EXPLORATION OF THE PRACTICE AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS TRANSLANGUAGING IN STANDARD ONE PRIMARY SCHOOL CLASSROOMS IN TANZANIAN RURAL AREAS: THE CASE OF RUNGWE DISTRICT

HARID MWAMBULA

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CERTIFICATION

The undersigned certify that they have read and here by recommend for acceptance by the Open University of Tanzania, a thesis entitled, **Exploration of the Practice and Attitudes of Translanguaging in Standard One Primary School Classroom**s **in Tanzanian Rural Areas** in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Linguistics

…………………………..
Dr. Dunlop Ochieng
(Supervisor)

………………………
Date

…………………………..
Dr. Zelda Elisifa
(Supervisor)

………………………
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DECLARATION

I, **Harid Mwambula**, declare that the work presented in this thesis is original. It has never been presented to any other university or institution. Where other people's works have been used, references are provided. It is in this regard that I declare this work as originally mine. It is hereby presented in fulfilment of the requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Linguistics.

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Signature

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Date

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my father, the late Tata. Andrew Mwambula Mwakalonge, for his inspiration with the saying "Never say Never" in life as long as we are still breathing. May his soul rest in peace in eternal life.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis explored practice and attitudes toward translanguaging in standard one classrooms in Rungwe District, Tanzania. The study identified the context in which translanguaging is practised, and the causes of translanguaging practice and assessed teachers' attitudes on translanguaging practice in their teaching and learning in standard one classrooms in rural areas. The study adopted a qualitative research method, whereas a purposive sampling technique was used to identify forty standard one learners and eight standard one teachers. The instruments used were interviews and observation. The findings were analysed through the thematic analysis method. The study found that both teachers and learners translanguaging to enable effective participation during the teaching and learning process, explaining difficult terms, explaining lessons, asking questions, gaining deep comprehension and developing good relationships among learners and teachers. Teachers had a positive attitude towards translanguaging practice in learners' first language. Teachers agree that translanguaging helped standard one pupils in rural areas to transit smoothly from learners' first language into Kiswahili-medium primary school instructions. The study concluded that both teachers and learners practised translanguaging as a gap filler to connect pupils with the new language learned and the content of the subject. Generally, teachers had a positive attitude towards translanguaging using learners' first language. The study suggests that further research should be done to upscale the research in other primary school classroom regions where there are multilingual practices. The study also recommends that the education policy incorporate translanguaging pedagogy in learners' L1 into the teaching and learning process of lower-level classrooms in rural areas.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACCRONYMIS AND SYMBOLS

CBT   Computer Based Platform

CUP   Common Underlying Proficiency

CLIL   Content and Language Integrated Learning

CLT   Communicative Language Teaching

EAL   English Additional Language

EFL   English Foreign Language

ELT   English Language Teaching

EMI   English Medium of Instruction

ESL   English as a Second Language

GY   Goye

IRF   Initial Response Feedback

JMT   Jamuhuru ya Muungano wa Tanzania

KP   Kipanfe

L1   First Language

L2   Second Language

LoI   Language of Instruction

MERs   Mental Event Representations

MLE   Multilingual Education

MOEC   Ministry of Education Vocational and Training

MOI   Medium of Instruction

MOEVT   Ministry of Education Vocational and Training

MS   Masukulu

MT   Mother Tongue

MTB-MLE   Mother Tongue-based Multilingual Education

MTT   Mother Tongue Tuition

NEA   National Education Assessment

NEGRAand EGMA   National Early Grade Reading and Mathematics Assessments

NJ   Njugilo

SCT   Socio-Cultural Theory

SLA   Second Language Acquisition

SW   Swahili

TL   Translanguaging/Target Language

UNESCO   United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UNICEF   United National International Children's Emergency Fund

UK   United Kingdom

URT   United State

ZPD   Zone of Proximal Development

CALP   Cognitive Ability Language Proficiency

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Overview

This study sought to explore the practices and teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging in standard one primary school classrooms in the Rungwe District, Mbeya Region. The study used the qualitative research method as the main approach to collecting data. The study collected data from standard one pupils and teachers to establish valid findings behind the translanguaging phenomena.

This chapter is the introduction to the thesis. It provides the background of the study and sets the rationale for carrying out research of this magnitude in the selected area. The chapter is divided into sections, namely;   the background to the study,   the statement of the problem the objectives of the study,   the research questions,   the significance of the study,   definitions of terms, andthe organization of the thesis.

1.2   Background to the problem

1.2.1   Global Context

The study looked at literature on the problem from outside Africa as follows; Monolingual education has proven to be a failure in the current dynamic world which requires shuttling from one language to another in a natural manner to facilitate effective understanding (Turner, 2017). Researchers believe that incorporating translanguaging practice in classroom instruction will help them better understand the advantages of multilingualism (Turner, 2017; Carroll & Mazak, 2017; Garcia & Wei, 2014; Canagarajah, 2012; Makalela, 2015 Mgijima & Makalela, 2016). The emphasis is also placed on incorporating translanguaging techniques into the

instruction of other disciplines at lower educational levels (Garcia, Johnson & Seltzer, 2017).

Translanguaging is defined as a method of using language and educating multilingual learners using bilingual speakers' language practices drawn from a single linguistic repertoire (Garcia & Wei, 2014). According to Garcia & Wei (2014), translanguaging refers to the process by which multilingual students perform multilingually in a variety of ways in the classroom. Translanguaging across the borders of named languages is regarded as a valuable and beneficial language practice for multilingual speakers and learners (Woodley & Brown, 2016). In that case, using learners' full language repertoires to develop target language knowledge is known as translanguaging, which, according to Garcia & Kleyn (2016), would not only improve bilingual learners' education but also create a better and more just world. Although it is a difficult term to define, the practice of translanguaging has numerous advantages (Garcia &Wei, 2014).

Translanguaging practices according to Garcia & Li (2014), include reading and discussing in one language while writing in another and enable learners to effectively participate. Previous decades saw various learners' first languages being referred to as weaker languages and hence could not be used during teaching and learning. This hindered the learner's ability to participate and think critically which could improve a deeper understanding of the subjects during the learning process. Translanguaging allows the learner to think critically and gain an effective understanding of the subject matter as well as the target language while also developing the 'weaker' language with the assistance of the 'dominant' language. Furthermore,

translanguaging is said to improve teaching by utilizing the presenter's multilingual and multicultural identities to broaden the speaker's understanding of the target language (Mazak & Carroll, 2017).

Translanguaging is currently at the forefront of research because it has revealed new insights that were previously not considered under monolingual ideology into how classroom activities through shuttling from one language to another can improve understanding of the lesson during teaching (Carroll & Mazak, 2017). The ability of multilingual speakers to apply and incorporate various language resources to generate their voices is referred to as translanguaging. Translanguaging contradicts the long-held belief that languages are distinct entities, each with its own set of rules. This monolingual belief led to detachment between language use and classroom understanding of the subject matter.

According to Canagarajah (2012), instances of translanguaging are common among speakers from both monolingual and multilingual backgrounds. In reality, although translanguaging was not previously emphasized and was seen as a problem in the teaching and learning process, all speakers are translingual to some extent because they freely mix semiotic resources from various tongues and symbol systems in situational practices to construct meaning (Canagarajah, ibid).

This translanguaging indicates a paradigm change toward what some linguists refer to as "integrational" techniques, away from the conventional emphasis on structural limitations and distinct roles of different languages in learning. These methods go beyond a constrained emphasis on linguistic structures and a constrained

comprehension of language. In terms of connectedness, volatility, and adaptability, this movement is consistent with changes in other disciplines (Canagarajah, ibid).

According to Thierry (2016), the idea that the human mind may be separated into different languages defies the data provided by the study. The processing of later acquired languages may involve some neutral networks that are not essential to the processing of first languages (L1), according to previous experimental evidence. Translanguaging speaks more to the process of learning a language than it does to the manifestation of several languages in the human mind (Wei & Ho, 2018). All four language skills are affected by this new concept of language acquisition and teaching (Chen, & Tsou, 2019). The translanguaging practice allows for talks to clarify facts and build meanings in a way that guarantees each voice is effectively heard.

Until the late 1960s, First Languages were perceived to be obstacles that interfere with the successful acquisition or learning of second languages (SLs) (Abrahamson, 2009). Currently, there is a paradigm shift from that which considered diversity a threat and disadvantage to viewing diversity as a resource (Garcia & Seltzer, 2016). Several scholars have recently investigated the impact of using one's entire linguistic repertoire when learning a new language (Cummins, 2017; Garcia & Wei, 2014; Mazak & Carroll, 2017; Karlsson et al., 2016). Despite the numerous benefits of translanguaging, researchers have discovered that state academic institutions are increasingly employing monolingual practices in classrooms (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Torpsten (2018) observes that many academic institutions use Second Language teaching, although translanguaging could benefit students more. According to Garcia and Kleyn (2016), many teachers avoid translanguaging in their classrooms because

it contradicts established policies and ideologies. This can be seen, for example, in the curriculum developed by Sweden's National Agency of Education, which states that only English should be used in English lessons (Skolverket, 2011). This may be related to the language ideology of 'one nation, one language,' which, according to Mazak & Carroll (2017), favours monolingual policies (ideologies) and impedes the development of a multilingual society.

Because more than half of the world's population is multilingual, the origins of the forces opposing translanguaging strategies in language classrooms are unknown (Berényi, 2012). The percentage may rise as more people migrate and move around the world, particularly in European countries (Berényi-Kiss, 2012). According to Garcia & Wei (2014), migration has resulted in greater linguistic heterogeneity than ever before in the twenty-first century. In Sweden, for example, one-fifth of students come from foreign countries (Torpsten, 2018).

According to Hua (2014), multicultural classrooms have grown in popularity around the world, where students from various backgrounds learn through classroom collaborations. According to the Swedish National Agency of Education, for example, learners with alien backgrounds make up the majority of those who fail their subjects in school due to incompetence in the Second Language (SL). This is because the learners lack the necessary tools and skills to accelerate their SL growth.

The research found that languages migrate with their utters across the world. In Sweden, schools are flooded with bilingual a learner, which brings the question of the learners' views on the translanguaging practice. Previous research has already

investigated schools' and teachers' views, but none focused on Swedish learners in English classrooms. Mazak and Carroll (2017) claim that some literature on translanguaging is from the United States(US) and United Kingdom (UK) primary and sometimes secondary school classrooms.

Cummins (2017) discovered a significant gap between typical monolingual instructional practices in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and optimal bilingual instructional practices in the previous era. The latter practice has received little attention. Although many learners come from diverse language backgrounds, even those who speak Swedish as their first language have the opportunity to express their views on translanguaging.

A growing body of research shows that translanguaging pedagogies improve the educational achievement of emerging bilingual learners in the United States (Palmer et al., 2014) and around the world (Lin & He, 2017; Vaish & Aidil, 2015). These studies employ translanguaging pedagogies in bilingual classrooms and serve as models for incorporating these practices into content-area classrooms.

Classroom interactions that view learners' linguistic backgrounds as resources rather than issues were studied by researchers in the UK and the US (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Leeman, 2015). For migrant learners or other language minorities, after or on the weekends is when complementary schools and classes are offered. An increase in scholarly research identifying translanguaging as a crucial educational method has occurred over the past ten years, particularly in the United States (Beaudrie & Loza, 2021), Canada and Australia (Nordstorm, 2016). According to some academicians

(Hancock, 2012; Li, 2014), complementary schools offer chances for real language usage and translanguaging, which allow learners to exercise their agency and use all of the languages at their disposal to enhance learning. This language policy, which has been put into practice (Bonacina-Pugh 2012, 2017), throws light on the culture of the learners as a setting for negotiating language norms and choices.

All children who speak a language other than Swedish at home are entitled, under certain circumstances, to attend mother tongue (MT) tuition, according to the Swedish Education Act (SFS, 2010). These requirements are based on linguistic competency and language use, requiring that children (learners) utilize the language at home with at least one parent and possess a fundamental level of proficiency in it. Students who speak languages other than Swedish are becoming more prevalent in Swedish schools. According to (SNAE's 2017a) report, 27% of all compulsory school students in 2017 qualified for MT tuition, with 24% of them coming from a migratory background (SNAE, 2017b). However, just 57% of those qualified for MT tuition attended the sessions in the academic year 2016–17. (SNAE, 2017c). Numerous scholars have questioned the value of providing support for students' first language, mother tongue, or home language in schools (Garcia, 2009). One of the key elements for school success for students whose mother tongues differ from the dominant school language is the availability of MT tuitions or other types of education where polyglot resources are employed for good teaching and learning (Garcia, 2004).

Other researchers (Creese & Blackledge 2010; Lin 2015) who have defined translanguaging responsibilities have concluded that translanguaging is a successful teaching technique. Creese & Blackledge (2010) assert that translanguaging has advantages for identification performance, content access, and confidence development. The functions of first language(L1) use were compiled into a three-dimensional framework by Lin (2015), who on the other hand presented a critical review of translanguaging use in Content-and-Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) lessons. These functions are ideational, contextual functions, and interpersonal functions.

Others recognise the contextual factors, such as lesson type and students' linguistic-language proficiency, that allow them to adopt a dynamic bilingual approach. Lin, 2019; Wang & Curdt-Christiansen, 2019 noted that similar to the findings reported in previous studies (Creese 2010) Western societies have promoted mainstreaming policies, which include the inclusion of translanguaging in general classes and are supported by collaborative relationships between mainstream and teachers to improve the learning process (Creese, 2010).

According to Levine (2014), the classroom language should be regarded as a multilingual social space, and teaching pedagogy would benefit from assigning a principled, sanctioned place in the translanguaging classroom. Translanguaging pedagogies also challenge language separation in the classroom by allowing teachers and students to use multiple languages in a flexible manner (Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

Creese and Blackledge observed flexible bilingual teaching and learning in English and Gujarati in the United Kingdom (2010). Creese and Blackledge observed that without translanguaging between Gujarati and English, the expected meaning of teachers' instructions would be unclear. To engage learners, the facilitator or teacher uses language to convey meaning or transmit information. Translanguaging was also demonstrated in discussion, clarification, and task completion through procedural knowledge. Learners could comprehend the text's message more easily and with greater motivation and participation in class (Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

1.2.2 Translanguaging in African Context

In the African context, the translanguaging practice was viewed as a tool for disunity having inherited the belief from the African colonialists. This belief was further reflected in the education sector where foreign language was promoted. This hindered the development of multilingual practice especially in the first languages in Africa. However, in recent years Africa has seen the importance and need to practice multilingualism, especially in education. In multilingual classrooms, the first language is increasingly being used to improve learning and help pupils. Studies by Garcia & Wei (2014), Makalela (2015b) & Mgijima & Makalela (2016) back the idea of incorporating the First Language into the learning environment and promote attempts to shift away from imposed monolingual orientations in contexts where multilingualism is common. The idea of one language, one nation, and one classroom has given way to the development of numerous overlapping linguistic repertoires in multilingual settings. As stated by Madiba (2014), opening implementational and ideological spaces for multilingual education is the goal of the government policy

framework efforts to support the use of learners' native languages in education which was previously underlooked, according to Stroud and Kerfoot (2013).

UNESCO has consistently advocated for translanguaging in mother tongue-based education (1953, 2008, 2016) especially in Africa in lower-level classrooms (Benson, 2005). Numerous studies have demonstrated that children learn most well when their first language is used for instruction and examinations in conjunction with a second language, which may be the official language through code-switching (Benson, 2005; Brock-Utne, 2010; Clegg, 2007 & UNESCO, 2015). However, together with all the international efforts to support translanguaging practice in learners' first language, most African nations have been reluctant to embrace the idea with a belief that learners' first languages could lead to tribalism, and affect learning the target official language.

The advantages of translanguaging in one's mother tongue outweigh the disadvantages, and gains in educational quality and inclusion result in fewer dropouts and school year repetitions as experienced in monolingual education. When a learner's vocabulary and literacy abilities are code-flipped and developed through first language acquisition and oral fluency in the SL. However, there are several real-world challenges for educational planners and policymakers, including language planning in multilingual contexts, the ideal length of mother-tongue instruction, codifying verbal or non-standardized language, developing (in some cases creating) Mother Tongue curricula, and developing teacher development (UNESCO, 2018).

With only 15% of the world's population, Africa is one of the most linguistically diverse continents, accounting for 30% of the world's languages. In contrast to Africa, Europe, which has more than 10% of the world's population, only has 4% of the world's languages (Clegg & Simpson, 2016). In the African context, multilingualism has been widely perceived as a threat to the economy and nation-building efforts, prompting governments to use one official language, often a foreign language, in educational settings. As a result, the opportunity to build an excellent education system on the potential of the larger population, rather than a minority that masters the official language, is being passed up (UNESCO UIL & ADEA, 2011; Milligan et al., 2016).

The right to an education free of discrimination is emphasized in article two (2) of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which was adopted by the United Nations in 1948. A kid learns more quickly in their first language than through a foreign linguistic medium, according to a 1953 UNESCO report that highlights the value of mother tongue education. Numerous studies (Benson, 2005; Brock-Utne, 2010; Clegg, 2007 & UNESCO, 2015) have shown that when students are first taught in their first language, they learn to read and develop other academic skills more quickly, according to UNICEF (1999). This is because for the kids to understand what is being taught to them, they have to internalize the language. African mother tongues are discarded altogether or made (optional) additional (languages) subjects. In classroom practice, this effectively means monolingual or monoglot mother tongue practices are replaced by monolingual or monoglot English practices (Banda, 2010).

Deyi, Simon, & Ncobo (2007) identified low academic literacy in English as one of the major causes of school dropout among African learners in a South African study. The efforts of learners for whom English is not the first language (FL) are usually acknowledged, both in terms of the expansion of English-medium teaching in response to globalisation (Joseph & Ramani, 2012) and the expansion of English-medium higher in education (Boughey, 2000; Evans & Morrisson 2011). According to a South African study, the apartheid-era system of Bantu Education, poorly trained teachers, and dysfunctional schools are all contributing factors (Heugh, 2000).

In language planning, Ruiz (1984) distinguished between "language-as-problem," "language-as-right," and "language-as-resource" approaches. The idea of language as a problem is surrounded by the idea of deficit thinking. Deficit thinking is the belief that students with a low socio-economic background, a minority ethnicity or race, or a lack of proficiency in the dominant language are under-developed in their thinking and learning ability. This leads to the assumption that bilingual students suffer from mental retardation, slower learning speed, confusion, and the burden of learning a new language. Other assumptions of deficit thinking include: Bilingual students are split-identical; Cultural dislocation; Low self-esteem; Emotional vulnerability; Poor self-image and Language anxiety; Stereotypes reinforce a deficit approach to allowing students to learn multiple languages. The fear that multilingualism within a social group of people will lead to more conflict, hostility, lack of cohesion, lead to poverty, lead to low school test scores, lead to students being excluded from mainstream society, and lead to a lack of social and professional capital. For example, one of the stereotypes that supports deficit

thinking is that of the accent we use when speaking. We all speak differently to different people, and we all have different accents. But if we have an accent that is perceived as not being in line with the dominant dominant culture at that time, we may face discrimination or be seen as inferior.

Language as a right can be divided into personal, human and legal/constitutional. Language rights as personal rights include the right to speak one's language and to preserve one's heritage language. Language as a human right includes the right to be protected from discrimination on the grounds of one's language choice, similar to how someone would be protected for their religion. Chapter I of the UN's Purpose and Principles reads as follows: "To promote international cooperation to address international issues of a material, political, economic, social or humanitarian nature, and to promote and encourage the observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms without discrimination on grounds of race, gender, language or religion." According to the UN News Center, "Linguistic minority rights as human rights obligations" (Izsák (2014).

Language as a resource opts for a pluralist society rather than assimilation. Language as a resource benefits a community and helps build economic and social connections between different communities. Language as a resource can be understood as a way of removing the tension that arises when language is discussed as a problem or as a right. Framing the discourse around linguistic as a resource may help to engage majority as well as minority communities in debates about the desirability of bilingual education. As a linguistic resource, individuals and groups can play a more prominent role in global politics and the global economy. As linguistic as a resource,

heritage languages are preserved and tolerance and cooperation among groups are fostered. Language is at the core of identity (Baker 2011, Ruíz 1984, UN News Centre 2014).

In Africa, minority languages are frequently considered a problem in situations where a previous foreign language is the medium of instruction (Ramani, Kekana, & Modiba, 2007, 2008); however, in most developed countries around the world, multilingualism is the norm rather than the exception (Heugh & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2010).

Polyglots have a mixed understanding of language as a resource orientation. Joseph & Ramani (2012) claim that the learner's first language is a resource that aids the teaching and learning process. They claim that the first language (L1) is the most effective course for achieving higher levels of academic cognition and is closely usable as a medium of instruction once terminology and resources have been developed. In complementary (weaker) models, English remains the primary medium of instruction, and learners may use their first languages as supplementing learning mediums (Madiba, 2013). Such models generally encourage the improvement and use of terminology, albeit not as part of formal instruction.

In some areas of South Africa, attempts were made to promote mother tongue education. However, the majority of parents perceive English as a better language that has some sort of material power to provide learners with better jobs and salaries (Ncoko, Osman & Cockcroft, 2000). Therefore, translanguaging is practised in most schools in South Africa as a gap filler in situations where teachers and learners lack

sufficient vocabulary or in cases where they try to emphasise important points Prax-Dubois & Hélot (2020).

