

**IMPACT OF TRANSLANGUAGING AS PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE ON  
LITERACY LEVELS AMONG GRADE ONE LITERACY LEARNERS IN  
LUNDAZI DISTRICT, ZAMBIA**

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**A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of a degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics.**

**The University of Zambia**

**Lusaka**

**2021**

## ABSTRACT

Zambia is a multicultural and multi-ethnic nation with 73 ethnic groups which equate to 73 languages spoken across the country while 7 languages are used as media of instruction for the first four years in the primary schools. The policy has been criticised as being monoglossic. Studies in Zambia have also shown that monolingual language practices are a major cause for poor literacy levels in Zambia. Therefore, this study assessed the impact of translanguaging as pedagogical practice on literacy levels among Grade One learners in multilingual classrooms of Lundazi District of Zambia. The study was guided by four objectives: 1) to assess the differences in literacy performance between pupils who have been subjected to translanguaging and those who have been subjected to monolingual language practices, 2) to establish the benefits of translanguaging pedagogical practices in a Grade One multilingual classroom, 3) to analyse the translanguaging practices in a multilingual Grade One literacy class of Lundazi District, and 4) to establish challenges teacher and pupils faced when teaching/learning literacy through translanguaging pedagogical practices. The study was guided by the Three Language Orientations Theory, Critical Discourse Analysis Theory and Bernstein's code and pedagogical discourse theory. The study adopted the pragmatism paradigm and employed a multiphase stage design. The study involved two classes and one teacher. An experimental class was treated with translanguaging practices while the second class was a control class. One teacher taught literacy in the two classes and the sample was 83 participants broken down as 41 pupils per class who wrote the pre and post-tests as well as one teacher. Standardised regional tests were used to collect data from the two classes while classroom observation, field notes and interviews with the teachers were used to collect qualitative data. Quantitative data from the tests was analysed using SPSS version 21 and a Levene's test provided the means and compared them to understand the significance of the results in the study. Qualitative data was analysed thematically. The study findings revealed that the Post experimental test results showed higher average mean scores for the experimental group ( $M=15.10$ ) than the control group ( $M=11.71$ ). The Cohen's  $d=0.98$  for the post-test showed the large effect size above .8. The performance of learners in the experimental group

was significantly different from the control group [ $t(52.960) = 4.454, p < 0.001$ ]. Thus, the difference in literacy performance can be attributed to the translanguaging practices which were used to teach literacy in the experimental class. This means that translanguaging led to increased learner performance while monolingual language practices negatively affected learner's literacy performance. Additional results showed that as a result of translanguaging, there was increased learner classroom participation, multiliteracy development, cultural preservation and learners' identity affirmation. Translanguaging practices used included translation, code mixing and multimodal learning materials increased learner participation. Challenges included mismatch between the language of instruction and dominant learner's familiar languages, rigidity of the language policy which was based on monolingualism and monolingual based assessment. The study concluded that translanguaging practices in the Lundazi multilingual classes improved learner academic achievement. Thus, the study recommended that there was need to adopt translanguaging pedagogical practices since they have proved to be more beneficial in multilingual classes than the current monolingual practices which have brought about consistent low literacy levels. The study also recommended that there is need for the government to increase the number of zonal languages beyond the seven languages because some zonal languages are not mutually intelligible with some dominant languages such as Tumbuka of Lundazi District.

**Key words:** *translanguaging, pedagogical practices, literacy, Lundazi District.*

## DECLARATION

I **NYIMBILI FRIDAY**, declare that the '*Impact of Translanguaging as Pedagogical Practice on Literacy Levels among Grade One Literacy Learners in Lundazi District of Zambia*' is my own work, and it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other University. All the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged in the references.

Signed: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

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**APPROVAL**

This dissertation by Nyimbili Friday is approved as a fulfilment of the requirements for award of a degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics.

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to my mother, beloved wife and children for being there for me during my PhD study. May the Lord God continue giving you wisdom and long life.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

For the life and good health, I have had throughout this study, I thank God.

My supervisor, Professor David Sani Mwanza, your humble academic guidance has taught me the soft skills through your critical reading and guidance of this work from the first day the topic was coined. As the Lord prepared the way for us on earth, indeed, you too, prepared the way for this academic work to the level it has reached. Many are lecturers by profession, you are amongst the few lecturers by calling who can educate, shape and show light to a candidate and be able to realise it. Only God can reward you with long life and safety so that you can supervise others and enable us learn the hard and soft skills to build our nation.

To the department, I wish to thank you for the academic exposure with the NORMA program which provided a chance to attend my course work in Norway. This made me change my academic thinking regarding research and language perspectives at global level. Professor Annie, Benson Mkandawire, Dr. Denis Banda (MHSRIP), Dr Kalimaposo, you are great. To Muzumara Christine (Mrs Mwila), you are a great Grade One teacher of literacy and an inspiration to the future generation in Lundazi. I also thank Alick K. Banda, Banda Bude K, Kawandama Steve, Chanda Mutale, Biggie Chanda, Chota K Ngulube, Mumba Luciano, Mumba Brian, Lungu Luckson, Kamalata Lukama, Dyson Goma, Ruth Mungala, Betty Pungwa, Mwenya Esnard, Chanda Valeria, Chalimbana lecturers from the languages department for your support and many other friends who edited my work and supported me.

To my mother, Regina Safuke, you have worked so hard to see your first-born son become PhD graduate. To my late dad, Pearson Nyimbili, and big brother, Friday Nyimbili, I can report that it is done. My beloved wife, Mumba Mirriam, it has been a humble beginning and only your love, smile, care and prayers kept me going and determined. To my children, Nyimbili Friday Kondwani Jnr. and Nyimbili Regina Taonga, thank you for being my light whenever I was about to give up. God willing, we can resume our holiday trips. To the unmentioned heroes and those who taught me from Grade One until University, it is because of you that you are able to read this document.

## TABLE OF CONTENT

<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	<b>i</b>
<b>DECLARATION</b> .....	<b>iii</b>
<b>COPYRIGHT</b> .....	<b>iv</b>
<b>APPROVAL</b> .....	<b>v</b>
<b>DEDICATION</b> .....	<b>vi</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b> .....	<b>vii</b>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENT</b> .....	<b>viii</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	<b>xiv</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	<b>xv</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1:INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1 Overview .....	1
1.2 Background to the study.....	1
1.3 Statement of the problem.....	17
1.4 Purpose of the study. ....	17
1.5 Objectives of the study. ....	18
1.6 Main research question.....	18
1.6.1 Specific research questions .....	18
1.7 Significance of the study. ....	18
1.8 Delimitation of the study .....	19
1.9 Limitations of the study.....	19
1.10 Operational definitions .....	19
1.11 Structure of the dissertation.....	20
1.12 Summary of Chapter.....	22
<b>CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE</b> .....	<b>23</b>
2.1 Overview .....	23
2.2 The concept of Translanguaging .....	23

2.3 Translanguaging as Classroom Pedagogical Practice .....	31
2.4 Benefits of Translanguaging over Monolingual Practices to Multilingual Learners. ..	52
2.5 Teachers and Translanguaging Pedagogical Practices in Literacy Classes.....	58
2.6 Challenges teachers and pupils face when teaching/learning literacy through translanguaging.....	69
2.7 Gaps in Research .....	80
<b>CHAPTER THREE: A REVIEW OF CLASSROOM LANGUAGE PRACTICES IN THE ZAMBIAN CONTEXT .....</b>	<b>81</b>
3.1 Overview .....	81
3.2. Studies on Language Policy and Literacy Teaching in Zambia .....	81
3.3 Summary of the chapter.....	94
<b>CHAPTER FOUR: THEORETICAL AND ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK .....</b>	<b>96</b>
4.1 Overview .....	96
4.2 Three Language Orientations Theory.....	96
4.2.1 Language as a Problem .....	96
4.2.2 Language as a Right.....	98
4.2.3 Language as a Resource.....	100
4.3 Critical Discourse Analysis Theory.....	104
4.4 Bernstein’s Code and Pedagogical Discourse Theory.....	107
4.5 Conceptual framework .....	109
4.6 Chapter summary.....	112
<b>CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>113</b>
5.1 Overview .....	113
5.2 Research paradigm .....	113
5.2.1 Positivist Paradigm .....	114
5.2.2 Constructivism or interpretivism paradigm .....	115
5.2.3 Pragmatism paradigm .....	115
5.3. Research Methodology .....	118

5.3.1 Quantitative research .....	118
5.3.2 Qualitative research .....	118
5.3.3 Mixed Methods Research .....	119
5.4 Research design .....	121
5.5 Population.....	124
5.6 Sample Size .....	124
5.7 Sampling Techniques .....	125
5.7.1 Purposive sampling.....	126
5.8 Research Techniques and Data Collection Instruments.....	127
5.8.1 Interview guide .....	128
5.8.2 Class Observation .....	130
5.8.3 Document Analysis.....	132
5.8.4 Literacy Test .....	132
5.9 Data collection procedure.....	133
5.10 Data Analysis .....	133
5.11 Trustworthiness and reliability of Instruments.....	135
5.11.1 Credibility .....	135
5.11.2 Dependability.....	135
5.11.3 Confirmability.....	136
5.11.4 Transferability.....	136
5.11.5 Authenticity .....	137
5.11.6. Reliability.....	137
5.11.7 Validity .....	138
5.12 Ethical considerations.....	138
5.12.1 Approval of the study .....	138
5.12.2 Informed consent .....	138
5.12.3 Confidentiality and anonymity .....	139
5.12.4 Access to results.....	139
5.13 Limitations of the study.....	139

5.14 Chapter summary.....	140
<b>CHAPTER SIX: PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS.....</b>	<b>141</b>
6.1 Overview .....	141
6.2 What Impact did Translanguaging have on Literacy Performance of Grade One Learners in Lundazi District? .....	141
6.2.1 Findings .....	142
6.3 What are the Benefits of Translanguaging Practices in a Grade One Multilingual Literacy Class of Lundazi District?.....	146
6.3.1 Findings from interview with the Teacher.....	146
6.4 How did the teacher and pupils translanguage in multilingual Grade One literacy classroom? .....	157
6.4.1 Excerpt 1: Literacy lesson on consonant cluster sound /kh/ .....	158
6.4.2 Excerpt 2: Literacy lesson on consonant cluster sound /mw/. .....	161
6.4.3 Excerpt 3: Literacy lesson on consonant cluster sound /mb/.....	163
6.4.4 Excerpt 4: Literacy lesson on the revision of sounds (mw, mb, nd, kh).....	166
6.4.5 Excerpt 5: Literacy lesson on the consonant cluster /dz/.....	168
6.4.6 Excerpt 6: Literacy lesson on sound consonant cluster /ph/.....	171
6.4.7 Excerpt 7: Literacy lesson on consonant cluster sound /ts/. .....	174
6.4.8 Excerpt 8: Literacy lesson on consonant sound cluster /mt/.....	177
6.4.9 Excerpt 9: Literacy lesson on consonant cluster /dw/.....	180
6.4.10 Excerpt 10: Literacy lesson on the consonant sound cluster /mp/. .....	184
6.4.11 Excerpt 11: Literacy lesson on the consonant cluster sound ‘ny’ .....	186
6.5 Challenges the Teacher and Pupils Faced When Teaching/Learning Literacy through Translanguaging Practices .....	189
6.5.1 Mismatch between language of instruction and dominant learner’s familiar language.....	189
6.5.2 Rigidity of the language policy premised on monolingualism .....	190
6.5.3 The Monolingual Ideology in the School and Curriculum .....	191
6.5.4 Translanguaging perceived to be time consuming. ....	193
6.5.5 Phonological and Phonemic challenges.....	194

6.5.6 Monolingual Based Assessment .....	195
6.5.7 Inadequate Teaching and Learning Material .....	197
6.5.8 Monolingual Teaching and Learning Materials.....	198
6.5.9 Sociolinguistic Environment for Language Development.....	199
6.6 Chapter summary.....	200
<b>CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS .....</b>	<b>201</b>
7.1 Overview .....	201
7.2 The Impact and Benefits of Translanguaging among Graders One Learners in Lundazi District .....	201
7.3 Translanguaging Practices in Multilingual Grade One Literacy Classroom.....	207
7.4 Challenges teachers and learners faced when Translanguaging in Grade One Multilingual Classroom of Lundazi District.....	216
7.5 Chapter summary.....	222
<b>CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....</b>	<b>223</b>
8.1 Overview .....	223
8.2 Conclusion.....	223
8.2.1 The Impact of Translanguaging on Literacy Performance among Graders One Literacy Learners in Lundazi District.....	223
8.2.2 Benefits of translanguaging pedagogical practices in Grade One multilingual class .....	224
8.2.3 Translanguaging Practices in Grade One Literacy Class.....	224
8.2.4 Challenges Teachers and Pupils Faced when Using Translanguaging Practices in a Grade One Multilingual Class. ....	225
8.3 Contribution to knowledge.....	226
8.4 Recommendations .....	228
8.5 Suggestions for further research.....	229

<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>230</b>
<b>APPENDICES .....</b>	<b>253</b>
APPENDIX 1: FIELD NOTES .....	253
APPENDIX 2: LESSONS FROM THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION .....	267
APPENDIX 3: POST-OBSERVATION INTERVIEW GUIDE .....	283
APPENDIX 4: PRE TEST ASSESSMENT .....	285
APPENDIX 5: MID TERM ASSESSMENT .....	292
APPENDIX 6: POST TEST ASSESSMENT .....	298
APPENDIX 7: ETHICAL CLEARANCE .....	304
APPENDIX 8: SIGNED CONSENT FORM FOR THE TEACHER.....	307
APPENDIX 9: SIGNED CONSENT FORM FOR THE PUPILS .....	313
APPENDIX 10: PERMISSION FROM DEBS TO CONDUCT RESEARCH .....	319

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework.....	110
Figure 2: Social Research Mapping .....	117
Figure 3: Multiliteracy development.....	148
Figure 4: word identification.....	149
Figure 5: Biliteracy skills development .....	151
Figure 6: sound /kh/ .....	158
Figure 7: sound /mw/ .....	162
Figure 8: sound /mb/ .....	165
Figure 9: sound /mw, mb, nd, kh/ .....	167
Figure 10: sound /dz/.....	169
Figure 11: /dz/ syllables .....	170
Figure 12: sound /ph/ .....	172
Figure 13: Sound/ts/.....	176
Figure 14: tsitsi .....	171
Figure 15: sound /mt/ .....	178
Figure 16: sound /dw/.....	182
Figure 17: sound /ny/ .....	187
Figure 18: sound identification .....	267
Figure 19: semi writing skills development.....	269
Figure 20: partial writing skills development .....	269
Figure 21: Full writing skills development .....	270
Figure 22 sound /mk/ .....	271
Figure 23: sound /nj/      Figure 24: njoka .....	274
Figure 25: exercise on sound /nj/ .....	275
Figure 26: sound /ch/.....	277

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Mean results for the two Groups on pre and post test.....	143
Table 2: Mean. Standard deviation and t-value scores of pretest .....	144
Table 3: Mean. Standard deviation and t-value scores of post-tests .....	145

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY**

#### **1.1 Overview**

This chapter present an introduction on the impact of translanguaging as pedagogical practice on literacy levels among Grade One literacy learners in multilingual classrooms of Lundazi District of Zambia. The chapter offers a historical perspective of the different language policies which have existed before, after independence as well as the current language policy and gives a critical discussion on how the teaching approach of monolingualism pedagogy has struggled to help learners acquire literacy in multilingual Zambian schools. It further defines translanguaging as a pedagogical practice, studies of language policy and literacy in Zambia, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives and subsequent research questions to be addressed, the significance of the study, delimitation, limitations of the study and provides a chapter summary.

#### **1.2 Background to the study**

Zambia is a multi-ethnic nation with 73 ethnic groups which equate to 73 languages spoken across the country (Mambwe, 2014). In a survey conducted by Ohannessian and Kashoki (1978), they distinguish 83 varieties (that exclude European, Indian and Khoisan languages) which are grouped based on lexical and grammatical similarities and on mutual intelligibility into 26 dialect clusters or ‘languages.’ Out of these dialects, seven were selected to be used for the educational purposes and on the national broadcaster to represent the many languages (Mwanakatwe 1978 and Kashoki, 1998). The seven languages used in schools are perceived to be representing the zones in the country hence they are referred to as ‘zonal languages.’ Ministry of Education (MOE) (2013) observes that, in Zambia, the seven zonal languages are used in the regions geographically demarcated for educational purposes. In this case, Cinyanja is for Eastern and Lusaka regions, Chitonga for Southern and part of Central regions, Icibemba for Copperbelt, Luapula, Northern and parts of Muchinga and Central regions while Kiikaonde, Lunda,

Luvale are for North-western region while Silozi is for western region. If we count the regions, it can be realised that there are five linguistically demarcated regions according to the language of instructions. In these regions, there are other ethnic groupings whose languages are different from the language of instruction, yet regional languages are used for the purposes of teaching in schools.

There has been a number of policy changes which have taken place from the time of the missionaries up to date (Banda and Mwanza, 2017). The first one was the undocumented policy which the missionaries stated with when they came to settle amongst the Zambian tribes as early as the 1890s. The teaching of literacy in the mission schools which were set up by the various missionaries did not start until the missionaries first learnt the language of the people in that community. After the language learning was complete, that was when they started to teach literacy and Bible readings to the locals in the local languages. Kelly (1999:36) noted that,

*One of the missionary's first task was to learn the language of the people of the area around the mission station and put it down in writing. The next step was the opening of the school in which the reading and writing, first in the local language and then in English, could be taught.*

The local language was used as a language of instruction to the local people so that the missionaries could have the human resource to help translate the Bible into the local languages. The cardinal point was that the language of instruction used to teach literacy was a local language common to the area where the school was located. It can be argued therefore that the missionaries lacked teaching and learning materials for their lessons, but they used the environment to facilitate their teaching.

Further, Mwanakatwe (1974), Nkosha (1999) and Snelson (1978) have also mentioned that the missions in the various centres never talked about a tribe and its disadvantages if

used as a language of instruction because they used the same tribal language (local language) to teach in their schools. Despite, their aim being inclined to the teaching of literacy and language for the sake of evangelism, it was acknowledged that their choice of local languages as a medium of classroom instruction promoted epistemic access among the local people whose familiar language was the local language in question. Infact, Manchishi (2004:1) observed that,

*The drive for evangelism proved extremely successful because the missionaries used local languages...even in schools, the medium of instruction was in their own local language at least up to the fourth grade.*

This pedagogical practice of teaching literacy using the community language of the people helped the community to be literate and contributed to the literacy development through Bible and Christian literature translation before the colonial rule. It was during the rule of the British colonial administration that the development of the language policy in Zambia was initiated after 1930. Sekeleti (1983) observed that the colonial government introduced English as an official language but its implementation into the school started late. The teaching of the children in schools was done in their mother tongue up to standard four and English would take over thereafter. He further reported that oral English language was introduced during the second year of the pupil's schooling as a second language. Writing and reading in the local language were introduced at the beginning of standard one.

Gordon (2014) states that the language policy of Zambia has been strongly shaped by colonialism and its aftermath. Prior to 1899, the first European missionaries used local languages to preach and teach. Things changed, however, with the Phelps-Stokes Commission of 1924 which encouraged the use of local languages as lingua francas and taught them in a "three-tie model." The first two years of education were taught in a local language, the next five years in a regional language, and any further education was carried

out in English only (Muyebaa, 2009). The 1925 Phelps Stok Commission recommendations considered indigenous languages as part of the cultural heritage of Africans and as part of the chief means of preserving whatever is good in the African customs, ideas and above all, preserving the self respect of Africans (Ohannessian, 1978). This was part of evidence that indigenous languages has been supported in the education system in Zambia to be used to teach literacy in the primary schools.

Simwinga (2006) reports that the British government settled for a compromise on the roles of English and local languages in education based on the principle of complementarity. Manchishi (2004) adds that the British government made recommendations in 1943 that children should be taught in their local language or vernacular in the first two years. They further emphasized that English should be taught as a subject in the fourth grade at the primary level and it was used as a medium of instruction in all the subjects thereafter. In the 1950s, the policy direction changed. The use of the dominant language (zonal language) was to be introduced in grade three to the children whose first language was not a zonal language (Simfukwe, 2010).

The advisory committee on native education in British tropical Africa had its policies on the education to be provided in the African protectorates. Many suggestions were made in various sectors of the education provision with regards to language of instruction and teaching and learning materials. Kelly (1999:43) noted that,

The study of the educational use is of the primary importance. The committee suggests the cooperation among scholars, with aid from governments and missionary societies, in the preparation of vernacular textbooks. The content and methods of teaching in all subjects, especially in History and Geography should be adopted to the conditions of Africa. In other words, the suggestions were to include the African cultural setting and languages in the teaching and learning materials which were to be used in the African schools.

Through such suggestions, it was noted that the African languages were progressing since there was no culture without a language. Without doubt, some books had translated versions in the Zambian languages, and they depicted the Zambian society and its features. All these were a representation of the local language in the community they lived.

Despite several changes taking place in the education system in Zambia; like the establishment of more schools and the teacher training institutions, the language policy and school curricular were constant up to independence (Mwanakatwe, 1978). Kelly (1999:65) observed that, *“it is the government’s belief that all children should receive an education which provided literacy in an African language and in English, teaches basic skills of the three Rs and instills social and self-discipline.”* The colonial government, even under the federation, was comfortable with the policy of teaching learners in their local language from Grade One up to Grade Two and the introduction of a regional language at Grade Three to Four while English was studied as a subject in the same grades. At Grade Five, the language of instruction was English, and the regional language was taken as a subject until independence, 1964.

The previous section has indicated that before Zambia attained her independence from Britain in 1964, all the learning and teaching during the first four years of schooling was carried out in local or indigenous languages in the various communities where schools existed (Nkossa, 1999). Upon the attainment of independence, the new Zambian government continued with the pre-independence education language policy of using a dominant local language as medium of instruction, as well as school subject in each region. Conversely, in 1965 the government decided to revise the policy and recommended that English be used as the language of instruction from first year of primary school up to university level (Ohannessian and Kashoki, 1978). This change was enacted into law in 1966 in the Education Act which guided the provision of education in

Zambia. Despite this change, the country did not have sufficient teachers to teach English being the language of instruction from Grade One.

Later, the government announced the construction of a language centre which was to train teachers of English in language instruction. Mwanakatwe prepared a write up to protect the use of the English language as a medium of instruction in schools being the minister of education (Sekeleti, 1983). In addition, Higgs (1980:7) quoted Mwanakatwe's writing that, "*as vernacular will continue to be taught as is done at present after the first four years, there is no fear that the traditions, customs and culture of our people will be lost.*" These speculations by the minister were not projected at a long-term basis and he did not understand the sociolinguistic impact it was to have for the future generation like today. Quite frankly, the reason for not choosing one Zambian language would have been associated with the challenge with regards to international communication. In view of this, it was significant that the indigenous languages were built through teaching the early grades in their available local languages.

The 1977 education policy change also had its own revelation considering the monolingual language policy the country had taken in 1966. The 1974 and 1976 drafts had recommended that the schools should use the local languages as medium of instruction to teach pupils initial literacy in the primary schools. They both recommended the use of the child's local language in the teaching of literacy. The final document of 1977 did not consider this proposal because of the following assumptions.

- a. There will be teacher placement problem because not every teacher will be able to speak the local language in the area he or she will be working from.
- b. In case of pupils getting transferred, there will be a problem of language to the child.
- c. In case where the mother tongue was not a means of communication outside the home, such decision might result in confusion between policy and practice.

- d. There may not be enough teachers to teach in the variety of local languages.
- e. There was insufficient literature in Zambia languages. There was need for serious language and material development if the Zambian languages were to be taught at that higher level and be used as a medium of instructions (Simwinga, 2006:61).

With the above excuses, there seemed to have been some justification for schools to continue using the monolingual language policy in Zambia. However, the challenges which came up were that children found it very difficult to understand the material being taught in schools because it was presented in English language which they only met in schools. Without considering such concerns, Ministry of Education (1977:32) maintained that the use of English language as a medium of instruction from Grade One continued. This ironic statement was passed to instill confidence in the international community who supposedly were aware that English medium was not effective for the learners because it was an unfamiliar language.

Serpell (1978) argued that adopting English as a sole medium of instruction was not progressive because of the envisaged classroom communication breakdown between the teacher and the learner. However, the government's position was that since it was assumed that teachers were familiar with the dominant local language used in particular zones, they would be allowed to explain difficult concepts in the dominant local language spoken by the pupil (Kelly, 1999). It was clear at the time that although government was insisting on English medium, the policy was misplaced.

Thus, the 1977 education reforms recommended the continued use of English as language of instruction in education while making provisions of the utilization for the seven local official languages where necessary. This was despite having acknowledged the weaknesses of using English as a sole language of classroom instruction. Simwinga (2006) observes that by 1992, it had become increasingly clear that the use of English as a language of instruction was not working well particularly at lower primary school level.

In 1992, the Ministry of Education revisited and reappraised the language policy in education. It was found that the policy had weaknesses which included: downgrading of local languages, isolation of the school from the community, alienation of the learner from tradition and impairment of children's future learning. With these weaknesses in consideration, the 1992 policy document recommended that the MOE should institute a review of the primary school curriculum in order to establish the main local languages as the basic languages of instruction from grades one to four (MOE, 1992). The 1992 recommendation provided the teacher with greater freedom to determine 'the main local language' to be used as language of instruction in primary schools while at secondary schools; English was used as a medium of instruction as well as a compulsory subject for everyone. This contrasted with the fact that Zambian languages were going to be offered as optional subjects at secondary schools.

A national conference on reading was held at Mulungushi National Conference Centre in 1996 which looked at possibilities of improving reading and literacy levels amongst learners. It was learnt that South Africa was using New Break Through to Literact (NBTL) to teach literacy (Tambulukani, 2015). BTL is literacy course developed by the Molteno Project in South Africa and it was running in some schools in Johannesburg. This is an innovative and child centred literacy strategy that introduces children to initial literacy instruction in their mother tongue (MT). A Zambian delegation travelled to South Africa in 2006 to observe the course being implemented in South African school and after seeing high success rate among first graders in Johannesburg schools, recommended its piloting in Zambia.

A renewed call for the use of indigenous language was also echoed in another reform of 1996 policy document (Educating Our Future) which also retained the use of English as official language of classroom instruction. The policy recommended the use of familiar languages to teach initial literacy in the early grades of the child in school. According to MOE (1996) in Mwanza (2016), the policy states:

...all learners will be given an opportunity to learn initial basic skills of reading and writing in a local language... officially, English will be used as a language of instruction, but the language used for initial literacy learning in Grade One will be one that seems best suited to promote meaningful learning by children.

Mwanza (2016) added that in 1998, another turn took place. The New Break Through to Literacy programme (NBTL) started as a pilot study in Mungwi and Kasama districts of Northern Province. The study involved an experiment of using a familiar language as a medium of instruction in Grade One to teach literacy. The results showed that learners were able to read by the end of Grade One and that, the level of reading for grade two learners was equivalent to Grade Four learners who had undergone the English medium. As a result, the project was scaled to all schools in Zambia under the programme titled “Primary Reading Programme (PRP)” (Manchishi and Chishimba 2014). What was not considered in the piloting of the PRP project was the fact that the chosen districts were all Bemba speaking districts and the children’s first language was Bemba. The validity of this program was not well planned hence it failed to yield the expected literacy results in multilingual areas whose regional language was different from the language of play (see Zimba, 2007, Mubanga, 2012, Mwanza, 2012 and Lukama, 2016).

Tambulukani (2014) also contended that children learn literacy faster in their local language. The language policies seemed to be a hindering factor to the development of literacy in the primary schools of Zambia. It was believed that the Department for International Development (DFID) who were the sponsors of Zambia’s New Breakthrough to Literacy Program made the Ministry of Education amend the language in education policy to facilitate early introduction of the study of English (Nkosha and Simfukwe, 2006). Despite this amendment, the main purpose of introducing the New Breakthrough to Literacy in Zambian Languages was only for “Skills transfer”. The intention was that once children acquired literacy and numeracy skills in a familiar zonal

language, it was hoped that it became easier for them to learn to read, write and count in English. Regardless of these efforts, literacy levels in Zambia have remained low.

In 2013, the National Literacy Framework (NLF) was developed and started its implementation in the Zambian schools in 2014. Here, the period of using local languages was extended to 4 years and English was supposed to take over from grade five onwards. In rationalising the policy change, Ministry of Education (2014:10) indicate that;

For many children in primary school, the language of instruction has traditionally been a different language from the one spoken in their homes. However, research shows that children learn best in their mother tongue, with a gradual transition to bilingual education.

Further, the literacy framework seemed to have had the right direction theoretically when it mentioned that;

The rationale for teaching in a local language is rooted in scientific research which supports developing a learner's language abilities – vocabulary, intrinsic knowledge of grammar rules, and use of his or her language, in order to develop reading and writing skills. The speed and ease at which a learner can do this in his own language far surpasses that at which a learner can in a foreign language (MOE, 2014:12)

From a pedagogical point of view, the rationale for using familiar languages was sound. The idea of extending the period from one year to four years also looks logical. However, there is no research evidence to indicate improvement in literacy levels emanating from such policy changes. This is also consistent with Mwanza (2020) who argues that literacy levels in Zambia have remained low despite various policy changes because the changes are still premised on the monolingual practices and that the learner's mother tongue is not used in the classroom learning process.

MOE (2014:11) acknowledges that many research findings support the opinion that Zambian children are not gaining basic literacy skills. The baseline study of the Zambian Primary Reading Programme was conducted in 1999 among grade 1-6 learners. The findings revealed that most children that attempted to read actually read at two grades below grade level in English and three grades below grade level in their own Zambian language. Further studies from the Grade five National Assessment Survey for 2006 and 2008 indicated that learning achievements were below 40% in both English and Zambian languages (35.3% and 39.4% respectively) and this percentage has been stagnant since 1999. The Grade 5 National Assessment Survey and the EGRA survey, both from 2010 show poor reading and writing abilities among learners. Another study conducted by the South African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (SACMEQ III) of 2010 noted that among Grade 6 learners that were tested in reading, only 27.4% were able to read at a basic competency level in the Zambian schools.

Similarly, Muleya (2012) found that Grade three learners in the Zambian primary schools could not read. All these were indicators pointing to the fact that despite the several policy changes starting from 1924 to date, there has not been any significant improvement in literacy levels. Further, the concept of having regional languages to teach learners is faulty because the regional languages do not represent the actual languages of play and community languages available in the different Zambian communities. This has led to some regions having more than one language as it can be seen in North-western, Central and Lusaka regions (Banja and Mwanza, 2017; Lukama, 2016; Simachenya 2017; and Mwanza, 2012).

The question which begs attention is: why are literacy levels still low in Zambia when government has made several attempts through language policy changes to address the problem? Banda and Mwanza (2017) argued that Zambian's bilingual language policy was the reason for the low literacy levels because it was premised on monolingual/monoglot language ideologies which Cummins (2008) describes as a policy where learners receive instruction in one language until when they were thought to have

mastered the target language in order to receive instruction in the second language. In its practical manifestation, the Zambian language of initial literacy policy is what Garcia (2009) and Cummins (2009) calls two solitudes. In fact, findings from Tambulukani (2015), Mwanza (2012) and Zimba (2007) have provided sufficient evidence that using monolingual practices in the Zambian multilingual classrooms was a contributing factor to the low literacy levels in Zambia and what the policy recommended did not match with the language practices of the local people. In this view, Banda and Mwanza (2017) proposed translanguaging as a solution to epistemic access among Grade One learners in a Zambia's multilingual-multi-ethnic classrooms. In other words, instead of the monolingual classroom practices which have been practiced since missionary time to date, Banda and Mwanza (2017) proposes a shift to a multilingual practice and in this case, translanguaging as pedagogic practice.

The origins of translanguaging lie in Welsh bilingual education in the 1980s (Lewis et al. 2012). Translanguaging is a relatively new notion that is still being developed and tried in different countries for pedagogical purposes. The term is the English equivalent of the Welsh word *trawsieithu*, which was coined by Cen Williams in his PhD thesis (1994) to describe a teaching method adopted in bilingual secondary schools in Wales (Beres, 2015). This involved providing students with information in one language and asking them to produce a piece of written or oral work in the other language. An example might be preparing a poster in English and explaining it in Welsh. This pedagogical practice was intended to foster learning through meaning and understanding.

'Trawsieithu' a Welsh term coined by Cen Williams, and later translated into English as 'translanguaging' was constructed as a purposeful cross-curricular strategy for 'the planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson' (Lewis et al. 2012). Practitioners working in English as an Additional Language (EAL) contexts in the UK begun to recognize the pedagogic potential of translanguaging in ways that could also be beneficial to other language education practitioners (Li, 2018). Indeed, recent discussions of translanguaging tie in well with an ongoing present-day

reappraisal within ELT of what Hall and Cook (2012) term ‘own-language use’ in language classrooms.

Conceptually, translanguaging resonates with the ideas of Cummins (2001), whose work has for long been influential among EAL practitioners worldwide. His concepts of ‘common underlying proficiency’ (CUP) and linguistic interdependence stress the positive benefits of transfer in language learning. Researchers working in multilingual classrooms have begun to use the term ‘translanguaging’ to describe multilingual oral interaction (García, 2009; Blackledge and Creese, 2010) and the use of different languages in written texts (Canagarajah, 2011; García and Kano, 2014). Conteh (2018) provides a critical review of translanguaging as pedagogy, arguing that the emphasis of research has so far been on understanding processes of interaction rather than the pedagogic potential. Recent work, such as that by Mertin (2018), shows the potential of opening spaces for teachers’ voices in research and academic discourses related to translanguaging.

Implied within translanguaging whether considered as primarily as a form of interaction or as a pedagogy is a model of language that contests some of the ways this has traditionally been conceptualized in English Language Teaching (ELT). The focus of translanguaging moves from how many languages an individual may have at their disposal to how they use all their language resources to achieve their purposes. Li (2018b: 24) argues that translanguaging ‘challenges the conventional understanding of language boundaries between ... culturally and politically labelled languages.’ Blackledge and Creese (2010), among others, link language and identity, arguing that identity construction is an important factor in learning.

They suggest that translanguaging affords opportunities for the learner to make links often in ways not available to their teachers between their experiences outside the classroom and those within. The pedagogic benefits of this can be significant, such as with the

children described by Conteh (2015) whose understanding of talk about time was enhanced when they linked the English vocabulary to words their mothers used in their home languages to describe measurements of fabric.

What started in Wales as a local pedagogy has now been recognised by scholars around the world. Among them, Ofelia García has been credited with popularising translanguaging globally and developing it further. Her approach to translanguaging is holistic in that it posits that the language practices being learned by emergent bilinguals are in functional interrelationship with other language practices and form an integrated system (Velasco and García, 2014). Also, translanguaging is considered to be as effective with fluent bilinguals as with emergent bilinguals such as children from Spanish speaking homes living in the US. Moreover, García argues that translanguaging is a common, everyday practice in the multilingual societies of the 21st century. Not only does it increase students' competence in their additional language, but it also makes them more skilled academically. García takes William's and Baker's views further and emphasises that children can translanguage even when they have minimal knowledge of both languages.

Other scholars have provided their own definitions of and insights into translanguaging. What was labelled as *trawsieithu* by Williams (1994) and *translanguaging* by Baker (2003) and García (2009) is termed *codemeshing* by Canagarajah (2011), *metrolingualism* by Otsuji and Pennycook (2010) and *translanguaging space* by Li Wei (2011). Although they all uphold the flexibility of language use rather than traditional language separation, each of these definitions views the use of translanguaging slightly differently and focuses on slightly different aspects of sociolinguistic bilingual practices.

Baker (2011:39) defined translanguaging as '*the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages.*' Hornberger and Link, (2012:262) also defined as, '*the purposeful pedagogical alternation*

*of language in spoken and written, receptive and productive modes.*' Translanguaging is also defined as:

the process performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, in order to maximize communicative potential (Garcia, 2009:140).

From the definition, it can be seen that translanguaging is the purposive methodological changes which teachers use to suit the classroom sociolinguistics and provide learners with epistemic access to knowledge. This pedagogical approach calls for linguistic inclusion in a classroom. Therefore, Hesson, Seltzer and Woodley (2014) state translanguaging as pedagogical practice refers to any instance in which the students' home language practices are used to influence learning in multilingual classrooms. So, as practice, translanguaging is limited to classroom and the provision of education to the multilingual learners. This is necessitated by the teacher's practices which allow learner involvement in the learning situation and access to content through linguistic liberalisation. Meanwhile, Zambia offers a monolingual curriculum which recognises one language in each region while neglecting the classroom multilingual sociolinguistic.

Translanguaging pedagogy has come to re-examine an age-old question of the role of L1 in second, foreign, and additional language teaching and learning. Despite the theoretical appraisal in recent years of the importance of L1 in learning additional languages, the target-language-only or one language at-a-time monolingual ideologies still dominate much of practice and policy, not least in assessing learning outcomes. The actual purpose of learning new languages to become bilingual and multilingual, rather than to replace the learner's L1 to become another monolingual often gets forgotten or neglected, and the bilingual, rather than monolingual, speaker is rarely used as the model for teaching and learning (Li Wei, 2019).

Translanguaging enables the children to realize and maximize their potentials in the learning of one language using the skills of the already existing linguistic repertoires. Garcia (2009) add that in translanguaging, languages are no longer assigned separate territories or even separate functions, but they co-exist in the same space, and they are not graded with regards to their importance in the community. To this effect, translanguaging is an important pedagogical concept in the educational practices of today. Baker (2011) pointed out four educational advantages to translanguaging:

1. It may promote a deeper and fuller understanding of the subject matter.
2. It may help the development of the weaker language.
3. It may facilitate home-school links and cooperation.
4. It may help the integration of fluent speakers with early learners.

This means that in the learning of one language, other languages and dialects work as steppingstones to the providing of a link between the language being taught and the language in which the children are thinking and can express themselves better.

The site of this study, Lundazi central, is a multilingual district with Tumbuka being the dominant language while Senga and Chewa are also in the rural parts. Despite being a dominant language, Tumbuka is not the official MOI as it is not one of the seven regional languages of instruction. Instead, Cinyanja is the language of instruction. Zimba (2007) found that most pupils could not participate in class because of lack of familiarity with Chichewa especially in its standard form. Thus, Lundazi was chosen as a result of this sociolinguistic make up and the potential of translanguaging as an intervention.

So far, the background has shown that the Zambian language in education policy is premised on monolingual language ideologies and practices and accounts for the low literacy levels in Zambia due to its resultant symbolic violence. On the flipside, Translanguaging has adequate theoretical support for use in multilingual classrooms as it

engenders multilingualism and promotes significant learning. Thus, this study was conducted to assess if translanguaging would lead to improved literacy performance among first graders in Lundazi District where the dominant familiar languages and the official medium of instruction are different.

### **1.3 Statement of the problem.**

The background section has shown that Zambia has revised the literacy curriculum especially recommendations on medium of literacy teaching. However, these changes have not translated into gains in literacy levels in the country (SACMEQ, 2008 and 2010; MOE, 2014 and Tambulukani, 2015). Studies have also shown that while several policies have been developed and discarded, all the policies including the current one, have been and are still premised on monolingual language ideologies and practices (Banda and Mwanza, 2017). Studies have actually shown that Zambia's monolingual/monoglot policies and their corresponding monolingual classroom practices have resulted into symbolic violence and consistent low literacy levels (Zimba, 2007, Mwanza 2012 and Mubanga, 2012, Lukama, 2016). This was happening when studies elsewhere (Hawaii and South Africa) had provided evidence that translanguaging as a pedagogical practice was a solution to effective literacy teaching in multilingual classrooms (Holdway, 2016; Banda, 2010). What constituted the problem in this study therefore was that, it was not known whether translanguaging could lead to better literacy learning outcomes compared to monolingual/monoglot language practices and ideologies currently being practiced in Zambia and specifically in Lundazi District. Put as a question, the problem was: What is the impact of translanguaging as a pedagogical practice on literacy levels among Grade One literacy learners in multilingual classrooms of Lundazi District of Zambia?

### **1.4 Purpose of the study.**

The purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of translanguaging as pedagogical practice on literacy levels among Grade One literacy learners in multilingual classrooms of Lundazi District of Zambia.

## **1.5 Objectives of the study.**

The study sought to:

1. assess the impact of translanguaging on literacy performance among Grade One literacy learners in Lundazi District,
2. establish the benefits of Translanguaging practices in a Grade One multilingual literacy class,
3. analyse translanguaging practices in Grade One literacy class of Lundazi District of Lundazi District, and
4. establish the challenges teacher and pupils faced when teaching/learning literacy through translanguaging pedagogical practices in a Grade One literacy class.

## **1.6 Main research question**

What was the impact of translanguaging as pedagogical practice on literacy levels among Grade One learners in Lundazi district of Zambia?

### **1.6.1 Specific research questions**

The study addressed the following specific research questions:

1. What impact did translanguaging have on literacy performance of Grade One learners in Lundazi District?
2. What are the benefits of Translanguaging practices in a Grade One multilingual literacy class?
3. How was translanguaging practiced in a Grade One multiliteracy classrooms in Lundazi District?
4. What challenges did the teacher and pupils face when teaching/learning literacy through translanguaging pedagogical practices?

## **1.7 Significance of the study.**

The findings of the study may have policy implications on the curriculum developers as it may provide an insight into the classroom merits in using translanguaging pedagogical practices against the current monolingual practices being used. The findings of the study

may also act as a linguistic and pedagogical eye opener with regards to how minor languages maybe utilized in literacy teaching in multilingual communities and how teachers should utilize translanguaging for the learners to promote significant learning.

Further, the study findings may help to provide the pedagogical practices that are viable in the teaching of literacy to the children whose first language was not among the major seven regional languages chosen for medium of literacy instruction.

It was also hoped that the findings would contribute to the body of knowledge and stimulate further research on contextual classroom studies aimed at finding the most suitable language practices for multilingual classrooms.

### **1.8 Delimitation of the study**

The study was confined to primary schools in the urban area of Lundazi District of eastern province of Zambia. It was also confined to one primary school which was in the Tumbuka speaking community of Lundazi District because the children's mother tongue (L1) was Tumbuka, yet teachers were teaching them literacy using Cinyanja.

### **1.9 Limitations of the study**

The limitation of the study was from the sample itself. Since the school that was experimented on was one, the findings may not be generalized to other schools in the district, province and the entire country.

### **1.10 Operational definitions**

*Translanguaging*

is both discourse practice of bilinguals as well as to pedagogical practices that uses the entire complex linguistic repertoire of bilingual students flexibly in order to teach rigorous content and develop language practices for

	academic use (Hesson, Seltzer and Woodley, 2014).
<i>Translanguaging as pedagogy</i>	teacher's use of learner's linguistic repertoires flexibly and actively to educate (Hesson, Seltzer and Woodley, 2014).
<i>Languaging</i>	to use language and semiotics for various purposes without the thought that one language is different from the other.
<i>Standard Nyanja</i>	the variety of 'Cinyanja' language which is used in schools as a language of instruction in parts of Lusaka and Eastern provinces and is the regional language.
<i>Grade One learners</i>	first graders in the Zambian primary school setting.
<i>Monolingual practices</i>	the use of one language to teach.
<i>Zonal languages</i>	the seven Zambian languages used in schools to teach literacy from grade 1-4 (Cinyanja, Citonga, Silozi, Lunda, Kikaonde, Icibemba and Luvale).
<i>Language of play</i>	the language learners use when playing in a community.

### **1.11 Structure of the dissertation**

The first chapter has provided the introduction of the study on the impact of translanguaging as pedagogical practices on the literacy levels among Grade One literacy

learners in Lundazi District. The chapter presented the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation, limitations, operational definitions, structure of the dissertation and a chapter summary.

Chapter two present literature reviewed from different parts of the world on translanguaging as classroom pedagogical practices, benefits of translanguaging over monolingual practices, translanguaging practices in classrooms and challenges of translanguaging in different learning and teaching contexts.

Chapter three present literature review from the Zambian context on the language policy and literacy teaching. Chapter four discuss the theories used in the study. These are the three-language orientation theory, critical discourse analysis theory and the pedagogical discourse theory. A conceptual framework has also been presented at the end of the chapter.

Chapter five is the methodology chapter. Here, the research paradigm, types of research methodology, justifications for using the mixed methods and its design have been presented. It also presents the population, sample, sampling techniques, data collection instruments, data analysis, trustworthiness and reliability of the research instruments. Chapter six has presented findings of the study in relation to the research questions and emerging themes.

Chapter seven presents the analysis and discussion of findings on the literacy performance and benefits of translanguaging, translanguaging practices in a Grade One multilingual class and the challenges teachers and pupils faced in using translanguaging in a Grade One literacy class. Chapter eight contain the conclusions of the study, contribution to knowledge, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

## **1.12 Summary of Chapter**

This chapter has presented background of the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives and subsequent research questions to be addressed, the significance of the study, delimitation and limitations of the study. The next chapter present a review of literature.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

#### **2.1 Overview**

This chapter presents studies from different parts of the world relevant to the teaching of literacy and language using translanguaging pedagogical practices. It starts with the translanguaging pedagogical classroom practices used in different classroom contexts. The benefits of translanguaging over monolingual practices to multilingual learners are discussed and lastly, challenges teachers and pupils face when teaching/learning literacy through translanguaging.

#### **2.2 The concept of Translanguaging**

The concept of translanguaging has been used in social and academic settings to mean languaging practices which people use without challenges in communicating. Beres (2015) states that translanguaging is considered to be as effective with fluent bilinguals as with emergent bilinguals such as children from Spanish speaking homes living in the US. Moreover, García (2014) argues that translanguaging is a common, everyday practice in the multilingual societies of the 21st century. Not only does it increase students' competence in their additional language, but it also makes them more skilled academically. García takes William and Baker's views further and emphasises that children can translanguage even when they have minimal knowledge of both languages.

García (2013) contends that since bilingualism does not entail the use of two separate linguistic codes, translanguaging is not just about switching languages and modes of learning like going from reading to writing. Instead, translanguaging is based on the idea that individuals can draw on their entire linguistic repertoire in order to meet their communicative needs in a given linguistic and social space. García and Li Wei (2014) argue that translanguaging is a process whereby individuals use various meaning-making

signs in order to adapt and actively participate in different societal and linguistic situations critically and with cognitive engagement and creativity. Translanguaging enables bilinguals to develop new understandings of interaction between people and create a free and equal environment in which everyone is given a voice. It allows students to shine and show their true knowledge and potential in their original voice or language.

It can be seen that individuals' knowledge and use of languages are closely linked and permeable with their knowledge of social and human interactions (García and Li Wei, 2014). In the view of García and Li Wei, translanguaging is more than a learning strategy. It is "the discursive norm of all bilinguals, as well as a pedagogical theory of learning and teaching especially for language-minoritised populations or linguistic minorities" (García and Li Wei 2014: 126). Indeed, translanguaging provides the conceptual framework for theorising on bilingual education as a democratic endeavour for social justice (García 2013c).

A number of studies have looked at translanguaging from perspectives that address academic, social, cultural and identity issues. Hornberger and Link (2012) expand on the original idea of translanguaging and focus on the practice of transnational literacies that are based on cross-border identities, skills and social relationships. They argue for increasing awareness of translanguaging and transnational practices in multicultural classrooms in order to increase our understanding of students' resources and how these can be used to enrich their educational attainments. They believe that translanguaging is as much about learning the language as it is about having a positive school experience and academic attainment. They argue that translanguaging crosses the linguistic boundaries which divide languages in class and result into unitary language use.

García and Sylvan (2011) have developed the idea of translanguaging within a 'dynamic plurilingual pedagogy' which maintains that it is necessary to focus on the individual in multilingual and multicultural schools. Therefore, successful and meaningful bilingual

education involves the purposeful engagement of teachers and pupils from a variety of different backgrounds, with their individual cultural and linguistic repertoires. They argue for improving English language skills and general knowledge through the use of translanguaging by emergent bilingual children. They also contend that successful translanguaging is a process based on continuous adaptations of the students' entire linguistic repertoire in order to create meaning.

Translanguaging challenges the idea still popular in many parts of the world today according to which non-native students have somehow deficient skills due to their lack of proficiency in their additional language (Beres, 2015). It is this view that was behind the idea of some educational methods, such as immersion, where students were required to use only the second language. Code-switching and other aspects of mixing languages, which go against the principle of language separation, are discouraged and often officially forbidden by school policies. This can create feelings of exclusion or even failure, because students lack the skills that enable them to fully express themselves in the target language (Cenoz and Gorter, 2011). It can, however, be overcome by the use of flexible languaging, where students can use aspects of their entire linguistic repertoire in order to address their communicative needs.

Translanguaging does not assume that individuals have two separate language codes, but rather that they have one linguistic repertoire from which they choose the language they need in a particular context (García, 2012). Although translanguaging includes codeswitching, it is much more than that. García (2012) argues that rather than focusing solely on the second language and essentially ignoring the classroom bilingualism, translanguaging enables teachers and pupils to see bilingualism as a resource that can facilitate the acquisition of language skills and general knowledge. Bilingualism is encouraged instead of being suppressed as the linguistic skills in one language are necessary for the development of another language.

Translanguaging in its pure form goes back to Moll and Diaz (1985) who showed that, by discussing in Spanish what they had read in English, Spanish emergent bilingual children increased their reading proficiency in English, which became comparable to their first language. Knowing how students learn and function is the key to successful learning and teaching in a classroom and entire education setting. Translanguaging allows students to use their personal skills and repertoire as they naturally do in their bilingual world. In other words, the children's emergent literacy has to be the starting point and should be used to build on literacy in a second or third language.

Translanguaging enables permeability between languages (Creese and Blackledge, 2010; García, 2011). Bilinguals need to be able to draw from their entire linguistic system those aspects which enable them to make the connection with one another, explain their thoughts and feelings and learn new skills. It is only through such flexible bilingualism that links between language, culture, community and context can be established. This permeability is maintained by Park (2013), who argues that it enables students to fully participate during the lesson as they do not feel constrained by the disproportionate gap between the two languages.

Translanguaging is often confused with code-switching. The latter is described as a strategy adopted by bilingual speakers, which entails the use of two languages intrasententially and intersententially (Cook, 2001). Whilst translanguaging includes code-switching, it goes beyond that. Translanguaging is about drawing from a complex linguistic system that does not clearly fit into one language or another as described by nation-states and grammar books. It is about using this linguistic repertoire in a flexible way in order to gain new knowledge, develop new skills and enhance language practice. What makes translanguaging important in teaching emergent bilinguals is that by allowing students to flexibly choose those aspects, which work for them at the time, it enables them to participate in a situation they otherwise would be excluded from. Therefore, it boosts their confidence as well as their skills. It also builds on their strengths

rather than weaknesses like skills which they are just acquiring and minimises the feeling of alienation. Translanguaging can give “voice to those who do not speak” (García 2014a, 115).

Translanguaging enables permeability between languages (Creese and Blackledge 2010; García 2011). Bilinguals need to be able to draw from their entire linguistic system those aspects which enable them to make the connection with one another, explain their thoughts and feelings and learn new skills. It is only through such flexible bilingualism that links between language, culture, community and context can be established. This permeability is maintained by Park (2013), who argues that it enables students to fully participate during the lesson as they do not feel constrained by the disproportionate gap between the two languages.

In further developing the translanguaging debate, García (2006) asserts that the overarching aim of translanguaging is for pupils to develop a repertoire of codes and strategies that enable them to strategically use them, rather than gaining mastery of the second language. Apart from developing language proficiency and expanding on students’ general academic knowledge and abilities, translanguaging has the potential to transform the public education system in the US, which is still predominantly in English, by recognising the language practices used by speakers of languages other than English in the US (García et al., 2012). Moreover, she states that it is only by adopting a translanguaging pedagogy that language minority students across the world will be able to successfully perform in global tests such as PISA (Program for International Student Assessment), which is administered worldwide every three (3) years to teenagers across the world (García, 2014b). Through translanguaging, individuals can self-regulate their use of language in relation to the situation they are in by drawing meaning-making aspects from their entire linguistic repertoire which enable them to act, to be, and to know. From the foregoing, other scholars have further advanced the translanguaging argument and have demonstrated that it is useful in the multilingual classes.

To justify that translanguaging is a practice from a theoretical lense, scholars have argued that it looks at languages to be interconnected through permeable boundaries which are not closed but open to changes at any time. Whilst linguists are aware of Williams and Baker's work on translanguaging as a pedagogical practice, Li (2011) states that the initial idea of Translanguaging came from a different source, namely, the notion of Languageing. In a short commentary on Newmeyer's (1991) essay on the origins of language, Becker (1991) borrowed the term Languageing from the Chilean biologist and neuroscientist Humberto Maturana and his co-author Francesco Varela (Maturana and Varela 1980) and invited us to think that 'there is no such thing as Language, only continual languageing, an activity of human beings in the world.' He reiterated Ortega y Gasset's (1957) argument that language should not be regarded 'as an accomplished fact, as a thing made and finished, but as in the process of being made.'

Translanguaging reconceptualises language as a multilingual, multi-semiotic, multisensory, and multimodal resource for sense and meaning-making, and the multilingual as someone who is aware of the existence of the political entities of named languages and has an ability to make use of the structural features of some of them that they have acquired. It has the capacity to enable us to explore the human mind as a holistic multicompetence (Cook, 1992; Cook and Li, 2016), and rethink some of the bigger, theoretical issues in linguistics generally. This applies to the Zambian classrooms where we have evidence that the classroom sociolinguistics has gone beyond the policy projections hence literacy gains are not to the expectations of the policy. Therefore, the linguistic boundaries created in class are a hinderance to academic achievement.

