge (2010) and Wei (2011a or b) discovered that allowing children to use

their language resources fosters pleasant school experiences and maximizes pedagogic and cognitive advantages.

Madiba (2013) and Makalela (2013) conducted a new study in South Africa, demonstrating cognitive improvements in literacy and language programs at two tertiary institutions, including the University of Cape Town and the University of the Witwatersrand. Translanguaging has been expanded to cover all discursive resources used by multilingual speakers in their daily communication (Garcia & Baetens, 2009). Translanguaging research conducted outside of the classroom has focused on cognitive, environmental, and cultural components of multilingual communication (Baker, 2011).

DeNicolo (2019: 969) submit this:

> *"This dismantling of language boundaries through translanguaging has two important consequences in the classroom. First, students can engage in language practices in the classroom that are like how they use language in their homes and communities."*

2.6. The Challenges Facing Educators

Teaching African languages in a multilingual environment has grown in popularity and has evolved into a modern method of instruction. This has included stakeholders such as educators, students, parents, departments, and the community at large (Nyimbili & Mwanza, 2021). This is supported by the provided study (Prinsloo & Krause, 2019). Parents, on the other hand, are blamed for this disturbing process in education (Cromarty & Balfour, 2019). They argue that parents should send their children to well-resourced institutions so that they would obtain importance in the economic spectrum and worldwide education recognition. They even advocate indigenous language instruction as a second supplementary language to improve children's educational security.

Gobingca & Makura (2016) are discussing a claim that is looking at teaching non-mother tongue learners, in the school that sought to speak isiXhosa as the LoLT of the school. They are describing this as the way that it is difficult to have foreign nationals in the classroom that were never exposed to this language. They further on to explain that this has impacted educators negatively when it comes to producing. The study is neglecting the research; however, it will look at the situation where learners are multilingual, and educators are not multilingual. The study looks at the heteroglossic not monoglossic approach to linguistic repertoire.

Feller (2021) discusses how instructors are finding the use of translanguaging to be particularly efficient in the classroom of multilingualism. Translanguaging becomes a resource in the classroom as educators recognize the value of leveraging their students' language repertoires as resources and adjust their education to Content Integrated Learning (CLIL) principles. Translanguaging has also been described as a pedagogical method in this context. According to Garcia & Wei (2018), conventional teaching favours the external designated languages, whereas translanguaging pedagogy privileges the interior language of learners.

Unlike what Feller has stated, this triggered the purpose of the research. New linguistic features can be added to a learner's repertoire when language is used meaningfully, even if the instruction is provided in a language that the student does not comprehend. The key issue is that educators must be realistically aware and equipped to impart such a new repertory to pupils. This is achieved by employing a well-known strategy known as scaffolding. Bilingual educators have always emphasized keeping the two languages separate, one of which is English and the other, the child's vernacular. It is suggested that by tightly separating the languages, the instructor prevents cross-contamination, making it simpler for the kid to adopt a new linguistic system as he or she internalizes a specific lesson. It was considered that the inadequacy of concurrent usage was so self-evident that no study was required to verify it.

The scaffolding metaphor is often used in educational settings to refer to the aid supplied to the learner so that learning becomes practicable (Ellison 2014). Another distinguishing feature of scaffolding is that it is temporary, as the scaffold may be dismantled once the skill is attained (Ellison, 2014). Prinsloo & Krause (2016) added and emphasized what is crucial, instructors in national and regional education systems all over the globe (but not everywhere) meet linguistically and sociocultural diverse student groups (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Gardner & Martin-Jones, 2012). However, schooling systems are typically built under the pretence that education is the same for all instructors and students, with students being tested as if such tests were neutral measures of personal potential. There is frequently little recognition that schooling may be a highly varied experience based on socioeconomic, social, and linguistic variations among student and instructor groups (Krause & Prinsloo, 2016).

Ticheloven, Blom, Lesema & McMonagle (2019) observe that educators face a variety of obstacles in linguistically diverse classes. Situations in which pupils speak languages with which educators are unfamiliar pose issues and might lead to problems with language policy in the classroom. Garcia & Garcia, Lin & May (2016) reported that the lack of a clear

multilingual policy implies that schools and educators do not have guidelines on how to use or support multiple community languages in their classrooms, according to Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021). Educators code-switch, although they are not properly taught to do so for instructional purposes. A lack of defined legislation also makes it difficult for teacher educators to educate educators in effective multilingual teaching approaches.

Additionally, Gobingca & Makura (2016), argues that children from different language backgrounds can be difficult for monolingual educators. And can introduce struggles to facilitate progressive outcomes to the lesson. Educators must experiment with a variety of teaching techniques to satisfy the requirements of all students in the classroom. This might help individuals overcome issues including language use, absenteeism, and indiscipline. Using home language in primary school enhances the learner's ability and expository to the language. The driving challenge is when an educator is not incongruent with the language, he/she is conducting in the classroom.

The South African Constitution (RSA, 1996) recognizes numerous languages made the official languages and encourages residents to increase the visibility or status of indigenous languages. The value of the mother tongue as a medium of teaching was thought to increase learning by the South African Department of Education (DoE, 2002). The DBE made a very interesting move to allow pupils to be taught in their native languages in the fundamental phases. (Magwa, 2010. Moreover, Phiri, Kagunda & Mabhena (2013) argues that after they have acquired the main native language, they may now be able to speak, rather than learn additional language. This informs them to first understand their first language skills and transfer to the second learned language skills. The South African DoE suggested in 2002 that learners' mother tongue/home language be utilized for learning and teaching wherever practicable (Gobingca & Makura, 2016).

2.7. Teaching Strategies for Language Instruction

When selecting instructional techniques, educators must consider not only the group's capacity and the stage of development of most learners, but also their experience, interests, language, and prior knowledge (Dean, 1994; Hussein, 2013). Gravett and Geyser (2004) agreed with Dean on the factors that educators should consider when selecting teaching strategies for their students. They suggest the following: Learning should be viewed as an active process in which students take part. Learning is more successful when the student is actively involved and

understands what needs to be learned, and the strategies they select should benefit the classroom language repertoire. Individual variations in goals, attitudes, beliefs, and motivations all have an impact on learning. Immediate reinforcement aids in the promotion of learning. The student is provided with a range of learning opportunities.

As a result, educators are free to select from a range of teaching techniques based on their training, experiences, and situational circumstances. Gravett & Geyser (2004) and Phiri, Kagunda & Mabhena (2013) argue that a variety of teaching approaches are essential to offer all learners an equitable chance to study and demonstrate their learning. As a result, several instructional techniques may benefit children in multilingual classrooms. Educators chosen by the system are not prepared to teach African languages in a multilingual classroom (Gobingca & Makuru, 2016).

Mashinja & Mwanza (2020) discuss the usefulness of translanguaging as a pedagogical approach in their study. Discusses their results in this regard. There is a clear need for students to acquire and master an indigenous language in primary school. This will improve the learner's language acquisition and make it easier to introduce another language as they develop. In this scenario, the two scholars are using the Silozi language, a Namibian indigenous language, to demonstrate that pupils lack appropriate literacy in the language. As a result, they are less likely to be exposed to the following language, in this case, English. Totemeyer (2010) alludes to the marginalization of Namibian indigenous languages. This is the issue that this study hopes to address in the end. However, this technique for fostering multilingual education necessitates a committed instructor who is also well-versed in the language.

Active learning is another approach that educators may employ to improve student learning. It is the method through which the student participates in his or her learning. According to Faust & Paulson (1998), children during pedagogy always utilize their own learning experiences to engage the teacher in the classroom. They spend time listening and in the end, they would come and engage based on their learning repertoire. This encompasses everything from basic writing activities in which students react to lecture content to complicated group exercises in which students apply course information to real-world settings and/or new challenges. Meyers and Jones (1993) define active learning as a teaching technique that enables students to talk, listen, read, and write. Active learning appears to be a successful teaching approach since it improves

learners' listening abilities. Learning to listen and reflect might help students learn more effectively. This means that if learners are given the chance to listen and reflect, they are actively participating.

Furthermore, the use of translanguaging as a method of teaching and learning multilingualism, as well as allowing the process to be postponed. This has enabled students to bring and participate in the teaching-learning process in their original languages. Whereas the authorities may agree to disagree with this approach to teaching and learning, in its pedagogy. It can escalate the approach successfully and productively in the multilingual classroom. (Lasagabaster & Garcia, 2014), highlight how the usage of translanguaging will help the skills and talents that the educational system tries to instil in students. Educators' strategies should be inclusive and explicit because they are beneficiaries of the system (Mashinja & Mwanza, 2020).

Translanguaging was implemented primarily to enhance meaningful teaching and learning. According to Denuga (2015), professors trans langued to assist students to grasp the topic content, clarifying concepts, underlining points, and incorporating students' engagement in the subject. Shilamba also mentions in his essay that professors translangued since the bulk of students' language acquaintance was poor.

2.8. Teaching-learning of African Indigenous Languages in Multilingual Classrooms

Bilingual education, according to Cummins (2008), is a very complex, as its tools allow teachers and students to be able to make use of teaching in two or more languages in the lesson. And to be able to speak fluently and write in two languages. Garcia, Skuttnab-Kangas, and Torres-Guzman (2006) defined multilingual schools as educational efforts that take into consideration and expand on the diversity of languages and literacy practices brought to school by children and youth. This entails moving beyond acceptance or tolerance of children's languages to language nurturing through their usage in teaching and learning.

In addition to the debate submitted by Creese & Blackledge (2021), the classroom is a location where numerous language repertoires and linguistic advancements are developed under the direction of the instructor. They previously coined the phrase classroom ecology, which denotes inclusion. The approach to accommodate the effectiveness of teaching-learning

acknowledges both old ways of teaching and modern ways of teaching and is called the ecological approach to multilingual teaching. In addition to this, Lier's (2008) study of ecological approach, submits that the old existing language is reinforced by the new emergent language.

They emphasized the significance of the link between teacher and student in emphasizing this connection. The teacher engages the student in pedagogical practices aimed at developing a broad panoramic vision of self and preparing them for the multilingual sphere (van Lier, 2008). New identity positions connected with language learning processes might arise, the relationship takes place in the classroom during pedagogy, with the teacher demonstrating these possibilities to the learners of language more acquisition. Furthermore, classrooms were defined as ecological microsystems by Creese & Martin (2003, 2008). They advocated for the significance of delving into the ecological details of classroom interactional practices and connecting them to the ideologies that dominate language choice and language policy.

Tvoosy & Jelven (2019) provide an additional rationale for the necessity of learning a language. In today's global culture, many students face the problem of enrolling in an International Baccalaureate program in a language other than their native tongue. To fully encourage learners in both the hypothetical and social parts of school life, educators must recognize how this phenomenon affects teaching and learning and creative approaches to enhance language growth. Learners who are studying in a language other than their mother tongue will frequently have a wealth of information in a language other than the classroom language. This is highly essential for language development since it helps youngsters to be aware of their environment.

In the context of multilingualism, the ecology of the language is being reinforced to make and contribute to what other language was navigated, to resurrect the buried language back to life and recognition. The multilingual orientation of complementary schools outlines bilingual pedagogy as a philosophy, as well as how instructors and students practice it locally and connect. In the larger macro ideological order, which is increasingly hostile to multilingualism and multiculturalism due to its insistence on monolingualism in society, particularly in the United Kingdom (Blackledge, 2005; Rassool, 2008), complementary schools may provide an alternative (Mirza & Reay, 2000), and multilingual (Hornberger, 2005) space for institutional bilingualism. We analyse the potential for challenging the monolingual macro-order that they provide.

The pedagogical challenges surrounding parallel monolingualism have prompted practitioners and scholars to call into question the rigidity of separate bilingualism. Cummins (2005) questioned the waste of multilingual resources in mainstream settings. He stated that there is a need to identify bilingual educational practices that explicitly train for two-way cross-linguistic transfer. Anderson (2008) recently advocated for more adaptable methods of teaching to react to multilingual circumstances that do not simply fit into conventional paradigms.

Lin & Martin (2005) advocate for greater multilingual pedagogical and curriculum research. Lin & Martin (2005) and Arthur & Martin (2006) addressed the pedagogical potentials of code switching in their study. These include enhancing students' involvement, engagement, and comprehension of learning processes; building fewer formal ties between participants; communicating ideas more easily; and completing courses. They discussed the pedagogic validity of code switching and how the research may add to a teachable pedagogic resource.

Vygotsky (1976) emphasizes and agrees with Skinner's behaviourism theory of learning. Children are blank slates, and as educators, you are instilling something in them. To make this easier, educators must translate what students know in their language into a second language. Children's linguistic repertoires are more vibrant than adults. This is undoubtedly due to their interaction with a variety of circumstances. The teacher's method and style provide children with clear instructions and allow them to explore in the form of asking questions, with the instructor responding to what is asked. Educators may utilize technology as a resource to make lessons more accessible in the classroom.

However, these children are frequently not exposed to the vocabulary and concepts of the new language that is required for content comprehension. According to Cameron (2000), if they are not comprehending, they cannot be learning. Since it can take up to 7 years for learners studying in a language other than their mother tongue to achieve the same levels of academic language competency as those anticipated of learners learning in their mother tongue, the consequences for learning are significant. According to the Learning in a Language Other Than Mother Tongue Document (International Baccalaureate, 2008), a threshold level of competency in an intellectual academic language is critical for learner involvement and engagement, which is required for eventual success in an IB program.

Bilingual education classes in the USA are frequently places of belonging and security for youngsters studying English in school. Bilingual programs give teaching in the home language

to emergent bilinguals (Garcia, Kleifgen, & Falchi, 2008). However, it demonstrates and is strong evidence that all countries throughout the world continue to struggle with the standardization of other indigenous forgotten languages. Most of these programs are Spanish/English transitional bilingual education programs, which are short-term ways to teach the material in students' native languages as they learn English as a second language (Torres Guzman & Gómez, 2009).

While not all school districts offer bilingual education, when it is available, it may be the sole way for emerging bilinguals to obtain instruction in their native tongue (DeNicolo, 2019). During a Primary Years Programme (PYP) session that the researcher attended, many people seemed to be asking about ways to improve this proficiency. Many people expressed concern about how to teach the PYP to youngsters who did not know English or the language of instruction. Based on this issue, a study inquiry was done to increase teacher understanding of the tactics and procedures that may be employed to enhance the language development of young learners.

According to Mashinja & Mwanza (2020), the language policy for schools in Namibia states that learning through the medium of the mother tongue/home language is critical for concept formation as well as attaining literacy and numeracy (Ministry of Basic Education, Sport, and Culture (MBESC), 2003; Ministry of Education, Arts, and Culture (MEAC), 2016). The language of teaching in the junior primary is thus the learner's mother tongue/home language or the prevailing local language. It goes on to say, in multi-language schools, a class with a specific mother tongue/home language as a medium of learning will be formed if there is enough learners for such a class. If there are insufficient learners to form a class, the prevalent local language will serve as the medium of instruction for those students (MEAC, 2016).

According to Kavhura (2018), children who find themselves in this scenario face stigma in forming a home language-speaking group to qualify to learn their mother tongue in schools. Hoque (2016) explores and differentiates between teaching approaches and teaching tactics. The teaching approach is a well-known method of teaching that is focused on the ideas that both the children and the instructor have, and that which both are aware of is now translated and demonstrated in the classroom, in the form of pedagogy. On the other side, teaching strategy is generated and bound by government policy to achieve what a policy specified. Gill & Kusum (2016), on the other hand, see the technique and approach as a conventional practice in transmitting information to youngsters in the classroom.

The researchers list the several ways that a teacher might use pedagogy, according to Hoque (2016), the study's findings reference the first strategy. In contrast to the learner-centered method, the instructor is the sole trustworthy source of knowledge in the teacher-centered approach. Gill & Kusum (2016) agree with what has been said and discussed, indicating that it is a method in which a teacher is the source of information in front of children, and they solely rely on what is taught and explained without discussing or contesting such knowledge.

2.9. Language Engagement in Content Subjects

This section tries to investigate the voice of content subjects taught in schools about African languages and the utilisation of translanguaging. Demonstrating the flexibility of the curriculum for these subjects, we have more than one content subject taught in our schools inside the South African schooling system. This is done to prepare children for the outside world. According to my observations and experience, they are all presented in English, which has demotivated some learners to continue their studies.

This is a significant remark since we do not share the same clan all around the world, which makes us all unique. We differ in numerous aspects, including language, cultural orientation, clothes, the cuisine we consume, religious systems, and so on. However, the researcher has observed that the educational system misses the reality that the country is a varied one. That is so vital to be recognized and promoted. It will be necessary to completely redesign the South African education system to decolonize the colonisers' language and promote the equality of our identities.

According to Dicker (2015), the education system has evolved since missionaries first introduced it to Africa. This is due to the diversity of people on the African continent. And what individuals are exposed to in terms of education and learning. People throughout the world are bilingual, which means they know their mother tongue or first language as well as the first extra language they acquire in school. African languages acquired their first government-recognized status following the establishment of democracy in 1994. The researcher observes objectively that there are few materials accessible for education that are written in any Alien Language (AL). Even though AL is taught in many schools around the country, there is still a scarcity of material available.

Martin (1997) maintains that in South Africa, the curriculum is now taught in the majority first language for the first three years and in English beginning in the fourth grade about age nine years. Given the high status of English and the poor value of education in black African languages, it was previously said that there appears to be a strong attitude among some African parents and educators that schooling should begin with English. However, this might have a detrimental impact on learning. According to research, immersing young children in a second language is less effective than starting their curriculum learning in their native language and subsequently immersing them in the second language (Cummins, 1984; Genesee, 1995). There are various subjects in school that are taught by instructors and are taught in English. South Africa's education system runs from Grade R to Grade 12. However, the division is divided into four stages.

Furthermore, investigations on the effects of translanguaging on teaching and learning in Namibian schools by Simasiku (2014) and (Naha, Nkengbeza & Liswaniso (2018) found that it had a generally beneficial influence on learning and teaching in all areas. The researchers observed that it aided students in understanding challenging portions of the lesson provided and, as a result, they were able to follow the directions offered. It was easier for learners to engage when the teacher clarified what was stated in their mother tongue, especially those who struggled with English. It also helped them express themselves when they didn't know how to convey anything in English. Translanguaging also aided educators in managing their classrooms.

From a pragmatic perspective, this situation may be understood as a process in which the scientific content moves on in a continuum between the students' experience and interest in everyday discourse and the subject matter knowledge in academic discourse. Dewey (1902) terms this process a continuous reconstruction, which implies moving 'the child's present experience into the organised bodies of truth. Consequently, the science classroom may be described as an encounter in which several discursive languages are in use and being negotiated.

Simasiku (2014), on the other hand, stated that the Language Policy did not enable instructors to use language as the circumstances demanded, but rather that the Language Policy demanded that educators agree to its guidelines. According to Simasiku, this scenario compelled instructors to use English in the presence of a ministerial official, but once the official left the classroom, they returned to the language that accommodated and facilitated teaching and

learning. Simasiku claimed in this regard that Language classrooms should become learning environments where learners actively engage and understand the content that they are taught in a language that they are familiar with.

According to Lee (2005), science educators frequently demonstrate a lack of experience and professional expertise regarding how scientific education should be organized to serve the requirements of multilingual students in improving their linguistic and conceptual knowledge. According to Turkan & Liu (2012), from the perspective of a second language learner, if students do not have the necessary language skills in the language of instruction, they frequently have difficulty gaining access to the science content, which prevents them from demonstrating their actual knowledge.

This may result in an overemphasis on students' reading and writing abilities rather than on their scientific knowledge growth. Furthermore, Hajer & Meestringa (2014) highlight the clear risk that topic material and subject-specific language may become too simplified, further disadvantage in this student population. Several studies in the field of language acquisition, on the other hand, show that second language learners who are allowed to use their first language as a resource in subject-related learning situations develop conceptual subject knowledge to a greater extent than students who are not given this opportunity (Baker, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

In essence, the debate offered in this section centred on numerous thematic elements, looking at how they will elevate the flow of the research. We have thoroughly explored the following: a precise definition of translanguaging. We spoke about what it is and how it may be utilized, and we recognized its approach in many multilingual classes in South African schools. We ended by agreeing with numerous academic scholarly papers that it is when one is teaching in one language and translating it to another for the benefit of the rest of the youngsters in the auditorium. Many academics, including Wei, (2017); Nagy, (2018); Deumert, (2016); Makalela, (2015a, b or c), concurred and raised their voices in support of the notion of translanguaging. They are viewed as a blank slate; if humans speak a language, even if it is not their native tongue, they will capture it and, over time, will utter portions of the heard spoken language Piaget (1964). From a global perspective on other continents, African Indigenous Languages are treated equally with other foreign languages in African countries (English say). For example, in China, Mandarin is the language for everything: teaching, learning, and business. This is because many people there speak the language well. Academics and

instructors have been confronted with an ongoing challenge in their separate classrooms, where pupils would employ their familiar language for articulation. They sank every phrase they came across while they were children.

2.10. Theoretical Perspectives

This section examines the empirical frameworks/perspectives of the three theories. Nagy (2018) created the term translanguaging theory; Vygotsky (1981) coined the term behaviourism theory, and Skinner coined the term behaviourism theory (Skinner, 1940; 1950). The research was repeated on all the previously listed theories. All these proposed theories target the same perspective in classroom teaching and learning of youngsters. These empirical frameworks sound similar in their feelings about language development.

This section explores the definition of a theory, translanguaging theory, criticism of translanguaging theory, Vygotskian theory, criticism of Vygotskian theory, behaviourism theory, criticism of behaviourism theory, and chapter conclusion. The key component that has driven this study is the belief that a particularly fascinating approach to teaching in a multilingual classroom is required (Nyimbili & Mwanza, 2021).

In this study, the theoretical perspective serves as the prism through which the hypothesis is analysed to establish its validity Creswell (2009). According to Chigona & Licker (2008), the four basic benefits of using a theoretical perspective in research studies are as follows: allowing the researcher to make predictions; systematically defining research procedures; providing the researcher with explanatory power; and allowing the researcher to test and improve the theory's applicability.

2.10.1. Translanguaging Theory

Back in the classical era, school educators would teach in the language that had been recognized and approved by the school governing body, which led Cen Williams in the 1980s to note that teaching and learning were happening at the same time Nagy (2018). While Wei (2017) writes, crediting Nagy as the creator of the created idea of teaching utilizing two languages in one class known today as translanguaging. Due to how it has been used, the concept of translanguaging has been interpreted as code-switching or code-mixing, and Wei (2017)

defines it as an approach used unaware in teaching and learning, through all walks of life where students', learners are analysing what they are exposed to in the time.

Corpus rising suggests that art provides the idea that any somewhat unconventional technique may be labelled as Translanguaging. There is some debate on whether translanguaging may be used to refer to a wide range of trilingual and multimodal behaviours, replacing terminology like code-switching, code-mixing, code-meshing, and crossing (Nyimbili & Mwanza, 2021).

Many may doubt the need for the phrase, as well as the other terms, criticizing it as a populist neologism and part of the organization of the postmodern, potentially post-truth, period. The primary goal of this article is to explain the theoretical motivations for using the term Translanguaging and its added value, to respond to some of the questions raised by researchers who are either sympathetic or critical of the term, and to clear up some of the confusion caused by its widespread use (Wei, 2018).

Furthermore, translanguaging is a successful pedagogical method in a range of educational circumstances when the school language or language of instruction differs from the learner's language. According to Garcia & Baetens (2009) and Creese & Blackledge (2015), it has demonstrated significant empowerment for both student and teacher, in shifting power relations, and focuses on the process of teaching and learning on producing meaning, increasing experience, and growing identity.

The study, therefore, leaned towards the use of this theory, as well as two additional theories, namely, Vygotskian and Behaviourism theory, to assist them to achieve the study's key aims and conclusions. Furthermore, Krause (2019) discusses how translanguaging is not the only word that aims to move beyond code-switching descriptions of diverse language practices. Rather, as Canagarajah points out, the theorization of this technique of translanguaging is taking place in several disciplines under various titles (Canagarajah, 2011: 2).

Metrolingualism (Pennycook & Otsuji, 2015), polylingual languaging (Jorgensen, 2008; Jorgensen et al., 2011), and code-meshing (Michael-Luna & Canagarajah, 2007) are a few examples. The corpus of work dealing with the subject is rapidly developing and is beginning to be categorized under a new study paradigm, translingualism. Under the umbrella of translingualism, Canagarajah recognizes various developing research orientations.

> *Translingualism views verbal resources as interacting synergistically to generate new grammar and meanings beyond their separate structures, in contrast to traditional understandings of language relationships in multilingualism, which postulates languages maintaining their separate structures and identities even in contact. The prefix 'trans' denotes a method of viewing communication processes as transcending independent languages, according to this concept (Canagarajah, 2018: 31).*

The word translanguaging was coined in the 1980s in Wales to enhance the importance of Welsh in education, in response to the language's historical marginalization as less prestigious than English in schools. The word here referred to the use of English and Welsh additively in the classroom, such as in exercises where the input is in one of the languages and the learners' output is in the other (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012; Williams, 1996). According to Williams,

> *"The process of receiving information in one language (e.g., English) and using it in another language is known as translanguaging (e.g., Welsh). Before you can use that information effectively, you must first thoroughly understand it." (Williams, 1996).*

In this early stage, translanguaging is therefore attempting to overcome the tight assignment of just one language per classroom activity. However, while analysing linguistic activities, the independent formation of languages was not questioned. Languages were split along input and output lines, and speakers' minds were considered as having a home language and a first/second language (Williams, 1996). At this moment, translanguaging was a description or prescription of a didactic method, not a descriptor for language practices in general. This changes when Garcia encounters the word in the context of bilingual education in the United States.

2.10.2. Criticism of Translanguaging Theory

Some argue that translanguaging education places too much emphasis on students' bilingualism, while others are concerned that it may jeopardize the diglossia arrangements and language isolation that have historically been established as vital for language maintenance and growth. The employment of translanguaging in education has sparked the most attention, as well as the most debate. Many educators focusing on language education, the development of extra languages for all, and minority languages have adopted translanguaging theory and methodology.