According to a longitudinal study of a mother tongue-based bilingual education program in Cameroon's Kom language community Walter & Trammell, 2010), it found that when Grade 1 Kom children in the region were tested in language arts and mathematics, children in Kom-medium classrooms scored significantly higher than children taught in English-medium classrooms. Even when tested on spoken English, Kom-medium learners outperformed those taught in English.

The literature in South Africa suggests that mother tongue-based multilingual education is widely accepted (Alexander, 2005; Malone, 2007; Chikiwa & Schäfer, 2016). The model has been adopted and proposed for implementation in the Philippines. According to Malone (2007), mother tongue-based multilingual education (MT-based MLE) can be used in two ways: the use of learners' mother tongue and two or more additional languages as Languages of Instruction (LoI) in school and each society using their mother tongue plus the selected school language of instruction. In both scenarios, the languages are separated and used in parallel or dual (multiple) medium streams rather than as a single linguistic repertoire. In Zambia, a report was released recommending the use of four local languages from grades 1 to 4 in addition to English as the First Language. The report stated as follows:

> *"… The advisory Board on Native Education has agreed to the adoption of four principal native languages in this territory for school purposes, namely Sikololo (Lozi) for Barotseland; Chitonga-*

chila for the rest of North-Western Rhodesia; Chibemba for North

Eastern Rhodesia; and Chinyanja for Eastern Rhodesia." (Anual

Report on Native Education, 1927: 12)

According to Banda & Mwanza (2017), the declaration gave ethnic languages legal status and appeared to recognize their importance in education. Another policy amendment was made in 1953. There were three levels of educational language policy. It meant that for the first two years of education, learners were educated in the most dominant mother tongue in the area, which was not essentially an official regional language, by the use of English as a second language. From the third to the fourth year, the official regional language was introduced. Finally, beginning in grade 5, English became the medium of instruction (Banda & Mwanza, 2017; Mwanza, 2016).

According to Nyika (2015), using a local language alongside the language of instruction is beneficial at all levels of education. He claims that learners who use their mother tongue as the medium of instruction have an advantage over those who do not. He goes on to say that policies governing the instruction channel have both short- and long-term consequences. Some of these may go unnoticed, but they may have far-reaching implications for current and future generations. Because of the effects of the mother tongue, their application is rooted in the Kenyan constitution of 2010 (Chapter 2, Section 7(3)), which commits to promoting and protecting the diversity of Kenyan languages and supporting their development and use. The language policy in Kenya uses a bilingual approach; hence translanguaging is employed in lower-level schooling where instruction is given up to grade three in the

learner's native tongue (or the language of the learner's catchment area). Kiswahili and English are taught as separate disciplines at the same time. The only people who are exempt from this rule are coastal residents for whom Kiswahili is a first language and students from metropolitan areas who, because of their different ethnic backgrounds, cannot be taught in the mother tongue since they speak many mother tongues. Kiswahili is the language of instruction in the lower primary school for both groups. From grade four on, English and Kiswahili replaced Mother Tongue as the primary language of instruction.

1.2.3   Translanguaging in the Tanzanian context

The United Republic of Tanzania has passed various Education Policy Reforms at the national level, intending to provide quality education. The present core feature of Tanzania's education system is the multilingual policy, which requires learners to learn two languages. According to Eleuthera (2015), an estimated 30 million rural Tanzanians speak Ethnic Community Languages (ECLs) at home and Kiswahili when communicating with people who speak other ECLs. The current Education and Training Policy (ETP) (2014) has adopted a multilingual policy where two languages (Kiswahili and English) are used as languages of instruction in schools (URT, 2014). Other African countries' research can be used to influence Tanzanian language policymakers on how to improve the situation by allowing learners, particularly in early childhood education, to learn or acquire literacy competence in their First Languages (L1) (Eleuthera, 2015). This is because language learning theory and practice show a strong relationship between literacy foundation and one's First Language during early childhood development. The first language (L1) and

Second Language (SL) are interdependent in the field of language teaching and learning in the sense that the successful acquisition of L1 facilitates the acquisition of SL depending on the Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP).

Tanzania, like many African countries, uses Kiswahili and English as languages of instruction in primary education. This implies that the transition from Kiswahili to English takes place in stages. The main issue is that, due to the existing policy of only allowing Kiswahili and English in primary schools, many learners who enrol in these schools become marginalized because they are not fluent enough to communicate and study in Kiswahili and English (Murasi, 2013).

Kiswahili and English were promoted as the main languages of instruction in the previous Education and Training Policy of 1995. Under that policy, English was taught as a primary subject. When it comes to using English in the teaching and learning process, a large number of Tanzanian teachers and students face significant challenges (Godfrey, 2014). According to Tutunjian (2014), low-proficiency learners benefit from first-language usage, whereas high-proficiency learners appear to prefer and benefit more from English-only classrooms. According to the study, translanguaging can be a useful language approach, but teachers must be aware of their learners' language levels and when to translanguaging.

The medium of instruction plays a critical role in transforming education and determining whether or not a learner understands the lesson being taught by the teacher (Qorroet al., 2010). If learners demonstrate a lack of proficiency in the language of teaching and learning, they will struggle to understand what they are

taught or read in that language. Similarly, if teachers lack the necessary levels of proficiency, they will be unable to carry out the teaching task effectively (Msuya, 2010). Therefore in standard one rural primary schools, learners are less proficient in the language of instruction (Kiswahili) and translanguaging plays an important role in reducing hinderances by enabling understanding.

Msuya (2010) warns that when the language of instruction is a foreign language to learners (as English is in Tanzania), learners bear the burden of learning the language while also using it to process the cognitive load of post-primary learning. He urges educators to devise a mechanism to streamline the learning process. Scholars advocate translanguaging as a strategy for simplifying teaching and learning in multilingual communities (Mlelwa, 2016 & Wei, 2018). Although scholars advocate this strategy, the Tanzania Education and Training Policy of 1995, which was recently revised in 2014, singles out English as the medium of instruction at post-primary and tertiary levels of education (URT, 1995; URT, 2014. Language is also taught as a subject from primary 3 to 7. Language policy studies point out that after independence in 1961, it was expected Tanzania to adopt a form of bilingual education. This meant that Kiswahili would be used as the medium of instruction in the school career alongside English, which could be applied as another language of the teaching and learning process. In fact, in 1967, Kiswahili was authorized as the national language and medium of instruction in primary school. The English language was announced as a co-official language and learned as a mandatory subject in primary schools. According to Gran (2007), the policies and practices concerning the medium of instruction in the Tanzanian education system are

confusing and contradictory. In terms of the language of instruction in Tanzanian schools, the Education and Training Policy URT(2014) states that the medium of instruction in primary education is Kiswahili, with English being taught as a compulsory subject at that level. The ETP also states that English is the medium of instruction at the post-secondary level, while Kiswahili and other foreign languages such as French, German, and Chinese are taught as subjects. It should also be noted that some primary schools, most of them privately owned; are English-medium and use Tanzania Education Institute (TIE) textbooks and syllabuses in teaching.

Efforts have been made to assist learners in learning more familiar languages. Blommaert (2010), for example, contends that a child's language is a resource that should not be restricted or suppressed by policies or physical barriers. Similarly, Childs (2016) observes that when a child's home language differs from the classroom language, there is often a disconnection. According to scholars Kamisch and Misyana (2011) & Tabaro (2013), it is difficult to find a classroom discourse in a single language. Translanguaging and other learning strategies should be considered. These strategies have been used successfully in the past (Delport, 2016; Tabaro, 2013; Malekela, 2004).

Many Tanzanian children, particularly those in rural areas, are exposed to Kiswahili for the first time when they enter primary school. As a result, Kiswahili becomes their Second Language (SL), which they are unable to master because they did not develop CALP in their First Languages (FLs). These difficulties arise against the backdrop of a paradigm shift in which the use of FLs as mediation tools currently dominates debates in global pedagogical practices. Translanguaging is one method of

incorporating First Language Instruction into the classroom. Translanguaging's role is to assist learners in conceptualizing and facilitating cognitive development (Mokgalakane, 2014). Translanguaging focuses on teaching and learning in a more familiar language. As a result, FL is regarded as an essential component of quality education, particularly in the early years of a child's education.

African countries like Tanzania must figure out the best ways to teach language and literacy, particularly in primary school, where a solid foundation is critical. Those who develop and use language and literacy curricula are expected to support their claims in the curriculum content with research-based evidence, whether the curriculum is home-grown or commercially prepared.

Several researchers (Mlelwa, 2016 & Wei, 2018) in language learning and teaching have recommended using learners' native language to foster proficiency in L2, as evidenced by the literature. However, there is a lack of research on how translanguaging strategies have been implemented in Tanzania, particularly for lower education levels. As a result, the purpose of this research is to uncover the actual practices of translanguaging in Tanzanian primary schools.

1.3   Statement of the problem

Tanzania has been at the forefront of promoting unity through the use of Kiswahili and international cohesion through the use of English. According to the Tanzania Education Policy (ETP) of 2014, Kiswahili is recognized as the national language and Language of Instruction (LoI) in primary education and English for some other primary schools. The policy, however, excludes Ethnic Community Languages

(ECLs) for use in the education system and official proceedings. Batibo (2012) points out that by excluding ECLs from use in education and offices, more than one million speakers of these languages are denied access to education. One can observe that the ETP ignores the role of learners' first languages other than Kiswahili and English in academic progress. This could pose a problem, especially when the school-age children do not speak Kiswahili or English, to begin with rather than their native languages – languages spoken at homes and villages by learners.

Therefore, it is evident that learners who might not have acquired Kiswahili as their first language will need a language that is more familiar to learners accompanying with Kiswahili at the start of their education life mostly in rural areas. The best medium for teaching such learners would be their first language. Educationally, one learns more quickly through a familiar language than through an unfamiliar language (UNESCO 1953; Fakeye, 2011). The learners' home languages; ECLs, should be seen and taken as resources in acquiring new scientific knowledge and not hindrances (Howe & Lisi, 2014; Krause& Prinsloo, 2016; Rogers, 2014; Wei, 2018). Translanguaging pedagogy moves away from monolingual teaching strategies toward a more integrated, less restricted use of learners' linguistic repertoire in the teaching and learning process (Henderson & Ingram, 2018).

The poor learning that results from the disparity between LoI and the child's FL is most visible in the early grades. The reason for the poor grades in early schooling is that the child, at that level, has not learned LoI sufficiently and that little are the chances for such children to excel using a foreign-like language in education. Studies also show that, where learning in the low grades is poor, the student does not catch

up in higher grades; rather, the child falls further and further behind as he or she passes from one academic level to another (Stanovich, 1986). In such contexts, a mismatch between the LoI and FL of the learners is often to blame. When 'reading' takes place in a language that the learner does not understand, comprehension is not part of the process.

Scholars (Cook, 2008; Ball, 2010; Madrian, 2014; Kioko, 2015; Trudell, 2016) document the advantages of bilingual or multilingual communities in education, the language policies in Tanzania do not allow languages other than Kiswahili and English as LoIs. Nonetheless, studies (Afzal, 2013; Silvani, 2014; Mtallo, 2015; Nyambura, 2015; Johanes, 2017) have reported using translanguaging practices in classrooms though unauthorised. In cases where teachers and learners belong to the same ethnic community language, translanguaging is more useful especially where there is inadequacy in L2 among the learners of lower classes of rural settings. Teachers who do not belong to the same ethnic community language as learners can easily adopt learners' L1 since it is frequently used in different life aspects in society since the teacher is part and parcel of the community. In addition, in classes of forty learners, there is a possibility of some learners being more competent in L2 than their fellows and hence can assist among themselves through translanguaging if there are no restrictions on translanguaging. Little, however, is said about how they are used and what users think about them. Therefore, this current study assumed an academic obligation on the exploration of practices and attitudes of translanguaging in standard one classrooms in rural areas.

1.4   Main objective

The main objective of the study was to explore the practice and attitudes of translanguaging in standard one primary school classrooms in Rungwe rural areas.

1.5   Specific objectives

   i.   To identify contexts in which translanguaging is practised in standard one primary school classrooms in rural areas

  ii.   To investigate causes of translanguaging practice in standard one primary school classrooms in rural areas.

 iii.   To assess teachers' attitudes on translanguaging practice in their teaching and learning process in standard one primary school classrooms in rural areas.

1.6   Research questions

   i.   Where and when is it appropriate to practice translanguaging in standard one primary school classrooms in rural areas?

  ii.   What are the causes of translanguaging practices in standard one primary school classrooms in rural areas?

 iii.   What are the teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging practice in their teaching and learning process in standard one primary school classrooms in rural areas?

1.7   Significance of the study

The purpose of this study was to explore the practice and attitudes of translanguaging in standard one classrooms in rural areas. The study's findings will help to review

eacher teachers' attitudes towards translanguaging practice in learners' first language in standard classrooms in rural areas

The study's findings will help to show the importance of translanguaging practice in standard one classrooms in rural areas. The study's findings will help the policymakers to revise the Tanzania education policy on language of instruction and how standard one learners' first language in rural areas can be incorporated with the language of instruction to enable effective teaching and learning processes during the transition period. The study's findings will provide policymakers and education planners with current information on how to use available language resources for effective teaching and learning in a multilingual context such as Tanzania.

The study also emphasizes the importance of strengthening Ethnic Community Languages by demonstrating their utility in contrast to current practices that restrict the use of native languages in public offices.

1.8   The organization of the thesis

This thesis is organized into five chapters. This chapter is introductory and introduces the study by presenting the background of the study, the statement of the problem, objectives, the significance of the study, and definitions of key terms. The second chapter presents the literature review, chapter three presents the research methodology, chapter four presents research findings and discussion, and chapter five presents a summary, conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

Chapter two explores a broad range of literature related to the practice and attitudes of translanguaging. It is assumed that translanguaging is in no way an isolated case that is found not only in the study area but also in other parts of the world and has some common attributes. It has been practised and practised in the past.

2.2   Definitions of key terms

2.2.1   Translanguaging

Williams coined the term "translanguaging" (1994). It is a relatively new phrase that is used in connection with code-switching. The phrase describes the capacity of multilingual speakers to switch between languages (Canagarajah, 2011). According to Park (2015), translanguaging is the capacity of multilingual speakers to switch between languages in a seamless way that helps speakers infer meanings, shape experiences, and obtain a better awareness and knowledge of the languages in use. Garcia and Kano (2014) defined translanguaging in education as a process where learners and teachers engage in complex discursive practices that incorporate all language practices of all learners in a classroom to generate a new language practice. The overarching purpose of translanguaging is to preserve the old ones, transmit appropriate knowledge, and give voice to new socio-political realities by interrogating linguistic inequality (Garcia & Kano, 2014:261)

2.2.2   Translanguaging Practice

Williams (1994, 1996) coined the Welsh term trawsieithu 'translanguaging' (henceforth, TL) to refer to a pedagogical practice that sustains the development of language skills through the concurrent use of two languages in classroom activities. TL is a planned and strategic educational practice in which teachers design learning activities with input and output in two different languages, for example, reading a lesson in one language (English) and discussing it in another (Welsh) (Baker, 2001). TL as a pedagogical practice has both cognitive and socio-cultural benefits: on the one hand, it maximizes understanding and develops skills in the "weaker language" by rebalancing the hierarchical ordering of languages within the classroom; on the other hand, it promotes intercultural understanding and cooperation.

2.2.3   Attitudes

Attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor (Haddock, & Maio, 2008). Based on this study, attitudes are the feelings people have about their language or the languages of others, (Crystal,1997). Thus, attitude toward language is a construct that explains specific linguistic behaviour. According to Allport (1935), attitude is a mental or neural state of readiness that is organized through experience and has a direct or dynamic influence on the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is associated (as cited in Baker, 1992). Attitude is a quick and easy way to explain consistent patterns of behaviour. It frequently succeeds in summarizing, explaining, and forecasting behaviour (Baker, 1992). It means that one's attitude toward something can be seen by the way he or she behaves. Attitude is the person's

actual feeling or way of thinking about something or someone based on their perception.

2.2.4 Learning

According to Wallace (2009), learning is the acquisition of a lasting change in a person's behaviour, knowledge, level of ability, or understanding. Learning is also the primary goal of education. According to Wallace (2009), learning happens through experiences rather than through development or ageing. Learning is defined by some academics (Hamer & Rassum, 2010) as the acquisition of knowledge that may be applied in practice or retained. In this study, the term "learning" is used to describe a process in which learners and teachers effectively interact to help learners comprehend a subject.

2.2.5 Teaching

Teaching is a series of external activities intended to support the learner's internal learning process (Sequeira, 2012). Setting appropriate learning goals for learners requires selecting and organizing activities or interactions that will provide the desired learning outcomes. It is a method of assisting and directing learners in achieving a deep understanding in which there is a welcoming environment among learners and where teachers and languages are used as resources in such a setting.

2.2.6 Language of Instructions (LoI)

Prah (2003) identifies the language of instruction as a language through which all skills and information are transferred to learners. It is the language that is utilized during the teaching and learning process by both teachers and students. The language

is found in pertinent government papers and/or educational policies. In some African nations where LoIs are the languages of foreign colonial masters, this language of instruction may be a foreign language. English is the language of instruction in Tanzania's higher education. Kenya's LoI is in English. The LoI had been French in Rwanda. Portuguese was widely used in Mozambique's educational system. Other nations have chosen one of their languages as the LoI. The primary language of instruction in Tanzania is Kiswahili. As a result, the language that will be used in education has undergone various adjustments depending on the nation. In this study, the language of instruction that is being explored is Kiswahili, which is the second language for most learners in rural regions and the first/native language or mother tongue for certain learners in urban areas. Additionally, Kiswahili is the national tongue.

2.2.7   First language versus mother tongue

The term "first language" describes the dialect that a youngster learns first. This language is naturally picked up from infancy. Literature refers to the First Language as a native language because it is learned from birth (Chomsky, 1957). The first language is sometimes referred to as the mother tongue or the primary language, according to Selinker and Gass (2008). Technically speaking, the mother tongue is the language of the parents, either one or both parents.

Children learn their mother tongue as their first language in certain places where it is the language of communication in households and outside the home, while in other places where it is not used outside the home, children may learn a more common language in Tanzania's example, Kiswahili. Some Tanzanian youngsters who are

raised in urban areas or far from their home countries learn Kiswahili as their mother tongue. Although they lack mother tongues, these kids speak Kiswahili as their first language. The definition developed for this study places a strong emphasis on the first language.

2.2.8 Second language

Any language acquired after acquiring a First Language is referred to as a Second Language. As an illustration, a large number of kids in the study areas speak Kinyakyusa as their first language and Kiswahili as a second language. Thus, the second language is one that adults or children learn after they have mastered their first language or their native tongue. Children are required to learn Kiswahili when they enrol in elementary school in places where it is not the Language of Wider Communication. In the same vein, children who had their vernaculars as their First Language and Kiswahili as their Second Language may have English as their Third Language. Second languages, whether they be the mother tongue or any other language not spoken at home, are all languages learned after a kid has mastered the first one, according to Selinker and Gass (2008). Therefore, all languages learnt after acquiring the first language can be referred to as second languages, regardless of whether they are learned first, second, third, or fourth on a continuum (Selinker & Gass, 2008).

2.3   Conceptualizing translanguaging

Canagarajah, (2011) & Park (2015) look at translanguaging as the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages naturally assisting speakers in inferring meanings, shaping experiences, and gaining a deeper understanding and

knowledge of languages in use. Snell (2017) believes translanguaging is not a model invented in the laboratory but rather is a strategy practised by multilingual writers and speakers in various contexts, drawing freely and flexibly on their language resources as needed. It is the freedom of a learner to use any language that is familiar to them to express their knowledge and skills.

Further, Creese et al. (2016) categorise translanguaging into four types; namely, inter-lingua translanguaging (dealing with more than one language), intra-lingual translanguaging (refers to more than one register), inter-semiotic translanguaging (a type of translanguaging across semiotic modes), and inter-discursive translanguaging (where the translanguaging mediates a discourse unknown to one or more conversational participants). The operating definition that will guide this study is that translanguaging is a practice that allows both teachers and learners to use any language they are familiar with regardless of policy restrictions.

Various research has documented the rationale of using translanguaging in the teaching and learning processes. For example, Mouton (2018) argues that language belongs to the speaker, not the nation; this implies that having a national language policy that restricts the use of some other languages may limit such an individual from benefiting from the learning process. As explained in Chapter One, the Tanzania Education and Training Policy states that Kiswahili is the national language and the medium of instruction in basic education. Although Kiswahili is a national language, it does not mean that all learners in the country speak Kiswahili with the same fluency across the ECLs. Children born in cities or towns where Kiswahili is the main language of wider communication grow more fluent in Kiswahili than

children in rural communities where Kiswahili is not widely spoken. In other words, children in rural communities need to use their native languages to access basic education when joining schools.

Furthermore, Nambisan (2014) and Wei (2017) point out that the tendency not to use native languages in education deprives learners of their culture and adversely affects the children emotionally when they join schools that use LoI which is not their native language. Nambisan (2014) and Wei (2017) maintain that translanguaging helps to maximise the learners' and teachers' linguistic resources in the process of problem-solving and knowledge construction. In addition, Snell (2017) contends that translanguaging plays a basic role in building and sustaining a rich literacy practice through schooling as learners are best assisted when permitted and motivated to use their native languages.

Literacy skills develop faster and deeper when learners use their pre-existing linguistic and cultural repertoire freely, learning through their prior knowledge rather than outside of it. It is further argued that translanguaging facilitates home-school links and cooperation. Learners receiving education in a second language have to process the content to gain a deeper understanding and place less strain on learning. These mental activities allow learners to discuss what has been learnt in the second language with caregivers at home in the mother tongue (Creese, Baynham &Trehan, 2016).