Li (2011a) talked about a Translanguaging Space. This is a space that is created by and for Translanguaging practices, and a space where language users break down the ideologically laden dichotomies between the macro and the micro, the societal and the individual, and the social and the psychological through interaction. A Translanguaging

Space allows language users to integrate social spaces (and thus ‘linguistic codes’) that have been formerly separated through different practices in different places. Translanguaging is not simply going between different linguistic structures, cognitive, and semiotic systems and modalities, but going beyond them. The act of Translanguaging creates a social space for the language user by bringing together different dimensions of their personal history, experience, and environment; their attitude, belief, and ideology; their cognitive and physical capacity, into one coordinated and meaningful performance (Li, 2011a: 1223), and this Translanguaging Space has its own transformative power because it is forever evolving and combines and generates new identities, values and practices.

Li (2017) argues that Translanguaging underscores multilinguals’ creativity their abilities to push and break boundaries between named languages and between language varieties, and to flout norms of behaviour including linguistic behaviour, and criticality the ability to use evidence to question, problematise, and articulate views (Li and Zhu, 2013). From a Translanguaging lens, multilingualism by the very nature of the phenomenon is a rich source of creativity and criticality, as it entails tension, conflict, competition, difference, and change in a number of spheres, ranging from ideologies, policies, and practices to historical and current contents. Enhanced contacts between people of diverse backgrounds and traditions provide new opportunities for innovation and creativity. As discussed earlier, multilingual language users are aware of the existence of the political entities of named languages, have acquired some of their structural features, and have an ability to use them. They are capable of responding to the historical and present conditions critically. They consciously construct and constantly modify their sociocultural identities and values through social practices such as Translanguaging.

The notion of Translanguaging Space has implications for policy and practice. For example, Garcia and Li (2014) argue that education can be a Translanguaging Space where teachers and students can go between and beyond socially constructed language

and educational systems, structures and practices to engage diverse multiple meaning-making systems and subjectivities, to generate new configurations of language and education practices, and to challenge and transform old understandings and structures. In so doing, orders of discourse shift and the voices of others come to the forefront, relating Translanguaging to criticality, critical pedagogy, social justice, and the linguistic human rights agenda. A multilingual class needs to create a social space to allow all languages to flourish and be used for the purpose of academic achievements.

It is significant to note that Translanguaging goes beyond hybridity theory that recognises the complexity of people's everyday spaces and multiple resources to make sense of the world. A Translanguaging space has much to do with the vision of third space articulated by Soja (1996) as a space of extraordinary openness, a place of critical exchange where the geographical imagination can be expanded to encompass a multiplicity of perspectives that have been considered by the epistemological referees to be incompatible and uncombinable. Soja critiques binaries and proposes that it is possible to generate new knowledge and discourses in a third space. A translanguaging space acts as a third space which does not merely encompass a mixture or hybridity of first and second languages; instead, it invigorates languaging with new possibilities from 'a site of creativity and power', as Hooks (1990: 152) says. This makes this study conceptualise that going beyond language refers to transforming the present, to intervening by reinscribing our human, historical commonality in the act of translanguaging. From the foregoing, it can be established that translanguaging practices are about creating a linguistic space which supports learner interaction across linguistic cultures and does not have to look at independent languages but use them fluidly to help learners acquire the knowledge planned for them in school. It was not known if translanguaging practices could bring about academic achievements in the multilingual primary schools in Zambia; hence, this study was conducted.

### **2.3 Translanguaging as Classroom Pedagogical Practice**

Translanguaging pedagogical practices are minimal and centre on the teacher engagement with the learners in the lesson with the use of languages without creating a boundary between them. Lasagabaster and Garcia (2014) state that the terms code-switching and translanguaging are normally used interchangeably but they are different. They note that while code-switching entails that the bilingual speaker uses two languages as two separate monolingual codes, translanguaging believes that bilingual speakers have a unique linguistic repertoire which they strategically use to choose elements that enable effective communication. Translanguaging, therefore, is the process by which bilingual students make use of the many resources their bilingual status offers. Thus, translanguaging goes beyond the traditional concept of bilingualism as it seeks to include the minority language and its community, ensuring they are not kept separate and that the different languages of instruction are not seen as competing.

A study was conducted by González Davies and Scott-Tennent (2009) on when, how and why a naturally occurring group of teacher trainees in their third and last pre-service year used first language and translation in their learning process in the United States. Data was collected using interview guides and classroom observations from the selected sample. The study involved students in an authentic translation project and the process was recorded by means of a pre- and post-questionnaire, a pre- and post-translation task, a teacher's diary, pedagogical translation activities, an authentic translation project, a written protocol, and the teacher trainees' self-reports. The findings of the study indicated that the use of the L1 and translation are spontaneous learning strategies, considered useful by students but poorly exploited. Therefore, if the teaching practices were introduced in the classroom in an informed way, they could be used more efficiently. In addition, other findings were in accordance with Macaro (2005) and contrary to the beliefs of those advocating for monolingual teaching practices instead of plural lingual practices that using them does not necessarily increase L1 use in the classroom.

A study was conducted by González Davies (2018) on the use of translation in an integrated plurilingual approach to language learning as teacher strategies and best practices in Spain. Data was collected through document analysis, classroom observation and later interviews were used on the teacher. In the teaching of multilingual classes and in an Integrated Plurilingual Approach (IPA), translation is used as a natural plurilingual learning strategy to advance language learning and plurilingual communicative competence (PCC). The focus lies on exploring the use of translation in other learning contexts (TOLC), i.e., not directly related to professional translation training, by seeking relevant connections between Translator Training and Additional Language (AL) Learning. She concluded that the pedagogical framework under translation and multilingual classes teaching follows socio-constructivist premises and prioritises transferrable skills and concept-based instruction. The use of translation did not prove detrimental to language learning, and it favoured the development of multi-competential knowledge and of cognitive, meta-cognitive and socio affective knowledge. With such evidence in other multilingual classes, it was clear from the evidence which existed in the Zambian that schools when translation was used as a translanguaging pedagogical practice with Grade One learners of Lundazi District.

Earlier, another study was conducted by González Davies (2012) on the development of linguistic mediation skills and intercultural competence in a teacher training context through projects involving the translation of children's literature. A classroom experiment was used on the teacher's abilities to make learners translate and how well they understood the text. The findings suggest that the explicit teaching of issues related to translation in the context of research brought about relevant changes in both the aptitudes and the attitudes of the teacher trainees regarding their intercultural competence and their linguistic mediation skills. These skills progressed from a humanistic to an anthropological view of culture; from fronting cognitive knowledge to stressing the importance of the more invisible behavioural and moral knowledge and actions. Other developments according to Macaro (2001) included generally moving from a Virtual to

an Optimal position regarding the effectiveness of introducing translation into their classes and, above all, the reconsideration of their concept of translation and their improved ability to solve translation problems and provide a rationale for their choice of strategies.

A study was conducted by Goitia and Sugranyes (2011) in a Primary Education English class of a 6th year primary school where 95% of the students were of foreign origin and spoke languages other than Spanish and Catalan as their mother tongues in England. Students created stories and wrote them in English and then, the pupils who invented the stories translated them into all the mother tongues. Lastly, they were read to younger children in English and in all the languages spoken in the group. The findings established that the language of the children involved improved after the experience involving the use of multilingual literature. This also gave them the change of experiencing oneness through the mediation between different cultures. Hélot (2010) adds that their English results improved, and this was taken as evidence of overall academic improvement and of an increase in plurilingual and intercultural competence. This was the genesis of the use of children's literature which is a resource that is clearly motivating for children. It also makes students' languages visible and relevant to the learning process thus helping develop children's language awareness. Above all, the practice helps the learners feel proud of their own languages and their own linguistic prior knowledge.

A study by López (2009) looked at different goals of teaching literacy using the bilingual or plurilingual practices in the classroom. The study experimented on how bilingual children can be taught using translation and code-switching. Qualitative methods which included classroom observation and analysing written works from learners were used to collect data from the participants. The study proposed that the first language is used to teach difficult language areas, particularly grammar, to help with vocabulary comprehension, to deal with cultural issues and to build up links between mother tongue and additional language for students. The study then concluded that code-switching

enables the teachers and pupils to deal with collaborative tasks, to understand difficult concepts, to carry out private speech, to practise L2 uses of the language and as a tool for self-regulation. Using the child's first language to teach them a second language needs more practice using the first language than the second language. The teacher should depend on the learner's strength which is in the first language before using the second language.

Effective second language teaching is embedded into related activities like code-switching with learners in class. By bringing pedagogically based code-switching into the classroom, Dewaele (2012) observe that the teacher could be the person who provides the initial spark and invites students to open up to a new way of learning languages using their first language. This spark would be provided by modelling and creating opportunities for students to use their languages in class, to reflect upon them, to become conscious and proud of their linguistic repertoires.

The essence of pedagogical based codes-witching would also be related to Macaro's (2005) definition for expert of codes-witching as the systematic and principled guidelines based on functional use of the first language of the child, reaffirming the principle that second language learning is best carried out through communicative interaction using the local language of the learners. However, the switch does not only ensure communication in class but provides a fertile ground for concept assimilation. Therefore, codes-witching functions to ensure that more learning will take place unlike when the switch has not taken place in class (Macaro, 2005). The crucial difference is that pedagogically based codes-witching is encouraged by the teachers in their classes while it is used by the students, while the teacher remains as the main source of input in the additional language being used.

As a teaching strategy, López (2009) contends that it is also important to place pedagogical based codes-witching on a language teaching continuum that could give

shape to a long-term language teaching methodology that would adapt to each language learning stage and to the learners' age in order to reach maximum efficiency and high levels of ultimate attainment. This is in view of realisation that the main aim of this continuum is to address the role the first language could play in every stage and it must be made clear that these suggestions would apply to those learners following the continuum from the start, that is, those learners that have experienced different uses of the first language in their language classrooms as they grow up and also those learners that have begun learning the additional language at an early age. Adjustments of various sorts should be made to the teaching methods and activities in class when being used on adult learners beginning an additional language or when thinking of teenagers who have been in monolingual classes. This enables the learners to find the content easily understandable since they are conversant with their language. Translanguaging practices become significant in this case.

Using the first language in a translanguaging class gives advantages to the children and the teachers. Macaro (2005) holds that with regards to the classroom atmosphere, observations can be made regarding the fact that learners enjoyed group work and, as the research group work required use of different languages, this also meant that children that tended not to participate so much when everything was carried out in English because of shyness, insecurity or perhaps lack of knowledge found more opportunities to participate and share their linguistic abilities using the first language with their classmates. In a way, Hélot (2010) adds that everyone seemed to feel more at ease as children's participation was high in all the children. The children found it easy to share knowledge in groups because they used a familiar language which was a unifying factor in class. With such evidence, it was clear that the use of the translanguaging strategies in class provided purposive interaction in a multilingual classroom.

Lopez (2009) contends that the activities of a plurilingual nature are likely to be collaborative because they promote mediation between languages and knowledge which is another ability that plurilingual speakers should develop. He goes further to state that

even if they lack grammatical knowledge, children are able to identify structures or language uses that are not correct in both languages. In a sense, they can notice that something is wrong when, for instance, an article is missing in a Spanish noun phrase, or the word order is not appropriate in an English noun phrase. Lopez (2009) further says that this noticing can only be effectively developed in language contexts that are based on immersion, communicative teaching, and simultaneous use of different languages that is informed, rather than spontaneous, and that plays a specific role that the teacher can promote, as intended. Through this systematic process of teaching and learning, language learning is enhanced through participation.

Li (2011) conducted a study on moment analysis and translanguaging space by Chinese youths in Britain. The study involved the teacher analysing the language practices which learners used in the class by observing them and looking at their written works. Findings from the study revealed that translanguaging in a multilingual class helps students to acquire and use accurately a range of general academic and domain-specific words and phrases sufficient for reading, writing, speaking, listening and use in class and in the community. This pedagogy demonstrates the career readiness level, independence in gathering vocabulary knowledge when encountering an unknown term important to comprehension or expression. In doing so, Anderson (2008) concludes that all students need to develop the necessary literacy skills to read, write, and learn at grade-level. He further notes that helping bilingual students learn the language associated with each learning objective means they are learning language for academic purposes and not for survival use in the community. This is beneficial for all students not just for bilingual learners hence the need for the teachers to carefully plan and implement the language instruction in class to enable them acquire the necessary vocabulary.

Several studies have linked translanguaging and codes-switching as part of the linguistic processes which teachers use to make second language learners use their first language to acquire literacy in another language. A study conducted by Swain and Lapkin (2000) on

immersion in French classrooms found that their first language enables students learning a second language negotiate meaning and communicate successfully in the target language. The study involved students who were given tasks for which they had to work with friends in pairs or collaboratively to construct a story which was based on a recording they had listened to and taken notes on with regard to the given instructions. Transcription was done for all the dialogues of all pairs from the tape-records. The analyses of the transcriptions showed that students used their first languages in the recordings mainly for three purposes which include moving the task along, focusing attention, and interpersonal interaction.

The role of pedagogical translation is critical in the teaching of literacy to multilingual learners. A study by Leonardi (2011) looked at pedagogical translation as a naturally occurring cognitive and linguistic activity in foreign language learning. Qualitative methods were used to collect data from learners who translated texts in a classroom. The texts were later analysed to see the extent of translation in which they were engaged. The study found that translation allows communication flow between two or more different linguistic communities, and it allows people to establish contacts and relationships all over the world. Translation is a linguistic activity because a message is translated from one language into another without losing the meaning of the message in the target language after conventions. The study further revealed that translation is a cultural phenomenon because it bridges the gap between two cultures and mediates two cultures in such a way as to narrow such a gap. Translation is a naturally occurring cognitive activity which cannot be stopped in a bilingual and multilingual person. It seems to be quite normal to rely on translation when faced with foreign words and/or expressions. The study by Leonardi (2011) argues that forcing learners not to rely on translation is not totally productive; rather, they should be taught how to use their translation ability to the best. Teacher competencies play a key role in ensuring that learning takes place through translanguaging pedagogical practices. How this was being done was the interest of this study in the primary schools of Lundazi District.

A study carried out by Kim and Elder (2005) compared the language uses of native speaker teachers of Japanese, German and French in foreign language secondary schools in New Zealand. Observation, interviews and document analysis were used to collect data for the study. They were interested in the amount of first language against the target language use teachers made in classrooms as well as the reasons for using one language or the other. The study findings showed that teachers' individual linguistic patterns differed greatly regarding language choice and regarding the pedagogic functions related to the use of one language or another. The responses were felt to have been influenced by the context of the classroom and their language use. The only major tendency observed was the use of the local language for modelling, correcting or scaffolding which was a limiting factor for the potential for intake and for real communication on the part of the students. This proves that Kim and Elder (2005) are in favour of maximising target language use to attain what they call optimal conditions for learning and make no concession to the potential benefits first language use may have.

In the research on French immersion, teachers repeatedly indicated that one of the main reasons why they did not do much group work in class was that students would use more of their first language and that such use was counterproductive (Swain and Lapkin, 2000). Data was collected using classroom observations which were recorded and later transcribed. The analyses of the transcriptions, however, showed that the first language use served mainly the cognitive and social functions and that it did, in fact, support learning and understanding of the subject contents in class. López (2009:123) cites (Swain and Lapkin, 2000: 268):

Students' use of the L1 is not for naught. [It] helps students to understand and make sense of the requirements and content of the task; to focus attention on language form, vocabulary use, and overall organisation; and to establish the tone and nature of their collaboration. Without their L1 use, the task presented to them

may not have been accomplished as effectively, or perhaps it might not have been accomplished at all. Judicious use of the L1 can indeed support L2 learning and use. To insist that no use be made of the L1 in carrying out tasks that are both linguistically and cognitively complex is to deny the use of an important cognitive tool.

It can be noted that disallowing the use of the first language denies second language learners an invaluable tool for learning. This concept is consistent with the interactionist learning theory which suggests that input alone or even comprehensible input is not enough for acquisition to take place (Brooks and Donato, 1984).

A study was conducted which focused on codes-switching and the use of translation by university students and teachers in content-based lessons carried out in English by Celaya (2004) in Mexico. The study findings revealed that students mostly used codes-switching to communicate among themselves and for social purposes. Teachers mostly used translation for translating specific linguistic terms to clarify or help in linguistic comprehension of taught content. This practice was done when the teachers felt it was necessary to do so or because students asked them to and for pedagogical purposes.

Another study was conducted by Macaro (2001) which looked at analysing student teachers' codes-switching in foreign language classrooms, theories and decision making. This study used an ethnographical approach and observed the teaching with learner experiences. The findings revealed that the use of the learners' first language helped students get involved in classroom discussions and that the learners were able to follow the procedures and instructions more easily than when a target language was used as it was different from the learners' language of play. Further, classroom speech analysis established the following major findings:

1. Regarding the amount of L1 used: first, very little L1 was used, "if future research found such low levels of CS to be the norm, it would provide little basis for the concern that time in the L1 detracts from exposure in the L2"; second, instances

in L1 were very short (in terms of time) compared to sequences of L2 talk and interaction with the learners; third, there was little evidence that this minimal use of L1 led students to use the L1 themselves; finally, there seemed to be no link between the level of the class and the student teacher's use of L1, therefore, students' level of proficiency is just but one of the variables at play.

2. Regarding the functions of L1: first, L1 was used for procedural instructions; second, L1 was used to communicate a message; finally, L1 was used for keeping control of students and/or for reprimanding them (Macaro, 2001: 544).

Other studies like for Belz (2002) used more multilingual approaches. The study collected written data using document analysis from third-year university students of German and explored the nature of learner language choice from grammatical, functional, and affective perspectives. Data was collected using observation and video recording on classroom language practices. In the learners' texts, the students were allowed to use German and any other language they knew. This practice however contrasted with the institutionalised ban on first language use in their classrooms. After the long compositions, students participated in open-ended interviews where they recalled their motivations for language choice in their writing. Some of the relevant characteristics of these writings were related to the inclusion of metalinguistic reflections on the use of words or constructions that existed in one of the codes and not the other or that could be an object of confusion. Even some invented conversations are described where the multilingual speaker can joke about something because of her multicompetence and yet his or her monolingual friend cannot.

Another study was conducted by Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) which concentrated on the use teachers made of the L1 produced by their beginner students in French university classrooms in France. The context of their study favoured immersion and the use of the L1 was discouraged. They analysed the use of L1 in terms of the amount and in terms of the type of instances where it was used. Regarding the amount of L1, activity

type seemed to be an influential factor. The teachers were found to be using two strategies. These included the translation of words from one language to the other; and, on the other, it was used to offer contrastive information. The authors suggest these strategic uses may modify input in such a way that they facilitate acquisition and label codes-switching as “another strategy teachers use to simplify their speech in order to accommodate the learners’ level of proficiency” (Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002: 423). As for translation, they state that it may contribute to comprehension, together with other speech modifications, and draw learners’ attention to specific words, while allowing for redundancy. This means that the word is repeated more times in one language and the other that helps vocabulary uptake from the interaction created. Regarding contrastive comments, they feel they help learners become aware of the differences between the systems, thus avoiding negative transfer of linguistic concepts.

Code-switching practices in South Korean high schools were also described by Liu *et al.*, (2004). Teachers were requested by Education authorities to maximise English use in the classroom after years of unsuccessful language teaching that was thought to be related to the little use of the target language teachers made. They recorded language produced by teachers in thirteen (13) different schools and teachers’ and students’ responses to surveys asking about their reactions towards the maximised use of the second language and the challenges they faced. The main findings revealed that teachers used less English in class than what they felt appropriate. In addition, there were certain patterns and principles guiding teachers’ codes-switching practices which were regulated by their own beliefs as well as the curriculum guidelines. What is cardinal is that teachers used codes-switching as a teaching practice in the classroom to help learners assimilate the taught content.

A study was conducted by Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain (2005) to analyse students’ code-switching in a content-based University classroom in New York. Interestingly, it was found that while students used codes-switching when they lacked vocabulary in the foreign language to communicate with other learners, they also used it for discourse-related functions that helped turn the classroom into a bilingual space and for social

communication. Students were constructing their own bilingual community of practice within the classroom, which facilitated interaction, and this allowed shared understanding about the purpose of the interaction to enter into the language practice. It was then the role of the teacher to support students to use their first or second language in class.

Using code-switching to facilitate language learning was found to be advantageous to second language learners. This was confirmed by Sampson (2012) when he described learner codes-switching in English foreign language classes at a Colombian language school. His findings regarding learners' use of codes-switching confirm some prior results and suggest two key points. The first one is that learner codes-switching is not necessarily related to the level of proficiency in class and within learners. The second one is that it generally serves communication classroom functions often beyond the main learning focus in class. Sampson (2012) concludes that the engagement into codes-switching by both the learners and the teachers helps in discussing procedural concerns relating to peers or reiterating concepts. The key fact is that learners are engaged into meaningful learning within the classroom, and they can use their language in the lesson to some extent.

A study by Macaro *et al.*, (2009) focused on code-switching behaviour in second language learning contexts in Britain. The study involved listening to the learners' classroom interaction from recordings which were made in class and analysing learners' written work. The study found that there was no evidence that code-switching disrupts the flow of communication but rather helps speed it up. The findings further established that one of the most important functions of classroom code-switching is to communicate the meaning of new or unknown lexical items. The use was linked to the lexically based function that tends to guide the use bilinguals make. The study concluded that the introduction of code-switching in the language classroom as the use of pupil-based code-switching in the classroom is supported, among other arguments, by the belief that the AL classroom should be considered a plurilingual space of communication and thus plurilingual strategies of communication should be developed.

The teaching practices for a translanguaging class are different from the monolingual class in that the monolingual teacher has one strict language of instruction while in the former there is no strict language. With this view in mind, Celic and Seltzer (2011) contends that when you teach bilingual students, it is imperative for the teacher to consider what language the learners will need to understand and use it to be successful with those learning objectives. Since the learning objectives have specific outcomes which need meeting, the teachers should also state the language to be used to achieve these objectives in class. This provides a base for learners to understand the subject matter practically using their language (Freeman and Freeman, 2009). Celic (2009) adds that this language is authentically tied to the content the teacher is teaching, and necessary for students to be successful with the learning activities. Language content selection for the subject matter was the role of the teachers since the teaching contents of the days vary from one class to another.

Another factor which is raised in the provision of an enabling environment for translanguaging is the teacher's knowledge of the language of instruction and the community or the language of play of the learners. Celic and Seltzer (2011) note that the teacher should apply the knowledge of language to understand how language functions in different contexts, to make effective choices for meaning or style, and to comprehend more fully when reading or listening in class. The teacher should realise that language objectives are necessary for bilingual students in every grade. According to Freeman and Freeman (2009) what changes is the complexity of the language that students at each grade level will need to learn. Language objectives also help English proficient students develop language for academic use, so they are beneficial for all students. Knowledge delivery should be harmonised through a common understanding of the knowledge and ideas through practices in class initiated by the teachers.

It is not always that a translanguaging class should follow the prescribed curriculum because some curricular are monolingual while others are not. Therefore, the teacher has

the role of implementing the classroom practices which enable learners learn. Freeman and Freeman (2009:45) explain that since teachers teach the curriculum in English, the language objectives will be presented in English. However, the teacher can help the non-English speaking learners better understand and use the English language they are developing by making connections between English and their home languages. The teaching content for a class should come from the regular and planned topic in the target language and the explanation should be well presented. What is important for the translanguaging class is that the teacher should link the new vocabulary presented in class to their home languages, identify cognates, and compare vocabulary use between the two languages. This cements the taught content and enables learners to be satisfied with the day's lesson.

A bilingual classroom is directed by the teacher through several teacher-led language interactions, but which are done by the learners. Samway (2006) contends that the teacher selects reading texts about a content-area or topic in the home language. This is so because emergent bilinguals have more background knowledge to draw upon when reading other texts about that same topic in English. As emergent bilinguals tap from background knowledge, they can read and comprehend increasingly complex texts about the topic in English and other second languages (Goldenberg, 2008). This helps in the strong development of the literacy in their home language as well as their second language. With this integrated instruction, emergent bilinguals have the language and content knowledge they need to be able to produce writing about the topic in the home and second language. Therefore, the linguistic environment created by the teachers becomes key in advancing the comprehension levels of the learners in their home language and second language.

The other activities which characterise a translanguaging class are those which deal with code switching to convey information. In a study conducted which aimed at analysing teacher and student discourse in four Mandarin and Gujarati community schools, Creese and Blackledge (2010) found that teachers code-switched to engage audiences and

reinforce meanings for students with differing linguistic proficiencies. When explaining the school schedule to Gujarati and English-speaking students, one teacher code-switched to convey her message based on the “social and linguistic complexity of the community”. This allowed the learner to demonstrate that the knowledge was heard, despite being in another language, and the practice or understanding was also done in a familiar language to help others share the knowledge. In doing so, the teacher recognised the bilingual proficiencies of her interlocutors, a characteristic of code-switching (Gumperz, 1986), and used English and Gujarati to “transmit information” to her audience who also used their culture to communicate the meaning (Creese and Blackledge, 2010). In such a manner, translanguaging becomes a classroom activity used to teach language with.

The promotion of the teacher’s activities in class enables the children consider their language as an important tool for learning and use in multilingual discussions to develop and honour identities. Wei (2011) proposed that another way that educators leverage dynamic translanguaging pedagogies is through honouring and developing students’ translanguaging identities in the classroom. Whereas the teacher in Creese and Blackledge’s (2010) study relied heavily on code-switching practices, it was noted that the teacher in Sayer’s (2013) ethnographic study of the second-grade classroom on the Texas-Mexico border used entire discussions in Spanish and English to relate thematic concepts in texts to students’ cultural histories. This language use was not a fixed feature of the curriculum but arose as different classroom activities encouraged students to make text-to-self connections. Sayer argues that these discussions allowed students to perform their Tejano linguistic identities, which were critical for understanding content material. He gives an example of how students related an English text’s description of sunbathing to their own Tejano experiences of avoiding too much sun. The teacher in this study modelled how to draw on conceptual knowledge coded in their local language (Tumbuka) to make sense of English academic content, and in doing so, prepared students for participation in their Tumbuka communities outside school.

There is also need to understand that translanguaging also happens at school level before it goes down to the classroom and its activities. Borrero (2011) shows how a curricular translanguaging pedagogy can align with the language ideologies and policies present at the institutional and classroom levels. He examined how fifty-three (53) Mexican American students' language brokering related to their academic achievement by investigating teacher and student participation in a Biweekly Young Interpreters class in America. In this class, teachers instructed students on language brokering through exploring students' prior experiences with brokering, identifying paraphrasing strategies, and strengthening listening skills. Students refined their vocabulary describing strategies, improved paraphrasing skills, and developed positive perceptions of interpreting and bilingualism. A major component of the class also included students acting as translators for parent-teacher conferences. Borrero emphasises the importance of aligning classroom practices with meaningful activities valued by the school community, similar to García, Flores, and Chu's (2011) work with translanguaging schools in New York City. Whereas translanguaging pedagogies can be instructional tools in a classroom community, Borrero (2011) suggests that these pedagogies can be afforded and constrained by the larger communities in which the classroom is situated. To this, translanguaging is a norm which has to be encouraged by the teachers and the school community as a whole.

A translanguaging class is also practically different from the monolingual class in practice of linguistic items and knowledge practice. Martin-Beltrán (2014) in the United States shows the potential for language development in students' L1 and L2 when pairs of English-dominant and Spanish-dominant students participate in peer reciprocal language teaching. She found that students co-constructed knowledge about language through discussions in Spanish and English, and that students leveraged their unique linguistic funds of knowledge by acting as "language ambassadors" to teach one another about grammar and vocabulary. Unlike much of the translanguaging research that examines curricular pedagogies, this study shows the framework through which learner-centred activities promote learner assimilation of knowledge in class using their own local

language. The promotion of the learners' language and its use in the education system is a step forward in making learners understand the taught content through translanguaging. Martín-Beltrán (2014) concludes that along with promoting metalinguistic awareness, the class promoted problem solving and language learning, as well as opportunities to include language minority students in official classroom discourses. A classroom becomes important for the learners and their knowledge acquisition and practice.

A study conducted by Jiménez *et al.*, (2015) looked at using translation to drive conceptual development for students becoming literate in English as an additional language. The study was conducted amongst middle school students, and it looked at how strategic translation can promote students' reading comprehension, and more specifically, their understandings about language and translating strategies using classroom observation, interviews and analysing learners' written documents. The findings of the study indicated that by translating lines of English text into Spanish, students had the opportunity to collaboratively construct meanings at the word, sentence, and text levels while developing more scientific understandings about the forms and functions of language. For example, one discussion about the word *sack* in a line of English text prompted students to consider different words, such as *bolsa* or *costal*, in Spanish, which prompted students to then reconsider the specific actions of a character in the story. Jiménez *et al.*, (2015) conclude that this type of translanguaging activity is needed not only because it taps into students' heritage language resources, but that it shows potential for adaptation in a variety of classroom settings with different student populations. Different activities involving minimal pairs have to be used in the teaching of comprehension so that learners can use their first language to understand the semantic difference. The teachers' role is cardinal at this point.

Dealing with language translation in a multilingual class presents the teacher with new cultural learning experiences. Bailey and Marsden (2017) claim that the teacher has to tap into the learners' culture and make them bring it into class by using their home language.

It is from the learners' linguistic items they use that the teacher should base his or her translation and write the items on the board. Through this process, learners will easily use the known cultural artefacts and present their thoughts in another language or target language. Other studies by Safford and Drury (2013) claim that the knowledge brought to school by children who use EAL viewed as a disadvantage in policy, is not well understood by the education system. With sufficient research, Tinsley and Board (2016) and Cummins (2005) holds that it is the role of the teacher to teach a second language to the learners by using the advantages they come with to class, their first language. They add that the teachers and school should provide a conducive environment to make learners use their language and express their thoughts. The teachers should then translate the knowledge and use different apparatus available to them and teach the second language.

The other way in which translation is used in the teaching of second language is through the use of cognate charts in class. Kress (2014) says that cognates are words that look and sound similar across different languages. These words have to be drawn from the learners' local language and be compared to the target language. The teachers should have a chart with such words translated into the target language. Baker (2011) adds that such words can be minimal pairs, homonyms, and homographs. As for vocabulary lessons, Creese and Blackledge (2010) note that a chart like this can be drawn.

<b>Distance Terms ENGLISH</b>	<b>SPANISH</b>
area	área
centimetre	centímetro
kilometre	kilómetro
metre	metro
mile	milla
millimetre	milímetro
yard	yarda

Through such tables, other words of interest can be translated from one language into the target language, followed by the presentation of the linguistic knowledge to the learners.

Through this, the teachers are actually using the learner's language to teach literacy in another language.

A study by Yang, Yang, and Lust (2011) on early childhood bilingualism leads to advances in executive attention: dissociating culture and language in China was significant to this study. The study showed that bilingual children's advantage was in their ability to function using other languages while responding using one language. This resulted in these learners performing better than monolingual learners in timed assessment in school which included Mathematics, Science and Language among other assessments. Regarding the task-switching ability, Blumenfeld and Marian (2014) found that university-age bilinguals performed better than monolinguals in cognitive control tasks of Simon and Troop tasks. They further reported the advantage of female fluent bilinguals with diverse native languages studying in an American university over English monolinguals in a non-linguistic task-switching paradigm. Bilingual and multilingual learners were better achievers than monolingual learners in the University language assessment and specialised courses which required their prior knowledge of usage.

Garbin et al. (2010) looked at bridging language and attention: Brain basis of the impact of bilingualism on cognitive control in Spain. The study was conducted on a sample of fifty-one (51) participants who were in the primary schools. Some of these participants were multilingual, and others were monolingual speakers. The study revealed that using the colour-shape switching task, (a non-linguistic task switching paradigm), fluent Catalan-Spanish university students had an advantage over Spanish monolinguals in all course assessment. The study concluded that code-switching between languages of instruction was more academically beneficial to university students than monolingual instruction. The study was conducted on university students while this study experimented translanguageing in a Grade One class in Zambia.

McCracken (2017) looked at translanguageing as a tool to preserve L1 languages and promote multilingualism in the schools of the UK. The study reviewed literature and

compared it to the Hague International School practices. After spending approximately four years at the International School of the Hague (Primary), L2 students consistently outperformed the average standardised test norms set by UK children (ISH Learning Support Department, 2017). This performance trend repeats itself year on year on year (ISH Learning Support Department, 2017). Though this standardised result is partially due to high levels of parent involvement and the strong abilities the children bring with them, the vast majority of our students are learning through English as their second or third language. Throughout the years, a number of EAL students have progressed from low English proficiency to grade level in a matter of 2-3 years, considerably faster than the norm of 4-9 years. The students' accelerated English acquisition could also be partially attributed to a combination of positive, school-created factors: namely their heightened linguistic awareness (stemming from regular translanguaging practices) and having regular access to clear, differentiated language input from both the EAL and mainstream classroom teams.

Lucia (2017) looked at texturing with multimodal texts across content areas: a translanguaging multiliteracies approach to teaching and learning in Texas. The study was confined to a 3<sup>rd</sup> grade bilingual classroom and the teacher for a period of one year. The study found that the design, production, and distribution of new texts are key in promoting language development and gaining disciplinary knowledge which make learners better performers in literacy assessments. Together, the findings highlight a classroom that affords emergent bilinguals the use of dynamic linguistic and literacy practice content areas, which bring about more academic achievers than a class which has monolingual practices. There was also multiliteracy development in the bilingual children as they were able to write in the target language as well as in their languages which they spoke at home. With such encouraging results from other multilingual classes, it was not known how translanguaging could improve learner performance in the Zambian classes.

Cristina (2018) investigated the secondary Mathematics experiences of English language learners in Iowa, USA. The research used data from the High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 to investigate the secondary Mathematics experiences of ELL and non-ELL students in two studies conducted at distinct levels: student and teacher. Findings indicated that both Mathematics self-efficacy and interest in early coursework were positively related to access to and achievement in Mathematics, and these relationships were significantly stronger for ELL students. Conversely, positive perceptions of the multilingual learning environment and classroom engagement were often related to gains in outcomes for non-ELL students but decreased for ELL students. Findings indicated that more conceptually oriented teaching practices were beneficial to both students, with greater gains long-term for both ELL and non-ELL students. Procedurally oriented teaching was beneficial to ELL students in nearly all cases, but detrimental to non-ELL students' Mathematics outcomes. Through the breaking of the Mathematical language barrier and use of the learners' language to explain key concepts, learners' achievement in Mathematics improved. Translanguaging in a multilingual class played an important role in learner achievement improvement which was not investigated in the Zambian schools.

From the studies reviewed, it was evident that translanguaging practices when used in multilingual classes, they have resulted into improved learner achievement in different subjects. Despite the subjects being at different and levels of academic grades, above first graders, what was key was that the use of translanguaging practices brought about improved learner academic achievement which were not there when monolingual practices were used in the experimented classes. Further, the teaching and learning styles in the reviewed studies were in line with the translanguaging procedure; hence, the literature as it stands, is deemed reliable. However, curriculum and age factors were not in agreement with the Zambian chosen classroom for experiment; therefore, there was need to conduct this study in a Zambian multilingual classroom.

## **2.4 Benefits of Translanguaging over Monolingual Practices to Multilingual Learners.**

This section of literature review provides empirical evidence on the benefits of translanguaging pedagogical practices over monolingual practices from different parts of the world.

A study conducted by Martin (2005) on safe language practices in two rural schools in Malaysia has stressed the importance of mother tongue use parallel to the official language in language lessons because they improve learners' understanding of the content to be delivered in a given lesson. Teachers and learners were interviewed on the language usage in school and the teacher observed how the learners used their languages citing preferences. The study findings revealed that translanguaging is a good practice because it offers classroom participants a 'creative, and pragmatic' and safe practice between the official languages of the lesson and the language which the classroom participants know. Martin (2005) stressed that the use of mother tongue alongside the official language can allow the classroom participant to better accomplish the lesson and its pragmatic response used to explain texts and provide great access. This impression was also supported by Lin (2005) who emphasises that code switching has great pedagogical potentials such as increasing inclusion, participation and understanding in the learning process. Moreover, it also develops a good relationship between teachers and learners from the classroom as it is one way of exposing learners to their individual culture and its development.

Poza (2017) adds that although some works which presented the term as a pedagogical scaffold are still rooted in mono-glossic understandings of language, the majority of works recognised and touted the shift to a heteroglossia perspective. Macaro (2005) also positioned translanguaging pedagogies as ways to democratise school curricula and the social contexts of schooling through critical consideration of linguistic hierarchies and the ideological regimes from which they emerge. Martinez (2013) noted that vigilance is

required in order to assure that translanguaging pedagogies sustain their transformative aims. Further research is still needed with respect to translanguaging pedagogies in most multilingual countries as it is no longer perceived as a challenge but as a resource that needs to be used in the teaching and learning of literacy. Lambert (1975) asserts that the teaching of language to multilingual classes should be perceived from the additive point of view and not the subtractive one. It is additive because the learners keep using the languages of the class and are developed while under subtractive, only one language is used. In doing so, the use of bilingual pedagogy will help the learners who enter schools where their language of play is not used to catch up and use their emergent literacy to learn (Garcia, 2009). It has been acknowledged by Hornberger and Link (2012) that more and more educators are beginning to consider the capacity to communicate in languages other than English as an asset to be developed in school: an academic advantage that can lead to bilingualism, biculturalism, and biliteracy.

Torpsten (2008) conducted a study which investigated offered and experienced learning in the meeting with Swedish as a second language in the Swedish school. The study findings showed that the pupils increased their multilingualism in class, used more than one language during a school day, and learned from each other. Nonetheless, the pupils benefitted from translanguaging in schooling in quite different ways due to their preconditions, varied ways of coping with this situation, and unique linguistic life stories that became visible. She went on to state that participation in mother tongue classes could be understood as offering pupils' options to choose a multilingual identity. When pupils participate in mother tongue classes, and the mastery of several languages could be understood as valuable for both the individual and the society by creating an ability to switch languages, to perform at various venues depending on the situation, and to allow for conscious identity changes. It was not known how the multilingual classes utilised their multilingual potentials in class for their learning of literacy in the Grade One classes of Lundazi District in Zambia.

The academic objectives of translanguaging are progressive compared to the rigid monolingual ones. Garcia and Kleyn (2016) observed that while including all participants in a collaborative, culturally and linguistically valuing space, students' linguistic diversity is fundamental to the learning process, guiding the development of metalinguistic awareness, cultural consciousness, and new understandings of participation and voice. Each case study ends with a teacher commentary and includes discussion questions for the reader to consider in light of new learning. The duo noted that translanguaging provided space for linguistic and cultural preservation through multilingual preservation according to the classroom sociolinguistics. How this was happening in the Zambian Grade One class was the basis for this study.

Further, a study by Torpsten (2018) investigated translanguaging in a Swedish multilingual classroom. The study observed three learners who arrived in Sweden and joined the school system. The study characteristics were that the language preferred at home was the same as the one used in school while the second language was the one used at school. During leisure time, some other languages are used as well. This study reveals that after a period where classmates were working with translanguaging in the class, the pupil became curious and abandoned his resistance so that he could admit that his native language has some place in his life. His attitude changed to what can be understood as curiosity and willingness to try to experiment and apply one's native language. Such instances are what this study investigated in the multilingual classes of Lundazi District in Zambia.

Education is the best gift given to living children in any part of the country. To this effect, students may be marginalised if the teacher or peers identify them as incompetent to speak the target language of instruction. Therefore, they can be positioned as inadequate speakers of the language of instruction or academically unprepared to perform expected tasks in class because of a language barrier (Wortham, 2006). Positioning of the learners also has the potential to move initially marginalised individuals into empowering spaces,

such as academic learners in school and classrooms (Palmer, 2008), language brokers to learners of their primary language in classrooms (Lee *et al.*, 2011), or models for others of culturally relevant ways of talking and knowing the academic knowledge needed for education purposes (Fitts, 2009). This hints at the important factor that languages used by the children in homes have a role to play in their overall acquisition and learning in schools and have to be used at all costs.

A study by Malcolm and Truscott (2012) looked at bilingual education and local language inclusion in the schools of Cyprus. Using classroom observation and document analysis for a period of one year, data was collected from two classes which were controlled. Data showed that relationship building, that is, the first dimension can create effective outcomes in schools with large numbers of Aboriginal enrolments. The active engagement of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal staff in the programme created an inclusive educational environment of Aboriginal culture. Aboriginal students were able to communicate without shame while the entrusted role enabled the creation of cross-cultural communication which enabled learning. Further findings indicated that learners improved classroom attendance in the experimental class because their languages were used for the classroom instruction. After the experiment, the learners' classroom attendance reduced drastically because there was language barrier again between the teacher and the learners of the other dialects.

The provision of dynamism in the classroom practices should be perceived as a goal which teachers must move to with conviction. Purposeful bilingualism can be enhanced by the teachers in their class through the utilisation of the learners' language abilities to facilitate their learning of content in class. Palmer and Martinez (2013) adds that dynamic bilingualism skills are valuable skills worth learning for both teachers and students if they are to communicate and interact successfully within bilingual communities within the school and classroom. Monolingual or sequentially bilingual teachers are also in the learning phase as they can learn some of these skills from their bilingual students. This is

done by carefully listening to the ways bilingual students engage and interact whilst in class (Wortham, 2006). Through this, teachers can draw on their students' linguistic resources to restructure classroom linguistic interaction for the purpose of learning to give advantage to the learners.

Heller (1999) argues that individuals from the linguistic minority think in their mother tongues and translate into other languages in which they have to perform the function. The mother tongue referred to is the language in which the student had sufficient proficiency and was well vested. He added that if a student does not understand something in his or her mother tongue, it will be difficult to understand it in other languages. Therefore, teaching of language should consider the use of the learners' mother tongue if they are to understand the concepts. This idea is supported by Mouton (2007) who asserted that code switching can be seen as a communication strategy to learners for whom English is a foreign language to assist in transmitting knowledge, clarify concepts when teachers discover that learners have deficient linguistic competency in English. The use of the local language is a step in the right direction in ensuring that learners are able to learn in class.

The translanguaging practices serves as an important pedagogical resource to the multilingual learners because it uses diverse linguistic abilities and its flexible practices to develop new understandings and new language practices, including academic language practices (García, 2014). There is no need for the teacher to be competent in the different languages the learners come with to class because it is not the teacher to use them but the learners. What is important is to introduce the knowledge of the day to the learners and allow interaction. However, monolingual teachers tend to believe that if students could use their first language in the classroom, the students will easily get off task or their behaviour may become disruptive to learning (García and Li, 2014). Such notions become unfounded in the teaching fraternity and classroom practices because the teacher controls the classroom practices to ensure there is learning is taking place.

A study conducted by Gort (2015) revealed that teachers' translanguaging practices of bilingual recasting, translation, and language brokering drew on childrens' linguistic and cultural funds of knowledge, supported their experimentation with new language forms, and integrated various languages and language varieties, while recognising, validating, and expressing teachers' and childrens' shared bilingual identities. In addition, Gort and Sembiante (2016) contends that bilingual teachers are agentive social actors within classrooms and schools despite prevalent structural constraints in dual language education around bilinguals' language choice and use. The benefits are that it provided a chance for teachers and learners to engage in multiliteracy development in class and beyond through the free social interaction in class.

The use of the learner's local language in class helps the teacher to clarify the teaching concept to learners or the pieces of knowledge being taught for the day. In doing so, Karabenick and Noda (2004) advocate for leveraging native languages in the classroom, encouraging students to speak, making connections to other subjects, speaking individually to each student at least once during the class, supporting students to work collaboratively, pointing out students' metacognitive learning, among other practices. Cummins (2005) adds that in using translanguaging, you can have bilingual students create a bilingual text and translate from one language into the next. Through this, students begin by writing in their stronger language, and then work with a peer or adult to translate it into the other language, and Cummins called this as an 'identity text'. Such teaching practices bring the home environment into the classroom thereby considering the class to move as a whole.

A study by Ariza (2019) established that translanguaging does not have benefits going beyond code-switching words, thoughts, and phrases from one language to another. It refers to the idea of allowing second or additional language learners to use any language skills they possess, in any way they can, to prepare for academic or linguistic activities in the target language. Reading, writing, speaking, and thinking in the multiple native (or

acquired) languages provide a strong knowledge base, which offers a bridge that can help to transfer knowledge to the additional languages being learned. She added that by allowing language learners to utilise their existing language knowledge for pre-thinking skills in order to perform academically in an additional language, students will have a richer comprehension of the academic tasks and provide biliteracy and multiliteracy in learners and the teacher at the same time. This study was set to reveal the effects and benefits of translanguaging in the multilingual Grade One classes of Lundazi District in Zambia.

Teachers do sometime become adamant to incorporate new ideas into the system in which they work from because they feel they will become outdated hence it is important that their mind-set is changed. Different researchers have established that incorporating translanguaging in the classroom require teachers to believe that the students' voice should be supported regardless of the language used (Hornberger and Link, 2012). The role of the teacher is that he or she need to provide models of translanguaging to help the students understand how it can benefit their learning and then to encourage the diverse language use in any use of language or literacy in school and link it to their home (García and Flores, 2013). The other realisation is that translanguaging is a sound pedagogical strategy which helps teachers to recognise that their students' language and cultural knowledge are a learning resource which they must utilise in the classroom (García and Flores, 2013). With such, it helps to provide teachers with a more complete understanding of the abilities and resources students bring with them on a daily basis to a classroom.

## **2.5 Teachers and Translanguaging Pedagogical Practices in Literacy Classes**

Some studies have demonstrated how teachers leverage their own and their students' translanguaging resources to collaborate in an academic task in class and possibly outside class. Hutchins (1995) maintains that work with distributed cognition to understand collaborative activity had influence on the teacher collaborations in classes and schools. This also considers the fact that where individuals recognise and leverage other

collaborating members' distinct expertise to accomplish a shared initiative. It is also important to realise that Wenger's (1998) concept of mutual recognition posits that community members constantly assess and reassess the talents, contributions, and expertise of fellow members to complete a joint initiative. In considering mutual recognition, a demand is placed on the teachers to assess student abilities to so as to make sure that they have the resources to learn as well as demanding that teachers recognise and make use of the resources students already possess that contribute to the collaboration of pupils' joint initiatives. In the quest to involve students, the teacher has the role of recognising the contributions that students make in this joint activity for the progression of the class.

A study conducted by Gort and Pontier (2013) provides evidence on how teachers can collaborate in translanguaging without using multiple languages themselves. Though the teacher in their study spoke Spanish and English, the dual-language classroom in which the research was conducted maintained strict language-separation policies, thus limiting the teacher's language to only English or Spanish. The findings of the study indicated that teachers did this through inviting student English use in Spanish-only instruction and coordinating teachers' tandem talk, or the collaborative bilingual practice where a pair of speakers coordinates the use of two languages so that each maintains the use of monolingual speech in a bilingual conversation while in class. The collaboration between students and teachers is usually in the tolerance of the learners' local language in the classroom. This encourages learners to ask more questions for clarification and to contribute during the lesson.

A study conducted by Shifidi (2014) looked at the integration of translanguaging in lessons as an approach to teaching and learning in Namibian junior secondary schools. Three schools were picked from three regions of Khomas, Oshikoto and Ohangwena respectively. There were 30 participants consisting of six learners, three teachers and one Head of Department from each of the three schools. Data was collected using observation,

interviews and audio recording of the classroom practices. The results from these three schools reveal that the teachers were not really familiar with the concept of translanguaging, but they were more familiar with code switching, thus the two terms were used synonymously. The results indicated that this phenomenon is really an issue of concern in Namibian schools and needs to be looked into by policy makers in the Ministry of Education from a policy point of view and from the reality on the ground. Teachers acknowledged the necessity of translanguaging and cited the potential of translanguaging in enhancing learning and understanding, participation, socialisation in multicultural/lingual classrooms. Further, the study found that there are certain schools with internal policies that prohibit learners from speaking their local languages on the school premises even to the extent of charging them to pay a certain amount as punishment. It was evident that translanguaging, when well utilised by the teachers, was able to enhance learner understanding. The study under review did not experiment translanguaging in a classroom which this study did.

Other studies have also demonstrated that effective classroom collaborations are achieved when teachers translanguage to meet the goals of joint initiatives comprehensible to all students (Creese and Blackledge, 2010). It is appreciated when teachers recognize and influence students' linguistic expertise in using translanguaging resources in their classroom environment (Kenner and Ruby, 2012). In such instances, teachers collaborated by offering practical activities to learners in class like retelling English texts they read in Spanish (Martínez-Roldán and Sayer, 2006). This helps to create possibilities for students to influence their own linguistic expertise in class and in the wider community although others can argue that translation is dominant at this stage. Cardinal to note is the fact that learners have shown understanding in their own language which is being used in class through collaboration.

A study by Durán and Palmer (2013) was conducted to examine student and teacher talk in a first-grade classroom in a school that followed a language policy prescribing the use

of one of the two languages each day between English and Spanish in Mexico. This study was conducted using observation combined with audio and video data collection instruments while the present study was conducted using voice-recorded semi-structured interviews and lesson observation. The study findings were that students identified themselves constantly with either English or Spanish. Another finding was that translanguaging was used to achieve communicative goals that were considered as useful forms of interaction within the classroom. The study also established that translanguaging was treated as a normal and acceptable classroom practice which was not stigmatised in any way as students mixed languages freely and apparently without self-censorship mainly through inter-sentential switching for social and academic purposes. On part of the teachers, the study established that although teachers generally tried to stick to the prescription of the language policy of using one of the prescribed languages of the day while students were free to use their preferred language and have their responses affirmed.

The importance of negotiation in all classroom activities that seek to encourage meaning-making is to ensure that learners and teachers work together to learn using activities in a familiar language (Pacheco, 2016). In translanguaging pedagogies that evidenced meaning-making in both classrooms, students and teachers were able to negotiate the goals, tools, and activities in the collaboration of pupils. Blackledge and Pavlenko (2001) argues that the activities in classrooms and offered opportunities for extended discourse are more of a constructivist approach towards pedagogy. Pacheco (2016) observes that these activities included summarising texts in heritage languages in oral and written forms, translating lines of important text into heritage languages, discussing vocabulary in heritage languages, and discussing features of text in heritage languages. Other findings presented noted that other translanguaging activities included cognate instruction, comparisons of verb tenses, and some discussion of texts in languages other than English. All these activities are a route to translanguaging through its activities and the collaboration between pupils and teachers in class and using their mother tongue.

A study conducted by McCracken (2018) looked at translanguaging as a tool to preserve the first language and promote multilingualism in the United States. The study reviewed experimented translanguaging in a secondary school among immigrants through grammar lessons. The study findings revealed that translanguaging is presented as an important, language-learning tool that opens up an educational space for both multiple languages and identities to thrive side-by-side equally. It allows students to utilise all their languages in their repertoire flexibly, enhancing both their general learning and communicative potential. In the past, based on very little evidence, educators kept languages in strict isolation from one another for fear that code-mixing would inevitably lead to language confusion and random language mixing. The teacher's experience revealed that Translanguaging and mother tongue programmes mandate L1 usage in mainstream classrooms, helping students to realise that their languages are indeed valuable learning tools for school and the world beyond. As ISH educators allow student languages into the classroom, it reveals to children that we value who they are and where they come from; that their identity is something worth protecting, and a learning resource to draw from as well.

Creese and Blackledge (2010) observed that as for researchers and educators that seek to support teachers in implementing translanguaging pedagogies, addressing classroom language use along with classroom heritage language use could be a useful place to begin in teaching second language. In doing so, the teacher should be able to allow the following linguistic practices with classroom participants in practising flexible bilingualism and flexible pedagogy:

1. Use of bilingual label quests, repetition, and translation across languages.
2. Ability to engage audiences through translanguaging and heteroglossia.
3. Use of student translanguaging to establish identity positions both oppositional and encompassing of institutional values.
4. Recognition that languages do not fit into clear bounded entities and that all languages are “needed” for meanings to be conveyed and negotiated.

5. Endorsement of simultaneous literacies and languages to keep the pedagogic task moving.
6. Recognition that teachers and students skilfully use their languages for different functional goals such as narration and explanation.
7. Use of translanguaging for annotating texts, providing greater access to the curriculum, and lesson accomplishment (Velasco and García, 2014; Alvarez, 2012).

These practices form the basis for language teaching practices in a translanguaging class for the multilingual children. Since classes and linguistic variations differ from one region to the other, the translanguaging practices can be quite useful to all.

The teacher's role in the teaching of multilingual classes has been challenging especially when the language is of low status. Greese and Blackledge (2010) observe that for multilingual speakers of languages with lower status, it is common that language issues may still be salient as people attempt to negotiate identities, often from relatively powerless positions in their society. In this case, language ideologies are neither simple nor colossal. On the one hand, it is also important to consider the argument that minority language speakers in class are subjected to the symbolic violence of the dominant language ideology, some speakers who or whose families may traditionally have been associated with minority "ethnic" languages are using language and languages in new ways to benefit learners (Rampton, 1999). On the other hand, while some speakers are either unable to negotiate their identities from inextricably powerless positions, and others in powerful positions have no need to do so, it is acknowledged that some speakers in modern nations and states and emerging economies are using their linguistic skills to negotiate new subject positions (Blackledge and Pavlenko, 2001). These include Norway, Japan and China to mention but a few.

A study conducted by Hélot (2014) looked at rethinking bilingual pedagogy in Alsace in the Netherlands. She explored the learning potential of translanguaging, as she described

the deployment of texts by translingual authors to make trainee teachers aware of new ways of understanding bilinguals' experiences and engagement with the world. With the full awareness of the constraints inherent in restrictive language policy, Hélot argued that translanguaging is a means to counteract linguistic insecurity in the classroom, to ensure teachers understand that balanced bilingualism is a myth, and that translanguaging is a linguistic resource available to bilinguals to communicate in a creative and meaningful way. Teachers in the classrooms are then supposed to be made aware of the language status in the schools as much as they teach literacy in the school. This would help them to consider translanguaging in class.