Some instructors are tired of working on translanguaging. It questions dominant conceptions of bilingualism/multilingualism and bilingual development to undermine the hierarchies that have delegitimize minority language practices. Furthermore, William's (1994) and Baker's

(2001) concepts of translanguaging suggest that it may not be a language reality, but rather a best practice in the instructional process. They make it a tool that is not required to be used in academic teaching and learning. And it does not shape or assess learners' cognitive abilities in the subject matter being taught in the classroom. Furthermore, it does not pay attention to formal acquisition.

According to Wei (2017), the existence of translanguaging serves a very specific purpose. The true objective of learning new languages is to become bilingual and multilingual, not to replace the learner's L1 and become another monolingual, thus the bilingual, rather than monolingual, speaker is rarely utilized as the model for teaching and learning. Baker (2001); Williams (1994), defined translanguaging as a pedagogical practice, implying that this theory cannot be apparent without teaching and learning, and it is mostly depicted in the classroom setting during pedagogy. Because instructors are not as multilingual as students throughout teaching, the language repertoires in the classroom may be confused.

2.10.3. Vygotsky's Theory

Vygotsky's (1978) theory of child development revolves around the idea of mediation. All human mental processes, according to Vygotsky, are mediated by tools, but these are psychological tools such as language, signs, and symbols. Humans are not born with these tools, any more than they are born with labour tools. Human culture creates these skills; which youngsters learn through interpersonal dialogue with adults or more experienced peers. These psychological skills, once learnt and internalized, come to mediate children's mental processes. To distinguish them from the lower mental processes with which children are born, Vygotsky referred to human mental processes that are mediated by tools as higher mental processes (Yuriy, 2003).

Furthermore, their attention is involuntary and controlled by external stimuli. Others guide and regulate children's behaviour through language through interpersonal discussion and joint action with adults and peers. Controlling verbal abilities are internalized and come to manage the attention of children. As a result, the children learn self-control and voluntary attention. Because of his emphasis on mediation as a primary predictor of children's development, Vygotsky was able to provide an original interpretation of children's development that differed greatly from nativist, behaviourist, or constructivist views of child development. The primary

flaw in this paradigm was that Vygotsky did not fully elucidate the role of children's actions in mediation.

To be sure, Vygotsky was far from regarding children as passive consumers of psychological tools supplied by adults during interpersonal interactions; nonetheless, while discussing children's development at various stages. Vygotsky frequently confined this topic to an examination of children's learning of linguistic skills during interpersonal contact (Vygotsky, 1934; 1986) notion of scientific idea acquisition as instrumental in the development of school-age children. By itself, such an analysis leads to the conclusion that whatever is of major importance for the development of individual consciousness is introduced into it through social consciousness rather than being the result of children's activity oriented toward the external world (Leontiev & Luria, 1968: 353).

The thesis of Vygotskian is that the learning of psychological tools entails not only the acquisition of linguistic information (such as signs and symbols) but also the mastery of relevant procedures (Galperin, 1957; Galperin, Zaporozhets & Elkonin, 1963; Leontiev, 1935; 1983). For example, scientific notions that students learn will only come to mediate their mental processes if they are supported by applicable procedures.

According to Leontiev (1935; 1983:347), for a child to create the greatest generalization, that is, a concept, a system of psychological processes related to this highest generalization must be developed in him. The processes pertinent to Archimedes' law, for example, include methods of determining the density of various things and comparing these densities to the density of water. Similarly, processes pertinent to the notion of perpendicular lines are techniques of determining within a given pair of lines those properties that are required and sufficient for associating or not associating this pair of lines with the concept of perpendicular lines.

The Vygotskian notion of the universal genetic law of cultural evolution is emphasized by Muthivhi & Broom (2008: 91). That is, every psychological function, such as conceptual comprehension, learning, thinking, memory processes, and language development, may be seen as part of the cultural evolution of human psychology. This hypothesis stands out because it has a clear description and an intelligible method of explaining why learners know more than one language. Children's environments have an impact on their learning at school; others at school speak English, while parents and family speak vernacular.

Moreover, as to how Vygotsky described it, this mediation theory is a literary tendency to what this study intends to achieve by the conclusion. The following is a Vygotskian perspective on mediation. A youngster is included in a shared activity by an adult or a more experienced peer. In the framework of this activity, the adult provides the kid with psychological tools, such as verbal information and methods related to this knowledge, allowing the child to solve a certain class of issues. Initially, the kid employs these instruments with the assistance of an adult. Gradually, the adult delegated more and more duties for tool usage to the youngster. The adult also assists the youngster in internalizing the tools. As a result, what began as a joint child-adult engagement mediated by external tools becomes the child's independent activity mediated by internal tools.

Any function in a child's cultural development appears twice, or on two levels, according to Vygotsky (1982: 163). It manifests first on the social level, then on the psychic plane. It first arises as an inter-psychological category between individuals, and subsequently as an inter-psychological category inside the children. This explains why students answer in their original tongues in the classroom during tuition time. Their psychological awareness of certain items as well as their awareness of their surroundings. Human social engagement is defined as practice, classroom instruction and learning, and their psychological effects. The examination of such activity considers its origins in social interactions as well as its transition into the individual's interior psychological plane (Muthivhi & Broom, 2008: 91).

Vygotsky (1978) expands on this notion by stating that children mediate. Children participate in a developing activity under the supervision of an adult, and after the activity, the children will be able to do the activity on their own. The adult is now beginning to act as an observer, correcting when required. This mediation paradigm assists youngsters in becoming linguistically aware. Children from the neighbourhood have access to it and can stand on their own, and their level of expression is infused. While the elderly was engaged in modelling that action, youngsters were tabula rasa clean brains, and everything the elderly person was doing was written into their thoughts. Children seize whatever is available in their environment. Children's environmental awareness causes them to understand the following: Language, colour, music, geometry, space, voices, statues, mobilities, sizes, and motions are only a few examples.

> *"Tools mediate all human mental processes, but these tools are psychological in nature, such as language, signs, and symbols. Humans are*

> *not born with these tools; any more than labour tools are born with them. Human culture develops these skills, which children learn through interpersonal interactions with adults or more experienced peers. Once learned and internalized, these psychological skills come to mediate children's mental processes." Vygotsky (1978).*

Piaget (1964) contends that children learn as they get older. He devised what is known as staged development, and he divides these stages according to the ages of the kid. The professor thinks that when youngsters develop, their minds should naturally adjust to the age they are entering. And, because of their previous age experience, kids might progress in terms of their learning. Furthermore, he agrees to disagree with the notion that children are born unaware. As a result, phases of development.

2.10.4. Criticism of Vygotskian Theory

Based on the hypothesis conduct, the theory has discovered its consequences and support, most likely in the international writing sphere. As a result, that cannot be the only thing highlighted in the South African context. Some international and African nations have many languages, but only one is used for teaching and learning. Mashinja & Mwanza (2020) have gained authority and respect because of that language's rise to prominence in that state. Children's effectiveness and growth will not be correct and in accordance with the results of a notable researcher Vygotsky. Vygotsky's theory is appreciative of the study, pending if no further critiques were undertaken into the theory. Children's births alter throughout time, and various parents are engaged in the toxicity of other substances that have a cognitive impact.

According to Scott (1998), writing a critique of Vygotsky's ideas has been enormously important in the creation of culturally oriented or discursive psychology. In fact, Vygotsky's sociocultural perspective on development and learning has become increasingly prominent in educational circles over the last ten years or so, particularly in North America, where scholars such as James Wertsch have contributed significantly to interpreting the Vygotskian position and bringing it to the attention of educational researchers.

When studying how students create new understandings or meanings in scientific classrooms, the Vygotskian viewpoint leads to an analytical approach that recognizes the relevance of interpsychological plane interactions and the character of teacher-student discourse in the classroom. According to the Vygotskian viewpoint, the teacher, or another knowing figure,

plays an important role in mediating and 'passing on' existing public information to pupils, such as scientific knowledge. Bruner (1985) emphasizes the importance of the teacher's role, stating:

> *"Vygotsky's goal is to discover how aspirant members of a culture learn how to interpret the world through their tutors, their culture's vicars. That world is symbolic in the sense that it consists of conceptually organized, rule-bound belief systems about what exists, how to achieve goals, and what should be valued. There is no way, no how, for a human to control that world without the assistance and support of others, because that world is made up of people." (Bruner, 1985:32).*

2.10.5. Behaviourism Theory

In their investigation, Lightbown & Spanda (2006: 10) used the following methods, according to Skinner's behaviourist viewpoint, as children get older, they will mimic the language used by others around them. They may develop new vocabulary by listening to their surroundings and, as a result, begin to construct lexical morphemes (Lightbown & Spanda, 2020:52). Language, according to behaviourism, is a taught behaviour: a collection of patterns or habits. Adopting the patterns of a certain behaviour, which is the linguistic system, is required for learning a language, and the formation of this new linguistic system is controlled by reactions to external stimuli. Linguistic acquisition, according to behaviourists, entails toddlers acquiring habits by replicating the sounds and language patterns they encounter in their immediate surroundings.

Children's habits develop because of the reinforcement they receive from their surroundings. They establish habits of accurate language usage when they practice the sounds and patterns of the language at their disposal and receive encouragement and reinforcement from their immediate surroundings (Lightbown & Spada, 1993). According to Skinner (1957), language arises from a bodily urge to talk and serves to a goal, and parental reinforcement is an important element of the process. Skinner (1957) wanted to enhance efficiency in language instruction through his study on L1 acquisition, and because he saw language learning as habit formation, he researched observable behaviours in language learners. Skinner developed this idea in the 1940s and 1950s.

This notion was immensely popular and influential, particularly at the United Nations (UN). This idea, as widely accepted, was/is still relevant even in the late many decades near millenniums. It is an idea that is well-rooted in the psychological inducement of the child as he or she grows up. As a result, encouraged by their surroundings, the youngsters would continue

to imitate and practice the noises they had heard. Later, they can produce their sounds and patterns, until they are corrected to form a sound language. This theory goes on to explain how learners, or rather youngsters, are highly skilled at inventing words and creating ambiguous sentences.

When a child is born into a linguistic community, he or she feels compelled to converse with members of that group (Chambers, 2009: 165). This sensation promotes the need to replicate the sounds and patterns in the environment, and this desire is satisfied when caregivers make utterances that the infant imitates. According to Skinner (1957), positive reinforcement is given to the child's imitations utterances if they mirror those of the caregiver, and positive reinforcers include pleasurable experiences such as incentives or praise. However, if the child's imitations do not reflect those of his or her caregiver, negative feedback is given to stimulate the creation of good language habits, which are then favourably rewarded. These rewards and feedback aid in the acculturation of the novice learner into the world of new language behaviour and are utilized until the novice learner adheres to the standards of this new verbal culture (Littlewood, 1984).

Behaviourism received support in second language acquisition teaching approaches that intended to inculcate new habits and linguistic patterns in first language learners. Instructors identified areas of difficulty for language learners and adjusted their teaching materials and approaches to meet those needs. Errors, according to this viewpoint, were a serious indicator of failure or non-learning and, as such, were to be remedied promptly (Bell, 1981). Reinforcement occurred in the form of input from regulated, formal instruction, as well as prizes for successful responses from learners. Impersonations or exercises by learners, either written or spoken, were used in this manner until the language learning habits were firmly formed.

Furthermore, youngsters take notice of charts made available to them and begin to associate words they learned at a young age, as well as collect morphemes heard in the environment and construct their lexicon spoken the most and that becomes their home language. They may generate new vocabulary by listening to their environment and, as a result, begin to build lexical morphemes. Second, youngsters take note of charts that are made available to them and begin to correlate terms they learned in their early years. Since the researcher discovered by reading and seeing students, particularly in the primary school where I teach, learners are extremely

bad at reading, writing their native languages, and failing implication while learning. As a result, students have been impacted.

According to the researcher's observations and prior experience as a teacher, instructors who teach African languages are not multilingual; instead, they are bilingual or trilingual. They frequently do not understand the cultural vernacular language in which they are lecturing. Children learn their first language, then their second language, and finally their third language; as long as they are exposed to a multilingual culture, they learn, adapt, and construct formal/informal language. What would cause this to occur? Piaget would add to or expand on this by stating that children learn via the space they occupy the most, coming up with diverse linguistic techniques and forming new terms.

Language, according to behaviourism, is a taught behaviour: a collection of patterns or habits. Adopting the patterns of a certain behaviour, which is the linguistic system, is required for learning a language, and the formation of this new linguistic system is controlled by reactions to external stimuli. Linguistic acquisition, according to behaviourists, entails toddlers acquiring habits by replicating the sounds and language patterns they encounter in their immediate surroundings. Children's habits develop because of the reinforcement they receive from their surroundings. They establish habits of accurate language usage when they practice the sounds and patterns of the language at their disposal and receive encouragement (reinforcement) from their immediate surroundings (Lightbown & Spada 1993) When a child is born into a linguistic community, he or she has the urge to converse with that community (Chambers, 2009: 165).

This sensation promotes the need to replicate the sounds and patterns in the environment, and this desire is satisfied when caregivers make utterances that the infant imitates. According to Skinner (1957), positive reinforcement is given to the child's imitations (utterances) if they mirror those of the caregiver, and positive reinforcers include pleasurable experiences such as incentives or praise. However, if the child's imitations do not match those of his or her caregiver, they are given negative feedback to foster the creation of acceptable language habits, which are then favourably rewarded. These rewards and feedback aid in the acculturation of the beginner learner. Littlewood is of the view that entering the realm of new linguistic behaviour is utilized until the novice learner adapts to the standards of this new language culture.

According to Skinner (1957), language arises from a bodily urge to talk and serves to a goal, and parental reinforcement is an important element of the process. Skinner (1957) wanted to enhance efficiency in language instruction through his study on L1 acquisition, and because he saw language learning as habit formation, he researched observable behaviours in language learners. Bandura's (1965) argument in behaviourism: with its emphasis on experimental procedures, concentrates on factors we can watch, measure, and alter, and avoids everything subjective, internal, and inaccessible; mental. The normal strategy in the experimental method is to modify one variable and then assess its effects on another. All this boils down to a personality theory that states that one's environment influences one's personality.

Furthermore, Nabavi, (2012:20) provides an intriguing case about behaviourism. This hypothesis is founded on the premise that we learn from our social interactions with others. People adopt comparable behaviours through witnessing the behaviours of others. People absorb and mimic the behaviour of others after witnessing it, especially if their observational experiences are good or contain incentives connected to the observed behaviour. Imitation, according to Bandura, entails the real duplication of observed motor movements (Bandura, 1977).

Nabavi goes on to explain semi-theory under behaviourism based on the following experiment and comes up with observation tactics known as Social Learning Theory (SLT). Of the hundreds of research Bandura was involved in, one group stands out above the rest- the bobo doll studies. He shot a video of one of his students, a young woman, beating up a bobo doll. A bobo doll is an inflated, egg-shaped balloon creature with a weight in the bottom that causes it to bob back up when knocked down. It may now have Darth Vader painted on it, but it was just known as Bobo Doll back then. The lady struck the clown while yelling ‘sockeroo’. She kicked it, sat on it, and hit it. It with a little hammer, and so on, while yelling different obnoxious remarks. Bandura presented his film to groups of kindergartners, who, predictably, loved it. They were then allowed to go outside and play. Of course, there were numerous observers with pens and clipboards, a brand-new bobo doll, and a few little hammers in the playroom.

And you might have predicted what the onlookers saw as well, a swarm of tiny toddlers beating the daylights out of the bobo doll. They pounded it while yelling ‘sockeroo’, kicked it, sat on it, smashed it with little hammers, and so on. In other words, they copied the young girl in the picture, and they did it quite well. At first glance, this may appear to be a pointless experiment, however, examine the following: These children altered their behaviour without previously

being rewarded for similar behaviour! While this may not appear unusual to the typical parent, teacher, or casual watcher of children, it did not fit with normal behaviourist learning theory. He referred to the phenomena as observational learning or modelling, and his hypothesis was widely accepted. Referred to as social learning theory Children require a formal setting in which to rectify the current knowledge in their cognitive systems.

2.10.6. Criticism of Behaviourism Theory

In any case, psychological children are born with the ability to know and interpret their parents' language. It is forbidden and unclear that the youngster only learns the language from his or her surroundings. No, their psychological cognitive dissonance made them conscious that they were born of amaXhosa, or Afrikaner, and that they will know their language coined, native tongue from now on. This is referred to as a birth language. This is taken from Alfred Adler's personality theory, in which infants are conscious of their identity and who they are in terms of self-belonging.

2.11. Chapter Conclusion

This argument is supported by these three ideas. All three of them are interested in language study and acquisition. In these experiments, the researcher discovers a strong and vivid correlation. Translanguaging theory is supported by Vygotskian and Behaviourism theory to be put into practice. As the researcher, I'm of the view that if none of these two ideas existed, we would not have this hypothesis coined by Li. In any case, the two theories are heading in opposite directions. Their focus is on youngsters learning the language, and relevant variables are involved in the learning process.

For starters, Vygotskian theory is more about children being aware of their environment and acting as mediators for the actions of adults. They can simply imitate whatever is demonstrated in front of them. In the absence of the modeller, children's memories will retain it and do it later. Furthermore, these youngsters are known to be a tabula rasa (clean mind), where you may write something. i.e., their mind is like a blackboard, where you can write something, and it will be stored/ maintained till you delete it. This is how their brains store knowledge. Second, Skinner argues in behaviourism that youngsters may not talk until they are instructed to. They are grownups' mimics and can always remember that. Here, children learn through play and observation.

In the third chapter, the researcher wishes to create a map that will assist him in getting to the bottom of the research's fundamental challenge. The qualitative research design will be used by the researcher. This chapter will explain why it picked that design in detail by illustrating it with features that are like it. Furthermore, it will provide a clear image of sampling selection and explain why such sampling is employed in data collection.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

The preceding chapter provided a review of the literature on translanguaging. The second part of the chapter was a review of literature on theoretical frameworks related to translanguaging. The theoretical frameworks also serve as a model for future research on translanguaging. As a result, the current chapter builds on these and presents the methods used in the current study.

Myburgh, (2015) states that research methodology may be described as the overall research strategy that plans and structures how research is to be conducted and, among other things, to find approaches to be employed. It is thus critical to plan how the research will be performed and understand how the questions we seek to answer dictate the data collection methods. This chapter provides an overview of the research design and plans to discuss which design will be used in this investigation. Furthermore, the chapter explores the different methodologies and highlights and motivates for the methodological approaches employed in this study.

To answer the research questions (which are repeated below for ease of reference), we need to understand the motivations for selecting specific methods:

- What methods does a teacher employ while teaching African languages?
- In what ways do teachers use or incorporate the most widely spoken languages in their teaching?
- What is the role of the teachers' home language in facilitating learning in a multilingual classroom?
- To what extent do teachers apply the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) when teaching African languages in a multilingual classroom?

This chapter, therefore, describes the procedures followed in answering these questions. It gives an overview of the processes that were followed, and the methodology used in collecting data for the research. The next sections discuss various methods and provide a motivation for why a qualitative approach was a suitable approach for this study.

3.1. Research Design

According to Creswell (2009), a research design is a method and framework for research in which judgments are formed from broad assumptions to more detailed data analysis. In the same line of thought, the discussion of various research methods provides a broad look whereas the selection of a particular method to answer research questions presents that narrow and detailed analysis of data. The research design is therefore integral to planning how data is collected, managed, analysed, and presented.

According to Salubi, (2015: 68-69), a research design refers to the overall strategy chosen to integrate the different elements of the study coherently and logically thereby ensuring the researcher effectively addresses the research questions. Research design can be seen as the glue that holds the research project together. Its purpose is to structure the research and to show all major parts of the research project. The design has two major aspects. First is the exact specification of what is to be determined. Secondly, it is to determine the best way to do exactly that. Following on the two major aspects of research design, Hagan (2000) explains that the research design should address issues flowing from the problem formulation and other critical issues identified for observation. The next section focuses on the second aspect of the research design.

3.2. Qualitative Research Methods

The qualitative and quantitative research methodologies are the most utilized research methods. Since this study employed qualitative research methods, the focus will be on qualitative research methods associated with the current study. Adi Bhat (2019) describes qualitative research as a means of collecting data using conversational approaches. Creswell (2009) on the other hand, defines qualitative research design as a method that tries to understand the attitudes and views of study participants by analysing the breadth and depth of certain sentiments. In addition, Myburgh, (2015:87), describes the qualitative methodology as a method that enables the researcher to collect thick data which, in turn, provides both descriptions and a thorough understanding of actions and events. Qualitative research presumes that individuals collect comprehensive and detailed data through everyday talks with others (Gubrium & Sankar, 2005).

Babbie & Mouton (2001: 53), adds that a qualitative research methodology involves the studying of human action from the insider's perspective. This approach is therefore regarded as a naturalistic approach to social inquiry. Creswell (2003) concurs with Babbie & Mouton (2001) when he adds that qualitative research has a multi-method orientation that includes naturalistic methodologies in its topics. This means that qualitative researchers investigate occurrences in the natural world to comprehend or explain phenomena based on what individuals bring to them.

A qualitative study attempts to understand people's perceptions, perspectives and understanding of a particular situation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001; Marshall, 2006). Qualitative research typically relies on four methods for gathering information: participation in the research setting, direct observation, in-depth interviewing and analysing of documents and material culture (Marshall, 2006: 97). By using qualitative data collection methods, the researcher obtains a richness and depth of data, gathered from complex and multi-faceted phenomena in a specific social context (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis & Bezuidenhout, 2014: 173).

In terms of data analysis, inductive reasoning is used in qualitative research design. When data is collected, correlations and patterns are identified by evaluating the data, analysing it, and interpreting it using induction, abstraction, and generalization (De Vos, 1998). When data is obtained from an interview transcript, a researcher gets snippets that illustrate participants' investigation of their personal experiences in their native language. This creates descriptive data in the participants' written or spoken language and represents the participants' views, values, attitudes, and cognitive processes behind the phenomena (Creswell, 1994).

Although there are disadvantages of using qualitative data collection and analysis methods, there are also advantages. Qualitative data collection methods offer individuals greater knowledge of behaviour, and a vast amount of data on people and circumstances in real life. Qualitative research is well suited for delivering factual and descriptive information since it is based on the collecting of non-digital raw material, such as text and images utilized as tools by the researcher. According to Wolcott (1994), the importance of qualitative research is that it provides the researcher with the time, space, and tools to describe, analyse, interpret, and clarify experience as it is lived and constituted in awareness, as well as to assist researchers in understanding participants' perspectives, complex and under-researched areas

Since the methods allow for descriptions, they become very flexible in terms of analysis and interpretation. This flexibility and openness also allow access to a variety of realities and information, making it easier to understand exactly what is being investigated (Brink, 1996). In order to understand the motivation for selecting qualitative methods, we first need to understand the advantages and disadvantages of these approaches.

3.3. Qualitative Research Methods: Advantages and Disadvantages

There are many advantages and disadvantages associated with qualitative methods. The decision to choose a particular method is mostly dependent on the aims and objectives as well as the questions of the study. This section will focus on the methods that have been utilised in this study: namely, ethnographic participant observation, in-depth interviews, and questionnaires.

According to Myburgh's (2015) ethnographic observation allows the researcher to be a part of the study. In this way the researcher can bring out the concealed information to the surface. Ethnographic observations involve a non-probable technique whose findings are trustworthy and useful to the reader. The researcher has the entire field at his disposal to come up with explicit results that are not off-limits. The advantage here is that it becomes possible to understand other patterns such as participants' attitudes that cannot be captured through other methods (such as questionnaires). Furthermore, Salubi (2017) adds that as qualitative research is a descriptive study focusing on seeing and describing events as they occur, it captures all the richness of daily behaviour because it is conducted in the natural environment of the phenomenon being examined.

Additionally, in the gathering and analysis of data, qualitative research stresses language and humanity rather than quantification, and the data are conveyed in words, information about feelings, values, and attitudes. Qualitative research is frequently related to the notion that social existence is the result of social interaction and connections, and that actions define the social environment (Babbie, 2010). This means that the researcher is in a better position to generate new information, based on the observations. Since the observation often has no structure, it is somewhat treated as open-ended questions, therefore allowing the researcher to capture minute details that cannot be captured otherwise.

On the downside, Salubi (2017: 74) offers a very fascinating method that many researchers may neglect while implementing a qualitative technique. Since ethnographic observations are open-ended the weaknesses is that the researcher may deviate from the initial aims of the study. This is sometimes seen because of emotional participation in the activity, and this might have a detrimental impact on the nature of the major purpose in attaining the study's framework. Since this is an ethnographic technique, researchers communicate with and agree with the respondent, which has a detrimental impact on the study's findings. As a result, investigating causation between diverse study events becomes difficult.

Coupled with deviation from the principal aims of the study, Cassell & Symon (1994) alerts researchers who use qualitative methods to the issue of consistency and dependability. According to Cassell and Symon (1994), higher degrees of researcher experience is required to elicit the sought information from the respondent. Without this skill, probing strategies employed by the researcher may result in lack of consistency and dependability. This lack of consistency may result in inconclusive results that cannot be generalised to larger populations and are very difficult to replicate.

Finally, although researchers often believe that everything will go as planned, ethnographic observations and interviews may be very time consuming. If a participant withdraws from participation, it means the researcher may need to reschedule more sessions (Falc, 2013). In addition, since ethnographic observations and interviews enable the gathering of information which is derived from real-world settings and the phenomenon of interest unfolds naturally (Paton, 2001), this also means that the data may be tainted by researcher's biases which is an outcome of collecting data in natural settings. Also, since the data is seen and collected through the lens of the researcher, only the researcher can draw the conclusions since such studies may not be replicated.

3.4. Qualitative Research Methods Employed

Amongst many advantages of this qualitative research methods, Mouton & Marais (1990) emphasise that instead of a single necessary major explanation, when using qualitative research methods, the researcher generally obtains many interpretations and explanations. The qualitative study approach allows researchers to gain a more comprehensive knowledge. Furthermore, qualitative research methods allow access to knowledge of social phenomena in cultural, social, and contextual contexts without imposing pre-existing assumptions on the environment. Ultimately, the use of qualitative methodology enables the gathering of information which is derived from real-world settings and the phenomenon of interest unfolds naturally (Patton, 2001: 39).