2.2.4 Early development of translanguaging

In the 1980s Welsh bilingual schooling was where translanguaging first emerged and later spread to the rest of the world (Lewis et al., 2012). Translanguaging was first described using the Welsh word "trawsieithu," which Cen Williams then translated into English. To facilitate good planning and systematic use of two languages for effective teaching and learning within the same session in the classroom, it was created as a deliberate cross-curricular method. Practitioners working in English as an Additional Language (EAL) situations in the UK first realized the pedagogical significance of the translanguaging method from its earlier development and implementation (Wei, 2018a: 32). They learned that other language education professionals and policymakers would find translanguaging useful. Unquestionably, current discussions of translanguaging are closely related to what Hall, (2020) refers to as "own-language use" in language classrooms for teaching and learning. This is a current reappraisal within English Language Teaching (ELT).

Theoretically, translanguaging is consistent with Cummins' (2001) theories, whose work has been influential among English as a Second Language (EAL) practitioners globally for many years. The increasing advantages of a change in language acquisition are emphasized by Cummins' concepts of "Common Underlying Proficiency" (CUP) and linguistic interdependence. Translanguaging is a term that academics working in multilingual classrooms have started to use to characterize oral multilingual interaction (e.g. Garcia, 2009; Blackledge& Creese, 2010) and the use of several languages in oral and written texts (Canagarajah, 2011; Garcia and Kano, 2014). According to Conteh (2018), research has focused more on understanding

interaction processes than on the value of translanguaging as teaching. Recent research, including that of Mertin (2018), shows the possibility of allowing for the inclusion of teachers' perspectives in translanguaging-related research and academic discussions. Two chapters in Mertin's book were written by teachers, one in Johannesburg (South Africa) and the other in Brussels.

These chapters provide several examples of translanguaging activities that took place in the classroom. Utilizing video clips in the learners' First Languages and collectively creating translations are two examples of these activities (Wei, 2018). Translanguaging implies what has usually been conceptualized in English Language teaching as a model of language that contests many ways, whether it is primarily seen as a type of interaction or as teaching. As in the concept of "translanguaging," language is viewed as a continuous "process" rather than a "thing," a "verb" rather than a "noun" (Dumrukcic, 2022). The focus shifts away from how many home languages a person may speak and toward how they use all of those languages to achieve their goals. Translanguaging "challenges the conventional concept of language constraints between... culturally and politically branded languages," according to Li (2018). Among other authors, Blackledge and Creese (2010) assert that the development of one's identity plays a key role in both teaching and learning. They contend that translanguaging creates chances for learners to connect their experiences outside of the classroom to those inside, frequently in ways that their teachers are unable to. The pedagogic significance of this can be substantial, as evidenced by the children or learners described by Conteh (2015), whose comprehension of talk about time was improved when they connected the English

vocabulary to words used in their native languages to describe measurements of material in their home languages.

Translanguaging is a topic that is debated and met with difficulties in research, legislation, and practice. Many academics question the need for such a concept given that the well-known ideas of translanguaging already provide a framework to help comprehension of multilingual language use. The limitations of this position have been mentioned by Blackledge et al. (2014). They claim that it creates false distinctions between those who are monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual. In a certain sense, even if we only speak and write one language, all humans are multilingual since we have access to a wide range of language-using tools. They suggest that ideas like translanguaging, which contradict conventional ideas about standard and target language with their indirect hierarchies of language, undermine the deficit ideologies underlying multilingualism in teaching and learning. Furthermore, they contend that translanguaging and other ideas answer important questions about social justice in language teaching and learning by illuminating how linguistic resources are distributed in our societies and how this distribution reproduces, negotiates, and challenges social inequality.

The difficulties in implementing translanguaging in English Language Teaching policy and practice stem from what Hall, (2020)) refers to as the "entrenched monolingualism" of these elements. In many language classrooms, Cummins's "two solitudes" (Cummins 2008) still hold: languages are reserved separately and learners' home languages are ignored. This is true despite rapid global increases in movement and mobility and the confirming growth of multilingualism in the international north.

National and standard languages continue to be emphasized in language policies, curricula, and evaluation procedures. Still, there is evidence of thought translation is encouraging. Researchers who identify this power and are committed to recognizing its significance in their classroom-based investigations, as well as teachers or instructors who recognize the importance of translanguaging in building and strengthening relationships with their learners that nurture mutual empowerment, collectively have the potential to develop translanguaging pedagogies in the coming years.

Translanguaging undermines the traditional isolation of native languages in language teaching and learning, although having differing epistemologies from the study of code-switching in learning and teaching. Teachers who support the teaching of other languages have used translanguaging, often known as switching back and forth between languages, all over the world. Several times teachers and learners have translanguaging although this practice has not received much attention in the literature on language instruction. However, this method is highly controversial when it is employed to instruct a small group of students who may be illiterate in the target language. Of course, the fear is that the other languages will contaminate the state or national language. Various scholars have yet to document how teachers frequently translanguaging to make meaning understandable to learners when teaching in a foreign or dominant language (Lin & Martin, 2005). The pedagogical validity of teacher translation in situations where students do not understand the lessons is expressed by Arthur and Martin (2006).

Although translanguaging is a common pragmatic practice, it is "seldom institutionally certified or pedagogically anchored," according to research (Creese and Blackledge, 2010). Butzkamm created the "concurrent technique" at the end of the 1980s, although it was never fully validated (Butzkamm, (1998) Butzkamm's method relies on encouraging teachers to strategically switch languages, albeit just inside sentences. Translanguaging in the teaching and learning process is beneficial because it could not only focus on supporting bilingualism in general but also on teaching, as an added language. This is true whether translanguaging is done logically by the teacher (facilitator) or as demonstrated in Jacobson's approach with pedagogical intent. The concept of translanguaging makes a very diverse contribution in this regard. It is an epistemologically different thought because it assumes that what multilingual do is switch from one language to another.

Based on Welsh origins, translanguaging or *trawsieithu* as was formerly invented in Welsh (Williams, 1994), referred to pedagogical practice in bilingual or multilingual education (teaching and learning) that intentionally transformed the language of input and the language of output. Until the time that Welsh scholars raised a voice of concern and questioned the long-held belief in language separation for language improvement, some linguists continued to view multilingualism or bilingual education as merely the addition of two or more separate languages. Equipped, however, with a strong bilingual or multilingual identity, the Welsh academicians understood that bilingualism or multilingualism was precisely an essential instrument in the teaching and learning process and the development of their integrated bilingualism or multilingualism, as well as in the cognitive involvement that was

necessary to be educated bilingually or multilingually Lewis *et.al*. (2012b) clarify that translanguaging is the process of using one language to support the other language to facilitate understanding as well as enhance the learner's activity in both languages.

Rajendram, (2019) a well-known researcher in bilingual (multilingual) education, observed how the practice of what he first translated from the Welsh trawsieithu as (translanguaging) aided teachers and students in creating meaning, gaining understanding, and knowledge. "To read and discuss a topic in one language and then write about it in another language means that the subject matter has to be processed and digested," he asserted. Rajendram, (2019) identified four critical educational benefits of translanguaging: stimulating an in-depth and complete understanding of the subject matter, assisting with the development of the weaker language, facilitating home-school relationships and collaboration, and assisting with the integration of fluent speakers with early learners.

A study conducted in Wales discovered that translanguaging was used as the sole or dominant approach in roughly one-third of the 100 lessons observed (Lewis, et al., 2013). Lewis et al. (2012) discovered pedagogically effective examples of translanguaging in Welsh classrooms, though it was mostly found in the latter years of primary school and the arts and humanities. According to the same Welsh researchers (Lewis, 2012:1), "Both languages are used in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner to organize and mediate mental processes in understanding, speaking, literacy, and, not least, learning."

Translanguaging is based on the monoglossic ideology that bilinguals or multilinguals have two or more separate linguistic systems, according to Auer (2005), Gumperz (1982), & Myers-Scotton (2005). According to translanguaging, bilingual or multilingual linguistic behaviour is always heteroglossia (Bakhtin, 1981; Bailey, 2007), always dynamic, responding not to two monolingualisms in one, but one integrated linguistic system. The reason translanguaging is a much more advantageous theory for bilingual or multilingual education than translanguaging is precisely that it adopts this heteroglossia and dynamic perception focused on the linguistic use of bilingual or multilingual speakers themselves, as opposed to starting from the perspective of the named languages (typically national or state languages). Many bilingual or multilingual educators and scholars have taken up translanguaging in the 21st century precisely because of its potential to build on the dynamic bilingualism of facilitators or learners (Garcia, 2009).

2.5   Major developments in translanguaging

Bilingual or multilingual programs have frequently motivated additive bilingualism or multilingualism for language majorities throughout history, where an additional second language was simply added separately to the first. For language minorities, however, schools or academic institutions have tended to pursue subtractive bilingualism or multilingualism, which involves removing the child's mother tongue (L1). However, due to the cultural renaissance and demands for civil rights made by minority groups in the latter half of the 20th century, bilingual or multilingual teaching and learning have emerged as a means of helping language minorities become bilingual or multilingual, particularly for those groups that had gone through

language change and loss as a result of monolingual teaching and learning (schooling).

Another sort of bilingualism or multilingualism emerged as a result of the door being opened by developmental bilingual or multilingual instruction and learning for everyone, one that sometimes did not respect the social-political borders that had been acknowledged among languages. According to Garcia (2009), this kind of multilingualism or bilingualism is considered dynamic and is supported by the concept of translanguaging. The concept of translanguaging was transformed at the end of the first decade of the twenty-first century by three publications that went beyond the Welsh context. One is Ofelia Garcia's 2009 book Bilingual Education in the 21st Century. Later, other research on translanguaging was published; among the first authors to contribute to the conversation and broaden the body of work on translanguaging were Canagarajah (2011a, 2011b), Wei, (2011), Hornberger& Link (2012). Lewis et al. (2012a, b) provided a response that improved upon Williams' original description by providing a Welsh viewpoint on the idea of translanguaging. Different academics have approached translanguaging in different ways from the start, and as the conversation goes on, the idea of translanguaging alters in numerous ways. In 2009, Garcia proposed translanguaging as an approach to bilingualism that is focused on the behaviours of bilinguals that are easily observable rather than on languages as has typically been the case. This idea was specifically concerned with bilingual education. With few exceptions in some monolingual regions, these behaviours, in which bilinguals combine linguistic elements that have previously been administratively or linguistically allocated to a single language or language

variant, characterize communities around the world. Garcia's (2009) progress defines translanguaging as "various discursive strategies that bilinguals engage in to make sense of their bilingual worlds" (emphasis in original).

Translanguaging in education is the process through which bilingual or multilingual learners perform bilingually or multilingually in the numerous multimodal ways of classrooms, according to Garcia. It goes beyond code-switching and translation. Garcia's 2009 edition, which is based on Makoni and Pennycook's renowned 2007 book, challenges the idea of language, which served as the foundation for every bilingual education initiative and starts to elaborate on the Welsh translanguaging concept.

In this vein, Garcia, Blackledge & Creese (2010) discuss flexible bilingualism or multilingualism as "having no clear boundaries, which puts the speaker at the centre of the interaction" (p. 109). Creese & Blackledge (2010) describe how teachers share ideas and promote "cross-linguistic transfer" using the learners' flexible bilingualism, and their translanguaging, in their ethnographic investigation of ethnic community primary institutions in the United Kingdom. In examining the translanguaging pedagogies used in primary schools, Creese & Blackledge (2010) state that both languages are used simultaneously to convey the message, and each language is used to transfer a different informational meaning, though it is in the bilingualism or multilingualism of the text that the entire message is carried, and It is the combination of both languages that preserve the activity moving forward. Creese & Blackledge (2010) observed the use of bilingual or multilingual label quests, repetition and translation across tongues, and simultaneous use of literacies to engage

learners and teachers, establish learners' identity positions, keep the pedagogic task moving, and negotiate meanings in the lower-level school classrooms they studied. The translanguaging pedagogical methodology of these primary schools, based on Creese and Blackledge, is used for both identity performance and language learning and teaching. Language is merely a shared resource with no clear nation, territory, or collective group boundaries.

Wei (2011) established the concept of a translanguaging space where the communication of multilingual individuals breaks down the artificial dichotomies between the macro and the micro, the societal and the individual, and the social and the psycho in studies of bilingualism and multilingualism.' Multilingual people can merge common areas that have previously been used independently in various contexts by creating a translanguaging environment. According to Wei (2011), translanguaging involves successfully moving between various linguistic systems, modalities, and structures as well as beyond them. According to him, the tendency toward translanguaging is transformational; it gives multilingual practitioners a shared space by combining different facets of their individual histories, experiences, environments, attitudes, beliefs, and ideologies, as well as their cognitive and physical capacities into a single, harmonious performance.

According to Wei, translanguaging entails both creativity, or defying linguistic conventions, and criticality, or using evidence to question, bring a problem, or express opinions (Wei, 2011). Canagarajah defined "code-mingling" as a "communicative device used for specific linguistic and philosophical purposes in which a multilingual presenter intentionally incorporates indigenous and educational

discourse as a form of resistance, re-appropriation, and/or transformation of academic discourse" (Michael-Luna &Canagarajah, 2007). In Canagarajah, code-meshing differs from code-switching in that it refers to a single incorporated structure in which communicative approaches and various symbol systems other than language are involved. Code-meshing strategies discovered by Michael-Luna & Canagarajah (2007) include selecting multilingual and multimodal texts and shaping oral and written code-meshing to encourage learner/pupil agency in language selection.

Canagarajah (2011) defined translanguaging as the ability of multilingual speakers to move between languages, treating the various languages in their repertoire as an integrated system. Canagarajah coined the term translingual practice to serve as an umbrella term for the various terms currently being used to reflect the variability of language practices, including polylingualism, metrolingualism, code meshing, and translanguaging. He observes that the term translingual refers to language connections in more forceful expressions. The semiotic resources in one's catalogue or culture interrelate very closely, become part of an incorporated resource, and improve each other. The languages network in transformative ways, creating novel denotations and grammar. Canagarajah prefers the term translingual practices because, in contrast to translanguaging, it emphasizes societal practices of mixing modes and sign systems as a creative inventiveness to the desires of the context and indigenous situations (Canagarajah, 2011b). However, Otheguy, Garcia & Reid (2010) emphasize that translanguaging is a linguistic concept that postures a mental grammar that is shaped, of course, through shared interaction and negotiation.

Hornberger's Continua of Biliteracy (2003) addressed the complex relationship between bilingual languages. According to Hornberger (2005), "bi/multilingual education is maximized when they are accepted and enabled to draw from across all their prevailing language abilities (in two languages), rather than being restricted and repressed from doing so by monolingual instructional assumptions and practices." Translanguaging, according to Hornberger &Link (2012), shapes Hornberger's continuum of biliteracy.

Translanguaging provides a technique for learners/pupils to draw on the different aspects of the Hornberger continua by eliminating the differences in the 'languages' of bilinguals. Academics working on translanguaging have gradually questioned the concept of language. According to Kuhn, & Neumann, (2020), there is consent among the authors who deal with translanguaging that the focus of interest is shifting from languages to speech and repertoire and that individual languages should not be seen unquestioningly as set categories.

Translanguaging in the United States (US) has been taken up by researchers to push back against the two solitudes that characterize dual language or bilingual programs. These programs are also known as two-way immersion (Cummins, 2007). The majority of dual language bilingual programs are assumed to be two-way, with equal numbers of language majority and language minority learners and facilitators. Despite their popularity in the popular imagination and among educationalists who believe this is the only way to develop bilingualism in the United States, there is debate about whether these programs benefit language-minority children (Valdés, 1997; Palmer et al., 2014). Researchers have begun to use the concept of

translanguaging to explain actual language practices in those classrooms as well as carve a space for different language practices to meaningfully teach language minoritized children.

Palmer and colleagues (2014) investigated the instruction of dual experienced bilingual teachers (instructors) in dual language classrooms and provided evidence of the teachers' and learners' translanguaging practices, as well as some translanguaging instructional approaches used by the teachers. Gort &Sembiante (2015) investigated how translanguaging pedagogies help young developing bilingual children in lower-level Spanish-English dual-language bilingual programs in their study. All of these researchers show how, despite the classroom's linguistic compartmentalization policy, teachers cross these artificial boundaries to ensure that children are bilingually educated.

Evidence of the growing desire for translanguaging to make structures and practices in dual language bilingual education classrooms more flexible can be seen in the Journal of International Multilingual Research, edited by Gort (2015). The idea of translanguaging has also helped to clarify language usage in transitional bilingual education programs. For instance, Sayer (2013) describes how Latino students and their bilingual teacher in a second-grade transitional bilingual education classroom in San Antonio, Texas, used elements of what is known as Spanish, English, and TexMex to intervene not only in educational content but also in the standard languages used in the classroom. Additionally, the study of bilingual practices in early childhood bilingual education has seen an increase in the application of a translanguaging theoretical framework. Schwartz & Asli (2014) describe how the

students and teachers used translanguaging in an Arabic-Hebrew bilingual kindergarten in Israel. In what is reportedly a dual-language multilingual classroom, Garrity et al. (2015) have demonstrated how children between the ages of 6 and 15 months engage in "simultaneous translanguaging practice" by using Spanish, English, and Baby Sign Language. Cenoz &Gorter (2015) did a study on how translanguaging pedagogy could promote the learners' trilingualism in the Basque Country, where Basque, Spanish, and English schooling is increasingly common.

Each day, students in a school that follows Sistema Amara Berri's progressive orientation visit three distinct classrooms to study one of the three languages. Each classroom has four tasks and four collaborative groups that work on those projects. As they work in various language classes, Cenoz and Gorter's study group has created translanguaging instructional materials to be utilized with two of the four groups. For instance, the experimental translanguaging material for the Basque classroom allowed students to compare specific structures, terminology, or conversation in Basque to those in Spanish or English. When translanguaging exercises were presented, the group rated the learning progress of each language. To include the child's entire and distinctive language repertoire in teaching and learning, Cenoz & Gorter (2015) concluded that there was a need to support a translanguaging methodology.

Although researchers describe translanguaging in bilingual and multilingual programs, it is difficult for teachers trained in monoglossic language philosophies to accept translanguaging. Martnez et al. (2014) investigated how teachers in two Spanish-English bilingual lower-level classrooms used their entire language

repertoire while expressing linguistic purism ideologies that insisted on language separation and expressing concerns about minoritized languages.

It is crucial to develop translanguaging pedagogical approaches because even bilingual teachers or facilitators suffer from monoglossic philosophies on language and bilingual teaching and learning. The CUNY-NYSIEB project created numeral pedagogical resources, which are available on the project's website under the Publication tab (www.cuny-nysieb.org). Garcia, Ibarra-Johnson, and Seltzer (forthcoming) provide advice on translanguaging curricular design, pedagogy, and assessment.

López, Guzman-Orth & Turkan (2017) developed a method for assessing bilingual learners' knowledge of subject matter content through translanguaging. Learners can use a computer-based platform (CBT) to see or hear an element in both English and Spanish and then write or say responses using their entire language repertoire. Learners are asked to choose a virtual friend or assistant to help them translanguaging and encourage student-to-student communication. By encouraging student-to-student interactions and encouraging what López and his colleagues refer to as bilingual independence; the translanguaging multimodal valuation creates a space for translanguaging. Translanguaging has made its mark in bilingual teaching and learning scholarship, though its entry was not without controversy.

2.6 Effects of translanguaging on teaching and learning

2.6.1 Language policy

The national language policy in teaching and learning institutions emphasized the practice of both Kiswahili and English (URT, 2014). English is a Language of Instruction (LoI) in secondary schools and Higher Learning Institutions (HLIs). In both cases, Kiswahili is taught as a subject only. In many secondary schools, however, students communicate using English in classrooms while outside classrooms they prefer using Kiswahili. The same trend is observed in HLIs where English is LoI and Kiswahili is a subject. It then appears that English is the language of schooling and cannot be used elsewhere. Although English is the medium of instruction in secondary schools and HLIs, instructors occasionally substitute it with Kiswahili in actual teaching and learning processes.

Apart from that, Eleuthera (2015) points out that the Kiswahili language policy in Tanzania was instituted during the German colonial period in the late 19th Century. The choice of Kiswahili over German or other Ethnic Community Languages was strategic to ensure an effective indirect rule system via local chiefs. According to Roy-Campbell (2001), the government schools aimed to prepare local people for employment in the colonial bureaucracy. This elevation of Swahili as LoI in German colonial education led to the spread of Kiswahili as a lingua franca hinterland Roy-Campbell, (2006).

2.6.2 Teaching strategies

Many issues arise for second language learners, some of which result in errors. Studies on translanguaging demonstrate that second language acquisition is challenging for students (Makira, Kimemia, & Ondigi, (2018; Mapunda 2022). According to May (2014), many linguistic errors in L2 speech are related to structural discrepancies between L1 and L2. Therefore, to ascertain the challenges students confront, the teacher needs to assess both the student's L2 and L1. Second language learners may be able to overcome the challenges with the correct methods (Theo, 1984)

Then & Ting (2009) conducted a pilot study in Malaysia on teacher translanguaging in secondary science and English. Beyond endorsing Gompers' discourse functions of translanguaging, their conclusions also acknowledged the co-occurrence of reiteration and message experiences as advantageous ways to enhance instructors' explanations of referential content for the benefit of the students. They went on to say that translanguaging is a crucial tool for instructors to use when their message needs to be made more intelligible for students whose fluency in LoI is low.