A study by Nambisan (2014) looked at teachers' attitude towards and uses of translanguaging in English language classrooms in Iowa, United States. A mixed methods design was used to collect data from teachers and learners in the secondary schools and a questionnaire was sent online to participants. The study found that teachers strongly think translanguaging is an important practice which helps second language learners learn a second language through the use of the first language and their practices. The study further acknowledged that classrooms are multilingual and using monolingual practices was not helping out in the learning situation because more than half are not native speakers of the language of instruction. Therefore, he concluded that all languages should be experienced in class and the teachers should use them as a resource to the classroom's teaching. With such evidence at hand, it was the drive which made this study be conducted in a multilingual class of Lundazi District in Zambia.

Noguerón-Liu and Warriner (2014) suggested that the notion of translanguaging expands existing theories of multilingualism by focusing on the social practices of individuals. Their emphasis has been on how teachers should create an enabling environment in the classroom so that learners can interact and share knowledge. They adopted this term to move away from a focus on abstract, idealised notions of "a language" as a set of skills and to emphasise the fact that multilingual users deploy a variety of resources while

engaging in everyday practice both in class and outside class. They explicitly linked translanguaging and identity practices, saying: “For Latino communities in the USA, translanguaging practices have been an integral part of identity and belonging” (Noguerón-Liu and Warriner, 2014: 183). Therefore, integrating translanguaging is making the learner and the teacher realise and use the learners’ language in everyday communication and knowledge sharing in class. In the same line, Low and Sarkar (2014) argued that the politics of language is part of everyday interaction in downtown Montreal and is evidenced in the boundary-crossing implied by translanguaging. If common people could practice translanguaging, it would be easier for teachers to actually use it in the education cycles.

From the foregoing discussion, it is clear that the role of the teacher in implementing translanguaging in classrooms is rather technical and not mere social interactions in form of simple learner-centred activities. This can be examined from the definitions from García (2014) when she said translanguaging refers to the flexible use of linguistic resources by bilinguals as they make sense of their worlds. The teacher has to identify the language of the learners in which they can conduct activities better. She proposed that translanguaging as practices have the potential to liberate the voices of language-minoritised students. By identifying the language used by the learners, it will be a direct way to build these languages in classroom so that they are able to learn school instructions using them. A translanguaging approach to teaching and learning is not about code-switching, but rather about an arrangement that normalises bilingualism without diglossic functional separation. Code-switching has no technical means of conducting it while translanguaging has the teacher’s input of directing the teacher’s mode of explaining knowledge to the learners.

In addition, teachers have to make meaning of the instructions they are using in class so that learners can come to appreciate the use of their mother language as a learning resource and not as a means of explaining instructions only. It is from this that Baker

(2011:288) defined translanguaging as the process of “making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages.” In the classroom, translanguaging approaches draw on all the linguistic resources of the child to maximise understanding and achievement. Thus, both or all languages are used in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner to organise and mediate understanding, speaking, literacy, and learning in class in a planned manner (Lewis, Jones and Baker, 2012). The teacher’s role in harmonising the language situation to incorporate the learner’s home language is the most needed skill for the teacher this time around. This will help the learner to feel considered in schools.

Wei (2011:1223) made a similar argument, that the act of translanguaging “is transformative in nature; it creates a social space for the multilingual language user by bringing together different dimensions of their personal history, experience and environment.” All these factors lead the teachers to consider beyond language in the teaching and learning of children with different languages in a literacy class. Hornberger and Link (2012) further conceptualised translanguaging in educational contexts, proposing that educators recognise, value, and build on the multiple, mobile communicative repertoires of students and their families. From the foregoing argument, it is significant that teachers should not isolate the school from the community. Teachers should use the teaching and learning material from the community so that the class and its knowledge is not different from the knowledge the learners know. Therefore, translanguaging does not end at spoken language but also includes the artefacts of the community.

The role of the teacher is diverse in the teaching of first language using translanguaging pedagogy in the second language community. A study conducted by Pacheco, David and Jiménez (2015) examined teacher participation in an activity that used strategic translation as a tool for comprehending texts. The study revealed that there is need to realise that as Somali, Kurdish, and Mexican bilingual students translated English texts

in class. They also developed understandings of how this tool helped them make sense of new vocabulary and deepen understandings about themes and characters in classroom. Pacheco (2016) adds that translation in the classroom also gave teachers opportunities to develop understandings of students' proficiencies with translating into their heritage language, and with English. Teachers learned about students' cultures and language, which could then be incorporated into future instruction. This was a prerequisite to the effective implementation of the translation strategy in the translanguaging class.

Teachers have a different perceptions regarding the use of codeswitching. Macaro (2005) conducted a study on code-switching in the second language classroom in Italy and observed that in the various studies conducted, teachers have expressed the belief that the language of instruction should be the predominant language of interaction in the classroom, while at the same time, most teachers were not in favour of excluding the first language of the children. The findings of the study by Macaro (2005) indicated that the first language is mostly used for message-oriented functions like giving feedback to students, giving complex procedural instructions and teaching grammar instead of as a medium-oriented function where first and second language comparisons might be made. Nonetheless, message-oriented functions would make use of code-switching because it is a communicative strategy used by bilingual speakers in class. Such interactions in class would help develop plurilingual awareness, which is one of the aims of language teaching today. In summary, code-switching is an interaction creator which enhances communication and learning in class.

There is need to observe that the amount of code-switching to take place in class is dependent on the amount of linguistic level of difficulty. Code-switching is dependent on the teacher and the kind of learning being delivered to the class and how the teacher would love the learners to participate. Arthur and Martin (2006) described the language uses of teachers and students who must accomplish their task in English as a foreign language. They relate these uses to social factors that exist outside the classroom and affirm that

there is a pressing need for further studies which link classroom use to the multilingual communicative needs of citizens of post-colonial societies across the world. The study concluded that the exclusive use of the foreign language to learners whose first language is different breeds fertile grounds for failure to both follow instruction and advancement in academic achievements. Using code switching brings learners back to class and enables them concentrate and participate in a lesson.

The teacher in a translanguaging class does not only teach but becomes a participant and learns from the children in school. A study by Wenger (1998) looked at *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity in the United Kingdom* indicate that the teachers can participate in classroom translanguaging activities to learn about student translanguaging practices so that these practices can then be incorporated into the repertoire shared by the classroom. Data was collected through video recordings which were later analysed. It is important to acknowledge that translanguaging activities as linguistic tools for negotiating meaning are used to participate in the community, teachers and students then use these tools as legitimate means for classroom participation and purposive interaction. With participation comes concretisation which brings about new forms of classroom participation. In a classroom situation, the teachers' learning about student practices holds nothing wrong and is an essential step in this process. Wenger (1998:214) asserts that understanding students' "personal experience of engagement" is the means "by which to incorporate that competence into an identity of participation". It can be concluded that by understanding how students translanguage, teachers can respond to students' needs, structure the curriculum, and further enhance these practices in the teaching of language.

Cummins (2015) looked at how to reverse a legacy of exclusion identity in the high-impact education response in the South African context. The study noted that the two solitudes assumption operates in the South African context in multiple ways and other countries have to take note. Research shows that many parents identify English as the

language of power and social advancement for their children and conclude (erroneously according to the research) that schools should maximise instructional exposure to English. They argued that bilingual instructions dilute that goal and thus, it is viewed ambivalently by many parents. Policy makers too, have been ambivalent about the value of bilingual education and they have not favoured it. On the one hand, the 1997 language-in-education policy endorses the legitimacy of L1 development and bilingual instruction but as pointed out by Pluddemann, there have been only anaemic attempts to promote effective bilingual instructional models.

## **2.6 Challenges teachers and pupils face when teaching/learning literacy through translanguaging**

This section focuses on the challenges teachers and pupils face when teaching and learning using translanguaging practices in classrooms. Lessons are drawn to help ground the study in the Zambian education system.

Teachers and learners have not been spared by the teaching and learning challenges in the process of using translanguaging and its practices in teaching a second language. Palmer and Martinez (2013) recorded that teachers feel they can translate all linguistic items learners hold in their culture into the second or target language which is not practical and time wasting for the limited learning time. In addition, Wortham (2006) adds that this left teachers complaining that the teaching practice was not practical, yet they did not just understand the process and they could not just keep time. Such complaints come from teachers who fail to accommodate learners in their lesson because in the use of translanguaging, there are no language barriers. The learners translate words for the teacher and the teacher translates for the learners; hence, learning is a double sword affair. However, there are some words and phrases which might be beyond the learners' translation capabilities like abstract words and traditional taboos. Such calls for the

teacher to seek further guidance from the other teachers creating a vacuum in the learning process and results in time wasting in the process.

The other reported challenge on the implementation of translanguaging in multilingual classes was that of the attitude held by teachers. Zentella (2003) described some negative attitudes and criticism about code switching by some teachers and pointed out that some bilingual teachers felt embarrassed about code switching because it was attributed to a careless language habit. Further, code-switching was not favoured by monolingual prone teachers because they thought they were leaving their language, which is the language of instruction, and used a language considered inferior. This language attitude made the learners think they were not catered for in the lesson.

The different personal perceptions teachers held on teaching and classroom practices were a contributing factor to the non-acceptance of new teaching practices. Shin (2005) specified that teachers thought that when the learners did not understand something in one language, they might go to another language which was easier for them and sometimes the learners and teachers had to leap from one language to the other. The teachers who came from the language of instruction group were mostly the ones who were monolingual promoters since they had nothing to lose in the process of teaching. It was reported that teachers thought translation was a sheer waste of time and they pretended not to know the language of the minority learners. Pacheco (2016) also agreed that the situation showed exactly the kind of the attitudes of some teachers in Namibia held in multilingual classrooms. In doing so, teachers are considered to be a hinderance to the children's education in both schools and classroom because they talk to the a few learners and not every child.

A study was conducted by Cummins (2015) on how to reverse a legacy of exclusion, identity high-impact education response in the South African context. The study was a desk review which focused on translanguaging practices in South Africa and what the scholars have discussed. In the study, Cummins documents the importance of explicit

instruction that demystifies how academic language works in content areas across the curriculum. He also emphasises the importance of building on students' multilingual repertoires by means of bilingual instruction that promotes L1 literacy at least through the primary school years and ideally beyond which was hampered by teacher attitude and lack of policy guidelines in most countries. In multilingual contexts where formal bilingual programmes may not be feasible, teachers should be encouraged to use their own multilingual repertoires for instructional purposes and to enable students to use translanguaging strategies to understand instruction and create meaning. Teachers should also have access to a broader range of scaffolding strategies like, the use of visuals, cooperative group work among others, to help make their instruction comprehensible to students who are learning the dominant school language.

A study conducted by Pacheco (2016) looked at Translanguaging in the English-Centric classroom focusing on a communities of practice perspective in Tennessee. The study used classroom observation in the classrooms which practiced translanguaging. The findings of the study suggest that these communities can also constrain translanguaging through limiting the teacher's choice in their instruction. The study also suggested that one way of preparing teachers to meet challenges in their larger school communities of practice is by designing translanguaging pedagogies that complement the existing curricula within schools. This can also include the common core state standards or the journey's curriculum implemented in certain schools and states which are not there as at now. With such concepts in mind, Pacheco, David, and Jiménez (2015) have come to outline how strategic collaborative translation can promote literacy practices like defending an opinion with text evidence in this translanguaging pedagogy using the learner's language in the classroom. The lack of translanguaging policy make the teachers fail to raise the needed hopes for the multilingual children who need access to content in education which is hidden in another language of power.

An investigation on teachers' perceptions of culture teaching in secondary schools in China was conducted by (Han, 2010). The study findings revealed that the lack of training and subsequently, the lack of knowledge of culture results brought about high levels of frustration for some teachers since their language could not meet the cultural needs to enable them translate words and phrases effectively. The frustrations experienced by some teachers may also be accompanied by certain fears about these new changes in the teaching fraternity and practices. To curb this, teacher training must take into consideration teachers' emotional response to the new changes that have to be implemented whilst they are in the system. Kuo and Anderson (2008) add that teachers should not be limited in their teaching and classroom practices, but they should learn to become liberal and accept new changes in their profession. This involves cultural changes and general beliefs about education and language teaching and learning. This will eradicate the negative attitude the old serving teachers hold regarding new changes like translanguaging practices in schools and probably embrace them.

Major implications in the teaching process of translanguaging were experienced in some classes. A study by Pacheco (2016) Translanguaging in the English centric classroom in tennessee USA observed three major implications for understanding how translanguaging pedagogies can be implemented in other English-centric classrooms and a multilingual community. Firstly, teachers think they have to be proficient in the classroom languages that the learners are privy to for them to effectively implement the teaching pedagogy. It was also noted that teachers had no interest in using the learners' languages to facilitate learning in the classroom because they thought the practices were local and did not facilitate learning which was not the case. In doing so, Kuo and Anderson (2008) conclude that the teacher's knowledge and awareness about language was important for the implementation of new changes in the education system. Further, Cazden (1974) notes that it can also be viewed that awareness about language as metalinguistic awareness is cardinal. This is where an individual understands how linguistic forms relate to specific functions, or the ability to make language forms opaque and attend to them in and for

themselves. Such understanding brings about mind change in the teacher's perceptions of language teaching and overcome challenges in the process.

Other studies have established that classroom practices like translation do not provide a coherent teaching practice. Kim and Elder (2005) observed that it was difficult for the majority of the teachers to translate all the words the learners constructed from Japanese into English. The other challenge was that other words did not have a direct translation from one language into another language or the target language due to cultural differences. The languages of the minority have also a complicated sentence construction which is difficult to translate, and other scholars have called this as a *protected linguistic*. This protection is generally accomplished by designating a special space and time for communication in the minority or target language only, or by positioning a teacher or set of adults as monolingual speakers of the target language (Palmer, Garcia and Henderson, 2014). This then calls for employing more teachers in one class just for language translation which might be an expensive although it may help learners in their literacy learning. It is in the process of solving such costs that translanguaging comes in and helps out to facilitate learning in a multilingual learning environment.

The other challenge which bilingual children face in the school system is the learning process which is not friendly for them. Ellis (2011) argues that although EAL children themselves are diverse in terms of their socio-economic, linguistic and cultural backgrounds, they all face the dual task of learning English, whilst also learning through English. Researchers have acknowledged that the classroom environment presents dual tasks for the children and the teachers which is very demanding (Cummins, 2000; Gibbons, 2002). The role of the learner's first language comes in, to bridge literacy in this context. The teacher has the duty of teaching the learners to become literate in a familiar language and use the same language for academic purposes at the same time.

The other challenge which translanguaging faces is the use of standardised monolingual tests which are discriminatory to the diverse learners in multilingual classes. A study conducted by Hornberger and Link (2012) which focused on translanguaging in today's classroom in the United States revealed some challenges. The study concluded that the current United States mandate for standardised testing clearly demonstrates that educational practices overwhelmingly favour compartmentalised, monolingual, written, decontextualised language and literacy practices. In addition, the continua of a biliteracy lens allows and encourages educators to challenge those top-down policy mandates by paying more attention to fluid, multilingual, oral, contextualised practices at the local level because they are essential for learners' development. Neglecting the learners' abilities to progress in both languages is a form of academic suppression which monolingual policies exert in monolingual schools.

The challenges to translanguaging lie in policy and practice in the second language teaching come from what Hall and Cook (2012) call the 'entrenched monolingualism' of these aspects. Despite rapid global increases in migration and mobility and the ensuing growth of multilingualism in the global north, in many language classrooms, Cummins's 'two solitudes' (Cummins 2008) still prevail. This means that languages are kept separate and learners' home languages are ignored. A study by Conteh (2018) on key concepts in ELT Translanguaging in the United Kingdom established that the challenges with translanguaging in schools were associated with language policies, curricula, and assessment practices which retained their preoccupations with the national and standard languages. The second language teaching policies do not allow the teachers to translanguage freely and to use translanguaging in the administration of assessment in school. The transformation of the policies to suit the practices has the potential to develop translanguaging pedagogies in the future which will be learner inclusive.

A study by Lopez, Turkan and Guzman-Orth (2017) in the USA on conceptualising the use of translanguaging in initial content assessment for newly arrived emergent bilingual

students presented its unique challenges amongst the immigrants. The study established that one of the biggest challenges when incorporating translanguaging in assessment contexts is that it requires teachers to be bilingual or multilingual themselves. Even if teachers share the same home language as their students, they need to be biliterate with regard to the subject area they are teaching. To complicate matters further, teachers will also be challenged when there are many home languages, either standard or vernacular varieties, represented in their classrooms. Therefore, the teacher's linguistic knowledge should be above the demands of the curriculum.

Another related challenge in the teaching of learners using translanguaging in the second language classrooms is that in the context of assessing late-arriving emergent bilingual students, the languages in which the bilingual assessment features are designed can impact the students' performance depending on their first and second-language literacy skills (Solano-Flores *et al.*, 2009). There is a policy lacuna in the way translanguaging is practised in the schools of the United States. To supplement the achievements of such children, the learner support programme was initiated which supplemented the children who were extremely low achieving in reading (Vaish and Subhan, 2015). Therefore, low achievers are supposed to be supported by the policy and extensive translanguaging should be the way to proceed for them.

Another challenge is related to the fact that most current initial content assessments administered within schools assume monoglossic ideological practices in that they assume all students are monolingual (Lopez *et al.*, 2017). When operating within this assumption, all the linguistic resources that bilinguals or multilinguals bring are perceived to be nonmainstream, and therefore, it is perceived that they should be disallowed during testing. It is challenging to change this widely recognised view, but teachers can start this paradigm shift by promoting the use of the students' entire linguistic repertoires and bilingual communicative practices.

A study by Sato (2017) on translanguaging and translation as evidence from Japanese mimetics was conducted. Sato revealed that in teacher-mediated initial classroom assessments, special considerations should be taken to ensure that all the possible translanguaging resources that could be implemented are standardised. Consequently, there is no variation in the assessment procedure across students. This requires that teachers translate the questions into the student's home language ahead of time. It is preferable to have scripted translations instead of on-the-spot translations to avoid translation inaccuracies that could potentially change the constructs (like the skills) that are being measured or change the difficulty level of the questions (Bowles and Stansfield, 2008). Because there are variations in the minority languages of the class, teachers should also prepare lists of such words that have different meanings in various languages of the class, including the target that is spoken in the region.

The other challenge is that because translanguaging allows test takers to say or write a response in the target and the home language, or a combination of both, it is important to find a practical way to score these responses. One possible mechanism for scoring multimodal and multilingual responses is with human raters like teachers. However, human scoring becomes a challenge because it requires the teacher or rater to be bilingual. This is a significant limitation in the sense that it will require schools to have or recruit content area teachers who are bilingual. Other human scoring challenges include (a) delivery of responses, (b) preferences/biases that individual raters might have for written or spoken responses, and (c) preferences/biases that individual raters might have for the use of English or the home language (Lopez *et al.*, 2017).

Teacher attitudes towards the provision of translanguaging to the learners has been another challenge faced in schools. Cenoz and Gorter (2020) asserts that many of these students take English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programmes concurrently or prior to completing an undergraduate programme and this reality has resulted in a unique pedagogical challenge. They add that while inbound internationalisation of education has

been a political priority, especially as it benefits the Canadian economy, many teachers are not prepared to provide pedagogy that is linguistically inclusive, such as translanguaging. They feel it is not relevant to provide linguistic diversity in one class whilst providing education to the learners. Most teachers feel it is too demanding while those who are from the language of instruction native, they even do not want to use other languages apart from their language.

A teacher is expected to uphold the established writing norms and use a language of power to command power in the process. As Bakthin (1975/1981) noted, socio-political forces encourage individuals to adopt a voice of the authority. A study by Kiramba (2016) on translanguaging in the writing of emergent multilinguals in Kenya revealed some challenges. In a multilingual classroom in rural Kenya, the favoured voice of authority influences the manner in which children appropriate and transfer information from the second language to the first and vice versa. This voice can silence a learner's voice especially if the teacher uses the power of the voice enshrined in him or her through the constitution to suppress the minority speakers. Arocena *et al.*, (2015) argues that power relations held by named languages as socially constructed, defined by states and nations, can place minority language students at a disadvantage in the absence of translanguaging. The weapon the states use in silencing the minority is the imposition of a language which is indirectly done by the teacher through the policies. They add that realising the learners' language in class is time wasting since the teacher gives more time to learners to participate in the lesson which creates confusion. They believed that learner participation through their local languages was time consuming and impractical to the language learning situation. This leaves learners completing a grade semi-literate in the second language teaching communities.

A study by He (2011) on the socio-cultural dimensions of heritage language learning in China was conducted in secondary schools. The study used interviews and group discussions to collect data from teachers. The study revealed that despite support from

the Chinese MOI, Chinese-English bilingual education programmes do not enjoy legal protection. The Language Law of the People's Republic of China unequivocally stipulates that schools and other institutions must use Putonghua and standardised Chinese characters as the basic spoken and written language in education and teaching. Such a policy and law restrict the practice of translanguaging in the country which has evolved its communities from monolingual being to multilingual ones. The teacher in this case is left to decide in a classroom either to help the learners acquire education by translanguaging or let the learners fail to learn through the use of the monolingual pedagogies.

The effectiveness of translanguaging programmes was also undermined by various contextual factors such as lack of trained teachers, inappropriate learning materials, and students being unready for learning academic subjects in a medium other than their first language (Hélot, 2014). Further, Helot (2014) revealed that some communities were not ready to learn using another language apart from their first language. This has been the biggest challenge in most countries and states since governments have not changed policies to suit the changing communities of today and the multilingual school environment. Cummins (2012) argues that a trained teacher would understand that learners are not ready to use another language apart from their own. Therefore, the teacher has to ensure that he or she makes the learning take place by ignoring the policy and make learners learn using the language which can make them learn in school.

On the contrary, some countries like Pakistan lack an explicitly defined language-in-education policy. A study by Garcia and Lin (2017) reported that the lack of clear multilingual policy implies that schools and teachers do not have guidelines on how to use or support multiple community languages in their classrooms. Teachers do code-switch, but they are not trained to do so appropriately for educational purposes. A lack of explicit policy also makes it difficult for teacher educators to train teachers in appropriate methods to teach in multilingual contexts. Where the opportunity for translanguaging is

alive, the challenges lie in the implementation of the policy as there is not definite guidance for the teachers to use translanguaging practices in schools.

A study conducted in India by Mohanty (2010) on linguistic challenges in multilingual settings of Indian schools established some challenges which were faced in the process of using translanguaging practices in the country whose linguistic diversity is complicated. The study found that the language-in-education policies collectively perpetuate a double divide between the elitist language(s) of power and state majority languages and between state majority languages and the dominated, indigenous, and minority ones, such as tribal languages. This was evident in the teaching and learning materials which were all monolingual and did not consider other languages of the classroom. The absence of translanguaging brings about linguistic power struggles in the classroom and linguistic superiority is always seen which creates learning barriers in this case.

Other scholars have also found some challenges in the implementation of translanguaging in multilingual schools (Sayer, 2013). He adds that at the outset of implementation, concern for lack of instructional materials in the mother tongues is certainly valid, especially since the policy seems to have been implemented in “a headlong rush” constitution. In many instances where minority languages have been discouraged, teacher training has been described as “weeklong camps” where teachers are “herded by the hundreds” and “trained haphazardly by instructors who are mostly unfamiliar with translanguaging practices and concepts. Such have resulted in the lack of confidence in the practices making the pedagogy seem not to be important and unbeneficial.

Meanwhile, a study by Silova *et al.*, (2007) was conducted which looked at bilingual education in Serbia. The study interviewed teachers and learners in five secondary schools who studied English alongside a local language as a subject. The findings provided evidence that languages used as resource encourage plurilingualism and provided a

positive attitude towards other languages. This promoted classroom interaction rather than an exclusive monolingual setup and viewed language as a right and not language as problem, an orientation which is shared by much of Central Asia's population. The prime attention of national policies has been to promote the titular language of the republic, treating the state language in effect as a right and other languages as problems in securing titular language rights. Some have commented that this monolingual focus of official policy in a multilingual region and the very different performance on tests of students in schools with different LOI may weaken social cohesion, with attendant economic and political costs (OSCE, 2012).

## **2.7 Gaps in Research**

There is evidence in literature that translanguaging pedagogical practices have yielded positive results elsewhere in the world and they have been of benefits to learners in a multilingual classroom and environment (Pacheco, 2016; Poza, 2017; Creese and Blackledge, 2008; Garcia, 2009; Palmer and Martí'nez, 2013, among others). The reviewed literature is from different parts of the world, and it is evident that classroom experiments in the Grade One class or first graders have not been conducted apart from ethnographical studies. The major gap in the reviewed literature is the shortage of studies which conducted objective classroom experiments of translanguaging especially in the sub-Saharan context and in Zambia to be specific. This is the research oversight which this study addressed.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **A REVIEW OF CLASSROOM LANGUAGE PRACTICES IN THE ZAMBIAN CONTEXT**

#### **3.1 Overview**

This section of present literature review focuses on studies conducted in Zambia. Thus, it is a review of literature on languages, practices and ideologies in the context of Zambia.

#### **3.2. Studies on Language Policy and Literacy Teaching in Zambia**

A number of studies have been conducted in Zambia regarding the teaching of literacy using monolingual practices in the multilingual classroom. Studies conducted by Banda and Mwanza (2017) on language in education policy and linguistic diversity in Zambia found that all policies on language learners favoured the teaching of literacy using monolingual practices on learners whose mother tongue was not among the seven zonal languages. Banda and Mwanza further argued that language teaching experiments like for NBTL were conducted in monolingual environments, yet the implementation was generalised to multilingual learners. Not so soon, the policy and its practices were abandoned due to difficulties in teaching and learning abilities of literacy.

The use of regional languages to teach initial literacy has not yielded positive results to the speakers of minority languages. A study by Mwambazi (2011) in Kasama and Mbala districts sought to establish the factors and the nature of low reading achievement among Grade Two pupils in selected schools. The study used the Basic Skills Assessment Tool to collect data from Grade Two pupils and teachers. The findings were that the Grade Two pupils in the target schools were unable to read in Zambian languages and English according to the expected level of proficiency in the primary schools. Impeding factors included shortage of teachers, particularly those trained in PRP methodologies, large classes, poor family and educational background, poor and inadequate infrastructure, pupils not breaking through while in Grade One, inadequate time allocated for

literacy/reading lessons, and use of an unfamiliar language of instruction. The study by Mwambazi is related to this study in that both studies are dealing with learners who are receiving literacy instruction using a different language to theirs. The difference is that this study sought to find a solution literacy learning while Mwambazi's study acted as a foundation for conducting this study. Therefore, this study provided an avenue to explore the new methods of teaching initial literacy using better teaching methods by making use of the familiar language.

Another study by Phiri (2012) looked at the teachers' perception on factors which prevent some Grade One learners from breaking through to initial literacy in the primary schools in Solwezi. The study findings indicated that the language of instruction to a larger extent was a barrier both to learners and teachers. The situation was more pronounced in urban and in peri-urban schools because of the factor of multilingualism which made it impracticable to use a regional standard language (Kaonde) as a medium of instruction in the New Breakthrough to Literacy programme. The Kaonde orthography was different from the Kaonde they spoke in the urban township of Solwezi. Therefore, it was difficult for learners to actually learn literacy in a regional language which they hardly understood. The study by Phiri was similar to the current study because both studies were conducted on Grade One learners. However, a study by Phiri did not provide an intervention in the Grade One class while this study experimented translanguaging on Grade One learners of Lundazi District.

Further, Banda and Mwanza (2017) asserted that Nyanja as the proclaimed regional language of education and local administration is described in the literature as the 'mother tongue' or familiar language for the majority of pupils in Lusaka and yet not. They argued that this is misleading because many languages are spoken in the city. Moreover, the Nyanja used for academic purposes is not exactly the same as the one spoken in homes and the community by the majority Lusaka residents. Therefore, it is in this context that Matafwali's (2010) findings demonstrated that lack of proficiency in the initial language

of instruction, was the hallmark for poor reading and writing skills observed in the majority of Zambian children. Evidently, the regional language or ‘mother tongue’ was in reality not so familiar to the teachers and the learners. Thus Matafwali (2010) concludes that when deficits in oral language converge with deficits in cognitive skills, children are at a substantial risk of developing reading difficulties in a language. The dispute is that since children in Lusaka District were not proficient in the standard Nyanja recognised in schools, they experienced problems in initial literacy acquisition and a better solution was needed. The two studies were different from this study because the former did not seek to experiment an intervention which this study provided in a Grade One classroom.

Equally, Mubanga (2012) conducted a study to establish the effects of using Nyanja as a medium of instruction in a predominately Soli speaking area of Lwimba in Chongwe District. The district and area fall under the Nyanja language zone. The findings of the study revealed that children learnt literacy skills with great difficulties in Nyanja. The study concluded that since the pupils in Lwimba area mostly speak Soli at home and during play, they have problems with Nyanja which is the language of initial literacy for the region because the language is not familiar to the area and children. Such children were then disadvantaged by the policy and the education system as teachers had a tough time to teach the learners the language before they could start learning using the new language. The study under review did not seek an alternative to the effects while this study went on to implement an intervention to the findings Mubanga mentioned. The study by Mubanga was a basis for this study to be conducted and experiment translanguaging in a Grade One class.

In another study conducted by Mwanza (2012), he sought to establish whether the use of standard Nyanja as a sole language of instruction was appropriate in a cosmopolitan and multilingual environment of Lusaka. His study established that pupils were not familiar with standard Nyanja, and they struggled to learn literacy with it. In addition, the teachers who handled the literacy grades were not familiar with the standard language of instruction they used in class. Therefore, there was a mismatch between the language of

play in Lusaka, that is, the urban Nyanja lingua franca, which is the familiar language and the language of instruction used in schools, the standard Nyanja. This was compounded further by the fact that teaching materials (books) were written in Chewa which is spoken in Malawi or selected rural parts of Eastern Zambia like Katete and Chadiza, which most teachers and pupils hardly comprehend. It was clear that having a ‘one jacket fit all’ language policy was not suitable for a multilingual and multicultural country like Zambia. Therefore, it should be mentioned that not all teachers are born in the perimeters of the seven regional languages. The language zoning also does not represent the Zambian linguistic landscape and has contributed to the low literacy levels in the country. The point of meeting between this study and Mwanza is that both studies were conducted in multilingual areas. The difference is that the study by Mwanza did not implement translanguaging which this study did in a Grade One class.

A study by Bwalya (2019) looked at the democratisation of the classroom: An analysis of Teachers’ Language Practices in Selected Multilingual Classrooms of Chibombo District. The study used a sequential explanatory design on a sample of 260 participants. Interviews and class observations were used to collect data from grade 6 teachers and pupils. The study findings also showed that while some teachers democratised their classrooms through the adoption of translanguaging as a pedagogical language practice, others insisted on monolingual language practices which resulted in symbolic violence. The study further revealed that teachers had communication challenges when using English to teach learners from different linguistic backgrounds because English language was not a familiar language to them. The main spoken languages in the schools were Nyanja (22.5 percent of the learners and 15 percent of the teachers), Bemba (23 percent of the learners and 40 percent of the teachers), Lenje (29 percent of the learners and 4 percent of the teachers), Tonga (16 percent of the learners and 23.3 percent of the teachers). These findings are not only reliable, but they depict a real Zambian situation countrywide. The study under review only democratised different classes and subjects to see what would happen while this study implemented translanguaging pedagogical

practices in a Grade One literacy class. It was then significant that a full translanguaging project was implemented so that the findings could be compared.

A study conducted by Simachenya (2017) looked at language practices in a multilingual classroom situation in selected primary schools in Livingstone urban. He used qualitative methods of data collection from a sample of forty participants. The findings of the study revealed that in a Tonga regional language classroom, the classroom sociolinguistics was characterised by Nyanja instead of the language of instruction. Children discussed in Nyanja instead of Tonga as follows:

Pupil G1: (to Pupil H1 in Nyanja) *Nikulemba bwanji? 'How do we write'?*

Pupil H1: (responds to Pupil G1 in Nyanja) *Kaya 'I don't know'.*

Pupil I1: (assuring Pupil G1 in Nyanja) *Nimwamene so cabe 'that's the way just like that'.*

This was a Tonga and Lozi speaking community and by regional demarcation is supposed to use Tonga as a language of instruction, yet the classroom multilingualism dictates the language of instruction to a certain extent. The teacher uses Tonga as a language of instruction to teach and engage learners, but the responses are in Nyanja as below:

Teacher 5: (in Tonga) *Ino bamwi batyani? ... Miriam 'what are others doing? ...*

*Miriam'*

Pupil E5 (Miriam): (in Nyanja) *Batyola milisi 'they're plucking maize.'*

From the excerpts, Simachenya (2017) indicate that some learners would prefer Nyanja when responding to the teacher during teaching and learning as can be deduced from the excerpts above. The possible reason for the use of Nyanja to respond to the teachers would be that the children would express their response better than they would do in the prescribed media of instruction and communication (Tonga and English for lower and upper primary respectively). In both instances, it seems clear that Nyanja was preferred by learners to enable them to contribute freely during lessons in a way of responding to the oral questions from their teachers. This means that some learners in the selected

primary schools of Livingstone Urban opted to respond to their teachers in Nyanja in order for them to actively participate in the learning process. Therefore, translanguaging was within the classroom and needed to be appreciated by the teachers and policy makers so that learning can be taking place freely.

A study by Lukama (2016) on the relationship between phonological awareness and reading ability in selected primary schools of Solwezi District. The study revealed that most learners in Solwezi schools did not understand the medium of instruction (Kiikaonde) used to teach literacy in the primary schools. For instance, one teacher revealed that she would use Lunda, Bemba or English to explain to such pupils since most of them know more than one language and the language of instruction was not known much by the learners and yet the policy dictated that it had to be used. On the contrary, the teachers who followed the policy seemed never to care about the learner's learning in class. Another respondent revealed that she always taught in Kiikaonde regardless of whether some learners understood or not because most learners understand more than one language in the area. The reality in this research site was that out of fifteen respondents (6.7%) said that all the learners in their classes understood the medium of instruction used in the area. Therefore, the reality of the classes in the Zambian schools does not reflect the reality perceived by the policy makers in the use of regional language in the teaching of literacy in the Zambian schools. The power given to the language of the region is contributing to the lack of literacy learning in the multilingual school. This situation brings about the adoption of translanguaging in the Zambian multilingual schools.

A study by Chinyama (2016) looked at the effects of using Bemba as medium of instruction on the reading levels of Grade Two pupils in a predominantly Namwanga speaking area of Nakonde District. The study used qualitative methods of data collection from pupils and teachers of Grade Two learners. The findings of the study revealed that when teachers used Bemba to speak to the learners or give instructions, the learners failed to respond unless the teachers translated into Namwanga. The study presented a teacher's concern that:

We have to translate from Bemba to Namwanga all the time and this is time consuming. There are moments when you speak in Bemba and all of the pupils are looking at you and you do not know what to do. A 40-minute period is reduced to 20 minutes as the other half of the period is spent on translating. What is interesting is that sometimes a wrong translation is done and a pupil who knows Bemba better than you has to intervene and explain to the amusement of the rest of the class.

With such findings at hand, it should be noted that the space for translanguaging in the Zambian curriculum has been fertile for some time and just needed policy direction to support it. Translations have been used to facilitate learning in a non-Bemba predominant region of Nakonde so that teachers can communicate. The use of power vested in Bemba in class was a hinderance to the teaching and learning of literacy while when the power was given to Namwanga, it became a source of learning for learners. Power relations in teachers were in this case used selectively to enable learners access literacy instruction in the primary schools of Nakonde District.

Kumwenda (2010) investigated initial reading performance in Cichewa in multi-ethnic classes of selected schools in Chipata urban. A case study design was used on a sample of 116 participants and a test was used with an interview guide as tools. The study findings revealed that teachers code-switched between English and informal Nyanja to teach and communicate with the learners in class as both were not conversant with the standard Cinyanja found in books and the class composition only had two Chewa speakers out of the over sixty learners in a multilingual class. The findings also revealed that the indigenous (Chewa speakers) were not read to teach Literacy using their language as they had a negative attitude towards it. Mbewe documented this from the interview with the teachers:

‘Most of the Chewa teachers here are not ready to teach in NBTL classes. *Ati bangakuonelemo ati ndiwe osaphunzira or ati unaphasa cabe Cichewa* (it is embarrassing our tribesmen may think we failed in all the subjects and passed in Cichewa only). So, most of us who teach Grade Ones are not from Chewa ethnic

group. We are teaching Cichewa as a ‘foreign’ language, just as English language. We learn some of the Cichewa words from our pupils themselves and friends as we socialize. Even those tribes from other provinces are not ready to help pupils from their own respective provinces. This adds more predicaments to these children who end up memorizing the words in order to breakthrough. Teachers would prefer to assist them in science and mathematics. So, we as teachers are not ready to promote our own mother tongue or familiar local language’. (P.48)

Apart from that, the Cinyanja taught in class was found not to be intelligible with the other languages of eastern province because some words were of opposite meaning, and they confused learners. This made the teacher to translate most of the words into English or other languages of the class. Therefore, translanguaging was already taking place in such classes and it helped to facilitate learning.

A study by Phiri (2017) investigated the effects of code-switching in grade eight mathematics teaching among bilinguals in Lusaka District. A non-equivalent control group design was adopted over 209 Grade Eight pupils, selected through convenient sampling of naturally occurring classes. 104 were in the experimental group and 105 were in the control group. The study findings established that code-switching mediated instruction is better in facilitating Mathematics achievement than traditional English mediated instruction. In addition, code-switching instruction was more effectively facilitated by almost all pupil-level characteristics and favoured performance on all the three content areas more than traditional instruction. Therefore, an examination of differences in the magnitude of means, variances, beta weights, and correlation coefficients revealed that code-switching mediated instruction had more improvement effects on Mathematics achievement than traditional English mediated instruction. Therefore, translanguaging practices do not only produce better results in language lessons but also in Mathematics. It is for this reason that this study was conducted to experiment the translanguaging practices in a multilingual literacy class in Lundazi District.

Kachinga (2012) conducted a study on the reading performance of learners in Cinyanja taught by an indigenous teacher and those taught by a non-indigenous teacher of Cinyanja at Lotus Basic School in Lusaka, Zambia. Data was collected from two classrooms on a population of 98 learners while interviews were conducted with the Senior Education Standards Officer (SESO) for Literature and Languages, a head teacher and the two grade teachers. Both teachers code switched to facilitate learning. However, the non-indigenous teacher was code-switching and mixing on many occasions compared to the indigenous teacher. They both switched from Cinyanja to English and mixed with Bemba and informal Nyanja. The study findings revealed that the non-indigenous teacher failed to explain the meaning of some words to the learners which she did not know like ‘*Gulugufe*’ and ‘*Mbalame*’, which refer to butterfly and bird respectively. Fortunately, one of the learners knew that ‘*mbalame*’ was bird and he shouted ‘*kanyoni*’ to the rest of the class. The findings also revealed that it was difficult to teach initial literacy in Cinyanja to learners of different linguistic background as they stated in an interview:

*It is very difficult to teach initial literacy in Cinyanja because children have different backgrounds of mother tongue. The Cinyanja that is in the books is very difficult and the teacher has to simplify some words which is not an easy task. Some are in deep Chewa for instance ‘kujambula’. One who doesn’t know Chewa can’t even guess that it means to draw. (p.47).*

With these findings at hand, it was relevant to accept that code-switching as a pedagogical practice has been used by teachers to facilitate learning in a literacy class, either the teacher is indigenous or not. It is then important that a study was conducted to experiment the teaching of literacy using the translanguaging pedagogical practices where code-switching is used in a multilingual classroom.

Another study was conducted by Mbewe (2015) which investigated the teachers’, pupils’ and parents’ perceptions towards the use of Cinyanja as a medium of instruction at lower primary schools of Chipata District. The study used a mixed methods design, and data

was collected from 123 participants through tests and interview guides from teachers, parents and pupils. This study also established that pupils did not support learning in Cinyanja because they were not proud of it, and they were not proficient in the Cinyanja used in school in Lusaka District and pupils preferred using English to Cinyanja as a medium of instruction. Parents regarded using Cinyanja as a medium of instruction as retrogressive and not beneficial to their children in acquiring future successes in different life endeavours. The study identified that translational and mispronunciations challenges; lack of pedagogical knowledge by teachers to teach in Cinyanja; lack of proficiency in Cinyanja by teachers and pupils; over enrolment; language diversity; inadequate teaching and learning material; and lack of parental support for Cinyanja as language of instruction were the challenges being faced by teachers and pupils in implementing Cinyanja as a medium of instruction. These challenges were as a result of the use of a non-progressive teaching pedagogy which does not recognise the class composition that it is multilingual and multilingual practices should be adopted in teaching literacy.

A study by Mulunda (2016) assessed mutual intelligibility between Chitonga vocabulary in instruction materials and Lenje to facilitate effective learning of initial literacy skills in selected schools of Chilumba area of Kapiri- Mposhi District of Zambia. The study sample was 10 which included five (5) teachers and five (5) parents while learners were observed during lessons. The study findings revealed that teachers had challenges in teaching using Chitonga vocabulary to Lenje learners because the two languages are not mutually intelligible. Therefore, in order to enable learners understand the concepts in the Grade One class, the teachers had to translate Chitonga to Lenje. An interview with the teachers brought out this fact.

Teacher A said, *“I am failing to teach properly because some Chitonga words are difficult. The learners cannot understand Chitonga unless I translate into Lenje.”*

Teacher B said, *“I use concrete objects and ask the learners what it is in Lenje, then I translate the word into Chitonga.”*

This study is among the many studies which have revealed that translanguaging practices have been used in the Zambian schools to facilitate learning. What is interesting with this study area is that one side of the district has learners being taught Tonga as a language of instruction while the other side, schools use Bemba because the different communities have different community languages. Government is actually comfortable with this situation in the districts of Central Province.

A study by Mvula (2017) assessed the translation strategies to establish the equivalence in English-Nyanja news translation at Zambia National Broadcasting Corporation in Lusaka. A case study design was used, and data was collected through the analysis of 45 corresponding English-Nyanja news items from the Nyanja section. The results indicated that ZNBC Radio One Nyanja translators mainly use the following translation strategies like omission, use of a general word, neutral or less expressive word, borrowing, colloquies, addition and literal translation. Furthermore, the study revealed that translators faced challenges when translating certain medical, legal and scientific terminologies as there were no direct equivalent words. Most translators also faced a lack of continuous professional development on translation theory and practice. Translation has been a source of meaning making according to most of the studies reviewed where teachers have been translating concepts from the language of instruction into the learner's language. Translation being a translanguaging pedagogical practice, it was not known if translation was used to enhance learner understanding in the primary schools.

A quasi-experiment was conducted by Nyimbili and Mwanza (2020) which looked at the quantitative and qualitative benefits of translanguaging pedagogic practice among first graders in multilingual classrooms of Lundazi District in Zambia. A total of 82 pupils participated in the study with one teacher who taught both the control and the experimental classes. Quantitative data was analysed using SPSS and a Levene's test of variance was used to analyse the test results while thematic analysis was used for qualitative data analysis. Post experimental test results showed higher average mean scores for the experimental group ( $M=15.10$ ) than the control group ( $M=11.71$ ). The

Cohen's  $d=0.98$  for the post-test showed the large effect size above .8. The performance of learners in the experimental group was significantly different from the control group [ $t(52.960) = 4.454, p < 0.001$ ]. Thus, the difference in literacy performance can be attributed to the translanguaging practices which were used to teach literacy in the experimental class. Additional results showed that as a result of translanguaging, there was increased learner classroom participation, multiliteracy development, cultural preservation and learners' identity affirmation. The study concludes that when the curriculum is decolonised and the classroom is liberated through recognition of learners' linguistic repertoires, learning outcomes improve. The paper makes a unique contribution to knowledge by providing objective data from an experiment to show the educational benefits of translanguaging.

Gordon (2014) conducted a study on language of education and planning in Zambia. The study reviewed a number of studies which brought about the changes in the language policy from one main monolingual practice, using English, to another monolingual practices, using regional languages, while neglecting the other languages. The study indicated that the use of the regional languages could have some negative effects when indiscriminately used even in their linguistic zones because they might disadvantage some pupils whose language is not compatible to the regional language. The pupils whose mother tongue was the language of instruction in a region had an advantage of learning in the language which they understood. On the other hand, pupils whose mother was different from the regional language would be disadvantaged because the language of instruction was their second language. Scholars (Mwanza 2012: Tambulukani and Bus, 2012: Banda, Mostert and Wikan, 2012) have argued that learning initial literacy skills was best achieved through the use of the learner's local language. This argument brings to the fact that multilingual classes need multilingual teaching practices unlike the monolingual practices prevailing in the primary schools today. This is because the regional languages are not mutual intelligible to the various Zambian language as for the example of Tumbuka and Cinyanja. Therefore, it was significant that

translanguaging was experimented in the multilingual classes of Lundazi District to cater for the learner's language.

Simwinga (2006) looked at the impact of language policy on the use of minority languages in Zambia with special reference to Tumbuka and Nkoya. The study findings revealed that minority languages were languages which did not enjoy the status of English and the regional languages used for educational purposes. The study revealed that Tumbuka enjoyed its autonomous status in Lundazi District where it was used as a local official language for social functions, church gatherings, market, schools and other places like clinics and hospitals by the local people. Therefore, the jurisdiction of the regional language did not displace Tumbuka in this area in any way and that the two languages were not mutually intelligible in wording, phrasing and meaning making. Simwinga (2006) further argued that Namwanga, Mambwe and Lungu were not mutually intelligible with Bemba. To this effect, they were not catered for in the current language zoning system. He attributed this lack of mutual intelligibility to their origins, as being the reason why they did not share vocabulary items. Areas such as Lundazi needed to use multilingual practices to cater for the language deficiencies and help learners acquire literacy which this study experimented in Grade One classes.

A study by Mkandawire (2017) investigated the familiar language-based instruction versus unfamiliar language for the teaching of reading and writing literacy skills in two primary schools of Lusaka District. The study interviewed teachers and observed lessons from a sample of 67 participants. The study found that the two classes were multilingual, and they spoke more than eight languages in class. The teachers were not even aware of some of the languages the learners used. An earlier study by Mkandawire (2015) confirmed this fact that the classes of today were multilingual and multicultural societies and these factors reflected in the Zambian classrooms. Mkandawire (2017) found that teachers switched from one language to another in order to facilitate learning on such multilingual practices. This reflected that the use of regional languages was not practical

in the classrooms of today. Therefore, taking a regional where a single language influences the communication strategies in the district and classroom creates a hostile environment for a regional language to survive hence this study created a situation for all languages to flourish in a Grade One classroom of Lundazi District.

Nyimbili and Mwanza (2021) conducted a study which investigated challenges teachers and pupils faced as a result of teaching and learning using the translanguaging pedagogical practices in a multilingual grade one class of Lundazi District. A phenomenological design was used in one class for one term on a sample of 41 pupils and one teacher of literacy. Classroom observations and interviews were used to collect data that was analysed thematically. The study found that the teaching of literacy using translanguaging practices in a grade one multilingual class was associated with challenges like the mismatch between the language of instruction and dominant learners' familiar languages that existed in the classroom: rigidity of the language policy which was based on monolingualism throughout the learner's learning process: strict monolingual based assessment which only tested skills in the regional language and: inadequate teaching and learning materials which supported monolingual language learning. The study recommended that the Ministry of General Education and stakeholders should work together and revise provisions of the language policy guidelines so that it reflects the current linguistic composition of the language zones.

### **3.3 Summary of the chapter**

Research on the teaching of literacy in the Zambian schools have provided evidence that the literacy policy was still questionable despite the changes proposed under the current provisions hence the low literacy levels. The studies reviewed have not attempted to provide an alternative solution to the language policy lacunas they have highlighted. The studies have provided evidence and grounds for this study to experiment translanguaging as pedagogical practices in a multilingual Grade One class and see if it can improve learner performance in the Zambian schools. The major knowledge deficit characterising

literacy education in Zambia is where no study has been conducted to experiment translanguageing with a view of assessing its instructional benefits and impact. This knowledge gap was filled by the findings of this study in chapter six where they have been presented.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **THEORETICAL AND ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **4.1 Overview**

This study was guided by three theories which were used to frame and analyse the study findings of the study. These are the three Language Orientations by Ruiz, the Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) theory and Bernstein's Code and Pedagogical Discourse theory. The combination of the three helped the researcher to understand the classroom practices used by the teachers to engage the learners, make meaning of the translanguaging practices going on in classrooms and then relate the linguistic practices to the literacy acquisition in the primary schools.

#### **4.2 Three Language Orientations Theory**

The study was guided by the three language orientations and planning theory by Ruiz in 1984. In formulating the orientations, Ruiz sought to draw attention to the values about language underlying policymaking. Specifically, he was concerned about the prevailing deficit perspective on linguistic minorities and sought to offer an alternative and empowering perspective that could draw attention to the positive aspects of individual and societal multilingualism (Hornberger, 1990 and Ruiz, 2010). He proposed that language can be viewed in three perspectives: as a problem, as a right and as a resource to the education and school system. It was these three aspects which was discussed in relation to the translanguaging pedagogical practices in the Grade One literacy classes.

##### **4.2.1 Language as a Problem**

The concept of language as a problem sets around the ideas that language is the centre of discussion in the curriculum planning hence it has to be taken as a problem. Scholars use LPP oftenly to refer to language problems that policy and planning are meant to address (Hult, 2016). Although, as Ruiz (1984: 18) points out that early Language Policy and Planning (LPP) work was focused on solving societal problems stimulated by linguistic conflicts in the nation-building efforts of developing countries. Problem in the language

as problem orientation is not associated with the object of focus in LPP. Since multilingual nations have issues with language use in their education systems, the planners then take advantage and consider the situation as a language problem.

Problems in this sense might best be characterized as issues or themes that emerge from practical needs and circumstances that are the object of focus in applied research (Hult, 2010). In addition, problem-centered language planning is sometimes rendered as problem-oriented, which must not be confused with the language as problem orientation. It should also be noted, though, that some early LPP work has been criticized for taking a language as problem orientation to language problems (Ruiz, 1984). The language as problem orientation is a set of values that stem from a monolingual ideal and assimilationist mindset which tends to dominate the minority languages (Hornberger, 1990). The vitality of linguistic minority languages, in turn, weakens the status of a national language by competing with it in various domains of society (Ruiz, 1984; Horner, 2011). Through this, language teachers view the other languages which are minor to be a problem.

It is common knowledge that policies following this orientation aim to limit or entirely eliminate multilingualism in society in favour of encouraging the development of the dominant majority language (Ruiz, 2010). In this context, linguistic minorities are framed using a deficit perspective that emphasizes their lack of linguistic abilities in the dominant majority language rather than focusing on their bi-multilingual repertoires (Ruiz, 1984: 19). Their languages are not seen as an asset, but as a disability that needs to be overcome (Ruiz, 1984). Language problems may be (falsely) aligned with social problems such as poverty or low academic achievement (Ruiz, 1984).

From the foregoing discussion, educational programs that follow from the language as problem orientation seek to remedy this deficit with subtractive language teaching that emphasizes transition to the dominant majority language (Mora, Wink, and Wink, 2001;

Hult, 2014). Indeed, minority language maintenance is deemed unnecessary as it brings linguistic conflict to the main language which needs total maintenance and development (Ruiz, 1984; Petrovic, 2005; Ruiz, 2010). It may be seen as a duty for linguistic minorities to learn a national language in order to prevent these possibilities (Horner, 2011). The majority language imposition was a recipe to linguistic anarchy in a nation since the country practically lacked a national language.

The educational program models informed by this orientation tend to be monolingual in structure, with the rationale that linguistic minorities are best served by as much exposure to the dominant language as possible in the interest of “inclusiveness” (Ruiz, 1984:20). Programs may take the form of specialized second language courses focusing on the dominant majority language or of immersion in mainstream classrooms, which in extreme cases can become submersion as students are placed in classes with no structured support for language learning (Mora, Wink, and Wink, 2001; Wright, 2014). This theory then informs the Zambia literacy and language policy which calls for the use of regional languages at the expense of the majority languages in Zambia. The theory was used to analyse teachers’ classroom language practices and their ideologies.

#### **4.2.2 Language as a Right**

This can also be discussed in the context like language as problem, the language as right orientation is compensatory in nature, albeit with entirely different underlying premises. Hult (2016) contends that whereas the language as problem orientation rests on the idea of compensating for a linguistic deficit by focusing on assimilation and transition to a dominant majority language, the language as right orientation seeks to address linguistically based inequities using compensatory legal mechanisms. Although Ruiz (1984) took into account the international scope of language rights in his original formulation of this orientation, it is worth noting that his perspective was particularly informed by the US policy context where language-related rights have been advanced with respect to civil rights rather than language rights *per se*. Although fundamental

principles of language rights may transfer globally, how they take shape in practice will vary based on the legal system in which they are implemented (Kontra, Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas, 1999).

There is a distinction between civil rights and language rights notwithstanding advocates for linguistic minorities in the United States invoke language rights to argue for equitable treatment in education and in society widely (Ruiz, 1984; Hornberger, 1990). In a broad sense, language rights can be understood as what is legally codified about language use, often with special attention to the human and civil rights of minorities to use and maintain their languages (Hornberger, 1990; Hult, 2014). More cynically, in some states, legal rights to language might be related to advancing primarily the acquisition and use of a national/official dominant language rather than to protecting minority languages (Horner, 2011). Language rights can be expansive or limited in scope depending on the context in which the country would like to inform its policy (Ruiz, 1984).

In many instances, language rights can be understood as what is legally collected about language use, often with attention to the human and civil rights of minorities to use and maintain their languages (Hult, 2014). More cynically, in some institutions legal rights to language might be related to advancing primarily the acquisition and use of a national/official dominant language rather than to protecting minority languages (Horner, 2011). Language in the social context of the Zambian community is diverse in that different communities use different dialects to share meaning. These dialects are rather not congruent with the language of instruction hence planners of language policies have been taking a root that fits the linguistic diversity of Zambia.