Before embarking on the study, I designed a plan including procedures and techniques that helped with the processing, analysis, and interpretation of the data for the study in such a way that maximum control would be exercised over factors that could interfere with the validity of the research results (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). The review of different methodological approaches was crucial in the planning of the data collection and analysis procedure. Given the research questions of the current study, and the advantages of using qualitative research methods, we adopted a qualitative research methodology that is best suited for the nature and purpose of the current study. This strategy not only assists a researcher in understanding what participants think but also why they think that way. As indicated in the preceding paragraphs, I used qualitative research methods that allow for an insider's perspective. In addition, the methods employed allowed for gathering of information in a naturalistic environment without imposing pre-existing assumptions to the research site (Patton, 2001).

In line with Marshall's (2006) four methods for gathering information, the current study adopted an ethnographic approach by participating in the research setting via direct observation, in-depth interviews and analysing of documents. Also, as encouraged (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005: 193), a researcher should be involved in research without being judgemental. This means that one needs to be much more descriptive, which requires presence at the research site. Additionally, since the primary task of ethnographic research (*collecting fields notes*) is to uncover and explain how people in particular settings come to understand, account for, act, and manage their situations as well as the problems and difficulties they encounter, it is important to remember the power dynamics associated with being an observer.

The data collection method used in addition to interviews is participatory research. By using the participatory approach to the data collection process, the researcher was able to collect data while ensuring that the participants felt as if they were being empowered to define the challenges they were facing and that they were beginning to find solutions to their problems themselves, based on the ideological principles they hold (Dash, 1993: 2). The researcher observes that a qualitative research approach is founded on many theories of knowledge and views of the social environment. As a result, a qualitative researcher seeks to reveal a knowledge of the social reality rather than an explanation of it.

Furthermore, the researcher's decision to use a qualitative methodological technique for the objectives of this study showed that the researcher thought that the social reality could be best articulated subjectively and without losing the genuine meaning of that reality. This study employed an interpretative paradigm, allowing the researcher to collect data that would be interpreted to offer subjective explanations and interpretations for the social activity. In other terms, the study employed an anti-positivist paradigm that emphasizes that social reality is viewed and interpreted by the individual herself.

The other method employed in this study is to take an empirical approach in addition to participant observation. This means that the study also employed in-depth interviews with voluntary educators, and those who willingly participated in the entire study. The participants were asked open-ended questions with no numerical data. In the next sections I provide an in-depth discussion of the various methods employed in the study.

3.4.1. A Case Study Research Design

The term case study refers to research study where a limited number of units of analysis are studied intensively. The units of analysis include individuals, groups, and institutions. This term does not refer to specific techniques that are stipulated. In the case of studies, on the other hand, we are directed towards understanding the uniqueness and idiosyncrasy of a particular case in all its complexity (Welman et al., 2005: 193).

Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. (2014: 178-179), explains the case study as a thick and detailed description of a social phenomenon that exists within a real-world context. The case study recounts a real-life situation by rigorously describing the scenario in which the phenomenon occurs. It is an attempt to understand a phenomenon within specific circumstances. The case

study method allows a deep exploration within a natural context and hence provides a full and thorough understanding of the lived experience of a participant. Moreover, it is viewed as a method to give a voice to ordinary people (Stake in Gomm, Hammersley & Foster, 2000: 22; Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 270). Many scholars agree that case studies are humanistic/ naturalistic and are made by the presence of humans. These characteristics of the case study method facilitate the goal of a qualitative study, namely, to focus on the particular and subjective experiential reality of participants (Welman et al., 2005 & Du Plooy-Cilliers et al., 2014).

The primary aim of a case study is to "represent the case authentically and, in this process, to discover symbolic realities that amplify, the unique voice of those whose experience in, and perspective on, the world is unknown, neglected or suppressed" (Gomm et al., 2000: 6-7). A case study cannot be both typical and atypical. Furthermore, the unit of analysis does not necessarily have to be human, for example, an individual, family, school educators, health workers and so on, however, it may also adopt the personal documents, diaries, letters, records indexes, ratios, and calculation formulae. It is a complex kind of research design approach that does not limit its scope to dig deep to the root of the matter. Although in most instances, this approach or design seeks to have an individual case, its findings make it analyse a complex vast space of analytic approach. And eventually, be able to have resolved the problem or the statement that was/is raised by the entire thesis. It utilises a multi-design approach method to analyse the result and successfully has research. One of the approaches used in a case study is participatory research.

Participatory research methodology can be defined as a research paradigm in terms of which the researcher's function is to serve as a resource to those groups being studied. This is usually done to empower participants to act effectively in their own interests (Babbie, 2010; Babbie & Mouton, 2001.). Participatory research therefore aims at empowering disadvantaged members of society by giving them the opportunity to define their problems and find solutions to these problems (De Vos et al., 2011: 494). In other words, participatory research endeavours to improve the well-being of people and their communities (Cornwall & Jewkes, 1995: 1667-1676). In addition, it also aims to ensure that, after the research has been conducted, the people or community in question become more self-reliant. The cultivation of self-reliance and the energising of the community may be the driving force for creative activity that requires an

awareness of one's creative assets, and confidence in one's ability to solve life's problems and challenges (Rahman, 1995; Rahman, 1985).

3.4.2. The Current Case Study

Case studies are a type of empirical investigation that has been widely employed across fields, notably in education and social science research. In addition to the characteristics mentioned by Flyvberg (2001; 2006), the inquiry is used to examine a current phenomenon in depth within its real-life environment (Yin, 2009: 18), resulting in a multi-faceted knowledge of the problem under examination. Given the complexities of learning because of contextual factors, it was desirable to use a design that would allow for the unpacking of the phenomena of interest from different viewpoints to acquire a better understanding of the learning process.

Robert Stake (Stake, 1995, 2006, & 2008) and Robert Yincreated two notable methods of case study design. These are among the most conceptually sophisticated and well-documented. The case study technique used by Stake is consistent with the concept and methodology used in this study. However, useful portions of Yin's design literature will be integrated. For example, Yin (2009) states that the case study technique is appropriate for research that attempts to answer how and why questions. The primary research question for this study is framed as a how inquiry: How useful is translanguaging in helping educators to negotiate teaching in multilingual classrooms? The sub-questions are how and why.

In response to the research questions, I linked the procedure of carrying out this study with the design criteria. Identifying the case, the topic and the sort of case study approach are examples of these (Stake, 1995 & Yin, 2009). A case is defined as a bounded system that is, has functional pieces, and operates in a patterned fashion; hence, it is analysed as a functioning specific. This instance happens in context and can serve as a unit of analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this study, the bounded case is a group of instructors/educators that teach African languages in multilingual classrooms, and the benefit and assistance they received from adopting translanguaging through participatory research.

A case cannot be investigated apart from its context, and context may be used to define the case's bounds. Defining the limits of a case is a crucial stage in case study research since it allows for conceptualization of what will be investigated; the object of investigation (Stake,

2005). These lines "demarcate what counts as a case and what provides the background for the case". Contextual boundaries might be tangible, spatial, or temporal.

The kind of case study is determined by the unit of analysis. To determine this unit, a researcher might evaluate what is being studied, whether it is an individual, a program, or a process (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Since the issue was the unit of analysis in this study, the design was a single instrumental case study. When using this style, a specific example is investigated just for the aim of obtaining comprehension of a specific issue or redrawing generalizations. Since the case is only a means to a goal, “it is nonetheless researched in depth, its background probed, and its routine activities documented, all to pursue an external interest" (Stake, 2008: 123). Issues compel us to observe, even tease out, the case's troubles, the conflictual outpourings, the rich backdrops of human concern. By concentrating on the problem, I was able to investigate the tensions and contradictions that participants encountered during the learning process, as well as the solutions they used to manage them.

This current case study is based on two schools in the Tshwane District. The school has two “official home languages' '. In addition to these two languages, Sepedi and isiZulu were tolerated by the school officials. The research population that was sampled included: Foundation Phase (Grades R-Grade 3). One language teacher each from isiZulu and Sepedi. The lessons observed included entry level classrooms and interviews with the teacher. In order to assess the level of awareness related to translanguaging, I also observed exit level grades in the Intermediate Phase (Grade 4-6), Senior Phase 9Grade 7-9) and Further Education and Training Phase (FET).

3.4.3. Quality in Qualitative Research

There are a variety of quality assurance standards in qualitative research, some of which closely resemble the criteria for validity and reliability in scientific research. Yin (2009) and Stake (1995) present approaches for assuring the validity and reliability of qualitative evidence. These methods appear to contradict the fundamental essence and epistemology of qualitative research. This might be related to a preference for theoretical verifiable information over the context-dependent knowledge produced by qualitative research, particularly case study research (Flyvberg, 2001: 79). Despite the differences in techniques, there is agreement on the

requirement for qualitative researchers to demonstrate the credibility of their findings (Creswell & Miller, 2010).

3.5. Research Site

The core of every ethnographic research, according to (Leedy & Ormrod 2001: 151), is the site where research is carried out. This study's research took place in the TSED in Pretoria Gauteng-province, South Africa. Schools in this province have bilingual students because of their surrounding population. Because of the existence of mines, Gauteng has served as a centre for many individuals seeking greener pastures. Parents have been relocating from their places of origin around the nation and become permanent residents in this area, bringing along their home languages.

The school was selected largely because of the variety of its students from various socio-economic, educational, and disciplinary backgrounds. Another probable explanation that influenced the researcher's decision to select this education district was the fact or belief that these youngsters are encountering African indigenous language acceptability throughout the country. Although Pretoria is known as the city of Sepedi, other African indigenous languages are spoken and taught in several townships such as Atteridgeville and Olievenhoutbosch. The combination of the above factors makes the schools in this area potential sites for an investigation of multilingual practices in multilingual classrooms.

3.5.1. Study Population

Polit & Beck (2004) define a population as the total number of people who meet a set of standards. The population is the entire population that researchers are interested in learning about (Stangor, 2011), or any group of people or objects that share at least one characteristic with others (Busha & Hater, 1989). A population is simply defined as a large group of people who share a set of characteristics that are important to the investigation. A population is the complete set of persons or units in whom the researcher is interested, i.e., the more massive set from which the sample is selected. The sample is a subset of the population. The elements of the target population are represented by the sample frame. However, sampling is the act of picking certain features of a target population from a larger population. The sampling frame is a list of all the units in a population from which the actual sample will be selected.

Correspondingly, Salubi (2015: 75) defines a population as any group of people who share one or more traits. A population is an entire group of people that the researcher wishes to learn about (Stangor, 2011), any set of persons or objects that share at least one common characteristic (Busha & Harter, 1980), or a target group that would, in an ideal world, be the subject of the research and about whom one wishes to say something (Punch, 2005). A population is an aggregation of units or a set of interests to which a researcher seeks to generalize the findings of a research study (Gay, 1981).

Gay (1981) notes that when doing field research, we presume that the behaviour we witness has a purpose and is an indication of underlying sentiments and ideas. We also presume that humans can structure, experience, and explain their own environment. When referring to the persons as observed in the field study, the word participant is used rather than the respondent. In practice, the population is a collection of all explanations for a random variable from which the research is attempting to derive conclusions. A population is therefore a group of entities containing all measurements of interest to the investigator.

Once the population has been identified the next step would be to take a sample of the population that meets the characteristics that the researcher is interested in studying. Sampling takes different forms. Myburgh (2015: 90-91), provides a perspective of what sampling entails. Some of the ways of selecting a population involves random sampling, purposive sampling, and snowball sampling (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2011: 232–233). In the next section I outline some of these sampling strategies and motivate the chosen ones for this study.

3.5.2. Sampling Procedures

Several sampling procedures were used in this study: purposive sampling and voluntary sampling. The type of purposive sampling used is called non-probability sampling. This sampling method examines any component units of analysis that will be included in it but cannot be defined. In certain cases, individual members may have no possibility of being included in such a sample at all. However, the main and obvious benefit of this sampling strategy is that it is less sophisticated and more cost-effective in terms of time and money than random samples. Non-probability samples might be especially beneficial in pilot studies where a preliminary questionnaire form has been evaluated.

Non-probability sampling, as defined by (Creswell, 2009), is a type of purposive sampling strategy that is used to familiarize a qualitative approach. Purposive sampling (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. 2014: 142-143) involves actively selecting the items that we want to include in our sample based on a specified list of attributes. In this sample, researchers depend on their expertise, resourcefulness, and/or past research findings to gather units of analysis in such a way that the sample obtained may be considered representative of the relevant community. The researcher has recognized the benefit of the purposive sampling design strategy. The sampling allows the researcher to estimate the sample errors. It is difficult to pick a sample that precisely represents the population, no matter how hard a researcher tries.

Sampling errors are hard to avoid. Of course, one may choose the whole population as the sample, but it contradicts the point of sampling, which is to conclude that a population is based on a smaller sample. It is defined as the discrepancy between the sample's characteristics and the characteristics of the population from which the sample was drawn (Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, it expresses the mismatch between the sample and the population. The sampling error, according to (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. 2014: 178-179), is a measure of how certain we are that a particular percentage of the population would offer answers comparable to the sample. The level of variability or spread of these informs the researcher about the extent of sampling error. The greater the variation in sample values, the greater the error, and the less exact and representative the sample is (Creswell, 2009). Non-probability sampling is employed when it is practically impossible to ascertain who the whole population is or when access to the full population is problematic.

Regardless, the sample will still fulfil the population requirements for the study. This sample is chosen based on the researcher's discretion, and the participants are not drawn at random from a list. The possibility to be part of the sample is based on chance or the capacity to reach participants, rather than on a random or planned selection (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al., 2014: 137).

The second part of sampling is ethically guided voluntary sampling. A questionnaire placed in a magazine or newspaper and then requested that people fill it out and submit it is an example of volunteer sampling. This type of study is generally accompanied by an incentive, such as being put into a competition to win a reward. As a result, the volunteers are only motivated to engage in the research when they stand to benefit anything from it. In the current study, the incentive that was offered to educators was the opportunity to engage with classes, which is

always a welcome incentive for educators. As a result, when the researcher arrived at the school, there were no instructors who were not prepared to engage in the current study.

The last point that has to do with sampling is what Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. (2014) refer to as on-site sampling. According to Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. (2014) on-site sampling provides the researcher with a knowledge of how, where, when, and who will be influenced throughout data collection. Participant observation would be one form of on-site sampling.

Considering the various definitions and explanations about the intentions associated with sampling a population, the current study population was the Tshwane South Education District. As indicated in the previous section, this population provided the characteristics that the study seeks to investigate, that of multilingual classrooms. Based on previous research as observed in the review of literature, translanguaging is very likely in multilingual settings such as South Africa. Furthermore, learners are not restricted from using their native languages for expression during teaching and learning, which adds much pressure on educators if they do not share the languages that are used by communities. In terms of language recognition, many schools are regarded as bilingual in the sense that they recognize two mother tongue languages (isiZulu and Sepedi). However, the issue that most schools are bilingual is contrary to the real situation. As alluded to by Setati & Adler (2000) the situation is completely contradictory to what has been discovered and seen at South Africa's "bilingual" schools.

In South Africa, the use of the term 'multilingual' is normally associated with a pupil and rarely a teacher trait. Since the aim of this study is to investigate the use of translanguaging by teachers, multilingualism as a trait is meant to cover both the educators and the learners. To check the progression, the study focussed on two schools: one primary school and one secondary school. The idea was to get a glimpse in terms of multilingual practices across grades without spending too much time and taking away time from the educators' busy schedules. The researcher therefore focused on four learning periods. Four Foundation Phase educators, where learners are taught in their native or home language, then proceeded to four Intermediate Phase educators, when learners are introduced to a second language, and then to four Senior Phase instructors.

Given the complexity associated with choosing potential participants, it was not possible to get a list of participants based on the traits associated with multilingualism. However, because there was no existing list of potential participants from which the researcher could draw, a

purposive sampling technique was first adopted. Following that, snowball sampling was performed. These are both convenience sampling methods used to identify participants for data collection.

3.5.3. Non-Probability Sampling Procedure

A learner-centred school language policy recognizes and values the resources and ambitions that members of the school community students, educators, and parents bring with them. It rejects limiting individual speakers' heteroglossia to either monolingualism or a dichotomy between mother tongue and target language. The awareness of diversity not only in the sense of a multitude of separate and bounded language communities, but also within a community, within a communication network, or in each situation, is based on the concept of heteroglossia, i.e., society's multilingual, multivoicedness, and multi discursivity, developed by Bakhtin (Bakhtin, 1981).

Such an approach considers multilingualism in terms of contextual behaviours rather than abstract and absolute skills. Busch (2010) defines formally (Brenzinger, 2017), the South African Constitution differentiates eleven official languages on an equal basis, with no special status given to English or any of the other 10 languages. In an Apartheid state, the white ruling elite segregated individuals based on their mother tongue for more than a half-century. The non-white majority was compelled to reside in distinct self-governing administrative divisions, with their native languages becoming the official languages of these so-called autonomous nations.

The new South African Constitution and language policies aim to enable the transformation of a historically bilingual nation with Afrikaans and English as official languages into a new South African state with the primary languages of its African citizens raised to the same level. However, the statutory limits and language regulations adopted over the last two decades have had little impact on the practical use of languages other than English and Afrikaans in official realms.

3.5.4. Ethnographic Observation

Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. (2014: 176) define ethnography, or ethnographic research, as a field that involves the researcher in the data collection process. The researcher becomes a participant in the study process, with no preconceived notions of judgment. In certain cases, and to be

more specific, the researcher should be unfamiliar with the culture of the people. In each case, the researcher is completely unaware of what would occur and be revealed. It also entails researching an issue from the perspective of a participant. During data collection, the researcher may occasionally intervene or take an active role.

Moreover, according to Shaw & Snell, (2005), the term "linguistic ethnography" refers to a growing field of study by researchers who use linguistic and ethnographic methodologies to better understand how social and communication processes work in a variety of settings and circumstances. Until now, linguistic ethnography has been regarded as an umbrella term: a field of common interests in which established research traditions interact Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. (2014) in their book *Research Matters*, explain the significance of ethnography and that these ethnographic methods differ, from space to space where the research will be conducted by the researcher, they coined the term Institutional ethnography. *Institutional ethnography* was developed in the late 1970s from a critical feminist perspective by Dorothy Smith.

Institutional Ethnography was extended to be applied as a frame of inquiry to understand how the workplace is shaping the subjective experiences of people. It focuses mostly on the subjective experiences of oppressed people in institutions. The researcher is particularly interested in the personal experiences of individuals but proceeds to uncover the power relations that structure and govern those experiences (Babbie, 2011: 303). Thus, instead of observing the official processes of an institution, the researcher attempts to understand how individuals experience institutions by attempting to understand hidden and possibly oppressive activities. In this way, individual micro-level personal experiences relate to the macro-level of organisations.

3.5.5. Planning, Preparation, and Instruments of Data Collection

The school was in a bilingual community. The researcher arrived at the first school at about 8:30 a.m. The researcher went on a walk around campus to see students interact with one another. The researcher then chatted with the pupils and was surprised to hear them respond in their language. The researcher observed that people at this school are highly multilingual while interacting with students and staff. A qualitative research technique was adopted for this investigation. The researcher has access to the following tools (i) a pen, (ii) tiny booklets (for taking notes), (iii) an audio recorder, (iv) comprehensive interview questions, (v) food (as a

thank you to respondents), and (vi) a location supplied by the school (staff room/any quiet space).

3.5.6. Observations

Observation strategy was employed by the researcher to get to the genuine objectives and answer the study's inquiry. During the observation session, the researcher sat in the classroom and observed a teacher teaching or conducting a lesson. Notes were taken down as tips and remarks, to seek clarification and comprehension. This was done in order to prepare some questions for the interviews. As an observer, the researcher ensured minimal interference with the teacher to ensure that the teacher does not feel intimidated as being observed in the classroom is very frustrating.

To ensure minimal obstruction, the researcher prepared in advance by asking teachers to volunteer to be observed. The significance of volunteering helps to alleviate the researcher's anxiety on the side of the teacher. The researcher observed and took notes and took notes during the course, ideally as it is being taught in the classroom. However, if the researcher is conducted in private or if taking notes is likely to interfere with the teacher's spontaneity during the session. However, if the researcher did not take notes during the session, they should do so as soon as feasible following the lesson observation to ensure that as many observations as possible are recalled and noted. The researcher carried an audiotape recorder with him and recorded some of the lessons as they occurred.

The aim of recording was not missing any sentences stated in class and eventually transcribing them. Permission was sought before recording the lessons. The researcher also employed an ethnographic context, and if he needed clarity, he used the language that the teacher and the learners understood. In group activities, the researcher looked for themes or recurrent patterns of behaviour, as well as variations on these themes or patterns. These field notes are the detailed notes and observations made by the interviewer/researcher. Everything that is said during the observation should be written down. For this reason, using a tape recorder may be advantageous. The non-verbal behaviour of respondents was also observed by the researcher. Double brackets were used in the report-to-report nonverbal behaviour such as pauses in conversations, movements, body gestures, and other body displays.

3.5.7. In-depth Interviews

According to research, in-depth interviews are effective for gathering extensive information, exploring delicate subjects, and assessing opinions (McMillian & Schumacher, 2006; Teddlie & Tashakkar, 2009). The main downside of conducting in-depth interviews is that participants may find face-to-face contact emotionally uncomfortable (Greeff, 2005). The researcher may ask sensitive questions to remind participants of the desired response, which may be misconstrued or even incorrect (Greeff, 2005). Furthermore, in-depth interviews are expensive and time-consuming since they need a large amount of interviewer time).

In addition to observations, the researcher used in-depth interviews to follow-up on classroom observations. Following the conclusion of the observation, the researcher sat down with the instructor and asked questions. Seale, Giammpietro, Gubrrium & Silverman (2004) define an interview as a social gathering in which speakers cooperate to generate retrospective and forward-looking assertions or versions of their past or future behaviour, and experiences, feelings, and ideas. The researcher selected research instruments based on his capacity to deliver high-quality exploratory data that clarified participants' viewpoints while also giving maximum validity and dependability.

The researcher made certain that each visit took place in a safe, comfortable, and private environment, ideally at the interviewee's office or another convenient location for the interviewee. This was done to ensure that participants felt comfortable in their surroundings and were not startled throughout the interview. The researcher asked permission from the participants to record the interviews prior to the interviews. The instructors' responses were then tape-recorded, and the interviews were then transcribed and coded.

Throughout this process, the researcher made notes. The researcher chose in-depth interviews because their response rate is generally greater than that of phone interviews (Gray, 2009; McMillian & Schumacher, 2006), and their response bias is also extremely low because rejections are usually dispersed fairly (Gray, 2009). Following the interview, the researchers reviewed the recordings and notes, noting any direct quotes that were judged relevant. The tapes and notes are kept as records for future reference. In-depth interviews were scheduled on specific topics.

In face-to-face interviews, interviewers might utilize non-judgmental questions and replies to build rapport and trust with participants. When participants think their experiences and ideas

are heard, understood, and reacted to nonjudgmentally, they generally feel acknowledged. In general, the replies of participants to questions grow more positive and honest (Cannold, 2001).

Individual in-depth interviews in both English, isiXhosa and isiZulu were conducted. Because some individuals felt better at ease expressing themselves in their native tongue, the researcher utilized isiXhosa and English and a few tried isiZulu. This allowed participants to express themselves freely while still giving the interview structure. An hour was allotted for individual in-depth interviews. Participants' demographic information was collected via a written form presented to them. Eight in-depth interviews questions with significant informants were done individually. The majority of those who took part identified as middle-class. Participants were of many racial origins, including black (speaks different indigenous languages viz isiZulu, Sepedi, TshiVenda and English).

Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. (2014: 188), explain how interviews were used in the qualitative study. An in-depth interview is a qualitative data-gathering strategy that allows you to ask participants questions to understand more about their perspectives, ideas, and beliefs about a certain issue. Interviews are a type of interaction in which the primary goal is to gather information through open-ended questions. Interviews are useful sources of information because, when done correctly, they allow you to evaluate and comprehend the significance of participants' responses to specific questions.

In-depth interviews also allow you to ask a participant to clarify a point she or he is making or to offer a more extensive explanation of, say, her or his perspective on a specific subject you have posed. As a researcher, you can ask more in-depth questions about the areas of the research that interest you, allowing you greater flexibility in the research process. Since you may see participants' nonverbal reactions while they answer your questions, it provides an extra source of data that you can utilize in your analysis and interpretation.

Welman et al. (2005: 197-198), allude to that a researcher in the discussion should stress the fact they need to always not deviate from the actual questions. That will prevent many follows up questions that might duplicate and end up missing the entire goal of the question, to the response. Take the participants' feelings into consideration when you need to ask for personal details about aspects of their lives and experiences. They are assisting you with your research by allowing you to interview them, and you need to respect any boundaries that they put in

place. If a participant is unwilling or hesitant to proceed with a certain topic, do not force a response.

It is critical to ask the participants about their experiences. They must share their sentiments about their experiences since these experiences are intimately tied to their feelings. These sentiments and emotions should be evaluated considering the context and viewpoints of the individuals' experiences. Allow the participants to clarify and expand on their responses. Allowing participants to elaborate will provide you with a better understanding of the context in which they are presenting the information. Make sure you grasp the context in which the replies are given.

The responses you get from open-ended questions will be impacted by the participants' backgrounds, situations, and experiences. These issues must be considered, and responses must be viewed within these circumstances. You should also keep in mind that participants' experiences differ from one another and that these disparities will play a significant role in shaping the participants' perspectives. If obtaining comprehensive information from participants is not the goal of your research, stop asking questions that may probe into areas that are particularly sensitive for the subject. If the issue of your study is delicate, you must approach it with caution.

If the participant does not want to discuss a certain topic or is reluctant, offer non-invasive inquiries that will put the participant at ease. The participant can then furnish you with whatever details with which she or he is comfortable. Always keep people's limits in mind. If a participant refuses to answer a question or expound on a remark, do not compel him or her to do so. The participants must be given the room and freedom to express their entire ideas and opinions, but you must also ensure that they are given adequate guidance and are not allowed to wander from the topic, since this may result in a large amount of material that is not related to the issue.

To ensure that participants are given room and freedom to express their ideas, the following interview questions were used.

Interview guide questions

- What is the major challenge that you experience in teaching African languages (any used in the school) in a multilingual school?