Then (2009) claims that in three Kuching City public secondary schools, the teachers used translanguaging to address conflicts or quiet in university classrooms. To draw attention and help students understand and develop their vocabulary knowledge, teachers replaced foreign languages with their tongues.

Professors who were questioned by Promnath (2016) suggested that translanguaging should not be done word-by-word but instead should be done inter- or intra-

sententially. Both teachers agreed that switching to Thai was necessary for the emphasis of some key messages or difficult material for the learners to understand because they suggested that translanguaging word by word takes time. They continued by saying that switching to make deductions for each lesson can aid students in remembering what they have just learned and help them comprehend what they missed.

Translanguaging is appropriate for class organization and socialization, according to a teacher who was interviewed during this inquiry. She claimed that only sometimes using English failed to capture the students' attention, but when the instructor used Thai, they showed signs of being more attentive.

Teachers displayed positive opinions toward translanguaging. They believed that minor translanguaging was acceptable as long as it did not hinder the crucial learning processes (Rajendram, (2021).

2.7 Studies regarding translanguaging in classrooms

Greggio & Gil (2007) conducted an in-depth study to investigate the use of translanguaging in interactions between instructors or teachers and learners in two dual English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms: one for beginners and another for pre-intermediate learners. The study sought to determine whether instructors/teachers and students used translanguaging in EFL classrooms, the types of translanguaging used, when translanguaging was common, and the purposes of any translanguaging used. Greggio and Gil's investigation gathered data through classroom observations, informal conversations with participants, field notes, and

audio recordings. The findings revealed that all learners and teachers used translanguaging, even if it was minimal at times (perhaps using the L1 (weaker language) to L2 (strong language) for a word or sentence and more prevalent at others) (for example, if the teacher returned to the L1 to explain extended directions for an activity).

A small-scale study on code-switching between Chinese and English in Chinese English classrooms was carried out by Qian, Tian, & Wang (2009). Tag-switching, inter-sentential switching and intra-sentential switching were the three categories into which code-switching was divided by researchers. The process of introducing words or phrases from one language into a sentence written in another is known as tag switching, often referred to as symbolic switching or extra-sentential switching. The act of switching languages at the end of a sentence is known as inter-sentential switching (for example, injecting an English sentence into a discussion that is otherwise in Chinese). Intra-sentential code-switching, or changing the language within a phrase, is the third type of code-switching. This type is more syntactically challenging and typically necessitates fluency in or a high level of proficiency in both languages from the speaker or teacher. The researchers wanted to find out more about the different kinds of code-switching used by teachers in primary English classes, whether or not there is a difference in the number of teachers or instructors code-switching as the learners' proficiency levels increase, and the function that code-switching serves in classroom interaction. There were two young female instructors or teachers who led courses for between 30 and 40 students. The lectures were videotaped and then typed down in Microsoft Word using the word count

feature to help track the percentage of each lecture that was delivered in each language. The investigators coded the switched components after deciphering the significance of each instance of code-switching inside the lecture. Results for the first study question showed that intersentential switching occurred more frequently than other types of code-switching (82% of instances). In response to the second research question, the amount of code-switching decreased as student aptitude levels increased. There was a lot of code-switching throughout the first year (up to somewhat more than 40% in a class period). However, over the last two years, the learners' L1 application had decreased significantly, suggesting that L2 usage had improved. Regarding the third research question, teachers or instructors used code-switching for social purposes like establishing authority as well as for translation, clarification, highlighting, and efficiency. Teachers or instructors also practised code-switching for praise (returning to the L1 so that the students or learners will understand that they are receiving positive feedback). This study provided insight into how teachers or instructors may employ code-switching in the classroom as well as specific circumstances where teachers or instructors may feel the need to assure knowledge by using the L1.

Translanguaging, as defined by the researchers, is mastery of more than one language, rather than a deficit in which the teacher or instructor cannot think of the correct expression in the target language. Furthermore, researchers addressed the issue of L2 exclusivity, or whether teachers or instructors should allow the L1 to be used in the classroom or limit interaction to the target language; they cited Phillipson

and Canagarajah's arguments and took the position that the L2 develops alongside the L1, rather than separately, making it a valuable tool in the classroom.

The method used in the study was to develop standard proficiency tests and then administer the vocabulary pretest. A week later, the instructional management would begin and last for six weeks. The delayed post-test was given two weeks after the teaching ended. The instruction was delivered by an experienced bilingual or multilingual instructor as a supplement to the learners' systematic coursework. It was an hour and a half per week and focused on listening comprehension activities. The novel vocabulary presented was based on whether learners demanded it or not. Concerning research question 1, the study's findings revealed that, while the two instruction groups made significant gains, they were not sustained by the delayed test. Despite a significant increase from the pretest to the post-test, the effects decreased before the delayed post-test. Regarding research question 2, both groups improved their vocabulary knowledge between the pre-test and post-test, but the effect did not carry over to the delayed post-test. Concerning research question 3, the findings revealed that learners who received some L1 (translanguaging) input benefited more than those who received only target language input. According to the findings, L1 practice, such as translanguaging, should be encouraged.

There are several reasons why teachers decide to employ translanguaging in the classroom and discuss how it benefits students, according to recent studies on the subject. After introducing new material in the target language, teachers use translanguaging to the L1 to make sure the students understand what is being discussed (Alasmari, et al. 2022). This is one reason why teachers choose to use

translanguaging. Before going on to another section of the topic, this makes sure that students are grasping the material and tries to prevent any misunderstandings. According to the author, this could provide students with some advantages, including preventing them from falling behind in class and preventing the "lost" feeling that certain students may experience when they are overloaded with information (Ahmad, 2009). Greggio & Gil (2007), as well as McMillan & Rivers (2007), support the use of L1 in classrooms for clarity when providing feedback and instructions (2011). Allowing learners to use a language with which they are familiar provides the teacher with a broader range of registers or vocabulary during feedback, resulting in more conductive input for learners. McMillan & Rivers (2011) also stated that allowing learners to use their native languages allows them to engage in peer review, which would be significantly limited and ineffective if language learners were required to use the L2 when providing feedback. The use of the L1 in this effect is also useful when giving instructions for activities (Khojan & Ambele, 2022; Greggio & Gil, 2007); it ensures that learners have a better chance of staying on task if the instructions are more clearly understood. Although several reasons for L1 use are related to the learners' acquisition or understanding of language, L1 use can also provide other benefits.

2.8   Existing pedagogical approaches toward language learning

Language teaching presently faces numerous drawbacks in the teaching of bilinguals and multilinguals. One of the principal problems is the practice of the monolingual talker of Kiswahili or English as the model of aptitude, something that language learners should strive to meet. This expectation of bilingual and multilingual learners

to acquire monolingual ability is denoted as "monolingual bias." These transmissions into colleges; Cenoz & Gorter (2013) enlightened that Kiswahili or English instructors are often obligatory to practice merely English and escape any other references to fundamentals of any other tongues.

Numerous linguists have cited negatives and matters that stem from this perspective, such as the moral and rationality matters revealed by Ortega (2014). The leading virtuous concern that she mentioned is the subordination of the linguistic students' intrinsic language to Kiswahili or English. Cenoz and Gorter asserted that multilingual/ bilingual pupils ought not to be considered imitation monolinguals, as their linguistic capability is exceptional, not poor (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011). This classification of their language competence as inferior diminishes the pupils' values and can have destructive sound effects on the pupils themselves, adding to the character that they practice for themselves as bilingual or multilingual learners (Ortega, 2014). The validity matter worries valuation; bilingual and multilingual pupils are being evaluated by uniform assessments that were created for monolingual pupils. This causes concern with legitimacy since the tool was created for one purpose (assessing monolingual pupils' ability in Kiswahili or English and other content zones) and is being applied for an additional purpose (evaluating similar concepts but in a dissimilar set of members).

There are adverse sound effects of obliging Kiswahili or English on pupils, such as the loss of enthusiasm, dropped ability, and emotional encounters, among various other hindrances. One example that illustrates the negative aspects of the Kiswahili-only or English-only guidelines is the investigation piloted by Adamson & Adamson-

Fujimoto (2012); the writers collected facts over questionnaires from 240 pupils, as well as audio recordings of talks between learner volunteers and teachers, between learners, and amid a student and teacher (in the situation of a consultative meeting) at a linguistic resource centre at a Japanese university. The centre delivered space and resources for apprentices to grow their English ability and concisely executed an English-only rule over a zone in their institution.

The investigators established that pupils with a lesser aptitude and lower stimulus stopped applying the centre as regularly, which then showed that the centre was not accomplishing its objective to serve as a foundation of support to pupils who are learning other tongues by providing content and any guidance that they could want in their educations (Adamson & Fujimoto-Adamson, 2012). This damage to the lower-proficiency and lower-motivation pupils demonstrates an opinion made by Martin (2005), who claimed that the classroom (or an education setting of the additional sort) must be a safe zone for learners to exercise language minus jeopardizing humiliation. Reasonably, this would involve the practice of the native language, as learners may sense more self-confidence speaking their enquiries in a language in which they are skilled (García & Wei, 2013). When their native language is disqualified, some learners develop a disinclined to communicate or drop enthusiasm; this can lead to a reduction in the learner's involvement, which is an essential part of language knowledge (May, 2014). Once the regulation in the linguistic centre from Adamson and Adamson-Fujimoto's investigation was cancelled, both learners and staff articulated relief; the learners were reassured since they did not need to struggle and avoid their native language any longer, and the staff

members were relieved because they were uncomfortable enforcing the restrictive policy on learners. By insisting that English language learners purpose and communicate as English-speaking monolinguals do, teachers can destructively influence learners' inspiration to obtain that target language. These undesirable effects stem from a shortage of practice or gratitude for the learners' intrinsic linguistics, which is something that can be contested through the practice of translanguaging.

These undesirable sound effects are not restricted to monolingual methods; some forms of multilingual teaching also pose challenges to language apprentices, as they endeavour to preserve the languages distinct in the scholastic setting. The foundation behind the separation is to support the learner's better comprehension and absorb the target language (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Some educationalists have believed that the practice of dual languages instantaneously would overpower and complicate the language learner. Creese and Blackledge institute that there is still an undesirable view towards practising both languages together in the classroom and the exercise is lowered in various schools. They mentioned a study that established that trainers who unintentionally or irregularly blunder into the other language feel a certain sense of guilt as if they are hampering their learners' learning or grudging them of exposure to the target language (Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

Creese &Blackledge (2010) likewise presented the "dual solitudes" model originally denoted by Cummins (2008) in describing the separation of the first language (L1) and (L2) in various language-learning surroundings. The writers present a term created by Heller (1999, as quoted in Creese & Blackledge, 2010) named "similar

monolingualism," which is a notion that preserves that every language is distinct and offers that each is applied for particular purposes. The writers, though, pointed out numerous emotional consequences of this determination to preserve the languages distinct. For example, multilingual or bilinguals who unintentionally change mid or mixed tongues may feel uncomfortable or embarrassed about their translanguaging, which can in turn influence their uniqueness, which develops possibly more significantly in additional language attainment. The writers mentioned Cummins, who was named for bilingual or multilingual instructional strategies that allow for cross-language transfer and presented numerous significant terms that have ever since been practised by other investigators in the field.

Creese & Blackledge (2010) presented four interconnected case studies from the United Kingdom, each with dual investigators working in two complementary schools for a total of four dissimilar complementary schools: Gujarati, Turkish, Cantonese and Mandarin, and Bengali. They interviewed and recorded members and identified two key participants in each school to investigate. The instruction in these communities used a translanguaging method, with teachers/supervisors and students switching between English and the heritage language. The findings revealed that the limitations between the dual languages used (school language and English) were permeable, and the learners appeared to be able to navigate between the dual languages. The teaching seemed to emphasize rather than convict the connection in languages, and as a result, the learners used whatever language abilities they had to communicate with others in the community. There were also instances in the study where it was necessary to cross languages and draw on all of the phonological

resources available to the students. The authors argued that this is a significant attitude to include and that the pedagogy of these schools or institutions supported a program that went beyond the extravagant use of bilingual or multilingual resources, which Cummins acknowledged.

Translanguaging provides numerous benefits that the disconnected or English-only model cannot provide, such as the ability to capitalize on the language learners' resources; however, there is a lack of research on how translanguaging is implemented in lower classrooms in rural settings especially in Tanzania, and what attitudes teachers or instructors have regarding whether they allow learners to practice both of their languages in class. This study sought to address this by surveying not only teachers' practice of translanguaging in the classroom but also their attitudes toward it; there may be an inconsistency between teachers' practice of translanguaging in the classroom and their attitudes toward it. The disclosure of this practice disparity may indicate that teacher education wishes to better discourse on the use of translanguaging and how to contrive such a practice.

2.9   The contexts in which translanguaging is practised

Khojan, & Ambele, (2022) conducted a pilot study in Malaysia to find out more about how instructors or teachers use translanguaging in their English classes. With the help of a questionnaire given to 299 students, the author set out to learn more about how students felt about their teachers' translanguaging, how it related to their emotional support, how well they learned the language, and whether translanguaging might be used in the future to teach and learn English. The questionnaire asked about a range of circumstances in which the students thought translanguaging could be

helpful, including the development of emotional support in their teaching and learning, learning success as a result of its use in the classroom, and potential future applications of translanguaging. About 75% of participants said that translanguaging was frequently used in the classroom to test students' comprehension, while another 73% said that it was used to explain unfamiliar terms or concepts. Just fewer than 70% of participants used translanguaging to build engagement with learners while an equal proportion of learners showed that it was utilized to clarify the grammatical rules of the target language. This suggests that translanguaging has a wide range of educational uses. 71% of participants agreed that the use of translanguaging by their teachers or instructors improved their understanding of more difficult concepts covered in class, and 72% of participants said that translanguaging improved their comprehension of fresh terminology. The majority of students had favourable views on translanguaging and thought that it should be used in schools going forward. This supported the assertion made by the author that translanguaging helps to improve the management and flow of the classroom by enabling teachers or instructors to use the best linguistic resources currently available to them or their students to clarify processes, and material, or to communicate with the learners generally. Additionally, it supports the researcher's assertion that translanguaging is a successful instructional strategy for instructors or teachers with limited English competence.

Ali Tubayqi & Ahmed Al Tale, (2022) conducted a study in Saudi Arabia and found that the beginner group used translanguaging in four distinct situations: defining grammar, giving instructions, supervising or assisting learners, and correcting learners during an activity (learning process). The findings revealed that the

instructor switched from the L2 to the L1 in response to the need to define words, expressions, structures, or rules to ensure that the students understood her clearly. Students used translanguaging when requesting assistance and in similar situations. Translanguaging was used sparingly in the pre-intermediate group teacher's classes; he mostly used it to explain grammar when lecturing and to criticize students' work. The learners in that group used translanguaging to communicate and contribute in the classroom, as well as to clarify their understanding of the topics being discussed. Although the groups used translanguaging in different ways, some of their objectives were similar. Both sets of learners employed translanguaging to fill language gaps, maintain conversation flow, interpret or clarify vocabulary, ask about grammar rules, and clarify their comprehension of grammar rules or structures. In summary, the inquiry gave insights into the numerous ways that teachers and dual-language students use translanguaging in the context of English as a Foreign Language. The scholars argued in their conclusion that professionals in the teaching and acquisition of foreign or second languages ought to be receptive to fresh perspectives.

Tian & Macaro (2012) used a pre-test/post-test experimental approach to investigate the impact of teachers' or instructors' translanguaging practice on the L2 vocabulary acquired during listening comprehension exercises at Chinese universities. The study looks at whether a lexical focus on form is beneficial during a focus on meaning activity, whether teachers' use of translanguaging improves the ease with which students learn accessible vocabulary, and whether students with lower proficiency levels benefit more than those with higher proficiency levels. The researchers claim that when it comes to focusing on form, incidental learning takes place when a

learner is partially—but not entirely—focused on the material being given as opposed to the form through which it is being transmitted. When it comes to purposeful learning, form-meaning linkages and linguistic characteristics are the main focus.

McMillan & Rivers (2011) polled 29 participants to ascertain their views on the function of the native language in the EFL classroom. The researchers asserted that many instructors and teachers continue to favour an English-only policy in their classrooms, despite recent publications endorsing the responsible use of the L1 in the classroom. In Japan, where the survey was conducted, excessive use of the L1 is seen as counterproductive to the development of English proficiency for several reasons, such as the English teachers' lack of proficiency in the L1 of the learners or the focus on getting students ready for college entrance exams. The researchers argued that the learners' L1 could be used in the classroom by presenting literature that supported its use.

This Japanese study employed the survey method and asked six open-ended questions about various teaching-related topics. The survey was anonymous to promote sincere responses. Additionally, instructors were asked to rate their level of Japanese proficiency on a four-point scale and to state how long they had been teaching in Japan. The authors reasoned that if their proficiency was low, some of the instructors who were hesitant to incorporate the L1 might not know how to do so, so that section of the questionnaire allowed for data collection to conclude that subject. However, the responses refuted the authors' hypothesis; interestingly, teachers who favoured L1 use in the classroom had lower self-reported proficiency scores in

Japanese, whereas teachers who opposed it had higher self-reported proficiency scores.

Other study findings shed light on the teachers' arguments for and against using their L1. Twenty teachers provided arguments in favour of using the L1 of the instructor in the classroom, along with the belief that the L1 can help the instructor build rapport with learners, aid learners in vocabulary learning, allow for translation and comparison exercises, and promote bilingualism or multilingualism. Nineteen teachers presented 24 arguments for student L1 use, including the ability to facilitate interaction between learners, allow for peer review or assistance, provide clarification during portions of the lesson, aid in needs analysis, and allow learners to build rapport with one another. Thirteen teachers spoke out against using L1 in the classroom. These teachers observed that students needed more English exposure, which could only be provided if English was prioritized over L1. They also contended that teachers should adhere to the university's English-only policies and that prohibiting L1 use would encourage students to use the target language more frequently.

There are some reasons why teachers decide to employ translanguaging in the classroom and discuss how it benefits students, according to recent studies on the subject. After introducing new material in the target language, teachers use translanguaging to the L1 to make sure the students understand what is being discussed (Alasmari, Qasem, Ahmed, & Alrayes 2022). This is one reason why teachers choose to use translanguaging. Translanguaging is also used by teachers to explain complex concepts, vocabulary, and grammatical features or structures

(Ahmad, 2009; Greggio & Gil, 2007; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Tian &Macaro, 2012). When teaching new vocabulary terms, instructors should code-switch into the L1 and use simpler definitions for the learners to understand; this helps the learners grasp the meanings and allows them to better understand what they are learning (Ahmad, 2009). When it comes to grammatical features and structures, using the L1 can help in a variety of ways. Learners must understand the grammar of the target language, and explaining it in the L1 can provide the best chance of comprehension for language learners. Furthermore, discussing and explaining grammar frequently involves a lot of metalanguage (for example, parts of speech and punctuation terms); using the target language to explain these terms may cause some learners to be confused, so using the L1 can be beneficial to the learners.

Cook (2001), an outspoken supporter of encouraging appropriate L1 use in the classroom, contended that translanguaging is a natural practice that allows students to make connections between their L1 and L2. Learners in Ahmad's (2009) study stated that their instructor's use of translanguaging to their L1 was beneficial to them as they attempted to understand more difficult grammatical concepts. When it comes to vocabulary and grammatical features, it is beneficial for students to use the linguistic resources that they have at their disposal. Their L1 vocabulary and grammar structures can be useful building blocks for acquiring these features in the target language.

Qian, Tian, & Wang (2009) discovered that when teachers praise students through translanguaging into the learners' first language, this benefits their identities and encourages students to face the challenge of learning a new language. By switching

to the L1, teachers can ensure that students understand the praise directed at them, which can boost the morale of their classmates. Participants told McMillan &Rivers (2011) that using L1 in the classroom helps the teacher build rapport with the students, creating a positive learning environment conducive to the student's language acquisition. Overall, the authors provided clear, descriptive reasons for teachers to use translanguaging in language-learning classrooms, demonstrating that this strategy goes beyond simply teaching the material to also involving and encouraging the learners. Although there are arguments in favour of using L1 in the classroom, there are also arguments against it. McMillan and Rivers provided a comprehensive view of several key reasons why teachers choose not to use the L1 when teaching English, the majority of which revolve around the idea that time spent speaking the L1 should instead be spent speaking and practising the target language. While it is important to use valuable class time to practice English, it is also important to consider the benefits of translanguaging in the classroom that have already been mentioned.

Teachers find themselves in difficult situations when they discover that their students are unable to comprehend and are forced to use translanguaging to support curriculum access, classroom discourse management, and interpersonal relationships (Ferguson, 2003). Translanguaging also helps students develop strong mathematical vocabulary in both languages, which is one of the pillars of encouraging multilingualism (Kenyon, 2016).

According to Awor (2019), individuals who do not know the language of instruction have fewer opportunities to comprehend what is being taught, comprehend enrolment

procedures, and interact with school administration. These students receive lower-quality education in schools because they struggle to comprehend what is being taught. This results in unfair opportunities. Furthermore, translanguaging facilitates grammar and vocabulary teaching and learning (Lin 2013). According to a study conducted by Kumar and Narendra, grammar instruction contains the greatest amount of translanguaging. Teachers are capable of drawing on children's L1 grammatical knowledge while translanguaging, which agrees with L2 grammar knowledge. According to Lin (2013), translanguaging appears to increase the number of cognitive processing vocabularies when teaching and learning. Lin concluded by demonstrating that translanguaging has no negative impact on vocabulary learning.