With countries which have implemented language as a right have made progress in making use of the community language for the learners in class. In Finland, Keskitalo and Paksuniemi (2018) mentioned that in the 20th century, decision-making powers related to the school system were transferred to the municipalities, largely because it was felt that the municipalities would be able to make the best decisions on matters concerning their

inhabitants' language of instruction. Sami is used as a language of instruction in Sami areas while Finish is used later in the school curriculum. Such rights have promoted the Sami language and helped learners acquire the linguistic competence in their mother tongue. This situation can be well utilised in the Zambian classrooms in that every school is situated in a community which is influenced by the community language of the learners. Taking language as a right in Zambia would help language planning achieve the liberties enshrined into the learners' classroom practices and language use to achieve their educational needs.

The focus of this study took language as a heritage and as a right to the learners and the classroom. In this study, language as a right implied using translinguaging. Thus, the focus was what happened when this right was granted.

#### **4.2.3 Language as a Resource**

Hult (2016) mentions that in viewing language as resource orientation, Ruiz envisioned it as both descriptive and aspirational (Ruiz, 1984). He outlined several ways in which linguistic diversity could be viewed as a resource rather than as a problem. He added that heightened awareness of language as a resource could be used to draw attention to places in policies, what Hornberger (2005) refers to as “ideological and implementational spaces,” that can be used to influence multilingual education. Similarly, it could be used to identify schools and programs making use of such implementational spaces. In addition, Hult (2016) add that it could be used to envisage future policy and practice that promotes societal multilingualism by expanding individuals' linguistic repertoires.

Fundamentally, language as resource is the converse of the language as problem orientation. Multilingualism and cultural diversity are valued and seen as fully compatible with national unity (Hornberger, 1990). Rather than agents of disagreement, speakers of minority languages are seen as a source of specialized linguistic expertise that is useful for themselves, their communities and society as a whole (Ruiz, 1984). It is thus an

inclusive orientation in which linguistic diversity is good for everyone in society, not only linguistic minorities (Cummins, Chow and Schecter, 2006). In relation to the classroom and literacy teaching, minority language users in class should be given chance to express themselves in their own languages so that they share the knowledge they hold using their language as shared by the society. A classroom should be perceived as a resourceful place for language use which should translate into knowledge acquisition for a good learning environment.

In addition, language as a resource is ultimately an additive perspective in which languages are not pitted against each other in an either minority language or majority language conflict; rather, the ability for speakers to develop advanced bilingualism in both a national language and another language is considered desirable (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000; Hult, 2014). Viewing language as a resource provides a window for schools and teachers in the classrooms to appreciate the multilingualism that exist in their classrooms and use the situation to the advantage of teaching learners in their languages unlike suppressing it. Realising that diversity in language is not confusion, but a resource for literacy sharing makes teachers teach freely and help learners develop their linguistic power in classrooms.

It is advantageous to realise the significance and educational potential embedded in the local languages which exist in the multilingual schools. A nation's social, cultural, economic, and strategic potential is enhanced when its citizens have well developed linguistic repertoires including the national language as well as minority languages and other modern languages (Ruiz, 1984 and Hornberger, 2002). To that end, the orientation encompasses the development and expansion of new multilingual resources as well as the conservation which include language maintenance of existing resources (Ruiz, 1984; Hornberger, 1990).

As a resource, language may have intrinsic value in relation to cultural reproduction, community relations, inter-generational communication, identity construction, building self-esteem, and intellectual engagement, among other possibilities (Crawford, 1998; Ruiz, 2010). Language may also have extrinsic value with respect to, *inter alia*, national security, diplomacy, military action, espionage, business, media and public relations (Ruiz, 1984; Ricento, 2005). Therefore, adopting another language as a resource apart from the local languages compromises such factors.

Furthermore, a language is positioned as having value only in the extent to which it can be marketized. Language maintenance is only beneficial if it also serves the needs of the nation, which is potentially morally and ethically problematic (Petrovic, 2005). Such arguments, Petrovic and Ricento note, are potentially dangerous because they may perpetuate a power imbalance between minority and majority language users whereby the value of minority languages depends upon whether they also serve the greater interests of society as a whole and not only a linguistic minority community (Petrovic, 2005 and Ricento, 2005).

Alternatively, linguistic minority speakers may be asked to serve society by helping speakers of dominant majority languages learn the minority language, either as interlocutors in language-related internships or as peers in dual-language bilingual programs (Ruiz, 1984). In fact, dual language programs in which both majority and minority language students learn both languages together are becoming increasingly popular among majority language parents who see bilingualism as a potential asset for their children (Hult, 2016). While it may be a political trap in that such a state of affairs creates a favourable climate for bilingual education, one must still ask the potentially uncomfortable question of whether linguistic minority students are becoming part of the curriculum for dominant majority students or not (Petrovic, 2005; Valdés, 1997; Flores and Schissel, 2014). In the multilingual classrooms, there was need for the teachers to consider the language of the minority learners and make them realise the importance of

their language in the learning process. This provided the motivation to use their language to learn as well as other languages.

The three-language orientation theory was used to understand the teacher's practices in relation to how they view language in their classes. Taking language as a right by the teachers will enable them to support the learner's languages in class and build literacy from that point. This will then result in respecting the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948, Article 2) and in reference to educational rights which states, "Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms such as colour, race, religion, and language." In addition, UNESCO (2003, 2018) state that mother tongue instruction is cardinal for literacy acquisition and that it should be extended in the learning situation to as late as possible. Indeed, the Zambia literacy policy extended the literacy instruction from two years to four years, yet it has been characterised by monolingual practices thereby not adhering to the declaration discussed herein. With the translanguaging practices at play, such important matters are taken into consideration and seeing how they manifest in the classroom provided concrete evidence on how teachers and schools should engage the learner's local language to develop literacy skills.

The use of the language orientation theory provides classroom learning experiences that may be more meaningful for pupils if school teaching materials are more motivating and conform to the learner's language (Rahko-Ravanti, 2016). It seems that students' linguistic background affects their assessment of performance in school since instruction is dependent on linguistic knowledge which is either suppressed or encouraged in class. Each child brings to school certain disadvantages and advantages according to his or her personal capacities or home background which have to be turned into opportunities for them to appreciate the education system. These factors decide the extent to which the school was able to provide the student with knowledge, skills, values, attitudes and help over the course of the student's educational life (Hargreaves, 2012). Therefore, this study positioned the translanguaging or experimental classes as classes which had its teachers

holding the views of the language orientation ideologies and democratise their learning and classes. They used the learners' language as a resource to aid literacy learning while their practices manifested in respecting the learners' rights to language whereas holding a positive view on language as a resource and not a problem. These views on language orientation enabled the researcher to interpret the teaching practices by the teachers in literacy classes.

### **4.3 Critical Discourse Analysis Theory**

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is another theory which guided this study. CDA was developed by Teun van Dijk, Norman Fairclough, Gunther Kress, Theo van Leeuwen and Ruth Wodak in the early 1990s with the support of the University of Amsterdam. Since then, a number of studies have used the principles and theories which the five scholars developed. It provided a general framework for problem-oriented social research. Through CDA, every 'text' which include an interview, focus group discussion, TV debate, press report, or visual symbol among others was conceived as a semiotic entity, embedded in an immediate, text-internal co-text as well as intertextual and socio-political context (Wodak, 2000, 2001). In relation to this study, interviews and classroom observations are linguistic entities which have to be transcribed into text so that we can make meaning of the text. This also provides a historical perspective of the historical discourse. Baker *et al.*, (2008) add that the CDA thus takes into account the intertextual and interdiscursive relationships between utterances, texts, genres and discourses, as well as extra-linguistic social/sociological variables, the history and 'archaeology' of an organization, institutional frames of a specific context of situation and processes of text production, text-reception and text consumption.

Van Dijk (2008) emphasizes that the "core" of CDA remains the systematic and explicit analysis of the various structures and strategies of different levels of text and talk'. Thus, CDA must draw on specific approaches or concepts of anthropology, history, rhetoric, stylistics, conversation analysis, literary studies, cultural studies, semantics, pragmatics, philosophy and sociolinguistics when approaching or investigating complex social

phenomena. In relation to the classroom interaction in this study, CDA guided the researcher in understanding the drawn specific approaches to the understanding of the language use in the translanguaging classes. The practices helped bring about an understanding of the meaning of the classroom languages used from various angles of linguistic analysis.

In addition, Baker (2008) contends that CDA researchers are fundamentally interested in analysing opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control, as they are manifested in language. They further argue that for CDA, language is not powerful on its own. It gains power by the use people make of it and by the people who have access to language means and public fora. In agreement with its critical theory predecessors, CDA emphasizes the need for interdisciplinary work in order to gain a proper understanding of how language functions in constituting and transmitting knowledge, in organizing social institutions or in exercising power in different domains/fields in our societies (Wodak, 2004). Therefore, the way the teachers and pupils will use language will matter most in the context. Their linguistic actions and speech acts were understood through the power of the speech or words which was used in the classroom by both the teachers and the pupils. This provided guidance on how classroom interaction helped the teachers and learners in meaning making out of the languages they used during the lesson.

Very few linguistic forms have not, at some stage, been pressed into the service of the expression of power, for example, by a process of syntactic or textual metaphor. CDA analyses the ways in which such linguistic forms are used in various expressions and manipulations of power and control (Chilton, 2004). Power is signalled not only by grammatical forms within a text, but also by a person's control of a social occasion, by means of the genre of a text, or by access to certain public spheres. It is often exactly within the genres associated with given social occasions that power is exercised or also challenged (Muntigl *et al.*, 2000; Wodak, 1996, 2007). Textual power was linked to the

learner's ability to use one language to influence learning and meaning making in another language in the classroom situation through the various classroom interactions. Learners' texts were the basis of analysis to conclude how their linguistic collection was manifesting both in speech and written.

Baker (2008) contrasts that a 'critical' analysis would not only be interested in accounting for what linguistic elements and processes exist in a text or set of texts but would also need to explain why and under what circumstances and consequences the producers of the text have made specific linguistic choices among several other options that a given language may provide. That is, a critical analysis takes into account absences as well as presences in the data (Kress and Van Leeuwen, 2001). This justifies the use of CDA rather than purely descriptive, data-driven approaches which are epistemologically inadequate in accounting for the complex linguistic choices made during the processes of text production. Classroom interaction uses a language which enables the respondents to interact and share meaning. To this, it was then significant that specific text analysis of text choice by both teachers and learners were considered so as to make meaning of the translanguaging practices which were embedded in the classrooms. Through text isolation from the various utterances observed and recorded, such common traits and trends were understood in this study.

CDA is another avenue which exposes how government policies and directives coupled with directives issues to teachers and their decisions can be accepted, rejected and at times ignored in the process of providing teaching and learning practices which are inclusive (Mwanza, 2016). In addition, Bwalya (2018) cites Huckin *et al.*, (2012) that the classroom is a place where power is circulated, exploited, managed, negotiated, resisted and often directly impacted by institutional policies and changes. This provided a clue as to how the teachers' practices may at times contradict the government policies in order to offer sound and relevant education to the learners in some communities for reasons beyond policy. As much as the policy imposes its view on the teaching practices, the teachers

have the power to reject and modify what ought to be reasonable to their situation and condition.

The teachers' powers manifest in the classroom through imposing the use of the language of instruction while suppressing the other languages. The use of a monolingual instruction in a classroom was made possible by the teacher since it was only him or her who has the powers to democratise the classroom. In this study, the teachers' role in classroom was influenced by the learners' ability to use their languages to interact and share knowledge with the support of the teachers. Through this power circulation, learners were able to get out of the cocoon and meaningfully interact in classrooms while making the learners and teachers share the linguistic powers in them which was also root out symbolic violence. A classroom was made a place of experimenting linguistic democratisation of language and assessed how literacy instruction flowed.

#### **4.4 Bernstein's Code and Pedagogical Discourse Theory**

The study also used the Code and Pedagogical Discourse theory by Bernstein in 1971. The theory was used to inform the teachers' practices in the classrooms and how they utilised their authority to facilitate literacy learning. Bernstein (1973) argues that every pedagogic discourse is characterised by power and control which circulates in the classrooms. The power circulation was done by the teachers who implement the proposed curriculum content through a language which was imposed on the learners according to the region they were. In relation to this study, through the power of language given to the teachers by the policy documents, they were able to control the learners, the learning and their actions in order to impart the knowledge which was proposed by the curriculum. Therefore, the teacher in a literacy class was given power to use the prescribed teaching pedagogical practices to facilitate learning.

In addition, Haugen (2009) explains on Bernstein's code theory that the code theory examines the reproduction of power in schools by looking at the way content is classified and how the interactions are framed. The theory provides an avenue to understand the

way the literacy policy as well as the constitution imposes the seven languages and favours the use of regional languages at the expense of the majority community languages which exist in the classrooms. In relation to this study, the theory enabled the researcher to engage into the classroom pedagogical practices regarding the way the teaching content was utilised to support the policy agenda and how it sidelined the classroom practices through the teacher's powers, through content and language use.

The Pedagogic Discourse theory also shows that the concepts of classification and framing are important. According to Bernstein, classification is concerned with the organisation of knowledge into the curriculum while framing is related to the transmission of knowledge through pedagogical practices (Sadovnik, 2001). Mwanza (2016) explains that classification in the education sector may refer to the governments' powers over the curriculum and regulations on what the teachers should teach and how to deliver the content while framing is concerned with the amount of control teachers and learners have over what goes on in the classroom. Framing also includes the control (or lack of it) teachers have in implementing the curriculum. In the teaching of literacy, the government has the power to control the content and the pedagogy to be used to deliver the proposed content into the classroom and it controls such through the teachers.

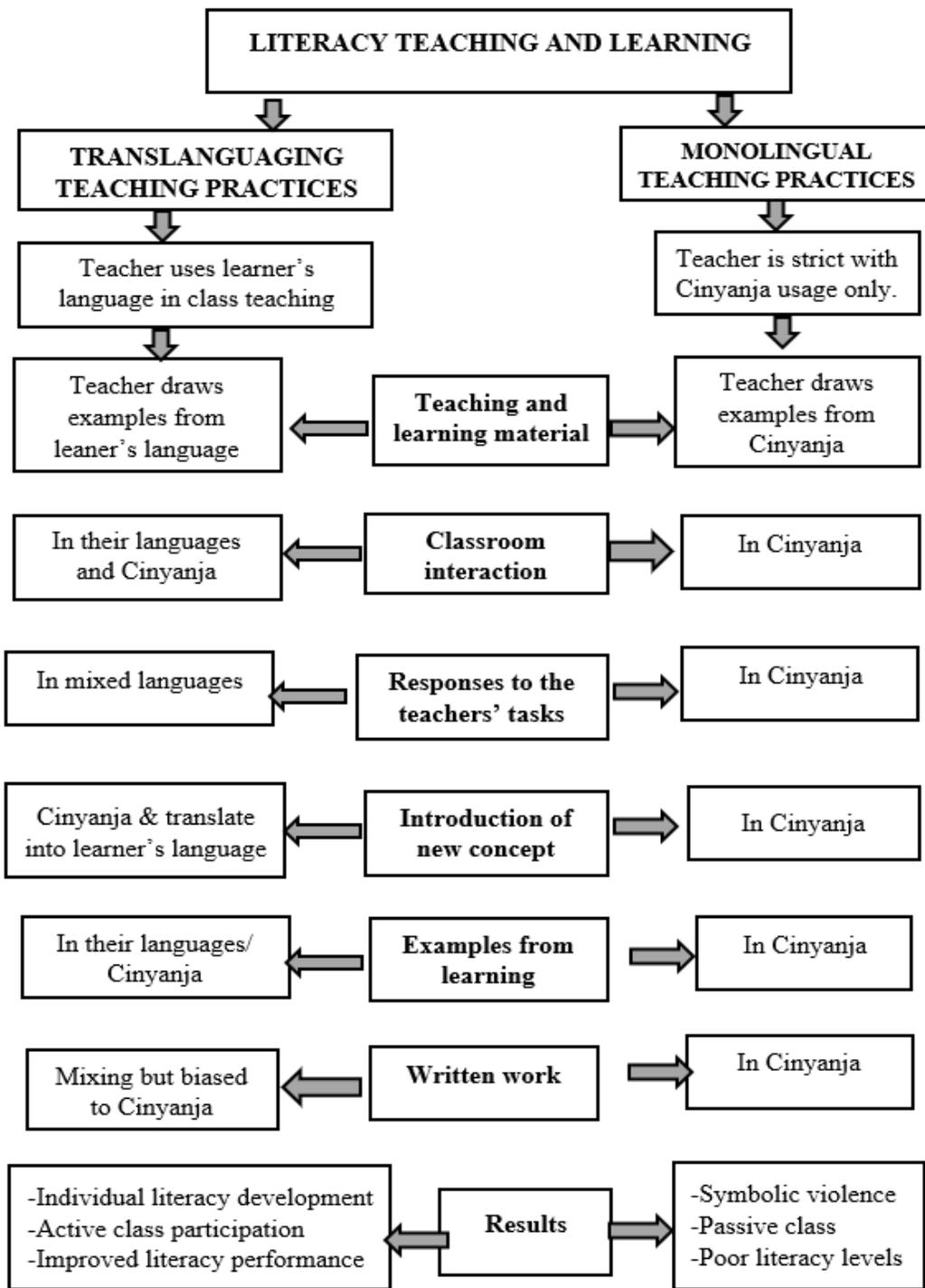
In addition, frame refers to the degree of control teacher and learner possess over the selection, organisation, pacing and timing of the knowledge transmitted and received in the pedagogical relationship (Bernstein, 1973). It can also be noted that framing can be internal or external. According to Bernstein (2000), internal framing refers to the influence the learners will have over the teaching while external framing refers to the control from outside pedagogic practice on communication. Examples of internal framing include the learners' preferences, choices, interests, background, age and other special characteristics of the learners. Examples of external framing include the influence of the government through government policies and expectations. The teacher in this context is placed between the two types of frames and ensures that he or she balances them to enable an effective pedagogical practice that inculcates the right literacy practices in the learners.

The decisions regarding the teachers' pedagogical practices may support or dispute the set and recommended teaching practices which are provided for by the syllabus. The role of the teacher is critical in the classroom as it may support internal framing which may consider learners to be significant to the classroom practices. At the same time, weak framing may lead to the teacher to make decisions of considering learners when deciding on the teaching practice. To this, Sadovnik (2001) argues that strong framing refers to a limited degree of options between teacher and students and weak framing implies more freedom. In relation with this study, the teacher was provided with a window to ensure that they used weak framing in their teaching practices to allow learners to have freedom to use their languages while learning literacy. This was the space which provided for translanguaging in the primary schools.

#### **4.5 Conceptual framework**

The conceptual framework presented in the diagram below provides the link between the teaching of literacy, between the use of the translanguaging pedagogical practices and the monolingual practices. It provides an illustration regarding the classroom practices, how the teachers engage learners and the general responses they consider in the process of teaching literacy in the two classes alongside the theories that guide their practices.

The neutral variable in the two classes to be used for experiment was the teachers. The teacher used the same teaching and learning material provided for by the schools and the government and the school atmosphere remained the same. The teachers were trained in the translanguaging practices at the same time together with their immediate supervisors so that the policy monitoring was viewed from the experimental point of view. The teacher factor in this study was resolved in the sense that the teachers who were specialised in teaching literacy were the ones who were used in the study. Therefore, the study did not interfere with the choices made by the school regarding the teaching of literacy to Grade Ones so that the results could remain as neutral as possible.



**Figure 1: Conceptual Framework**

Source: *Self made.*

The classroom interaction was another factor that was taken care of in this study before the actual teaching and while the experiment went on. The researcher being a participant observer, he ensured that a low profile was taken whilst observing the lessons. The purpose was to ensure that the teacher initiated the learners into meaning dialogue in their local language alongside the target language. This also necessitated the learners to provide responses using their language of competence on the literacy lesson of the day.

The introduction of new concept in class necessitated by the use of the target language with timely translation into the learners' language so as to provide understanding in the lesson. The teacher's role was to draw into the learner's linguistic collection of their mother languages so that they learn from what they know (home to school environment) as much as the teacher was mixing with the target language. The teacher's flexibility in the use of the classroom languages were the key components that allowed learner participation in the lesson. This also extended to the teachers' ability to understand that literacy practices were emerging within the learners hence the evidence of writing in two languages (mixed) is a sign of literacy and not failure. Through this, the teachers were able to realise that learners were using their emergent literacy skills to build on the new literacy while teachers were using the learners' literacy skills exhibited in their local languages as a resource.

In the process of appreciating the linguistic diversity of the class and as this diversity manifests in the various forms of being receptive and productive, it meant that the literacy lessons met its intended objectives. By continuously engaging learners into the translanguaging practices, the learners were active in class and there was individualised multiliteracy development which was in the target language as well as the learners' local language. Above all, the learners were high achievers in classroom assessment with regards to literacy practices.

On the monolingual practiced classes, all the variables were kept as constant as any class in the district since there was no special focus which needed intervention. The teachers held the view that the learners' language was a problem and needed suppression, hence

only Cinyanja was allowed to be used in these classes. The comparative practices in the classrooms determined the practicability of using the translanguaging pedagogical practices in the teaching of literacy to Grade One learners in the primary schools of Lundazi District.

#### **4.6 Chapter summary**

This chapter has presented the theory that guided the study. These are the three-language orientations and the critical discourse analysis. A conceptual framework has been presented last in this chapter and the next chapter present the methodology of the study.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **5.1 Overview**

This chapter presents the research paradigm and methodological choice of designs for the study, population, study sample, sampling procedures, data collection techniques and instruments. This chapter also present data collection procedures, methods of data collection, methods of data analysis, trustworthiness and reliability, ethical considerations, limitations and a chapter summary.

#### **5.2 Research paradigm**

Introducing the understanding of the world view or underlying philosophical assumptions of research is cardinal before introducing the methods in research. Different scholars have called the philosophical framework as paradigm (Creswell, 2003; 2008: Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2018: Ngulube, 2015). A research paradigm is a set of assumptions regarding how things work in the world of research. Schumacher and McMillan (2010) states that a research paradigm involves the world perspective on how research knowledge is supposed to be arrived at. They proposed a set of fixed frames through which knowledge has to be organised and investigated through.

Research is linked to the universe and its knowledge claim must be a set of coherent assumptions of knowledge. To this, a research methodology is linked to a research paradigm which is in line with the choice of a design chosen for the study. To start with, a paradigm in research is a way of looking at a research phenomenon, a world view, a view of what counts as accepted or correct scientific knowledge or way of working, an 'accepted mode of pattern' (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2018:8). Kuhn (1962) states that a paradigm is a shared belief system or set of principles, the identity of research community, a way of pursuing knowledge, consensus on what problems have to be investigated and how to investigate them, typical solutions to problems, and an understanding that is more acceptable than its rival.

Willis (2007) explains that a paradigm is thus a comprehensive belief system, world view, or framework that guides research and practice. From a philosophical perspective, a paradigm comprises a view of the nature of reality (ontology), whether it is external or internal to the knower; a related view of the type of knowledge that can be generated and standards for justifying it (epistemology); and a disciplined approach to generating that knowledge (methodology). In addition, Creswell (2014:5) observes that researchers who plan a study need to consider the study in terms of the philosophical worldview assumptions, the research design that relate to this worldview and the specific methods or procedures of research that translate the approach to practice as it reflects the meta-theoretical traditions.

### **5.2.1 Positivist Paradigm**

This ‘scientific’ research paradigm strives to investigate, confirm and predict law-like patterns of behaviour, and is commonly used in graduate research to test theories or hypotheses. Generally, its focus is on the objectivity of the research process (Creswell, 2008). With the emphasis on the observational evidence and scientific method, positivism accords significance to sensory experience (empiricism), observational description (intentions or attitudes), operationalisation (methodical control), measurement, hypothesis testing and replicability through the specification of explicit and transparent procedures for conducting research (Hammersley, 2013). The term positivism therefore refers to scientific claims on the basis of empirical evidence (Babbie and Mouton 2011:22). The positivist paradigm mostly involves quantitative methodology, utilizing experimental methods involving experimental (or treatment) and control groups and administration of pre- and post-tests to measure gain scores. Here, the researcher is external to the research site and is the controller of the research process.

This research paradigm was informed by the ontology of realism while the epistemology was the objectivism, and the methodology was quantitative. The validity and reliability

were considered in this type of research while data was analysed using a statistical tool and presented in tables and quantifications to justify the relationship for the claim.

### **5.2.2 Constructivism or interpretivism paradigm**

Constructivism pertains to the phenomenological (interpretivism) paradigm. Whereas positivism emphasises similarities between the object of natural and social science, the phenomenological tradition emphasises the differences between them. In this tradition, the researcher “identifies the essence” of human experiences pertaining to the phenomenon. The aim of human sciences pertains to the understanding of people (Babbie and Mouton 2011:28). Constructivism or socially constructed knowledge pertains to knowledge claimed through assumptions. Assumptions pertain to an understanding of the world in which they work and live (Creswell 2003:8; 2014:8). Constructivism is therefore, a knowledge claim based on understanding; multiple participant meanings; social and historical construction and theory generation (Creswell 2003:6)

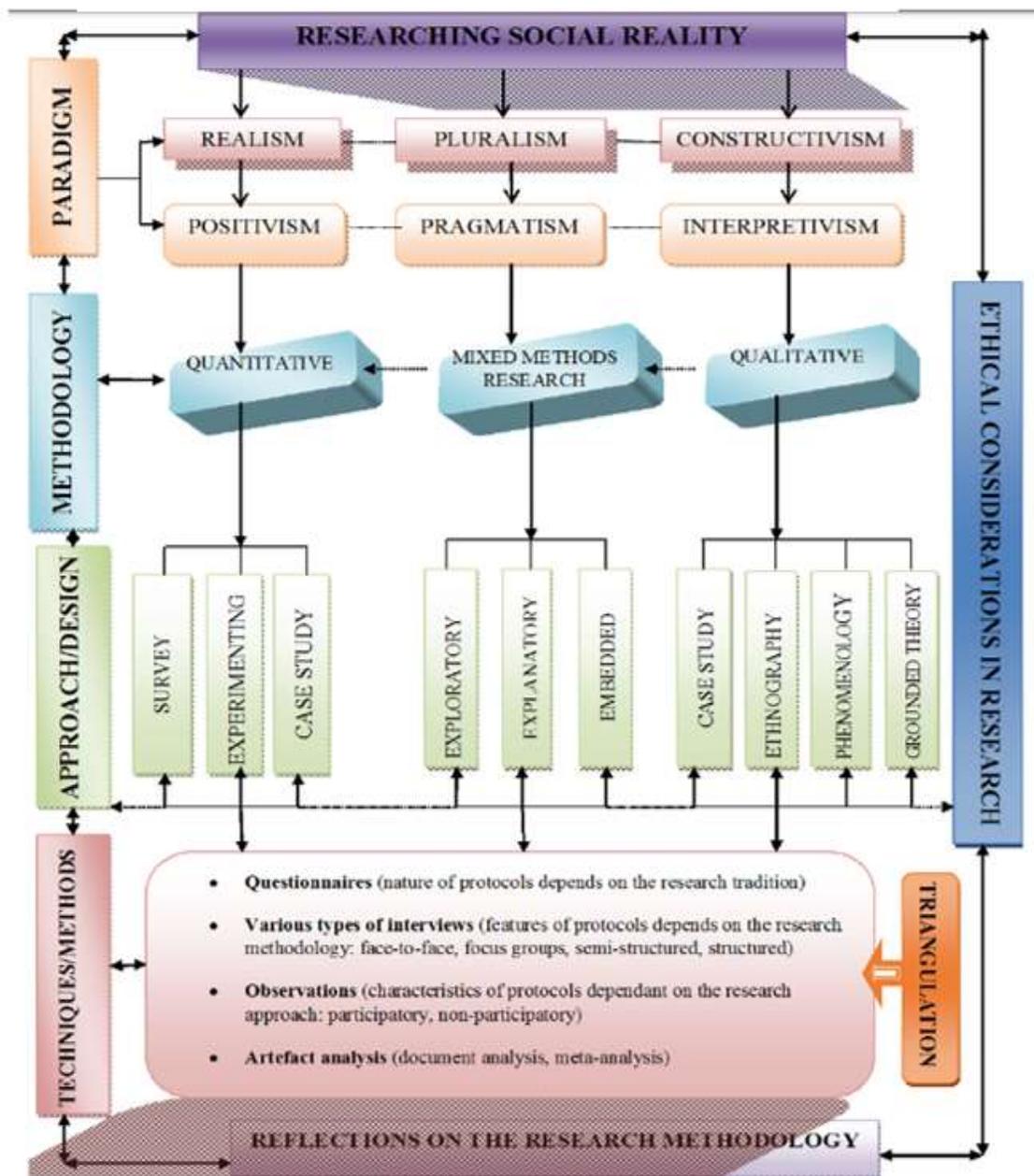
Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) add that meaning in the world is held by the people through their experiences which cannot be observed at times, but can be known when they are asked, through interaction and by staying with them for some time. They further claim that individuals seek to make meaning of their social lives and that the researcher has to examine the situation in question through the multiple lenses of individuals involved, obtain their definition of the situation, to see how they make sense and focus on their interaction and context. Creswell (2014) notes that the interpretivism is informed by the ontology of constructivism, the epistemology is the subjectivism, and the approaches include case studies, ethnography, phenomenology and grounded theory.

### **5.2.3 Pragmatism paradigm**

Pragmatism knowledge claim arises mostly from actions, situations and consequences rather than conditions as in post-positivism. Researchers then use all methods to

understand the problem (Creswell 2003:11). In this regard, Creswell (2014:11) explains that pragmatism is not committed to one philosophical system and reality; individual researchers have a freedom of choice of methods, techniques and procedures; the world is not seen as an absolute unity; truth is what works at the time; researchers look to the “what” and “how” to research based on intended consequences; pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews and assumptions as well as different forms of data collection.

In addition, Ngulube (2015:7) says Mixed Methods Research (MMR) is in the realm of multi-paradigms since it employs both the positivist and interpretivist paradigms. It is important to note that Mixed Methods Research goes beyond the boundaries of triangulation which utilises several research techniques in the same research design (Romm and Ngulube, 2015). Mixed Methods Research combines the strengths of the qualitative and quantitative methodology to produce a comprehensive and broad-based research in a pragmatic manner. The pragmatism paradigm is informed by the ontology of pluralism, the epistemology is both objective and subjective, the approaches are exploratory, explanatory and embedded and this combination enhances reliability and validity. The discussion above can be summarised diagrammatically as follows:



Source: Adopted from Ngulube (2015:6)

**Figure 2: Social Research Mapping**

This study therefore adopted the pragmatism paradigm to suit the research questions of the study. This was chosen because the study had both qualitative and quantitative

research objectives. The first objective was an experimental quantitative objective while the other three were qualitative objectives. Therefore, the combination of such objectives could only fit in the pragmatism paradigm hence the choice of the paradigm working in tandem with the research objectives.

### **5.3. Research Methodology**

There are basically three types of research approaches which are used in social science research. These are qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approach. Creswell (2009) holds that while qualitative is opposite to quantitative in theory, knowledge claim and practice, mixed methods come to combine the two and harmonises them.

#### **5.3.1 Quantitative research**

Quantitative studies deal with the measuring of variables and proving of the hypothesis (Hopkins, 2000). Thomas (1998) adds that quantitative approach deals with the generation of numerical and statistical data by comparing the variables which are being tested in a given study. In measuring variables, statistical tools are used to analyse the data that has been collected. Tests are then conducted to generate the means so as to understand how the variables influence each other (Creswell, 2009). In quantitative studies, numbers give meaning to the researcher. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) mention that quantitative research is characterised by four designs which are surveys, longitudinal, cross-sectional, experimental and trend-studies. Quantitative studies are more to do with testing and providing statistical differences in behaviour and results. The quantitative approach was not appropriate for this study because the objectives of the study were not numerically measurable, and the study was not guided by the hypothesis.

#### **5.3.2 Qualitative research**

Qualitative approach is the subjective method of investigating a phenomenon and it takes place in the natural setting of the respondents and participants (Jha, 2008). Qualitative research also explores real life experiences, the causes of certain behaviours and the results with their meaning that participants attach (Newby 2010:116; Powell and

Connaway 2004:59). The qualitative designs help researchers to collect quantities of verbal data from respondents, organise these into a logical format, describe them and then use the findings to form hypotheses and build theories “from the ground up” (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005:95). Qualitative data is usually non-numeric (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2010). The qualitative designs include phenomenological, ethnographic, grounded theory, historical, case study, and action research (McMillan & Schumacher 2001:31; Jha 2008:45). Qualitative designs are responsible for the collection of data through observations, interviews, personal experiences and other verbal means. Such data is organised into logical themes which are described and used to understand the problem at hand (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005:95). By considering the foregoing argument on methodologies, the study did not use the qualitative methodology because the nature of the topic needed exploring and observing the classroom environment where learners were learning in and make conclusions from the interaction on how the learning took place.

### **5.3.3 Mixed Methods Research**

The long-standing disputation between qualitative and quantitative was equalised with the introduction of the mixed methods in research. It must be mentioned from the onset that this is the methodology which was adopted and employed in this study. By definition, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007:123) say a mixed methods research is whereby researchers mix components, like data collection and analysis techniques, from both the qualitative and quantitative methods so as to add “breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration”. Creswell (2009) adds that the mixed methods design is the way to go because it bridges the gaps between the challenges of the methods and complements on them. It uses the double strength of the narratives and numbers to provide validity of the findings. Creswell (2014) adds that the triangulation applied in its diversity makes the design to be more reliable unlike using one of them. It is in the same context that Vogt (2007:8) says that:

*If you conduct a survey, you can ask your respondents open-ended questions about public policies that require them to write*

*paragraphs and that require you to use qualitative techniques to analyse the paragraphs; or you could ask respondents to rate public policies on a scale from 1 to 10 and then use quantitative techniques to tally and analyse the results.*

However, the point of theory combination brings about many questions in its theoretical perspective, yet its practicality yields better fruits. The study used a mixed methods design. Mixed methods design is defined by Creswell (2015:2) as:

*An approach to research in the social, behavioral and health sciences in which the investigator gathers both quantities (closed ended) and qualitative (open ended) data, integrates the two and then draws interpretations based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problem.*

Further, Tashakkori and Creswell (2007:3) define mixed methods research as “research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches.” It is argued that in any mixed methods study, the purpose of mixing qualitative and quantitative methods should be clear in order to determine how the analytic techniques relate to one another and how, if at all, the findings should be integrated (O’Cathain *et al.*, 2008; Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie, 2003). It has also been claimed that a characteristic of truly mixed methods studies are those which involve integration of the qualitative and quantitative findings at some stage of the research process, be that during data collection, analysis or at the interpretative stage of the research (Kroll and Neri, 2009). From the foregoing discussion, it can be perceived that mixed methods research can be viewed as an approach which draws upon the strengths and perspectives of each method, recognising the existence and importance of the physical, natural world as well as the importance of reality and influence of human experience (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

By combining qualitative and quantitative findings, an overall or negotiated account of the findings cannot be forged by using a singular approach (Bryman, 2007). Mixed methods can also help to highlight the similarities and differences between particular aspects of a phenomenon (Bernardi *et al.*, 2007). Interest in, and expansion of, the use of mixed methods designs has recently been fuelled by pragmatic issues: the increasing demand for cost effective research and the move away from theoretically driven research to research which meets policymakers' and practitioners' needs and the growing competition for research funding (Brannen, 2009; O'Cathain *et al.*, 2007).

In the context of this study, in order to answer the stated research questions of the study, a mixed methods approach was used. This approach was relevant because it helped the researcher to generate the types of data which were both correct and appropriate for the research objectives/questions.

#### **5.4 Research design**

A research design is an overall strategy that is used by a researcher to combine different components of the study in a coherent and logical manner to ensure that the research problem is adequately addressed (University of California Libraries, 2015). The term research design has been defined differently by different scholars yet meaning the same. A research design as, "a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings" (Burns and Grove, 2003:195). Kothari (2004) says a research design deals with decisions regarding what, where, when, how much, by what means concerning an inquiry or a research study. He adds that a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure.

Similarly, Tavakoli (2012) defined the term as the architectural plan of a research project. He further says that a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose. Sigh

(2006) also says a research design is a mapping strategy. It is essentially a statement of the object of the inquiry and the strategies for collecting the evidence, analyzing the evidence and reporting the findings. In line with the various definitions, it is important to acknowledge that there are a number of research designs which researchers use in order to answer the set questions in their study. There are basically three research designs from which a researcher chooses with regards to the objectives given in a study. These are qualitative design, quantitative design and a mixed methods design.

The number of research designs are increasing year by year in line with new discoveries and purpose for the research methods. For instance, Mulenga (2015:74) cited Creswell and Clark (2011) counting six types of mixed methods being; (i) the explanatory sequential design, (ii) the embedded design, (iii) the convergent parallel design, (iv) the transformative design, (v) the exploratory sequential design and (vi) the multiphase design. One more design has been added to these. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018:40) says there are now seven, being; (i) parallel design, (ii) sequential/multi-stage/multi-phase stage design, (iii) combined sequential design, (iv) explanatory design, (v) exploratory design, (vi) embedded design, (vii) transformative design. This study used the sequential multi-stage multi-phase stage design. In this design, the researcher collected both qualitative and quantitative data in stages for a period of four months, compare them and use the findings to answer the research questions.

In elaborating how the multi-phase stage design is used, Creswell and Clark (2011) observe that the quantitative and qualitative data can be concurrent and or sequential, depending on the phase of the research in which they are being used. This study had six phases of implementation and data collection. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) contends that these stages or phases have to be accumulative or incremental in that, one phase builds on, and is informed and influenced by, the preceding phase in addressing the overall purposes of the research. The first phase of the study dealt with pre-testing the learners. The second phase was the training of teachers in translanguaging pedagogies

and demonstrations on how they work in literacy and language lessons. The third phase dealt with the three months implementation of the pedagogies in two Grade One classes in a multilingual context. The fourth phase was the continuous classroom observations of the implementation phase, the fifth phase was the post testing and the sixth and final phase was the interview phase. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) add that it is important that each stage should be connected to the overall study and that it should be interactive and further help answer the questions of the study. Indeed, these phases were connected and interactive from the beginning up to the end of the whole four months period.

In this study, the multi-phase stage design was suitable to compare whether translanguaging is more educationally beneficial than monolingual practices in the Grade One multilingual classrooms of Lundazi District. In this study, the qualitative phase started with the training of teachers in two schools on how to use translanguaging pedagogies to teach literacy and language in the first phase of the study. Demonstrations on how to teach literacy and language using the pedagogy were done in their classes and on their learners to justify the participant observer status. The quantitative phase of pre-testing the learners on the language and literacy skills they have before the term's learning starts was conducted in both classes, the monolingual and the treatment class. The qualitative phase then continued with the teaching and learning in the two classes whilst classroom observations and interventions were taking place. Both qualitative and quantitative phases were used to understand the progressive comparative analysis between the treatment class and the monolingual. This phase was on going and attended to the three research questions; What were the benefits of translanguaging pedagogical practices in a Grade One multilingual classroom? What were the translanguaging practices in a multilingual Grade One literacy class of Lundazi District? and what challenges did teacher and pupils face when teaching/learning literacy through translanguaging pedagogical practices?

The quantitative and qualitative phases of testing, observation and interviewing also helped determine the challenges pupils and teachers were facing through the teaching/learning literacy through translanguaging pedagogy. The various phases in this study enabled the researcher to explain the statistical difference between the two pedagogies, provide detailed explanations on the two and draw conclusions. Therefore, the various phases in the study were linked to each other in order to bring about a sanctity comparison.

### **5.5 Population**

Population of the study is defined differently. According to Msabila and Nalaila (2013), population refers to a complete set of elements (persons or objects) that possess some common characteristics defined by the sampling criteria established by the researcher. White (2003) defined a population as the universe of units from which the sample is to be selected. The study population included Grade One pupils in the primary schools and teachers of literacy teaching in urban Lundazi District of Zambia. This population was relevant for the study because it was the population which had schools with multilingual schools and children in the district. In total, the total population was 101. Of these, 100 were pupils while one was a teacher who taught both classes.

### **5.6 Sample Size**

Kasonde-N'gandu (2014) says sample is a portion of the population. Sidhu (2014) defines sample as a small proportion of a population selected for observation and analysis. In this study, the sample was drawn from the teachers and pupils from one primary school of Lundazi District. The sample of the study included 82 Grade One pupils in two Grade One classes. Each Grade One class had forty-one (41) pupils and one teacher taught literacy making the total sample to be 83. In the sampled school, one class was on translanguaging instruction while the other class was on the usual monolingual instruction. The inclusion criteria for the pupils were that only those pupils from both classes who wrote both the pre- test and post-test would be part of the final sample. Thus,

while the number of pupils in the two classes were more than 41 each, the number of pupils who wrote both tests was 41 respectively. Some pupils failed to make it to be part of the sample because they either missed the pre-test, the post-test or they missed both due to absenteeism. Only those who consistently attended lessons and wrote both tests made up the sample.

The education system and schools had new teacher guidelines which called for subject specialization at the primary level. Due to this development, there was one teacher teaching literacy to grade classes at lower level hence the teacher factor was eliminated in this study. Thus, the teacher factor did not affect the outcome of the study because the same teacher taught both classes. In order to ensure correctness and appropriateness, the researcher trained the teacher handling the Grade Ones in translanguaging pedagogical practices during term one holiday and scheming for term two was done in collaboration. Since the training was organized with the help of the district officials, the District Education Standards Officer, the District Resource Centre Coordinator, the senior teacher, the deputy head and the zonal insert coordinator who was the teacher of literacy for Grade Ones were trained together at the resource centre. These were trained for the purpose of quality assurance and to ensure that they all knew and understood exactly what the experiment would involve and what the role of the teacher would be. This was also important as it formed part of the informed consent where all the relevant education officers in the district were made aware of the study and its scope.

### **5.7 Sampling Techniques**

Sampling is the act, process, or technique of selecting a suitable sample, or a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population (Mugo, 2002). In order to come up with the right sample for the study, purposive and random sampling techniques were used.

### **5.7.1 Purposive sampling**

Purposive sampling techniques were used to select the one school and one Grade One teacher for the study. Maximum variation sampling was used to sample Lundazi District of the eastern province. Maximum variation sampling according to Patton (1990) involves purposefully picking a wide range of variation on dimensions of interest. This records unique or diverse variations that have emerged in adapting to different conditions. It also identifies important common patterns that cut across variations. The unique feature for Lundazi to be sampled in this study was the evidence that the language of instruction in the district was different from the language of play. The teacher of literacy was homogeneously sampled in this study. Patton (1990) states that Homogeneous sampling reduces variation, simplifies analysis, facilitates group interviewing and instead of having the maximum number of participants, it may focus on one participant of interest. In this study, the teacher was homogeneously sampled because that was the one teacher who was teaching literacy in the Grade One classes.

### **5.7.2 Random Sampling**

A random sample allows a known probability that each elementary unit will be chosen. For this reason, it is sometimes referred to as a probability sample and this is the type of sampling that is used in lotteries and raffles (Lapin, 1987). In order to come up with the school, stream and classes for this study, simple random sampling procedures were followed. Patton (1990) states that a simple random sample is obtained by choosing elementary units in a way that each unit in the population has an equal chance of being selected. A simple random sample is free from sampling bias. In this study, Lundazi District had four primary schools which had multilingual characteristics in class. All these four schools were located in the town centre of Lundazi District. In order to sample one school, a raffle draw was conducted at the office of the District Education Standards Office. A box was placed on the table which contained the four pieces of paper written on them. Three papers were written (NO) while one paper was written (YES). Four officers were called to represent the four schools which had the multilingual classroom

environment. Each officer adopted a name of one school and was allowed to pick a paper from the box. After all the papers were picked, the officers were asked to read what was written on the paper. In the used procedure, one school was sampled for the study which was picked by an officer with the YES paper.

The sampled school had three streams of Grade Ones being morning, mid-morning and afternoon. In order to sample the stream for the study, random sampling procedures were used. Through the office of the head teacher and with the help of three teachers, a box was placed on the table which contained two papers written (NO) and one paper written (YES). The three teachers represented the streams as morning, mid-morning and afternoon. The teachers were allowed to pick a paper each and the morning stream was randomly sampled for the study. Every stream had two classes attending lessons at a time and the researcher needed to come up with the experimental class and the control class. To choose these, another raffle draw was conducted to sample the class to be on experiment and to be the control. This was done with the help of the senior teacher in her office. A box was used and in it were two papers written control and experimental. To conduct the draw, the class teachers for Grade One A and B were asked to pick a paper from the box. Class teacher A picked control while class teacher B picked experimental, and this was how the researcher assigned the roles of experimental and control to the respective classes and proceeded with the study. With this sampling procedure, every school, stream and class were given an opportunity to be part of the study and there was no biasness.

### **5.8 Research Techniques and Data Collection Instruments**

Data collection instrument is any device which is used to collect the data. Instruments can be presented in written, audio, or visual format. Responses can be gathered via paper-and-pencil tests, computer administered tests, video camera, or audiotape recorder (Tavakoli, 2012). Kaonde-Ng'andu (2014) says these are the tools that the researcher uses in collecting the necessary data. In this qualitative phase of the study, the researcher used

interview guide, class observation, document analysis and field notes to collect data from the participants. Below are detailed explanations of the various data collection techniques and instruments.

### **5.8.1 Interview guide**

The term 'interview' is defined as a speech event which uses at least two linguistic varieties, the language used by the researcher and the one spoken by the interviewee (Rubio, 1997). This study used in-depth interviews as one of its research methods with some ethnographic aspects such as that they investigate and explore the beliefs of people involved in the research and that the interviewee is encouraged to answer questions in their own way and exchange questions with the interviewer (Pole and Morrison, 2003).

The process of in- depth interviewing is a research method used in qualitative research and is described as a form of conversation with purpose that enables the construction of knowledge through social interaction (Legard *et al.*, 2003). In addition, Boyce and Neale (2006) noted that in-depth interviews involve conducting interviews with a small group of participants to elicit and investigate their ideas and opinions about a matter. Holstein and Gubrium (1997) argued that the researcher conducting in-depth interviews does not just transmit knowledge acquired by the participant, but knowledge is created through a collaborative relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee. In doing so, interviews with the teacher in this study were characterized by such a collaborative relationship since the researcher was participating and offering his views regarding issues the participants were raising and was not focused just on transferring the opinions of the participants.

It is also important to note that specific characteristics of in-depth interviews have remained consistent through the years. An important characteristic which is consistent is that in-depth interviews combine structure with flexibility (Legard *et al.*, 2003). The researcher has in mind certain topics that will be explored during the interview, but these

themes can be covered according to the interviewee's most suited purpose, and in this way realising the in-depth interview's flexible structure (Legard et al. 2003). Similarly interviews with the teacher in this study interrogated specific topics that addressed specific research questions and were introduced in line with the nature of each interview since it was on going.

A second important feature of in-depth interviewing is its interactive nature between the researcher and the researched. The interaction starts with an initial question from the researcher which is performed in such a way that encourages the participant not only to provide the necessary information but also to feel sufficiently comfortable and free to provide more than a 'yes or no' answer on a theme (Legard et al. 2003). Thirdly, the interviewer used different techniques to encourage the participant to offer in-depth information when little information was coming out. For instance, the interviewer sought more explanation of specific issues or explore further some responses as well as the reasons, feelings, opinions and beliefs behind a participant's specific answer through probes. Fourthly, the participant was asked to give their own opinions, ideas or suggestions about a specific topic or by suggesting solutions or changes about a matter (Legard, et al. 2003). The teacher in this study was asked on the benefits she saw were accruing from the learner as a result of using translanguaging practices, how translanguaging was taking place, her comment on learner engagement and the challenges she faced in the process of teaching and learning literacy through translanguaging on the one hand.

Interviews were appropriate to collect data from the teacher since she was the individual who was experiencing the teaching and learning process using the two strands of methodologies. Boyce and Neale (2006) argue that in-depth interviews are appropriate when a researcher wants to examine in detail an individual's thoughts and behaviours. Individual in-depth interviews enable the researcher to explore deeply specific social and personal matters (DiCicco Bloom and Crabtree, 2006). The researcher had specific

themes which were discussed in an interactive manner and through probes on each theme, sufficient information was obtained for the study.

### **5.8.2 Class Observation**

The term ‘observation’ has been defined as ‘a data collection method of generating data which involve the researcher immersing him/herself in a research setting, and systematically observing dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions, events, etc., within it’ (Tavakoli, 2012:418). Observation has been defined as a ‘research characterised by a prolonged period of intense social interaction between the researcher and the subjects, in the milieu of the latter, during which time data, in the form of field notes, are unobtrusively and systematically collected’ (Wilkinson and Birmingham, 2003:118). Bogdan (1972) argues that there was no clear distinction between observation and ethnography in the practices and data collection procedures.

Observation method is a strand of the qualitative design on one hand while it is also dominant in experiment data collection in the quantitative design. What is prominent in both is that data is collected, and informed decisions are made basing on the observed behaviour. Gold (1997) says it was possible to develop a standardised procedure that could maximise observational efficacy, minimise investigator bias, and allow for replication or to check out the degree to which these procedures have enabled the investigator to produce valid, reliable data that, when incorporated into his or her published reports, will be regarded by peers as objective findings. Borofsky (1994) observe that it is through this that observation has been considered to be a reliable method of data collection through its different strands. The researcher used participant observer as a method to collect data in the translanguaging class.

Tavakoli (2011) argues that when collecting data using observational techniques, researchers aim to provide careful description of subjects’ activities without unduly influencing the events in which the subjects are engaged. The distinctive feature of

observation as a research process is that it offers an investigator the opportunity to gather live data from naturally occurring social situations. MacQueen, Guest and Namey (2011) say that participant observation is appropriate for collecting data on naturally occurring behaviours in their usual context in any qualitative approach hence this observational method was used.

Participant observation was the most suitable type of observation for this research since a key characteristic is that the observer tries to become a member of the group under investigation and provide inside information (Wei and Moyer, 2008). In addition, Marshall and Rossman (2011) argues that the use of participant observation encompasses three other observations in it. In this study, the researcher was part of the teaching staff, and the learners did not realise the researcher's role. This was helped by the fact the school had a number of new teachers on teaching practice which was enough disguise to enable the teacher collect data through observation. The researcher and teacher were physically present in their daily school life, with access to their social world, habits, their use of language and non-verbal communication and thus a member of the group under study. This research involved intensive, detailed observation of a classroom over a period of three months and observations were supplemented by other methods, such as fieldnotes, interviews with parents, use of documents such as students' coursework and assessment tests.

Lesson observation was used to collect data on the benefits of translanguaging practices in Grade One literacy classes of Lundazi District, the translanguaging practices in a multilingual Grade One literacy class of Lundazi District and the challenges the teacher and pupils faced when teaching and learning literacy through translanguaging pedagogical practices. This tool was widely used in the quest to understand translanguaging as a pedagogical practice and the monolingual practices being used in the classrooms of Lundazi District. Through observation, the researcher was able to record all the lessons the teacher taught for the term and ask where he wanted clarification.

### **5.8.3 Document Analysis**

Document analysis is another instrument that was used for data collection in this study regarding the benefits of translanguaging practices in a Grade One multilingual classroom, the translanguaging practices in a multilingual Grade One literacy class of Lundazi District, and the challenges teacher and pupils faced when teaching/learning literacy through translanguaging pedagogical practices. The teacher's lesson plans and teaching and learning materials were analysed with regards to how the teachers are using the languages in class in order to teach literacy. Other independent material like text books, board writings, learner's books and printed charts were also among the many documents that were analysed to assess whether they facilitated translanguaging or not. These provided the translanguaging practices which the teacher was using in the teaching of language or perhaps the language practices used by the teacher and pupils. The document analysis provided a cross checking device on the teaching practices the teacher had been using to teach learners if they were engaging into translanguaging alongside the interview guide and classroom observation.

### **5.8.4 Literacy Test**

A test is an instrument used to measure a specific task and knowledge according to the way it is designed (White, 2003). The literacy tests were to measure the impact of translanguaging on literacy performance among Grade One literacy learners in Lundazi District. A standardised literacy test was used as prescribed by the Ministry of General Education. The pre-test was administered to the Grade One classes to assess the literacy abilities of learners in Cinyanja just before the beginning of the experiment. Since the experiment was done in term two, the pre-test was an end of term one test which was prepared by the province for all schools. A post-test was the week 10 test which was also standardised and set by the province for all schools in Eastern province. The literacy test provided evidence on learner's performance in the two literacy classes.

## **5.9 Data collection procedure**

The study was first approved by the University of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Ethical Research Committee for commencement of data collection. A letter was gotten from the School of Education Assistant Dean Postgraduate Office to grant permission for the study to be conducted. A written permission was granted by the District Education Board Secretary (DEBS) for the study to be conducted. Permission was also sought from the head teacher in the sampled school to enable access to the teachers and pupils. Upon receiving clearance from the various stakeholders, the researcher trained the teacher in translanguaging practices during the holiday and then conduct a pre-test to the learners in the classes in the first week when schools opened, a mid-term test in week 5 and post-test in week 13. Classroom observation went on from week 1 up to week 13 while lesson discussion and postmortem with teacher was on going. Document analysis was also an ongoing process in the classroom because they are not static but progressive features of language. At the end of the term, a final interview was conducted with the teacher.

## **5.10 Data Analysis**

This section presents how data was analysed after being collected from the classroom observations and in-depth interviews. Data analysis focuses on the detection of regular patterns of action and talk that characterise a group of people (Eisenhart, 2001). The huddle of identifying such patterns is the limit of the researcher's ability to participate in multiple settings and classroom environments as well as the available amount of time that the researcher has to investigate further and most importantly the researcher's personal interests and skills (Eisenhart, 2001). In this study, the researcher ensured that sufficient time was spent in the research sites and classroom so that patterns, actions and talk were verified within the field for coherent analysis. Therefore, qualitative and quantitative data were collected for this study.