- How long have you been a teacher? You can choose between 0-5years, 5-10 years?
- Can you just explain over the years the experience you have been exposed to for the duration of your tenure as a teacher, in teaching multilingual classrooms?
- What teaching approach have you been employing most in your pedagogy and why did you choose that style?
- What is the approach of teaching style that you adopt to teach any content subjects, to students or learners who speak AIL?
- What are your home languages and the most used language in the community?
- Does that common language in the community have an impact on your teaching pedagogy?
- How many languages do you fluently speak as the teacher ranging from good, poor, and average?
- Do you find CAPS useful and clear when it comes to the use of African languages in the school context?
- Based on your experience as a teacher would you deduce or conclude and say that children know more than one language?

3.5.8. Focus Group

Two focus group meetings were conducted with the principal as the overseer to investigate the transition process from a different angle and to validate information collected from both the practice learning coordinator and institutional records. A focus group discussion is a free-form group interview or discussion on a certain topic (Robson, 2002). All participants took part and shared their stories; they were all females from various schools and grades. They mostly chatted in indigenous languages, although they would code switch now and again. They were fighting over the use of translanguaging in an extraordinary fashion, and some of them were inexperienced educators. The elders oversaw the conversation and were training the newcomers.

The major objective for conducting focus group talks was to allow the instructors who were interviewed and watched the class to express their opinions as a group and ask the same questions in an open-ended format. This was done to give themselves purpose and to establish a synergy of thoughts and answers throughout their conversations (Wilson, 1997: 209–224). This was done so that they may exchange their opinions about the issue and learn from one another while teaching different grades at the school. Focus group discussions are a highly

common data-gathering tool, particularly for supporting instructors in their teaching endeavour research, and have been used widely to investigate the social-cultural factors that either lead or (Akwara, Madise, Hinde & Morgan, 1993).

For the first discussion, I presented the research topic and then invited the group to react and share their experiences with it. This was done to encourage an open conversation. Because the participants were candid, they guided most of the debate, and I only probed when I needed more detail on a subject or when diverting the conversation. The conversation focused on principals' views and experiences of students' learning in practice, the barriers experienced by educators in the multilingual set-up, and the perceived influence of language on learning.

3.6. Data Management

The audio recordings from the interviews and focus group discussions were copied from a recording device to a password-protected computer storage file. The file was organized into various folders, and each recording was saved in a distinct folder according to a source. Each participant was given a pseudonym, and the name was utilized as the label for the folder. All additional electronic information acquired from participants was indexed and saved in the participant files. Hard copies of assessment forms and logs, for example, were catalogued and stored under lock and key. The physical copies were stored using a similar technique.

As a qualitative researcher who wanted to get as close to the data as possible, I immersed myself in it by manually transcribing the interviews and focus group recordings. During the transcribing process, I was careful to record as much information and subtleties as possible, such as pauses, silences, repeats, displays of emotion or sentiments, emphases of specific sentences, and variations in tone of voice with different themes. These subtleties are significant when engaging in discourse analysis because they reveal insight into themes that are important to the participants, power dynamics, weaknesses, and sentiments toward certain subjects.

While I was collecting data, I began transcribing. These enabled members to check the data collecting session. I was able to get new information and explain concerns raised in earlier meetings. Following this procedure was important in establishing a focus for questions for the subsequent data-gathering sessions, particularly the focus group discussion. To ensure accuracy, full transcriptions were supplied to all participants. Following confirmation of

correctness, the transcripts were labeled as 1st or 2nd session, depending on the source, and preserved alongside the recordings.

3.7. Reliability and Validity

According to (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. 2014: 253-254), the goal of qualitative research is not to discover causal linkages or to generalize findings to a larger population. Qualitative researchers, on the other hand, try to give a comprehensive knowledge of a phenomenon. Because the goal of qualitative research is not to generalize results, the words' reliability and validity are not appropriate for use in these sorts of investigations. As a result, qualitative researchers prefer to employ the idea of trustworthiness to assess reliability and validity in qualitative investigations.

It should be emphasized, however, that when qualitative researchers use the words' reliability and validity, they do so in distinct ways (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, Shenton, 2004). The degree to which the findings obtained for a sample may be extrapolated to the complete population to whom the hypothesis applies is referred to as population validity (Welman et al., 2005: 125). The qualitative technique has little bearing on reliability and validity since it has a negative connotation to findings.

3.7.1. Trustworthiness

Morrow's (2005: 253) trustworthiness criteria were used in this study to lead the process of guaranteeing quality subjectivity and reflexivity in qualitative research, the sufficiency of data, and adequacy of interpretation. The criteria were consistent with the poststructuralist perspective that guided this investigation. Since qualitative researchers do not rely on statistics as proof, they employ a variety of criteria to assess the trustworthiness, or credibility, of study findings. Remember that the goal of qualitative research is to increase knowledge of a specific phenomenon inside a specific environment, not to generalize conclusions to a larger population.

The researcher should use ethics to acquire the confidence and faith of the respondents. The researcher should not jeopardize the participants' identities. He will not reveal the real identities of the participants since doing so may create a conflict of interest for them. The public should trust the researcher since throughout the interview, they will be asked questions concerning the school's likely language policy, which will make them feel uneasy. The researcher should not,

at any time, inquire or socialize with subjects, which means he should not ask them personal questions or make them friends. This may have a detrimental impact on the study's aims and the achievement of the goal of addressing the study's major questions.

Qualitative researchers recognize that the nature of the data acquired, and the analytic procedures used are both subjective. This is since subjectivity is required for comprehension (Stake, 1995:45). In this study, two reflexive procedures described by Morrow (2005) were used: maintaining a reflective notebook and engaging in peer debriefing. Throughout the research process, the researcher kept a reflective diary, documenting ideas, insights gained from reading and interactions with peers and supervisors, shifts in thinking and assumptions, and observations of the research process.

The researcher attended seminars, research meetings, and conferences to present my research views and ideas. Throughout the process, the researcher was in frequent communication with my supervisors, which was very important for me as a beginner qualitative researcher. With this degree of reflexivity, I was able to own my preconceptions, examine them, and be more receptive to what the facts revealed.

Multiple data sources were utilised, as directed by the case study methodology. According to Morrow (2005: 256), the more the diversity of data sources acquired, the higher the richness, breadth, and depth of data gathered. The use of numerous data sources-maintained data sufficiency and allowed for more in-depth knowledge of the learning process as experienced by African language instructors. The many data sets acquired necessitated the use of several analytic methods, as detailed in section 3.7, to provide adequate interpretation. To obtain adequate interpretation, the researcher used two tactics proposed by Morrow (2005), immersion in data analysis and building an analytic framework to guide analysis.

During the analysis phase, the researcher spent a significant amount of time experimenting with various analytical methodologies that allowed me to immerse myself in the data. To fully participate in the rich analysis as per the case study design, the researcher created an analytic framework, which was presented in data analysis and allowed me to examine methodically and arrange the findings into a coherent whole. The researcher was able to produce a thick description (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Stake, 1995) of the process based on this technique. Case study research necessitates the collection of findings. According to the instrumental case study

approach described by Stake, the description highlighted the intricacies of the topic under inquiry as well as the uniqueness of the instance.

3.8. Data Analysis

After the interview and lesson, observation has been recorded. The researcher began preparing to analyse the data acquired, employing the qualitative method approach to data analysis. That recorded data was transcribed, and the researcher transcribed every detail heard on the audiotape. When we analyse qualitative data, whether, from interviews, field notes, or observation, we refer to it as text analysis. The theorist (McKee 2003:4) defines text as "whatever we make as an interpretation of the meaning of anything."

This something may be anything with significance, such as a book, photograph, architecture, film, clothes, or music. As a result, writing is important because it carries potential meaning. According to (Sonderling, 2001: 148), the term text can apply to a variety of things, including mass media messaging. However, in terms of study, it denotes the message's shape and substance. The text encompasses spoken, written, or graphic languages, as well as still and moving pictures, as well as multimedia, including computers (Sonderling, 2001:148). The researcher does a thorough reading of the text during text analysis and interpretation.

The phrases iterative and iteration are used in qualitative research to describe the technique of repeating the analysis and interpretation procedures in a continuous cycle. Because the researcher analyses and interprets data continually to find and refine the embedded meanings of the text under investigation, the process is circular. Therefore, the researcher goes through a series of analysis and interpretation cycles, gaining new insights with each cycle. This approach allows the researcher to discover evolving patterns in the text and gain a thorough understanding of the relevance of these patterns. Furthermore, the qualitative researcher illustrates emerging meaning patterns with escalating recombinant levels and knowledge cycles.

This is performed by comparing the text to bigger texts as well as the original context in which the incident was investigated or witnessed. The most difficult element of qualitative research is probably data analysis (Patton, 2002). The information gleaned from in-depth interviews was generally verbatim. As a result, it covered topics like coding, categorizing, and classifying. Coding verbatim remarks were not only time-consuming, but it also demanded vigilance to

prevent introducing mistakes into the data due to transcribing errors. Finally, the researcher's interpretation of the replies may differ from what the respondents intended. However, qualitative research would be incomplete unless the researcher was able to analyse words as they occurred.

The fundamental purpose of any research endeavour, according to some, is to create knowledge. Knowledge is generally generated via the invention of new ideas, the expansion of old theories, and the rejection of theories or specific components of current theories that are unable to withstand empirical scrutiny. Myburgh (2015) presents a way of dealing with data analysis that is particularly close to the research. Before coding the data on the website, I read the transcript. Before I start analysing the data, I sit down and read to find relevant thoughts. I took note of and grasped the data analysis approach before even beginning the investigation. The second stage involved a detailed examination.

First, the researcher summarized the data collection to have a better understanding of the narratives and points of view produced throughout the interviews and discussions. The transcripts were printed out, and the researcher made notes in the margins of each transcript or set of notes on what the various interviewees had been referring to. These statements have to be as abstract as possible. This approach entailed not just summarizing the text but also attempting to decipher what the text was referring to or offering an example of unique quotations from the data. Each part of the transcript was numbered to help with data coding. The researcher compiled a list of the themes that emerged as he looked through the data.

The first ideas were gathered to develop a coding system. A coding system is a list of developing themes as well as the codes assigned to the data. There are additional sub-codes for each code. The researcher began developing the coding system as soon as the first set of data was collected. This preliminary analysis supported the data collection phase by guiding the researcher to ask the appropriate questions and ensuring that the appropriate persons were recruited as participants. The early analysis acted as a feedback system for the researcher.

Following the coding of all the data, data extracts were taken from their original context, such as interviews or focus group discussions, and integrated with additional examples of data on the same topic to show patterns and correlations throughout the data. These patterns and connections were then used as the basis for the research findings. The research results chapter

contains comments from the data set that highlight both important and minor challenges linked to the study's main objective.

Table 3. 1 Thematic Analysis

PHASE	DESCRIPTION OF THE PROCESS
Know the data collected	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading data, and taking notes on preliminary ideas
Device the codes	The data collected should be grouped according to relevant themes and merged.
Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
Arrange the topics	test the themes for naming on different levels. and the entire data set. Draw a working map that will guide the topics for the analysis.
Explaining and categorise themes:	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, the final analysis of selected extracts, relating to the analysis of the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

Source: Thematic Analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006)

The primary topics that arose from the study's data analysis procedure are shown in the table below. The table also shows the number of sources and quotations that contribute to each subject. Following the identification of themes and codes, the meanings of the themes and codes were interpreted.

The heart of the research was the process of making meaning of analysed data. The researcher also considered the overarching research aims that the study aimed to address. These are discussed in the next chapter. It is vital to remember that the researcher's interpretations of the data are frequently modified by their worldviews, history, culture, experiences, and perceptions, among other things (Creswell, 2009: 189). As a result, learning is not just the result of the data analysis step. As a result, data interpretations are always formed via the framework or lens through which the researcher views social reality, as well as the theoretical lens used as a guiding framework for the inquiry. This defines the character of the interpretations that are formed.

3.9. Data Interpretation

Myburgh (2015) indicates and brings up that after the themes are developed, the researcher is now ready to begin coding, suggesting that the researcher begins the integrative and interpretative process of what is investigated (Marshall & Gretchen, 2011: 219). Data interpretation, also known as storytelling, offers themes, patterns, and categories meaning and coherence by producing relationships and a storyline that makes sense and is fascinating to read. Data interpretation, according to Patton (2002: 480), is attaching value to what was discovered, making sense of the results, explaining them, drawing conclusions, extrapolating lessons, generating inferences, assessing significance, and otherwise imposing order.

This step, according to Marshall & Gretchen (2011: 219), comprises assessing the data segments to support the developing story, highlighting the questions that were examined, and understanding how the questions are relevant to the story that is evolving regarding the social phenomena being studied. In this study's data analysis, many variables influenced the emphasis on recognizing the benefits of translanguaging in teaching African languages. The themes are structured in such a way that children learn more than one language. And the data acquired has shown this (Patton, 2002; Green & Thorogood, 2013).

3.9.1 Instrument Used for Data Analysis

Thematic analysis, according to Saliwa-Mogale (2021), is a strategy or approach for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes). The researcher analysed data acquired from the Tshwane South District of Education using a theme analysis approach or instrument. The data analysis strategy for this study was theme analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic

analysis was used to analyse data from focus group conversations, as described by Krueger & Casey (2009).

Thematic analysis began with coding, which included finding units of meaning in the text and assigning them a name or a code. According to Charmaz (2014: 113), coding allows the researcher to identify what is happening in the data and begin to struggle with what it means. According to Caulfield (2019), thematic analysis studies data to discover reoccurring themes, subjects, concepts, and patterns of meaning. However, the research agrees with (Saliwa-Mogale, 2021) that thematic analysis can be an essentialist or realist method, reporting participants' experiences, meanings, and realities, or it can be a constructionist method, examining how events, realities, meanings, experiences, and so on are the effects of a variety of discourses operating within society.

After that, the codes were classified. A crucial method for building categories is constant comparison; patterns and links between codes are recognized, and codes with similar qualities are put together to form a category (Krueger & Casey, 2009). When constructing categories, I utilized the research questions as a guide, so codes that reflected thoughts, activities, or attitudes regarding a certain element in the research questions were grouped. For example, perspectives, techniques, and experiences provided on the influence of language on the learning process of students were grouped. After then, the categories were consolidated into wider, more abstract dimensions.

3.10. Ethical Consideration

The researcher is aware of the policy established by the University of Cape Town in terms of ethical consideration. The investigation was undertaken in-depth, both qualitatively and quantitatively following ethical considerations. The researcher understood he is obliged to provide consent forms to all participants, which will be included in the chapter. This permission form needed them to declare that the researcher will not compel anyone to participate in the study if they are not comfortable doing so. This is to assure the study's coherence and research adherence, that it flows academically orderly and achieves its aims and relevance, and that it answers the key topic.

For the sake of professionalism, the researcher will constantly be on the lookout for measures to secure its audience, variables, and participants. The researcher will agree not to reveal the

names of persons, companies, or institutions, as the University emphasizes the importance of maintaining confidentiality as much as feasible (Sefotho, 2009:84). Participants will sign a confidentiality agreement and be given names like: Respondent 1 said. This is done to make respondents calmer and more willing to participate in the survey. No respondent will be forced to reveal his or her identity because the research deems it irrelevant. Before conducting outdoor interviews, observations, and the institution should write confirmation of the identity of the study for the comfort of respondents, the research will inform UCT and the Humanities Faculty standards. However, the identity of the participant, the name of the school, and the identity of the district authority will be concealed to instil confidence in the participants.

Welman et al. (2005: 201), offer four ethical consideration approaches to which the researcher should pay attention: I informed consent; In this case, the researcher should gain the appropriate authorization from the respondents after clearly and accurately informing them about the aim of the interview and the investigation. (ii) right to privacy; to feel comfortable, respondents or participants must be guaranteed their privacy. Furthermore, their genuine identity will be kept private and designated as Z-person, if necessary, for as long as they are not made public. (iii) Protection from injury; the researcher should ensure that respondents are protected from any type of damage, whether physical or emotional and that they are safe during and after the interview. (iv) researcher engagement; The researcher should avoid influencing respondents or seeing them as things or numbers rather than as individual human beings. Interviewing strategies and approaches that are unethical should not be used by researchers (Fontana & Frey, 1994).

3.11. Chapter Conclusion

The main aim of this chapter was to outline the methods employed in collecting data, coding, analysis, and interpretation. The researcher demonstrated several study designs that would be most beneficial for answering and addressing the research questions. The case research design utilized in the study was acknowledged by the researcher. To acquire data, the qualitative approach method is being used. A non-probability method is used to manage the qualitative technique, which notifies deliberate sampling to obtain actual findings and a selected population sample. The study actively used a qualitative method approach as its design to address the entire research topic and have aided in the achievement of the research objectives.

In the next chapter, the research will look at how the data was gathered in the place. Since the nature of the study, the researcher employed a qualitative research technique to help him learn more and obtain a thorough picture of the challenges that educators have while teaching African languages in multilingual classrooms. In addition, to look at the efficacy of translanguaging as it is employed by instructors in their teaching and learning. The researcher employed thematic data analysis because it provides a clear understanding of how participants responded to the interviews.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND THE PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.0. Introduction

This chapter presents an analysis of the data acquired from 11 interviews with educators in the South Tshwane region. This study investigates instructors' use of translanguaging when teaching African languages. Translanguaging is a type of integrated communication system in which multilingual people use their native languages. It is the process of describing something in one language, finishing it, and then translating it into another.

Furthermore, the study was done using data gathered from Tshwane South district primary and secondary schools. Following their sharing of their Translanguaging experiences in their teaching practice, numerous themes emerged that were determined to be shared by the majority of the participants. The difficulties encountered by both educators and students when one of them is unfamiliar with the language of teaching emerged as a recurring concern. These themes gave rise to subthemes, which are listed in the tables below. Following a tabular presentation of the themes and subthemes, the demographic characteristics of the participants are shown. Following each table, the themes and subthemes are presented, along with some direct statements from participants to complement the findings. This chapter will also discuss the strategies that are employed by educators in teaching African languages.

4.1. Introduction to CAPS and Learning Outcome

To understand the themes and subthemes presented in this chapter, it is also necessary to understand CAPS and the role of language in education. Policies govern the learning and teaching processes in South Africa. According to CAPS, the National Curriculum Statement Grades R 12 gives voice to what is considered knowledge, skills, and values worth learning (DBE, 2011). It strives to ensure that children learn and apply knowledge and skills that are relevant to their own lives. In this way, the curriculum supports the concept of rooting knowledge in local settings while remaining mindful of global imperatives.

The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) Grades R - 12 aims to provide learners with the knowledge, skills, and values they need to be self-fulfilling and meaningful participants in society as citizens of a free country, regardless of socioeconomic background, race, gender, physical ability, or intellectual ability. It eases learners' transition from educational institutions to the workplace, and it provides employers with a comprehensive picture of a learner's competencies.

The NCS for Grades R-12 is founded on the following principles:

- Social transformation entails correcting historical educational inequities and providing equitable educational opportunities to all segments of our community.
- Promoting active and critical learning rather than rote and uncritical learning of given truths.
- High knowledge and skills: the minimum knowledge and abilities required at each grade level are stated, and high, attainable criteria are established in all disciplines.
- Transition: The content and context of each grade show a progression from simple to complicated.
- Human rights, inclusion, environmental and social justice: instilling social and environmental justice concepts and practices as stated in the South African Constitution. The NCS Grades 10 - 12 (General) are concerned with a variety of issues, including
- Language, age, disability, and other factors
- Recognizing this country's rich history and tradition as vital contributions to the development of indigenous knowledge systems;
- the Constitution's enshrined principles and;
- Credibility, quality, and efficiency: delivering a high-quality product.
- Education that is comparable in breadth and depth to that of other countries.

The key to managing inclusion is to make sure that all appropriate support structures within the school community, such as educators, District-Based Support Teams (DBSTs), Institutional-Level Support Teams (ILSTs), parents, and Special Schools as Resource Centres, identify and resolve barriers. To address obstacles in the classroom, educators should use various curricular differentiation strategies, such as those outlined in the DBE's Guidelines for Inclusive Teaching and Learning (2010).

Primary schools in South Africa are divided into three phases: Foundation Phase (FP), Intermediate Phase (IP), and Senior Phase (SP) (SP). The instructions change as the phases progress in terms of differentiation in teaching strategy and style. Children are taught in their home language at the foundation level, for example (HL). Students are required by their school to vote for their native language/mother tongue.

The DBE supports all of this, and it is documented in the CAPS, Personnel Administrative Measures (PAM), and School's Act. All these principles were adopted and recognized by the 1995 white paper that regulates the post-Apartheid educational system. The Foundation Phase, according to these provisions of the South African constitution, consists of Grade R through Grades. There are two phases in secondary school, the Senior Phase and FET Phase. In this situation, the DoE believes that:

- students are aware of the way in which they are taught and learned, as
- as well as the context and substance of the courses being taught. Students in the

Foundation Phase is to be taught in their mother tongue, according to materials agreed upon by the DBE, as acknowledged by school and district authorities. Their schools differ from their HL, although they usually share the First Additional Language (FAL). The school is responsible for developing the home language, which is defined by the community in which the school is located. For example, schools in the Eastern Cape (EC) would never proclaim Sepedi their native language since the area does not allow it. Similarly, there will never be a school in Cape Town that teaches Sesotho *sa Lebowa*. This is since the languages spoken vary from province to province. The society in which a school is located has a significant influence on the development and selection of a home language.

Table 4. 1 Foundation Phase Lessons

GRADE	CLASS	SUBJECT	GENDER	AGE
Grade 1	Entry class one	Sepedi	Female teacher	40-45 years
Grade 1	Entry class two	isiZulu	Female teacher	20-25 years
Grade 3	Exit class one	Sepedi	Female teacher	40-45 years
Grade 3	Exit class two	isiZulu	Female teacher	55-60 years

This period of teaching in home language, according to CAPS, runs from Grade R through Grade 3. Grade 1 is.

- the major entry grade that is doing the gross motor skill and is rigorous in learning and teaching. Grade R pupils are still being fostered and made aware of specific and constructive things that will be extremely beneficial to their learning in the next mainstream grade.
- The major teaching and learning begin in Grade 1, where pupils are taught how to write and talk confidently.
- According to CAPS, this is the phase in which educators are supposed to teach Languages (Home Language and First Additional Language), based on what the school's governing body approved.
- Learners are taught a few fine skills, such as small reading and phonics, reading and speaking, writing, and handwriting.
- Thinking and Reasoning, as well as Language Structure and use, are all interwoven into the four language abilities listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
- These abilities should be attained at the end of the student's schooling. Furthermore, they are fine motor abilities, yet learners are required to at least achieve all of those skill outputs CAPS (DBE, 2011).
- What instructors and educational officials preach about language across the curriculum. This is supported and encouraged in the Foundation Phase.

- This is because the system is attempting to prepare these students for the next grade and, hence, the next phase. Moreover, language development happened quicker in this phase as the escalation of teaching-learning.

4.2. Thematic Data Analysis

Text and other types of data analysis is a difficult challenge for qualitative researchers. Choosing how to present the data in tables, matrices, and narrative style adds to the difficulty. Qualitative researchers frequently equate data analysis with methods of analysing text and image data. Much more is involved in the analysis procedure. It also includes data structuring, a preliminary read-through of the database, coding and organizing topics, displaying the data, and developing an interpretation of it (Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 1994).

These processes are linked and consist of a series of actions related to data analysis and visualization. Computers can assist in qualitative data analysis because programs make tasks easier and faster to complete over time, but they are not required. Patton (2015) discusses the use of software in the analysis process, stating that while many swear by it because it can increase efficiency for those who are skilled at it, it is not necessary for qualitative analysis. Whether you use software or not, most of the analytical work is done in your head.

Data analysis in qualitative research entails preparing and organizing the data for analysis, such as text data in transcripts or image data in photographs; then reducing the data into themes through coding and condensing the codes; and finally representing the data in figures, tables, or a discussion. According to several books on qualitative research, this is a common procedure used by researchers. This method will almost certainly be modified in some way. It is important to note that, in addition to these phases, the five methods of inquiry include additional analytical steps. Before delving into the individual analysis phases in each of the five techniques, it is helpful to recall the broad analysis procedures that are common to all types of qualitative research (Onwuegbuzie, 2007).

Individual interviews' qualitative data were transcribed verbatim to allow for unedited or raw data analysis. Most of the interviews were transcribed by a transcriber, with the remainder by me. By listening to all the recordings and comparing them to the transcribed interviews, all transcriptions were double-checked for accuracy. When analysing qualitative data, it is necessary to remain close to the data and interpret it from a compassionate understanding

perspective (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999: 139). The analysis' goal was to provide either a detailed or comprehensive description of the data (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999). As a result, thematic analysis was used to examine qualitative data. Thematic analysis is a systematic process of organizing or reading.

Sokani (2022) defines thematic analysis as the process of organizing or analysing interview material in response to specific research questions (Banister, et al., 1994). It is also a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting data themes or patterns (Braun & Clarke, 2006). As previously stated, the ten participants' responses to Braun and Clarke's (2006) allegation were examined using a thematic data analysis technique. Thematic analysis is a meticulous and systematic procedure for identifying and reviewing themes in textual material in a clear and reliable manner (MacQueen & Niamey, 2011:15).

Following the recording of the audio interview, data were sorted, categorized, and grouped using the theme analysis approach. The motif was then developed, polished, and finalized. Thematic analysis was utilized to understand the material supplied by participants and find subjects acceptable for study topics and aims. The subject analysis procedure is outlined in the table below (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Table 4. 2 Thematic Analysis Process

PHASE	DESCRIPTION OF THE PROCESS
Familiarizing yourself with your data	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data and noting down initial ideas.
Generating initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
Reviewing themes	Checking if the themes work for the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis.
Defining and naming themes:	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, the final analysis of selected extracts, relating to the analysis of the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

4.2.1. Demographic Profile of the Participants

Table 4.2 shows the demographic characteristics of the participants, who were given pseudonyms to protect their anonymity. This study's data was acquired exclusively using qualitative research methods. Semi-structured interviews were conducted one-on-one with 11 participants in locations that were convenient for them all.

While most of the participants (4) have 0-5 years of teaching experience, three have been in practice for more than 20 years. The others have a combined teaching experience of 10 to 20 years. The instructors were predominantly or entirely girls, as primary schools generally recruit more females than males.