Learners are expected to benefit from the transfer of literacy skills advocated by Cummins (2005), as well as the educational benefits of translanguaging as defined by Park (2013). As a result, the currently marginalized learners, who constitute the majority, are more likely to be endowed and benefit more from learning.

Researchers have identified some factors that promote academic success in children. Peer relationships, motivation, and well-trained teachers have been identified as such factors. These, according to Byrnes & Wasik (2009), are Domestic variables (e.g., parent income, parenting style, parent involvement); learner characteristics such as motivation, intelligence, gender, and ethnicity; and school (institutional) variables such as curriculum and instructional practices are examples of factors. Investigators also discovered that students achieve higher levels of success if their parents or guardians are highly educated, the students are highly motivated to study course material, and teachers cover the material from achievement tests.

2.10 Impact of translanguaging practice in classrooms on learners

According to Ghana's most recent National Education Assessment (NEA), primary school students performed poorly in both mathematics and English (the language of instruction at the upper primary level), with only 37% achieving the appropriate proficiency levels for their level of education. Mathematics performance was even lower than English performance because low literacy skills prevent students from fully understanding the questions (Elizabeth et al., 2017).

The results of this assessment were confirmed by the country's 2013 and 2015 National Early Grade Reading and Mathematics Assessments (NEGRA and EGMA), which revealed that the majority of children (learners) in their second year of primary school lacked the basic skills required to succeed at the upper primary levels. These evaluations produced significantly worse results in rural and economically disadvantaged areas of the country (Alidou et al., 2006).

The study also revealed that roughly half of the class two students in public primary schools were unable to read. Private school reading levels were slightly higher, at 63%. The level of arithmetic was 27.7% for learners' ability to do a 2-digit subtraction in the third level of primary school, and 26% for their ability to do simple division problems in Grade 5. While the role of the medium of instruction (MoI) in low primary school was still relatively unexplored in India, unsatisfactory learning outcomes could be attributed to the fact that, in most cases, the highly multilingual nature of most Indian states meant that the school language did not match with the L1 of many children (Alidou).

One of the dual learners that Reyes studied, Humberto, refused to speak English during his first three years of school; instead, he stuck to his Spanish but learned English. Humberto engaged in class but spoke in Spanish when giving responses or justifications. Although he had developed good letter-sound communication and was able to construct multisyllabic syllables in Spanish, he remained silent about English. When tested on his knowledge of science-related material, Humberto was once again able to narrate facts with precision in Spanish rather than English. This demonstrated that despite his refusal to speak, he was gaining knowledge of the subject and a propensity for achievement. Reyes used this account and the other learners to argue that their transliteracy and translanguaging during the earlier years of their education helped them become more bilingual and bi-literate to the point where they could carry out parallel tasks in either language. According to the author, respecting the original language and culture and using them as teaching and learning aids was essential for the learners' advancement and success.

Another perspective holds that translanguaging is a strategy employed by mediocre language users to make up for language deficiencies. Teachers translanguaging because they lack sufficient vocabulary in a particular language. This viewpoint, according to some researchers like Lin (1996), is not justifiable given the prevalence of translanguaging among bilingual or multilingual speakers. According to Lin (1996), such a viewpoint communicates only a little bit more than the speaker's or writer's normative assertions regarding what constitutes acceptable or standard language.

2.11   The hindrances of the translanguaging practice

According to Garcia &Wei (2014), protecting weak languages has a place in prevailing domains even though it is crucial to align them with the majority (strong) languages. It is important to reserve a space in which the minority (weak) language does not compete with the majority (strong) language, rather than a fixed or stagnant position. The majority of parents (guardians), according to Strauss (2016), who choose to have their children receive an education in English instead of in an African language, should be cautioned. However, translanguaging is not useful for all learners who do not find it to be beneficial, according to Madiba (2012) & Jaspers (2018).

Furthermore, according to Omidire (2019a), the constraints of translanguaging practices include instructors or teachers not having adequate teaching to deal with the second language (L2) education, nor being able to modify the curriculum to support their teaching and learning due to time constraints, particularly in large classrooms (Khong &Saito 2013). Teachers or instructors find it difficult to contain support strategies for their students because many schools that encourage students' education lack adequate resources (Balfour et al. 2008). The teachers' proficiency in the learners' L1 has been an additional challenge with translanguaging practice in the classroom. According to McMillan & Rivers (2011), teachers or instructors with less proficiency in the learners' L1 may not allow learners to translanguaging in the classroom. As a result, lower proficiency in the learners' L1 is a problem for teachers (instructors) rather than learners.

The diverse groups of L1s, particularly in the African context, are an additional issue that various practitioners of English as a Second Language have identified (L2). Though it may appear problematic, denying learners and their respective families diverse language resources can limit learners' academic attainment (Hornberger & Link, 2012). Hornberger & Link (2012) proposed the biliteracy continuum as an educational aid; the researchers stated that the lens reminds educators (teachers) of their students' diverse backgrounds and the strategic importance of considering all dimensions and resources to foster biliteracy in students. Despite attempts to cover the subject in articles, there is still a gap in the literature regarding the implementation or actual practice of translanguaging by teachers or instructors in ESL contexts. This is because the recommendations made in the literature are not explicit about the application or specific use. The goal of the current study is to determine how instructors and teachers feel about translanguaging in the classroom and whether their actions are consistent with those feelings.

Numerous studies have focused on how theory and practice relate to one another, especially in ethnography. More recently, educational research has increasingly done this, mostly from a linguistic angle (Mohan, 2007, 2011). In conclusion, all social activities involving translanguaging in teaching and learning involve the participant knowing (or not knowing) something about the practice (that is, the practice or cultural knowledge) and doing (or not doing) the activity. Traditionally, social practices have been researched using interviews to uncover knowledge and observations to pinpoint doing. Because the current study only used surveys, it

developed questions that were intended to elicit answers from participants on how much they believed they knew and had accomplished.

In light of Cho's (2008) findings, it was thought important to examine both the theory and practice aspects of the social practice of translanguaging. Cho used a social practice analysis to help her understand why some relatives achieved success with inheritance language learning while others did not. The researcher discovered that children struggled to learn their traditional language, Korean, in families where there was a gap between their parents' theories and practices. Nonetheless, children excelled in families where there was a close match. As a result, Cho's research suggested that observing matches and mismatches between participants' theories and practices could help investigators. The survey questions in this study were thus designed to target both the teachers' (instructors') attitudes (their theories about the importance of translanguaging) and their frequency of practice and to explore the matches and mismatches to raise extra questions.

Teachers (instructors) are frequently confronted with various challenges in linguistically diverse classrooms, specific situations in which learners communicate in languages that teachers (instructors) are unfamiliar with. This raises questions and can lead to dilemmas in classrooms regarding language policy (Dooly, 2005; Garcia & Wei, 2014). Translanguaging is one method of addressing these questions and dilemmas. Translanguaging has been defined as both the ability of multilingual or bilinguals to easily shuttle between languages without regard for socially and politically existing borders, and as a pedagogy in which teachers (instructors) allow children (learners) to obtain and practice all of their languages for learning by using

scaffolding methods (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a; Garcia & Wei, 2014; Garcia & Kleyn, 2016; MacSwan, 2017).

Translanguaging, according to Cenoz & Gorter (2017), is a popular and very effective idea in the field of bilingual and multilingual education that has gained widespread recognition in the literature quickly. However, it is hard to achieve effective translanguaging practices in the classroom (Hornberger & Link, 2012; Garcia & Kleyn, 2016) and runs the risk of being romanticized or dismissed as simplistic (Canagarajah, 2011a; Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). The following is how Canagarajah clarifies his stance: They fail to recognize, however, that translanguaging is a social achievement. Translanguaging also involves moving between or among the languages brought by the other to jointly generate meaning. It does not just include someone using all of the languages in their repertory to communicate. It is a creative improvisation based on the context and local conditions (Canagarajah, 2011a). According to Canagarajah (2011b), "the educational side is generally underutilized." Certainly, Lewis, Jones & Baker (2012b) confirm that a substantial amount of research is required to determine when, where, and how translanguaging can be used as an effective teaching method in a multilingual context in an organized and purposeful manner (Probyn, 2015). The current study addresses such concerns and criticisms by directly examining some of the practical and pedagogical challenges that arise among stakeholders (teachers, students, and scholars) concerned about translanguaging in multilingual classrooms where teachers or instructors do not speak all of the learners' languages. Reyes (2012) went a step further and discussed translanguaging's application in developing biliteracy in

bilingual or multilingual learners; she defined biliteracy as the ability to decode and encode meaning from written texts in dual languages. The researcher believed that with teacher support and the creation of a teaching and learning environment that valued both languages equally (in this case, English and Spanish), learners could achieve spontaneous biliteracy. Reyes presented dual ethnographic case studies that she had been following for four years, with each learner being a young Latino English language learner. During their education, both students were involved in translanguaging and transliteracy practices, which resulted in their early biliteracy. No learner spoke English when they entered the program, and both came from low-income families with parents who did not have much formal schooling; all of these were at-risk behaviours that served as indicators of possible low academic attainment. According to Modupeola (2013), translanguaging is ineffective when teachers and students speak different first languages. When the learners' language is less important than the language teachers use to give instructions, the situation gets worse (LoI). When this occurs, students have an inferiority complex. Additionally, some students experience psychological problems, which prevents teachers from meeting the learning objectives. To understand the implications of translanguaging for the teaching and learning of the English language in a multilingual or bilingual society, Modupeola (2013) investigated translanguaging in Nigeria. The study made an effort to evaluate translanguaging to determine how important it is for the teaching and learning of English in Nigeria, as well as other subjects. The results demonstrated that translanguaging greatly contributed to learning more than only language.

A pilot study on the impact of translanguaging in L2 conducted in a Swedish secondary school (Tutunjian, 2014) revealed that translanguaging promotes oral language development in L2 classrooms. According to the study, low-proficiency learners benefit from using L1, whereas high-proficiency learners appear to prefer and benefit more from English-only classrooms. In general, the study recommended that teachers and students use translanguaging to support L2 acquisition. There are various points of view regarding teachers' use of translanguaging in the classroom. It is demanded that translanguaging be prohibited in classrooms (Simon, 2001). Teachers who engage in translanguaging feel guilty because it is not regarded as a good practice (Wakasa, 2004).

According to Rajendram (2019), translanguaging has four educational benefits. These four benefits include encouraging a more comprehensive understanding of translanguaging as a support strategy, aiding in the growth of parallel language, facilitating cooperation and links between home and school, and assisting in the integration of native speakers with young learners. Additionally, Garcia et al. (2017) highlight how translanguaging can create an environment in the classroom where students question linguistic hierarchies while also making them feel like valued members of the community, allowing them to fully participate in class activities. According to Canagarajah (2011) & Paxton (2009), this approach will provide learners with a voice to advance their positions and expand and coordinate future pedagogical practices that will help ensure educational equity. The main focus now is on supporting instructors in multilingual classrooms by adopting practices that allow learners to maximize their learning potential (Omidire, 2019b).

One of the issues confronting translanguaging work in teaching and learning is the tension between two theoretical and practical perspectives on translanguaging. Similarly, there is a strong form of translanguaging, a theory that asserts that a bilingual or multilingual person does not speak languages, but rather selectively employs their repertoire of linguistic features. On the other hand, there is a weak type of translanguaging that supports national and state language boundaries while advocating for their relaxation. Since the pioneer and premier scholar of bilingual or multilingual education, Cummins wrote about linguistic interdependence and transfer, the feeble version of translanguaging has always been with us in some ways (Cummins, 2007).

Previously, the Cummins hypothesis did not explain language separation in teaching and learning; it simply claimed that instructional time spent on one language influenced the development of the other (target language). Cummins (2007), on the other hand, began rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in bilingual education and challenging what he called "the two solitudes," particularly in immersion bilingual or multilingual education programs, as time passed. Several academicians now support Cummins' call for flexible instructional approaches in bilingual or multilingual education (Lin, 2013), though others use the term "translanguaging" to describe both the language use of children or learners and the flexible approaches used during classroom lessons.

Despite researchers' strong support for translanguaging as a linguistic theory (Garcia, 2009), bilingual or multilingual teaching and learning respond to the formation of languages as defined by states and nations. After all, languages have been

collectively created, sustained, and regulated, particularly through academic institutions. It is critical to recognize that the aforementioned national a Nonetheless, to advocate for fairer and more equitable assessments, as well as more appropriate bilingual or multilingual teaching and learning that caters to all children or learners, regardless of their language practices, we must recognize that named languages, as enforced and regulated by academic institutions, have nothing to do with people and their linguistic repertoires. From the perspective of a bilingual or multilingual child, the language they have belongs to them, not to the nation or the state (Lin, 2013).

In reality, bilingual or multilingual education must develop bilingual or multilingual learners' ability to use language by the rules and regulations that have been collectively created for that specific language. Bilingual or multilingual education is a way for some national societies, as well as most societies that have been isolated and have experienced language loss and change, to improve their language practices (Lin, 2013). However, to get learners to practice features of the mentioned languages, to make those features suitable as part of their linguistic repertoire, instructors or teachers must first acknowledge that the verbal and essential features that comprise a bilingual or multilingual learner's repertoire are effective and must be leveraged and applied. This is where translanguaging pedagogical approaches come into play. Bilingual or multilingual teaching and learning must also deliver learners with chances to fully apply their complete language repertoire, without regard to socially and culturally constrained contexts.

If societies demand it, weak languages must be defended and developed. However, it is critical to recognize that the linguistic features that comprise that weak language

cannot be completely separated from those of other superior languages because they are typically part of the linguistic capability of bilinguals or multilingual. Bilingual or multilingual education cannot preserve weak languages as if they were museum pieces; rather, it can only help, tolerate, and develop them in useful interrelationships within the communicative setting in which bilingual or multilingual speakers use them (Lin, 2013).

To provide a fairer and more just education to bilingual children while also sustaining minority language practices, bilingual or multilingual education programs must combine the weak and strong versions of the translanguaging model. Furthermore, instructors or teachers must assign different spaces for the stated languages by softening the borders between them. They must, on the other hand, provide an instructional space in which translanguaging is valued and critically and innovatively applied, without speakers or instructors having to select and suppress various linguistic features of their repertoire. Bilingual or multilingual learners will become skilled language users simply by using all of the features in their linguistic repertoire. Simply assessing bilingual or multilingual learners on the full application of their linguistic repertoire, their ability to express difficult ideas efficiently, elucidate things, encourage, reason, give guidelines, and check events, among other things, rather than a set of verbal and structural features, will reveal their capacity for meaning and accomplishment (Garcia, 2009).

2.12   Teachers' attitudes towards the translanguaging practice

Cook (2001) asserts that it is time to reconsider bringing language learners' L1 back into the classroom, in addition to arguing that translanguaging is a natural practice.

He addressed the current situation (at the time of writing) of L1 avoidance in classrooms. He argued that this is a near-impossible task and advocated for a more positive alternative of maximizing L2 use in classrooms, rather than painting the L1 as a negative influence. He claimed that, like nature, the L1 would creep back into classrooms, so instead of fighting the L1, find positive ways to encourage L2 use. The L1 checks to see if the learners comprehend what is being said. Cook concluded by talking about appropriate L1 student use in the classroom, such as during particular tasks and as a component of the main learning activity (for instance, employing translation as a teaching strategy) (such as translanguaging during a group discussion). Although participants in McMillan and Rivers' study presented several arguments against translanguaging, each was countered by a benefit found in the collected studies. McMillan and Rivers' study was unique in its field because it assessed teachers' attitudes toward the use of learners' L1 in the classroom by teachers and separately assessed teachers' attitudes toward learners' L1 use by the learners themselves. McMillan and Rivers' study was eye-opening and unique, but it fits in nicely with the other studies because they all involved English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts. While this is not surprising given that EFL contexts typically deal with a common L1 that teachers may share with their students, it would be beneficial to examine and compare, using methods similar to McMillan &Rivers (2011), when and how teachers in an English as a Second Language context choose to use translanguaging, both for themselves and to encourage their students to use it in the classroom. In contrast, fifteen teachers argued that L1 should be reserved for emergencies and that its use would encourage off-task behaviour. These teachers also claimed that using L1 would prevent students from thinking in English. Overall,

this study provided valuable insights into teachers' minds and allowed teachers to express their reasons for agreeing or disagreeing with the presence of L1 in the EFL classroom.

The current study on translanguaging was influenced and guided by McMillan & Rivers' (2011) study; just as their findings highlighted teacher's attitudes toward the use of learners' native language in the EFL classroom, this current study seeks to learn more about similar attitudes (or differences in attitudes) among lower-level primary teachers. More than half of the respondents in a study by May (2014) on teachers' opinions of using L1 as the primary language of instruction in lower elementary schools in the Hamisi District of Kenya agreed that students learned more effectively through L1. However, the respondents claimed that even if L1 learning was more convenient for students, it would not have any effect on their comprehension or academic performance. Therefore, to improve the efficiency of learning for lower-level learners, the teachers advised the proper usage of both languages through code-switching. Learners improve their ability to switch between their L1 and other languages. Rather than viewing translanguaging as a mere transitional program in which L1 is sacrificed in favour of L2, translanguaging can be viewed as a platform for learners to practice bilingualism with ease. Translanguaging, which is implicit in the L1-based Multilingual Education Method (MTB-MLE), helps L1 learners maintain their cultural identities. Furthermore, this method protects L1 from extinction because when a language is not used, it dies, just as some classic languages have been declared dead; classic Latin is a good example, as are many other classic languages in Europe. Translanguaging assists both learners

and teachers in making the teaching and learning process possible, especially when learners are not proficient in a second or foreign language, such as English, and teachers participate as facilitators in classrooms (Wei, 2011). It is the practice of translanguaging that provides beginners with pedagogical benefits and helps them understand the lessons well.

According to Mberia (2016), using L1 alongside the language of instruction in early formal education has several benefits for the learner, the teacher community, and the country as a whole. For example, it enables a smooth transition from home to school; the child can focus on one exercise, which is the subject being taught, rather than having to divide their thoughtfulness and intellectual energies between the topic on the one hand and the demands of a new unfamiliar language on the other. It can also be seen that the use and early mastery of L1 have the effect of profitably progressing the role of the brain that is concerned with language; scientific experiments have shown that children learn better and faster when they communicate in their mother tongues than when they communicate in second or foreign languages. When Grenner & Jonsson (2020) looked into teachers' perspectives on the use of translanguaging in English instruction in Grades 4-6, they discovered that many of them valued their usage of English more than their students' native tongues (L1). Additionally, the results indicated that a small number of teachers were open to using translanguaging in specific contexts when it was required. According to these kinds of findings, teachers do adhere to the English language of instruction, but there are still instances where it appears that teaching English-only students may not be able to help students, especially those who are at lower levels, comprehend information

effectively when compared to using translanguaging. This goal of helping learners understand what is being said influences teachers' favourable opinions of translanguaging techniques.

Aung (2021), looked at how English teachers in township primary schools felt about translanguaging. It was discovered from this study that teachers valued translanguaging as a genuine strategy in their homes and other English-language classrooms. Numerous instructors from both institutions often used translanguaging. Within both institutions, translanguaging took place as a sociolinguistic miracle as well as a pedagogical activity.

Sokoyet (2018), looked at the effects of code-switching when teaching English to Maasai children in public elementary schools, and the results showed that CS is an effective tool for the teaching and learning process. The researcher believed that because teachers were unskilled in the students' home languages, Kiswahili was encouraged more during the English teaching process than the students' first languages. While teaching English with the goal of comprehensive understanding, the instructors accept the use of Kiswahili. To help students learn English, some teachers have tried incorporating the native tongue of the students. English-Kiswahili code swapping is actively practised in classrooms by teachers and students, according to Collett, Nomlomo, Ngece, Jansen & Mackier (2021) saw it as a managerial strategy to achieve evocative learning

.According to Vijayakumar, Steinkrauss & Sun, (2020), teachers are not always aware of the use of translanguaging in the classroom. Occasionally, teachers engage

in unintended translanguaging (Sert 2005). Blom and Gumperz (1972) make a similar claim, claiming that translanguaging might happen accidentally and independently of the presenters' overt objectives.

2.13   Tanzania primary education and language of instruction (LoI) after2014

In 2014, Tanzania implemented a new education policy. The policy, among other things, established the language of instruction from primary school to the tertiary level. However, the policy fails to define the use of English and Kiswahili as instructional languages or as subjects to be taught at all levels of education. In reality, the policy is silent on which language must be used as the language of instruction at which level of education. The policy states that both Kiswahili and English will be used in teaching at all levels, which raises the important question of whether or not there is a clear political commitment to make Kiswahili the only language of instruction throughout all levels of education, including secondary and tertiary education. The next two sentences go against each other and support the status quo

> *3.2.19. Lugha ya Taifa ya Kiswahili itatumika kufundishia na kujifunzia katika ngazi zote za elimu na mafunzo na Serikali itaweka utaratibu wa kuwezesha matumizi ya lugha hii kuwa endelevu na yenye ufanisi katika kuwapatia walengwa elimu na mafunzo yenye tija kitaifa na kimataifa. 'Kiswahili as a national language shall be used as a language of instruction at all education levels and the government will facilitate the sustainable use of Kiswahili to ensure*

proper provision of education that has value both nationally and

internationally (URT, 2014:39)

After reading this sentence, one may assume that the government is finally prepared to employ Kiswahili as the language of instruction for secondary and university education. However, the sentence after that states.

3.2.20 Serikali itaendelea na utaratibu wa kuimarisha matumizi ya

lugha ya Kiingereza katika kufundishia na kujifunzia, katika ngazi

zote za elimu na mafunzo.