Qualitative data analysis used sociocultural discourse analysis informed by Mercer (2004) to provide a unique description and explanation of the way language functions within the

context of the classroom as well as the way thinking, and social interactions operate between students and among students and the teacher in the process of learning (Mercer, 2004). The analysis of this data was based on sociocultural discourse analysis offering extracts of transcribed dialogue and to which commentaries were provided for further explanations. The use of this type of analysis enabled the researcher to provide a more comprehensive analysis of the reality on the classroom context during the learning process, including students' translanguaging practices, the social, cultural and cognitive context of talk in relation to learning and learning difficulties and progresses in schools. The researcher reflected on the data collected, looked for similar trends, provided codes and presented the findings under themes. Coded or organised data was easier to understand and explain in that format. It involved data reduction, condensation, distillation, grouping and classification. Although it was a long and tedious process, it enabled the researcher to communicate and connect with the data to facilitate the comprehension of the emerging phenomena and to generate theory grounded in the data (Basit 2003). Data which was linked to each other from interviews, classroom observation and document analysis was presented under one theme.

For quantitative analysis, the study considered a sample of 82 since this was the sample which managed to have scores for the pre and post-test. After this manual cleaning, the tests scores were coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Firstly, descriptive statistics was run to find the mean differences between the two groups. Later, a Levene's test was run to test the equivalence of variances to check for equal variances in the two classes. The Levene's test work on two assumptions being:

- i. *if the F test is not significant ( $F > 0.05$ ), the assumption is not violated, and one uses the equal variances assumed.*
- ii. *If the F test is significant ( $F < 0.05$ ), the assumption is violated, and one uses the equal variances not assumed and the t, df and the significant value are adjusted.*

With these two assumptions tested, the study fulfilled the statistical compilation of the data analysis.

### **5.11 Trustworthiness and reliability of Instruments**

Trustworthiness or rigor of a study refers to the degree of confidence in data, interpretation, and methods used to ensure the quality of a study (Pilot and Beck, 2014). In a study, researchers should establish the protocols and procedures necessary for a study to be considered worthy of consideration by readers (Amankwaa, 2016). These criteria include credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability; they later added authenticity (Guba and Lincoln, 1994)

#### **5.11.1 Credibility**

Credibility of the study, or the confidence in the truth of the study and therefore the findings, is the most important criterion (Polit and Beck, 2014). Techniques used to establish credibility include prolonged engagement with participants, persistent observation, peer-debriefing, member-checking, and reflective journaling. Negative case analysis or alternate explanations was explored as well. The specific forms of translanguaging from learners and teachers were recorded for a prolonged period of three months and analysed over a period of three months. With strict control of the treatment class, the findings were credible.

#### **5.11.2 Dependability**

Dependability refers to the stability of the data over time and over the conditions of the study (Polit and Beck, 2014). Procedures for dependability included maintenance of an audit trail of process logs and peer-debriefings with teachers and the members of the department. Process logs included the researcher's field notes of all activities that happened during the study and decisions about aspects of the study, such as who to interview, when to interview, what to observe, who to observe and when to take notes

and on what. Dependability was gained through the constant monitoring of the teaching and learning process in the experimental class.

### **5.11.3 Confirmability**

Confirmability is the neutrality, or the degree to which the findings are consistent and could be repeated. This is analogous to objectivity in quantitative research (Polit and Beck, 2014). In some studies, these notes are reviewed by a colleague; in other studies, they may be discussed in peer-debriefing sessions with a respected qualitative researcher. These discussions prevent biases from only one person's perspective on the research. In relation to this study, the researcher constantly engaged the teacher on the decisions made in class, ensured that a strict translanguaging environment was followed, the classroom variables in the two classes were followed as planned and constant observation of all the literacy lessons to ensure there was no biasness. In other words, confirmability was followed through the use of the recommended translanguaging practices for a period of three months so that reality could be learnt from them. Through the teaching content prescribed for teaching in term two literacy classes, standard teaching and learning materials were used to facilitate the teaching of literacy in the classroom. Lastly, this was achieved through the use of standard tests, interviews, observation and document analysis which were consistent with the planned procedures for the study as approved by the ethical committee.

### **5.11.4 Transferability**

The nature of transferability, the extent to which findings are useful to persons in other settings, is different from other aspects of research in that readers determine how applicable the findings are to their situations (Polit and Beck, 2014). Through the use of trained teachers in the use of translanguaging practices, the findings are useful to the teachers and the community regarding how they should approach literacy classes for Grade One in a multilingual context. The instruments were objective and controlled in order to have the desired results and the teacher factor was an aid to results transferability.

### **5.11.5 Authenticity**

Authenticity is the extent to which researchers fairly and completely show a range of different realities and realistically convey participants' lives (Polit and Beck, 2014). Selection of appropriate people for the study sample and provision of a rich, detailed description are ways the researchers address this criterion (Schou, Høstrup, Lyngsø, Larsen, and Poulsen, 2011). Authenticity in this study was based on the sample selected being unique to other settings and their involvement. In the study, the classroom setting provided a detailed answer to the stated objectives through classroom observation, verbatims and proof of consent or data slums authenticity. Also, the use of the standardised tests and a trained teacher provided authenticity in this study.

### **5.11.6. Reliability**

The reliability of a study refers to its consistency, stability and dependability, that is, whether or not it will produce the same results if repeatedly measured under similar circumstances (Babbie 2007:143; Vogt 2007:114). For this to happen, researchers have to take great care when constructing their research instruments. LoBiondo-Wood and Haber (2014) says the reliability of the research instrument is defined as the extent to which the same instrument yields the same results on repeated measures. Reliability is concerned with consistence, accuracy, precision, stability, equivalence and homogeneity. In order to ensure reliability in the instruments used in this study, the instruments (literacy assessment tests) were prepared by the Eastern province literacy assessment committee and they tested the instruments before sending to the districts. At district level, with the help of the District Resource Centre Coordinator, the researcher was part of the district quality assurance team which evaluated the assessment tests with regards to:

- a. The phraseology of the test items
- b. Clarity of the test items
- c. Clarity of instructions
- d. Responder-instrument friendliness
- e. Content in the questions

f. Design of the picture and their relevance

The district quality assurance team made few typology errors and then approved the tests to be relevant for the learners.

### **5.11.7 Validity**

The concept of ‘validity’ of a study refers to whether or not the concept being measured is what the study actually intended to measure, or “the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration” (Babbie 2007:146). In this study, through the use of the provincial literacy assessment which was approved by the province and also revised by the district, the research instrument was valid in all its aspects to enable collect quantitative data and hence the study findings were valid too.

### **5.12 Ethical considerations**

Data collection has to follow stipulated ethical measures, protect and maintain the interest of both the researcher and the researched at all times (Bell, 1995). This study considered the following ethical measures.

#### **5.12.1 Approval of the study**

The study was first approved by the University of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Ethical Committee. Secondly, the researcher obtained an introductory letter from the School of Education Assistant Dean Postgraduate to conduct a study. In addition, the researcher sought written permission from the District Educational Board Secretary of Lundazi and sought permission to conduct research in the sampled school. Data collection only commence after an approval was done by the relevant authorities.

#### **5.12.2 Informed Consent**

It is important to realise that participants have the right to participate and not to participate in a study at hand. Tuckman (1994) noted that the choice to participate in the study lies in the participant and his or her will to do so. For this reason, the informed consent is

signed between the researcher and the respondent (Robson, 1995). An informed consent form was presented to the participants through explaining the nature of the research, its impact and participant implication. It also informed the participants that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time during the study. In doing so, the researcher explained to the respondents the need for their participation, their roles and any information they needed to be known before the research could start. Permission to conduct the study on Grade One learners was sought from the parents who gave the school head teacher a go ahead to sign on their behalf. The teacher also signed a consent and participated in the study after understanding the realm of the study.

### **5.12.3 Confidentiality and Anonymity**

In this study, the identity of the participants regarding their names and the kind of data they provided was not exposed to any person. In data analysis, the names of the schools, teachers, pupils and areas are not mentioned so as to protect their image and integrity. All data recordings were kept in a password folder which was only accessible by the researcher, and this was deleted after completion of writing the document.

### **5.12.4 Access to Results**

Results from the field were only accessible after the completion of the study and after the publication of the paper was done. In addition, a copy of the findings would be given to the District Education Board Secretary and the stakeholders involved after the successful completion of the program.

### **5.13 Limitations of the study.**

Every study records a number of limitations which are resolved while the study is being conducted to ensure reliable data is collected. This study too had its own limitations which were resolved to ensure the findings were reliable. Firstly, translanguaging being a new concept in the Zambian schools, it was not easy to sell the idea to the district for them to

allow me to conduct the study. However, with enough explanation from the theoretical and practical point of view, the authorities understood the need for the study to be conducted and granted me permission. This became clearer during the training where district education officers attended, and they got the explanation during the time the teacher was being trained. Secondly, despite the teacher being trained, she was not comfortable to translanguage. The researcher constantly reminded the teacher on the new practice. After three days, she was able to translanguage freely and the lessons progressed independently from the monolingual classes.

#### **5.14 Chapter summary**

This chapter discussed the research paradigm, methodology, research design, population, sample, sampling procedure, and instruments of data collection, data collection procedure, data analysis, trustworthiness, ethical considerations and a chapter summary. The next chapter presents the findings of the study.

## CHAPTER SIX

### PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

#### 6.1 Overview

The previous chapter explained the methodology which was used to collect data for this study. This chapter presents the findings of the study. The findings are based on the data collected using test (assessment) for term two, classroom observation, interviews and field notes from a Grade One literacy class in 2019. The chapter will present findings using the following research questions.

1. What impact did translanguaging have on literacy performance of Grade One learners in Lundazi District?
2. What are the benefits of Translanguaging practices in a Grade One multilingual literacy class?
3. How was translanguaging practiced in a Grade One multiliteracy classroom in Lundazi District?
4. What challenges did the teacher and pupils face when teaching/learning literacy through translanguaging pedagogical practices?

The research questions were answered using different instruments of data collection. Data will be presented under themes in the qualitative research questions in this study. The next subheading presents findings from the first research question.

#### **6.2 What Impact did Translanguaging have on Literacy Performance of Grade One Learners in Lundazi District?**

The study findings were collected quantitatively using assessment. Quantitative findings were from the tests which assessed the literacy performance. The pupils who wrote both the pre-test and post-test were 41 in each class hence the findings are based on the 82 participants.

### 6.2.1 Findings

The translanguaging class used the learner's languages in class to teach literacy while focusing on the target regional language, Cinyanja. The control class used monolingual practices which are characterised by using only one language, Cinyanja, to teach literacy. In the two classes, one literacy teacher taught the two classes. The policy guidelines in the primary schools calls for teacher specialisation hence literacy teachers were specialised to teach literacy in this school while other teachers taught their specialisations. The pre-test was administered to the two classes on the first day of term two, 2019 while the post test was administered in the last week of the term. The two tests were regional standardized tests which are set and distributed to the districts by the province assessment committee.

The first research question involved the testing of Grade One learners before intervention. The learners in the treated and control classes were given a pre-test in literacy at the start of the term before the translanguaging practices were introduced to the treated class. After the marking and scoring, one class was treated with the translanguaging pedagogical practices in the teaching of literacy while the other class was taught using the monolingual practices. At the end of the term, a post test was also administered to the two Grade One classes, and the scores were analysed using a *Levene's test* to see if the scores were significant or not. In the two classes, 41 learners from each class wrote both the pretest and the post test. The study was guided by the hypothesis presented below:

- i.  $H_0$  there is no significant difference in literacy performance between a translanguaging and a monolingual Grade One multilingual class of Lundazi District, and
- ii.  $H_1$  there is a significant difference in literacy performance between a translanguaging and a monolingual Grade One multilingual class of Lundazi District.

In order to prove the hypothesis, the means between the two groups' pretest and post test were run, and the results were as follows:

**Table 1: Mean results for the two Groups on pre and post test**

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest	Experimental group	41	9.83	3.081	.481
	Control group	41	11.83	3.162	.494
Post-test	Experimental group	41	15.10	1.841	.288
	Control group	41	11.71	4.512	.705

Results in table 1 presents the mean differences between the translanguaging group (experimental group) and the monolingual group (control group). From the pretest, the mean for the experimental class was 9.83 while the mean for the post test results was 15.10. The results show an increase of 5.27 in mean between the pretest and post test results. Meanwhile, the mean for the control group's pretest was 11.83 while the mean results for the post test was 11.71 with a difference on -0.12. While the mean difference between the pretest and post test for the experimental group showed an increase, the mean difference for the control group showed a reduction. To assess if there was a significance between the two groups, a Levene's test was used.

In order to assess the impact of the translanguaging teaching practices, the Levene's test for equivalence of variances was run to test the equivalence of variances to check for equal variances. The findings in the table below revealed performance of pupils in the experimental and control groups in the pretest.

**Table 2: Mean. Standard deviation and t-value scores of pretest**

Group names		N	M	SD	df	t	p	d
Pretest	Experimental group	41	9.830	3.081	80	-2.901	0.005	.640
	Control group	41	11.83	3.102				
The t and the df were not adjusted because the variances were equal, $F=.238$ , $p>0.627$ ( $>0.05$ )								

*The assumptions for the Levene's test were that:*

- iii. if the F test is not significant ( $F>0.05$ ), the assumption is not violated, and one uses the equal variances assumed.*
- iv. If the F test is significant ( $F<0.05$ ), the assumption is violated, and one uses the equal variances not assumed and the t, df and the significant value are adjusted.*

Table 2 shows that the average mean scores for experimental group was significantly different from the control group [ $t(80) = 2.901$ ,  $p=0.005$ ]. The average mean scores for the experimental group ( $M=9.830$ ) while the control group was lower ( $M=11.83$ ). The Cohen's  $d=0.64$  for the pretest showed the medium effect size between 0.5 and 0.8. Since the effect size was on the medium, the groups started at the same level of achievement.

The table below also compared the performance of pupils in the experimental and control groups in the post-test.

**Table 3: Mean. Standard deviation and t-value scores of post-tests**

Group names		N	M	SD	df	t	p	d
Post-test	Experimental group	41.	15.10	1.841	52.96	4.454	0.000	.980
	Control group	41	11.71	4.512				
The <i>t</i> and the <i>df</i> were adjusted because the variances were not equal, $F=31.175$ , $p<0.0001$ ( $<0.05$ )								

The table 3 shows that the post test results for experimental group were significantly different from the control group [ $t(52.960) = 4.454$ ,  $p<0.001$ ]. The average mean score for the experimental group was ( $M=15.10$ ) while the control group was lower at ( $M=11.71$ ). The Cohen's  $d=0.98$  for the post-test which showed the large effect size of above .8. Therefore, the intervention in the experimental group (translanguaging class) led to improved learner performance in literacy as evidenced in the post test results. From the results in table 3, we can reject the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) which stated that there is no significant difference in literacy performance between a translanguaging and a monolingual Grade One multilingual class of Lundazi District. Therefore, the results confirm the alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ ) that there is a significant difference in literacy performance between a translanguaging and a monolingual Grade One multilingual class of Lundazi District. It can be concluded that teaching literacy using translanguaging pedagogical practices had a positive impact and lead to better literacy performance of learners compared to the monolingual practices in multilingual classes.

### **6.3 What are the Benefits of Translanguaging Practices in a Grade One Multilingual Literacy Class of Lundazi District?**

Qualitative data were collected from interviews with the teacher, and this was complemented through the field notes. The teacher was interviewed on the benefits of which she perceived while using translanguaging practices in her multilingual Grade One class.

#### **6.3.1 Findings from interview with the Teacher**

The teacher realised that as a result of teaching Grade One learners using the translanguaging practices in a multilingual class, there was improved learner participation in the classroom. This was because learners were able to use their languages without restrictions. The teacher said:

*The first benefit I saw was that learners were in a free environment which supported the learning of literacy. After I provided the linguistic freedom for them to actually interact and share their answers with others at their desks and then give me the answer to the question in their languages. This encouraged every child to participate and talk about the sounds of the day in their languages freely.*

*Secondly, I liked the participation. It was complete and every learner wanted to give his or her answer in the different languages in which they knew the sound of the day. I can say the learners provided long lists of words for the sounds which were familiar to Tumbuka. I just chose what to write on the board so that we don't fill the board. This made me realise how much I have used language to make learners not to participate in the*

*teaching and learning process for the past years I have taught in multilingual classes whose language is not Cinyanja. Even the quite learners are active in the translanguaging class which is encouraging.*

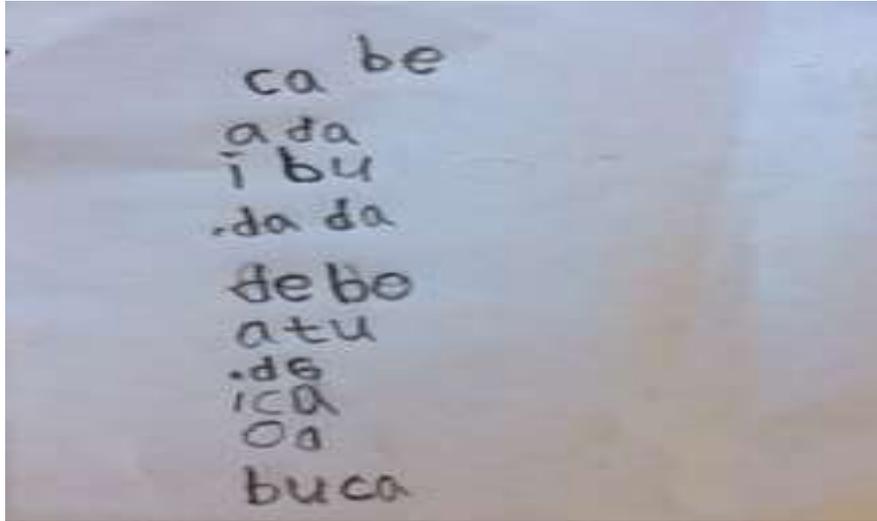
The benefits of translanguaging in the multilingual literacy class was that through the provision of a relaxed linguistic environment in class by the teacher, the learners stopped avoiding classes. Since the language barriers were broken in the translanguaging class, the learners' class attendance improved. The teacher said:

*I can tell you that my learners have even stopped avoiding lessons compared to my other classes. Last term, this translanguaging class was not fully attended by the learners compared to the other two classes. But ever since they were able to use their language in class, the attendance has indeed improved, and this is what I have to like about this teaching practice.*

The learners had also become literate in their local languages as well as the language of instruction. This was observed from the answers they gave when they were asked to give words which corresponded to the sound of the day. They provided many answers in line with the sound of the day which existed in their languages. The teacher said:

*Multiliteracy was actually taking place in the translanguaging class because learners were able to differentiate between a correct word in Tumbuka and Cinyanja according to the sound of the day. They also translated the words between languages to enable the other learners realise what the word was in their language.*

This was also seen from the scripts which the learners wrote in class as below in figure 3:



**Figure 3: Multiliteracy development**

In figure 3, learners were given a word chart which had a list of sounds which they learnt in Term One as a form of revision in class. The teacher asked the learners to write words on a piece of paper in their groups. The groups presented words which were well written and were common in the classroom languages. The words are written in different languages which include, Nyanja, Cinyanja, Tumbuka and English but localized words. The teacher further stated that:

*Further, learners were able to make use of their emergent literacy to make sense of what the teacher was teaching about. The learners were able to correct each other in class and agree on the answer using Tumbuka and respond either in Tumbuka or Cinyanja.*

The benefit was that learners were able to actively participate and identify words according to the different languages which were written on the board. Learners were able to identify words from the different languages through matching using and cue cards as presented in figure 4:



**Figure 4: word identification**

In order for the learners to accomplish the word identification tasks, the teacher gave instructions in Tumbuka so that learners can easily follow what the teacher wanted them to achieve. The learners were free to seek clarification from the teacher on the task and ask questions using Tumbuka. Learners also discussed the answers in familiar languages before sending a group representative to go and match the answer on the board. They were able to interact socially and academically between languages and correct each other regarding word matching during group work using classroom languages.

The other benefit the teacher's mentioned was that learners were able to make a distinction between Cinyanja and Tumbuka words in their responses to the questions and instructions. Learners were also able to realise the phonemic and phonetic differences and

similarities between Tumbuka and Cinyanja words in their writing of the class work. The teacher said:

*Later in my use of translanguaging, I realised that my learners were able to differentiate that this sound was not in their language while others were present. For example, when I was teaching the sound /ts/ and /dz/, the learners were open to use Tumbuka and tell me that such sounds did not exist in the Tumbuka language. I rejoiced because the learners were playing between two languages and made sense from the learning.*

Despite the words being different in the two languages, the teacher used the differences to teach the new word especially after introducing the picture which had the *udzu* (grass) word. The teacher later used another chart which had the sun *dzuwa* word to teach the sound of the day. The word ‘sun’ is pronounced the same in Tumbuka and Nyanja while they are different in spelling. *Zuwa* is Tumbuka while *dzuwa* is Nyanja.

***Field note 1, 2019.***

The teacher also concluded that there was biliteracy development in the translanguaging class which manifested orally and in writing.

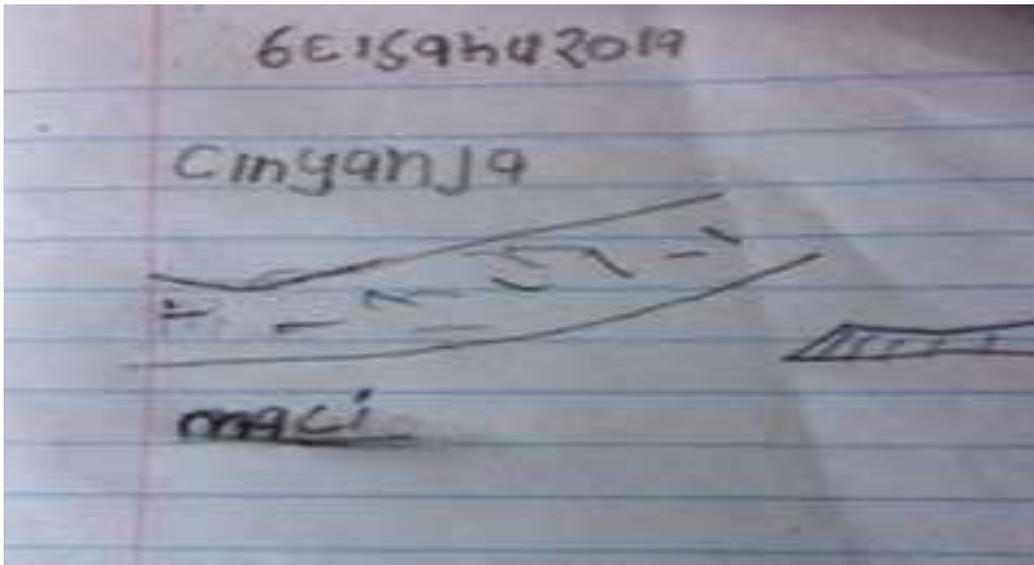
The other benefit which was realised in learners was the familiar language orthographical development. The learners in the translanguaging class were able to write in both Cinyanja and Tumbuka when they were given chance to do so. The teacher said:

*I realised that learners were able to write Tumbuka words whenever they failed to remember the Cinyanja word in an exercise. This was very common near the end of the term because*

*every learner was literate enough to even write sounds and words from a dictation.*

*Even when I was marking the books, I could find that learners could write a word in Tumbuka, then rub and write a Cinyanja word. At times, the learners could write the Cinyanja sound as I wanted in the exercise, but later rub and write a Tumbuka sound for an answer. For me, it showed that the learners were engaging into literacy activities both in Tumbuka and Cinyanja.*

Literacy development in local languages was a benefit which learners whose familiar language was Tumbuka realised. They wrote Tumbuka words as answers at times as the figure shows below:



**Figure 5: Biliteracy skills development**

Figure 5 gives evidence of biliteracy skills development as a result of translanguaging in the literacy class. The instruction was for the learners to draw a river and show water in it. Thereafter, the learners were supposed to write water in Cinyanja which is 'madzi'.

However, the learner drew the river and water in it but wrote a Tumbuka word ‘*maji*’ to mean water. Through biliteracy development, learners were able to switch from their familiar languages to Cinyanja or vice versa when they found it convenient within the lesson. The teacher also learnt that as the term progressed, learners were able to distinguish between literacy in Tumbuka and literacy in Cinyanja. The teacher stated the following:

*The building of the literacy in the learner’s languages as well as the target language makes the learners realise that their languages can also be used for learning in class and they are as important as the language of instruction, Cinyanja. I also feel this is another proof that when we use the learner’s language in class it helps to build the language of instruction in the same lesson.*

*I have also realised that the learners are being used to read the Tumbuka scriptures from the Bible in our church. I was shocked to see my Grade One pupil last week read the Tumbuka Bible verse so well and confident. The concept of universal literacy, I think is true when we use the learner’s language.*

The other benefit was that learners developed language proficiency in their familiar languages. This resulted into learners reading level in their familiar language improve and extend from the academic circles to the social setting of the children. The teacher also said:

*Also, learners were able to read Tumbuka words away from class unlike the learners from the monolingual class. The learners even read the Tumbuka Bible in church to the congregation which*

*made me get amazed. I did not realise such can manifest in learners at such an early stage in their academic life.*

The other benefit which the teacher realised in learners was that the minority learners were able to participate and use their languages to give responses to the classroom learning situation. This enhanced social interaction amongst learners and increased their academic power in class. The teacher said:

*The benefit for the learners in my translanguaging class was that learners from Senga, Nsenga and Lozi speaking homes were able to give answers using their languages. Learners were able to give the names of the objectives using their languages to show that the syllable existed in their languages. The teacher and the class welcomed such responses and encouraged them as the class and teacher learnt from them.*

The other benefit which was realised by the teacher was that learner's results or class performance improved as a result of the translanguaging practices which was being implemented in the Grade One class. The teacher said:

*Since I started handling this class and the other Grade One classes from term 1, I have experienced good results this term through translanguaging practices implemented in this class. I could also see the learners who have been quiet participate and give me correct answers in Tumbuka. Last term they were quiet and as per normal, we considered them dull when not. This term, even their writing skills and answering skills have improved.*

The other benefit of translanguaging was that it improved learner cognition and it was helping learners connect the classroom language to the home or language of play. Learners were able to realise the sounds in the local languages which they used at home. Tumbuka being the classroom dominant language, the learners were able to give examples in Tumbuka using the Cinyanja sound introduced to them in class. The teacher explained that:

*Literacy development in a translanguaging class has been progressing better than the other classes where I am not using this practice. I am saying so because learners are able to use the words from their language basing on the day's sound and give me correct answers. This shows that their literacy skills are developing in their first and second language.*

*It was clear also that learners were able to think and relate their language to the day's lesson and apply what they learnt into their language. This was seen from the examples and words which they gave me. These words had the correct sounds which they used in their language, Tumbuka, and the lessons became interesting as a result.*

The teacher was further asked on what she felt went well in the translanguaging class. She indicated that the use of translanguaging was beneficial to learners as it made learning easier in literacy lesson. The teacher said:

*From the experience with the translanguaging practices, the literacy lessons were made simple because the learners were able to use their knowledge and give me words they knew according to the sound at hand. This gave me hope that I am developing*

*their literacy in their local language, Tumbuka, as much as I was making them to write in Cinyanja.*

The teacher also mentioned that she used the available teaching and learning materials to facilitate translanguaging practices in class. This was done through modifying the available materials to suit the class and to make sure that classroom languages are represented on the chart. The teacher said:

*Some of the charts which were supplied to our school for Grade One literacy teaching had contained wrong Cinyanja spellings. So, when I make my own, I ensure I write the correct spelling. I even write some examples using the local languages available in class and this motivated my learners.*

Teaching literacy using authentic teaching and learning materials was importantly acknowledged to be helping in the teaching of literacy in the translanguaging practices in the Grade One class. The teacher said:

*I have been finding it easy to teach literacy using charts than explaining sounds to learners which my learners do not know and cannot see in their community. When I use a chart to teach literacy, my learners do not only hear the sound, but also see.*

*When learners see the chart and I ask questions on it, they give me answers according to what they know in their language. This made learners give me a lot of answers because they used their languages to respond and make meaning of what the chart was presenting to them.*

The other benefit was that the teacher promoted Grade One translanguaging through charts by ensuring that she made local materials to supplement the ones supplied by the government. The teacher was innovative enough to make her own teaching and learning materials to suit the lesson which they taught. These teaching and learning materials were of benefit to the learners because they depicted the locally available materials in the learner's environment. The teacher said:

*In order to ensure that I meet the needs of my translanguaging literacy class, I make teaching and learning materials using manila papers when the school provides at the beginning of the term. In most cases, I use plain papers and draw a number of charts for each desk so that every learner can see what I am teaching about. I ensure that I draw the things which are available in the learner's environment and provide the names which they call such materials. This benefits my learners so much.*

The teacher did not have the pupils' books to make them practice the language as it is written in the book, but she used the board correctly to make learners see the words and sounds of the words after being written.

***Field note 2, 2019***

*My individually made charts provide me with the teaching sounds I want to use and the examples which are suitable to the learners. Otherwise, the charts from government do not give the right examples to help the multilingual learners in this part of Zambia. Therefore, in my translanguaging class, I make my charts to help me meet the linguistic needs of my learners and this has turned out to be more beneficial.*

The benefits which the teacher realised were both social and academic and they manifested in the learners. As presented in the different lessons, there was evidence that learners benefited from the translanguaging pedagogical practices which the teacher used in the Grade One classes.

#### **6.4 How did the teacher and pupils translanguage in multilingual Grade One literacy classroom?**

This research question was qualitative, and it sought to find out the translanguaging practices that were taking place in the Grade One literacy class. The data for the research question were collected through a full term two classroom observation. This brought out the language practices which were done throughout the term. The findings are complimented by the field notes which documented other classroom interactions which could not be captured through the voice recorder, yet they were cardinal for the study. The study presents 11 observations from the 11 weeks of teaching while the other lessons are in the appendices. Due to holidays and other national duties which the school and the teacher had to observe, two sounds were not taught to complete the term two schemes of work.

The translanguaging class had 48 registered pupils in the class register, but not all the learners reported for class on a daily basis for classes. The class had 25 girls and 23 boys. The teacher was primary school trained and has been teaching at the lower primary for 12 years. She was Senga by tribe, but she was also familiar with Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English which is the official language. The classroom was multilingual with learners coming from different sociolinguistic backgrounds. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in and outside class included: Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. One learner used Tonga at home while another one used Lozi, but the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja which were commonly used in school. Learners spoke different languages in class and during

play. Despite the differences, they were able to communicate amongst themselves. The following were some of the transcribed literacy lessons which were observed in the Grade One translanguaging class. The other transcribed lessons are attached at the appendices.

#### **6.4.1 Excerpt 1: Literacy lesson on consonant cluster sound /kh/**

In this first lesson, the classroom had 24 girls and 22 boys in attendance with 1 girl and 1 boy absent from class. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The familiar languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

The first lesson to be observed was centred on the sound /kh/. To present the lesson, the teacher used a picture which had the sound of interest and initiated the discussion.



**Figure 6: sound /kh/**

**Teacher:** *imwe kumanyumba kwamene mucokela kuli vinthu vambiri pamanyumba panu. Vinangu muvisewenzesa ndimwe, vinangu nimakolo*

*anu.* (Nyanja: where you come from, you have a lot of things at your homes. Others you use them while others it's your parents). *Kwene pala mwabekeseska apa papikicala, imwe mukuonapo vici?* (Tumbuka: but when you observe critically on the chart, what are you able to see?) [giving instructions]: *Ciwawa yayi unyamule woko pala ukhumba kuyowoya,* (Tumbuka: no noise, if you want to talk raise your hand). *Nikunyamula kwanja ngati ufuna kubwera kusonta* (Nyanja: you raise your hand if you want to come and point). [She points at one learner to identify what they see in the picture].

**Teacher:** *tiuzeko camene waonapo pacithunzithunzi apa.* (Nyanja: tell us what you are seeing on this picture?)

**Pupil 1:** [points at a house and tractor]. *Iyi ninyumba, iyi ni talakita.*

**Teacher:** *nimwamene?* (Nyanja: is it correct?)

**Pupils:** *eeee, enya.* [in agreement].

**Teacher:** Yes, *winangu?* [Another pupil is called upon to go and point at what they are seeing on the chart].

**Pupil 2:** [pupil points at] *ng'ombe, banthu na khola.* (Nyanja: cattle, people and kraal).

**Teacher:** Ok, *ine nizayamba kusontha pacintu imwe muzaniuza zina la cintu camene na sontha, mwanvera?* (Nyanja: I will point at something then you will tell me the name for that thing, have you heard?) *Nati, nisontenge ivi vili papikicala imwe muniphalile zina la ico nisonthenge, mwapulika?* (Nyanja: I have said I will point at the picture, and you will tell me the name of what I will point at, have you heard?) [Teacher points randomly but slowly at the objects appearing on the chart].

**Pupils chorus:** *Banthu, dimba/garden, jembe/khasu, nyumba, mtengo, ngolo.* (Nyanja and Tumbuka: garden, hoe, house, tree and oxen).

**Teacher:** Ok, *lero tizaphunzira mvekero yamene takamba pokamba kuti 'khola olo khasu'* (Nyanja: we shall look at the sound found in 'Khola' or 'khasu').

**Teacher:** So, *lero tizaphunzira mvekero ya /kh/ monga mwameme tamvelera mu liu la 'khasu'. Mvekero ya /kh/ ip Ezekanso mu liu la khola, khomo na yankho.*

**Teacher:** [Good], *manje iyi mvekero ya /kh/* (Nyanja: Now this sound /kh/) [she writes on the board the sound] *pala tiyikako ma vawero* (Tumbuka: when we put the vowels) (a, e, i, o, u) [she also writes the vowels on the board]. *Tizapanga ma silabele yabwanji?* (Nyanja: what syllables shall we make?)

**Pupils:** [They chorus] (*kha, khe, khi, kho, khu*).

**Teacher:** Good. *Ndani ocenjela angatiuzeko mau yamene muli mvekero ya /kh/?* (Nyanja: who is clever to tell words which have the sound /kh/?) *Ninjani wangatipangilako ma zina olo ma words kusewezesya /kh/ muno mu class?* (Tumbuka: who can make words using the sound /kh/ in this class).

**Pupils:** [They rise their hands and mention the following words]: *khala, nkhuku, khwangwala, Khomo, khonde, nkhoswe, nkhumba* among other. (Sitting, chicken, home, traditional marriage counsellor, pig).

**Teacher:** *Cawama mvekelo yalelo muyiziba.* (Nyanja: its good you know the sound of today). So, *tolani mabuku yinu ya (a, e, i, o, u) mulembe date yalelo na mvekelo ya 'kh' pamwamba.* (Tumbuka: Get you literacy books and write the date for today and the sound /kh/ on top of the page).

[The teacher draws a man holding a hoe in picture one and cattle in a kraal in picture two]. So, *mulembe ng'ombe ziri mkhola na munthu wakola jembe kapena khasu. Mulembe makora umunalemba, mwapulika?* (Tumbuka: draw cattle in a kraal and a person holding a hoe. Write neatly). *Nindani sianamvesese nibwezepo?* (Nyanja: who is not very clear I repeat myself?)

**Pupils chorus:** *Tapulika, tamvela, eee* [Agreement].

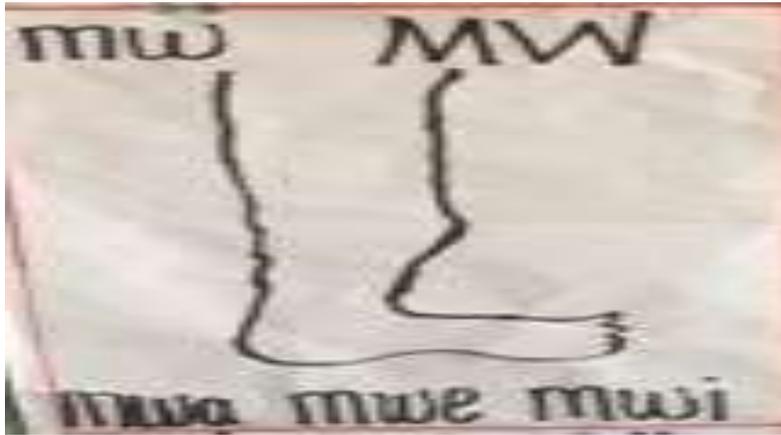
**Teacher:** *Yambani kulemba. Azasiriza fast azadya sweet lero, nizamugulila ya one kwacha.* (Nyanja: start writing. The one to finish first will enjoy a sweet today. I will buy him or her for one kwacha).

**Pupils:** [talking to themselves] ... : *iwe undayikeko jembe kumuntu,* (Tumbuka: you have not drawn a hoe on the picture). ... *enya, ningatinya.* (Tumbuka: yes, I can get it wrong) .... *Iwe wadindacivici? Kuli munthu wanthe?* [they giggle] ... (Tumbuka: you, what have you drawn? Is there a person like this?) [they giggle].

#### **6.4.2 Excerpt 2: Literacy lesson on consonant cluster sound /mw/.**

In this second lesson, the classroom had 23 girls and 20 boys in attendance while 2 girls and 3 boys were absent. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

The teacher used the chart below to introduce her lesson.



**Figure 7: sound /mw/**

**Teacher:** *Tiyeni tionekeo apa pacithunzi* [pointing at the chart]. (Nyanja: Let us look at the picture). *Nicivici ici?* [Pointing at a chat]. (Tumbuka: what is this?)

**Pupils chorus:** *Kwendo, mwendo, lundi, leg* [in different languages]. (Nyanja, Tumbuka and English: leg).

**Teacher:** *Ise tonse tirimuno, tiri na mendo tonse muno?* (Tumbuka: all of us in here, Nyanja: Do we have legs all of us?)

**Pupils chorus:** *enya, eeee* (Tumbuka: yes, eeee).

**Teacher:** *mvekeru yatu lero ni /mw/*. (Nyanja: The sound of the day is /mw/). *Tonse tikambe mvekeru yalero* (Nyanja: all of us let us say the sound of the day). [pupils chorus /mw/]. *Iyi mvekeru yathu tikayikako ma vowels yathu yaja monga (a, e, i, o, u.)*, (Nyanja: to this sound when we add the vowels like: a, e, i, o, u.). *tizapanga ma silabe bwanji?* (Nyanja: what syllables are we going to make?). *Iyi /mw/ tirinayo, pala tayikako ma vowels yithu yakale, tipange ma silabe uli?* (Tumbuka: This /mw/ we have, when we add vowels, we shall make which syllables?)

**Pupils:** *mwa, mwe, mwi, mwo, mwu.* [they chorus]

**Teacher:** Good. So, *iyi mvekero yalero tamvera kuti ipezeka mu mau monga 'mwana' na 'mwendo.'* So, *imwe nima* words *yabwanji yamene muziwa yali na mvekero ya /mw/?* (Nyanja: Which words do you know which have the sound /mw/? *Nima* words *uli ayo mumanya yali na sound olo mvekero ya /mw/? Niphalilaniko?* (Tumbuka: which words do you know which have the sound 'mw', kindly tell me?))

**Pupils:** *Mwala, mwamuna, mwana, mwaka, mwanalume,* (Nyanja: stone, male: Tumbuka: child, year, male).

**Teacher:** [Good]. That is why *nimikondani, ndimwe ocenjera.* (Nyanja: That is why I like you, you are clever. So, *tolani ba buku inu ya* (a, e, i, o, u,) *mudinde mwendo.* (Tumbuka: so, get you literacy books and draw a leg). *Mulembe bwino monga mwamene nalembera. Munsi mwake, mulembemo 'mwendo'. Mwapulika?* (Nyanja: write clearly the way I have written. Under the drawing write the word 'mwendo'). (Tumbuka: have you heard?)

**Pupils:** *enya eee* (Tumbuka: yes).

### 6.4.3 Excerpt 3: Literacy lesson on consonant cluster sound /mb/

In this lesson, the classroom had 25 girls and 23 boys in attendance making the total to be 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

**Teacher:** *Ni andani amaphika nsima kunyumba?* (Nyanja: Who amongst us prepares nshima at our homes?)

**Pupils:** *Makolo, wapapi, akulu athu.* (Nyanja, Tumbuka: Our parents, our elder sisters, adults).

**Teacher:** *Amaphikira nsima pa ciani?* (Nyanja: which sources are used in the preparation of nshima?)

**Pupils:** *Pa stove nama layiti, pankhuni napa mbaula.* (Tumbuka/Nyanja: On the stove using electricity, On firewood and braziers).

**Teacher:** Ok, *ngati tiyiziba mbaula tonse, imaoneka bwanji?* (Nyanja: if we know the brazier, how does it look like?)

**Pupils:** *Mbaula asambizi niya round so, natumakhululu tudokotudoko.* (Tumbuka: teacher, a brazier is round with small holes round it).  
*Tuyikapo malasha pophika na cusi kulije.* (Tumbuka: we put charcoal when cooking using it and there is no smoke).

**Teacher:** *Nanga ici pa pikica ni cani?* (Nyanja: what is this on the picture? [She displays a picture on the board with a brazier on it].



**Figure 8: sound /mb/**

**Pupils chorus:** *mbaula* (brazier)

**Teacher:** So, *lero mvekero yathu ni /mb/*. (Nyanja: today our sound is /mb/). *Manje, kuli iyi mvekero yalero tikayikako ma vowels yathu a, e, i, o, u, tizapanga ma silabe yabwanji?* (Nyanja: now, to this sound of today, if we add the vowels (a, e, i, o, u,) what kind of syllables are we going to make?)

**Pupils chorus:** *mba, mbe, mbi, mbo, mbu* [pupils chorus syllables]

**Teacher:** Ok, *niphaliraniko ma words ayo mumanya muli mvekero ya /mb/*. (Tumbuka: Ok, tell me words you know which have the sound /mb/).

**Pupils chorus:** *Mbuzi, kambwili, mbulu, mbuto, mbale, mbembe malembo, na mbambo, mbavi* (Nyanja: goat, hoe, (Tumbuka), monitor lizard, seed, plate, fight, writings, ribs, axe). [The words in the various

languages were further translated into the languages of the classroom by the learners themselves].

**Teacher:** Ok, *ma* words *yamene yali namvekero yalero niyambiri*. (Nyanja: there are many words which have the sound of the day). *Koma tengani ma buku yanu ya (a, e, i, o, u,) musirizise ma* words *aya yali pa* board. (Cinyanja: But, get your literacy books and complete the words on the board). [The teacher drew a breezier, a goat and a plate. She wrote the other syllables and left the syllables which had the /mb/ sound for learners to complete as an exercise]. Po mala exercise, *mukumbika kuti muyikeko mvekero iyo ingaseweza makola kufuma pa (mba, mbe, mbi. mbo, mbu)*. (Tumbuka: when completing this exercise, you have to select a syllable which can suit the word from *mba, mbe, mbi. mbo, mbu*). *Musolepo imoza waka yomalizira* word. *Inyakeso pa* word *inyake*. (Tumbuka: choose one sound only. Choose another word and another word). *Palifumbo?* (Tumbuka: is there any question?)

**Pupils chorus:** *yayi* (Tumbuka: No)

**Teacher:** *tiyeni tirembe mwaluwiro*. (Tumbuka: let us write quickly).

#### **6.4.4 Excerpt 4: Literacy lesson on the revision of sounds (mw, mb, nd, kh)**

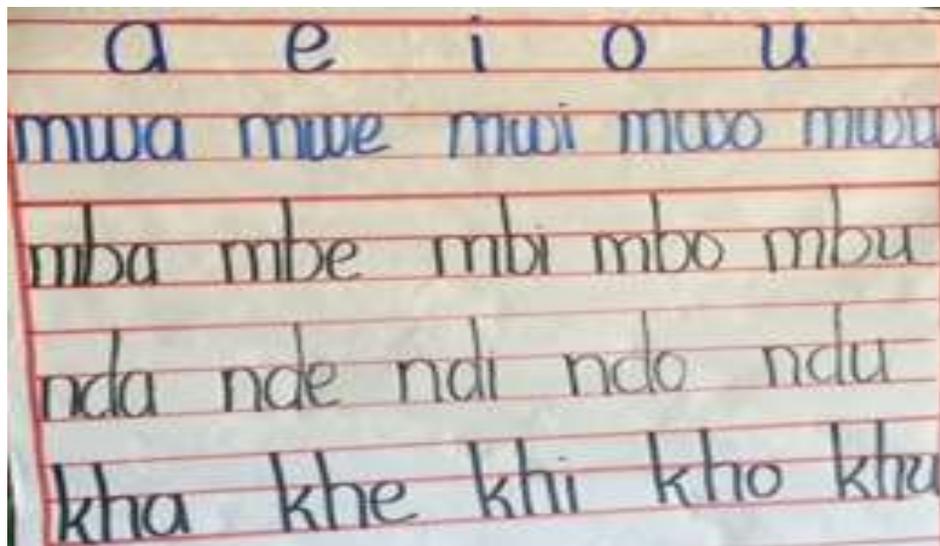
In this lesson, the classroom had 25 girls and 23 boys in attendance making the total to be 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar

with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

**Teacher:** *ninjani wangatipalirako ma sounds tirisambira term yino?*  
(Tumbuka: who can remember the sounds we have learnt this term?)  
*Mvekeru tinapunzira term yino, ndani akumbukira?* (Nyanja: the sounds we have learnt this term, who can remember?)

**Pupils chorus:** *kh, nd, mb, and mw*

**Teachers:** [she displays a chart with the four sounds]. Okay, since *tikumbukira ma silable tinaphunzira tonse, tiyeni tiwêrenge ma silabe yali pa cithunzi apa.* (Nyanja: since we are remembering the syllables, let us read the syllables on the chart) *Kuliye okhala cete, tiwêrenge tose.* (Tumbuka: no one should keep quiet, let us all read).



**Figure 9:** sound /mw, mb, nd, kh/

**Pupils chorus:** [they read as a class]

**Teacher:** *mwaŵerenga makora comene.* (Tumbuka: you have read very well). So, *nindani angapangeko mau olo ma* words *kusewenzesa silabe iliyonse iyo tinaphunzirako ili pa cithunzi apa.* (Nyanja: so, who can make a word or words using the syllables you learnt which are on the chart).

**Pupils:** *Mbembe, ndodo, mwambo, mbambo, khululu, ukhondo.* (Tumbuka: fight, walking stick, culture, ribs, hole. (Nyanja: cleanliness). [These words were translated by the learners from Tumbuka into Cinyanja and English and also the Cinyanja word was translated into English].

**Teacher:** *Tolani mabuku yinu ya (a, e, i, o, u,) mulembe* exercise *iyi nilembenge pa* board. (Get your literacy books and write the exercise I will write on the board). [She writes the following sentences on the board]: 1. *Agogo ayendela .....do.* 2. *.....na alila.* 3. *...mbo yanga iwawa.* 4. *....su yanga yasala kumunda.* [She tells learners], *musirizise* ma sentences *aya kusewenzetsa ma silabe yali mu cithunzi ici. Usankhe yofanana yamene inga pange nzeru.* [Learners write silently].

#### **6.4.5 Excerpt 5: Literacy lesson on the consonant cluster /dz/**

In this lesson, the classroom had 20 girls and 20 boys in attendance while 5 girls and 3 boys were absent out of the 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

**Teacher:** *Nthawi ya mvula tenze kumituma kuti mukabwere na tutemo, khasu na vikwakwa kusukulu.* (Nyanja: during rain season we used to send you to bring axes, hoes and slashers to school). *Vikwakwa mwenze kuvisewenzetsa nchito yabwanji?* (Nyanja: what were you using the slashers for?)

**Pupils:** *Kukhwapa uteka, kukhwapa ucani kapena uzdu.* (Tumbuka and Nyanja: slashing grass?)

**Teacher:** *Bekani kuno ku board* (look at the board) [she displays one picture with a drawing of a sun]. *Apa muonapo vici pa pikicala?* (Tumbuka: what do you see in the picture?) *Niuzenikoni, muonapo ciani apa pa cithunzi?* (Nyanja: tell me, what do you see in the picture?)



**Figure 10: sound /dz/**

**Pupils chorus:** *ine naonapo mauzdu, ine niona monga ucani, ine naonapo uteka.* (Nyanja, Tumbuka: I have seen grass).

**Teacher:** Ok, *cawama* (Nyanja: good). She displays another picture on the board. *Nanga apa pa pikica mwaonapo vici?* (Tumbuka: what of on this picture, what can you see?)



**Figure 11: /dz/ syllables**

**Pupils:** *Ine nkuonapo mitambo,* (Tumbuka: I am seeing clouds). *Ine naonapo zuwâ.* (Nyanja: I am seeing the sun). *Ine naonapo viwili, mitambo na zuwâ.* (Tumbuka: I am seeing two things, clouds and the sun).

**Teacher:** *Okay, lero tizaphunzira pa mvekero ya /dz/.* (Nyanja: today we shall learn on the sound /dz/). *Iyi mvekero tayimvera kuti ipezeka mu mau yamene yapezeka mu vithunzi vili pa board.* (Nyanja: we have learnt that this sound is found in the words of the pictures which are on the board). *So tiyeni tipulikiske makora.* (Tumbuka: so, let us pay attention). *Mu word ya ‘maudzu’ na ‘dzuwa’, mvekero ya ‘d’ imvekera pamodzi na mvekero ya ‘z’.* (Nyanja: in the words ‘maudzu’ and ‘dzuwa’, the sound /d/ is fused together with the sound /z/). *Sizitayana awe.* (Nyanja: they are not separate). *So, ku mvekero yathu yalero, ‘dz’ tikayikako ma vowels yathu tizapanga ma silabe monga aya yali pa cithunzi.* (Nyanja: so, to the sound of the say /dz/, if we add vowels, we shall make syllables like

the ones on the board). So, *tiyeni tiwêrenge ma silabe yithu*. (Tumbuka: so, let us all read our syllables).

**Pupils chorus:** *dza, dze, dzi, dzo, dzu*

**Teacher:** So, *niphalilaniko ma* (Tumbuka: tell me some) words *yamene muziwa muli mvekelo yalelo ya 'dz'*. (Nyanja: you know which have the 'dz' sound).

**Pupils:** *dzanja, dziko, dzenje, dzikomo, dzina na udzu*. (Nyanja: hand, country, ditch, thank you, name and grass).

**Teacher:** [an exercise was given to the learner]. *Tolani ma buku yinu ya (a, e, i, o, u,) mukopolole deti ya lero*. (Tumbuka: get your literacy books and copy today's date). So, *zocita kapena exercise, mudinde maudzu na dzuwa mwamene vionekero pacithunzi. Pansi pake, musankhepo dzina lolebapo pali awa (maudzu, dzuwa)*. (Tumbuka: so, the exercise is that you draw grass and the sun the way they appear on the chart. Below the charts, write the names (grass or sun). *Mwapulika?* (Tumbuka: have you heard?).

**Pupils chorus:** *eee, enya* (yes, in agreement).

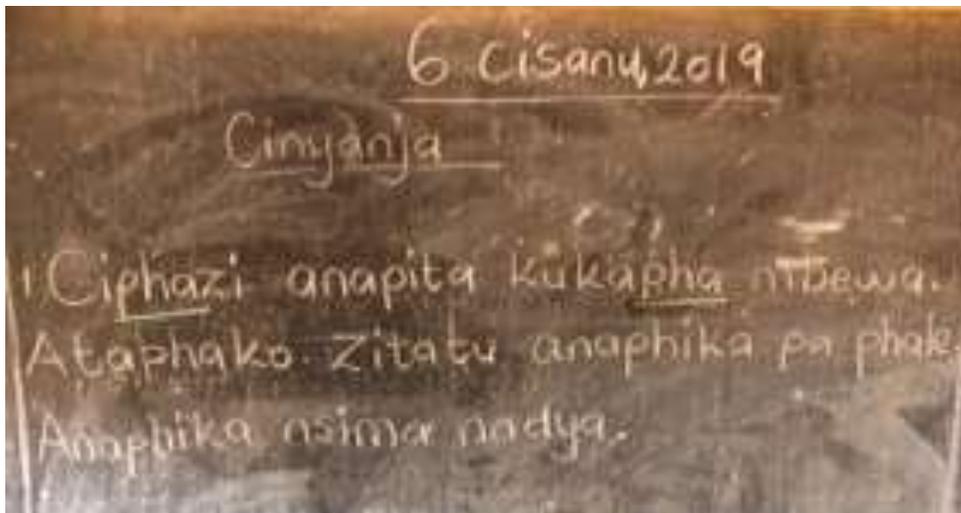
**Teacher:** *tiyeni tirembe timaleko luwiro lero*. (Tumbuka: let us write we finish fast today).

#### **6.4.6 Excerpt 6: Literacy lesson on sound consonant cluster /ph/.**

In this lesson, the classroom had 24 girls and 23 boys in attendance with 1 girl absent out of the 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another

one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

**Teacher:** [the teacher introduced the lesson by writing a short story on the board]. *Tonse tiyangane kuno ku board.* (Nyanja: let us all face the board). [To capture the learner's attention, she started a song which the class later picked].



**Figure 12: sound /ph/**

**Pupils:** [read the story loudly as a class]

**Teacher:** *ninjani wachuliwa mu ka nkhani kapena ka story aka?* (Tumbuka: who has been mentioned in this story).

**Pupil 1:** *chiphazi* [Tumbuka name of a person's mentioned in the story].

**Teacher:** *wakalutankhu?* (Tumbuka: where did he go?)

**Pupil 2:** *kukapha mbewa.* (Nyanja: to trap rodents)

**Teacher:** after *chiphazi wapha mbewa, wakacita vici vinyake?*  
(Tumbuka: after Chipazi trapped the rodents, what else did he do?)