Table 4. 3 Distribution of Participants Experience

PHASE	YEARS OF TEACHING
Foundation Phase	
Grade 1	20-25 years
Grade 1	5-10 years
Grade 3	15-20 years
Grade 3	25-30 years
Intermediate Phase	
Grade 4	15-20 years
Grade 6	0-5 years
Senior Phase	
Grade 7	0-5 years
Grade 7	20-25 years
Grade 9	0-5 years
Further Education & Training Phase	
Grade 10	5-10 years
Grade 12	10-15 years

The first school's research went extremely well and productively; the researcher managed the interviews and observations quite effectively. This was a long-established primary school run by a very kind black woman. The schools are quite busy, with numerous initiatives taking place on campus. The schools are primarily for isiZulu speakers. When the researcher inquired, the response was, that the culture or community speak more isiZulu than other languages. Furthermore, the secondary school on the other hand was quite inviting, with the same manager who had greeted and made extensive arrangements with departmental heads on subjects.

The section where discussions are underway on the language policy in South Africa goes into the status and distribution in the country at large. With the focus on the Pretoria district in Gauteng province, bearing in mind that this well-renowned multilingual province within the country. Section 1.1 provides an overview of the new constitutional and policy context of multilingualism in South Africa since the end of Apartheid. Section 1.2 examines the continuities and discontinuities between the rhetoric and the practice of multilingualism.

Most of the information presented in these two sections is derived and updated from Broeder et al. (2002) and Maartens (1998). Section 1.3 of the constitution looks in more detail at census language statistics from the Western Cape, while section 1.4 examines some findings of recent educational language surveys conducted in the province. This is the case in Pretoria, where other places will have a different language because of the certain group.

This chapter will look at the following themes and discuss them efficiently. Language fluency, the experience the researcher had in the field is that other educators are teaching a certain African language whereas they are not their mother tongue. There was a situation in Grade 1 where a teacher was Tshivenda but was teaching isiZulu as a home language. The core argument of the study was to understand what challenges faced by this educator in multilingual classrooms. This theme will encompass all communication, and writing challenges undergone by these mono/bilingual educators, dealing with multilingual classrooms. The theme of skills and strategies employed by these educators for them to find out whether this translanguaging is useful or not is also presented.

The eleven participants are listed in this table, with the number of years they spent in the teaching fraternity. The names attached to them are pseudonyms, the researcher tried to be mindful of the confidentiality.

What the researcher discovered, educators who grow up or have more experience in their teaching tenure, somehow become more involved in many African indigenous languages. Whilst those novices are becoming more bilingual; they told the researcher that most other African languages they learn from learners. For example, other educators manage to learn isiXhosa Sesotho acquired from learners. This concurs with the discussion in chapter two that dealt with theoretical perspectives.

4.2.2. Data Display

According to Welman et al. (2005), the topic of comprehending the notion of data display is critical to understanding its origins and the function performed in this study. It is a system with a visual representation of information that allows the user to make inferences from qualitative data gathered through unstructured interviews and take appropriate action. The goal of data analysis is to create a descriptive explanatory framework for the research. Extensive qualitative texts, according to Miles & Huberman (1994), provide a poor and laborious display of material. It is difficult to analyse and see the material as a whole in such a long-winded presentation.

This sequential rather than simultaneous presentation makes it difficult to examine several variables at the same time. However, data analysis allows the researcher to acquire a comprehensive perspective of the whole data collection and is organized methodically to answer each interview question. Data presentation forms are constantly led by exploratory research questions or the creation of concepts, which are frequently expressed in the form of codes, as seen in the following display.

Although formats can be created straight from the conceptual framework, actual clarity is established much later in the study when the researcher begins to comprehend the structure and empirical data begins to take shape. There are various data display formats, but they typically fall into two categories: matrices, which have specific rows and columns, and networks, which have a set of nodes connected by connections (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The presentation used is determined by the target of the inquiry, which might include a general scenario, comprehensive chronologies, people's attitudes, decisions, or behaviour, distinct roles of individuals, or the interaction between conceptual factors.

The researcher can grasp the flow of events and the connections between them by using a matrix presentation. Time-order matrix displays are commonly used to depict the progression of events by displaying them chronologically. The sequence of concrete occurrences is divided into numerous groups based on chronological periods. The columns in the time-order matrix are organized by successive periods, making it easy to see when a given phenomenon happened. In this form of presentation, no explanation is provided.

Whilst Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. (2014) argue in concurrence with Welman et al. (2005), qualitative content analysis has been defined as a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005:1278). Qualitative content analysis hence involves the systematic analysis of social artefacts to provide an in-depth understanding of, for example, media texts and their specific contexts. In contrast to quantitative content analysis, it does not involve the counting of words and codes, rather, the researcher identifies subjective themes and patterns that may emerge from a particular text. In doing a qualitative content analysis, the researcher is working in an interpretative paradigm to provide a thick description of the social reality mirrored in the texts.

In most cases, qualitative content analysis is an inductive method that researchers may use to build new hypotheses or evaluate current ones. According to McKee (2001:140), qualitative content analysis is also known as textual analysis, which is an informed prediction of the most likely readings of a text. When looking at narratives or tales in texts such as journals, diaries, novels, brochures, written documents, transcripts, news reports, and visual media, this strategy is most successful (Maree, 2007). The emphasis here is on textual content such as tales, written and spoken words, and visualised narratives. This inductive technique may also be used to analyse the transcription of interviews with open-ended questions and focus groups.

4.2.3. Language Fluency

This chapter presents the language proficiency profile of the participants. Table 4.3 displays each teacher's linguistic proficiency. It shows that most of the educators (seven) are Sepedi speakers, with six of them speaking the language IsiZulu fluently. When comparing this table to data from the South Africa Census 2001 cited by the City of Tshwane (2012), it is obvious that Sepedi remains the most widely spoken language in Tshwane. According to the survey, just one of the educators examined is completely unable to speak in isiZulu. In this province,

everyone speaks different languages. This is the most multilingual province in the country and in every city, people are fluent in their language or any language they were exposed to.

Although these instructors are teaching African languages at school, some of them do not teach their original tongues. They are teaching languages for which they were taught and certified in high school. Tshivenda, for example, is the teacher of a Grade isiZulu class, but she only teaches isiZulu. A Tshivenda by birth teacher or rather (native) is teaching home language isiZulu, which is a very interesting experience. According to the language command, she has an excellent talent for teaching isiZulu very well and a very good understanding of the language instructions surrounding that.

Comments from this educator:

> ***Teacher:*** *You mean my languages, the ones that I know?*
>
> ***Interviewer:*** *YES.*
>
> ***Teacher:*** *They are not affected. I have to be honest with you because now I teach IsiZulu. So, I need to come when I get home so to speak Tshivenda. So, I will speak Tshivenda. Just the lower part of the language.*
>
> ***Interviewer:*** *So basically, when a member you are multilingual, not that deep. Okay.*
>
> ***Teacher:*** *Multilingual: with* ***Nguni I am good****.*
>
> ***Interviewer****: Okay, all right. Thank you.*
>
> ***Teacher****: With Nguni I am not bad at it but with Sepedi I am bad.*
>
> ***Interviewer:*** *okay.*
>
> ***Teacher:*** *Educators here at school speak Sepedi. So, we are exposed to the language and the Venda exposed to it at home. exposed to being dead was the home language to English, it's a common language.*
>
> ***Interviewer:*** *Okay. And then the rest well.*
>
> ***Teacher:*** *Ahhhh the challenges and since I'm teaching IsiZulu now we have learners coming outside the country: some of them speak Shonas, and you have Xhosa, we have Ndebele's, we have Tsonga, and they are doing isiZulu. And most of them come with their home language not necessarily speaking isiZulu, but they come to learn isiZulu therefore we have to start teaching isiZulu in a basic way. Then we start by speaking isiZulu. And then if the*

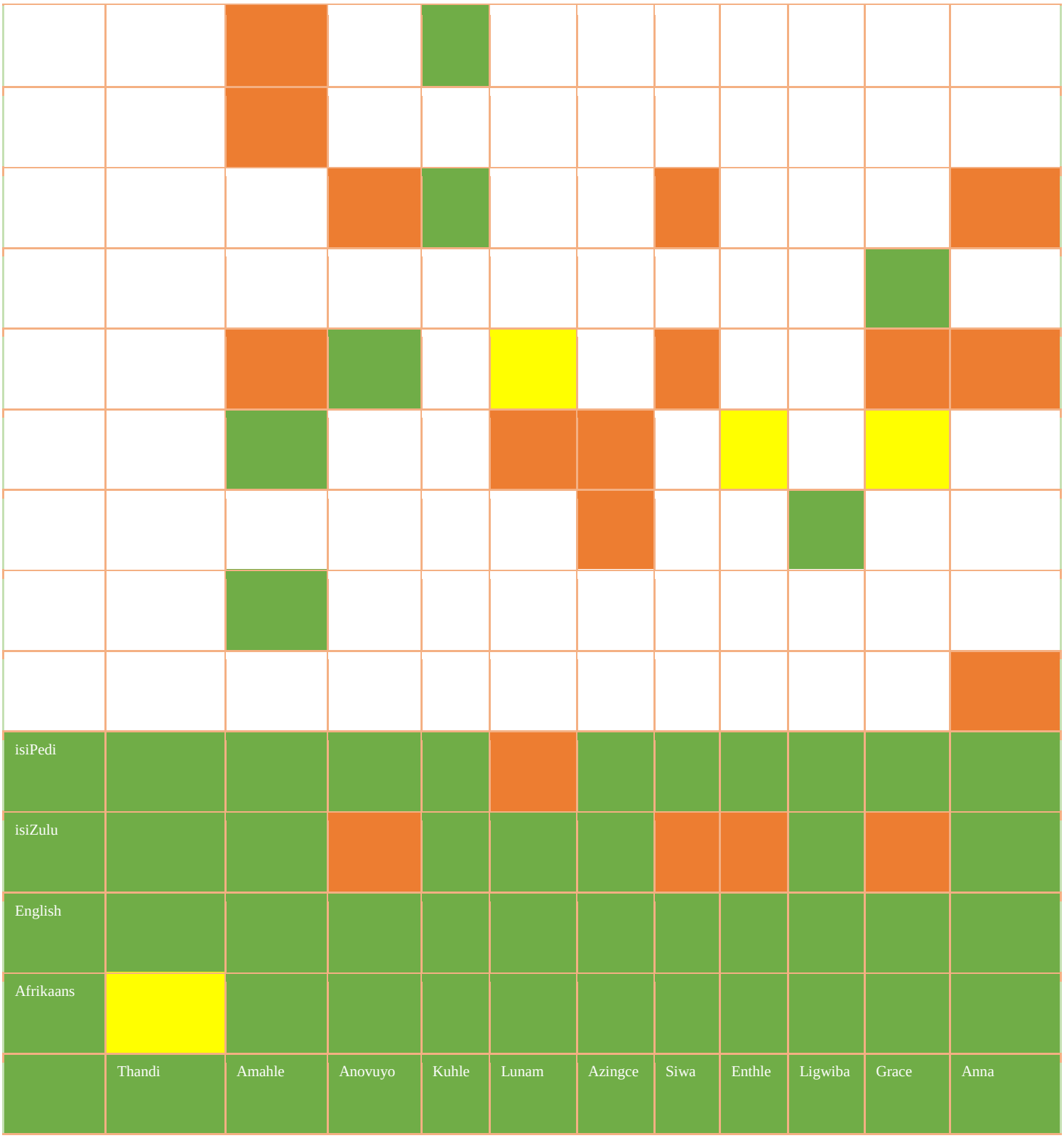
child doesn't understand the language and then somehow, we try to accommodate to their own languages, but still, we have to go back to isiZulu.

Children are good at learning a second language because they acquire the native language repertoire first and then readily transfer to the second exposed language, whether at home, school, or any place they come into touch with people who speak a language other than their mother tongue. They study and master the second most frequently spoken language in the world (Vygotsky, 1979).

L1s are those that are learnt instinctively from birth from their immediate environment, and every child is predisposed to acquiring any language (Chomsky, 1965). Language learning, on the other hand, is a deliberate process of internalizing a language. Learning a language is knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to debate them (Krashen, 1982: 10). This suggests that language learning is explicit, but language acquisition is not. Foreign languages and L2s are languages learnt via formal instruction in formal educational contexts. Littlewood (1984: 91) contends that language acquisition can be both conscious and unconscious.

Language, colour, music, shapes, space, voices, statues, mobilities, sizes, and motions are all understood by children due to their awareness of their environment. All human mental processes are mediated by tools, but these are specific, psychological tools like language, signs, and symbols, he went on to say. Humans are not born with these tools; any more than labour tools are born with them. Human culture develops these abilities, which children learn through interpersonal interactions with adults or more experienced peers. Once learned and internalized, these psychological skills begin to mediate children's mental processes. The theory of Vygotsky (1978).

Table 4. 4 Language Fluency



Good Average Poor

4.3. Theme 1: Challenges Experienced by Educators in Teaching African Languages in Multilingual Schools

The primary goal of this research is to explore ways that Translanguaging can help educators teach African languages in multilingual classrooms. As a result, the research looked into the difficulties that educators experience when teaching African languages in a multilingual classroom. Other sub themes relating to this question evolved as well, as seen in table 4.4.

Teaching African languages in a multilingual setting is becoming increasingly popular and has evolved into a contemporary technique of education. Educators, students, parents, departments, and the public have all been involved (Nyimbili & Mwanza, 2021). Parents, on the other hand, are blamed for this upsetting educational process (Cromarty & Balfour, 2019). They suggest that parents should send their children to well-resourced institutions for them to gain economic relevance and global education recognition. They even advise teaching indigenous languages as a second supplemental language to boost children's educational security.

In educational contexts, the scaffolding method is frequently used to allude to the assistance provided to the student for learning to become feasible (Ellison, 2014: 72). Another defining element of scaffolding is that it is transitory since the scaffold may be destroyed after the skill has been mastered (Ellison, 2014). According to Prinsloo & Krause (2016), educators in national and regional education systems all over the world (but not everywhere) encounter linguistically and sociocultural varied student groups (Creese & Blackledge 2010; Gardner & Martin-Jones, 2012). However, educational systems are often constructed under the guise that education is the same for all educators and students, with pupils being assessed as if such assessments were impartial indicators of human potential. This statement is supported by the following response from a teacher.

> *Think along the way, you learn to code-switch. In the end, because most of the learners that are coming from the outside, some of them understand English better than isiZulu. So, what we'll do is, isiZulu, they translate this to English as time goes on, and literally learn how to speak to at least we can say, could I ever learn I was from Zim? Speak perfectly, Shona. But I know that we can, I can tell you that she understands isiZulu. Because some of*

them, sometimes I give the instruction with this, and then shouldn't probably follow the instruction.

*I think it's real a bit but somehow, it's more complex, I can see (**yes, yes**). Let's say you know when I could compare English and isiZulu. English is straightforward. It shows which one is the easiest. Let's say more, especially when you teach phonics, it shows you the easiest, to the hardest. And this one, one when it goes to isiZulu, it selects it says you can choose from this to this, okay? But when we teach you can go Okay, let me start with the easiest to the hardest, you can just start from the hardest to the easiest. So, with isiZulu caps, it's a bit more complex. You can see.*

These educators prefer English even when teaching African Languages.

Table 4. 5 Educator Responses

Main themes	Subthemes	Explanations provided by participants
Challenges experienced by educators in teaching African languages in multilingual schools.	Communication challenges	The fact that some learners' language backgrounds differ from the teacher's, according to most participants, creates significant communication issues.
	Mixing languages or using them interchangeably	Most participants agreed that because the students are multilingual, they occasionally mix languages when speaking and writing in class.
	Discipline challenges	Several participants concurred that it is difficult to instil discipline in a language that the student does not understand, especially when it comes to learners who are not native speakers of the subject language.
	Translanguaging can be time consuming	Translanguaging, according to some participants, can be daunting because you must occasionally switch from one language to another to communicate a subject.

4.3.1 Subtheme: Communication Challenges

Learning and teaching African Indigenous languages presents both learners and educators with several difficulties because they all originate from diverse backgrounds with distinct languages,

and they are all subjected to different conditions. Hence the process of teaching and learning languages becomes quite challenging for all the parties involved.

A few of the participants described their challenges of teaching learners from diverse backgrounds with these words:

> *I am teaching isiZulu, but we have a lot of learners that are mostly coming from outside the country, most of them coming from Zimbabwe and they speak mostly Shona. We have Xhosas, Ndebeles, Tsongas, all of them are supposed to learn isiZulu but they come speaking their home language therefore, we have to start teaching isiZulu in a basic way. So, we start by speaking isiZulu, but if the child doesn't understand isiZulu, we somehow try to accommodate their own languages so that the learner does not feel alienated or like a stranger in class. But still, we still have to go back to isiZulu. (Thandi)*

> *The challenges I am experiencing in my lessons is that I am teaching isiZulu but the learners I am teaching are not Zulu speaking people, so I need to translate to other languages so that they can understand better. Sometimes I try to switch to English so that I can accommodate those who are from other countries. (Ligwiba)*

> *The issue in our classes is that we have students who speak a variety of languages. And we must attempt to accommodate all of the learners by translating in all of the different languages in the classroom so that we can all come to one language. And then there are those who are relatively new, such as Tsongas, Vendas, and even Ndebeles who are learning Sepedi. So, even though I'm not a Venda, I must try to, let's say, speak English during a Sepedi lesson, so that the students can understand what I'm saying. (Grace)*

> *I have never taught people who are coming from other countries, who are speaking other languages, I must put extra effort to make them understand the Zulu language. (Lunam)*

4.3.2. Subtheme: Mixing Languages or Using Them Interchangeably

Some of the participants explained that because the learners are multilingual or becoming multilingual, they end up using a combination of languages in speaking and writing instead of using the school's home language.

Other participants also articulated their challenges by saying:

> *The major challenge is that they mix languages. They use two languages at the same time, especially mixing English with Sepedi when they are supposed to speak or use Sepedi only. So, this affects even their writing and speaking skills of the subject language in class. They mix even when writing, they sometimes fail to distinguish between subject languages used in class and when they are speaking in general. (Kuhle)*

> *The challenge that I face mostly is that I must code-switch so that they can understand. And even the learners start to code switch instead of using the subject language (Anna)*

> *I think it's real a bit but somehow, it's more complex, I can see (**yes, yes**). Let's say you know when I could compare English and isiZulu. English is straightforward. It shows which one is the easiest. Let's say more, especially when you teach phonics, it shows you the easiest, to the hardest. And this one, one when it goes to isiZulu, it selects it says you can choose from this to this, okay? But when we teach you can go Okay, let me start with the easiest to the hardest, you can just start from the hardest to the easiest. So, with isiZulu caps, it's a bit more complex. You can see.*

4.3.3. Subtheme: Discipline Challenges

Several educators raised concerns about how challenges in communication also pose discipline problems. As in all schools, at the beginning of every year, the educators and the learners are supposed to lay out group rules so that the learning environment can be conducive for both parties. As they progress, learners are reminded of these rules at the beginning of the term. So,

the difficulties in communication that are posed by multilingualism affect the learning environment from the beginning.

> *First terms are the most difficult for me. If they don't understand Sepedi, then they don't understand classroom instructions. Many new learners usually enroll at the beginning of the year, so every first term I have new learners who speak other languages but don't speak Sepedi. They are clueless about Sepedi, and I am clueless about their language. For example, I have learners who come from Nigeria, others are Tsongas and even Ndebele, but I am supposed to teach them Sepedi. So, enforcing ground rules needs to be done in a language that all of us can understand so that we won't have problems, but the first term is a challenge because I will still be trying to navigate my way through every learner with a different language background. (Siwa)*

> *We enforce ground rules on the first day of schools, so now when I am talking, I can clearly see those are understanding what I am saying and those who are not, hence others end up breaking the rules unintentionally, like not completing classwork during the class time or failing to carry out an instruction like changing sitting positions every day. (Kuhle)*

4.3.4. Subtheme: Translanguaging is time-consuming

The interviews revealed that translanguaging can take a long time, especially in classrooms with students who are not only from Pretoria's Tshwane South District but also from other nations. They describe the time and effort they put in to try to include all these students as stressful and overwhelming. They also said that the fact that translanguaging consumes time has adverse effects on the completion of the syllabus. Some of the educators pointed out that:

> *The topic which was supposed to consume 3 hours might end up consuming 5 hours because you must go back and forth from one language to the other, especially for learners who do not have a language in common. (Teacher Kuhle)*

> *I have two learners who are Xhosa and one who is Setswana, but I am teaching Sepedi, luckily, I have a basic understanding of Setswana and I*

speak Xhosa fluently, so sometimes have to explain something or a word in all these languages so that everyone can understand what we are talking about. I don't want to lie; this is strenuous sometimes. (Teacher Grace)
Sometimes because we are using different languages to explain something, we end up even diverting from the topic. (Teacher Anovuyo)

However, if some instructors believe translanguaging would be time demanding. It is what they use regularly in their teaching without realizing it:

The major challenge is their mix of languages; they use both languages at the same time only to find out they want them to speak in Pedi. But they mix and switch to other languages. especially English.

Yes, I do use translanguaging because it is easier for them to understand it. If you don't do that, most of them will remain blank. Not knowing how to learn. Interviewer: return me the lesson ends they won't even understand what the lesson was about but if you Try to mix or switch in between and try to reach their level of understanding. It makes it easier for you.

The challenge is that these learners speak like you said in multilingual schools. They are speaking a lot of languages and even if Sepedi they are not speaking, they are speaking southern Sotho, so, it's like bayabuwa (they speak) somewhere baya mixer, (they mix languages somewhere) interviewer: so, it's kind of a dialect. Yes, dialect, so you have to them from the dialect Atteridgeville, or Pretoria language to Sepedi like when we were in class some of the words, they don't know them in Sepedi, so I have to explain to them and give examples which is a daily thing every time you have to move to that particular language and bring them to Sepedi. ***Interviewer****: yes, I think I have noticed that when you were trying to take it from there to the classroom language.*

4.4. Theme 2: Teaching Approaches Used by Educators in Multilingual Classrooms

Educators must be innovative to make the process of teaching and learning less stressful and more engaging for both educators and students. As a result, educators must use a variety of methods to achieve this goal. Teaching languages can be daunting and difficult, the teacher must be more creative for the students to remain engaged. The results of the study indicated that educators must employ a number of teaching approaches to reach their goals. The table below shows the theme and subthemes that emerged from this objective.

Table 4. 6 Theme 2 Educator responses

Main themes	Subthemes	Explanations provided by participants
Teaching approaches used by educators in multilingual classrooms	blended teaching approach	Several participants stated that using a blended approach to teach African languages is highly beneficial.
	humanising pedagogy	A few educators agreed that the concept of humanizing pedagogy allows for more learner involvement, which is critical in language education.
	the use of phonics and visual aids	Several educators teaching African languages have found that using phonics and visual aids is beneficial.
	The effectiveness of the approaches	Almost all educators agree that these strategies work, depending on the situation at hand.

4.4.1. Subtheme: Blended Teaching Approach

A classroom is a dynamic environment that brings students from all backgrounds, abilities, and personalities together. To satisfy learners' particular requirements, being a good teacher necessitates the use of creative and novel teaching approaches. Most educators indicated that they use more than one teaching approach to achieve the desired outcomes, so the blended teaching approach is the most used in most grades and most schools. Some of the participants said that:

Most of the time we use a textbook-based approach with the learner-based approach depending on the topic at hand. For example, if the topic is a bit difficult and needs more illustrations and emphasis, I use a blended approach, even consulting the internet. Sometimes we give learners work to go and search on the internet. (Grace)

Teaching requires us, educators, to be more creative so that by the end of the day the learners can understand whatever concept you were explaining in class, so we use different methods. I mostly use the subject-centred approach (textbook centred approach) together with the teacher-centred approach. I rarely use the student-centred approach because it requires active participation from the learners, but most learners do not show interest in learning, especially here in rural schools. (Amahle)

I use a blended teaching approach, with the use of other things like pictures and videos, they get a better understanding. (Enthle)

4.4.2. Subtheme: Humanising Pedagogy

According to Freire (1993: 43), concern for humanization immediately leads to the identification of dehumanization, not just as an ontological potential, but also as a historical reality. Both the historical and contemporary realities in education associated with South Africa's dehumanizing past and present have been thoroughly recorded and analysed in a variety of places (Alexander, 2003. By using translanguaging in teaching African Languages, other educators have also adopted the concept of humanising pedagogy to assist them in multilingual classrooms. Using this concept, the educators incorporate the learners' languages and cultures into the academic context to support learning and to help them recognize and preserve pride in their home cultures and at the same time appreciate other languages and cultures as well. This makes learning fun and interesting as reflected by one of the participants.

Although I use the blended approach, combining learner-based and textbook-based approach, the learner-based approach works for me the most because I use discussions and any method that involves active participation of learners among other things to evaluate what they know about that topic

and then I add to their knowledge accordingly. This approach helps me as a teacher to identify areas that I need to put more emphasis on. (Anna)

I use an approach which encourages full engagement of learners in the classroom. I don't want to talk and talk and at the end of the lesson, I find out half of the class do not have a clue of what I was talking about. So, I use an approach called humanising pedagogy. Both I and the learners use our own independent knowledge and experiences at times, which makes teaching and learning more practical and interesting. (Siwa)

I think the best way is to accommodate it and the best way is accommodation to accommodate the learners. Ask question more specially in Foundation Phase we teach by listening and speaking as we speak, there's more listening and speaking than writing Even though just the sound writing the sound listening and speaking remained the main object so accommodate the learners as they speak you correct them more especially those let's say the child is speaking isiXhosa and eehhhhh when they child makes those Xhosa names you correct them isiZulu we say like this, so as time goes on the delay to say okay in isiZulu this is how we do it and in isiXhosa, this is how we do it.

Now that's where we use the flashcards, the flashcards come with a picture so a picture with a picture remains a picture whether you speak it in Afrikaans you speak it in English it's a picture a cup. A cup is a cup I can see as a cup but omuny'umuntu uzobona ikomityi, omuny'uzobona isoso omunyu' uzoyibona nge other languages (other will see a cup as a cup, and others will see a saucer) So, use the pictures to make sure this then as time goes by they learn a language or a box is not ibhokisi (boxes), it changes a little.