'The government shall continue to strengthen the use of the English

language in teaching and learning at all levels of education' (URT,

2014:39).

This is the current education policy in Tanzania. It was launched in 2014. The policy stresses the importance of both Kiswahili and English as languages of instruction and communication in the socioeconomic development of the country (URT, 2014).

2.14 Tanzanian language policy and practice in schools

Tanzania has a multilingual population and a diverse linguistic landscape. Numerous languages belong to various language groups and have rich indigenous cultures. Only Kiswahili and English are permitted in academic institutions under the policy. Kiswahili is the lingua franca as well as the national language, so it is spoken by the majority of people in urban centres as well as urban academic institutions. It is the medium of instruction in public primary schools and a required subject in primary and secondary schools. The language is spoken and used for written communication

throughout the country. Many children and youths in most urban areas speak it as their first language (L1), or mother tongue (Barrett, 2014). However, it is the second most common in most rural areas.

Kiswahili is also the language of instruction in the majority of private primary schools, and it is now taught as a subject in all secondary schools. According to estimates, only 5% of the Tanzanian population uses English in everyday communication, while 95% use their native language (Tibategeza, 2010). Because Tanzanian language policies do not correspond to the country's linguistic landscape, there is a mismatch between policy and practice in schools (Barrett, 2014).

The 1995 Education and Training Policy (MOEC, 1995), which is still in effect, emphasizes bilingualism in schools. The only language permitted for communication in school environments is the authorized medium of instruction. Teaching and learning must take place in the classroom using the authorized medium of instruction.

Home languages other than Kiswahili are not permitted, even if learners have developed many conceptions of their surroundings through them (Osaki, 2005). In terms of language practice, school practice does not adhere to the policy. Many children in lower-level classes (standard 1 to 3) in rural primary schools, for example, use their home languages for informal communication at school.

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children in lower-level classes (standard 1 to 3) in rural primary schools, for example, use their home languages for informal communication at school. A novel Education and Training Policy (URT, 2014) was released in 2014 and was formally launched in 2015. There are statements in the new policy regarding the use of both Kiswahili and English as mediums of instruction at all levels of education.

A review of a "curriculum for the certificate in teacher education" in its six trainee's expected competencies (MoEVT, 2013b, p. 7) suggests that teachers for primary education are currently not prepared to specialize in language subjects for Grade "A" Certificate course, despite communicative competence is one of the expected learning outcomes in primary education as stated in the primary education curriculum (MoEVT, 2013a). It's interesting to note that the primary school curriculum requires instructors at this level to work to develop students' specialized language competencies.

> *Kuhusu lugha, eneo hili linahusisha masomo ya Kiswahili, Kiingereza na Kifaransa. Umuhimu wa lugha ni kuwaandaa walengwa wawe na ujuzi wa kusikiliza, kusoma, kuzungumza, na kuandika kwa ufasaha pamoja na kuelewa na kujieleza kwa kutumia lugha inayo jumuisha alama na maneno. Pia kuwezesha walengwa kuwasiliana katika shughuli za kila siku katika muktadha na mazingira mbalimbali.*

Language-related topics covered in this category include Kiswahili, English, and Kifaransa. The language's job in this context is to get ready to learn and develop the

aptitude to listen, read, speak, and write in the language competently, as well as to understand and be able to express themselves using language through words and gestures. Additionally, it aims to help students use the language in their daily activities to context and other situations (MoEVT, 2013a, p. 7).

In other words, the primary education curriculum directs language teachers to use the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach in actual classroom situations to help students develop communicative language competencies and effective literacy command. Although Tanzania uses Kiswahili as the language of instruction in primary school (URT, 1995; 2014), children in public primary schools reportedly complete the primary school cycle with little or no literacy competence in Kiswahili, the majority of Tanzanians' second language (Masato, 2004).

2.15   Models of multilingual education

Several models of multilingual education are presented in this subsection to suggest which one might be more relevant in rural communities where Kiswahili is not the primary language of communication. It should be noted, however, that the boundaries between the various models presented are porous.

Bilingual education is defined as the use of two languages in school for learning and teaching. Multilingual education could be defined as the use of three or more languages. According to Weber (2014), multilingual education includes the use of the mother tongue, a regional or national language, and an international language, which is frequently English in Tanzania (Weber, 2014). UNESCO (2003) advocates for bilingual and/or multilingual education at all levels of education as a means of

supporting both societal and gender equality, as well as a key component of promoting education in linguistically diverse societies.

Multilingual or bilingual education philosophies are frequently classified as additive or subtractive. Subtractive bilingualism or multilingualism requires learners to learn a second language in addition to their first language; in Tanzania, learners forego their native languages to learn Kiswahili as a second language. According to Tupus (2015), a subtractive model is one in which the home or first language is not used in teaching and learning, potentially leading to the loss or inadequate capacity of this language.

Multilingual or bilingual transition models are more prevalent than subtractive models. When employing transitional models of bilingualism or multilingualism, students initially learn through their native tongues in the early years of elementary school before progressively switching to Kiswahili. There will eventually be a transition to Kiswahili as the primary instruction language, similar to subtractive education approaches (Tupus, 2015). It is frequently referred to as an early exit transition model if the transfer to EMI occurs at the lower primary level, typically within one to three years of schooling. A late exit transition model is typically used when the shift occurs in Grades 5–6 or later in upper primary. L1s may proceed to be transformed in transition models.

The goal is to have a high level of proficiency in both the home/mother/heritage language and the dominant L2, which is usually English. Non-dominant languages

are regularly used in education in these programs and should continue to be used in at least 50% of the curriculum (Weber, 2014).

First-language-first education, or schooling that starts with the L1 and involves guided scaffolding from learning through the L1 to learning through another language or languages, is what is commonly meant by mother tongue-based multilingual education (MTB-MLE), an educational model (Weber, 2014). Instead of a transitional program where the mother tongue is eventually given up, learners gain the ability to switch between their L1 and other languages. The L1s of the learners—their cultural and/or ethnic identities—are respected and viewed as resources in schools, and this additional perspective is part of the MTB-MLE method. Additionally, this method acknowledges the potential for L1s to be more sustainable by being used in both teaching and learning.

Flexible multilingual education refers to additive multilingual educational models that build on learners' actual linguistic resources, including nonstandard varieties, in a positive and additive way to provide high-quality access to local, national, and global languages. The recognition that the L1 may be incorporated into the teaching of additional languages such as Kiswahili and English in Tanzania is implicit in this model. This term, however, has been proposed in response to criticism. One common criticism is that various bilingual education models are based on a monolingual mindset,' which views languages as fixed and distinct (Weber, 2014).

2.16   The role of L1 in education

Currently, research on translanguaging has demonstrated the importance of L1 as a resource for teaching and learning, and it is regarded as a reasonable way to compensate for the difficulties encountered by multilingual learners (Oihana et al. 2020). According to Tian and Macaro (2012), learners who receive input in their L1 during the teaching and learning process gain more than those who do not. Similarly, Cummins (2009) sees L1 as a foundation for the creation of new knowledge. Currently, the investigation on translanguaging has shown the importance of L1 as a resource for teaching and learning, and it is considered a decent way to compensate for the problems experienced by multilingual learners (Oihana et al. 2020). Tian and Macaro (2012) state that learners who obtain input in theirL1during their teaching and learning process gain more than learners who do not. Likewise, Cummins (2009) regards L1 as a foundation upon which new knowledge can be created. The application of L1 can have repercussions for teaching and learning because if learners cannot comprehend what is taught in the Language of Instruction (LoI), they will experience hitches in progressing to the following level. Omidire (2019b) states that,

> *"For learning to take place, there needs to be communication among learners in the classroom, and this could be simplified by encouraging the practice of mother languages to involve and make connections that lead to high-level understanding."(Odimire, 2019b:5).*

The claim presented here is that learners need a space in the teaching and learning environment to scaffold their learning (Hillman et al. 2019; Moody et al. 2019; Omidire 2019b, Smith et al. 2020). This is accomplished by decoding the content being taught in their L1 (Makalela 2015b) and allowing learners to pilot their learning by not relying solely on their L1 but rather using it as a facilitator to accommodate their learning knowledge (Daniel et al. 2019; Hillman et al. 2019; Makalela 2015a).

According to Hurst and Mona (2017), Ferreira-Meyers & Horne (2017), and Oihana et al. (2020), decisions about LoI are delegated because L1s in schools are viewed as barriers to learning. According to these researchers, learners do not feel free because they do not speak English fluently. Furthermore, Hurst (2016) observes that these students are dissatisfied with the fact that they must abandon their L1 and that their L1 is regarded as inferior. For the time being, Lwanga-Lumu (2020): Rivera& Mazak (2017) agree that incorporating L1 could lead to a greater sense of ownership in the teaching and learning process, as well as a stronger sense of identity. There is compelling research evidence that children (learners) learn best when the language of teaching and learning is L1 and the Second Language (L2) is used (Clegg, 2005; UNESCO GMR, 2015). Language in schools and medium of instruction, according to evidence, play a significant role in such low levels of retention and progression (UNESCO USI stats, 2017) and overall low performance across the curriculum. The majority of learners who complete primary school in all countries do so without having attained the levels of home language literacy, core subject knowledge, and English language ability that limit their ability to succeed in further education, a

situation that is common in many Sub-Saharan African countries (Alidou et al., 2006).

The use of a known language to teach literacy to children is more effective than an immersion approach (Gacheche 2010) since children can correlate sounds with the symbols they see, which facilitates comprehension. Additionally, the teaching and learning of new concepts need not be hampered until the students have a firm command of the second language (L2). Teachers and students can thus combine meanings, achieving L2 proficiency by shared relation rather than memorization and mechanical learning.

In a study conducted in the United States of America (USA), Meyerhöffer and Dreesmann (2019) hypothesized that translanguaging pedagogy, which enables learners to switch between several languages while creating meaning, results in higher-quality educational performance in science classrooms.

Probyn (2019) conducted research in South Africa (SA) and discovered that there has been a friendly awareness and investigation of translanguaging in SA classrooms, several of which reveal unintended language practice in classrooms (Probyn 2015; Krause &Prinsloo 2016; McKinney, 2017), while others document interventions that have adopted planned heteroglossia teachings that involve learners' full linguistic repertoires (Madiba 2014; Guzula, McKinney & Tyler 2016; Msimanga, Fortuin 2017; Denley & Gumede 2017; McKinney &Tyler 2019).

In Singapore, code-switching between Singlish and Standard English is documented in Rubdy's (2007) report. Singlish is a Singaporean English dialect. Because it is not used in formal communication, it has a lower status variety. The study discovered that the prevalence of translanguaging was higher in classrooms. Since they were more familiar with Singlish than Standard English, learners were informed that translanguaging is a luxury zone. Teachers believed that allowing students to use their first language in the classroom was the most accurate policy because Singapore is a multilingual and multicultural society. According to Sampson (2011), translanguaging was used in classrooms by both teachers and students to ensure that the learner understood what was said.

 According to a study by Benson (2005), L1-based bilingual education increases access to abilities and raises the standard of basic or primary education (teaching and learning) by promoting classroom cooperation, the blending of prior knowledge, and encounters with fresh learning. Dual language learning is also produced via bilingual or multilingual learning programs, which provide strong educational competency (Research & Evaluation, 2010). The practice of basic literacy skills is therefore switched from the universal language, say L2, to L1, as the learners are first taught in their L1 and afterwards in the universal language. There is proof that bilingual or multilingual education has had significant success in places like Hawaii (Hawaiian and English) and the continental United States of America (Spanish and English) (Research & Evaluation, 2010).

According to Sario et al. (2014), practising the L1 mother tongue in the classroom makes students more dynamic and lively, participatory and interactive. According to

Sario et al., this is because learners in such settings have a language in which to express their ideas, feelings, and opinions. Sario et al. (2014) developed an important viewpoint stating that because the language used in teaching and learning at school is similar to that used at home, parents or guardians can assist their children in the teaching and learning process. If used in school, learners' mother tongue or home language can encourage active participation in the learning process. After all, they understand what is being discussed in the classroom and can respond to teachers' questions because they recognize what they are being asked. Learners use their first language (L1) to construct and describe their surroundings.

According to Bachore (2014), while several factors are involved in providing quality basic education, language is undeniably important for communication and understanding in the classroom. If teaching and learning are conducted in a language that the child does not understand, the child will suffer cognitively, especially if the teacher is also a victim of the medium of instruction. Submersion makes both learning and teaching extremely difficult because of ongoing complications such as low teaching levels, poorly designed inappropriate curricula, and a lack of adequate school facilities. He believes that teaching and learning in the child's native language has excellent instructional benefits because children are likely to feel contented and reassured by their ability to comprehend and analyze information in their native languages.

According to research by Khan (2014), students were more likely to succeed if they were introduced to a teacher who could speak their native tongue in the first few days of school, who helped them settle in, and who encouraged them to keep using their

L1 while learning. Because of this, Khan (2014) stresses the importance of L1 in learning, contending that L1 is essential for learning. If students arrive at school unable to communicate in or speak the language of instruction, the situation is worse and more traumatic. This is supported by Wa-(2014) Mbaleka's investigation, which revealed that despite UNESCO's declaration about the importance of mother-tongue teaching and learning for minority children, African nations continue to use European languages. Although learners from minority groups attempt to learn and write, they do so in a language that is unfamiliar to them. According to Wa-Mbaleka (2014), this hinders learners' ability to study effectively and efficiently. This is likely to lead to increased illiteracy, dropouts, poverty, and an unfavourable life for such students.

African scholars (Rubagumya, 2003; Wolff, 2006; Mpemba, 2007; Spolsky, 2009; Marwa, 2014; Wa-Mbaleka, 2014; Bikongoro, 2015) agree on which language is best for instruction. They argue that the language that teachers and students understand best is the most appropriate. As a result, they all agree that L1 is the best medium of instruction (MoI). Language in-education policies that support this principle are thus motivated to produce positive results.

When a bilingual multilingual person uses one language, the other language is active at the same time, according to research. When a person hears a word, he or she does not hear the entire word at once: the sounds arrive in sequence order. Long before the word is finished, the brain's language system begins to predict what that word might be by stimulating a large number of words that match the gesture. When you hear "can," you are likely to think of words like "candy" and "candle," at least in the early

stages of word recognition. This stimulation is insufficient for bilingual or multilingual individuals; auditory input stimulates conforming words regardless of the language into which they fit (Marian &Shook, 2012).

Furthermore, multilingual or bilingual individuals have an enhanced ability to track their location (Batthacharjee, 2012) as they switch between languages depending on the situation or presenter they are addressing. The practice of multiple or bilingual languages is thus a type of brain workout, as studies show multilingual or bilingual individuals are "...more resistant to the onset of dementia and signs indicating Alzheimer's disease: the higher the degree of bilingualism or multilingualism; the later the period of onset" (ibid).

Mwaniki (2014) argues that L1 instruction must be prioritized in classrooms. He points out that L1 serves as the cornerstone for all other forms of schooling. Moving from the familiar language to the new is a good learning strategy. Therefore, the learner's total prior knowledge is covered in their L1. The fundamental tenet of the majority of teaching and learning initiatives is that sessions should start with what students already know and progressively progress toward the innovative learning they need. This learning process cannot be separated from the L1.

Additionally, when the issue of identity is prominent, maintaining one's L1 and additional languages has important implications. Since language and culture are intertwined, maintaining one's L1 allows for better participation in one's home or family culture and strengthens bonds among different family generations. For kids, language gives them the power to communicate with their environment and other

people in a more effective and refined way.The advancement of one's L1 is also classified as a human right in the MTE literature (Ife, 2001). Keeping their L1 can help children reach their full potential by allowing them to learn their superior language. This could potentially lead to more job opportunities in people's first language.

Translanguaging, which has its roots in the Second Language (L2) Acquisition Theory, offers language learners a variety of benefits, from helping them develop discussion-guiding strategies to helping them bridge the gap between their distinctiveness as native speakers of their native tongues and English learners and speakers. Additionally, translanguaging can benefit students by portraying a secure environment in which their individuality and cultures are valued. This encourages the more reticent students to become more actively engaged in their studies (Martin, 2005). Additionally, translanguaging gives students the chance to use their first language as a valuable tool for communication and to practice skills that will help them share meaning and interact with others in English. Contrary to the twin solitudes approach, which maintains that both languages must be kept strictly separate, translanguaging allows learners to use their first language as a tool to help them excel in their second language (Cummins, 2008). May (2014), claims in his work that the theory of socio-cultural Second Language (L2) acquisition gave rise to translanguaging. Cummins (2008) made a significant point on the interdependence of developmental processes that he had already outlined in a prior publication (Hawkins, 2013). Essentially, Cummins contends that a child's native language must also be well-developed to strengthen their second language (L2). Although fluency

and pronunciation in dual languages may vary, there is still a fundamental cognitive or academic language proficiency that applies to both, regardless of these differences (Cummins, 2008). The improvement of learners' first languages not only improves their proficiency in English (or another target language) but also increases their literacy levels in those languages.

By allowing students to choose their language, the teacher assists them in becoming self-sufficient, allowing them to combine their understanding of their native language with their growing knowledge of the target language (White, Hailemariam & Ogbay, 2013). Learners take an active role in their education as they become more self-sufficient and practice creating language selections (teaching and learning). Levine (as cited by Adamson and Fujimoto-Adamson, 2012) assumed that learners' freedom to make their own strategic language choices develops into and serves as a resource for future communication. Norton (2014) proposed that language learners must struggle for ownership of meaning creation and "learn to command the considerations of their listeners in addition to practising and negotiating language as both a system and collective exercise." This struggle forces the learner to become more invested in their language learning and serves as a source of inspiration. Translanguaging can help English language learners decide how to express themselves using all of the linguistic resources available to them, whether in their native language or the target language.

Based on the ideas of identity and self-worth, Cummins (2009) suggested that it is important to acknowledge and authenticate learners' L1s as resources to counterbalance inequalities created by monolingual policies and policies that take L1

auxiliary languages into account. Norton proclaimed that language "is a collective exercise in which understandings are organized and identities transferred" (Norton, 2014, p. 103). The desire of the learners to be highly valued is a topic that is evident throughout the literature and appears to be supported by translanguaging. In her conclusion, Norton stated that linguistic teachers must take into account and use pedagogical techniques that will help language learners advance and acknowledge their individuality. Translanguaging allows a learner to develop an identity as a language learner who integrates his or her native language and home culture with the target language and culture to navigate social situations and communication opportunities.

2.17   Teachers' position in multilingual classrooms

According to Catalano and Hamann (2016), regardless of the li nguistic diversity of the learners, English dominates the global curriculum. This recognizes the core challenge of L1 marginalization (Makalela, 2018b), which requires learners in classrooms to adapt their English practice, limiting flexibility in their language choice (Makalela 2015b), prohibiting diversity, choice, and destroying ability. Oihana et al. (2020) encourage teachers and instructors to incorporate multiple languages and move away from the borders that are often crossed when using L1. Similarly, the position of teachers or instructors in South African multilingual classrooms is complicated. Furthermore, Ticheloven et al. (2019) state that in multilingual classrooms, teachers' or instructors' understanding becomes even more complicated when learners speak languages that teachers or instructors are unfamiliar with. According to Omidire (2019b), teachers or instructors must be flexible and

open-minded when incorporating L1 into their classroom teaching as a possible method of language teaching and learning.

Teachers and instructors play important roles in the classroom and should adapt their teaching strategies to support the teaching and learning process. To allow and reconstruct translanguaging pedagogy through posture, design, and shifts, Garcia et al. (2017) present three translanguaging components that should be controlled by teachers or facilitators. Despite the named language or variety, these researchers define a teacher's viewpoint as their views and philosophies concerning emergent bilingual and multilingual learners and their language practices. Design refers to the affordances that teachers or instructors set up as they build learning capabilities for emerging bilinguals or multilinguals. Shifts would be changes that a teacher makes in response to their students' needs.

Kleyn & Garcia (2016) warn that the teacher or instructor's position must include knowledge of the learners' first language (L1) and acknowledge that resources should be used for teaching and learning to go over previous hierarchical and power systems. The architecture that a teacher or instructor sets up to assist translanguaging in the classroom was described by these researchers, as the ultimate "shift" of the teaching methods. This mentality change enables the instructor or teacher to become acquainted with adaptable techniques to promote learning and understanding (Kleyn & Garcia 2016). Additionally, Garcia & Leiva (2014) as well as Velasco & Garcia (2014) argue that teachers need to adapt their lesson plans to take into account the basics of dynamic language usage in the classroom.

2.18   Challenges of translanguaging in classrooms

Translanguaging has drawbacks, just like any other pedagogical method. The one-of-a-kind issue is that the practice of student-centred teaching can be extremely perplexing for instructors (teachers) (White, Haliemariam, & Ogbay, 2013). The level of achievement of action is related to the learners' understanding and inspiration in the assignment. According to White, Hailemariam, and Ogbay, if students are overwhelmed or have strayed from the course, it is the instructor's or teacher's responsibility to help them work through it.

Singleton & Flynn, (2022) have provided additional evidence of the disadvantages of translanguaging. The investigator contends that translanguaging is sometimes a source of errors when learning a new language. Due to the use of two languages with different grammatical rules in translanguaging, learners may shift grammatical practices from their L1 into the novel language. According to Xiaoil (2013), translanguaging jeopardizes learners' ability to practice the target language. He specifically claims that translanguaging causes learners to make grammatical mistakes in writing and speaking.