**Pupil 3:** *wakaphika sima nakulya* (Tumbuka: he cooked *nshima* and ate).

**Teacher:** [teacher underlined all the /**ph**/ sounds in the story]. So, *lero tizaphunzira mvekero ya /ph/*. [so, today we shall look at the sound /ph/]. *Monga mwamene tawerengera, mvekero ya 'ph' ipezeka muli* (Nyanja: just like we have read, the sound /**ph**/ is found in) [as she points at the underlined sounds] *chiphazi, kupha, ataphako, anaphika na anaphika. Tiyeni tiwêrengé ma words yamene nalemba pa board.* (Nyanja: let us read the words I have written on the board).

**Pupils chorus:** [they read the words on the board as a class]. *Chiphazi, kupha, ataphako, anaphika na anaphika*

**Teacher:** *ninjani wangatimphalirako ma words yanyake ayo yali na mvekero 'ph' ayo mumanya?* (Tumbuka: who can tell us words with the sound '**ph**' which you know?)

**Pupils:** *mphapo, mphepo, mphulika, phayiphayi,* (Tumbuka: fertility, coldness, popcorn, blinking).

**Teacher:** Okay, so *ma words yalinamvekero ya /ph/ niyanandi.* (Tumbuka: okay, the words with the /**ph**/ sound are many). [Teacher removes the underlining made on the /**ph**/ words]. Okay, *tengani ma buku yanu ya (a, e, i, o, u) mulembe date yalero. Mukamala, lembani iyi nkhani ili pa board.* (Nyanja: get your literacy books and write the date for today, when you finish, write the story which is on the board). *Mucite underline olo kulembapo kamuzere pansi pa word apo pali /ph/ sound waka not word yose cha.* (Tumbuka: underline the word where the /**ph**/ sound falling and not the whole word). *Ulembe kamuzela pamene pali*

*mvekelo yalero cabe /ph/* not word *yonse yayi*. (Nyanja: underline where the sound **/ph/** is falling only and not the whole word). *Tiritonse?* (Tumbuka: are we together?)

**Pupils:** *eee, enya* (Tumbuka: yes, in agreement).

**Teacher:** *Tiyeni tilembe tonse, lembani luwilo musambile inyake* subject. (Tumbuka: let us all write. Be quick to write so that you can learn another subject).

#### **6.4.7 Excerpt 7: Literacy lesson on consonant cluster sound /ts/.**

In this lesson, the classroom had 25 girls and 23 boys in attendance totalling to 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate with each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were conversant in Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson was as follows:

**Teacher:** *Fiske, valako ku door*. (Nyanja: *Fiske*, close the door). [The boy stands up and goes to close the door of the class]. Thank you, *nkhala manje*. (Nyanja: you can now sit down). So, *Fiske nangumutuma kuti wacite vici?* (Tumbuka: I sent *Fiske* to do what?)

**Pupils chorus:** *Avale ku door, wajale cijalo*. (Nyanja: to close the door) (Tumbuka: to close the door).

**Teacher:** *Cijalo na door nivimoza, kwene mu class ticemenge cijalo kuti 'citseko'*. (Tumbuka: *cijalo* and door are the same. In class we shall be using the word 'door' as 'citseko'). [She writes the word 'citseko' on the board]. *Tonse tiyeni tiweringe ma silabe yali muli iyi word nalemba pa*

board *ci/tse/ko*. (Tumbuka: let us all read the syllables which are in the word I have written on the board *ci/tse/ko*).

**Pupils chorus:** [they read the word through syllables] *ci/tse/ko*.

**Teacher:** *tonse tiyimilire*, (Nyanja: all of us let us stand up). [Pupils stand up]. *manja mumwamba* (Tumbuka: hands up). [They raise their hands]. *Tikole kumutu* (Tumbuka: let us hold our heads). [They hold their heads]. *Kuliciani kumutu wanu?* (Tumbuka: what can you feel in your heard?).

**Pupils chorus:** *sisi* (Nyanja: hair)

**Teacher:** okay, *tikhale pasi*. (Tumbuka: let us sit down). *Naine nili na tsitsi kumutu kwanga*. (Nyanja: I also have hair on my head). [She writes the word ‘*tsitsi*’ on the board]. *Tikayangana bwino, mu ma word ‘citseko’ na ‘tsitsi’ muli mvekelo imodzi yamene ipezeka monse*. (Nyanja: if we check properly in the first words ‘*citseko*’ na ‘*tsitsi*’, there is a common sound). *Ninjani wangatiphalilako iyo sound yusangika mu ma words yawiri aya nalemba?* (Tumbuka: who can tell us the sound which is in both words I have written?).

**Pupil 1:** /s/

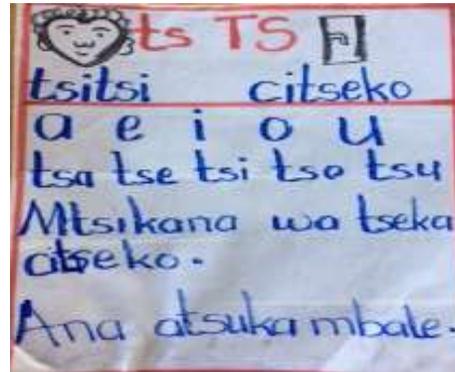
**Pupil 2:** /tsi/

**Teacher:** [good]. *Mvekelo ya /tsi/ niyamene ipezeka mu ‘citseko’ na ‘tsitsi’*. (Nyanja: the sound /ts/ is the one found in ‘*citseko*’ na ‘*tsitsi*’). *Tiyeni tiyangane pa zithunzi izi ziwili*. (Nyanja: let us look at the two charts I have stuck on the board). [She sticks two charts on the board]. *Pama pikica aya naika pa board, kuuyambilo kuno kuli cijalo ico nayowoya kuti ni ‘citseko’*. (Tumbuka: on the charts I have stuck on the board, the first one is what I have said as a door ‘*citseko*’. *Iyi pikica*

*inyake pala tabeseka makora, pacanya pali mutu wamuntu uli na tsitsi.* (Tumbuka: in the next chart if we check properly, on top there is a head of a person which has hair). So, *ku mvekeru ya lelo /ts/ tamvera kuti ippezeka mu mau monga 'citseko' na 'tsitsi'*. (Nyanja: so, in the sound of the day, we have heard that /ts/ is found in words like 'citseko' na 'tsitsi'). Manje, *tikayikako ma vowel yathu (a, e, i, o, u) ku /ts/ tizapanga ma silabe monga aya yali pa board* (Nyanja: now, when we add the vowels (a, e, i, o, u) to the sound of the day /ts/, we shall have the syllables like these we have here on the chart). [She points at the syllables]. So, *tiyeni tiwêrenge tonse* as a class. (Tumbuka: so, let us all read as a class).



**Figure 13: sound /ts/**



**Figure 14: tsitsi**

**Pupils chorus:** [learners read the syllables *tsa, tse, tsi, tso, tsu.*]

**Teacher:** *apa pa pikica yaciwili iyi, nipoimba:* (Tumbuka: on the second chart, it is written).

1. *Mtsikana watseka citseko.* (Nyanja: the girl has closed the door).
2. *Ana atsuka mbale.* (Nyanja: the children are washing plates).

[She underlines the sound of the day]. *Naikapo ka muzere pansi pa mvekelo yalero. Mwayiwona?* (Tumbuka: I have underlined the sounds of the day. Have you seen?)

**Pupils chorus:** *eee* (in agreement)

**Teacher:** *niuzenikoni ma words yamene muziwa yali na mvekelo ya /ts/ yamene mumasewenzesa.* (Nyanja: tell me the words which you know with the sound /ts/ the ones you use in your vocabulary).

**Pupils:** *sopo, citsanzo, cisoni, ...* (Tumbuka: soap, example, sadness ...).

**Teacher:** *mu mau ya 'citsanzo' na, mvekero yathu ya /ts/ ilimo.* (Nyanja: in the words 'citsanza', the sound /ts/ is present). *Mu mau 'sopo' na 'cisoni' yamene imveka ni /s/, koma /t/ silikumveka ayi.* (Nyanja: in the word soap, the sound being heard is /s/ while 't' is not heard). So, *mu mau ya 'sopo' mulibe mvekero ya /ts/.* (Nyanja: so, in the word 'sopo' there is no /ts/ sound). *Apa sono tolani ma buku yinu ya (a, e, i, o, u) mulembe date yalero na mvekero ya lero.* (Tumbuka: so, now get your literacy books, write today's date and the sound of the day). Exercise *yunu, mudinde 'citseko' mwamene chionekera pa pikica.* (Tumbuka: for your exercise, draw a door the way it is appearing on the picture or chart). *Munyansi mwake, mulembemo liu 'citseko'.* (Nyanja: underneath the drawing, write the word 'citseko'). *Endesani kulemba nicongeko fast lero. Ngati siusiriza, siuyenda ku break.* (Nyanja: write fast today so that I can mark fast. If you will not finish, you will not go for break).

**Pupils:** [they write the exercise silently].

#### **6.4.8 Excerpt 8: Literacy lesson on consonant sound cluster /mt/**

This lesson had 25 girls and 23 boys in attendance totalling to 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to

communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

**Teacher:** [the teacher used a chart to introduce the lesson and asked learners some questions on it].



**Figure 15: sound /mt/**

**Teacher:** *apa pa pikica iyi pali vintu vinandi ivo nkuwona ine. Imwe muonapo vici ivo mumanya?* (Tumbuka: on this chart there are a lot of things which I am seeing. What of you, what things are you seeing which you know?).

**Pupils:** *nyama, maji, thengere, ng'ombe, mberere, madzi, vikuni na mapiri.* (Tumbuka, Nyanja: wild animals, water, bush, cattle, sheep, water, trees and mountains). [She asks some learners to point at some mentioned objects and they go to the front and point at them].

**Teacher:** *lero tizaphunzira pa mvekeru ya /mt/.* (Nyanja: today we shall learn on the use of the sound /mt/. *Iyi mvekeru ya /mt/ ipezeka mu mau monga mtengo, mtima, mtolo, mtundu na mtendere.* (Nyanja: the sound /mt/ is found in words like, tree, heart, bundle, type and peace). So, *pa pikica, ine nionapo mitengo.* (Nyanja: on this chart, I am seeing 'mitengo' a trees). *Koma ngati uli umodzi, timakamba kuti 'mtengo'.* (Nyanja: if it is one, we say 'mtengo' tree). *Kwene ise wanyake tanguyowoya kuti 'cikuni' cimoza mu cinyanja ni 'mtengo' umodzi. Vinandi tinga yowoya kuti 'vikuni'.* (Tumbuka: some of us can say 'cikuni cimoza' one tree while in Nyanja its 'mtengo' to mean one tree. Many trees we say 'vikuni'). *Kufuma lero, mu class ticemenge 'cikuni' kuti 'mtengo' mwapulika?* (Tumbuka: so, from today, in class we shall be calling 'cikuni' as 'mtengo' have you heard?). [She writes the word 'mtengo' on the board].

**Pupils chorus:** *eee* [in agreement].

**Teacher:** *tonse tikambe kuti 'mtengo'.* (Nyanja: let us all say 'mtengo').

**Pupils chorus:** *mtengo* (Nyanja: tree)

**Teacher:** *niuzenikoni mau kapena ma words yamene mudziwa yali namvekeru muli /mt/. Yangankhale yamene muziwa kapena munayamverapo.* (Nyanja: tell me some words which you know which have the sound /mt/. They can be words you use or you just hear being used).

**Pupils:** *mthiko, mteza, mtumiki....* (Nyanja, Tumbuka: cooking stick, groundnuts, servant ...).

**Teacher:** teacher gives an exercise. So, *tolani mabuku tirembe* exercise *yalero*. (Tumbuka: get your books you write today's exercise). [The teacher drew a tree and a bundle of firewood on the board]. So, *imwe ncito yinu njakuti, mudinde cimtengo na mtolo mwamene muonela pa board so so*. (Tumbuka: so, your exercise is to draw a tree and a bundle the way you are seeing them on the board). Then, *musirizise mau kapena madzina ya mapikica yamene aya*. (Nyanja: then you complete the names of the pictures you will draw). So, *ine namisirizira ma silabe yaku last*. (Nyanja: so, I have helped you complete the syllables at the end of each word). *Imwe muyikeko silable yakuyambiro (mvekero) koma ipange silabe. Mwapulika?* (Tumbuka: you have to write the beginning of the sound so that it makes a complete syllable. Have you heard?)

**Pupils chorus:** *eee, yes, enya*. [in agreement].

#### 6.4.9 Excerpt 9: Literacy lesson on consonant cluster /dw/

This lesson had all the pupils in attendance. There were 25 girls and 23 boys in attendance totalling to 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

**Teacher:** *lero tisambirenge pa mvekero ya new*. (Tumbuka: today we look at a new sound). *Iyi mvekero timayisewenzesa maningi ngati sitimvera bwino*. (Nyanja: we use this sound so much when we are not feeling well). */dw/ ndiye mvekero ya lero*. (Nyanja: /dw/ is the sound of

the day). *Nifumbeko, kasi imwe mulimwapo mankhwala pa umoyo winu?* (Tumbuka: let me ask, have you ever taken medicine in your life?)

**Pupils:** *eee, yes, enya* (Tumbuka: yes, in agreement)

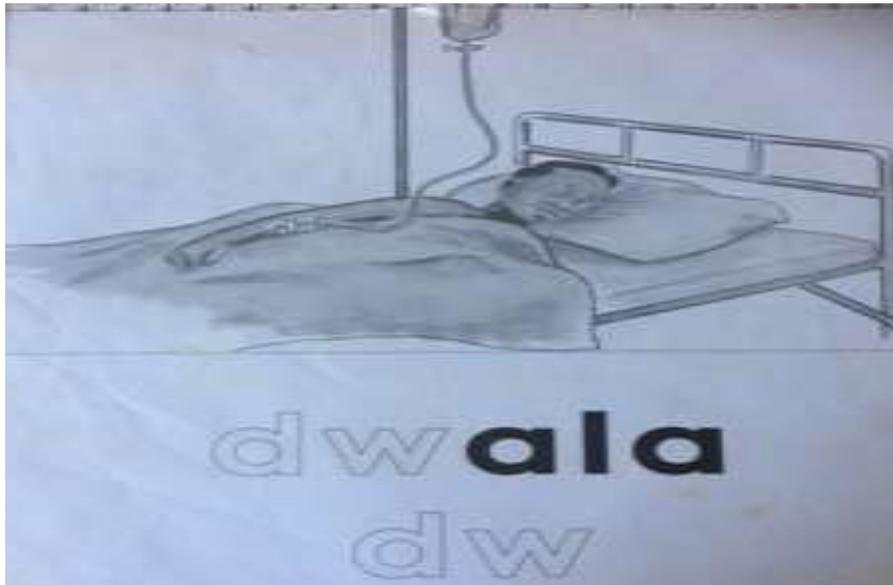
**Teacher:** Why *mukamwa munkwala, mukapulika vici imwe mweŵana? Niphahiraniko.* (Tumbuka: why did you take medicine, what was the problem you children? Tell me).

**Pupil 1:** *Ine nkapulika muthu kuŵaŵa comene.* (Tumbuka: I had severe headache).

**Pupil 2:** *Ine nkapulika munthumbo kuŵinya comene.* (Tumbuka: I had stomach aches so much).

**Pupil 3:** *Ine ninadwala malaria.* (Nyanja: I suffered from malaria).

**Teacher:** *Eya, manje tiyeni tiyangane pa cithunzi ici ciri pa board.* (Nyanja: yeah, let us look at the chart on the board). [She displays a chart on the board]. [Pupils face the board and pay attention].



**Figure 16: sound /dw/**

**Teacher:** *apa pa pikica, imwe muonapo vici?* (Tumbuka: on the chart, what are you seeing?). *Muonapo ciani pa cithunzi camene nafaka pa board?* (Nyanja: what are you seeing on the picture on the board?)

**Pupil 1:** *Munthu wagona pa citala kucipatala.* (Tumbuka: a person is sleeping on the hospital bed).

**Pupil 2:** *Ine niona munthu adwala agona pa bed.* (Nyanja: I am seeing a person who is ill and has slept on the bed).

**Pupil 3:** *Ine nkuonapo bed, gombeza na munthu wagona.* (Tumbuka: I am seeing a bed, blanket and a person sleeping).

**Teacher:** So, *imwe, uyu munthu wali uli, wali makola ngati?* (Tumbuka: so, how is this person, is he fine?)

**Pupils chorus:** *yayi* (Tumbuka: no).

**Teacher:** *wacitika uli imwe mukuona kwinu?* (How is the person from your observation?)

**Pupils chorus:** *wadwala, walwala.* (Nyanja, Tumbuka: is sick).

**Teacher:** okay, so *mvekeru yalero /dw/ ipezeka mu mau monga dwala yamene tamvera kale.* (Nyanja: okay, so today's sound /dw/ is found in words like 'dwala' the one we discussed already). So *kumvekeru yathu, tikayikako ma vowel tizapanga ma silabe monga dwa, dwe, dwi, dwo, dwu.* (Nyanja: so, if we add vowels to the sound 'dw' we shall come up with syllables like: *dwa, dwe, dwi, dwo, dwu.* So, *tose muno mu class tiyeni tiwêrenge ma silabe yathu aya* [as the teacher points at them one by one]. (Tumbuka: so, let us all read our syllables as a class). [As the teacher points at them one by one].

**Pupils chorus:** *dwa, dwe, dwi, dwo, dwu* [pupils read the syllables].

**Teacher:** *sono tayamanya ma silabe yithu aya taŵerenganga sono sono. Nima words uli ayo munanya ayo yali na mvekeru yalero ya /dw/?* (Tumbuka: now we know the syllables we have just read. Which words do you know which have the sound of today /dw/?) *Ni mau yabwanji yamene mudziwa yali namvekeru yalero yamene taphunzira?* (Nyanja: which words do you know which have the sound we have learnt today?)

**Pupils:** *kuchedwa, cidwi, kumenyedwa, dwala, kufedwa* [teacher writes the words from pupils on the board]. (Nyanja: lateness, appetite, to be beaten, getting sick, widowed).

**Teacher:** *niŵanjani ŵangiza kuno kunthazi ŵatiŵerengelako ma words aya nalemba pa board ine?* (Tumbuka: who can come to the front and read for us the words I have written on the board?) Okay, *tiyeni tiŵerenge tose kansi.* (Tumbuka: okay, let us all read together).

**Pupils chorus:** [they read the words] *kuchedwa, cidwi, kumenyedwa, dwala, kufedwa.*

**Teacher:** *niandani angabwere kusogolo nolemba kamuzere pansu pamene pali mvekeru yalero. Kamuzere kangono cabe.* (Nyanja: who can come to the front and underline where the sound /dw/ is appearing. A small underlining only).

**Pupils:** [Five pupils go to the front and underline the sound of the day correctly].

**Teacher:** [you are good children]. So *tiyeni tirembe* exercise *sono*. *Tolani ma buku yinu ya* (a, e, i, o, u). (Tumbuka: let us write the exercise now. Get your literacy books). [The teacher gives an exercise from the book which asked learners to complete the syllable by adding the correct one. Learns write in relation to the syllables of the day].

#### 6.4.10 Excerpt 10: Literacy lesson on the consonant sound cluster /mp/.

This lesson had 18 girls and 19 boys in attendance with 7 girls and 4 boys absent from the 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson unfolded as follows:

**Teacher:** *Lero tizaphunzira pa mvekero yopangiwa tikayika /m/ pamodzi na /p/*. (Nyanja: Today we shall learn on the sound which is made from the sound /m/ and /p/). *Mvekero ya /m/ last term tinapangirako mau monga 'mama' munda, munyu na mendo*. (Nyanja: the sound /m/ we used it last term to make words like 'mama, munda, munyu and mendo). *Mvekero ya /p/ tinapanga mau monga 'pepani, pansi, pensulo na kupenda*. (Nyanja: the sound /p/ we used it to make words like *pepani, pansi, pensulo and kupenda*). *Koma lero /m/ na /p/ tiviyike pamoza*. (Tumbuka: but today, we shall put /m/ and /p/ together). *Mvekero izamveka kuti /mp/ yusangika mu ma words yanandi ayo tumanya*. (Nyanja: the sound will be /mp/ and it is found in many words we know). For example, *ma words monga 'mpepo na mpika'*. (Nyanja: for example, words like 'mpepo and mpika'. *Yonse aya ma words yali na*

*mvekeru ya /mp/ po yamba ya word*). (Nyanja: all these words have the sound /mp/ at the beginning of the words). *Tiyeni tipende ma silabe ayo yali mu aya ma words nalemba pa board mpe/po, mpi/ka*. (Tumbuka: let us count the syllables in these words written on the board *mpe/po, mpi/ka*). So, *ku mvekelo yathu tikayikako ma vowels (a, e, i, o, u) tizapanga ma silabe ya (mpa, mpe, mpi, mpo, mpu)*. (So, to our sound of the day when we add the vowels (a, e, i, o, u), we shall make syllables like *mpa, mpe, mpi, mpo, mpu*). *Tiyeni tiwêrenge tonse mu class*. (Tumbuka: let us read all together as a class).

**Pupils chorus:** *mpa, mpe, mpi, mpo, mpu*

**Teacher:** [Okay], so, *nimau yabwanji yamene muziwa yali namvekeru ya /mp/*. (Nyanja: okay, so, which words do you know which have the sound /mp/). *Ni ma words uli ayo mumanya ayo yali na sound ya /mp/*. *Ninjani wangatiphalirako?* (Tumbuka: which words do you know which have the sound /mp/? who can tell us?)

**Pupils:** *mpapo, mpando, mpondamatiki, mpeni, mpoto, mpangwe, mpungu* among others. (Tumbuka, Nyanja: fertility, chair, richman, knife, pot, vegetable, hut among others).

**Teacher:** So, *tolani ma buku yinu tulembe ka exercise kadoko waka*. (Tumbuka: so, get your books you write an exercise). *Mutole ma buku ya (a, e, i, o, u), mulembe date ya lero makora*. (Tumbuka: you have to use the literacy books, write today's date properly). *Pala mwamala, mukopolole ivi nirembenge pa board*. (Nyanja: when you are done, copy what I have written on the board).

a. *Amai anapika sima mu ...oto.*

b. *Atate anankala pa ...ndo*

c. *Mu ...ngu nakudya msima.*

*Yikaniko ma silabe kuti nkani imale makola. Kuli vinyake ivo mundapulikiske?* (Tumbuka: put the syllables in the spaces provided so that the story can have a meaningful ending. Is there anything you have not understood?)

**Pupils chorus:** *yayi*, (Tumbuka: no).

**Teacher:** okay, *tiyeni tirembe mwaluwiro niconge*. (Nyanja: okay, let us write quickly so that I can mark).

#### **6.4.11 Excerpt 11: Literacy lesson on the consonant cluster sound /ny/**

This lesson had 22 girls and 23 boys in attendance with 2 girls absent from the 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate with each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

**Teacher:** *Lero tizaphunzira pa mvekeru yamene tisewenzesa maningi* and every day. (Nyanja: today we shall learn on the sound which you use so much every day). *Iyi mvekeru ni ya /ny/. Icoka kuli /n/ na /y/*. (Nyanja: the sound is the /ny/ sound. It comes from /n/ and /y/). Last term *tikasambira mosewenzesela mvekeru ya /n/ payeka na /y/ payeka*. (Tumbuka: last term we learnt on the use of the sound /n/ alone and /y/ on its own). *Izi mvekelo ziwiri takazifaka pamodzi, timapanga mvekeru ya /ny/*. (Nyanja: these two sounds when we put them together, we make the sound /ny/). *Mvekeru ya /ny/ imapanga mau monga nyumba na nyengo*. (Nyanja: the /ny/ sound makes words like ‘nyumba and nyengo’ ‘house and time’). *Aya mau yapangika cifukwa tayikako ma vowels ku*

*mvekero ya /ny/*. (Nyanja: these words are made because we have put vowels to the sound */ny/*). *Ninjani wangatiphalirako ma vowels yitu?* (Who can tell us our vowels?)

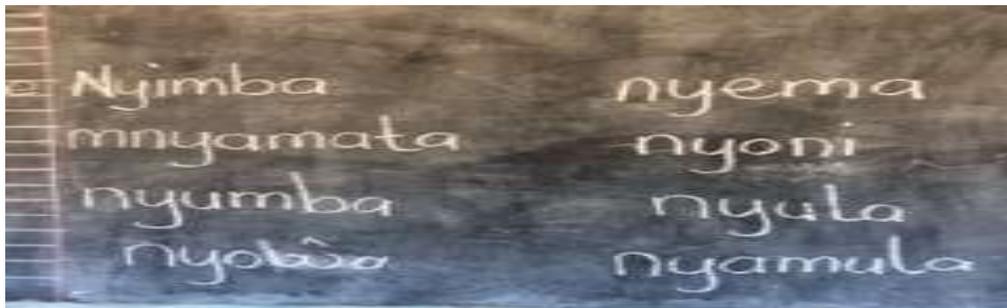
**Pupils chorus:** a, e, i, o, u.

**Teacher:** [Good]. So, *aya ma vowels pala tayika ku mvekero ya /ny/, tipange ma silabe monga aya: nya, nye, nyi, nyo, nyu*. [Teacher writes the syllables on the board]. (Tumbuka: Good. So, these vowels if we add to the sound */ny/* we shall make syllables like: *nya, nye, nyi, nyo, nyu*). *Tiyeni tiweringe tose!* (Tumbuka: let us read all of us).

**Pupils chorus:** *nya, nye, nyi, nyo, nyu*.

**Teacher:** So, *ninjani wangatiphalirako ma words awo munanya yali na mvekero ya /ny/?* (Tumbuka: So, who can tell us words which you know that have the sound */ny/*?) *Nindani angatiuzeko mau yali na mvekero ya /ny/ muno mu class?* (Nyanja: who can tell us the words which have the sound */ny/* in this class?)

**Pupils:** *Nyimbo, nyoni, nyama, nyozi, nyali, mnyamata, nyula*. (Tumbuka, Nyanja: song, bird, meat, fibre, lamp, boy, cloth). [Teacher writes some words the pupils have mentioned on the board].



**Figure 17:** sound */ny/*

**Teacher:** *aya ma words yamene nalemba pa board, yatantauza ciani nuvitundu vanu?* (Cinyanja: these words I have written on the board, what do they mean in your language?) [pupils raise their hands and teacher points at some pupils to explain the words written in the different languages]

**Pupils:** different pupils explained that: *nyozi timamangila nkhuni musanga, nyula ni cloth, nyimbo ni sumu* or gong, (Tumbuka: fibre we use it to tie a firewood bundle, cloth, song) *nyema ni kunyonsola, nyoni ni kayuni kapena* bird *muchizungu*. (Cinyanja: to get a piece, bird).

**Teacher:** very good, *mwalongosola bwino*. (Tumbuka: You have explained very well). So, *tolani ma buku yinu ya* (a, e, i, o, u). *Lembani date ya lero* then *mulembe* exercise *ya lero*. (Tumbuka: So, get your literacy books. Write today's date and then write the exercise). *Ngati watenga buku yako, uyambile pa page ya new kulemba vamene taphunzira lero*. (Nyanja: if you have gotten your book, you write on the new page what you have learnt today). [Teacher erased the sound of the day /ny/ to the words on the board and asked learners to write the words in full].

The findings on this question reveal that the teacher was consistent with classroom democratisation. Learners were able to realise the syllables in their different languages hence they made words in their local language using the syllable of the day. The teacher translated words from one language to another to enable all the learner know the concept being talked about. Learners were able to read the words in Cinyanja as well as their languages. The teacher was also interviewed on how she reflected regarding the use of translanguaging practices to teach literacy in the multilingual class.

## **6.5 Challenges the Teacher and Pupils Faced When Teaching/Learning Literacy through Translanguaging Practices**

There were a number of challenges teachers and pupils faced as a result of teaching and learning using the translanguaging pedagogical practices in a multilingual Grade One class of Lundazi District. Data was collected through interviews with the teacher while field notes complimented what was observed regarding the challenges both the teacher and the pupils faced in the translanguaging class.

### **6.5.1 Mismatch between language of instruction and dominant learner's familiar language**

The language of instruction was a challenge which hindered the acquisition of literacy by the learners in the translanguaging class. The teacher agreed to the fact that there was a mismatch between the language of instruction and the dominant familiar language of the learners in Lundazi District. She noted that word differences contributed to the lack of being literate faster by the learners in school. She said:

*Cinyanja words which are in the learner's books are not familiar to the words which learners use and know in this area. For example, words like kamba, kumwamba, phala, kupha, ndeo, ndiwo and nsabwe have been used in the book to give examples in texts. These words are different in meaning and writing in Tumbuka as: yoŵoya, kuchanya, bala, kukoma, mbembe, dende and nyinda in the same order. Therefore, such words make the Cinyanja text not to communicate the needed information to the learners when used in class because the languages are not similar.*

The teachers also acknowledged that the use of Cinyanja in the classroom where the learners were unable to understand the regional language proved to be a challenge. Learners stopped concentrating when Cinyanja was used constantly, and the language became a hindrance to learning. The teacher said:

*The continuous use of Cinyanja in multilingual classes make learners be lost and they stop concentrating. The teacher talks to him/herself as learners are lost in the lesson. We teach in a language and this language should match the languages of the learners not just assuming that they are the same or similar.*

Language mismatch between the regional language and the familiar language was a challenge which needed alternative solution.

### **6.5.2 Rigidity of the language policy premised on monolingualism**

The other challenge was enshrined in the policy which officially approved seven languages and gave them constitutional powers to be used as language of instructions in specific regions. These regions are zoned according to the ethnic grouping and settlements. It was pointed out that government has not reviewed the linguistic boundaries since 1965 to see how communities have changed and how certain languages have grown or died in some areas. The teacher stated that:

*The government as well has not softened its language policy. The misinterpretation of regional, familiar and community languages has brought about confusion within the learners and teachers. At first, it was clear that a familiar language was to be used to teach literacy. Us in Lundazi were supposed to use Tumbuka being the familiar language, but it later changed to regional language. With this policy at hand, I feel the government has not solved the*

*earlier problem of literacy learning to children like the Tumbuka speakers of Lundazi District.*

She added that of the language policy was flexible enough to allow teachers to use the learner's familiar language. The Cinyanja used in the district is the Lusaka version which is different from the written one and learners do not understand it too. The teacher said:

*Here, Tumbuka is the only language which is dominant. If you speak Nyanja in here people will think as if you have come from Lusaka because the language is alien. The language policy which talks about regional language does not help learners acquire literacy or even make them interact since the language barrier is concrete.*

The language policy was not helping the learners in class because the learners were literate in their language as they were able to write correct sounds. The teacher marked such wrong because the policy wants learners to be literate in Cinyanja and not their languages while learning.

***Field note 3, 2019***

*The use of Cinyanja to teach literacy has contributed much to the low literacy levels and late breakthrough in this district. Teachers first struggle to teach the Cinyanja language to the class before they can teach literacy in Cinyanja. Meanwhile, other children in Katete and Chadiza have no such language barriers to literacy teaching and learning.*

### **6.5.3 The Monolingual Ideology in the School and Curriculum**

The teacher revealed that the school curriculum promoted teaching using one language to all the learners as long as they are in that region. The teacher said:

*We have challenges as Grade One teachers to teach literacy in the multilingual classes of today. The one language instruction is not a way to teach literacy today because as teachers we are faced with learners from different linguistic backgrounds which we have to consider meeting the learner's needs. So, if the syllabus and curriculum was reviewed to meet the classes of today, we can help learners learn literacy better than ever.*

*As much as I want to use the learner's languages to enable them to participate in translanguaging class, learners do not open up and use their different languages because they know I do not know them. It is in learners that they are supposed to use Cinyanja in class hence they fail in most cases to speak their languages. The monolingual ideologies are more rooted into learners more than you may think.*

The other challenge was that teaching of literacy was only aimed at developing the regional language and its language practices or culture. This resulted into learners failing to understand some of the words which were supposed to be of value to the lesson. The teacher said:

*The problem with the current language practices which we are using to literacy is that the emphasis is on one language development which is the regional language. The learner's languages are not seen to be important even if we use them in class to help learners interact. Translanguaging should go beyond one language use and allow linguistic building of other languages to enable all learners benefit.*

*The available teaching practices in the syllabus and curriculum that are being promoted are all premised on one language*

*development in schools. I feel we should not force learners to start thinking in one language and make them abandon their languages for the sake of education. Yes, translanguaging has its own challenges but promotes what monolingual ideologies does not promote.*

The monolingual ideologies resulted in teachers marking learners by considering one language as the correct language in which answers should be given.

#### **6.5.4 Translanguaging perceived to be time consuming.**

The others challenge the teacher faced was regarding the management of time in the translanguaging class. In the first week of introducing the teaching practice, the teacher did not manage time very well and the observation was that learners were given more time to express themselves which was good on one hand yet turned out to be a challenge as the lessons were not concluded early enough to allow another teacher into the class. The teacher said:

*I did not manage to ensure that the lessons were concluded early enough in the first days of using the translanguaging practices because the class became very live. The learners over participated because they were able to make use of their language in class which was interesting. After a week, I managed to start controlling the talk and the lessons were conducted within time.*

*Time was also not well managed in my class because of the process of using more than one language to make meaning. When learners gave examples, the process of translation from one language into another and into another to cater for the majority of the class was taking time. Some words the learners used on a given sound were too abstract that I failed to even explain them.*

*But it was helpful since the learners knew what was taught on that day and how to use the sound.*

The sound was a common one looking at the words which the learners made when they were given chance to do so in line with the sound at hand like: *mpangwe*, *mpungu* and *mpapo* among others. These words were translated from one language to another to ensure the class was in tandem with the sound being taught in class. These words were not in Cinyanja but were Senga and Tumbuka words.

***Field Note 4, 2019.***

#### **6.5.5 Phonological and Phonemic challenges**

The teacher also revealed that there were phonological and phonemic challenges which made the classroom languages difficult to teach in the Grade One classes. The learner's familiar languages were different from the regional language of instruction. The teacher explained the following:

*There are phonological differences between Cinyanja and Tumbuka. Some sounds which were not in Tumbuka were a challenge to explain and translate from Cinyanja into Tumbuka. For instance, the sound /ts/ and /dz/. Even giving examples it was challenges as the Tumbuka learners found it strange to use such sounds. The language varieties were a challenge to synchronise in class.*

By asking the learner to close the door, the teacher wanted to make learners use the word 'citseko' but they switched to English and said 'door' and 'cijaro'. The learners also used the Tumbuka word which was different from the targeted sound of the day. The

teacher translated the word ‘*cijalo*’ into ‘*citseko*’ and asked the learners to consider the /ts/ sound. With the help of the chart, the sound was explained to the learners.

***Field Note 5, 2019.***

Some sounds and syllables were not even in the vocabulary of the two languages while other words meant the opposite of each other like the Cinyanja word ‘*tiwerenge*’ which meant to read and the Tumbuka ‘*tiwêrenge*’ which meant we go home.

The other challenge was the wrong linguistic transfer between the learner’s familiar languages and Cinyanja. The Tumbuka words which never existed in Cinyanja were also a challenge when it came to spellings in a translanguaging class. Words like ‘*skapato*’ (shoes) and ‘*skawâ*’ (groundnuts) were not found in Cinyanja. Such sounds were translated and provided talking points on the orthographical differences between the two languages so that learners did not combine the spelling systems in their writing of Cinyanja language.

The other challenge reported by the teacher was regarding the combination of the classroom languages when writing a text. This was very common with the learners who did not come to school constantly and those who joined the class late for various reasons like transfer and illnesses among others. Despite the code-switching manifesting in the learner’s written works, it was not a challenge for the translanguaging teacher as it made the teacher to realise that biliteracy was taking place in class.

**6.5.6 Monolingual Based Assessment**

The other challenge which was observed regarding the teaching of literacy using translanguaging practices was that assessment was administered in standard Cinyanja which was read to the learners by the teacher. Since learners could not read fluently, the teachers concerned read the assessment for the children as they followed and inserted the missing answers. The teacher said:

*I see learners failing to make sense of the sentence not because the learners are dull, but because the learners are being asked to express their literacy in a different language. If teachers can translate their reading to suit the language of the majority learning in class, we can see performance improving in the multilingual classes after assessment.*

*The emphasis on language mastery as well has been a challenge in the classroom and termly assessment. We want learners to write the second language as correct as their first language which is not possible. During assessment, I feel correctness of the sentence phrasing would be ideal. We have to look at the correctness of the presented work and the meaning it is making so that mastery can be reserved as the learners advance in the grades.*

*We have over-emphasised on the need for improved score as the main purpose for assessment and basing literacy development which I feel is just basic and not primary. Learners are literate in their language and when it comes to assessment, we should find better ways of tapping into their languages and the literacy they hold so that we evaluate how learning is taking place. We can easily count literacy scores, but the actual literacy knowledge is not considered which is making the multilingual learners operate in the two or more languages.*

During assessment, the monolingual marking key considered marking the language that was correct according to the standard Cinyanja, yet the teaching was conducted in multilanguages. This posed a challenge to the learners as it was early for them to completely separate the words and languages correctly.

### **6.5.7 Inadequate Teaching and Learning Material**

The challenge of teaching and learning material was also reported. It was revealed that the schools lacked learner's books for them to practice and read the target language which was being taught in school. The teachers said:

*Teaching and learning materials are in a regional language which is phonemically and phonologically different from the familiar languages of the learners. When such books are brought to the class, they are a second barrier since the first barrier is the spoken language of instruction. Learners only look at the books and enjoy the pictures, yet the written words do not make sense to them. Such make the learners fail to learn in class.*

It was established that there were insufficient literacy books for Grade One term two in the school. The schools were supplied few copies of the primary Zambian language books in 2015 after the new curriculum revision took place. The teacher said:

*The school was supplied with the teaching and learning materials for this new curriculum in 2014, but these were about 20 copies for each subject and term. Since then, the books have disappeared, and we cannot show the learners the writing in the books. The learners cannot read what the books say but wait for the teacher to write. This enabled me translanguage effectively since my materials were used for learning.*

*The conversational charts which were in use were for the NBTL program. The new curriculum has not come with charts and posters to make learners practice language in situations. This gives room to translanguaging which uses any chart to teach*

*learners since the pictures are applicable to the learner's environment and language.*

The teaching and learning materials were all monolingual designed. They already had the words and sounds which were supposed to be used on that sound of the day. The materials like charts and the books did not help the translanguaging class to effectively translanguage.

***Field note 6, 2019***

Through teacher creativity, translanguaging managed to go ahead with any teaching chart despite the language in which they are written. The challenge came with the phonological differences which resulted into linguistic and semantic loss.

**6.5.8 Monolingual Teaching and Learning Materials**

The other challenge was that the teaching and learning materials which the school had for the Grade One literacy class were all designed in Cinyanja and not other languages. The materials had difficult cultural words which were difficult for a multilingual class of today. The teacher explained the following:

*The teaching and learning materials like books and charts were all developed in standard Cinyanja which is 'Chewa' to be precise. Some of the words which are contained in the Grade One book for learners are new to me and I have to ask the indigenous Chewa people for me to understand, what more with the learner? The material is not friendly.*

*In the teaching and learning materials which the learners use for literacy, there are difficult words like 'mukeka' 'ndekha', 'ndowa', 'ndindia', 'mkute', and 'nsabwe' among others. There are no pictures attached to such words hence I just have to ask if*

*I can explain to the learners. Such one language sided materials are not helping us in schools.*

Such materials were a challenge to a translanguaging class because the teacher was always on the move to ask the people who know the words better to explain and give better examples before class time. This created a challenge for the teacher and the learners as some words were abstract.

### **6.5.9 Sociolinguistic Environment for Language Development**

The other challenge was the sociolinguistic environment in which the language is taught and practiced. Teaching literacy using monolingual ideologies was found to be challenging because the learners did not have language models outside the classroom. This made the classroom language of instruction be limited to the teacher and the few classroom activities which did not exist in the learner's environment. The teacher said:

*Teaching literacy to the learners whose familiar language is not the language of instruction needs constant practice of the language which does not happen to our learners here. The children speak Tumbuka and Senga in their play environment and Cinyanja is never heard. So, they fail to adapt to the classroom instruction since it is not their language of play.*

*Also, even at church, market and other social gatherings, Cinyanja is not used apart from in class. This affects the learner's adaptation to the classroom language because they do not speak it or hear it anywhere unless in school. This makes the teaching of literacy very difficult because we tend to repeat the same concepts, we teach every day for them to remember the words and associate them to the sounds in the classroom language. It is a drawback to say the least.*

As much as literacy is about reading and writing, oral literacy would be another form of testing the literacy skills in the learners whose first language is not the language of instruction. The concentration on the writing system poses a challenge on the multilingual learners in the early grade because their languages are not limited to the language of instruction. It is right to look at literacy in form of writing but as a system we do not allow the learners to use their languages to express their literacy which is not fair.

## **6.6 Chapter summary**

This chapter has presented findings of the study on the effects of the translanguaging practices in the Grade One multilingual literacy class in Lundazi District. The first findings were quantitative while the rest of the findings were qualitatively presented. The next chapter will present a discussion of the findings.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

#### 7.1 Overview

The previous chapter presented findings of the study on the impact of translanguaging as a pedagogical practice on literacy levels among Grade One learners in Lundazi district of Zambia. This chapter will present a discussion of findings. The study will refer to the literature and theories presented in the earlier chapters of this study to reflect, confirm and extend the current knowledge base and discussion around translanguaging as pedagogical practice. In presenting the analysis and discussion, the discussion is presented generally under research objectives. However, objective one and two have been discussed together under one combined heading. This is so because of the complementarity of the data of the two objectives. Notwithstanding, the third and fourth objectives have been discussed separately. Below is the discussion of the findings:

#### 7.2 The Impact and Benefits of Translanguaging among Graders One Learners in Lundazi District

The study established that using translanguaging pedagogical practices resulted in improved learner performance in the Grade One literacy multilingual classes in Lundazi District. These findings are in line with Wei (2011) who also found that translanguaging helps students to acquire and use accurately a range of general academic and domain-specific words and phrases sufficient for reading, writing, speaking, listening and use in class. Further analysis of the study findings between the pretest and the post tests of the control class show that learner's performance dropped by -0.12 as a result of the continuous use of the monolingual class. The findings confirms that monolingual practices in multilingual classes account for low literacy achievements in the Zambian schools (Chinyama, 2016; Simachenya, 2017; Lukama, 2016). The strict use of one language in the control class resulted into symbolic violence in which learner's cognitive powers were disabled. It is these colonial language ideologies and practices which have

consistently made the majority of children in Zambia to have low score in national and regional literacy assessments.

Improved literacy performance by multilingual learners was characterised by the linguistic freedom and learner speech freedom which accounted for concept understanding of learners in class. Similar findings were reported Jiménez *et al.*, (2015) who found that translanguaging through translating English text into Spanish enabled students to collaboratively construct meanings at the word, sentence, and text levels while developing more understandings of the forms and functions of language. Learner achievement increased from the pretest scores to better scores in the post test. Clearly, there is a link between translanguaging, learner participation, motivation and understanding of the content which eventually result into improved learner performance. Thus, the liberating effects of translanguaging and the counteraction of marginalisation of languages and their speakers become cognitively empowering. In the experimental class, learners had the power to socialise and build on their social and cultural knowledge which resulted in improved content assimilation and participation in the lesson. The foregoing is also supported by Creese and Blackledge (2008) who asserted that using two languages in the classroom has been a valuable resource that contributes to performance, lesson accomplishments and participation of learners. Therefore, the results of this study dismiss assertions by Arafin (2016) who argued that multilingualism was a source of confusion and resulted in learners not improving in their academic performance due to cognitive overload in any classroom. The findings of our study have shown that such coloniality and language ideologies informed by linguistic imperialism do not correctly depict the reality of multilingual classrooms in sub-Saharan Africa and Zambia in particular. Notions of language as bound entities are not only outdated but unrealistic. Rather, languages should be viewed as resources (Ruiz, 1984) which co-work in meaning making during classroom interaction.

The other benefit which this study established was the fact that there was multiliteracy development in the classroom. Learners became literate in their individual languages

which existed in the classroom. This can be seen from figure 3 where learners wrote different words according to the sounds which were given to them. The figure has Cinyanja words like ‘*cabe*’ (only), Tumbuka words like ‘*dada*’ (father), ‘*ica*’ (come) and English word ‘*buca*’ (butcher) among others. These findings resonate with what Garcia (2009) meant when she argued that the use of bilingual pedagogy will help the learners to use their emergent literacy to learn. Further, Garcia and Kleyn (2016) observed that through including all participants in a collaborative, culturally and linguistically valuing space led to development of metalinguistic awareness, cultural consciousness, and new understandings of participation and voice.

In this study, translanguaging is in tandem with the view of considering classroom languages as a right which schools and teachers should not neglect. The realisation of the learner’s rights to their languages in classrooms brought about multiliteracy development. Translanguaging is a drive to multiliteracy development in multilingual classes and should be encouraged. The study established that there was literacy development in the learner’s familiar language (biliteracy). This was realised near the end of the term. Learners were also able to identify, write concepts and words using their local language (Tumbuka) in place of the target language (Cinyanja) as shown in figure 4. This was an evidence of learners developing writing skills in both the target language and the home language. The findings are supported by Palmer (2008) who noted that the positioning of learners also has the potential to move initially marginalized individuals into empowering spaces. Literacy development in the learner’s languages was an indication of cultural sustainability as the learners were preview to their cultural literacy development which later increased their access to knowledge in the classroom. This agrees with Cummins (2005) who argued that using translanguaging enables students to create bilingual text and translate from one language to the next. Bilingual texts were a benefit in a multilingual class which Nymbili and Mwanza (2021) found to be facilitating learning between the language of instruction and the learners’ classroom languages which were different. As much as the learners were translanguaging, their linguistic development was

in both the home language and classroom language of instruction, Cinyanja and Tumbuka.

Building on Makalela's (2019) notions of hearer centred perspective and speaker centred perspective to languaging, what one observes in the data is that while the translanguaging (experimental) class used hearer centred languaging, the control class (monolingual) employed the speaker centred perspective to meaning making. Thus, the results of the experiment confirm the idea that epistemic access rests on hearer centred perspective to languaging. In fact, the rationale for translanguaging as premised on the recognition of learner's linguistic repertoires point to the fact that teachers should decolonise the curriculum and employ language practices which resonate with the learner. It is the provision of this learner centred pedagogy which works hand in hand with hearer centred languaging. On the other hand, the monolingual class recorded a drop in performance because classroom communication was speaker centred.

In this case, the speaker is the teacher who does not recognise the languages represented in the class and the corresponding language abilities/inabilities of the learners. This practice externalises learning and access to knowledge in which case, the learner is excluded and discriminated from the leaning context. Hence, the argument for translanguaging in classroom practice is informed by its inclusivity and cognisance of everyone present in the classroom regardless of the linguistic and cultural background. As Makalela (2019) puts it, translanguaging works in tandem with the 'Ubuntu' logic where fairness and equity is central to pedagogy. Similarly, learners are because the teacher is. This demonstrates that the teacher is inadequate in transmitting learning because both teaching and learning only take place when both the teacher and the learner are involved in a mutually engaging classroom interlocution. Linguistically, Makalela (2019:240) argues that "it is useful to use the ubuntu logic to point that one language is incomplete without the other" especially in African communities where multilingualism is a norm. Therefore, the simultaneous co-working of the languages on one hand and

teacher and learners on the other hand translate into significant learning as the results have shown in this study.

Further, it has been deciphered from the data that for children to acquire literacy skills in African multilingual classrooms, there is need for what Makalela (2019) calls discontinuation continuation. In this study, this involved the constant disruption of orderliness as enshrined in the curriculum and language policy which is premised on monolingual/monoglot conceptualisation of language. This disruption was characterised with a simultaneous recreation of new knowledge through translanguaging. We therefore argue that if African teachers of literacy will implement curriculum with the coloniality which informs it, there will be sustenance of low literacy gains in education. Hence, discontinuation continuation is a call for the decolonisation of the curriculum in which learner centred pedagogy will be practiced through recontextualisation of education knowledge context by context. Since curriculum implementation and classroom language practice is informed by power and hegemony, teachers must realise that they too, have the power to negotiate the curriculum for the empowerment of their learners through epistemic access. In fact, Gort and Sembiante (2015) contends that bilingual teachers become agentic social actors within their classrooms and schools despite prevalent structural constraints in dual language education around bilinguals' language choice and use. The benefits are that it provided a chance for teachers and learners to engage into multiliteracy development in class and beyond through the free social interaction in class. Muntigl *et al.*, (2000) recognises that the teacher's classroom position and power is signalled not only by grammatical forms within a text or speech, but also by the teacher's control of a social occasion, by means of the genre of a text, or by access to certain public spheres. The teacher's multilingualism status extends to the learners through the provision of powers to make them interact and use their linguistic powers to learn from each other using the familiar language. Learner's benefits are as a result of the teacher's extension of the linguistic olive branch to them so that they benefit from their home languages and literacies.

The data has provided evidence to the fact that when the identities of the learners have been recognised in the school and classroom, learner self-confidence and cognitive powers flourish. Makalela (2019) makes this point poignant when he explained that in Africa where most people grow up speaking more than one language “input and output alternation is the only way to become, gain epistemic access and develop a higher sense of self in education”. This is particularly crucial in urban areas such as Lundazi urban where translocal mobility has resulted into linguistic mobility and language contact. Therefore, provision of education in such environments require a context sensitive pedagogy which recognise rather than impose identities on the learners. When this happens, the school and the education sectors realise both qualitative and measurable learning benefits as evidenced in this study.

The findings have also shown that translanguaging practices led to improved classroom attendance and reduced absenteeism. This is particularly crucial because attendance leads to more learning and therefore a high chance of acquiring the skills of reading and learning. On the other hand, the findings suggest that when monolingual practices are used, learners shun the classroom. This is so because they do not feel part of the classroom as they are symbolically violated through the monolingual use of the language they do not understand. In the process, learners lose motivation and the will to learn. It is also clear from the findings that when the classroom is liberated through translanguaging, learners own the learning space and the learning process which later leads to improved performance as evidenced in this study. Thus, one of the solutions to absenteeism recorded in Grade One classes which Mwanza (2020) cited as one of the causes of low literacy levels in Zambia is the liberation of the classroom through translanguaging. This is so because on the evidence of the findings of this study, one of the causes of absenteeism among first graders is the symbolic violence they suffer in classroom through the employment of opaque languages and language practices. In fact, Malcolm and Truscott (2012) provide further evidence to this argument when they reported that in Cyprus, translanguaging improved learner attendance during their six months

experimental period and it drastically reduced after the experiment when monolingual/monoglot practices were resumed. Therefore, translanguaging leads to other positive learner behaviours such as attendance which culminate into improved performance and general enjoyment of learning and the learning space.

In summary, it can be reiterated that translanguaging lead to both measurable impact (improved learner performance) and unmeasurable benefits such as improved classroom participation, improved attendance, relaxed and inclusive classroom and development of biliteracy.

### **7.3 Translanguaging Practices in Multilingual Grade One Literacy Classroom**

The study revealed that translanguaging practices in the multilingual class were characterised by the use of authentic visual teaching and learning materials which facilitated learning. The teacher used pictures that were familiar in their home environment and then engaged learners on what they were seeing on the chart using the learner's language like in except 2. The teacher asked the learners to look at the chart and say what they could see. Pupils responded as (*Kwendo, mwendo, lundi*, leg. (Nsenga, Nyanja, Tumbuka and English: leg). The teacher used a teaching and learning material (a picture) and used a mixture of Tumbuka and Cinyanja to make the learners use their languages to start the learning process. From the responses, learners have used four languages being Nsenga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja and English to describe the chart. These were the available languages circulating the classroom. From this, it is evident that translanguaging practices are necessitated by the use of authentic visual teaching and learning material in a Zambian multilingual class. The class was able to follow the teacher's language use after providing the basis for translanguaging in the lesson. From this observation, it is clear that translanguaging practices practiced by the teacher enable learners to follow through and make the lesson interactive. In this case, while the picture only had semiotics, it is learners who took their multilingual repertoires as they consumed

and made sense of the semiotic resource. This in translanguaging is not only multilingual materials which engender translanguaging, pictures or semiotics can also be used to engender multilingual language practices like translanguaging as it happened in this class.

The study findings further established that translanguaging took the front of code mixing and code switching provided the ability to break the classroom linguistic barriers between the teacher and the learners and within the learners. From the teacher's language practices, the teacher was observed to be using a variety of languages to save the purpose in class as seen in except 7 when the teacher was explaining as (*Cijalo na door nivimoza, kwene mu class ticemenge cijalo kuti 'citseko'*). (Tumbuka: *cijalo* and door are the same. In class we shall be using the word 'door' as '*citseko*'). [She writes the word '*citseko*' on the board]. *Tonse tiyeni tiwêrenge ma silabe yali muli iyi* word *nalemba pa* board *ci/tse/ko*. (Tumbuka: let us all read the syllables which are in the word I have written on the board *ci/tse/ko*).

The teacher is seen starting a sentence with a Tumbuka construction, switch to English, come back to Tumbuka, then English and Tumbuka combined with Cinyanja. In the second explanation, the teacher starts with Cinyanja (*tonse tiyeni*), then uses a Tumbuka word *tiwêrenge* for precise meaning making, comes back to Cinyanja (*ma silabe yali muli iyi*), go back to English (word), Cinyanja word (*nalemba pa*) then English word (board) and lastly the word with the syllable of the day. Mouton (2007) assert that code switching can be seen as a communication strategy to learners for a foreign language to assist in transmitting knowledge, clarify concepts when teachers discover that learners have deficient linguistic competency in the target language. The teacher code switched amongst three languages to enable clarify concepts and cater for the learners with language deficiencies in Cinyanja. From the way the teacher was able to translanguage in a classroom, she was able to break the classroom language barriers and enabled the teacher to move from one language to the other in order to facilitate classroom learning. Consistent with the findings, Lin (2005) emphasizes that code switching has great pedagogical potentials such as increasing inclusion, participation and understanding in

the learning process as evidenced from this study. From the classroom observation on how the learners responded, breaking linguistic barrier in a literacy class resulted in opening up the learning opportunities for learners in this study. The result of breaking linguistic barriers was that learners were also able to respond to the teacher's instructions positively as this created a permissive atmosphere for learning.