4.4.3. Subtheme: The Use of Phonics and Visual Aids

The educators were asked about the strategies which they use especially for those learners who are not very familiar with the subject language in order to accommodate them. The emphasis was when it comes to listening, speaking, and reading so that they are not left behind in terms of understanding and learning. The educators mentioned that apart from using sounds and phonics, they also collaboratively use visual aids to demonstrate. One of the participants said:

> *That's where we use flashcards. The flashcards come with pictures, a picture remains a picture, whether you speak it in Afrikaans, whether you speak it in English, it's a picture, a cup is a cup, I can see it as a cup but umuntu uzoyibona ikomitshi, umuntu uzoyibona esauce (others will see it as a cup, others as a sauce). They all see the same thing but since they understand it in their own language, I explain to them that in isiZulu we call it ikomitshi. A box is not an ibox in isiZulu, it's ibhokisi so it changes a little. So, we expose them through pictures and words, so as time goes by, they start to grasp the language. (Thandi)*

> *Eehh I will talk of a language which is Sepedi normally my approach, in teaching Sepedi it's for the learners to have the phonological awareness they must first hear the sound before they can see it before they see the print, they must know the sound, they must hear the sound actual that works for me. (Anovuyo)*

> *We speak the language, we do share reading, and we read aloud, we do listen and speak. Shared reading helps because the learners read with the teacher. There are books with pictures and there are DBEs from the government, so as you read, they read with you and by looking at the pictures they get a better understanding.*

> *eehhhhh let me take for instances life skills something that we have done recently that I have done recently, I caught myself interest into I was doing life skills visual art, where they had to do their face so before they could do the strategy that learner had to know their facial shapes some are oval,*

square round like a circle, so learners had to know first which shape is their face, so that approach also helps for me because me some time where doing maths and life skills and the before they can even put their eyes, they had to know the shape of their eyes, the shape of their mouths the shapes of their ears so that also works especially using eehh having relevant resources it's very important because I had all those shapes and they could see the shapes, and they could see the shapes I had to take learner with different types shapes compare them with shapes I have circle, oval square all that.

4.4.4. Subtheme: Other Techniques Employed by Educators

Educators must develop and implement a variety of teaching strategies in a multilingual classroom, yet these strategies are not uniformly suitable for all learners. Each instructor has a unique technique that is sometimes appropriate for the learners' grade level or the issue that he or she is facing. When the educators were asked to explain the strategies that they use in a multilingual class, some of the participants stated that:

Teacher: *The first thing is to be accommodative; we must accommodate all the learners. Then in the Foundation Phase, we teach by listening and speaking because there is more listening and speaking than writing. So, as they speak, you correct them, let's say, the child is a Xhosa and the child mixes isiZulu with Xhosa, we correct him/her and say in isiZulu*

Others are using textbook-based approach as a learner-centred approach, other approach are teacher-based approach others are using internet-approach and so on blended teaching approach. Say it like this and in Xhosa, we say it like this (Thandi)

Most of them are using textbooks they learner-approach. Learner teaching approach. We use them and sometimes we ask them to go and search on the internet.

Interviewer*: So, basically, we can say that we are using blended teaching.*

Teacher: *Yeah, mixed.*

4.5. Theme 3: Approaches Used in Content Subjects in Multilingual Classes

Table 4. 7 Theme 3 Educator responses

Main themes	Subthemes	Explanations provided by participants
Approaches used in content subjects		The participants relayed that apart from using teacher, learner, or text-book approaches, they must be more innovative in their classrooms because of the demands of being in multilingual schools.

Language-communication is the basis of any learning environment, so in multilingual schools' educators must be more innovative in teaching content subjects such as life skills, social sciences, natural sciences, maths etc. for further clarification of a concept and to learners who do not speak African indigenous languages.

According to Teacher Kuhle, the approaches required in Foundation Phase differ from those required in the Intermediate Phase. In her words:

> *Well, it differs between Foundation Phase and the Intermediate Phase, since in Foundation Phase most of their learning is based on visual aids, so for instance if it is a maths lesson, we flash 1 as a number and we flash 1 as an object. Going to language, we flash a word and a picture. For example, almost all kids are familiar with a dog, but they may know it in their native language, so when I put up a picture of a dog and illustrate that this is called a dog, it's easier for them to understand. So basically, in the Foundation Phase the approach remains the same for all the subjects. (Kuhle)*

> *In social sciences, most of the time I use visual aids, even when we talk about buildings, they can see those buildings, even the landmarks. Visual aids make it easier for us to teach social sciences. (Thandi)*

In life orientation we use pictures and videos that are relevant to the topic or lesson, this makes it easier for them to really identify the challenges in life. Visual aids give a clear picture. (Amahle)

4.6. Theme 4: Using Code-Switching in Multilingual Classrooms

Table 4. 8 Theme 4 Educator Responses

Main themes	Subthemes	Explanations provided by participants
The use of code-switching in multilingual classrooms		Most educators employ code-switching to teach African languages in a multilingual classroom, even though it is against school regulation in some situations.
	The effectiveness of code-switching in teaching African Languages	Code-switching is a very effective approach in teaching languages, according to all of the participants.

Given the diversity of the learners' backgrounds, educators must apply a variety of techniques to reach all the learners. Teaching is not a one-size-fits-all endeavour, learners come from a variety of backgrounds, cultures, and languages, and therefore the capacity of the teacher to reach out to those learners who want special attention requires a wide range of skills and patience. The educators indicated that teaching African languages in a multilingual class requires a lot of skills so that no learner is left out in the teaching process. Code-switching is thus a skill that almost all language educators must apply. Some of the participants said that:

I think along the way we learn to code-switch. Since most of the learners coming from outside the country understand English better than isiZulu, we translate from isiZulu to English, until they gradually start to grasp isiZulu. (Thandi)

I do use Translanguaging because it is easier for them to understand, if you don't do that, most of them remain blank, not knowing what the lesson was about at the end of the day. But when I mix and try to reach their level of

understanding, the teaching and learning process becomes better for both me and the learners. (Kuhle)

4.7. Subtheme: The Effectiveness of Code-Switching in Teaching African Languages

Educators are generally pleased about translanguaging because it is an important skill that helps them teach not only African languages efficiently, but other subjects such as life skills and social sciences. One of the teachers pointed out that…

> *For learners who are foreign to Sepedi, if I do not use code-switching, they will be at a great disadvantage. Code-switching helps a lot in making them understand Sepedi because I go back and forth from English to Sepedi so that they can get the picture and it really works although it is time-consuming. (Siwa)*

Code-switching and translanguaging are depicted as crucial skills for language educators, and it is extremely important to know and be proficient in multiple languages, especially for a language teacher. To assist learners in understanding topics and concepts educators use code-switching as well as the translanguaging techniques which involves alternating and merging languages.

The educators also assess the effectiveness of the approaches and skills that they use by evaluating the progress made by the learners in grasping the subject language. If the approach does not yield the desired result, they either change the approach or combine it with other approaches.

One of the educators said:

> *I have a learner who is purely Shona but now she understands isiZulu. Sometimes I give work with instructions in isiZulu, and she quickly follows those instructions, and we are only in term 2. (Thandi)*

For some, these were strongly emotional issues. Other educators pointed out that:

> *I don't even know how I would have been able to teach if I didn't speak many languages that I use in class interchangeably.*

The whole process of teaching is based on communication so if I as a teacher cannot speak with a learner in a language that we can both understand, then the whole process is disrupted. That is why I go from one language to the other until the concept is clear to the learners.

Even when I am teaching Sepedi, I must switch from English to Sepedi or even to Tsonga sometimes so that they can understand what I am talking about.

4.8. Theme 5: Translanguaging and Code-Switching Vs. The Language Policy in Schools

Table 4. 9 Theme 5 Educator Responses

Main theme	Subthemes	Explanations provided by participants
Translanguaging and code-switching vs. the language policy in schools		Several participants agree that school language regulations are not well-founded in research and exacerbate the teaching and learning process.

Even though translanguaging is mostly beneficial to both learners and educators, some schools' language policies prohibit their use. However, the educators implied that they still employed it primarily in oral communication in classroom contexts, despite the school's language policy. Two of the educators said that:

We are not allowed by the school policy to use any language that is not the medium of instruction. So, code-switching and Translanguaging are not allowed, however, we as educators are the ones facing these challenges and we must make the learners understand. So yes, we do code-switch and Translanguaging, but we have to do it discreetly. (Amahle)

At this school, we are supposed to use English only unless it is a Zulu lesson, but we use isiZulu, English and even Sepedi if required in other subjects. The

goal is to make the learners understand the concept no matter which language is used. (Anna)

Translanguaging is very helpful, especially in combating communication barriers between educators and learners. Hence the prohibition of the use of Translanguaging and code-switching illustrates how policies are sometimes implemented without adequate investigation and consultation on what is beneficial to learners and educators both on the school level as well as the national level. Learning a second language entails gaining a level of proficiency that allows for relatively easy conversation with speakers of that language, and it is thus a time-consuming and challenging process. In our study, we have frequently characterized achievement in terms of objective test scores, oral samples, course grades, and so on, but these are just handy metrics that we presume are reflective of the individual's total competency in the language at that given time and training. A consequence of this premise is that research on individual variations in language acquisition should be undertaken on persons with comparable backgrounds who are at the same general level of training, or at least potentially confounding variables should be examined, and their effects analysed.

4.9. Theme 6: The Impact of The Community Language on Teaching Pedagogy

Table 4. 10 Theme 6 Educator Responses

Main themes	Subthemes	Explanations provided by participants
The impact of the community language on the teaching pedagogy	the community language takes precedence over the subject language	The community language predominates over the subject language due to its consistent and continuous use.
	comparison of learning the subject language for the first time in the Foundation Phase and learning it for the first time in the Intermediate Phase.	The participants agreed that teaching a new language to a Foundation Phase learner is easier than teaching a new language to an intermediate learner.

As it stands, language is influenced by any external circumstances. The community is the most important influence in language growth and moulding. And the neighbourhood where these students are staying is made up of people from all backgrounds. Consider the people who speak isiXhosa, isiZulu, TshiVenda, Tsonga, Tswana, and so on. All these languages are part of one civilization in one neighbourhood, and they are increasingly meeting in public places. Then you arrive at school, where formal teaching and learning take place. And school informs this youngster that the language of instruction and learning is isiZulu and Sepedi. The youngster who has never been exposed to the language will initially feel excluded; nevertheless, if that child is introduced to the language, he or she will feel included. The teacher will attempt to explain some ideas in a bilingual/multilingual manner. This is to say that community language affects teaching and learning.

Educators said that they were obliged to offer extra attention to students who were falling behind, as well as sufficiently challenge stronger students, to guarantee that all students in their class received an equally effective education.

Teaching isiZulu. That's the language in the class. The language in the community. It's isiPitori like, Sepedi like Sesotho like. So now even though the kids as we are teaching them isiZulu, believe me, most of them are speaking Sepedi like when they communicate on themselves, they speak Sepedi. Okay.

Yes, it has. Now because they speak isiSepedi when they write isiZulu, they want to get the language in mind. I'll tell you. ***Interviewer:*** *that's translanguaging. More especially interestingly here, it's better because it's Foundation Phase. That determines on writing in your own way if they write their own way with the help of the teacher. Now, when you go to the InterSen, you write your own way. So, when you read the script, you can tell mara there is some Sepedi you know, they just end up with the Sepedi part going forward.*

This community has been touched or influenced by the sociological lingua franca, iPitori. This is a mash-up of all the indigenous languages spoken in the locality. Moreover, since individuals speak different languages, they have decided to use this isiPitori lingua franca to bridge the communication gap. This *isiPitori* in school is not allowed since it is a societally formed informal-formal language by citizens. It is not even written down or documented in books; it is a conversational language.

A language is deemed a lingua franca only based on its function, which is any linguistic means of communication between persons of different mother tongues for whom it is a second language. It applies to all circumstances when linguistic communication is difficult or impossible, and it applies equally to locations with extreme dialect variations as it does to those with distinct languages in the typical sense.

Any language can be utilized for this purpose. Natural languages are the most well-known instances of dialects spreading beyond their natural limits, but dialects have expanded in the same way. Fijian, which is based on the Bauan dialect, and Yawelmani, which is spoken by Yokuts on the Tule River Reservation in California, are two examples of the latter. Languages of common contact develop informally, as in every case of second-language acquisition, or officially in some educational environment. In the latter scenario, the languages are generally written, as demonstrated by Latin, which was an important lingua franca until the end of the

Middle Ages, and Arabic, which is still spoken throughout the Islamicized world today. Writing and specialized functions may also have contributed to Aramaic's endurance as a prevalent medium of intercommunication in the Near East, dating back to at least the 6th century B.C.

4.9.1 Subtheme: The Community Language Takes Precedence Over the Subject Language

When the language most often used in the community differs from the language taught in schools, it impacts both the learners' learning capacities and the educators' efforts. Educators must expend extra work and time establishing the subject language because the learners themselves speak their native language outside of class and at home. As a result, the time they spend speaking the community language and the time they spend speaking the language taught at school put the educators at a disadvantage.

> *We teach isiZulu at this school, however, the language that is mostly used in this community is Sepedi, and so when they are speaking amongst themselves, they use this language and even when they go home, they use the community language. So, it becomes difficult and takes longer for them to understand the language that is taught in school which is Sepedi. (Azingce)*

> *The community language has a negative impact because when you give them something to write in isiZulu, they use the language that they are using at home like Setswana, Sesotho, whatever language that they are using at home. So, we need to constantly rectify those mistakes. (Lunam)*

> *The community language does not have any impact on my teaching because at this school, we have two home languages isiZulu and Sepedi and those are the languages that are spoken in this community. So those who speak isiZulu take isiZulu as their home language and those who speak Sepedi take Sepedi as their home language. (Grace)*

4.9.2 Subtheme: Comparison of Learning the Subject Language for The First Time in The Foundation Phase and Learning it For the First Time in The Intermediate Phase

Some educators even went on to compare how the community language affects learning methodology at different stages of learning, particularly for learners who speak a language other than the one taught in school. They claim that learners who begin learning the subject language in the Intermediate Phase encounter more difficulties than those who begin learning the subject language in the Foundation Phase.

> *It is worse in Foundation Phase because it is like you are speaking an alien language to them. You can see the confusion on their faces when you start speaking isiZulu. However, gradually they start to understand. (Teacher Anna)*
>
> *Because they speak Sepedi, when they are writing, they want to add Sepedi in isiZulu language, especially in Intermediate Phase, it's worse because in Foundation Phase they don't get deeper in writing their own words. They write their own words with the help of the teacher. But when you go to Intermediate Phase, you write with your own words, so when you read the script, you can tell that there is some Sepedi included. (Enthle)*

Despite other educators facing challenges in teaching languages that are different from those spoken in that community, other educators portrayed that the community languages worked to their advantage.

> *The community uses isiZulu and Sepedi and the subject language at school is Sepedi, so teaching this language is not too challenging because both at home and at school the learners are doing code-switching. Actually, the use of different languages in the community makes it easier for us to teach Sepedi in class. (Kuhle)*

Knowing many languages spoken in that community is usually beneficial to the teacher since he or she can provide pictures in the language they understand and then translate them to the language they are expected to study in school. One of the educators illustrated that:

> *I am Tshivenda but I teach isiZulu because I was taught isiZulu in school, but I also speak Ndebele, Xhosa, Nguni, and Tshivenda. So, this works in my*

advantage because I continuously have to translate things from different language to isiZulu, which is sometimes frustrating and might even get confusing. (Amahle)

When asked about the impact of multilingualism on their teaching practice, some educators claimed that it actually worked in their favour and aided them in teaching learners from diverse backgrounds. They stated that it was far easier to translate things from a language they shared to the subject language than it was to have no language in common at all.

There are a lot of Zimbabwean learners enrolled in the local schools. So, these learners have to learn Tshivenda like all others. So sometimes I have to use words that have similarities in both Shona and Tshivenda to explain a concept to a learner. For example, in Shona, they say "Ndaneta" and in Tshivenda they say "Ndoneta" meaning "I am tired". "Baba" (father) is the same for both Shona and Tshivenda. "Mkomana" in Tshivenda and "Mukomana" in Shona meaning "boy". So, all these similarities help us teach Tshivenda to learners who are of Shona descent. So, translating from Tshivenda to Shona works way better than translating English to Tshivenda. (Anovuyo)

4.10. Theme 7: The Usefulness and Clarity ff CAPS on African Languages

Table 4. 11 Theme 7 Educator Responses

Main themes	Subthemes	Explanations provided by participants
The usefulness and clarity of CAPS on African Languages.		Although some educators praised CAPS, the majority relayed that CAPS is not very when it comes to teaching African Languages, hence its usefulness is debatable.

There were different opinions from the participants concerning the usefulness and clarity of the CAPS curriculum. Other educators find it a little difficult to apply to schools to teach African

languages. Whereas some believe that CAPS is a map which provides clear guidance. These educators also highlighted that the policy or the framework is mostly concerned about the time issue and how this time can be utilised in teaching and learning. It is not saying how we should clear the content modules of the African Languages. Its focus and outcomes are always looking at the outcomes of the conclusion of the pedagogue process in the classroom.

> *CAPS is very clear because it is just giving you a guide of what exactly you need to do. (Amahle)*

> *CAPS don't really work for me as compared to the annual task plans (Anna)*

> *CAPS is not very clear on what should be done, and it is not based on proper research, everything is generalised. (Siwa)*

4.11. Chapter Summary

Translanguaging is more than just language mixing and the use of bits and pieces of language, it is also about incorporating local knowledge systems and cultures in the pursuit of excellence in teaching and learning in multilingual situations. The notion that switching languages aids learners' learning and acquisition of new knowledge does not sit well with traditional pedagogical approaches, which are based on employing a single language at a time and place for teaching and learning. Translanguaging facilitates concept presentation and content consumption, which would have been decontextualized and tiresome if a bilingual approach was used. When the formal borders between languages are erased, translanguaging offers a conducive learning environment that encourages active interaction for both educators and learners. Educators can employ words and phrases that learners are already familiar with, and educators can intentionally tap into the learners' own life experiences and home literacies, bringing home knowledge into the classroom interaction and learning content becomes more practical.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.0. Introduction

In the previous chapter, the results of the study were presented using a thematic approach based on manually extracted themes. The data was analysed according to the main and subsidiary objectives the study envisaged to have accomplished. This data was further categorized into themes and subthemes which was also reflective of the main and sub-objectives of the study. In this chapter, I will be discussing the themes and sub-themes that were tabulated in the previous chapter. This discussion is based on or extracted and conveyed from the literature review that was discussed in chapter two. The chapter will further discuss the following: demographic of the participants; translanguaging in teaching; challenges facing educators in teaching African indigenous languages in multilingual classrooms; government input through language policy development (CAPS attentively discussed); approaches and styles educators employ in their teaching; societal contributions in children's language acquisition.

As a starting point, I discuss the objectives aligned with literature review themes and some of the major themes that were discovered in this study. Williams (1980) coined the term ***trawsieithu*** to describe a language practice involving the deliberate and systematic employment of two languages inside the same lecture (Nagy, 2018). Translanguaging appears to be a more adaptable method that permits multilingual learners to switch between languages with ease (Phipps, 2019). Garcia (2019) describes translanguaging as a process that facilitates the training of all learners, regardless of their language practices, to improve the meaning-making, creativity, and criticality of their educational experience.

Educators in national and regional schooling systems face linguistically and sociocultural varied groups of students in many different areas across the world (Gardner & Martin-Jones, 2012). Schooling policies, on the other hand, have frequently been formed with the premise that education is the same for all educators and students, and that pupils are tested as if such assessments are neutral indicators of personal aptitude. As a result, in such circumstances, translanguaging challenges the monolingual pedagogical paradigm (i.e., English only) and encourages learners and educators to use their familiar and available linguistic, semiotic, and multimodal resources to aid meaning-making processes in the classroom (Tai & Wei, 2021).

Unfortunately, monolingual language-in-education policies and practices continue to prevail, making language a challenge to learn for so many learners (Makalela, 2018). Learners and educators in multilingual classrooms are affected by these linguistic policies and practices, as well as the prevalent socio-economic issues. Learners, educators, and institutions require proactive evidence-based support to help them overcome the barriers posed by a lack of proficiency in the language of instruction. According to Duarte's (2019), translanguaging tactics have provided learners and educators in multilingual classrooms with flexible means to communicate in various languages, but little is known about how to implement this approach in multilingual classrooms to improve knowledge.

5.1. Description of Data Collection

The instrument that was identified to collect sufficient data for this study was observation and note-taking. As a teacher, it became difficult to be an observer, however, as a professional teacher that has taught in Primary school for more than three years, during the entire period of data collection, I tried not to intimidate the educators or participate in a manner that would be regarded as intimidating.

Both schools where data was collected were bilingual and have isiZulu and Sepedi as home languages. This is according to the government, however, many of the learners and educators are multilingual. According to Busch (2010), there is a recognition in line with the constitution of South Africa that in post-apartheid the country became free from inequality and moved to an open linguistic and literature spectrum when it comes to languages. The statement alluded to by Setati & Adler (2000), is a clear contradiction of what has been found and observed in the multilingual schools of South Africa. We use multilingualism as an attribute of the learner or teacher, and as a descriptor of classes in South Africa. A multilingual learner speaks more than two languages.

A learner-centred school language policy acknowledges and valorises the resources and aspirations that the school community learners, educators, and parents bring with them. It refuses to reduce the heteroglossia of individual speakers either to monolingualism or to a dichotomy between mother tongue and target linguistics (REF). The awareness of diversity not only in the sense of a multitude of separate and bounded language communities but also within a community, within a network of communication or in each situation relies on the concept of heteroglossia, i.e., the multilingual, the multivoicedness and the multi discursivity

of society (Bakhtin, 1981). Such an approach views multilingualism in terms of situated practices and not as abstract and absolute competencies (Busch, 2010).

The South African Constitution recognises eleven official languages on an equal footing without affording English or any of the other ten languages any special status. For half a century, the ruling class divided people according to their mother tongues in an Apartheid state. The non-white majority was forced to live in separate self-governing administrative units in which their respective home languages became the official languages of these so-called independent states (Brenzinger, 2017). The Constitution and language policies of the new South Africa intend to foster the transformation of a previously bilingual nation with Afrikaans and English as the official languages into a new South African state in which the majority languages of its African citizens are uplifted to the same level. The legal provisions and the language policies introduced over the last twenty years have, however, had a minimal impact on the actual use of languages other than English and Afrikaans in official spheres.

AS outlined in Chapter 4, primary school is demarcated into three phases: Foundation Phase (FP), Intermediate Phase (IP), and Senior Phase (SP). The teaching differs from the style and approach of teaching as the phases are transcended. For instance, in Foundation Phase; children are taught in the Home Language (HL). Each school is mandated to vote for the mother tongue language/native that will be used as a medium of teaching. All this is supported by the Department of Basic Education (DBE), and gazetted in the CAPS, PAM, School's Act. All these policies were adopted and acknowledged by the white paper of 1995, which governs the schooling system post-Apartheid regime. According to these documents and the South African constitution, it constitutes that the Foundation Phase comprises the following grades: Grade R to Grade 3. It is made up of four consecutive progressive classes.

The documents as noted by DBE, in line with CAPS, state that children in the Foundation Phase should be taught in their mother language, which is identified by the school and district officers. The schools differ from their Home Language, though mostly they share the First Additional Language. The schools take charge in coming up with the home language, as it is determined by the community the school is situated in. For instance, the school in EC, will never make Sepedi their home language because of the region that does not permit that. Similarly, in Cape Town, they will never have a school that has Sesotho *sa Lebowa* as a medium of instruction. This is because the languages that are spoken are different from

province to province. The society that a school is situated in has an enormous impact on a home language.

5.2. Demographics of the Participants

The study was conducted in Gauteng province in South Africa, in a small town known as the capital city Pretoria. In this city, the study has merged to a small township area well-renowned for its multilingualism, Atteridgeville and Olievenhoutbosch. Since the researcher is based in Potchefstroom, this area was much closer but also fitting the profile that the researcher was interested in. The researcher chose this area because of its multilingual nature which was very useful in achieving the objectives of the study. The population of the area is approximately 200 000. This is a multicultural and multilingual community, reflective of many other societies across South Africa. According to the recently updated municipality distribution information, the city of Tshwane has the well-known aspects of this research that contributed to the stability required. These participants are coming from a renowned province that must accommodate many people, across the country, this is simply because it is viewed as a fast-growing province.

5.3. What Is Known and the Future of Translanguaging

Garcia & Baetens (2009) argued in her recent tour de force on bilingual education in the twenty-first century that bilingualism is not monolingualism times two, not like a bicycle with two balanced wheels, but more like an all-terrain vehicle, whose wheels extend and contract, flex and stretch, allowing movement forward, that is bumpy and irregular but also sustained and effective over highly uneven ground. She merged this viewpoint with the word translanguaging, which she borrowed and extended from Williams (1994) and Baker (2003) in relation to instructional approaches in which students hear or read a lesson, a chapter in a book, or a portion of the material in one language then develop their work in another.

As a result, input and output are in various languages and are routinely altered. Translanguaging may thus be viewed not only as a multilingual language practice but also as a pedagogical technique to promote language and literacy development. Furthermore, the translanguaging example, in which university students speak and write in Sepedi, other local languages, and a variety of English, demonstrates that educators do not need to be fluent in every language spoken by their students to use translanguaging as a pedagogical practice.

Although Canagarajah (2011) defined translanguaging as the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that comprise their repertoire as an integrated system, Garcia & Baetens (2009) expanded this intermingling to include language varieties as well as languages. According to Garcia Baetens (2009) a student is translanguaging when she switches between Spanish and English, as well as between more official and colloquial forms of one or both languages.

The educators use different, and many approaches and they have been unaware of employing their teaching repertoire using translanguaging to make meaning in pedagogical linguistic approaches. Based on the experience educators are having since their teaching journey, when they were teaching African languages, they turned to switching from that language they are using during teaching, and they think of their everyday life. By translanguaging as everyday practice, we mean complexes of situated, processual and interactional communicative practices. The latter are sensitive to how linguistic and semiotic material, including named languages, are creatively and critically processed by speakers to construct and organize their everyday life, by acquiring knowledge about the context and the participants involved in the interaction Garcia Baetens (2009).