Furthermore, Ustunel (2016) regards translanguaging as a sign of laziness or mental sloppiness, as well as a lack of understanding of language learning and teaching. According to Vijayakumar, et al. (2020), the practice of translanguaging limits learners' exposure to Second Language (L2) discourse. It may hurt the learners and prevent them from acquiring the necessary language proficiency. Finally, Xiaoil (2013) summarizes that in the classroom, teachers and students should prioritize target language practice over translanguaging. Furthermore, Probyn (2009) claims

that practising L1 in the classroom has a negative impact because it prevents students from developing proficiency in L2, which is the language of learning and teaching. Parents and guardians play an important role in determining which language will be used as the medium of instruction and learning. Instead of choosing their L1, they choose English as the Language of Instruction (LoI) in the hope that it will allow their children to obtain much better jobs.

2.19   Empirical studies

2.19.1 Outside Africa

Van der Walt et al. (2001) were among the first researchers to challenge the widely held belief that teaching must be conducted solely in the language of learning and teaching (English). The researchers determined the importance of responsible' translanguaging in improving children's understanding of subject material in Mathematics, Biology, and Physical Science, while also improving teaching and learning and developing technical terms that can connect to the L1 and aid learning.

Van der Walt et al. (2001) were among the first investigators to problematise the common opinion that teaching has to be only in the language of learning and teaching (English). The researchers established 'responsible' translanguaging importance in improving children's understanding of subject material in Mathematics, Biology, and Physical Science, while simultaneously improving teaching and learning and developing technical terms that can connect to the L1 and aid learning.   According to Paxton's (2009) research on an academic literacy component within an extended programme, learners were generally very optimistic about the opportunity to discuss challenging concepts in their L1 during lessons.

They concluded that providing L2 learners with access to ideas that they require in both English and their

L1 established an important pedagogy that must be integrated into the curriculum. Furthermore, Mashinja (2020) discovered that using English as LoI is a barrier. Instructions are not always understood by learners. As a result, they are unable to perform as effectively as they would if L1 were used (Mashinja, 2020). The use of L1 as the medium of instruction is one of the most distinguishing features of bilingual or multilingual education (teaching and learning).

Both researchers emphasize the use of L1 as LoI because L1 helps learners by providing contextual knowledge and experiences, as well as improving their basic reading skills, and oral and written use of L1. Mashinja concludes his essay by stating that teachers are required to implement the impossible. Similarly, Lim & Presmeg (2011) investigated how dual languages could be used to teach mathematics in Malaysia and discovered that the primary function of translanguaging was to enable learners to comprehend. A similar study conducted at a Korean university discovered that translanguaging facilitated effective teaching in situations where English was the second language (Kim, 2015).

Tutunjian (2014) investigated "the influence of translanguaging in the L2 classroom with language development" in a secondary school in Sweden. The goal was to examine what teachers needed to keep in mind when using L1 in the classroom. This combination was tempted to answer the question of whether translanguaging aided the development of oral language in L2 classrooms in Swedish secondary schools

and to determine what factors should be considered when using translanguaging in educational (teaching and learning) contexts. The findings suggested that low-level learners benefited more from L1, whereas high-proficiency learners both preferred and benefited more from English-only (the language of instruction) classrooms. The findings also suggested that having as much L2 experience as possible was ideal, as long as it was not too difficult for learners to understand. These findings suggested that translanguaging practised by teachers and students could be an important language technique, but that teachers needed to recognize their students' language levels and when to engage in translanguaging.

Educators' perceptions of linguistic diversity and personal multilingualism, as well as how they approached the relevant languages, as a result, were the subject of a study by Berényi-Kiss (2012). According to the study, learning bi- and multilingualism in a foreign language classroom provided the ideal situation. The study was conducted in secondary school EFL classes in Vienna with an emphasis on multilingualism, linguistic diversity, and how multilingualism was perceived in the environment. Aside from examining how German and other languages were used and treated in EFL classrooms, the study also looked at which languages belonged there and what impact that had on the students. Multilingualism or bilingualism, according to the researcher, is typically viewed as a burden rather than an advantage in language classrooms around the world.

According to the study (ibid), students whose first language was different from the other students in the classroom adapted to using only the L2 that was available and were proficient. Additionally, the study discovered that translanguaging tended to be

beneficial for teachers whose backgrounds were distinct from those of the students (ibid). Language diversity, according to the researcher, is just as crucial to each learner's identity as culture is, so it must be recognized as being equally important to practice in language classrooms (ibid). Finally, Berényi-Kiss (2012) emphasized the need to encourage students to practice their L1 and that they should have explicit training in applying translanguaging as a teaching and learning strategy.

Wedin & Hedman (2013) and Garcia & Kleyn (2016) conducted research that presented different studies that aimed to state examples of how a foreign language could be taught while using the teachers' other languages. The researchers intended that simple questions that elicited the participation of multiple learners provided a positive indication when developing new languages (Wedin & Hedman, 2013). Garcia & Kleyn (2016) provided examples of how translanguaging expanded the role of the language teacher, implying that the application benefited not only the learners but also the teachers and the educational system.

A Swedish study focusing on the language practice of immigrant children in middle-lower school science classrooms discovered that when learners were encouraged to practice their full language repertoire in learning novel concepts in the other specified subject, they developed flexibility. Wedin & Hedman (2013) and Garcia & Kleyn (2016) conducted research that presented various studies that aimed to state examples of how a foreign language could be taught while the teachers' other languages were used. When developing new languages, the researchers hoped that simple questions that elicited the participation of multiple learners would provide a positive indication.   Garcia & Kleyn (2016) provided examples of how

translanguaging expanded the role of the language teacher, implying that the application benefited not only students but also teachers and the educational system (Karlsson et al. 2016).

Karlsson et al. (2018) conducted a similar study to determine how translanguaging in a primary school science classroom could aid science learning. Although many learners had other L1s, the language of instruction in science classrooms in Sweden is Swedish, except for international English schools in Sweden. According to the study, translanguaging occurred between the LoI and the various discourses in this context, as well as the various L1s in classrooms.

A study at Roskilde University in Denmark looked at the effects of translanguaging in a classroom setting where students were openly encouraged to do so (Daryai-Hansen et al., 2017). The researchers concentrated on the practices and attitudes of teachers and students toward translanguaging in teaching and learning. The study discovered that learners' attitudes toward translanguaging implementation were positive because translanguaging allowed learners to practice their stronger languages (L1) to develop their 'weaker' language (L2). The majority of students stated that when they were allowed to use their L1s, they felt more courageous to contribute in class. However, teachers demonstrated a strong willingness to use translanguaging in the classrooms only when the other languages were Danish and/or English (Daryai-Hansen et al., 2017).

Similarly, Cummins' (1996) study of Cantonese-English classrooms found that learners benefited from translanguaging in English classrooms, even though teachers

were reluctant to acknowledge translanguaging because education policy prohibited bilingual or multilingual practices in classrooms (Cummins, 2017).

Cummins (2017) adds that studies like these are not welcome because many countries tend to promote monolingualism. Cummins (2017) conducted a study in Canada in which learners were encouraged to practice their L1 while learning English. The learners stated that using their L1 was advantageous because they realized that translanguaging improved not only their L2 skills but also their L1.

Bilingual and multilingual learners performed well when L1s were employed, according to Torpsten's (2018) paper on views of linguistic potential and language competence related to translanguaging. The Torpsen study demonstrated, in line with numerous previous studies, that translanguaging was crucial for language learning since it supported unique identities. According to the study, learners profited from translanguaging since they were able to learn from each other's first languages.

In the same vein, Höst (2019), conducted a three-year study at Malmö University in Sweden, where teachers and students used Swedish and Arabic in multilingual or bilingual classrooms. The study found that learners not only used Arabic to make sense of Swedish science terms regularly, but they also switched from formal academic language to informal language (home language), which scholars refer to as 'language loops. The researcher concluded those utilizing learners' full language capabilities aids in the development of L1 understanding, adding that learners are at a loss if teachers do not use translanguaging (Rafi & Fox, 2020)

Ahmed & Hassan (2015), evaluated the function of translanguaging in Tower Hamlet's madrasah. The study found that translanguaging increased students' commitment and forced them to maintain high levels of involvement in the classroom. According to the study, successful teaching and learning practices include learners, which is made feasible by translanguaging. The study did not specify, though, to what degree of learning the tactic was appropriate.

Similarly, Marti & Portoles (2017) investigated translanguaging as a teaching and learning resource in early (primary) English language learning. The study discovered that the monolingual approach to teaching English as a supplementary language does not reflect learners' linguistic behaviour in multilingual settings, both inside and outside the classroom. Although the discovery was limited to language learning, it provides a foundation for comparing the approach's applicability to teaching and learning in general.

The impact of L1 on students' ability to learn was also studied by Awopetu (2016) in Russian early childhood classes. The study discovered that using L1 in early childhood settings was beneficial for fostering kids' learning capacities. The study demonstrated that L1 played a significant effect on learners' early stages of life. The study concluded that depriving students of their L1 during the learning process negatively impacts their ability to contribute in the classroom.

Furthermore, Daniel & Pacheco (2015) investigated four multilingual or bilingual teenagers' translanguaging practices and perspectives. According to the findings of the study, teachers should consider the importance of implementing translanguaging

instructions that encourage the development of a diverse range of learners' linguistic resources.

Translanguaging is important for learners' comprehension. Translanguaging saved time while teaching and learning and made students feel more confident and at ease. Translanguaging allows learners with lower proficiency to follow lessons more effectively than practising only L2. They discovered that translanguaging reduced learners' stress by relieving them of the burden of deciding what to say because they could translanguaging to Thai if they didn't know how to say something in English. Simasiku (2016) made the following observations. When translanguaging is used, it is based on the processes of adjustment, accommodation, increasing meaningful cognitive sets (i.e. forming logical connections and organization in the material), and effectively managing classrooms and including morality and ethics (Simasiku, 2016).

Simasiku (2016) discovered that using L1 in English medium classrooms was used not only for classroom supervision but also for language investigation, grammar rules, discussing multicultural issues, giving instructions or prompts, correcting errors, and assessing comprehension. Simasiku recognized translanguaging as a valuable resource that helps students understand and comprehend their lessons, thereby improving their academic performance. Translanguaging was discovered to be a tool that increases learner involvement in the classroom during the teaching and learning process, which is required for academic achievement and cognitive development.

2.19.2 Empirical studies in Africa

Madiba's (2010) investigation focused on the role of multilingual and bilingual dictionaries in providing scaffolding for model literacy in various tertiary disciplines (Madiba 2014). English vocabulary translated into the other ten (10) South African languages was used in an experimental project to simplify literacy through translanguaging between English, IsiXhosa, and Tshivenda. Using their multilingual or bilingual and multiliterate resources, combining them with English to study and illuminate the meanings of concepts, and combining translanguaging with other multimodal or bimodal resources proved to be a fruitful strategy for stimulating discussion and deeper understanding of the ideas presented.

Researchers Joseph & Ramani (2012) & Ramani et al. (2007) describe how students enrolled in a bilingual or multilingual bachelor's degree program in English communicate with higher-level academic literacies through L1 (Sepedi) conversations about academic subjects. Beyond the suggestions made by Paxton and Madiba, they added that students should be allowed to exercise the requirement for advanced L1 levels while still working to master L1 to handle academic subjects. They concluded that terminology was not a need for L1 instruction at the university level (Ramani et al., 2007).

Makalela's (2014) study focuses on the teaching and learning of a second language at the university level, specifically on the efficiency of a fluid communicative language exercise among Ngoni speakers learning Sepedi. According to Makalela (2014), the approach was redeeming for speakers of historically marginalised languages and confirmed the fluid linguistic characteristics of their speakers. His follow-up study

(2015) confirmed these findings, demonstrating that translanguaging practices authenticated learners' multilingual or bilingual identities, created a passionately safe environment, and improved learners' oral reading abilities.

The results shown above emphasize the value of translanguaging in facilitating the learning of cognitively challenging information through the use of an L2 as an intermediary. The benefits of developing and/or using subject-field terminology in the first language (L1) or strongest language (L2) to support conceptualization have also been discussed by Van der Walt et al. (2001), Ramani et al. (2007), Paxton (2009), and Madiba (2010), while Makalela (2014) highlights benefits in uniqueness creation and group cohesion. Although all of these studies contributed to a better understanding of some of the benefits of translanguaging, none of them attempted to stimulate learners' perceptions of the approach's achievements in terms of learning and literacy. The small-scale research scheme described here was designed specifically to obtain a summary of learners' thoughts from various linguistic backgrounds about the practice of translanguaging as a tool to facilitate thought literacy through both English and the first language (L1) while becoming educationally knowledgeable in English.

Mchazime (2001) examined the appropriateness of using the English language in learning from senior or upper primary schools for Malawian children. The investigation concentrated on pupils in standard seven. The sample was drawn from 2700 rural senior or upper primary schools. Through classroom observations and interview methods, it included 664 students in a typical classroom setting. Among the three research questions addressed was whether or not using English as a learning

language made a difference in the learning process. The findings show that English prevented teachers and pupils from participating in the teaching and learning process effectively and adequately.

Mwanza (2017), conducted a translanguaging study using the observational approach, and the results showed that few students who understood the question responded with a single word even though the question required clarification. It was also discovered that the majority of student interactions took place in Chichewa rather than English in the classroom. Major topics were not successfully communicated by students to teachers. Due to L2, learners lacked the confidence to express themselves. Aside from what transpired in the classrooms, English-medium school students in Chichewa-medium schools were able to understand their teachers clearly, discuss, assert, and clarify their thoughts to both teachers and fellow students thanks to a familiar language. They were able to do this through productive classroom interaction.

Mashinja (2020) discovered that using English as LoI instead of Oshiwambo (the L1 for children) hindered pupil participation in education in a study involving 400 learners from grades 1 to 10. According to the study, English did not appear to provide understandable input that could generate knowledge in the content area. When Oshiwambo was used with students and teachers, there was a behaviour change. The use of the official language (English) did not simplify students' contributions in class but rathermaintained a culture of silence.In the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa, Makgato (2014) looked into the use of English and translanguaging in the education of technology in several different chosen schools.

The study found that the use of English interfered with efficient technology teaching and learning. Additionally, it was discovered that L1 to Xhosa translation was widespread and appeared to facilitate ongoing contact between teachers and students. It was advised that teachers should strengthen their students' proficiency in speaking English through small-group discussions, exploratory talks, and debates, as well as public speaking drills, to improve their communication abilities.

Modupeola (2013) researched to thoroughly examine the translanguaging phenomenon to determine its significance in the teaching and learning of English and other subjects in Nigeria. The study revealed that translanguaging was critical in the teaching and learning of language at the foundation (basic) level to pique the learners' interest. However, as the learner progressed to higher levels of learning, such a strategy had to be gradually reduced.

2.19.3 Empirical studies in Tanzania

Kinyanduka & Kiwara (2013) investigated how the language of instruction affects educational quality. In classroom teaching and learning, the majority of students (71.4%) preferred Kiswahili to English. This finding lends credence to the argument those students feel oppressed when they are taught in a language that is not their native tongue (home language). Such a practice tends to sour the relationship between teachers and students.

According to Johannes (2017), Tutunjian (2014) & Makgato (2014), a few studies have enlightened that translanguaging accelerated the learning performance of

secondary school students. Nonetheless, the investigation delved deeper into the significance of language translanguaging in teaching and learning.

Furthermore, Shartiely (2016) investigated translanguaging in interactions in university classrooms at the University of Dar es Salaam. Translanguaging was perceived as a normal practice among multilingual or bilingual users from all walks of life. The study revealed that the capability to shift between English and Kiswahili in the language classroom was regularly practised in the lecture rooms. The forms of translanguaging applied are intra-sentential and inter-sentential mainly to motivate learners to communicate with each other, deliver the meaning of Subjects, elucidate, and control learners'/students' behaviour, and encourage learners when studying. This practice has been realized as a helpful tool in multilingual or bilingual societies like those in Tanzania to control teaching and learning in Tanzanian higher education.

Johannes (2017) investigated the impact of code-switching and code-mixing on English learning in secondary schools in Tanzania's Rombo district. The findings revealed that translanguaging and code-mixing had an impact on students' poor academic performance in exams. In other words, the use of L2, namely English, undermined the learners' confidence and competence.

Mwinsheikhe (2007) conducted a quasi-experimental class with three groups: one taught in Kiswahili (treatment 1), another in English (treatment L2), and a control group taught in translanguaging (the norm). According to the findings of the study, more students in English medium classrooms blamed poor performance on LoI. They

also revealed that using English as the LoI resulted in low learner participation. Translanguaging was also discovered to be a coping strategy when LoI is not L1.

Rubagumya (2003) researched English medium primary schools in Tanzania. The primary goal of his research was to look into what was going on in selected English medium primary schools in terms of the language of teaching and learning, as well as knowledge acquisition. The findings revealed that the majority of teachers and students in English medium primary schools were inept at using English as LoI. This, in turn, harmed teaching and learning because both teachers and students found it difficult to communicate. As a result, it was clear that using English as the LoI had implications for future use of the language and teaching of other content area subjects. Rubagumya also revealed that the majority of parents and guardians sent their children to English medium schools to study and master English regardless of whether or not the children comprehended what was taught in content subject areas.

May (2014) conducted a comparative study of translanguaging use in urban and rural schools in Arusha, Tanzania. The study discovered that teachers used translanguaging illegally while teaching. Roy-Campbell & Qorro (1997) also demonstrated extensive code-switching between English and Kiswahili and recommended that teachers be allowed to translanguaging, teachers be professionally trained, more books be purchased for students, and Kiswahili and English be incorporated into primary and secondary education curricula.

2.20   A theoretical framework

The research was carried out with the assistance of Vygotsky's (1978) Socio-cultural theory. Vygotsky is widely regarded as one of the scholastic psychologists who invented socio-cultural philosophy. The philosophy proposes collective communication outcomes that aim at endless stage-by-stage variations on the child's feelings and behaviour, which may differ significantly across societies. Fundamentally, the author's philosophy proposes that language development is determined by interaction with other people as well as the resources provided by society to assist children in developing their personal opinions and understanding of the world. In 1978, the author clarified three methods for passing down a traditional instrument from one person to the next.

 The most important is the derivative or imitative learning process, in which an individual attempts to emulate or duplicate another person. The following method is through trained or coached learning or education, which includes recalling the guidelines from the trainer/instructor and applying the guidelines to manage or direct one's deed. The final method by which traditional tools are taken or transferred to different people is cooperative learning. This includes a group of people attempting to understand one another as well as working together as a group to study a specific skill. The statement above was confirmed by learners in the classroom who spoke languages they heard daily. This means that learners could imitate the linguistics featured in the classroom. Socio-cultural founders (Gumperz & Hymes, 1972; Ervin-Tripp & Mitchell-Kernan, 1977; Gumperz, 1982) support the idea of language and traditional information being created through each other so that the linguistic

acquiring learners or grown-ups are dynamic and discerning negotiators in all procedures. In terms of the effect of collective practice on linguistic proficiency, it is seen as a result of linguistic diversity in which children are stimulated discretely (indirectly) or directly to study. Children regularly cooperate with other children (Schieffelin1990) thus, their interactions with adults and other children (being in the household, communal, or school room) are socially structured and entrenched in traditional connotation structures. As a result, broods investigate linguistics in societal, traditional, and radical settings, which limit the language practices that children receive and then practice. The linguistic learner is aware of the study of linguistics, traditional values, and collective manners, which is an endless, albeit unstructured procedure (Gegeo, 2004).

Schieffelin discovered that a child creates a group of language and behaviour activities that assist children to converse with and exist amongst fellow children in a specific traditional background (1990). Researchers discovered that learners study traditional values primarily through linguistically noticeable measures. Furthermore, the environment, honesty, and appearances of where learners originate aid learners in comprehending oral signs with specific meanings. Scholars such as Neo-Vygotskians (Wertsch, 1985; Rogoff, 1990) built on the argument that children/learners develop advanced command intellectual purposes, including language abilities, through community collaboration with elders or otherwise more experienced peers. This has an independent effect on these abilities and functions. The most important communications take place within the learner's ZPD, implying that knowledge has a marginal influence on the pupil's self-regulation ability (Vygotsky, 1978). These

researchers believe that a learner's understanding of linguistic and domain concepts grows as a result of the daily practices in which they engage and through which they create Mental Event Representations (MERs).

Various academicians have successfully applied the theory in assessing various components of teaching and learning. For example, Thompson (2013) used the theory to investigate the social mediation of collaborative activity in the negotiation of meaning. From his study, he found that the development of a learner's writing abilities needs active intervention by a teacher/instructor within a constructed zone of development. He also asserted that writing is a located activity structure that includes a dialectical tension between belief and the act of confirmation. The study, however, was based on writing development and was carried out for adult learners.

Furthermore, Rublik (2017) successfully applied the theory to investigate the connection between culture and language acquisition. The investigator found that theories of bilingualism/multilingualism and language attainment have been strongly influenced by Vygotsky's understanding of the environment and its significance. Rublik acknowledged the way the theory was appropriate in terms of teaching and learning English as a second language (ESL). The study findings further conclude that learners' natural culture and novel culture will undeniably add valuable understanding to the existing language acquisition theory and practice.

Williams (1994) invented the word translanguaging through multilingual colleges found in Wales. The method of linguistic education was additionally researched and then supported by publications of Baker et al. (2003) & García (2009). García (2009)

additionally investigated the practice of more than one language in New York's English-Spanish multilingual institutions and translanguaging as an action executed over multilingual by retrieving various language characteristics or other numerous approaches that are defined as independent tongues. This is done to exhaust the possibilities of unrestrained prospects. The practice of more than one language while teaching and learning is based upon the use of multilingual, which may be freely noticeable to create a sense of practitioners' bilingual globe.