Learners in classroom exist as monolingual speakers in different perspectives depending on the dominant language which is available in the community. In practice, the bilingual model being used in the education system in Zambia make the Zambian children be bilingual and those who are bilingual become multilingual speakers. In this case, learners come to use a language which is more dominant in their daily life more than the passive languages. Garcia and Wei (2014) states that code switching is perceived as the use of separate languages to achieve a communication task to a given audience. In code switching, the speaker uses different languages in a conversation as if the languages are one, yet they are serving communication purposes. Translanguaging does not see languages to be independent but looks at the purpose of the language in the communication process. In the two concepts, it is clear that code switching identifies the languages being used while translanguaging does not. Translanguaging looks at the languages an individual has acquired to be a collection which has to be used fluidly and not in isolation. The similarity therefore lies in the practice or outcome which is the communication function of language to a given situation. Therefore, code switching and translanguaging brings the practice to accept that languages are fluid and are used to serve the function of the occasion hence speakers should not be rigid. Through code switching, one language can be suppressed while in translanguaging, there is no language suppression. Therefore, with the Zambian class, translanguaging through code switching brought about language development in learners which resulted into benefits accruing to learners.

The study findings also revealed that classroom translanguaging engaged learners and the teacher into the use of the learner's first languages to build on the lesson of the day. The

uniqueness of the practice was that the teacher initiated the classroom conversation through a conversational chart where the learners used their languages to describe what they saw. Through different languages, the teacher was able to build the lesson by considering the sounds of the words the learners made. Thus, the teacher was the first to translanguage before asking pupils to say anything. Lin and Martin (2005) explain this when they stated that in teaching multilingual classes using translanguaging practices, the teacher makes the first move, called 'initiation'. The second move called the 'response', is made by the pupil while the third move referred to as 'feedback', is made by the teacher. Thus, the sequence of Initiation, Response and Feedback (IRF) is practiced making the teacher and the learners interact using the planned language activity in class. The teacher in this study was able to use the IRF interaction pattern as a strategy to increase pupil participation in the lessons and invoke conversation using the classroom languages. Baker et al (2008) argues that the teacher should account for the intertextual and interdiscursive relationships between utterances, texts, genres and discourses, as well as extra-linguistic social/sociological variables in classroom if learners are to speak and participate in class. Therefore, the teacher's move to initiate translanguaging enables the teacher to engage the learners into an initiated directed utterances, texts, genres and discourse and meaning making in class. Translanguaging enabled text, discourse and utterance building in the learner's available languages and enhanced learning. In an education system characterised by monolingualism, the teacher's use of multiple languages empowers learners and implicitly given them permission to do the same. In doing so, the teacher democratises the classroom which translates into mass learner participation, and the lesson becomes enjoyable to both the teacher and the learners.

The classroom conversations were characterised by power sharing between the teacher and the learners. The teacher's ability to relinquish her control of the classroom learning through language gave hope to the learners to participate in the learning situation. In relation to this shift in discourse, Bernstein (1973) states that every pedagogic discourse is characterised by power and control which circulates in the classrooms. The power

circulation is done by the teachers who implement the proposed curriculum content through a language which is imposed on the learners according to the region they are. The lessons to be drawn from this is that a multilingual class needs the teacher's ability to understand that language has power to suppress the learners and to build the learners' academic powers if democratised. It is therefore, demonstrated that when teachers' powers of curriculum control divert from monolingualism and accept the sociolinguistics of the classroom, literacy learning takes place. This also makes the teacher to realise that language and literacy learning can only be possible when the teacher controls the language less and enables the classroom languages to take centre stage. Discourse power in this context play a key role in literacy teaching while the teacher is the only player to limit these powers and facilitate learning.

The teacher's language practices suggest that she is agile and appreciate the instructional use of translanguaging. This can be seen from the teacher's classroom practices which demonstrated that teacher-learner interaction was key in ensuring languaging and learning were taking place in a free environment. The teacher focused on the social practices of individual learners and how each interaction resulted into desired learning outcomes. Here, emphasis is on how teachers should create an enabling environment in the classroom so that learners can interact and share knowledge in class. The agility to shuttle between several languages in class with ease is a plus for the Zambian multilingual classrooms. This brings about the elimination of the artificial boundaries between languages thereby proving the linguistic argument correct which states that 'languages are fluid' in a multilingual class when translanguaging practices are used. This also proves that although teachers do not need to be multilingual to translanguage because the lessons are interactive and sharing in nature. The teacher's role is to engage learners and extensively exploit the available linguistic resources in the classroom and school to facilitate learning and teaching. Shifidi (2014) advises that teachers should acknowledge the necessity of translanguaging and in enhancing learning and understanding, participation, socialization in multicultural/lingual classrooms when a free atmosphere is

developed. Additionally, Durán and Palmer (2013) states that translanguaging was used to achieve communicative goals that came out to be considered as useful forms of interaction within the classroom. With regards to the way the teacher and learners interacted, translanguaging enabled them to socially engage each other in class through the instructional materials which created an enabling environment for smooth knowledge sharing and in the familiar local languages instead of the regional language which was not familiar. In multilingual classrooms, the sharing concept using the available languages resulted into a relaxed environment for learning in class.

The other translanguaging practices involved translation of key linguistic concepts from the target language to the learner's languages to enable learner understanding the classroom lesson of the day. This can be seen taking place in lesson 7. What was observed was that the teacher used a learner to go and close the door and the learners were asked what was closed. The learner's responses were (*cinjaro*, door, *citseko*) depicting Tumbuka, English and Cinyanja languages. The teacher's teaching technique was to translate the word into '*citseko*' as the word for the class to stand for door and '*cijaro*' as mentioned by the pupils. In lesson 6, the teacher used the word '*Chiphazi*' which is noun in both Cinyanja and Tumbuka but in Cinyanja, it is a person's name while in Tumbuka it stands for a big foot, and it can also be a person's name. Later, pupils made words which contained the aspirated /ph/ sound and the teacher with the help of the class translated the words between languages. In the classroom, it is clear that translation brought the classroom languages to one central concept of the day, the sound of the day. Consistent with the study, Creese and Blackledge (2010) mentions that when this type of pedagogy is supported, the different local languages available are used through repetition and translation across languages. They add that in using translanguaging pedagogical practices, learners are free to use their first language and share the meaning and understanding of the learnt knowledge in class with the supervision of the teacher's translation. In addition, Hall, and Cook, (2012) contends that not only is translation important regarding sharing information or knowledge to others, but it has also been

perceived to be an effective means of language learning while protecting learners' linguistic and cultural identity. From the foregoing discussion, it is significant to realise that language alternation should be viewed as a resource since it makes the concepts known in one language be known in another. As a result, cultural retention and language development are realised in learners.

The other translanguaging practice was the co-working with translation across languages. This was the strategy the teacher used to also ensure that every learner had access to the knowledge being presented in class. Findings by Pacheco (2016) add that translation in classroom also gave teachers opportunities to develop understandings of students' proficiencies with translating into their heritage language. The teacher's ability to translate from one language to the other was a plus for learners as they were able to collectively use their languages in class, share the meaning of their answers and make reasonable conclusions on the knowledge of the day. It can be noted that through pedagogical practices like translation, the learner's vocabulary was enriched since they were able to interact with different languages in the multilingual class. Vocabulary enrichment happened in the manner that learners shared their linguistic knowledge and elements which both, the teacher and the learners, realised to be an important aspect in learning. Since teaching and learning deals with concept acquisition, the teacher's ability to allow translation of concepts by the learners resulted into the learner's using their languages in writing and reading beyond the classroom. With these findings, Wortham (2006) asserted that the learners translate words for the teacher and the teacher translates for the learners hence learning is a double sword affair. Meanwhile earlier studies by Shin (2005) perceived translation was a share waste of time and teachers pretended not to know the language of the minority learners can be disputed with the current findings. Words and concepts are tactfully translated from one language to the other so that all learners can share the same knowledge which is being talked about in class. Therefore, teachers should ensure they support learner's understanding of concepts in class through

pedagogical translation and reap from its benefits to support translanguaging in a multilingual classroom.

The study findings also established that the learners were motivated to continue participating in the lessons because the words they gave out as answers in their local languages were written on the board by the teacher. For instance, in excerpt 7, the teacher asked learners to make words using the sound of the day /mb/ and they made the following words: *Mbuzi*, *kambwili*, *mbulu*, *mbale*, *mbembe*, *mbavi*, *mbuto*, *malembo*, *mbambo*, (Nyanja: goat, hoe): (Tumbuka: monitor lizard, fight, ribs, axe). Meanwhile the last three, seed, plate, writings, are found in both languages. This demonstrate that the multilingual Zambian class is opened for education achievements through the familiar language use. The teacher wrote all these responses on the board even if they were not official languages. To pupils, writing their languages on the board did not only authenticate their languages but their bilingualism, culture and identities, made them feel part of the classroom and owned the classroom interaction. In this sense, translanguaging recognises pupil's identities and gives them the self-belief and confidence to learn. Consistent with the findings, McCracken (2018) supports that translanguaging is presented as an important, language-learning tool that opens an educational space for both multiple languages and identities to thrive side-by-side equally. García (2014) also add that translanguaging as practices have the potential to liberate the voices of language-minoritized students. From the Zambian multilingual classroom, translanguaging liberated minority students by utilising all their languages in their repertoire flexibly, enhancing both their general learning and communicative potential which manifested through active participation. The learner's ability to actively get involved in the classroom communication and contribute to the lesson effectively can be attributed to the teacher's flexibility in language use in class.

The study findings established that teaching sound differences between the target language and the learner's languages provided linguistic harmony in concept building and instruction understanding in a multilingual classroom. Drawing from a practical situation

in excerpt 11, learners were able to explain the words and give their meaning in class as demonstrated by the teacher. (*nyozi timamangila nkhuni musanga, nyula ni cloth, nyimbo ni sumu* or song, (Tumbuka: fibre we use it to tie a firewood bundle, cloth, song) *nyema ni kunyonsola, nyoni ni kayuni kapena* bird *muchizungu*. (Cinyanja: to get a piece, bird). The learner's explanation was key in making and creating linguistic harmony between the three major languages that circulated in the classroom. By the learner's explaining what the words meant, the class knew what they were talking about from their cultural point of view since all these elements existed in their environment. Through this linguistic harmonisation amongst the languages, learners felt secure when learning through their languages hence they were even to clearly explain the meaning of the words in the languages. From the foregoing, Hélot (2014) argued that translanguaging is a means to counteract linguistic insecurity in the classroom. With the removal of linguistic insecurity through language and classroom democratisation, learners in the multilingual first grade class of Lundazi were accorded the rights to education and they also claimed the rights to use their language in the classroom situation because of translanguaging.

From the study findings, it can be explained that learners are a resource in a translanguaging class. It is just languages that are resources and the learners who speak these languages. In this case, learners can learn to speak these languages and vocabularies from other pupils through highly translanguaging acts. In the Zambian multilingual class, the teacher's role was to liberalise the linguistic environment and introduce the concept to the learners. Using their creativity, learners made words from their creativity repertoire which had the sound of the day. These findings are supported by Martin (2005) who revealed that translanguaging is a good practice because it offers classroom participants a 'creative, and pragmatic' and safe practice between the official languages of the lesson and the language which the classroom participants know. Data in this study show that learners were a resource to learning since they made words that were creative in nature and supported the teaching and learning using their languages. Therefore, translanguaging presented itself as means for learners to bring out their harboured languages to the classroom and beyond so that learning can take place beyond the classroom.

From the foregoing, translanguaging practices in the Zambian classroom brought about sustainable learning outcomes which benefited learners. The teacher was given the right to relinquish her powers of controlling the language of the class and allow multilingualism to take place in class. Huckin *et al.*, (2012) cited in Mwanza and Bwalya (2019) states that the classroom is a place where power is circulated, exploited, managed, negotiated, resisted and often directly impacted by institutional policies and changes, the translanguaging Grade One class was a place where language rights for the learners were given to the learners and allowed them to exercise their freedom to local language. As a result, the learners were able to interact freely and contribute to the lesson, share knowledge in class, share cultural knowledge through translation and enrich their linguistic power through multiliteracy development. As a result, literacy teachers used the multilingualism in the multilingual class as a resource instead of seeing it as a problem. Thus, Zambian teachers who are the policy implementers must realise that the classroom sociolinguistics has changed, and the pedagogical practices should respond to the change. This is so because literacy instruction through translanguaging practices has informed this study that there are better ways of accessing the learner's multilingual thoughts and use them to their leaning advantage than the current monolingual policy.

#### **7.4 Challenges teachers and learners faced when Translanguaging in Grade One Multilingual Classroom of Lundazi District**

There were a number of challenges which the teacher and the learner faced in the process of teaching and learning literacy using translanguaging practices in the Grade One class. The first challenge was the mismatch between language of instruction and dominant learner's familiar language. Cinyanja which was the classroom language of instruction was not mutually intelligible with the learner's familiar languages in many aspects hence the anticipated literacy acquisition period was not standard in the class. For example, Cinyanja words like *kamba*, *kumwamba*, *phala*, *kupha*, *ndeo*, *ndiwo* and *nsabwe* have been used in the text of the Grade One book to give examples. These words are different in meaning and writing in Tumbuka as: *yoŵoya*, *kuchanya*, *bala*, *kukoma*, *mbembe*, *dende* and *nyinda*. Therefore, it can be deduced that a teacher teaching literacy in a multilingual

class of Lundazi has to be familiar with the two languages if the learners are to benefit from the lessons. School communities like the ones in Lundazi have challenges regarding literacy learning due to the linguistic difference and this results into obstacles in literacy acquisition in the lower grades. In supporting the findings, Helot (2014) revealed that some communities were not ready to learn using another language apart from their first language. Indeed, Lundazi can be a better example from this study due to lexical and semantic differences between the community and regional language used for instruction. To this, Cummins (2012) argues that a trained teacher would understand that learners are not ready to use another language apart from their own in the learning situation in class. This challenge provides fertile grounds for translanguaging in the Zambian communities since the seventy languages cannot be mutually intelligible with the regional languages and support literacy instructions in the multilingual communities. This challenge also suggests that language zoning was arbitrary and does not represent the sociolinguistic situation in all the regions. In the context of the study, Chichewa (Cinyanja) is thought to be suitable for Lundazi on the premise that it is both familiar and mutually intelligible with the dominant language. Results in this study have proved this wrong as Tumbuka and Cinyanja are not mutually intelligible.

The study also found that there was rigidity of the language policy which based on monolingualism throughout the learner's learning process. This was evident from the fact that the ultimate goal of teaching literacy according to the policy was not meant to support literacy in the learner's languages, but in the official language of instruction which was not the learner's language for the multilingual class of Lundazi district. Therefore, the monolingual policy still pulls back the teacher and classroom practices to point back to monolingual instruction which derails learning. Consistent with the findings, Garcia and Lin (2017) asserted that the lack of clear multilingual policy implies that schools and teachers do not have guidelines on how to use or support multiple community languages in their classrooms. The education our future policy and the national literacy framework realised the need for mother tongue instruction in multilingual communities as noted: "Children arrive on the first day of school with thousands of oral vocabulary words and

facet knowledge of the sound system of their mother tongue but are unable to use and build upon these linguistic skills because they are instructed in a foreign language. Dismissing this prior knowledge and trying to teach children to read in a language they are not accustomed to hearing or speaking, makes the teaching of reading difficult, especially in under-resourced schools in developing countries (MOE, 2014:12).” By foreign language, the policy was referring to English. The thinking here is that only English is a foreign language and unfamiliar language to Zambians, yet it is clear that even Zambian languages are foreign to some pupils whose familiar languages are significantly different from the designated seven regional languages. That is why Zambian children are symbolically violated in the class while the policy assumes that all the children in a region will understand one regional language. Therefore, despite realising the need for multilingual literacy instruction in the policy, the literacy practices in the classrooms still do not support the learner’s languages and does not recognise the multilingualism existing in the Zambia society. Therefore, the policy has not helped to promote literacy development in the multilingual communities like Lundazi but supports monolingual literacy instructions which results into lower academic gains in school.

Study findings further revealed that translanguaging was perceived to be time consuming in the multilingual class because the knowledge delivery processes were seen to be longer. The perceived longer process was from the activities that involved learner interaction with knowledge in their local languages, teacher writing the similar sound on the board and giving the learners feedback on the sound to enable them to realise the concepts behind them. The process of learner involvement was the one which was considered to be time consuming yet that is the normal process of teaching learners. The teacher’s views agreed with Arocena *et al.*, (2015) who stated that realising the learner’s language in class is time worsting since the teacher gives more time to learners to participate in the lesson which creates confusion. They believed that learner participation through their local languages was time consuming and impractical to language learning situation. It must be stated that the views of the teacher in this study as well as Arocena *et al.*, (2015) views were based on monolingual monoglot ideologies. They support the silencing of learners and see it as

progress and efficiency. With these monolingual ideologies being fostered throughout, monolingualism is seen desirable compared to learner participation through translanguaging. In view of these negative language ideologies, Mwanza (2020) and Nyimbili and Mwanza (2020) suggests that decolonising the curriculum and the minds of the teachers should be the first step into democratising literacy classrooms in Zambia and sub-Saharan Africa. This makes the study conclude that the scholars who see multilingualism as a challenge will always promote monolingualism and see the classroom languages as a distractor to learning in literacy classes. However, if learning has to take place in any class, it has to take the learner to interact with the knowledge in the language they understand better, and this is what this study can call *'ideal learning'* in Zambian multilingual classrooms. Therefore, Zambian multilingual classrooms need an ideal learning environment to make learning take place with access to learner's linguistic resources while respecting their rights to language in class and school.

The monolingual-based assessment was another challenge the teachers and learners faced in the multilingual classroom. Despite translanguaging taking place and learners showing improved literacy skills, assessment was meant to test the Cinyanja literacy skills without considering the learner's literacy skills in their various languages which was a monolingual concept. A translanguaging class build literacy in the learner's individual languages and it is these literacies which must be assessed on how they are being applied in classroom and beyond. However, the assessment practices in Lundazi only focused on the literacy skills in the regional language, Cinyanja which disadvantaged the multilingual class and defeated the purpose of translanguaging. The monolingual-based assessment spreads across the curriculum where only learners who pass the language of instruction are considered worthy advancing to the university and tertiary education which renders other languages not important in the Zambian education system. This challenge was also seen to exist by Lopez et al., (2017) when they mentioned that most current initial content assessments administered within schools assume a monoglossic perspective in that they assume all students are monolingual. With such a challenge at hand, the Zambian education system therefore considers the literate people as those who can operate in the

regional and standard language while those with the knowledge of their local languages and cannot show literacy in the main languages are illiterate. This concept has led to the promotion of educational gains in the seven constitutionalised regional language while suppressing other languages and their subsequent educational gains.

The other challenge was that there was inadequate teaching and learning materials which supports monolingual and bilingual acquisition. The classroom observation revealed that the teacher had one literacy book which she used to teach the learners and they depended mainly on her writing on the board. This was evidence that the government has not adequately supported the teaching of literacy in Lundazi district because it has not supplied sufficient literacy instructional materials like pupil's and teacher's books as well as charts to promote literacy development in the target language. This challenge confirms why the literacy level in the target language were low. The nonexistence of these materials affected translanguaging instruction because there was no reference for correct language construction to teach comprehension and read the structure of the target language. Consistent with the findings, Sayer (2013) indicated that at the outset of implementation, concern for lack of instructional materials in the mother tongues is certainly valid, especially since the policy seems to have been implemented in "a headlong rush" constitution. Earlier, MOE (1996) accepted that there have been shortages of teaching and learning materials in the Zambian education system especially at primary school level. In addition, Nyimbili, Namuyamba and Chakanika (2018) found that there was a shortage of teaching and learning materials for effective teaching of English language using learner centred techniques. Mwanza (2020) categorically states that lack of literacy teaching and learning material is one of the causes for consistent illiteracy levels in Zambia. Hence, there is need for government to provide adequate and appropriate linguistically appropriate teaching and learning materials in Lundazi District.

Theoretically, these challenges are policy related and can only be sorted out through policy realignment. Baker (2008) also observed that the monolingual policy provides dominance, discrimination, power and control, as they are manifested in the languages

the teacher uses in class. A hostile environment exists for the children whose first languages are not among the seven languages, and they are not supported by the teacher's linguistic practices since the policy deters him or her from translanguaging and give the learner's an opportunity to use their languages to access educational benefits. Therefore, these challenges need policy direction to respond to the learner's needs of the classrooms of today which has evolved.

The other challenge the teacher and learners faced was the sociolinguistic environment for language development which was not favouring multilingual development. The school environment supported monolingual instruction because other teachers did not translanguage in their lessons because the policy did not support the practice. MOE (2014:17) states that "...since learners come from different language backgrounds, it is very important that teachers conduct oral language lessons in order to expand their learners' working vocabulary in familiar languages which are used for instruction." This policy theoretically recognises familiar languages but practically points to monolingual regionalisation of language teaching. Therefore, in practice, this policy statement does not support the learner's local languages but points back to the regional language which is the language of instruction (Cinyanja). Therefore, the social environment to allow translanguaging to take place is not supported in the monolingual policy promoted Zambian schools.

In view of these findings, Zentella (2003) noted that code-switching was not favoured by monolingual prone teachers because they thought they were leaving their language, which is the language of instruction, and used a language considered inferior. The language and current monolingual policy support the teacher's stance of using the language of instruction for communication because this is the language in which they have been given the power to control all classroom and social activities in schools. Teachers have a negative attitude towards the unofficial languages which are in class. As a result, teachers ensure that they support the monolingual teaching practices at the expense of using the available languages as a resource to learn the target language. More so, the hindering of

literacy development in the learner's language is a breach to the United Nations declaration that every child has the right to her or her language and culture in schools and beyond. To the foregoing, literacy development should enable the sociolinguistic environment to become supportive to the learners and their local languages if the education system is to support multiliteracy development.

### **7.5 Chapter summary**

This chapter has presented a discussion of findings in relation to the study literature and theory presented in the earlier chapters of this study. The study has demonstrated that literacy learning using translanguaging practices brings about improved learner performance, relaxed learning environment, acquisition of biliteracy and multiliteracy, teaching literacy through translation, code-switching and translation of key concepts among others. These have been seen to be giving learners the right to education and their cultural development since translanguaging seen to make use of the linguistic rights of the learners in literacy development. Further, the study has demonstrated that translanguaging brings about linguistic harmonisation through seeing languages as resources to learning instead of separating them and consider others as problems to literacy development through the policy. With the available challenges, there are still more benefits to defeat them and make the Zambian policy direction a source of inspiration for the future generation.

## CHAPTER EIGHT

### CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 8.1 Overview

The previous chapter presented the analysis and discussion of findings. This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations on the impact of translanguaging as a pedagogical practice on literacy levels among Grade One learners in Lundazi District. The chapter also demonstrate the contributed this study has to the body of knowledge. Lastly, suggestions regarding new areas of future research and interventions are identified for future academic debate.

#### 8.2 Conclusion

The study was informed by four objectives. Therefore, the conclusions will be drawn in line with each objective.

##### 8.2.1 The Impact of Translanguaging on Literacy Performance among Graders

###### One Literacy Learners in Lundazi District

This research objective experimented whether translanguaging can lead to improved learner performance in a multilingual context in Zambia. The study results were from a pedagogical comparison between a translanguaging class and a monolingual class with the same sociolinguistic conditions and under one teacher of literacy. Standardized tests were used to measure learner performance before instruction and after. The post experimental test results showed higher average mean scores for the experimental group ( $M=15.10$ ) than the control group ( $M=11.71$ ). The Cohen's  $d=0.98$  for the post-test showed the large effect size above .8. The performance of learners in the experimental group was significantly different from the control group [ $t(52.960) = 4.454, p < 0.001$ ]. Thus, the difference in literacy performance can be attributed to the translanguaging practices which were used to teach literacy in the experimental class. Therefore, the study demonstrated that translanguaging practices improved learner performance and provided

a positive impact in a multilingual classroom. Translanguaging practices had a positive impact on the learner's literacy performance than monolingual practices.

### **8.2.2 Benefits of translanguaging pedagogical practices in Grade One multilingual class**

This research objective sought to establish the benefits of translanguaging pedagogical practices to learners. From the classroom observation, document analysis and interviews, the benefit realised from the study was that learners had an increased local language reading proficiency in their local language which also extended to the target language. The other benefit which this study established was the fact that there was multiliteracy development in the classroom. Learners became literate in their individual languages which existed in the classroom.

The other benefit from the study was that there was increased learner participation, motivation and understanding of the content which eventually result into improved learner performance. Further, it was realised that learners had the power to socialise and build on their social and cultural knowledge which resulted into improved content assimilation and participation in the lesson. Literacy development in the learner's languages was an indication of cultural sustainability as the learners were preview to their cultural literacy development which later increased their access to knowledge in the classroom. The other benefit was that learners had improved their reading proficiency in the target language and language of instruction respectively.

### **8.2.3 Translanguaging Practices in Grade One Literacy Class**

This research question was aimed at establishing the translanguaging practices in the Grade One literacy class through classroom observation and document analysis. The study results established that translanguaging practices which characterized literacy learning in the multilingual Grade One class included translation of key concepts from the target language into the learner's familiar languages and vice versa. This broke

linguistic barriers which existed in the classroom between the teacher and the learners and within the learners. The other translanguaging practices used as revealed by the study was code mixing and codeswitching. The classroom code-switching resulted into fluid use of language to enable learners realise that learning can also be done in their languages. This made the teacher to mix more than three languages in a sentence in order to cater the classroom sociolinguistics. This resulted into increased learner participation in class. The use of authentic visual teaching and learning material enabled the learners to use their languages to describe the concepts in the lesson of the day. This motivated learners as they were able to see their environment and use their languages in class to manipulate the visual modality. The other practice involved the teaching of literacy through the teaching of the differences in the languages of the class through the explanation by the teacher and the learners.

#### **8.2.4 Challenges Teachers and Pupils Faced when Using Translanguaging**

##### **Practices in a Grade One Multilingual Class.**

This research objective was meant to establish the challenges teachers and pupils faced when using translanguaging pedagogical practices in a Grade One multilingual class. The first challenge was the mismatch between the language of instruction and dominant learner's familiar languages that existed in the classroom. As much as the emphasis was to teach literacy using the regional language, there was no intelligibility between the regional language and the classroom familiar languages. The other challenge was the rigidity of the language policy which was based on monolingualism throughout the learner's learning process. Through the meaning making process which allowed classroom liberalisation, translanguaging was perceived to be time consuming in the classroom. The other challenge was that there was strict monolingual based assessment which only tested skills in the regional language. The other challenge was the inadequate teaching and learning materials which supports monolingual language learning. Further, the sociolinguistic environment for language development was not favouring multilingual

development because other teachers used the regional language to communicate to the learners.

### **8.3 Contribution to knowledge**

The study investigated the impact of translanguaging as a pedagogical practice on literacy levels among Grade One learners in Lundazi District. Through the objectives of the study, the findings of this study have contributed to body on knowledge in the field of teaching literacy and to be specific, to the translanguaging practices in the teaching of literacy in the Zambian multilingual classes.

To start with, there has been no study which has been conducted in Zambia to investigate impact of translanguaging as a pedagogical practice on literacy levels among Grade One learners in Lundazi District. The study is significant to the Ministry of General Education, the Policy makers, teachers of literacy and stakeholders regarding increased learner achievement after using translanguaging in a multilingual literacy class. This informs the Zambian educational practitioners on the need to use translanguaging pedagogical practices to meet the changed sociolinguistics of the Zambian classroom. The major contribution is the provided objective data that has supported the linguistic argument that multilingual practices have more educative benefits than monolingual practices.

The study also sought to establish the benefits of translanguaging pedagogical practices in the Zambian multilingual classes of Lundazi District. The study established the benefits of translanguaging practices in the Zambian classroom to be more advantageous than monolingual practices. Therefore, the benefits can be utilised to enable the Zambian schools and communities use the minor languages to teach literacy and bring about increased learner participation which is absent in the Zambian literacy multilingual classes. This study puts translanguaging practices to a test for the Zambian academicians and policy makers to digest and consider if the literacy levels are to improve.

The other contribution to the body of knowledge lies in the methodological knowledge which supported the study. Through the pragmatism paradigm, the study has contributed

that languages practices in a literacy class can be understood from two fronts, realism and constructivism, and then combine the findings to make an informed decision. Through pragmatism, it has demonstrated that translanguaging has both qualitative and quantitative benefits.

The other contribution to the body of knowledge is in the manner the language orientation theory has been used to inform the Zambian literacy policy and practices in the multilingual classes. The current theory which informs the language policy in Zambia was developed with the views that classroom multilingualism as a problem which this study has challenged. Meanwhile, this study has demonstrated that multilingualism can enrich the class when it is used as a resource to language learning and by considering learner's right to their languages. This gives the Zambian education practitioners a well knowledgeable base on how the next literacy policy should look like. Instead of basing language teaching on the powers which the curriculum gives the teacher to suppress multilingualism and promote monolingualism or target language development, this study has demonstrated that when the teacher's linguistic powers are shared with the learners, literacy development takes place in the learner's individual languages and the classroom becomes participatory allowing access to knowledge using the learner's emergent literacy. This provided what this study has called *'ideal learning.'* This is using the learner's language to fester literacy development in the target language and access to content understanding in class. This study also redefines translanguaging as pedagogical practice in the Zambian context from two fronts. *Firstly, as 'the teacher's pedagogical knowledge to utilise the learners' emergent literacies (community languages) to support content/knowledge acquisition in a multilingual classroom in order to promote multiliteracy development in every learner's language.'* *Secondly, as 'the teacher's ability to recognise the learners' linguistic rights, accept mutilingualism and use its advantages as a resource to multiliteracy development while not ignoring the target language developed for unification and classroom prescribed instruction (regional languages) in the Zambian context.'*

The study has also contributed that the current language practices are not sufficient for the teaching of literacy in the current multilingual classes. The study findings provide grounds for curriculum and policy reform to enable the Zambian teachers consider the learner's languages in the teaching of literacy. The teacher is therefore supposed to use linguistic friendly situations and materials to facilitate learning in multilingual classes. This study has produced data which exposes the coloniality in the curriculum and the need to decolonise the curriculum and teachers.

Lastly, the findings of the study add to the pedagogical, theoretical and policy discussion regarding translanguaging practices in the teaching of literacy in the multilingual Zambian classes. This study provides a contextual understanding on the use of translanguaging practices in Zambia and beyond with the view of making all learners in class to be considered.

#### **8.4 Recommendations**

In light of the findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations are being made:

- a. While literacy learning is taking place using the zonal languages countrywide, there is need to adopt translanguaging pedagogical practices since they have proved to be more beneficial in multilingual classes than the current monolingual practices which have brought about consistent low literacy levels.
- b. There is need for colleges, universities and the Ministry of Education to consider training teachers in translanguaging and its implementation in the Zambian schools since the sociolinguistic environment has changed. This can be achieved through zonal and district organized meetings.
- c. There is need for the Zambian government to increase the number of zonal languages beyond the seven languages. This should start with the government through parliament to ensure that the constitution clause on the choice of 7 zonal languages is revised because this is the source where monolingualism is anchored.

This will help promote literacy in a multilingual context unlike the monolingual context being viewed today.

- d. In multilingual setting, the government should consider decentralizing the language of instruction choice to the districts and provinces so that they ascertain the familiar languages available in the communities. This will help communities use the appropriate language of instruction familiar to that community unlike imposing the LOI based on political boundaries.
- e. The Ministry of General Education and stakeholders should work together and think through the current provisions of the language policy guidelines so that it reflects the current linguistic coverage in the regions. This can be done through an indaba or a linguistic census in various communities so that the 1965 constitutional clause can either be reinforced or repealed. This will help provide the direction of the literacy and language policy under the Ruiz language planning orientation theory.

### **8.5 Suggestions for further research**

Based on the findings of the study, the following areas of research are being suggested:

- a. This study was conducted in one district which is multilingual. Therefore, there is need to carry out a similar study in all the provincial towns of Zambia to cover all the regions demarcated by Ministry of Education.
- b. This study was conducted in literacy and at the lower level. It can also be important to conduct a research on the impact of translanguaging in teaching sciences and Mathematics at secondary school level since failure rate is higher.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX 1: FIELD NOTES

NO.	COMMENTS
	<b>TRAINING</b>
	<p>The training sessions were characterised by discussion and dialogue since there were four people in the room. The deputy head teacher, senior teacher and the DRCC who came and went to attend to other pending issues. The participants were in the knowing and acknowledged the language challenge as key in solving the literacy solutions in the school of Lundazi district. The teacher and researcher agreed on making the teaching materials together, rehearse a lesson before it was taught and to make the lesson plan together. The role of the researcher was to be an assistant teacher while data collection was taking place in class. They also agreed to mark the learner's books together and conduct assessment as partners in class. All lessons were discussed after teaching and at the end of the lesson.</p>
	<b>SCHOOL PERSPECTIVE</b>
	<p><b>Social environment: the school setting</b></p> <p>The school is situated in the east of the town centre about 3 kilometres away from the central business. The school caters for the children coming from the working class, business and the villages and farms. The classes have a mixed breed of learners with different life styles and background as well as aspirations. Some of the children have come to town because their parents have relocated to stay or to keep property for their relatives. Their stay may not be permanent. Others it is because their parent are working of conducting business.</p>

	<p><b>School language situation</b></p> <p>The children speak Tumbuka as a main language while some are able to speak some English because of the private pre-school they attended. Few can speak Chewa while the regular or colloquy Nyanja was spoken by few children. One could speak Lozi, one Tonga and some Nsenga yet they were also speakers of Tumbuka as a language of play. Teachers could time and again use Tumbuka to interact with the learners more often than Nyanja. Children in and outside class used Tumbuka to play and interact for the period the researcher was present.</p>
	<p><b>THE CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT</b></p>
	<p>The classroom had 48 learners according the register but between 38 and 48 attended the lessons on a regular basis. The pupils sat three per desk and fewer than three desks had two learners. The class had sufficient desk for the learners and there was a big table for the teacher. Pupils were made to sit facing each other by combining three desks or by making two desks to face each other and the other desk attach to them. This created enough space for the teacher to be going round the class easily.</p>
	<p>The class was not controlled where seating arrangement was concerned. The sat according to their choice of friend. The class was also heterogeneous (comprised of different gender in one class and their learning abilities were also different).</p>
	<p>The grade 1 classes seemed to be newly built. The glasses were intact and each class had new chalk board and a bookshelf where some teaching and learning materials were stored. The class had talking walls for the last term's work and the teacher continued updating it with the term's charts. The school</p>

	did not have grade 1 term two Nyanja textbooks hence the teacher was resourceful to ensure the lessons went normally.
	Learners swept the class every morning and sometimes they mopped the floor before lessons could start. Learners were happy when I was introduced as a second teacher to be helping teach the class.
	<b>LESSON 1 IN THE LITERACY CLASS</b>
	The teacher taught the sound /kh/ to the class for 1 hour. What I observed was that the teacher used a chart and asked learners to identify what was on the chart. The aim was to make learners mention something which had the sound of the day. After 'khola' and 'khasu' were mentioned, the teacher asked questions to make learners bring out similar words.
	I also observed that the teacher never minded the language in which the learners gave the answers. The answers were considered correct as long as the words made had the sound /kh/ in them. There were no other supporting materials apart from the chart and the board. The teacher explained the differences in the Nyanja words with Tumbuka words before adopting the Nyanja words. Non-Nyanja words were removed from the board.
	Learners practiced the /kh/ sound by reading the words on the board in chorus. There was no group discussion or group work to make the learners practice the sound. The learners spoke Tumbuka to each other as they interacted through out the lesson. Questions from learners were asked in Tumbuka and not Nyanja.
	<b>ABOUT THE TEACHER</b>
	The teacher is Senga by tribe but grew up in the Tumbuka land since. Senga is a dialect of Tumbuka so the differences are minimal between the two

	languages. Lundazi central is all Tumbuka speaking and she fitted well in the school where more than three quarters of the learners' first language and language of play was Tumbuka.
	She told the class that I was one of the teachers who will be helping teaching literacy just like the other new teachers. This introduction came at the right time when the teachers were asked to specialise and teach the subject areas they could manage to teach. The researcher's identity was hidden in this case.
	The teacher mixed the languages when she responded to them. She combined Tumbuka, English and Nyanja. She also allowed learners to respond in their languages and later asked others to translate into Nyanja which was the classroom target language. The words which were not translated well in either languages was translated by the teacher to enable the learners know what was being talked about.
	<b>LITERACY LESSON 2 ON SOUND /mw/</b>
	From the introduction, the teacher used the learners to tell the words which contain the sound of the day. From the Tumbuka word <i>lundi</i> and Nyanja word <i>mwendo</i> , the teacher translated the two words in the two languages to help the learners. The learner's responses after being engaged provided responses which had the correct sound of the day ( <i>mwala</i> and <i>mwanalume</i> ) yet indifferent languages (Tumbuka and Nyanja).
	The teacher did not have the pupils' books to make them practice the language as it is written in the book, but used the board correctly to make learners see the words and sounds after being written. There was code-switching in class between the teacher and the learners which facilitated

	some meaning and word emphasis. Learners used their local language in groups at their desks to discuss and respond to the teacher
	Learners were able to fill in the blanks with the sound of the days and completed the exercise correctly. No conversational cards were used to involve learners into a discussion. According to the teacher, the sound /mw/ was common in the two languages hence there was no need to emphasise they knew it their local languages.
	<b>LITERACY LESSON 3 ON SOUND /mb/</b>
	The use of the chart which had a breezier helped the learners to remember the sound surrounding chart. With the teacher's isolation of the sound of the day later in the lesson, it was clear that learners were brought to the lesson using the chart. Learners were able to make words with the sound of the correctly in the languages they knew which were translated by the learners into Nyanja.
	In explaining the meaning of the words, the teacher allowed learners to code switch between languages they spoke in class. While teaching, the teacher also used Tumbuka and Nyanja in class more regular and very little English. Classroom instructions were given in Tumbuka in most cases as it could be seen from the exercise giving.
	The classroom did not make noise whilst the lesson went on. They responded in Tumbuka to agree and disagree with the teacher.
	<b>LITERACY LESSON 4 ON SOUNDS /mw, mb, nd, kh/</b>
	Th lesson was a revision of the four sounds learnt during the term. The teacher used flash cards to make learners remember what they learnt.

	Learners mentioned some words which they knew that had the sound related to the one on the card. Learners were able to make words from the sounds which were read as a class. The words were both in Tumbuka and Nyanja. The emphasis was on the correct use of the sounds which were used.
	Learners in class used Tumbuka to interact and discuss the sounds on the flash card. They argued silently in Tumbuka and gave an answer which was correct in sound. The learner's writing was not pure Nyanja, but a mixture. Some answers were in Tumbuka while others were in Nyanja.
	<b>LITERACY LESSON 5 ON SOUND /dz/</b>
	Teacher introduced the lesson with a situation at hand regarding the use of the slashers. She was trying to establish the relationship between the way grass was called in the two languages and use the Nyanja word to teach the sound of the day. Despite the words being different in the two languages, the teacher used the differences to teach the new word especially after introducing the picture which had the <i>udzu</i> (grass) word. The teacher later used another chart which had the sun <i>dzuwa</i> word to teach the sound of the day. The word 'sun' is pronounced the same in Tumbuka and Nyanja while they are different in spelling. <i>Zuwa</i> is Tumbuka while <i>dzuwa</i> is Nyanja. The emphasis is in Nyanja where we have the pronunciation 'd' attached to 'z'.
	This lesson was well participated by the few learners who had the knowledge in Nyanja because the sound was not familiar to the Tumbuka vocabulary. During the writing of the exercise, the learners were discussing in Tumbuka on how good they drew the sun while they were writing the Nyanja words. During the marking of the exercise, the learners drew the pictures very well and copied the two words very well although the handwriting was not very good for some learners. The teacher constantly used Tumbuka to give

	instructions and explained concepts in it. Learners responded in Tumbuka to the teacher's instructions as well.
	<b>LITERACY LESSON 6 ON SOUND /ph/</b>
	Without a chart for the sound of the day, the teacher wrote a simple story on the board using chalk depicting the sounds of the day. The learners read the passage and later the teacher underlined the words which had the sound of the day. Unfortunately, the words used ' <i>ciphazi</i> ' mean differently in the two languages. The teacher used the ' <b>ph</b> ' sound in the passage to develop and present the lesson to the learners.
	The two languages have the same consonant cluster so the examples which learners made from the sound were in the two languages and they saved the purpose. Despite the teacher erasing the sound of the day in the passage, the learners were able to write the words correctly. The teacher gave instructions in the two languages and mixed with English during the teaching though to a very minimal extent. Learners were seen making noise in Tumbuka while writing the work at hand. The teacher too code switched to make learners follow the lesson better.
	<b>LITERACY LESSON 7 ON SOUND /ts/</b>
	By asking learner to close the door, the teacher wanted to make learners use the word 'citseko' but they switched to English and Tumbuka words which were different from the targeted sound of the day. The teacher translated the word 'cijalo' into 'citseke' and asked the learners to consider the 'ts' sound. With the help of the chart, the sound was explained to the learners. The innovation of asking them to describe their hair was what drew the learners closer to the sound of the day. The difference was that in Tumbuka, there is no 't' added to the 's' while that is the spelling and pronunciation in Nyanja.

	<p>In class, the teacher translated the word ‘door’ so that the learners can see what the teacher was talking about in the target language. Further, the using of the differences to teach the similarities in a word is the one which has been important in this class. Spelling rules seems to be the gap in the two languages as well as word differences. The teacher maintained the English words like so, okay, sound among others. The sound ‘<b>ts</b>’ is only familiar to Nyanja speaking learners hence the learners managed to make responses using the Tumbuka sounds which are related to the sound but did not have the ‘<b>ts</b>’. Learners participated actively through the use of their own words in their languages. they were able to search in their language and provide feedback to the teacher which was a sign of following the lesson and enabling</p>
	<p><b>LITERACY LESSON 8 ON SOUND /mt/</b></p>
	<p>With the use of the chart which had a number of items, the learners were able to mention the names of animals, river, clouds, grass and the trees in the languages they knew them. The use of the sound ‘mt’ was in the ‘mtengo’ word which was named differently in the different languages. later in the lesson, common words like <i>mtumuki</i> and <i>mtima</i> were found to be common in the languages of the class.</p>
	<p>While in groups, the learners used Tumbuka to correct themselves regarding the omission of the vowel in writing Nyanja words which was different from Tumbuka orthography. Learners discussed in Tumbuka yet they wrote Nyanja words. Other learners were unable to write clearly the words because they have been away from school for more than a week. The teacher translated the new word like ‘mtolo’ and ‘mteza’ into Tumbuka and used Tumbuka to make the translation successful. The teacher gave instructions</p>

	for learners to write the exercise using Tumbuka. For constant check on the learner's progress, the teacher used Tumbuka as well.
	<b>LITERACY LESSON 9 ON SOUND /dw/</b>
	The introduction of the teacher was a mixture of Tumbuka and Nyanja. The 'dw' sound in Tumbuka is 'lw'. To progress, the teacher used a chart with a patient on a bed in a clinic. This helped the learners to see the sound of the day and its application in their community. They saw different things in the picture which they mentioned using their local languages. from the words: <i>kuchedwa, cidwi, kumenyedwa, dwala, kufedwa</i> , the teacher was able to show how the Tumbuka sound was different from the Nyanja one through consonant substitution. The words were then translated into English and Tumbuka to enable them get the meanings. Learners were able to underline the sounds of the day from the board using chalk. Most instructions were passed in Tumbuka to enable them learners do the work.
	After the exercise was written, learners were able to write the correct spelling of the sound of the day in the blanks. They made noise in Tumbuka while they wrote in Nyanja. The teacher did not force learners to speak Nyanja but they are able to write in Nyanja the sampled words and passages.
	<b>LITERACY LESSON 10 ON SOUND /mp/</b>
	The teacher explained how the sound 'mp' is formed through the use of Nyanja and Tumbuka to the learners. The sound was a common one looking at the words which the learners made when they were given chance to do so in line with the sound at hand like: <i>mpangwe, mpungu</i> and <i>mpapo</i> among others. These words were translated from one language to another to ensure the class was in tandem with the sound being taught in class. These words were not in Cinyanja but were Senga and Tumbuka words. Instructions were

	given in both languages, Tumbuka and Nyanja. The learners were able to discuss in Tumbuka and provide answers to the blank places in Nyanja.
	<b>LITERACY LESSON 11 ON SOUND /ny/</b>
	The teacher introduced the lesson through a recap of the previous lessons for last term. The sound /ny/ was common in the Zambian languages of eastern province hence it was easier for learners to give out words which have the same sounds in the two languages like: <i>Nyimbo, nyoni, nyama, nyozi, and nyali</i> . The teacher did not struggle to make learners realise the sound in their languages except when the teacher isolated the Tumbuka words from the Nyanja ones. Learners as they wrote were even commenting that the lesson today was full of Tumbuka words which were used in class. They even performed well in the exercise after using the familiar words which were representing the two languages.
	<b>LITERACY LESSON 12 ON SOUND /mk/</b>
	Through a story which was told to the learners, the teacher told the children about the mode of hunting was used before the guns came to Africa. The story was told in Tumbuka and a chart was used to present the tool in question which learners identified in their different languages. In using the sound /mk/, the learners were told on the differences between Tumbuka and Nyanja words regarding /muk/ and /mk/. This enabled the learners to realise the differences in the two languages.
	Learners were able to make such words: <i>mkango, mkaka, mkati, mkhalidwe</i> which were used to teach the sound of the day. From the learner's pronunciation, the teacher was able to remove the vowel between the /m/ and /k/ and read for them and they were later told that that was the way Nyanja words were written which had such sounds. The teacher used Tumbuka to

	<p>pass instructions and to communicate to the learners while she translated most of the unknown words into Tumbuka and some English was common to them.</p>
	<p><b>LITERACY LESSON 13 ON SOUND /nj/</b></p>
	<p>With the use of the chart, the teacher used the learners to mention what they saw on the chart. The sound of /nj/ was common in Tumbuka and Nyanja hence it was easy for the teacher to introduce the lesson and capitalise of what the learners knew. The learners interacted in Tumbuka while they wrote the exercise in Nyanja. The exercise was a mixture of the /nj/ and /mk/ sound. The teacher explained what they words meant in the box before she could ask the learners to write the work in their books. Some words were translated from Tumbuka into Nyanja and vice versa to allow learners to understand what was being discussed.</p>
	<p><b>LITERACY LESSON 14 ON SOUND /ch/</b></p>
	<p>Using the chart, the teacher presented the sound and made the learners follow through. It was noted that the sound was more prominent in Tumbuka than Nyanja. The learners were able to make sentences using the sound which the teacher used. Some words were found in both languages. Learners were heard making more words in Tumbuka which had the sound of the day whilst writing the exercise. More Tumbuka was used in this lesson between the teacher and the learners</p>
	<p><b>LITERACY LESSON 15 ON SOUND /th/</b></p>
	<p>The story told by the teacher was of help to the learners as they identified the sound which were prominent in the story. The teacher underlined the sounds /th/ in some words of the passage and used them to emphasise the sound she taught that day. Learners were able to identify words which had that sound of</p>

	<p>the day from the passage on the board. The learners were able to give the teacher words from their languages which had the sound of the day. The words which were in other languages were translated into Nyanja and Tumbuka to ensure that learners understood the concept.</p>
	<p><b>LITERACY LESSON 16 ON SOUND /ng/</b></p>
	<p>After the teacher wrote the words on the board, the learners were able to read the words before the teacher could ask them to do so. The teacher then underlined the sound of the day and asked learners to tell her words which have such sounds. After giving the words, some learners volunteered to write the words on the board which they did. These words included: <i>taonga, chonga, utenga, chongo</i>. The words were translated into Nyanja and English by the learners. After deleting the sound of the day from the words written on the board, the learners wrote as an exercise. From the class, learners could be heard discussing in Tumbuka as they wrote the exercise.</p>
	<p><b>LITERACY LESSON 17 ON SOUND /ng/ REMEDIAL</b></p>
	<p>In this lesson, the teacher used cue cards to reinforce the sound of the day. The learners were able to complete the sounds orally which were not on the card. The learners were able to make sounds in the Tumbuka using the sound of the day. The learners seemed to have acquired sufficient literacy which enabled them read before the teacher could read for them.</p>
	<p><b>ASSESSMENT</b></p>
	<p>Assessment were all administered at the same time to all the learners and they wrote a regional literacy paper from the province. Despite the learners being given their own paper which had the questions, the teacher read the questions for the learners and guided them on where to write the answers. This happened in all subjects which the wrote. The teacher could only</p>

	<p>progress to the next question after all the learners had written the answer to the question at hand. In such an assessment, slow learners were considered and the learners who were semi literate. Further, the questions were not translated into any language, but they were read in standard Nyanja. There was no class discussion during assessment but individual work. However, learners asked clarification using Tumbuka and the teacher used Tumbuka for teacher to learner communication and when maintaining order.</p>
	<p><b>Literacy levels</b></p>
	<p>The learners were becoming literate in Tumbuka and Cinyanja because they could write both languages after realising how to write. This was seen in some of the written works for learners.</p> <p>When prompted to speak Cinyanja, learners were able to speak some Cinyanja though not that fluent. They could write and read the Cinyanja words which they had come across in class and beyond especially in the eleventh week.</p> <p>Some Tumbuka spellings could be seen in the Cinyanja which learners wrote especially during assessment. The use of consonant vowel on ‘mt, mk, and the use of l to stand for d in some instances.</p>
	<p><b>Challenges</b></p> <p>the teacher was at times forgetting to translanguage and he was consistent in Cinyanja. But she was able to realise that she was translanguaging in the early days and that was how she adjusted.</p> <p>The language policy was not helping the learners in class because the learners were literate in their language as they were able to write correct</p>

	<p>sounds. The teacher marked such wrong because the policy wants learners to be literate in Cinyanja and not their languages while learning.</p> <p>The teaching and learning materials were all monolingual designed. They already had the words and sounds which were supposed to be used on that sound of the day. The materials like charts and the books did not help the translanguaging class to effectively translanguage.</p>

## **APPENDIX 2: LESSONS FROM THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION**

Apart from the presented lessons in the main document, these are the other lessons observed which have been cited in the discussion.

### **Sound identification activities**

With the view of engaging learners into the teaching and learning situation, the teacher reinforced the lesson through the use of activities in which pupils participated. After the learners give examples on the sound of the day in their languages, the teacher wrote some of the words on the board. Then pupils were asked to come to the board and identify the sound of the day in the words which are written on the board. Each pupil was asked to identify a sound and underline it using a piece of chalk as the other members of the group waited eagerly. Figure 17 is a classroom situation where the pupil was asked to identify the sound of the day in the words which are written on the board.



**Figure 18: sound identification**

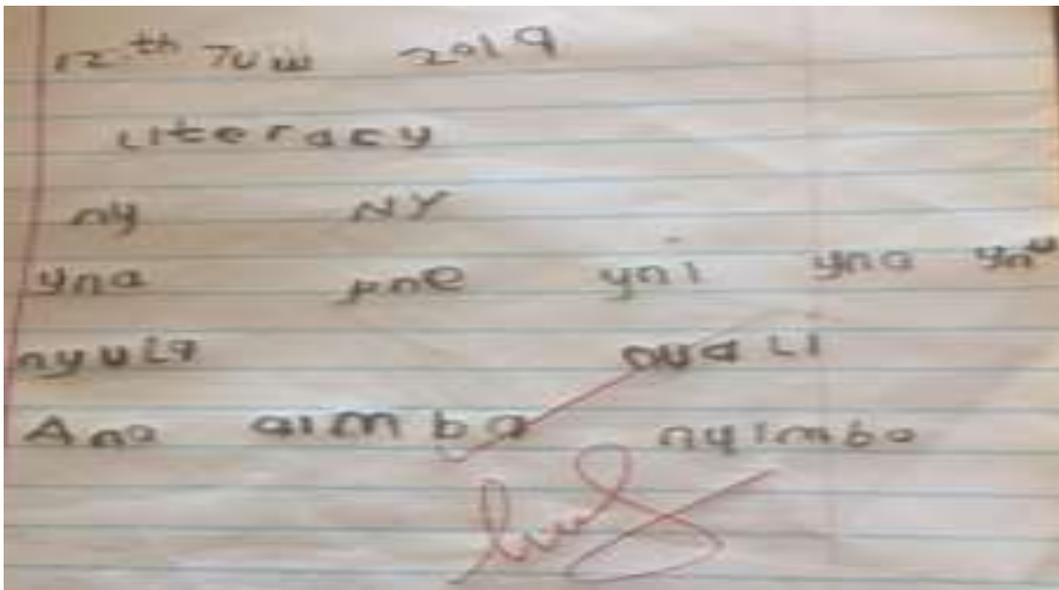
Sounds were identified by the learners by underlining them. The group sent one person to conduct the sound identification from the words on the board after discussing.

### Sound Matching

The teacher used sound tags to make the learners revise the sounds of the week. Figure 7 shows the learners comparing and matching words to those which are written on the board. Some of the words were in Tumbuka, Senga, Cinyanja and others were found in all the languages. The word identification called for the learners to identify the words in any language.