In addition to what has been discussed and narrated, Wei (2018) makes a huge addition that this practice has been in our daily lives and that we were unaware of it. It has been used in public spaces, such as schools, clubs, museums, educational fraternities, advertising industries, etc. All these spaces were in the utilization of this approach to rely on a clear discussion and progressing message.

Whereas other scholars see translanguaging as an old linguistic process, Nagy (2018: 42), defines Translanguaging, as a relatively new approach to language teaching, as a language practice that allows language learners to use all their linguistic skills, experience, and competencies acquired in their home language as well as other languages for meaning-making purposes. It represents a shift from traditional monolingual methods in that it presupposes certain fluidity between language systems as well as the linguistic skills and competencies of the language learner (Nagy, 2018). The term translanguaging has come to replace the normal terms that were normally used, code-switching, code-mixing, and tri languaging. Those were informal approaches that did not, however, look at the possibility of these linguistic processes as possible teaching practices.

To illustrate this vision, Hornberger & Link (2012a and 2012 b) offer scenarios from different educational contexts, both of which provide examples of students engaging in translanguaging, a practice that is becoming more widely recognized across educational contexts in an increasingly globalized world. Hornberger & Link (2012a) indicate how translanguaging relates how bilingual pupils communicate and generate meaning by drawing on and combining linguistic characteristics from multiple languages. Developing an orientation to translanguaging practices, such as those depicted in Hornberger & Link (2012a), allows for a more complete understanding of the communicative repertoires that students bring to school and aids in identifying how to draw on those repertoires for successful educational experiences for all students (Ref). Following the presentation of their two situations, Hornberger and Link (2012: a:240) "propose the continuum of biliteracy as a tool for structuring pedagogy to appreciate and build on students' translanguaging activities to aid their learning. [They] conclude by saying that educators and policymakers might benefit from appreciating kids' and their families' extensive and varied communication repertoires and translanguaging practices" (Hornberger & Link, 2012a or b: 240).

In relation to the future of translanguaging, Wei & Lin (2019) examine the future of translanguaging in the national education system. Translanguaging as a pedagogical technique by Williams and Baker encompassed modes of hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. Translanguaging, as a theoretical notion, encompasses the multimodal social semiotic idea that language signals are part of a larger repertory of modal resources available to sign creators and that bear specific socio-historical and political connections (Kress, 2015). It emphasizes the many ways in which language users utilize, generate, and interpret various types of signals to communicate across contexts and participants and act on their various subjectivities.

Translanguaging emphasizes how language users make use of tensions and conflicts among distinct signs because of the socio-historical connotations the signals convey, in a cycle of refermionization and transformation (REF). Lin (2012) in a similar endeavour, expands on Halliday's concept of trans-semiotic and coined the word "trans-semiotizing" to emphasize the tension-filled yet fluid flow of entanglement of diverse meaning-making resources (Lin, 2019). Hawkins (2018) proposes the concept of trans modalities, which is linked to critical cosmopolitanism, to embrace processes of semiosis across place, space, and time that transcend the local, becoming trans local and transnational, indexing the diversity of actors engaged in new configurations of communicative engagements in a globalized, technologized world.

5.3.1. Advantages of Translanguaging

Studies that focus on the role of language in pedagogy have found that translanguaging has a lot of benefits. Because of the new view of translanguaging, where languages were seen as separate items, translanguaging offers a fresh view that looks at pedagogy as made up of interwoven layers glued together by language(s). Translanguaging is seen to be more inclusive and transformative, especially when it comes to monolingual, bilingual, foreign, and second language education (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Given that curricula take a learner-centred approach, it therefore obtains that what students do in their learning process should be regarded as primarily important because it is central to their learning, and these include translation and translanguaging (Garcia & Baetens, 2009.)

As a result, translanguaging helps learners to better understand and use the subject matter, and it may help weaker languages by allowing them to learn from each other (Baker, 2006; 2011; Cummins, 2008). In addition, translanguaging is about being creative and critical (Wei, 2011a or b), and it includes strategies that can help students improve their speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills. It helps the learner use what they hear in one language to give the sense or idea of what they are hearing in another. In instances where learners use L2 as a main mode of learning, they may be asked a question in other languages, but respond in another language that they better understand and speak. In writing activities, translanguaging provides an opportunity to summarise in one language and learn in another. In a nutshell, translanguaging is a way to use more than one language (multilingualism) in a dynamic way for better communication and language production (Probyn, 2019). It does this by using one language to strengthen the other to make the other more understandable (Lewis et al., 2012). This, in turn, can help the learner gain more confidence and be more motivated to study (Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

In the context of South Africa, Madiba (2014) found that when Tshivenda, isiXhosa, and English are used at the same time in science classes at the University of Cape Town, it makes it easier for people to learn. In another study, Makalela (2015a, b or c) found that the use of Sepedi, isiZulu, isiNdebele, SiSwati, and English in a teacher preparation and training program led to a better understanding of the content and the effectiveness of the whole phenomenon. A new study by Hurst & Mona (2017) points out that a translanguaging pedagogy can help decolonize the university curriculum in South Africa after students said they liked being able to use their own languages in school. DBE-naturalizing current language-in-education policies,

disciplines, and concepts that define a specific reality in the applied language field is one strategy for de-linking from the colonial power matrix (Maldonado & Torres, 2017).

This entails searching for new forms of knowledge as well as new ways to express them. This will require not only identifying covert and overt indicators of marginalisation and inequalities in language policy pronouncements but also identifying strategies used by so-called marginalized groups to re-negotiate unequal power dynamics caused by colonialist negative effects (Probyn, 2019). For example, their linguistic practices challenge and question the social structures of inequalities normalized in language education policies (Tavarez et al., 2021). Rather than accepting language education policies and practices in Africa as givens, which essentially serve to reinforce and validate colonial ideologies, as well as inequalities and marginalization as natural outcomes of conforming to societal norms or academic standards, it is critical to identify breaches and cracks in hierarchised social structures, as well as strategies that can be used to overcome inequalities and marginalization.

It is highly suggested that translanguaging should be considered a legitimate interactional practice in classroom discourse in South Africa and all African language education policies and practices (Akinpelu, 2020). This would take advantage of the multilingual language practices of both learners and educators. This is especially true for black students, who are frequently unable to use their diverse linguistic repertoire for academic purposes due to monolingual language education policies. Xhosa or Xhosa English can be used to regulate and predispose the learners, and English (or English Xhosa) can be used for instructional purposes (Tavarez et al., 2021).

5.4. Challenges Facing Educators in Multilingual Classrooms

Educators have been using translanguaging not knowing what it was that they were using when teaching in multilingual classrooms. One of the participants made a very distinct explanation that when they are teaching African indigenous languages they had to switch from that native or home language to English. They have found English as the best language that they use to switch to from indigenous language. The analysis from a study conducted demonstrates that translanguaging can be a critical resource that the teacher can use to build a rapport and facilitate the explanation of content thereby promoting meaningful communication with learners. One of the respondents, a teacher, provided a good example as can be observed below:

Interviewer: *Okay. And then the rest well.*

Teacher: *Ahhhh the challenges and since I'm teaching IsiZulu now we have learners coming outside the country: some of them speak Shonas, and you have Xhosa, we have Ndebele's, we have Tsonga, and they are doing isiZulu. And most of them come with their home language not necessarily speaking isiZulu, but they come to learn isiZulu therefore we must start teaching isiZulu in a basic way. Then we start by speaking isiZulu. And then if the child doesn't understand the language and then somehow, we try to accommodate to their languages, but still, we must go back to isiZulu.*

The main challenge outlined by the teacher is that, at home she speaks isiVenda, at school she teaches isiZulu but mixes with Sepedi. However, in instances where learners come from a different country, she must teach isiZulu as a second language (a basic) way. As indicated in the expert, the teacher must try to accommodate the languages that the learner speaks.

This use of translanguaging can transform the classroom into a creative space which permits the teacher and the learners to perform creatively and experiment during the learning process (Tai & Wei, 2021). Language educators use the language resources at their disposal with some finesse to get students interested in the subject matter. The institutional language ideologies that manifest in the school's language policy and assessment systems, on the other hand, turn such skilled language practices into a relative disadvantage. Educators continue to translanguaging despite the rigorous, exclusionary language beliefs that inform school management, even though they are breaking the principal's language policy and knowing that their students are suffering from monoglossic test requirements (Krause & Prinsloo, 2016). Another educator highlighted this challenge:

*I think a bit but somehow, it's more complex, I can see (**yes, yes**). Let's say you know when I could compare English and isiZulu. English is straightforward. It shows which one is the easiest. Let's say more, especially when you teach phonics, it shows you the easiest, to the hardest. And this one, one when it goes to isiZulu, it selects it says you can choose from this to this, okay? But when we teach you can go Okay, let me start with the easiest to the hardest, you can just start from the hardest to the easiest. So, with isiZulu caps, it's a bit more complex. You can see.*

In this expert, we can see that although the school and the policy make provision for teaching in the mother-tongue, for example in an isiZulu class, it is very difficult when the learner does not share the same language as the school community. As a result, the teacher ends up going back to English because she believes that isiZulu "caps is a bit more complex" than English.

Communication challenges have been observed between educators and learners in multilingual schools because of their diverse language origins. Interaction between learners and educators from different backgrounds is difficult, making learning difficult for both sides. Some educators became frustrated because they cannot communicate successfully with most of their students (Joseph, 2015). This point is driven home by this expert from one of the educators:

> *The issue in our classes is that we have students who speak a variety of languages. And we must attempt to accommodate all of the learners by translating in all of the different languages in the classroom so that we can all come to one language. And then some are relatively new, such as Tsongas, Vendas, and even Ndebeles who are learning Sepedi. So, even though I'm not a Venda, I must try to, let's say, speak English during a Sepedi lesson, so that the students can understand what I'm saying. (Grace)*

Interaction between the teacher and learner is limited when the teacher only understands a few Zulu words or phrases and the learner only knows enough Setswana and English to obey basic directions and react in monosyllables. As a result, translanguaging improves successful communication, allowing both students and educators to participate in social and interactive activities in the multilingual classroom (Csillik, 2020).

Finding ways to facilitate the range of home languages is one of the issues that educators encounter in multilingual classes. According to (Csillik, 2020), several educators may feel overwhelmed by the number of low-incidence languages represented in the classroom. It is frequently difficult to discover a way to interact with learners in their native languages. Educators must be creative in their approaches, such as connecting with individuals in the community who speak the same languages as the learner's family. Educators frequently rely on volunteer translators such as family members, close friends, classmates' parents, etc. or, if accessible, over-the-phone translation services (Csillik, 2020).

Translanguaging breaks down all the barriers created by government and school policies that promote the use of a specific language or languages, thereby diminishing the L1 of minority language learners. Catalano & Hamann (2016) use English as an example of an overpowering language that dominates the curriculum despite the learners' intrinsic diversity of languages. The use of certain languages as LoLT marginalizes other minority languages (Makalela, 2018), and learners from such backgrounds are more likely to have unfavourable educational results since their language options are limited, obstructing their comprehension of the content being taught.

5.5. Pedagogical Approach and CAPS

The findings of the current study reveal that both learners and educators experience communication challenges, especially if they come from diverse language backgrounds. Educators and students have difficulty expressing themselves in (Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) e.g., English as the medium of instruction. Because LoLT is a second or third language for most black educators, conveying it simply and understandably that a learner can understand might be challenging at times; hence, the significance of translanguaging. These findings concur with the results of the study that was conducted by Owen-Smith (Owen-Smith, 2010). According to (Owen-smith, 2010) in South African classrooms, most students suffer from a language barrier. Any learner who is unable to communicate in the language with which he or she is most accustomed, i.e., the home language (L1), is at a disadvantage and is unlikely to perform to his or her full potential.

These communication problems that learners face have an impact on their self-esteem and sense of self, particularly in school and other settings where they are expected to utilize the LoLT. The findings of Owen-Smith's (2010) study agree with this current study in that using LoLT alone as a medium of instruction impairs the learner's native language and is linked to underachievement. This disadvantage has cognitive, psychological, social, and cultural dimensions, all of which are reflected in the educational system's persistent failure.

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement, or CAPS, is designed to provide educators with precise instructions on what to teach and assess in each grade and subject. It also includes a week-by-week schedule for educators to follow. The inference is that CAPS is expected to provide a plan for every grade level on how to teach every subject every day of the week (Owen-Smith 2010). However, some of the study's findings suggest that CAPS' roadmap for

teaching African languages in multilingual classrooms is not entirely clear and understandable, making it difficult for both instructors and students. The reason for this is the difficulties involved with the transformation process required to move away from the long-dominant monolingual systems. One of the teachers, Siwa, indicated that teaching learners with different linguistic backgrounds can be challenging and time-consuming. Given that CAPS has its requirements and timeframes, this can be frustrating for both the educator and the learner trying to reach everyone in different languages while at the same time keeping an eye on time and content. It therefore becomes easier to fall back to the monolingual practices associated with apartheid language policies. Akinpelu (2021 supports this finding by pointing out that nationally, most African states implement an endorsement language policy, which is effectively a continuation of the language policy inherited from colonizers, because colonial languages continue to hold all official duties such as education, administration, justice, etc.

Furthermore, according to Ouane & Glanz (2010), just 176 of Africa's 2,144 indigenous languages are employed in educational systems. This only accounts for roughly 8% of the languages spoken on the continent and none of them have the same prestige as the languages inherited from colonialism. These languages are in the national curriculum in some circumstances but are poorly implemented due to a shortage of teaching professionals or teaching resources (Adegbija, 2004). Coupled with the shortage of professional teaching resources is the issue of dialectal differences. One of the teachers interviewed in the current study pointed out that….

> *The challenge is that these learners speak like you said in multilingual schools. They are speaking a lot of languages and even if Sepedi they are not speaking, they are speaking southern Sotho, so, it's like bayabuwa (they speak) somewhere baya mixer, (they mix languages somewhere) interviewer: so, it's kind of a dialect. Yes, dialect, so you have to them from the dialect Atteridgeville, or Pretoria language to Sepedi like when we were in class some of the words, they don't know them in Sepedi, so I must explain to them and give examples which is a daily thing every time you have to move to that particular language and bring them to Sepedi*

South African Indigenous languages have many dialects. Coupled with this is the use of many languages and different dialects by different learners. As can be deduced from the expert form of one of the teachers, there is no single dialect called Sepedi, the language variety used depends on the area or the community that the learner comes from. This becomes very difficult

in instances where a teacher may only understand a particular variety. This hinders any attempts to implement policies that favour local languages.

Additionally, research has shown that pupils drop out of school due to problems in understanding the language of instruction (Brock-Utne, 2006). Makalela (2015) comments that Africa is still the only continent where most children get a formal education in a foreign language. Akinpelu (2021) supports this notion by stipulating that formal educational systems in Sub-Saharan Africa are still completely controlled by the exclusive use of the traditionally inherited colonial languages such as French, English, Portuguese, and Spanish, to the detriment of indigenous languages, which are typically demoted to informal uses due to their lack of official recognition. Only major numerically significant languages are usually given some attention in countries where it appears that efforts have been made to promote some of these languages, but they are seldom totally elevated to the same status as languages inherited via colonialism.

When we think of the challenges that teachers highlighted in terms of the fact that translanguaging is beneficial but also time-consuming, we can see how it may be easy to fall back to the colonial languages. Some of the teachers also pointed out that learners may be left behind in instances where the language used for giving instructions is not understood. This may lead to poor behaviour and lack of cooperation from the learners. Again, English becomes the language that is used to rescue the situation. Sibanda (2020) agrees with this view when he says that indigenous languages are seen as substandard and are at risk of extinction. The policy failed to generate indigenous methods of thinking, knowing, seeing, doing, and responding to the world to restore African identity and consciousness (Sibanda, 2020). This is also seen in other African countries where initially indigenous languages were used in education.

As an illustrative point, Nigeria's language policy is essentially a continuation of the legacy left to it by colonization, favouring the use of English in public spheres, including education. In practice, English remains the primary language of instruction at all levels of formal education in Nigeria, and it is regarded as the language of success due to the socioeconomic opportunities it provides ((Akinpelu, 2021). However, this approach has proven unproductive because it continues to marginalize a large portion of the Nigerian people rather than empowering them to contribute to development (Akinpelu, 2021). The responses presented in chapter 4, although highlighting the importance of translanguaging, also warns us about how these challenges may further disadvantage the very aims of the policies that seek to promote the generation of

thinking, knowing, seeing, and responding in ways that will restore the African identity and elevate the status of the speakers of those languages.

5.6. Approaches and Styles Educators Employ in Their Teaching

Educators use different approaches. The researcher would gladly submit to say that, as an educator, you are expected and willingly motivated to know your group. There is no teacher who does not know his/her audience, knows their intellectual providence and abilities, and then also understands the background of the group. Educators interviewed in this study indicated that several strategies are used depending on the situation at hand.

According to (Strauss & Huddlestone, 2016), code-switching also works in the classroom when employing the language of provocation, and it aids the teacher's accomplishment by allowing him to explain information and engage learners through provocation. Provocations allow and encourage students to discover the world for themselves through open-ended activities that are not openly supervised by a teacher. One of the teachers pointed out that she uses several approaches, including allowing learners to self-explore:

> *Most of the time we use a textbook-based approach with a learner-based approach depending on the topic at hand. For example, if the topic is a bit difficult and needs more illustrations and emphasis, I use a blended approach, even consulting the internet. Sometimes we give learners work to go and search on the internet. (Grace)*

The goal of provocations is to inspire students to think for themselves by encouraging them to pursue their interests and explore those interests (Haughey & Hill, 2017). The teacher is perceived to be the only reliable source of information in contrast to the learner-centred approach. Garrett (2008), pointed out that the relationship between educators' and students' teaching relation, will not be inseparable. The teacher is said not to function effectively in the classroom without the student. The student in the classroom cannot function without the help, intervention, and assistance of the teacher. One of the teachers, Amahle, points out that although they use different teaching approaches. One form may be used more because of the local conditions:

> *Teaching requires us, educators, to be more creative so that by the end of the day the learners can understand whatever concept you were explaining in*

> *class, so we use different methods. I mostly use the subject-centred approach (textbook centred approach) together with the teacher-centred approach. I rarely use the student-centred approach because it requires active participation from the learners, but most learners do not show interest in learning, especially here in rural schools. (Amahle)*

On the other hand, another teacher, Siwa, used what she called a humanising approach. This approach, unlike the one discussed above, this teacher draws from the experiences of the students, which she finds makes learning exciting.

> *I use an approach which encourages full engagement of learners in the classroom. I don't want to talk and talk and at the end of the lesson, I find out half of the class do not have a clue of what I was talking about. So, I use an approach called humanising pedagogy. Both I and the learners use our independent knowledge and experiences at times, which makes teaching and learning more practical and interesting. (Siwa)*

This study, therefore, investigated the relationship between these two variables. The focus of the next section explores this relationship from the angle of the learner.

5.7. Children Language Acquisition and Translanguaging

The results of this study show that translanguaging encourages the use of both home language and language of teaching and learning, therefore elevating home language which had previously been marginalized using English for example as a medium of instruction in the educational system. Hurst (2016) explains that learners lack confidence since they fail to talk fluently in their second language. Furthermore, according to Hurst's (2016), learners are troubled by the fact that they must abandon their L1 and that their L1 is regarded as inferior. Translanguaging provides a beam of hope for the elevation of indigenous languages. In the next sections I discuss some of the benefits of translanguaging in relation to the development of indigenous languages.

5.7.1 The Importance of Translanguaging in Promoting Language Learning

So far, the focus of this discussion has been on the use of translanguaging to facilitate learning. One of the advantages of translanguaging is that it exposes learners to languages that they would otherwise not be able to use in the classroom. The responses from most of the educators reveal that many of these learners come with the knowledge of at least two languages. Because learners come from different language backgrounds and are exposed to the many languages used in the community and the classroom, it means that they learn more languages as they progress through their schooling career.

For the educators on the other hand, those who do not speak languages that are spoken in the community struggle. This was explicitly explained that those who are coming from Eastern Cape are the ones who struggle to teach in multilingual classrooms. Their input is that in their province they only speak isiXhosa. Whereas in Gauteng province people there speak different languages. And these different languages are dominated by IsiZulu, and the formation of lingua franca languages to make communications reachable across. This language was coined to bridge the gap between languages.

Several researchers have indicated that translanguaging or multilingual classrooms promote language learning. Lightbown et al. (2006:4), points out that even at the single word level, children learn the roles of negation, such as commenting on the disappearance of things, refusing a proposal, or rejecting a claim. However, as Bloom's (1991) longitudinal studies reveal, even if learners comprehend these functions and express them with single words and gestures, it takes some time for them to be able to express them in sentences with the necessary words and word sequence.

Meanwhile, Lwanga-Lumu (2020) and Rivera & Mazak (2017) concur that translanguaging can help students feel more in control of their learning and create a stronger sense of self. Most recent studies, including this study, have demonstrated the value of translanguaging as a learning resource, and it is seen to be a good approach to compensate for the obstacles faced by multilingual learners (Oihana et al., 2020).

Educators and learners who employ translanguaging in their learning processes have more positive outputs than those who do not. Translanguaging can be used as a foundation on which new knowledge can be built. In multilingual classes, learners may have difficulty going to the

next level if they cannot understand what is taught in the language of instruction, using L2 alone can have repercussions on learning. According to Omidire (2019), learning requires interaction amongst students in the classroom, which can be enhanced by encouraging the use of translanguaging to engage and develop connections that lead to high-level comprehension (Csillik, 2020).

Many educators in schools can see if most of the classroom speaks the educators' language to switch to it. This has helped them to motivate the outcomes at each end of the term. Many educators may have chosen English as the language to vamp to it, whilst others will use their vernacular spoken by the majority in the classroom. Translanguaging, and/or code-switching, affords educators and learners the opportunity to exchange between languages to overcome linguistic barriers to communicate effectively with spoken or written statements (Csillik & Golubeva, 2017). Therefore, permitting translanguaging as a pedagogical approach in the class to choose the language in which language learners can transmit meaning most accurately, mostly through speaking and writing, makes students feel at ease from the start of their first or second additional language learning (Garcia & Wei, 2014).

According to Uys (2010), who investigated Afrikaans-English code-switching among educators and learners in the Northern Cape, educators used code-switching for academic reasons, such as clarifying and explaining concepts, as well as for social reasons, such as maintaining social relationships, and finally for classroom management, such as maintaining discipline and reprimanding.

Translanguaging promotes dialogue and group identity, according to Adendorff (1993) the writing is seen in, Strauss & Huddlestone (2016). For example, in a school that employs Zulu as a medium of teaching, utilizing words like "***Hami amukela***," which means "***welcome"*** in Xitsonga, piques the interest of the other pupils. Not only is curiosity stimulated among learners, but so is attention to class; their desire to know what the teacher has communicated increases their attention to class. As a result, when the teacher goes on to state ***"Re a go amogela",*** which is **"welcome"** in Sepedi, greater curiosity is aroused while also providing Tsonga and Sepedi speaking learners with a sense of acceptance into the Zulu setting. Finally, when the teacher says ***"wamukelekile",*** the learners who already have a Zulu background understand, but their interest in the other languages introduced by the teacher has already been picked.

The findings of this study indicate that classroom relationships are also developed in this manner so that students who speak a minority language do not feel excluded, but rather accepted and included in an otherwise foreign environment. Because they feel obligated to repay the favour of speaking the other person's native language, the inclusion of their language in the teaching process drives them to acquire additional languages other than their own. Kieswetter (1995), the meantime Strauss & Huddlestone (2016) assert that code-switching can strengthen and arbitrate social factors such as identity, social positions, interpersonal connections, and solidarity and submit to the study and the effectiveness of the translanguaging.

Furthermore, the use of translanguaging is extremely effective in lowering the rates of illiteracy. According to Akinpelu (2021), language initiatives in Africa are useless after five decades. They have contributed significantly to the marginalization of a substantial segment of the people, many of whom are considered illiterates due to their inability to speak and write the official languages or the language of instruction in schools. Bamgbose (2000) adds that illiteracy is possibly the most destructive source of exclusion because illiterates are not only unable to participate in a country's official language, but they are also unable to participate in any other language in a written medium.

This demonstrates that the use of translanguaging in teaching not only African languages, but also other disciplines is critical in increasing literacy rates and, as a result, the nation's development. Several studies have indicated several benefits of translanguaging. Translanguaging, in contrast to the traditional paradigm that considers languages as separate entities, is more inclusive and transformative in its approach, particularly when it comes to monolingual, bilingual, foreign, and second language education (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Translanguaging not only aids language development but according to a (World Bank, 2005), report, the inclusion of the learner's home language in the learning process results in several positive outcomes such as improved learning outcomes and lower repetition and drop-out rates because learners understand better

5.7.2 Translanguaging a Tool for Promoting the Use and Contribution of African Languages in Teaching and Learning

Language policies in many Sub-Saharan African countries are a direct consequence of the legacy left by colonization, with a preference for the use of English in official domains, such as education, over the use of indigenous languages. According to practice in Nigeria,

Zimbabwe, and many other African countries, English is the primary language of instruction at all levels of formal education because of the socioeconomic opportunities it provides, English is referred to as the "language of success." But this policy has proven ineffective because it continues to marginalize a large proportion of the African population rather than empowering them to make a positive contribution to development in their respective countries. The incorporation of a translanguaging approach into formal education is extremely beneficial because good and effective education continues to be the most effective means of empowering people to participate in their own personal and national development, and because this is more effectively achieved through the effective use of mother tongues.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, formal educational systems continue to be dominated by the exclusive use of colonial-era languages (French, English, Portuguese, and Spanish), frequently to the detriment of endogenous languages, which are typically relegated to informal uses due to their lack of official recognition. In nations where it appears that efforts have been made to promote some of these languages, only the major ones are routinely given some attention but never fully elevated to the same status as colonial-era languages. Nevertheless, these languages are the primary mode of communication for African populations. According to studies, only about 20% – 40% of the continent's population can speak and write these inherited languages (Chumbow, 2009). According to Chumbow (2009), this situation significantly impairs learning and knowledge transmission in Africa and raises serious concerns about the continent's overall development. Based on the premise that quality education is a critical incentive for national development and that language is an effective tool for accomplishing this, the translanguaging approach can be an effective pedagogical technique for promoting the use and valuable contributions of African languages to formal education, thereby stimulating greater and more active participation of the South African and other African populations in the process of national development.