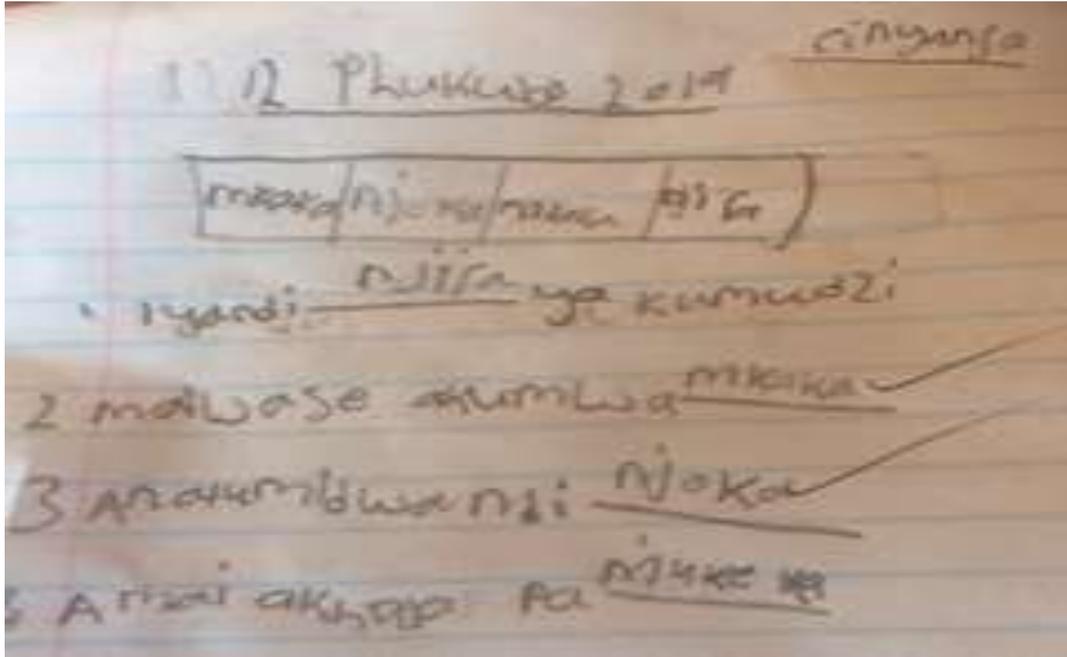
### Writing Skills

With regards to the writing skills, learners were able to copy the exercise from the board and write with minimal discussions on the desks. The learners discussed in Tumbuka, Senga and some English combination but they wrote the answers in Cinyanja. Depending on the learner's consistency to school, some were able to copy the work from the board correctly with minimal assistance from friend while others failed copied the right work as in figure 8. The teacher gave instructions to the learners using Tumbuka, Cinyanja and English.



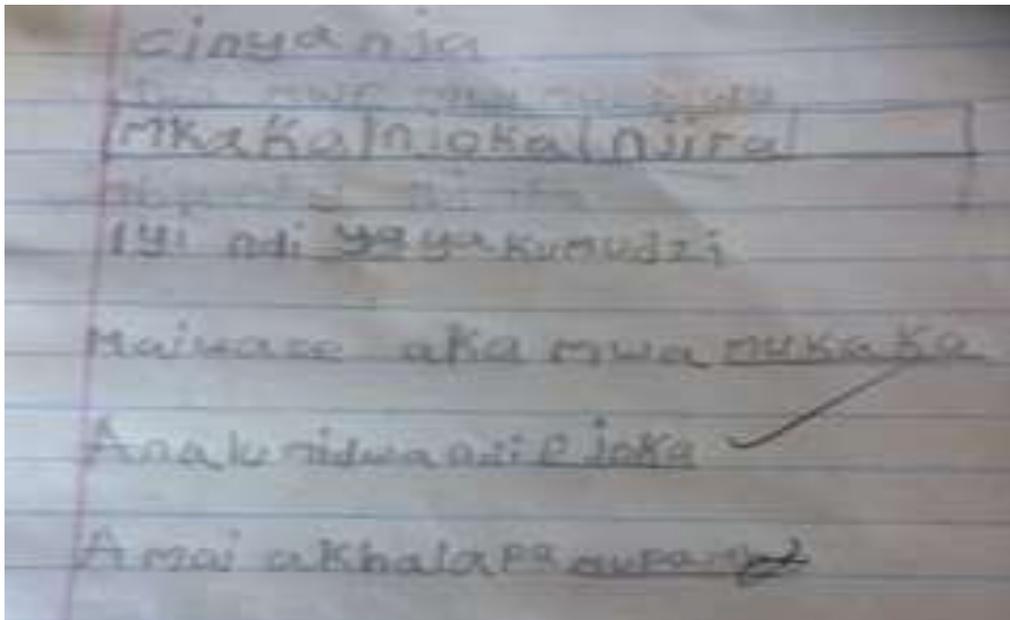
**Figure 19: semi writing skills development**

The learner was unable to clearly copy some words from the board as they are presented. As it can be seen, the learner swapped letters in writing the syllables of the day.



**Figure 20: partial writing skills development**

In figure 19, we can see that the learner's writing skills are advanced although he or she cannot write some letters legibly. The learner cannot separate the words so that they can make sense in the second language being used for teaching. They are able to copy the work according to their individual literacy acquisition abilities in class. The teacher wrote on the board the exercise and ensured that every learner attempted to copy and fill in the right answers. This was to make a follow up on the words which the learners gave and sentence to see if they can write and provide the right answers.



**Figure 21: Full writing skills development**

In figure 20, the learner's writing skills are fully developed in Cinyanja because this is the language which it is measured in class. The learner is able to write clearly using the language of instruction. The learner is also able to follow the spacing between words as well as write the correct spellings which are copied from the board. This is demonstrated by the learner in answering the last question.

### **6.2.13 Excerpt 13: Literacy lesson on the consonant cluster sound /mk/ sound**

This lesson had 25 girls and 23 boys in attendance totalling to 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

**Teacher:** *Kale comeni ninshi imwe naine kulije, kukaŵa vinyama vinandi kuno kwithu, namuno mu boma nyama zikasangikanga. Ŵapapi ŵithu ŵakakomanga nyama nakulya dende. Mfuti kukaŵevye. So, ŵakakomeranga mkondo. Mkondo ŵoponyera maŵoko, kucita ku vuca.* (Long time ago when you and I were not born, there were a lot of wild animals here even here in the Boma. So, our parents used to slaughter animals and enjoy meat. Guns were not there. So, they used spears. A spear is thrown at a target through hands). *Nicokutwa kusongolo and kumapezeka kansimbi kokutwa.* (It is sharp at its tip and it has a sharp metal on its tip). [Teacher displays a chart with the consonant of the day].



**Figure 22** sound /mk/

**Teacher:** *Mukayangana pacithunzi apa, ici cinthu mumaciyitana bwanji imwe kwanu kwamene mucokera?* (Nyanja: when you look at the chart, what do you call this in your language?)

**Pupils chorus:** spear, *mkondo* (English, Nyanja: spear).

**Teacher:** Ok, *tonse tiyeni tikambe kuti 'mkondo'* (Okay, all of us let us say 'mkondo?')

**Pupils chorus:** *mkondo* (spear).

**Teacher:** So, *ku liu 'mkondo' mvekelo ya 'mk' niyamene iyambira kumveka. Iyi mvekeru ya 'mk' ipezeka mu mau yenangu monga mkate, na mkomo.* (Nyanja: so, to the word 'mkondo' the sound 'mk' is the one starting to be heard. The sound 'mk' is also found in words like 'mkate and mkomo' bread and doorframe). *Manje imwe mumakamba Cinyanja, ni mau yabwanji yamene mudziwa yali na mvekeru ya /mk/?* (Nyanja: you speak Nyanja, which words do you know which have the sound /mk/?) *Kapena munamverako ena anthu akamba olo mumayakamba ndimwe. Niphaliraniko nane nimanye.* (Nyanja: Maybe you have heard other people speak or you speak the words as pupils).

**Pupils:** *Mkango, mkaka, mkati, mkhalidwe.* (Lion, milk, inside, behaviour). [She writes the words from pupils on the board].

**Teacher:** [This is good]. So, *tiyeni tiyagawe aya ma words tione ma silabe yalimo.* (Nyanja: this is good. So, let us segment these words so that we see the syllables which they have). *Yanyake ma words yali nama silabe yanandi yanyake niyadoko. So tiyeni tibeke makola.* (Tumbuka: some of the words have more syllables while others have few syllables. So, let us observe properly). [She segments the words into syllables] (*mka/ngo, mka/ka, mka/ti, mkha/li/dwe*). So, as a class *tiyeni tiwêrenge ma silabe aya tapanga tose.* (Tumbuka: so, as a class, let us all read these syllables we have made).

**Pupils chorus:** *mka/ngo, mka/ka, mka/ti, mkha/li/dwe.* [They read the syllables]

**Teacher:** *apa sono tolani ma buku yinu mulembe exercise. Mulembe makola date ya lero, then mukopolole nakumalizga ma words aya yali pa board.* (Tumbuka: so, get your literacy books so that you can write

the exercise. Write today's date clearly, then copy and complete the words which are on the board). *Uku nafunyako mvekero yalero. So, iwe uyikeko silabe yamene izapangisa liu kupanga meaning yanzelu. Mwamvesesa?* (So, to this word I have removed the sound for today. You should put the syllable which will make the word meaningful. Have you heard?)

**Pupils chorus:** *eeee, enya* (yes) [in agreement]

#### **6.2.14 Excerpt 14: Literacy lesson on the consonant cluster sound /nj/ sound**

This lesson had 24 girls and 24 boys in attendance totalling to 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

Teacher: *Lero tizaphunzira pa mvekero ya /nj/. Iyi mvekelo ippezeka mu mau yamene tiziwa bwino bwino.* (Nyanja: today we shall learn on the sound 'nj'. This sound is found in words which we know well). *Mau monga njinga na njoka.* (Nyanja: words like, 'njinga and njoka' bicycle and snake). *Ise wanyake tumanya kucova njinga, kweneso ise wanyake tangukwera njinga pokwiza kuno kusukulu.* (Tumbuka: some of us know how to ride a bicycle. Some of us came to school by bicycle). *Tiyeni tikambe kuti 'njinga' na 'njoka' tose.* (Nyanja: all of us let us say 'njinga and njoka' 'bicycle and snake'). [Teacher displays a chart which has the two words used with their items].



**Figure 23: sound /nj/**



**Figure 24: njoka**

**Pupils chorus:** *njinga, njoka, njovu* (bicycle, snake).

**Teacher:** *So, ku mvekelo yathu ya 'nj' tiyeni tiyikeko ma vowels yathu yaja yakale (a, e, i, o, u) kuti tipange ma silabe.* (Nyanja: so, to our sound, let us add the vowels we have been using (a, e, i, o, u) so that we can make syllables). *Tizapanga (nja, njo, nji, njo, nju). Tiyeni tiwêrenge tonse ma silabe yithu aya.* (Nyanja: we shall make (nja, njo, nji, njo, nju). (Tumbuka: let us all read our syllables).

**Pupils chorus:** *nja, nje, nji, njo, nju*

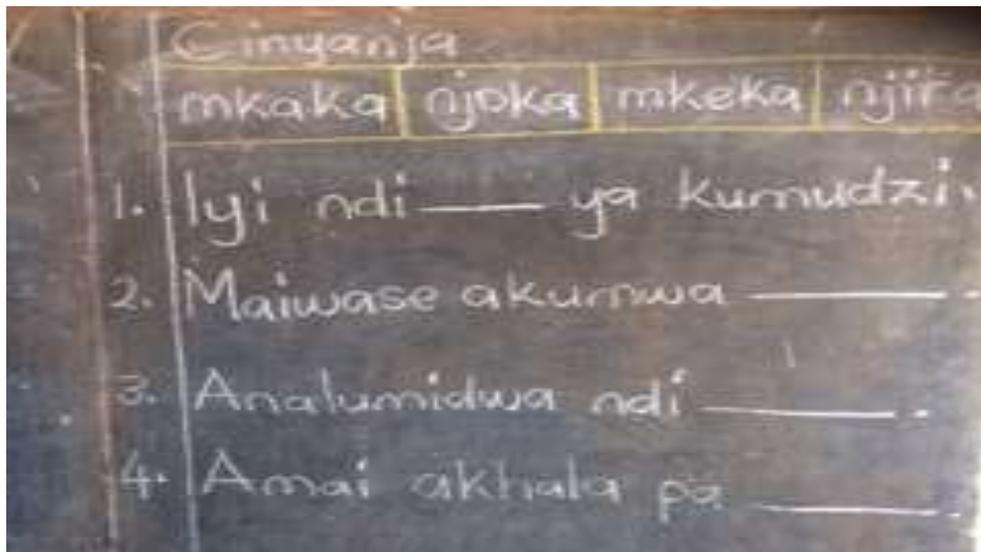
**Teacher:** *niphaliraniko ma words awo mumanya yali na mvekero ya 'nj'.* (Tumbuka: tell me some words which you know which have the sound 'nj'). *Yangankale ma words yamene mudziwa olo mumawasewenzesa.* (Nyanja: these should be words which you know or the words you have heard before).

**Pupils:** *njuci, njirinjiri, njerwa, njira, njanji, njovu, malonje, lonjezo* (Tumbuka, Nyanja: bees, epilepsy, brick, road, elephant, story,

storytelling). [she writes on the board the words which the learners give with the correct sound in the different classroom languages]

**Teacher:** *ninjani ungatiphilirako mwamene ya meaninga* ma words *aya talemba pa* board? (Tumbuka, Cinyanja, English: who can tell us what these words mean the ones we have written on the board?) [pupils give the meaning in their languages, and they agree on the actual meanings]

**Teacher:** okay, *tolani ma buku inu tirembe* exercise. (Tumbuka: okay, get your books you write an exercise). So, *musirizise* ma sentences *aya yali pa* board *kusewenzesa ma* words *aya yali muka* box. (Nyanja: complete the sentences on the board using the words in the box). *Usankepo imodzi izapangisa* sentence *ipange* meaning *yolongosoka*. *Kuli mafunso?* (Nyanja: you choose one word which will make the sentence make meaning. Are there questions?)



**Figure 24: exercise on sound /nj/**

**Pupils:** *awe* (Nyanja: no) (they write the exercise silently).

### 6.2.15 Excerpt 15: Literacy lesson on the consonant cluster sound /ch/ sound

This lesson had 26 girls and 22 boys in attendance totalling to 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

**Teacher:** *Lero tizayangana pa mvekeru ya /ch/. Iyi mvekeru ippezeka mu mau monga 'chalichi'. Mucinyanja, mvekeru ya /ch/ ippezeka mu ma words yang'ono. (Nyanja: today we shall look at the sound /ch/. This sound is found in words like 'chalichi' church'. In Nyanja, this sound is limited to few words). Aya ma words yafunika kuti yankale yozindikira kapena yamveke kuti lirimi lyalema pokamba. (Nyanja: these words should be words of emphasis in pronunciation with the tongue). Mvekeru ya /ch/ siyisiyana na mvekelo ya /c/ maningi. Mevekelo ya /c/ mau sitizindikira kapena siyirema pokamba monga 'cina, ciani'. (Nyanja: the sound /ch/ is not very different from the sound /c/. the sound /c/ we don't emphasise when speaking like on words 'cina and ciani'). Manje ma words monga 'chalichi' niyozindikira pokamba. (Nyanja: now words like 'chalichi' are emphatic when speaking). So, kupanga ma silabe ku mvekeru yathu yazankala (cha, che, chi cho, chu). (Making syllables to our sound, they will be like; cha, che, chi cho, chu). Tiyeni tiwêrenge ma silabe yathu tonse. (Tumbuka: let us all read our syllables). [Teacher points at the chart and ask learners to read].*



**Figure 25: sound /ch/**

**Pupils chorus:** *cha, che, chi, cho, chu.*

**Teacher:** so, *yanyake ma example ya mvekelo yithu ni ma words nga ni aya chona, change, nchito, ntochi, kabichi.* (Tumbuka, Nyanja: some of the examples for our sound of the day its words like; *chona, change, nchito, ntochi, kabichi*). Teacher underlines the sound of the day in the examples. *Mu aya ma words nalemba pa board, mbanjani wangapangako sentence tipulikeko pala mumanya.* (Tumbuka: from the words I have written on the words, who can make some sentences we hear if you know?) *Ma sentence yali correct nirembenge pa board.* (Tumbuka: I will write on the board correct sentences).

**Pupil 1:** *Nadya ntochi.* (I have eaten a banana).

**Pupil 2:** *Changa apezeka musanga.* (Monkeys are found in the bush).

**Pupil 3:** *Nchito njononono.* (Work is hard).

**Pupil 4:** *Tinadya nsima na kabichi mailo.* (We ate *nshima* with cabbage yesterday).

**Teacher:** [Very good]. So, *tiyeni tirembe* exercise *mu mabuku yathu ya (a, e, i, o, u).* *Musirizise mau aya yali pa* board so that sentence *ipange* sense. (Nyanja: very good. Let us write an exercise in our literacy books. You complete the words which are on the board so that the sentences can make sense). *Mwapulika?* (Tumbuka: Have you heard?) [From the sentences the pupils made, the sound of the day is erased so that pupils can find the correct syllable].

#### **6.2.16 Excerpt 16: Literacy lesson on the consonant cluster sound /th/ sound**

This lesson had 26 girls and 22 boys in attendance totalling to 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

[The teacher wrote a simple story on the board as follows:]

*Thoko anapeleka thumba la therere ku mstika. Amake Thoko anamupasa ndala yamathumba yatatu. Anaika muthumba ndala nakubwerera kumudzi.*

**Teacher:** *mwakaona kankhani kali pa* board? (Nyanja: have you seen the story on the board?)

**Pupils:** *enya a* teacher. (Tumbuka: yes teacher)

**Teacher:** okay, *nizawerenga kankhani aka*. (Nyanja: I will read this story). So, *pamene niwerenga, imwe musunge mau yali na mvekero /th/*. (Nyanja: so, as I read, your role is to keep the words with the sound /th/). *Nikasiriza, muzaniuzako mau yali muka nkani aka yali namvekero /th/*. *Mwamvera?* (Nyanja: when I finish, you will tell me words which are in this story which have the sound /th/. Have you heard?).

**Pupils:** *enya madam*. (yes, madam).

[The teacher read the passage for the learners slowly and loudly. Pupils also read after the teacher in chorus].

**Teacher:** *ndani angatiuzeko mau yamene yali namvekero /th/ yali mu kankani aka kali pa board tawerenga?* (Nyanja: who can tell us the words which have the sound /th/ from the story we have read on the board?)

**Pupils:** *thumba, yamathumba, thoko, muthumba*.

**Teacher:** Good. So, *lero tiphunzira mvekero ya 'th'*. (Njainga: today we shall look at the sound /th/). *Nanga nimau yabwanji yamene mudziwa yali namvekero ya /th/?* (Nyanja: which words do you know that have the sound /th/). *Ma words yaliyonse*. (Nyanja: any words).

**Pupils:** *thengere, thengo, utheka, thukuta, kuthokodza, theka*. (Tumbuka and Nyanja: bush, grass, thanks, alone).

**Teacher:** teacher writes the words on the board and underlines the sound /th/. *Aya ma words yanyake ine nkuyamanya cha. Ninjani wangatiphalirako ma meaning muno mu class?* (Tumbuka: some of the words I do not know their meaning. Who can tell us what they mean in this class?)

**Pupils:** *thengere ni sanga or thengo, utheka no maudzu* (Tumbuka: *thengere* is bush, *utheka* is grass).

**Teacher:** So, *tiyeni tirembe* exercise *mu mabuku yathu ya (a, e, i, o, u.)*. (Nyanja: very good. Let us write an exercise in our literacy books). *Musirizise mau aya yali pa* board so that sentence *ipange* sense. (Nyanja: You complete the words which are on the board so that the sentences can make sense). *Mwapulika?* (Tumbuka: Have you heard?) [From the sentences the pupils made, the sound of the day is erased so that pupils can make the correct syllable].

### 6.2.17 Excerpt 17: Literacy lesson on the consonant cluster sound /ng/ sound

This lesson had 25 girls and 23 boys in attendance totalling to 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

[Teacher writes the following words on the board:] *nguli, nguwo, ngomwa, ongani, angoni, mango* and underlines the **/ng/** sound.

**Teacher:** *Tiyeni tiwerenge ma words yali pa board aya. Tonse tiyeni...* (Nyanja: let us read the words which are on the board. All of us let us read...)

**Teacher:** *Mu ma words aya, timvela mvekero ya 'ng' imveka maningi mu mau onse aya. Nanga imwe mumanya ma words uli ayo yali namvekero ya /ng/.*

**Pupils:** *njinga, naonga, taonga, chonga, utenga, chongo* (Tumbuka: bicycle, thanks, noise, message, message).

**Teacher:** *so, tolani mabuku yinu mulembe exercise iyi.* (Tumbuka: get your literacy books you write the exercise). *Mulisizise mau awa poyikako mvekero tamphunzira lero pamene pali kamzere.* (Nyanja: you complete the word where there is a space using the sound we have learnt today. *Tiyendeseko* (Nyanja: let us hurry).

### 6.2.18 Excerpt 18: Literacy lesson on the consonant cluster sound /bw/ sound

This lesson had 25 girls and 23 boys in attendance totalling to 48 pupils. The classroom atmosphere was democratised, and the learners were using their different languages to communicate to each other. The dominant languages which were spoken by the learners in class were Tumbuka, Nyanja, Bemba, English, Nsenga and Senga. Although there was one learner who used Tonga at home and another one who used Lozi, the two were familiar with Tumbuka and Nyanja and spoke some English which were common languages. The teacher was Senga by tribe, but she was familiar with Senga, Tumbuka, Cinyanja, Nsenga, Bemba and English. The lesson went as follows:

[The teacher wrote the following short story on the board]

*Abwezani anabweretsa bwato lija anabwereka. Pobweretsa, ananyamula thobwa.*

**Teacher:** *Okay, tibeke pa board tose. Nizaberenga ka nkhani aka so, mumvetsetse bwino.* [She read the passage slowly three times. Then asks the learners to read the passage three times as well. Teacher underlines the words with the sound of the day].

**Teacher:** *Tiyeni tiwerenge mau aya yali nakamudzere pansi. Ok, tiyeni....* Class chorus. (Nyanja/Tumbuka: let us read the words which have been underlined. Okay, let us go....). So, *nimau yabwanji yamene*

*yali na mvekero ya 'bw' yamene mudziwa?* (Nyanja: so which words have the sound /**bw**/ which you know?).

**Pupils:** *bwanji, cimbwi, bwekabweka*, [teacher writes on the board].

**Teacher:** *ninjani wangatirongolako apo pali sound ya /bw/ mu ma words aya yali pa board?* (Tumbuka: who can show us where the sound /**bw**/ is located in these words?) [Some selected pupils come to the front and correctly underline the words. The teacher used cue cards to make learners remember the sound]. [The teacher flashed a card with *po....retsa, tho....., .....to* and *a....zani*. the learners were able to finish the words through chorusing].

**Teacher:** *Tolani ma buku yinu mulembe* exercise. (Get your books you write the exercise). [In the words the learners made, she deletes the /**bw**/ sound and ask learners to copy and fill in the blanks with the sound of the day from the passage written on the board].

The last consonant cluster /**ns**/, /**ml**/ and /**dy**/ to the Grade One literacy class was not taught because there was no time left for the teacher to teach these consonants. Time for learners to write the last test of the term had come and could not be postponed since the timetable was circulated from the province.

### **APPENDIX 3: POST-OBSERVATION INTERVIEW GUIDE**

CLASS \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

1. Tell me about the lessons after including other languages inclusion?
2. What benefits did you see for students when you used other languages other than Cinyanja?
3. What went well for you when you used translanguaging during your teaching?
4. Comment of the learner participation when other languages are used in literacy lesson?
5. What has been so interesting about translanguaging from your classroom experience?
6. What have you learnt so far from the classroom teaching you have been conducting about using the learner's language alongside the target language?
7. What do you think have pupils learnt about using translanguaging in teaching literacy?
8. What would you do different next time in teaching literacy using translanguaging in your class?
9. What would you comment on the writing skills of learners when using translanguaging in your class?
10. From your marking, what is your comment regarding performance of learner's?
11. What challenges did you face when using other languages and Cinyanja in the literacy class?
12. What challenges did your students face when using translanguaging in your class?
13. What can you consider being better literacy instructions with such linguistic diverse learners whose language is different from the LOI?
14. What would you recommend to other teachers regarding translanguaging?
15. What are your last comments on the teaching practices you have been using for this term?

## **TEACHER SPECIALISATION**

How have you included the learner's language in your class?

Benefits

What languages did the learners use in class?

What benefits will learners have when we discontinue translanguaging?

**APPENDIX 4: PRE TEST ASSESSMENT**

**MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION**

**Mayeso a geledi 1 a kulemba ndi kuwerenga a wiki 5**

**Dzina:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Cigawo coyamba.**

Linganizani zithunzi-thunziizi;

1.



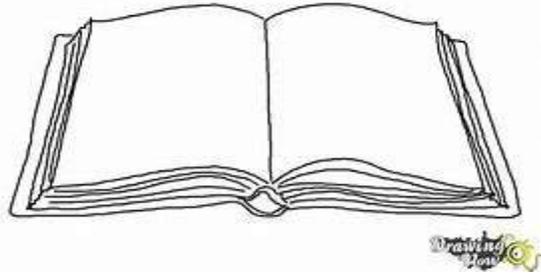
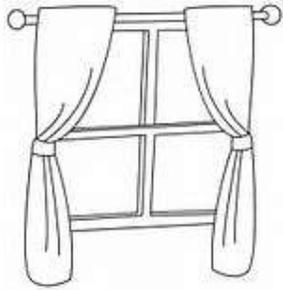
2.



3.



4.



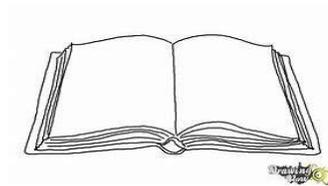
### Cigawo caciwiri

Ikani mvekero ilikoyambilira kwa mau awa;

1. \_\_\_\_\_oto



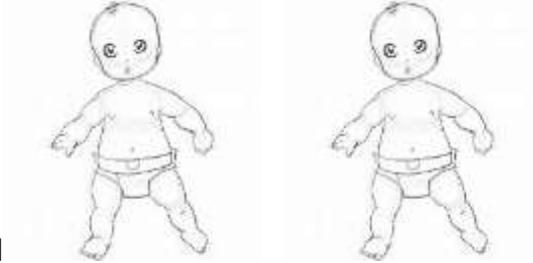
2. \_\_\_\_\_uku



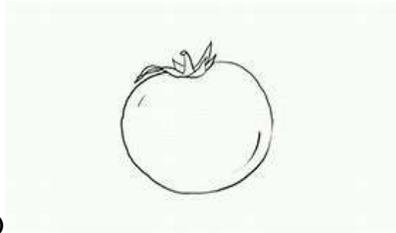
3. \_\_\_\_\_ ate



4. \_\_\_\_\_ a



5. \_\_\_\_\_ omato



### Cigawo cacitatu

Ikani mavawelo osowejera ali mtuma bokosi kumau.

u	a	i	o	e
---	---	---	---	---

6.Kak \_\_\_\_

7.\_\_\_\_ka

8.Amak\_\_\_\_\_

9.\_\_\_\_na

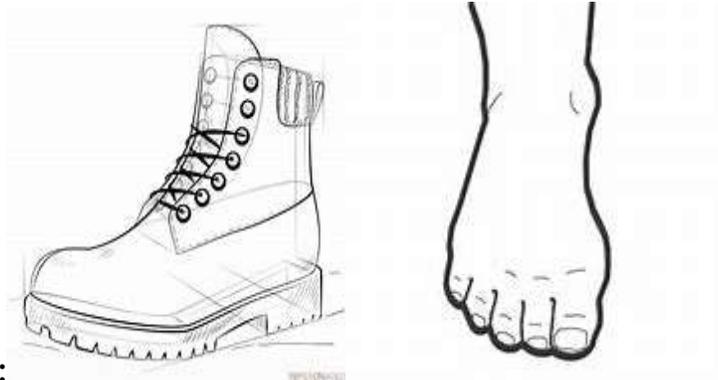
10. Ama\_\_\_\_\_

## Teacher's Protocol (KEY)

Teacher goes around the class to help learners write name on the answer sheet.

### Cigawo coyamba (4 Marks)

Teacher draws a shoe on the board and a leg and demonstrates how to match.



**Example:**

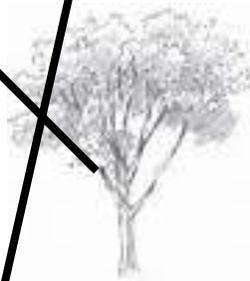
Teacher ask learners to match pictures

**Question 1-4**

1



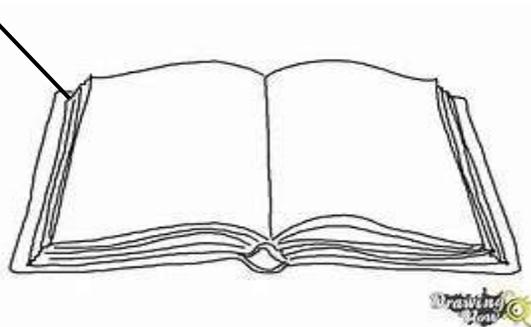
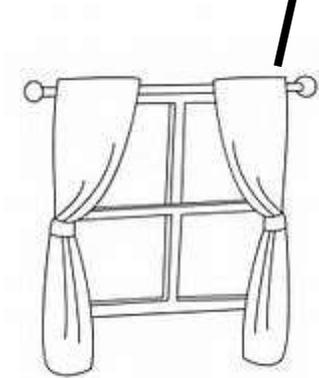
2



3



4



**Cigawo caciwiri (5 Marks)**

Teacher read out the names of the objects to the learners then asks the learners to write the initial sound of the given words.

Question 5-9

**Cigawo cacitatu ( 5 Marks)**

Teacher read out the words then asks the learners to write the missing vowels

Question 10-14

1. Moto
2. Buku
3. Atate
4. Ana
5. Tomato

6. K ako
7. Uka
8. A make
9. Ana
10. A maji

**APPENDIX 5: MID TERM ASSESSMENT**

**MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION**

**EASTERN PROVINCE COMMON ASSESSMENT**

**GRADE ONE (1) TERM: TWO (2) WEEK: FIVE (5)**

**LITERACY ASSESSMENT – 2019**

Dzina: \_\_\_\_\_ Kalasi: \_\_\_\_\_

**CIGAWO COYAMBA (3 MARKS)**

**Ikani mvekero koyambira maina azinthu izi.**

1.



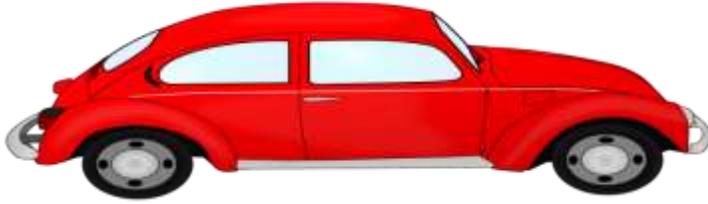
\_\_\_\_\_ aula

2.



\_\_\_\_\_ eni

3.



\_\_\_\_\_ alimoto

### **CIGAWO CACIWIRI**

**Ikani mavawelo osolekera ali mtimabokosi ku mau ali pansi apa:**

**a**

**e**

**i**

**o**

**u**

2. Map\_\_to

(5) Yosef\_\_

(6) Ngoz\_\_

### **CIGAWO CACITATU**

**Ikani mau osolekera muziganizo izi.**

Amai

Phala

Mazira

Kusewera

7. Msote wa amai uli ndi \_\_\_\_\_

8. \_\_\_\_\_ ndi atate ali kulima.

9. Ana akonda \_\_\_\_\_ ndi bola.

10. Mwana akudya \_\_\_\_\_.

**CIGAWO CACINAI Malembedwe**

**Lembani ziganizo mologosoka.**

11.  2 Marks

12.  3 Marks

13. Lemba dzina lako \_\_\_\_\_ . 2  
Marks.

**CIGAWO CACISANU**

**MVETSO**

**Werengani nkhani mwakacete-cete ndi kuyankha mafunso  
osatira.**

Amai ali ndi munda waukulu. Amalimamo mbeu zosiyana-  
siyana.

14. Ndani amene ali ndi munda waukulu?

atate	amai	ana
-------	------	-----

15. Kodi amalimamo ciani m'munda?

udzu	munda	mbeu
------	-------	------

16. Kodi tikagulitsa mbeu amatipatsa ciani?

tiyi	ndalama	nsima
------	---------	-------

**LITERACY MARKING KEY FOR TERM 2 WEEK 5 ASSESSMENT – 2019**

**Grade 1**

**Marks**

1.	mb	- 1
2.	mo	- 1
3.	g	- 1
4.	o	- 1
5.	e	- 1
6.	i	- 1
7.	Mazira	- 1
8.	Amai	- 1
9.	Kusewera	- 1
10.	Phala	- 1
11.	Safira wabwera	- 2

- |     |                   |     |
|-----|-------------------|-----|
| 12. | Atate atuma foni  | - 3 |
| 13. | First and surname | - 2 |
| 14. | Amai              | - 1 |
| 15. | Mbeu              | - 1 |
| 16. | Ndalama           | - 1 |
| 17. |                   |     |

### **GRADE ONE (1) TERM TWO WEEK FIVE TEACHERS PROTOCOL**

#### **CIGAWO COYAMBA (3 MARKS) QUESTION 1 -3**

Teacher read names of the objects then ask learners to write the missing sound.

#### **CIGAWO CACIWIRI (3 Marks) question 4 – 6**

Teacher read words given then ask learners to finish the words with missing vowels.

(4) mapoto

(5) yosefe

(6) ngozi

#### **CIGAWO CACITATU (4 Marks) question 7 – 10**

Teacher read the sentences for the learners, then ask learners to choose the correct missing words and write on the spaces provided.

### **CIGAWO CACINAI (7 Marks) Question 11 – 13**

Teacher ask learners to write the sentences correctly by showing the capital letters at the beginning of the sentences spaces between words and full stops.

Question 13, allow learners to write their names by showing the first and surname.

### **CIGAWO CACISANU (3 Marks)**

Teacher read the story to the learners and the questions then ask learners to circle the answer on each question.

**APPENDIX 6: POST TEST ASSESSMENT**

**MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION**  
**EASTERN PROVINCE COMMON ASSESSMENT - LITERACY**  
**ASSESSMENT**  
**MAYESO A KULEMBA NDI KUWERENGA A GILEDI ONE (1)**  
**TERM: 1 WIKI: 10 - 2019**

Dzina: \_\_\_\_\_

Kalasi:

\_\_\_\_\_

**Cigawo Coyamba – Masipelo**

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

**Cigawo Caciwiri**

**Ikani kamzera kozungulira pa mvekero kapena masilabe**

6.

<b>d</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>s</b>	<b>g</b>
----------	----------	----------	----------

7.

<b>m</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>o</b>	<b>e</b>
----------	----------	----------	----------

8.

<b>t</b>	<b>w</b>	<b>f</b>	<b>k</b>
----------	----------	----------	----------

9.

**le na je me**

10.

**ba vi de ku**

### Cigawo Cacitatu

Lembani maina azithunzi – thunzi izi:

11.



---

13.



---

12.



14.



---

15.



\_\_\_\_\_

**Cigawo Cacinai**

**Pangani ndi kulemba mau atatu amene ali ndi mathantauzo kugwiritsa nchito masilabe awa.**

Sa            Se            Si            So            Su

La            Le            Li            Lo            Lu

**Citsanzo: Salu**

16. \_\_\_\_\_

17. \_\_\_\_\_

18. \_\_\_\_\_

**Cigawo Cacisanu: Malembedwe (Dictation)**

19 – \_\_\_\_\_

20. \_\_\_\_\_

## **Teacher Protocol Gradw 1 term 1 week 10 2019 (KEY)**

Teacher asks learners to write their names, please help those with problems.

### **CIGAWO COYAMBA (Question 1 – 5)**

Teacher reads out the spelling word twice to the learners then ask them to write it.

1. Moto
2. Buma
3. Lemekani
4. Sopo
5. Pepala

### **CIGAWO CACIWIRI (Question 6 – 10)**

Teacher ask the learners to underline a sound or syllable mentioned.

6. /5/
7. /B/
8. /K/
9. Na
10. Ku

### **CIGAWO CACITATU (Question 11 – 15)**

Teacher ask the learners to write names of objects drawn.

### **CIGAWO CACINAI (Question 16 – 18)**

Teacher ask the learners to make words from the given syllables  
e.g.

16. Sila

17. Luso

18. Sola

### **CIGAWO CACISANU (Dictation)**

Teacher dictates the sentence to the learners; allow them to elicit the sentence “**cola casowa**” then write it.

### **GRADE ONE WEEK 10 LITERACY ASSESSMENT. TERM ONE (1)**

#### **MARKING KEY – 2019**

1. Moto
2. Buma
3. Lemekani
4. Sopo
5. Pepala
6. Luso
7. Bola
8. Makolo
9. Na
10. Ku

11. Poto
12. Buku
13. Delesi
14. Kololo
15. Botolo
16. Sila
17. Luso
18. Sola
- 19-20 Cola casowa

## APPENDIX 7: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



### THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

#### DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH AND GRADUATE STUDIES

Great East Road | P.O. Box 32379 | Lusaka 10101 | Tel: +260-211-290 258/291 777  
Fax: +260-1-290 258/253 952 | Email: director@drgs.unza.zm | Website: www.unza.zm  
17<sup>th</sup> October 2019

**REF NO. HSSREC: 2019-MAY-027**

Mr Friday Nyimbili  
Box 346  
**LUNDAZI**

Dear Mr. Nyimbili

**RE: "TRANSLANGUAGING AS PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE ON LITERACY LEVELS AMONG GRADE ONE LEARNERS IN LUNDAZI DISTRICT: A MIXED METHOD DESIGN."**

Reference is made to your protocol dated May, 2019. HSSREC resolved to approve this study and your participation as Principal Investigator for a period of one year.

Review Type	Ordinary	Approval No. HSSREC: 2019- MAY-027
Approval and Expiry Date	Approval Date: 17 <sup>th</sup> October 2019	Expiry Date: 16 <sup>th</sup> October, 2020
Protocol Version and Date	Version - Nil.	16 <sup>th</sup> October, 2020
Information Sheet, Consent Forms and Dates	• English, Nyanja, Bemba.	16 <sup>th</sup> October, 2020
Consent form ID and Date	Version - Nil	16 <sup>th</sup> October, 2020
Recruitment Materials	Nil	16 <sup>th</sup> October, 2020
Other Study Documents	Questionnaire.	16 <sup>th</sup> October, 2020
Number of participants approved for study	600	16 <sup>th</sup> October, 2020

Specific conditions will apply to this approval. As Principal Investigator it is your responsibility to ensure that the contents of this letter are adhered to. If these are not adhered to, the approval may be suspended. Should the study be suspended, study sponsors and other regulatory authorities will be informed.

Excellence in Teaching, Research and Community Service

### Conditions of Approval

- No participant may be involved in any study procedure prior to the study approval or after the expiration date.
- All unanticipated or Serious Adverse Events (SAEs) must be reported to HSSREC within 5 days.
- All protocol modifications must be approved by HSSREC prior to implementation unless they are intended to reduce risk (but must still be reported for approval). Modifications will include any change of investigator/s or site address.
- All protocol deviations must be reported to HSSREC within 5 working days.
- All recruitment materials must be approved by HSSREC prior to being used.
- Principal investigators are responsible for initiating Continuing Review proceedings. HSSREC will only approve a study for a period of 12 months.
- It is the responsibility of the PI to renew his/her ethics approval through a renewal application to HSSREC.
- Where the PI desires to extend the study after expiry of the study period, documents for study extension must be received by HSSREC at least 30 days before the expiry date. This is for the purpose of facilitating the review process. Documents received within 30 days after expiry will be labelled "late submissions" and will incur a penalty fee of K500.00. No study shall be renewed whose documents are submitted for renewal 30 days after expiry of the certificate.
- Every 6 (six) months a progress report form supplied by The University of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee as an IRB must be filled in and submitted to us. There is a penalty of K500.00 for failure to submit the report.
- When closing a project, the PI is responsible for notifying, in writing or using the Research Ethics and Management Online (REMO), both HSSREC and the National Health Research Authority (NHRA) when ethics certification is no longer required for a project.
- In order to close an approved study, a Closing Report must be submitted in writing or through the REMO system. A Closing Report should be filed when data collection has ended and the study team will no longer be using human participants or animals or secondary data or have any direct or indirect contact with the research participants or animals for the study.
- Filing a closing report (rather than just letting your approval lapse) is important as it assists HSSREC in efficiently tracking and reporting on projects. Note that some funding agencies and sponsors require a notice of closure from the IRB which had approved the study and can only be generated after the Closing Report has been filed.
- A reprint of this letter shall be done at a fee.
- All protocol modifications must be approved by HSSREC by way of an application for an amendment prior to implementation unless they are intended to reduce risk (but must still be reported for approval). Modifications will include any change of investigator/s or site address or methodology and methods. Many modifications entail minimal risk adjustments to a protocol and/or consent form and can be made on an Expedited basis (via the IRB Chair). Some examples are: format changes, correcting spelling errors, adding key personnel, minor changes to questionnaires, recruiting and changes, and so forth. Other, more substantive changes, especially those that may alter the risk-benefit ratio, may require Full Board review. In all cases, except where noted above regarding

subject safety, any changes to any protocol document or procedure must first be approved by HSSREC before they can be implemented.

Should you have any questions regarding anything indicated in this letter, please do not hesitate to get in touch with us at the above indicated address.

On behalf of HSSREC, we would like to wish you all the success as you carry out your study.

However, as a legal requirement, you will need to have final study clearance and approval to conduct research to the National Health Research Authority (NHRA). You may call Tell: +260211 250309 | or Email: znhrasec@gmail.com | for inquiries. These offices are at Paediatric Centre of Excellence in the University Teaching Hospital (UTH) premises, Lusaka, Zambia.

Yours faithfully,  
**HSSREC IRB**

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Dr. Jason Mwanza', with a horizontal line drawn underneath it.

*Dr. Jason Mwanza*  
Dip. Clin. Med. Sc., BA., M.Soc., PhD  
**CHAIRPERSON**

## APPENDIX 8: SIGNED CONSENT FORM FOR THE TEACHER



HSSREC FORM 1b

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA**

**DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH AND GRADUATE STUDIES**

**HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**

Telephone: +260-211-290258/293937  
32379

P O Box

Fax: +260-211-290258/293937  
Lusaka, Zambia

E-mail [drgs@unza.zm](mailto:drgs@unza.zm)

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## **PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET**

### **Informed Consent Form for TEACHERS**

#### **Introduction**

I am **Nyimbili Friday** a student at the University of Zambia in the School of Education and department of Language and Social Sciences Education pursuing Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics. My research topic is on '**The Impact of Translanguaging as Pedagogical Practice on Literacy Levels among Grade One Learners in Lundazi District.**' This study is not sponsored by any organization or government, but it is for academic purposes. Your participation is voluntary, and your choice will not have an influence on your usual teaching schedules in your

class. If you have any questions, kindly ask me and I will take some time to explain to you or you may ask later as we progress in the discussion.

### **Type of Research Intervention**

This research will involve your participation in the teaching of literacy to Grade One learners for the whole term and interviews.

### **Participant Selection**

You are being invited to take part in this research because you are the teacher teaching the Grade One and you have been with the learners since term 1. I feel you can contribute much to the understanding of the teaching practices that are being used in the current policy and you can adapt to the translanguaging practices easily since your school and class is multilingual.

### **Voluntary Participation**

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary. It is your choice whether to participate or not. If you choose not to participate all the services you receive at this Centre will continue and nothing will change.

### **Procedures**

A. Provide a brief introduction to the format of the research study.

We are asking you to help us learn more about the impact of the translanguaging pedagogical practices in the Zambian Grade One literacy class of Lundazi district. We are inviting you to take part in this research project. If you accept, you will be asked to teach your Grade One class using translanguaging pedagogical practices for one term.

Prior to that, you will be trained on how to teach literacy using the translanguaging pedagogical practices to Grade One class in a multilingual community and class. After that, I will be observing your class how learners will be responding in class and the languages they will be using in order

to assimilate the content being taught by the teacher in their classroom.

All the discussions that will follow will be conducted from your classroom or office after the pupils leave the room. The information recorded is confidential, your name is not being included on the forms or anywhere else, only a number known by me will identify you, and no one else except my supervisor will have access to this information.

### **Duration**

The research will take three full months and two weeks. The we shall start with the pre testing of the learners, class observation for three months and post test in the last week which the district conducts as end of term exams. An interview with you will proceed thereafter for about one hour.

### **Uses of information**

This information I will gather from you will be used to help make inform the educational practitioners to on the impact of translanguaging pedagogical practices on literacy levels among the Grade One learners in Lundazi District. The information gathered is strictly for academic purposes. The findings will be written in the thesis and findings may also be disseminated in conferences and seminars.

### **Risks**

There is a risk that you may share some personal or confidential information by chance, or that you may feel uncomfortable talking about some of the topics in literacy teaching in relation to the policy. However, we do not wish for this to happen during this research. You do not have to answer any question or take part in the discussion or interview if you feel the question(s) are too personal or if talking about them makes you uncomfortable.

### **Benefits**

There will be no direct benefit to you, but your participation is likely to help you and me and

policy makers to find out more about the impact of translanguaging pedagogical practices in a Grade One literacy classes in a multilingual class.

### **Reimbursements**

By participating in this study, you will not be provided with any incentive. However, you will be provided with travel expense (if applicable) when you are called upon to a seminar or training meeting for my study.

### **Confidentiality**

Since this study will be conducted in your school and it will draw attention to the people within the school and outside, I will not disclose any information on this study regarding you and the procedure we shall be going through. No part of information that will be collected from you will be disclosed and it will be kept in separate folders of the computer. After the research and publication of results, all documents of data collection will be destroyed. With this, I can assure you that confidentiality will be observed in this study.

### **Sharing the Results**

The outcomes of the research will only be shared to the public when all channels of data presentations have been exhausted. A copy of the publication will be given to you and the school so that you can also learn from the research.

### **Right to Refuse or Withdraw**

As much as you are aware that taking part in this study is voluntary, you should also be aware that you are free to withdraw from this study at any time. You can also withdraw or modify some statements made after a discussion.

### **Who to Contact**

If you have any concerns or questions on this study, kindly contact me on 0978 810225, 0968 848584 or Dr. Mwanza David on 0977 954222 or email: sanidavidmwanza@yahoo.co

This proposal or protocol has been reviewed and approved by HSSREC which is a committee whose task it is to make sure that research participants are protected from harm. If you wish to find about more about the IRB, contact:

Dr. Jason Mwanza Chairperson, Humanities and Social Sciences, Research Ethics Committee,  
University of Zambia  
P O Box 32379  
LUSAKA

OR

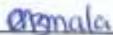
Professor. Henry M. Sichingabula Director, Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies  
University of Zambia  
P O Box 32379  
LUSAKA

**Part II: Certificate of Informed Consent**

**(This section is mandatory)**

I have read the foregoing information, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study.

Print Name of Participant M. C Grade one Literacy teacher

Signature of Participant 

Date 16/05/2019

Day/month/year

Statement by the researcher/person taking consent

I have accurately read out the information sheet to the potential participant, and to the best of my ability made sure that the participant understands.

I confirm that the participant was given an opportunity to ask questions about the study, and all the questions asked by the participant have been answered correctly and to the best of my ability. I confirm that the individual has not been coerced into giving consent, and the consent has been given freely and voluntarily.

A copy of this ICF has been provided to the participant.

Print Name of Researcher/person taking the consent M. C

Signature of Researcher /person taking the consent 

Date 16/05/2019

Day/month/year

**CONTACTS FOR QUESTIONS** (Names, addresses and phone numbers of the following):

**1. Principal Investigator (Must be a local person and a Zambian).**

Names: NYIMBILI FRIDAY

Phone: 0978810225

E mail: nyimbili2012@gmail.com

Physical address: C/O LSSE Department, School of Education, University of Zambia, Box 32379, Lusaka.

## **APPENDIX 9: SIGNED CONSENT FORM FOR THE PUPILS**



HSSREC FORM 1b

### **THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA**

#### **DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH AND GRADUATE STUDIES**

#### **HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**

Telephone: +260-211-290258/293937  
32379

P O Box

Fax: +260-211-290258/293937  
Lusaka, Zambia

E-mail [drgs@unza.zm](mailto:drgs@unza.zm)

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## **PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET**

### **Informed Consent Form for TEACHERS**

#### **Introduction**

I am **Nyimbili Friday** a student at the University of Zambia in the School of Education and department of Language and Social Sciences Education pursuing Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics. My research topic is on **'The Impact of Translanguaging as Pedagogical Practice on Literacy Levels among Grade One Learners in Lundazi District.'** This study is not sponsored by any organization or government, but it is for academic purposes. Your participation is voluntary, and your choice will not have an influence on your usual teaching schedules in your

class. If you have any questions, kindly ask me and I will take some time to explain to you or you may ask later as we progress in the discussion.

### **Type of Research Intervention**

This research will involve your participation in the teaching of literacy to Grade One learners for the whole term and interviews.

### **Participant Selection**

You are being invited to take part in this research because you are the teacher teaching the Grade 1 and you have been with the learners since term 1. I feel you can contribute much to the understanding of the teaching practices that are being used in the current policy and you can adapt to the translanguaging practices easily since your school and class is multilingual.

### **Voluntary Participation**

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary. It is your choice whether to participate or not. If you choose not to participate all the services you receive at this Centre will continue and nothing will change.

### **Procedures**

B. Provide a brief introduction to the format of the research study.

We are asking you to help us learn more about the impact of the translanguaging pedagogical practices in the Zambian Grade 1 literacy class of Lundazi district. We are inviting you to take part in this research project. If you accept, you will be asked to teach your Grade One class using translanguaging pedagogical practices for one term.

Prior to that, you will be trained on how to teach literacy using the translanguaging pedagogical practices to Grade One class in a multilingual community and class. After that, I will be observing your class how learners will be responding in class and the languages they will be using in order

to assimilate the content being taught by the teacher in their classroom.

All the discussions that will follow will be conducted from your classroom or office after the pupils leave the room. The information recorded is confidential, your name is not being included on the forms or anywhere else, only a number known by me will identify you, and no one else except my supervisor will have access to this information.

### **Duration**

The research will take three full months and two weeks. We shall start with the pre testing of the learners, class observation for three months and post test in the last week which the district conducts as end of term exams. An interview with you will proceed thereafter for about one hour.

### **Uses of information**

This information I will gather from you will be used to help make inform the educational practitioners to on the impact of translanguaging pedagogical practices on literacy levels among the Grade One learners in Lundazi District. The information gathered is strictly for academic purposes. The findings will be written in the thesis and findings may also be disseminated in conferences and seminars.

### **Risks**

There is a risk that you may share some personal or confidential information by chance, or that you may feel uncomfortable talking about some of the topics in literacy teaching in relation to the policy. However, we do not wish for this to happen during this research. You do not have to answer any question or take part in the discussion or interview if you feel the question(s) are too personal or if talking about them makes you uncomfortable.

### **Benefits**

There will be no direct benefit to you, but your participation is likely to help you and me and policy makers to find out more about the impact of translanguaging pedagogical practices in a Grade One literacy classes in a multilingual class.

### **Reimbursements**

By participating in this study, you will not be provided with any incentive. However, you will be provided with travel expense (if applicable) when you are called upon to a seminar or training meeting for my study.

### **Confidentiality**

Since this study will be conducted in your school and it will draw attention to the people within the school and outside, I will not disclose any information on this study regarding you and the procedure we shall be going through. No part of information that will be collected from you will be disclosed and it will be kept in separate folders of the computer. After the research and publication of results, all documents of data collection will be destroyed. With this, I can assure you that confidentiality will be observed in this study.

### **Sharing the Results**

The outcomes of the research will only be shared to the public when all channels of data presentations have been exhausted. A copy of the publication will be given to you and the school so that you can also learn from the research.

### **Right to Refuse or Withdraw**

As much as you are aware that taking part in this study is voluntary, you should also be aware that you are free to withdraw from this study at any time. You can also withdraw or modify some statements made after a discussion.

### **Who to Contact**

If you have any concerns or questions on this study, kindly contact me on 0978 810225, 0968 848584 or Dr. Mwanza David on 0977 954222 or email: sanidavidmwanza@yahoo.co

This proposal or protocol has been reviewed and approved by HSSREC which is a committee whose task it is to make sure that research participants are protected from harm. If you wish to find about more about the IRB, contact:

Dr. Jason Mwanza Chairperson, Humanities and Social Sciences, Research Ethics Committee,  
University of Zambia

P O Box 32379

LUSAKA

OR

Professor. Henry M. Sichingabula Director, Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies

University of Zambia

P O Box 32379

LUSAKA

**Part II: Certificate of Informed Consent**

**(This section is mandatory)**

I have read the foregoing information, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study.

Print Name of Participant HEADTEACHER

Signature of Participant *[Handwritten Signature]*

Date 16/05/2019

Day/month/year



Statement by the researcher/person taking consent

I have accurately read out the information sheet to the potential participant, and to the best of my ability made sure that the participant understands.

I confirm that the participant was given an opportunity to ask questions about the study, and all the questions asked by the participant have been answered correctly and to the best of my ability. I confirm that the individual has not been coerced into giving consent, and the consent has been given freely and voluntarily.

A copy of this ICF has been provided to the participant.

Print Name of Researcher/person taking the consent HEADTEACHER

Signature of Researcher /person taking the consent *[Handwritten Signature]*

Date 16/05/2019

Day/month/year



CONTACTS FOR QUESTIONS (Names, addresses and phone numbers of the following):

**1. Principal Investigator (Must be a local person and a Zambian).**

Names: NYIMBILI FRIDAY

Phone: 0978810225

E mail: [nyimbili2013@gmail.com](mailto:nyimbili2013@gmail.com)

Physical address: C/O LSSE Department, School of Education, University of Zambia, Box 32379, Lusaka.

**APPENDIX 10: PERMISSION FROM DEBS TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