5.8. Language Policies in Africa

Almost all the African countries that were colonized have a language policy or endorsement, which is a continuation of the language policy that the colonizers had because the colonial languages still have all of the official jobs (education, administration, justice, and so on) that they had (education, administration, justice, etc.) (Banda, 2020). It is also true that not every country adopts a policy of adaptation, which allows indigenous languages to be used in some

areas, especially in education, to help people learn and make the transition from home to school easier. Nigeria and South Africa, for example, both have this policy. Because students already know the local language, this policy is based on the idea that it is the best way to communicate and spread knowledge in classrooms and literacy centres (Halaoui, 2011; Akinpelu, 2018). People who write about Halaoui (2011) and Akinpelu (2018) say that if this policy is used in a country, it should be said that the colonial language is not completely replaced by an indigenous language, but it is still used.

Instead, local languages are only used in the early years of school to effectively pass on knowledge and to help students understand educational content. This is because the colonial language is quickly used as the medium of instruction for formal education. Despite this, these language policies have a direct effect on literacy rates and the quality of education across the African continent. At least 176 languages are used in African schools, according to Ouane and Glanz (2010). Only about 8% of the 2,144 languages on the continent are represented here. None of these languages has the same status as the ones that came from colonization. In some cases, these languages are in the national curriculum, but they aren't used well because there aren't enough educators or teaching materials (Akinnaso, 1991; Adegbija, 2004). It was written by Akinnaso in 1991 and by Adegbija in 2004. In addition, research shows that students drop out of school because they can't understand the language of instruction (Macdonald, 1990; Brock-Utne, 2006). Macdonald (1990) and Alidou & Brock-Utne (2006), all say that there are still a lot of children in Africa who do not have formal education in a foreign language.

5.9. Chapter Summary

Translanguaging is the process of using one language to help users learn a new one better. For efficient communication and language development, it dynamically improves or adds to the use of language. So, the student's confidence and motivation may rise. Translanguaging should be a part of the educational system so that students can help each other learn. Translanguaging allows students to speak in ways that they completely understand, which leads to a better understanding of what is being taught in class and better educational results. Language policies have a direct effect on the continent's literacy rate and overall educational quality, and they should be changed to allow translanguaging in all subjects and to be taught in any language.

Most of the people who go to school in South Africa speak African languages, but because English is so important in the country's political economy, many schools start teaching in

English by Grade 4. This has a negative effect on learning because it means that people may not have enough English skills to be able to read the curriculum. Hence, translanguaging can help parents and educators work together better if the child is being taught in a language the parents understand.

When content is reprocessed, it may lead to deeper understanding and learning, which in turn allows a child to grow and learn in new ways. Translanguaging can make it easier for people who speak a first language (L1) and a second language (L2) to work together in the same classroom. Furthermore, if both languages are used carefully and strategically in class, both language skills and subject knowledge can be learned at the same time.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0. Introduction

Chapter Five was a careful review of the data gathered in the Tshwane South Education District. The first school was the primary school in Atteridgeville, and the second was the secondary school in Olivenbosch. The primary goal of this data collection was to look at the use of translanguaging as an aid for instructors in multilingual classrooms (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. 2014: 174), implying that the thoroughness of the researchers undertaking it is of great relevance. They seek to grasp the current problem and how it may be remedied by travelling to the field, and using qualitative measures in the collection and analysis of the data.

This current chapter discusses the findings related to the notion of translanguaging and how it may help educators teach African languages in multilingual classrooms. It is divided into five parts; the first part of the chapter lays out the problems and the significance of understanding these problems. In chapter two, literature review and theoretical views, the researcher looked at several studies undertaken around the topic of translanguaging, both worldwide and locally in South Africa. Using three theories, the researcher was able to align the study by utilizing translanguaging, Vygotskian, and behaviourism theory. Chapter three swiftly maps out the way that helped the researcher to get into the field by bringing along the qualitative research design.

6.1. Answers to Educator's Challenges

Educators commended the use of translanguaging in their teaching. They argued and highlighted that these children are multilingual as they mingle with each other, daily in different spaces. They are mingling with each other in the school, in the streets, in their respective homes, and some of their parents are coming from different tribes. This has made children multilingual, and they have contributed to the creation or development of lingua franca languages and resurrected dialects. At the school that I was at, educators claimed that children are the ones who made isiPitori recognised, because of what they are and how they use it.

According to the findings of this study, instructors prefer to teach using translanguaging as an approach. Furthermore, it has aided them not just in African languages, but also in content areas. One instructor stated that if the department (basic education) allowed us to use

translanguaging, our experience as educators would be easier and more efficient. Educators I interviewed in primary school stated that these youngsters had the largest effect on language development. This is based upon the premise that children's brains are easy to absorb new content. They take what they have learned in the classroom, which is a problem for instructors who are not as bilingual as they are learners.

The field of bilingual education, as handled by Garcia and colleagues, has pioneered the use of flexible language rules in the classroom. Similarly, Creese and Blackledge reported translanguaging in Birmingham supplemental schools, while Canagarajah's work has concentrated on translingual practices in English literacy development. These articles discussed the possible role, implementation options, and opportunities for learners that translanguaging may mobilize to assist the multilingual turn in the AL classroom, based on their thoughts and those of others, as well as our past study. We concentrated on AL teaching and learning, a term that is intended to include but also transcend the conceptual and philosophical constraints of FL and L2 education. We understand translanguaging as a meta-process.

The educators see translanguaging as critical and therefore need to rethink old perspectives, normalise bi-/multilingual practices and experiences, and leverage sociolinguistic backgrounds and talents in the classroom and beyond. Three issues have been identified as critical to the adoption of a translanguaging pedagogy: the need to de-foreignize the AL learner practices, identities, and experiences, the understanding of translanguaging as a meta-skill and the ability to engage in meaning-making processes that may align with monolingual patterns but are communicatively purposeful and nuanced, and the understanding of so-called hybrid language forms as emergent as opposed to the addition of incomplete parts, or strategies to counterbalance semilingualism. Translanguaging as a meta-skill development in AL settings does not prevent the use of conventional techniques.

Monolingualism and monolingual beliefs are promoted in various places, such as the language arts classroom. Changes in other areas, on the other hand, may occur over time. We have stressed the relevance of existing conceptualizations of being and becoming bi/multilingual in educational environments in formulating our thesis. In doing so, we highlighted how traditional monolingual beliefs might stymie the development of translanguaging in language schools.

As U.S.A. teacher educators consider how to prepare a predominantly monolingual English-speaking workforce to meet the needs of a linguistically diverse population, the lack of attention to multilingualism within mainstream teacher preparation programs has emerged as a major source of concern among those who recognize language diversity as a prominent issue in equity-oriented debates about public education (de Jong, 2013). Educators' ideas about language influence classroom activities in significant ways. Nonetheless, researching educators' opinions is a contested topic in teacher education literature.

For example, it is not unusual to uncover contradictions in the way's instructors defend their pedagogical postures depending on the characteristics of the classrooms and the contexts in which their practices are placed (Razfar, 2012). Because education is subjective and impacted by several circumstances, it lacks a common set of values and standards. In this way, researching educators' opinions might be a risky endeavour at best (Kumaravadivelu, 2002). Nonetheless, when properly defined, analysed, and studied, teacher beliefs may be the clearest gauge of a teacher's professional advancement (Kagan, 1992: 85, Pajares, 1992). This is because examining instructors' attitudes and pedagogical reasoning might provide crucial insights regarding their growth.

6.2. The Use of Translanguaging in Education

Many researchers have focused on language in multilingual spaces, (Nagy, Garcia, Canagarajah, Cen Williams, Blackridge, Votel, Mwanza, Makalela, Prinsloo & Krause to mention a few.) During the construction of this thesis, the researcher discovered that many of these scholars looked at the theory in children and school policies in some way. Very few focus on the instructor to see how multilingual they are or whether they use translanguaging in their pedagogy. The major input of this study was to take a different angle from many of the studies by focussing on the instructor as a starting point, but by also looking at the use of translanguaging in teaching African languages.

Since Cen Williams first used the Welsh term trawsieith in 1994 to refer to a pedagogical practice where students in bilingual Welsh/English classrooms are asked to alternate languages for receptive or productive use, the term translanguaging has been increasingly used in the scholarly literature to refer to both the complex and fluid language practices of bilinguals, as well as the pedagogical approaches that leverage those practices.

Although Cen Williams identified a teaching style of employing two languages to present in a multilingual classroom in the 1980s. Nagy (2018) discovers that this technique has been extremely impactful and beneficial to instructors who teach in bilingual schools. Canagarajah (2011: 401), on the other hand, repeated the identical writing (Lewis et al. 2012: 643). (Garcia 2009: 140) and (Baker, 2001: 288). They concur with the findings of this investigation. The use of translanguaging in the classroom of multilinguals provides freedom to both those teaching and those being taught. This is to say that translanguaging is highly important.

Although epistemologically distinct, translanguaging is related to the study of code-switching in education in that it similarly challenges the traditional isolation of languages in language teaching and learning. Educators across the world have employed code-switching, defined as moving from one language to another, to scaffold the teaching of other languages. Even though this technique has not been widely accepted in language teaching studies, educators use code-switching daily. When this linguistic conduct is utilized to teach language minoritized students, however, it becomes exceedingly contentious.

The concern, of course, is that the state or national language will be contaminated by the other language. Nonetheless, historians have documented how instructors frequently code-switch to make content intelligible to pupils when they are taught in a colonial or dominant language (Lin & Martin, 2005). In circumstances where pupils do not grasp the lectures, Arthur, and Martin (2006) talk of the 'pedagogic validity of code-switching.'

Despite evidence of code-switching as a common pragmatic activity, code-switching is seldom institutionally supported or pedagogically grounded (Creese & Blackledge, 2010: 105). Rodolfo Jacobson devised the concurrent technique in the late 1980s, albeit it was never completely validated (Jacobson, 1990). Jacobson's technique relies on instructors strategically code-switching, although only inter-sentential. Whether done pragmatically by the instructor or with a pedagogical aim, code-switching in the education literature, as useful as it is, focuses not on preserving bilingualism per se, but on teaching in, or simply teaching, an extra language. In this regard, the idea of translanguaging provides a very significant contribution, and it is, as we will see, an epistemologically different term since it calls into question the notion that bilinguals are simply switching from one language to another.

Translanguaging should be distinguished from code-switching. Even among researchers that see code-switching as linguistic mastery (Auer, 2005; Myers-Scotton, 2005), it is predicated

on the monoglossic idea that bilinguals have two independent language systems. Translanguaging, on the other hand, considers bilinguals' language behaviour to be constantly heteroglossic (Bakhtin, 1981; Bailey, 2007), always dynamic, reacting not to two monolinguals in one, but one integrated linguistic system. Translanguaging is a much more useful theory for bilingual education than code-switching because it takes a heteroglossic and dynamic perspective centred on the linguistic use of bilingual speakers themselves, rather than starting from the perspective of named languages, usually national or state languages.

Translanguaging has been adopted by many bilingual educators and academics in the twenty-first century because of its ability to build on learners' dynamic bilingualism (Garcia & Baetens, 2009). Cenoz and Gorter are researching how a translanguaging pedagogy might assist students' trilingual in the Basque Country, where trilingual schooling in Basque, Spanish, and English is becoming more widespread. Students at a Sistema Amara Berri school with a progressive orientation travel to three different classes each day to go through one of three languages.

Each classroom is divided into four activities and four distinct groups that collaborate. Cenoz, Gorter, and their research team have created translanguaging teaching material that will be utilized with two of the four groups as they work in the various language classes. For example, the experimental translanguaging content in the Basque material for the Basque classroom invites students to compare structures, terminology, or conversation in Basque and English.

Although translanguaging is obvious in bilingual and multilingual programs reported by researchers, instructors who are mired in monoglossic language ideologies find it difficult to embrace translanguaging. Martinez, Hikida & Durán (2014) investigate how educators in two Spanish-English bilingual primary classrooms use their entire language repertoire fluidly while expressing linguistic purism ideologies that emphasize language separation and showing concern about protecting the minoritized language. Because even bilingual instructors suffer from monoglossic conceptions about language and bilingual education, establishing translanguaging pedagogical practices is critical.

Baker (2011) emphasizes the importance of context and different combinations of interactions among people when it comes to being bilingual, coining a new term: functional bilingualism, which he defines as individuals' use of their bilingual ability to achieve interaction in a variety of everyday contexts. Bilingual people do not have the opportunity to utilize two languages in

everyday situations in a monolingual culture, but they may rapidly transition from one language to another if they are surrounded by a multilingual community. The concept of language use enters the picture here, which is impacted by a bilingual's views and preferences. Another aspect influencing language use is one's identity. For example, an adolescent in a second-generation community may choose to use the language, because of its high status, it is the language of the majority group. Bilingualism, according to Appel & Muysken (2005), occurs in all communities, although the shape and degree of it vary.

Translanguaging theory has major implications for teacher education since the adoption of this epistemological and theoretical framework may prompt educators to reconsider the essential influence of long-held notions of language. Furthermore, translanguaging can heighten instructors' awareness of themselves as language learners as a teaching strategy. Because, when instructors intentionally prepare for multilingualism in mainstream situations, their attention to students' phonological, syntactic, and semantic peculiarities will likely improve the chances of addressing the special needs of minoritized language communities.

6.3. Language Acquisition of Monolinguals-Multilinguals

The purpose of the discussion in the theoretical viewpoint portion was to describe and debate the efficacy and significance of this study in understanding why children are more multilingual than instructors. According to Vygotskian theory, youngsters are a blank slate, and anything adults say is recorded in their consciousness. As children get older, they will remember and replicate it. Behaviourism, on the other hand, submits to research to claim that children are aware of their linguistic repertoire.

The ten ways described in this book that a translanguaging perspective disrupts established language policies and opens space for more egalitarian practices open new possibilities for language policy and significant consequences for educators and teacher educators. Despite the transformational potential demonstrated in the case studies, the editors admit that translanguaging cannot produce a systemic change for language-minority children on its own. The lever required to achieve long-term influence is a shift in society's perception of multilingual speakers, many of whom are members of racially marginalized groups. These are the key implications for educators to consider.

We have already shared the sentiments of educators where they agree that translanguaging benefits all students, it is necessary to learn about students holistically and prepare to provide socioemotional support; and it is critical to have multilingual signage and differentiated materials that are accessible to all students, represent classroom cultures; and that a mix of machine translation and human resources students, families, instructors, and support staff may be leveraged to enhance teaching and learning. Vygotsky would disagree, saying, what if the kid is born of separate tribes? He would argue that the infant should learn the mother's language as well as the father's. Nagy (2018) highlights the argument as contributing, stating that children initially acquiring the first language do not have to be maternal or paternal.

6.4. Impact of Data Collection on the Study

Translanguaging has been openly mentioned without even looking at or being aware of it. It is a tool used to promote the growth of another language. As a result, Vygotsky's theory states that once a kid masters the skill of the major language or home language, the child will be motivated to acquire the next language. The participation of a department of basic education student scholarship, which randomly allocated or places their students in random locations. This should be reassessed, and donors should be encouraged to place their students where their abilities would be most valued.

Translanguaging, in our opinion, is a meta-process that integrates linguistic practices, promotes sociolinguistic justice, helps AL learners to express their actual selves, and leverages their total bilingualism so that they may function as entire individuals in their bilingual surroundings. In the past, practical recommendations for implementing translingual techniques in bilingual classrooms were offered. Acceptance and implementation of a translanguaging instructional design (i.e., the strategic approach in which instructors prepare and implement a lesson within a translanguaging environment) in the AL classroom is a critical step toward promoting the multilingual shift in AL education. A translanguaging instructional design integrates students' native language practices and identities with those of the target language.

Translanguaging may be used as a productive language activity under this paradigm since students gain background knowledge on a certain topic before exhibiting this expertise in the TL i.e., in the explorer stage of the translanguaging instructional design cycle. For example, before making an oral presentation in the TL, AL learners may debate a topic in groups or pairs, or interview individuals in their community, in their home languages referring to the

structures and characteristics the learner mobilizes at home and in the community beyond listed languages.

They may also develop stories with bilingual characters in two languages, conduct research on websites in their multiple languages, or annotate books in their native languages with significant terminology and concepts before writing an essay or report in the TL. Translanguaging enables AL students to brainstorm, plan, draft, edit, and revise oral presentations or written compositions in one or more languages before producing them in the target language; translanguaging practices can also be used during receptive language activities in AL contexts of learning. Learners may, for example, listen to a TL text and then debate its meaning in their home languages, or view a TL film with subtitles in their home language.

AL educators may also assign translanguaging tasks, such as projects in which students create bilingual posters or books/pamphlets about a given topic and present them to the class in the TL, or language inquiry tasks in which students compare different aspects of their home language and the TL. Learners could also be required to engage in translanguaging problem solving, both academically e.g., textual analysis and practically e.g., acting out a response to various situations, such as being lost in a city, with the potential to extend translanguaging strategies beyond the AL classroom to other subjects, such as problem-solving in math and science (Lin & Lo, 2017; Nikula & Moore, 2016, for work on translanguaging in CLIL classroom contexts.

6.5. Recommendations for Policy

- The CAPS language policy should be reviewed considering the multilingual nature of South African Society.
- The government should regulate language restrictions in schools to cater to the group of people who speak a minority language.
- When developing and implementing language rules, migration issues should be considered.
- Educators should have a thorough understanding of the policies governing teaching and learning.
- Qualified educators should be fluent in at least three languages, except English.

- The Funza Lushaka bursary system should be more selective in its placement of children in government schools. DBE authorization should be included in placement.

6.6. Summary and Conclusion

This research investigated the use of translanguaging to help educators teach African languages in multilingual classrooms. Pretoria South Education District served as the research location for data gathering. To research the issue, the thesis is divided into six chapters. The first chapter focuses on the introduction, research challenge, and thesis implementation. This chapter is broken into the following sections: Introduction to the study, problem statement and primary research questions, purpose of the study, aims of the study, anticipated of the study, current objectives of the study, this emphasizes the major milestones that will occur as the study progresses. Furthermore, in this chapter, I briefly covered a definition of translanguaging. And this is the study's conclusive definition.

In chapter two, the argument in this part focuses on a variety of thematic aspects, with an emphasis on how they will improve the flow of the study. I investigated the following thoroughly: a specific definition of translanguaging. I discussed what it is and how it may be used, and I recognized it in many multilingual courses in South African schools. I concluded by agreeing with countless academic research articles that it is when one is teaching in one language and translating it into another for the benefit of the other children in the classroom. Many scholars, including (Wei, 2017; Nagy, 2018; Deumert, 2016; Makalela, 2015a, b or c), agreed and advocated for the concept of translanguaging.

I offered evidence from classical notions to back up my claim. I stated and argued that children must first master their native or first language before progressing to the next. However, I have seen that young people do not always observe linguistic decorum. This is because children are capable of conveying messages to their listeners. Children will continue to do so until they are corrected by an adult and can speak again. Lightbown & Spanda (2006) are correct when they argue that children listen carefully to adults and begin to develop their own language at a young age. They are aware that they have developed the ability to talk because of the practice of simulating their surroundings. Children go from being monolingual to bilingual to multilingual because of their cognitive element, which registers everything and language, words they hear in the world in which they come.

For me to get to how and why I'm going to do what I'm going to do. The qualitative approach method is employed to collect data in chapter three of the research. To handle the qualitative methodology, a non-probability strategy is utilized, which involves purposeful sampling to achieve actual findings and a selected population sample. The study actively employed a qualitative method approach as its design to address the full research issue, which benefited in achieving the research aims.

In chapter four, I utilized thematic data analysis to analyse my findings. According to its definition (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is the process of organizing or evaluating interview data to answer research questions (Banister, et al., 1994). It is also a method for discovering, evaluating, and reporting data themes or patterns. This is how I conclude the study based on the findings. The idea that switching languages helps learners learn and acquire new knowledge does not fit well with traditional educational techniques, which are predicated on teaching and learning in a single language at a time and place.

Translanguaging simplifies idea presentation and content consumption, which would have been decontextualized and time-consuming if a bilingual method had been utilized. When formal language barriers are removed, translanguaging provides a suitable learning environment that stimulates active involvement for both instructors and learners. Educators can use terms and phrases that students are already acquainted with, and educators can actively tap into students' own life experiences and home literacy, bringing home knowledge into classroom engagement and making learning subjects more practical.

After completing the study, I analysed and theorized on all the concepts examined in Chapter four. And the results presented agreed with the discussion's conclusion that translanguaging is the process of utilizing one language to increase one's understanding of another. It improves or enriches the usage of languages in a dynamic way for effective communication and language development. Consequently, the learner's motivation and confidence may improve. Translanguaging should be taught in schools so that students may scaffold their learning.

Translanguaging helps students to express themselves in ways that they fully understand, leading to greater knowledge of what is taught in class and positive educational results. Language policies have a direct influence on the continent's literacy rate and general educational quality, and they should be updated to allow for the employment of translanguaging in all courses.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Consent Form

CONSENT FORMFOR.pdf

Appendix 2: Gauteng Education Department Letter

GDE Letter2021.pdf

Appendix 3: Request to Conduct Research at GDE Schools

Letter to GDE& Scjhools 2021

Appendix 4: First School Acceptance Letter

Sefako Magkatho Primary acceptence l

Appendix 5: Ethical Clearance Acceptance Letter

Anele Gobodwana - (ANLGOB001) - Eth

Appendix 6: Second School Acceptance Letter

PTA-central Principal.pdf

Appendix 7: Interview Guide

INTRODUCTION

Thank you for taking time out of your busy schedule to meet with me. I believe that the school principal informs you, I am **Anele Gobodwana** (**ANLGOB001**), a PhD candidate in **African Languages and Literature** in the **Faculty of Humanities** at **University of Cape Town** main Campus. I am doing a study on the **use of Translanguaging in assisting educators to teach African Languages, focusing on Tshwane south education district, of Pretoria**.

INSTRUCTIONS:

- **Please try to answer all questions.**
- **Use a pencil to answer.**
- **Write neat and legible, as you can.**
- **Do not write your name on paper or your school's name.**
- **Answer in English.**

1. The major challenge you experience in teaching African Languages (**any-used in your school**) in multilingual school.

……
……
……

0. How long have you been a teacher? Please tick √ under the appropriate age bracket. And then answer the following question.

0-5 yrs.	5-10yrs	10-15yrs	15-20yrs	20-25yrs	25-30yrs	30-35yrs	35-40yrs

1. Briefly discuss over years, the experience you have been exposed to for the duration of your tenure as a teacher, in teaching multilingual classrooms.

……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

……

0. What teaching approach have you employed most in your pedagogy? And why did you choose that style?

……
……
……
……

0. What strategies are you using to teach one of the African Indigenous Languages (AIL)?

……
……
……

0. The approach/teaching style you adopt to teach any content subjects, to students/learners who speak African Indigenous languages?

……
……
……

0. What is your home language and the most commonly used language in the community?

1. Does that commonly used language in the community have an impact in your teaching pedagogy?

……
……
……

0. How many African Languages do you speak fluently; ranging from: **GOOD; POOR**, **AVERAGE**?

LANGUAGES/NAMES	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD

1. And how do these languages affect your teaching in the multilingual classroom.

……
……
……
……
……
……

0. Do you find CAPS, USEFUL and clear when it comes to the use of African Languages in the school context?

……
……
……

0. Gender:

MALE	FEMALE

0. Based on your experience as a teacher would you deduce and say children know more than one language? Support your answer:

……
……
……

0. Rate an interview: Please in the last column.

0-5	**POOR**	
5-10	**GOOD**	

Thank you for your time!!

Appendix 8: Interview Planning and Preparation

ANELE GOBODWANA (Mr)

PLANNING or PREPARATION for observation & in-depth interviews:

FOUNDATION PHASE

DAY 1
Monday

15 March 2021: Monday: The school principal welcomed the researcher in warm hands, and resumed discussion of the logistics with regards to observation. She introduced myself, to the Foundation Phase educators and HOD's, that I will be working with.

DAY 2
TUESDAY

16 March 2021: Tuesday

	DAY 2	GRADE	TIME	CLASS
Entry	Tuesday,	1(Zulu)		
	Tuesday,	1(Sepedi)		
Exit	Wednesday,	3(Sepedi)		

Immediately interview to be conducted!!
End of the day!!

Before the school ended, the school principal arranged with the deputy principal intersen educators, and they were made aware that the researcher will be visiting their classes on the following day. The principal, and her deputy headmaster; told the educators who I was, and what I am here to do. The intersen educators did accept the call and were going to invite me in their classes the following day [**17 March 2021, Wednesday**].

FOUNDATION PHASE…CONT

DAY 3
WEDNESDAY

The researcher could not finish the interviews and data collection for that previous day. He however, scheduled to continue the following day, which is the 17 March 2021, Wednesday.

	DAY 3	GRADE	TIME	CLASS
Exit	Wednesday,	3(Zulu)		

17 March 2021: Wednesday: After this Grade is done, he will continue to the Intermediate Phase educators' observation.

INTERMEDIATE PHASE

	DAY 3	GRADE	TIME	CLASS
Entry	Wednesday,	4		
	Wednesday,	4		
Exit	Wednesday	6		

Interviews issued to observed educators:
End of the day!!

SENIOR PHASE @PRIMARY SCHOOL

DAY 4
THURSDAY

	DAY 4	GRADE	TIME	CLASS
Exit	Thursday	6		
Entry	Thursday	7		
Entry	Thursday	7		

End of primary school journey and will proceed to senior secondary school.
Interviews issued to observed educators:
End of the day!!

SENIOR PHASE @SEC SCHOOL

DAY 1 TUESDAY

06 April 2021 Tuesday: the researcher will meet up with the school principal for logistics of the day.

	DAY	GRADE	TIME	CLASS
Exit	Tuesday,	9		

Interviews issued to observed educators:
End of the day!!

FURTHER EDUCATION TEACHING (FET)

DAY 2 WEDNESDAY

07 April 2021 Wednesday: The researcher will meet up with the school principal for the logistics.

	DAY	GRADE	TIME	CLASS
Entry	Wednesday,	10		
Exit	Wednesday,	12		

Interviews issued to observed educators:
End of the day!!