The practice of more than one language during learning and teaching enables learners to appeal to the tongues learners discern to access novel tongues or else converse the sentences intended by the means of over a single linguistic. Opposing the general belief, interchanging among tongues, aimed at communicating displays the need for comprehending the way tongues operate and disclosing an emerging proficiency in various tongues. Further, investigators such as García (2009) have argued that translanguaging is not a symbol for linguistic misperception but assign of being conscious of various language structures in producing determined connotations. Therefore, as soon as kids practice many languages at a go, learners might interchange words from the main tongue (L1) at the period which children discern not in learners' second language (L2). For that reason, a multilingual English-Dutch child could state: The instructor provided a difficult exercise to perform in the classroom at present. The procedure is therefore stated as gap-filling (Paradis & Genesee 1995). The optimistic opinion about collaboration about the languages for communication, which is understood as being a mutually normal and advantageous education procedure, results in an enormous change from former

educational thought. In previous years, multilingual teachers could influence the language to be practised by being educated independently from single another to eliminate cross-pollution. Previous education policymakers and other researchers considered that if different languages were to be interchanged and mixed, they would result in learners or kids developing one language with elements of the second language but differed separately. The idea discussed of separating languages was seen as common sense by group members in the academic field with the inclusion of teachers. The idea was not effectively researched to assess the effectiveness and accuracy of the belief (Butzkamm, (1998).

This idea of separatist belief was the one that catalysed the system of monolingualism among many societies leading to monolingual education in the previous years. This approach was applied in American and Canadian schools from the 1960s up to today. There are damaging assumptions built upon multilingualism, especially in the mentioned countries where they perceive multilingual education as a hindrance teaching approach. Although some positive changes have emerged in the countries that have tried to promote multilingual education, the traditional belief that monolingual education is still the best practice is still a hindrance to the evolving multilingual education (Cummins, 2005). They are as follows: Instruction must be completed in the target language (TL) minus recourse to the learners' L1.

Translation between L1 and L2 has no room in the teaching and learning of language or literacy. Reinforcement of translation in L2 teaching and learning is regarded as a deterioration, connecting back to the discredited grammar-translation technique…or simultaneous translation technique. Inside L2 absorption and bilingual/dual language

platforms, the dual languages must be strictly separate: instituting dual solitudes (Cummins, 2005) or parallel monolingualism (Heller, 1999).

The above assumption contradicts Cummins' language interdependence as the author believes that languages can co-exist and live within each other and are, therefore, interdependent. By assumptions in 1979, the author went ahead and validated the investigation in 2017 that language techniques such as reading and tone can shift from students' first language or mother tongue to the next language, which may be the language of instruction (L2).

Consequently, Cummins campaigns for language teaching and learning classrooms, where L1-L2 similarities and differences can be discovered side-by-side to create cross-lingual transfer further effective for L2 gaining. Beneath this perspective, learning to comprehend how tongues work, by discovering the differences between their philological structures, is not considered to be an undesirable procedure. Reasonably, differences between tongues are reframed as 'teachable moments, which are capable of improving learners' knowledge of numerous phonological systems. When learners study supplementary languages, likenesses in a mid-language can of course be utilised as a knowledge scaffold or instrument to hasten L2 learning. When L1 and L2 languages work contrarily from one another, Cummins contends that learners necessary to be made aware of these differences.

In current years, a numeral of investigations has been directed at 'translanguaging' or 'code-mixing' practised by learners concurrently obtaining numerous languages before the age of three. Specifically, in the study which concentrated on

translanguaging in native Inuktitut and English children, learners discovered that its frequent practice did not lead to language misperception or the mixing of two grammatical systems into one.

Learner's bilingual or multilingual translanguaging is grammatically inhibited since children or learners regularly combine the dual languages at points in a statement where the grammar of both languages is concordant. They rarely mix at points where the grammar is not concordant (Genesee & Paradis, 1995) as referenced by Nicoladis & Paradis 2012).

This investigation, unique among numerous in the language acquisition arena, acknowledged the level of accurateness that new bilingual kids demonstrated when obtaining their first languages concurrently (Zwanziger, et al., 2002). They revealed that when children applied a grammatical law to their languages, it was because the rule functioned similarly or 'concordantly' in both structures. Learners were, therefore, capable to access grammatical restrictions from each linguistic structure and apply them with a high grade of success to the accurate language system.

In addition, Meisel (2009) & McCracken (2017) contend that when 'instantaneous bilingual' makes linguistic errors, they designate where they are in the development of their language schemes. Learners normally apply the grammatical restrictions they are learning to the tongues they belong to, though, it takes a while for them to develop into the complete grammatical awareness, that an adult language user has. Consequently, there does not seem to be a stage in a child's bilingual expansion when grammatical limitations do not operate (Meisel, 2009 & McCracken, 2017).

The theory has not been conceded without criticism. For example, Chaiklin (2003) argues for the lack of clearness on the ZPD mainly by not enlightening how development occurs. Similarly, Lui & Matthews (2005) perceive that the theory disrespects the role of separate learners and claims collectiveness. They further discuss that the theory is socially and culturally inadequate. It is not practised in all communal and cultural collections. Further, Saifer (2010) observes that some sociocultural feature promoted by the theory involves a superior level of cognitive, social, and oral functioning than following explicit, exterior, and immutable guidelines. Disparagements, however, do not distress the theory to be applied in this proposed study. Furthermore, the study concentrated on the construction of cultural elements mostly related to the natural surroundings of the learner's surroundings, age, culture, language and lifetime experience. As validated in the conceptual structure, the study applied the features in the framework to examine translanguaging practices.

2.21　Conceptual framework

A **conceptual   framework** demonstrates   the   expected   relationship   between variables. It defines the related objectives for the research process and maps out how they come together to draw coherent conclusions.
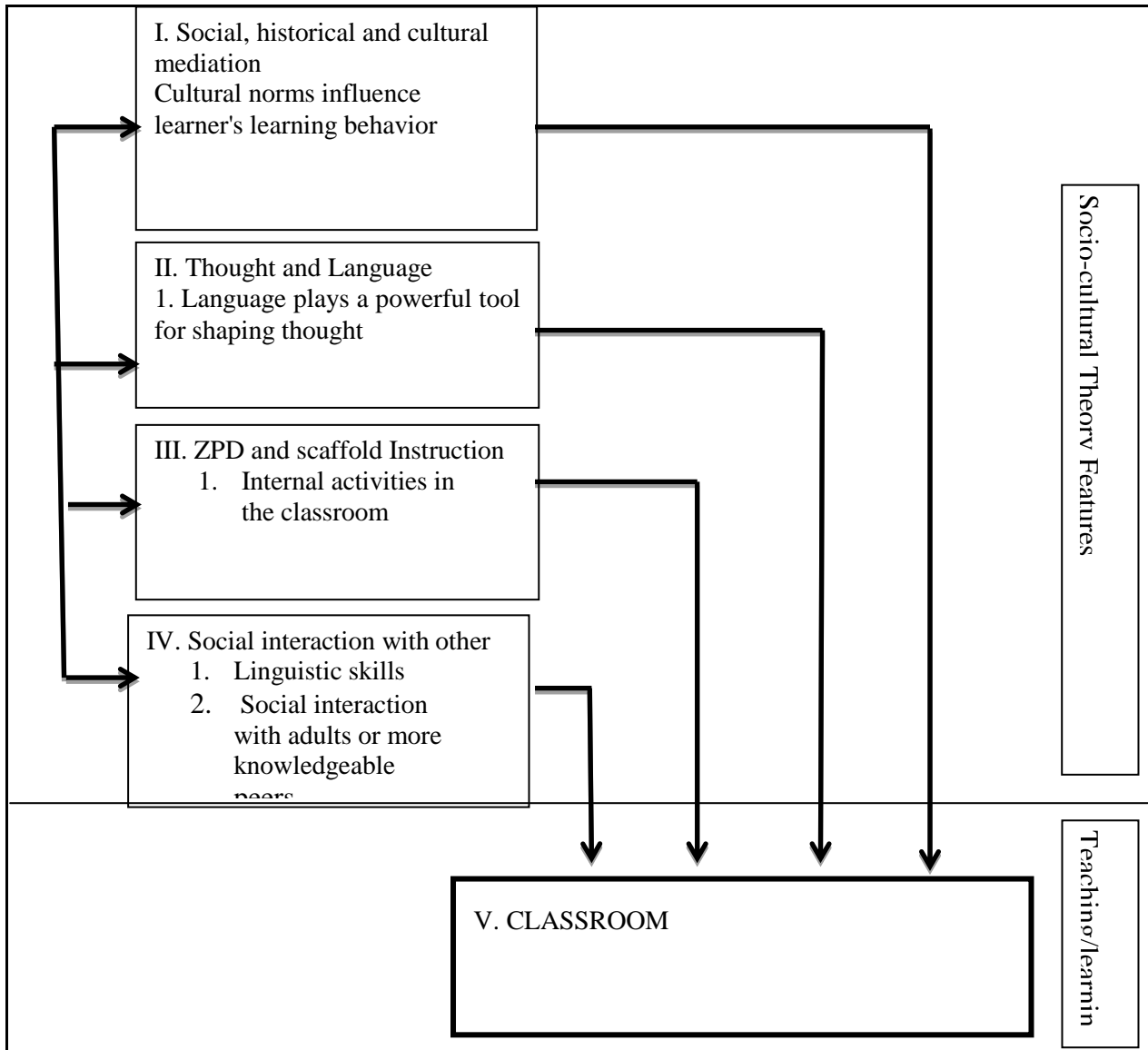
Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework for the study

Source: Adopted from social-cultural theory by Vygotsky (1978)

As illustrated in Figure 2.1, the conceptual framework developed for this study consists of four variables that might influence the use of sociocultural theory in classroom teaching and learning. These categories are social, historical and cultural mediation. Thought and Language, ZPD and scaffold instruction as well as social interaction with others. There are also variables under each category. These variables

are supposed to be the major interactional and collaborative activities that trigger the use of translanguaging in the actual learning process. Therefore, these variables were observed to learn how they influence the use of the learner's first language in teaching and learning in the classroom.

Lantolf &Thorne (2009) have reacted against the sociocultural theory claiming that the Zone of Proximal Development is a unique philosophy of the developing process. Along the same line the conceptual instrument, that teachers can practice, is to comprehend features of learners developing capabilities which exist in the initial phases of development. The theory is also perceived as a problem-solving technique. If it is applied practically by trainers, it could support them in producing educational circumstances on behalf of the learners to support learners' intellectual growth in the future years. Personality Regulation Phase: Once a learner reaches this last stage of his or her cognitive development, the learner develops into being capable of achieving the knowledge undertakings through marginal or without external influence.

Vygotsky emphasised that the thoughts are not taken as distinct from the collection. This means that the author implied that knowing is comparative to the circumstance in which one knows and discovers oneself. In sequence, the philosophy does not recognise that folks could grow beyond community customs built through the person's capability to take individual comprehension. Those folks or persons could comprise talented learners. The authors' discussed philosophy seems not to look as if it applies to entirely communal and ethnic collections. Therefore, community collections might not be complete and equivalent to all learners being capable of

increasing the similar connotation of commitment. The presentation of the theory under application is further challenging. The author unfortunately could not provide sufficient details concerning the efficient application of zonal proximal development in the classrooms (Shayer, 2003). Therefore, Matusov & Hayes (2000) propose that the action in which a learner is unprepared to be conversant enough will lead to applying the person's opinions and will not disturb the routine of the learner's activities (i.e., collective restriction).

Mitchell & Myles (2004) argued stating that the utmost sociocultural studies of linguistic growth contained by the Zonal Proximal Development concentrated upon separate verbal or semantic substances as per the customary or traditional syntax. The concept of ZPD has been criticised by Lambert & Clyde (2000) who stated, 'We sense or feel that the author's ZPD gives a constrained opinion of studying and learning procedures as well as decreasing the pupil's responsibility to single inactiveness and dependency on the mature. The authors in fact could not consider the presentation of ZPD in linguistic knowledge. As investigators, Clyde and Lambert were inhibited by the opinion of ZPD. The authors had conveyed conclusions to defend their furnishing views. From the time when Vygotsky (1997) opposed the responsibility of the instructor upon the ZPD mainly to nature and style, the communal environments of the learner and child could not openly inspire the learner in intellectual growth. The author could not practice the term scaffolding upon the theory.

2.22   Synthesis and research gaps

The reviewed studies were mainly based on the English language as a medium of instruction in secondary education (Kinyanduka & Kiwara, 2013; Johannes, 2017; Mwinsheikhe, 2007), also Rubagumya 2003 carried out a study on English as a medium of instruction in primary school. Only Shartiely (2016) focussed on translanguaging in higher learning.

Based on the reviewed studies, the use of L2 alone (English language) led to poor comprehension and resulted in poor performance and learners preferred the use of Kiswahili to English. Most of the studies reviewed were mainly in secondary education, involving English and Kiswahili and not Learners' L1 in rural areas (Ethnic community languages). Therefore this study tended to bridge the gap by exploring the practice and attitudes of translanguaging in standard one primary school in rural areas.

The literature has also revealed that most of the studies on translanguaging were not done in Tanzania (Katan, & Taibi, (2021); Woldfarardidt,2001; Modupeola,2013) and those done in the country either concentrated on language learning or were enclosed in the middle to higher levels of education but not in standard one classroom especially in rural areas, for example (Makalela,2014; Madiba, 2010; Tutunjian, 2014). Thus, such gaps need to be addressed by linguists. Further, studies on translanguaging were mainly between English and Kiswahili, very few studies were done on translanguaging between native languages and L2 for example Mchazime, 2001. The reviewed studies indicate that most studies were either quantitative (Cantoni,2007) or mixed studies leaving a gap for qualitative method use

on translanguaging. Limited studies applied Social- sociocultural theory as a basis
for their studies.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1   Introduction

This chapter presents a series of activities aimed at collecting data, classifying, categorising, and generating valid findings from the data collected. The collection of data was carried out for the specific objectives of the investigation presented in Chapter One. The chapter is an attempt to describe the design of the research process showing how the researcher identified the research area, determined the research design and approaches, drew participants, identified instruments of data collection, and how data and the participants were safeguarded to ensure valid conclusions.

This chapter is divided into twelve sections, namely;   an introduction,   the research design, the research philosophy, the research approach, the area of the study, the population of the study,   sample size and sampling techniques,   the data collection techniques,   data analysis procedure,   validity and reliability of the research study, reliability of the study, and finally,   ethical considerations.

3.2   Research design

The study is on the exploration of practice and attitudes of translanguaging in standard one primary school classrooms in Rungwe District rural areas. The researcher used a case study research design to represent other rural settings with bilingual/multilingualism except few community settings that use Kiswahili as their L1 such as coastal regions and metropolitan areas. A case study involves a detailed and intensive analysis of a particular event, situation, organization, or social unit

(Schoch, 2020). The case study research design was used by the researcher to explore deep information about the study.

3.3 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to a belief about how data about the phenomenon under the study should be gathered, analysed and used (Silverman, 2015). This study observed the interpretive philosophy. Interpretive/ constructionists assume that for any phenomenon, there is a reality though the reality cannot be measured directly rather it can be perceived by a person who views it through the lens of his or her prior experience, knowledge, and expectations. In that case, the lens affects what people see and the way they understand what they find. Hence, this philosophy argues that what people know is not objective but rather subjective - filtered by people's experiences. Through this philosophy, the researcher interpreted participants' information collected through observation and interviews.

3.4 Research approach

This study adopted a qualitative research approach. The qualitative research approach is descriptive research that considers people in certain aspects; such as human behaviour in a given context. Qualitative research seeks to answer questions about why and how people behave in certain ways. It provides in-depth information about human behaviour (Aliaga and Gunderson, 2005). The researcher used the qualitative research approach because this approach is used in studies that involve phenomena that require to be described as they naturally occur in a certain context Since the aim of this study was to explore the application of translanguaging practice

in multilingual standard one primary school classrooms, the study employed descriptions of data collected from natural settings.

3.5   Area of the study

The study was carried out in the Mbeya Region, particularly Rungwe District. The district consists of three divisions, namely Tukuyu Township, Ukukwe, and Pakati where there are 290 primary schools. The district has a mix of rural and urban characteristics. The urban wards comprise all wards in Tukuyu Township. Rural wards include Pakati and Ukukwe divisions where the field study was carried out. According to the National Housing and Population Census (2012), Rungwe's population was 339,157with Kiwira ward having the highest population of 25,244 people (10.4%). Pakati and Ukukwe divisions were selected because the majority of people speak Kinyakyusa as their native language. In these wards, people carry out their socio-economic activities in Kinyakyusa and have less contact and influence with Kiswahili – a formal language and educational medium in primary schools. Justification for the selection of Rungwe District especially the Ukukwe and Pakati divisions is that the villages in which the study was done are typically rural multilingual. In the rural Rungwe District, as with many other remote rural environments in Tanzania, exposure to Kiswahili is highly limited.

Another advantage is that the researcher speaks Kinyakyusa, the main ethnic community language used in the areas, and comes from the research areas. This means that the researcher could easily mingle with the people in the areas of study as a member of the speech community. This simplified the process of collecting relevant data from the respondents since the study involved observation and

interview methods. The collection of data was simplified since learners in standard one who were not fluent in Kiswahili could participate in interviews in their native language.

Location of Ukukwe and Pakati Division in District Rungwe Figure 3.1 shows the divisions in Rungwe District where the study was carried out i.e Pakati and Bukukwe.
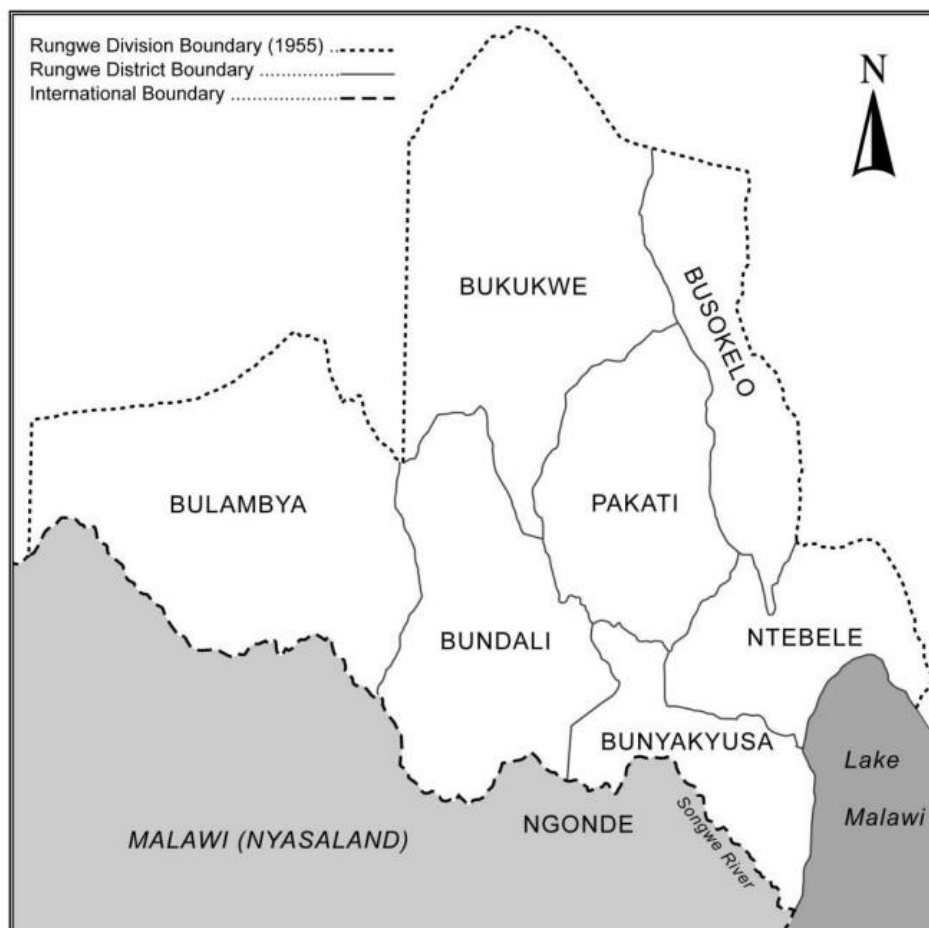
Figure 3.1: Location of Ukukwe and Pakati Division in Rungwe District

Source: M.A. Ngowi, Cartographic Unit, University of Dar es Salaam, 2014.

3.6   The population of the study

In this study, the population was all standard one learners and their teachers in primary schools in rural areas. Standard learners are the ones that use their native language in their homes which differs from the language of instruction used at school. In that case, there is a high possibility of learners mixing their L1 and L2 during the learning process. Standard one teachers are likely the ones who meet with learners who are less familiar with the language of instruction (L2) and sometimes the situation forces them to use the learners' L1 to allow comprehension of the subject. Kombo and Tromp (2006) suggest that people or things that are used for providing research data should be related to the topic under study. The study included a population of 160 learners and 8 teachers from standard one rural primary schools. The total population of both teachers and learners from selected standard one rural primary schools was 168.

3.7   Sample size and sampling techniques

3.7.1 Sample size

A sample is a portion of the complete population, whereas sampling techniques are the numerous procedures used to choose a subset of people or things from the population to obtain more detailed information and to take greater care to minimize non-responses (Mlay, 2010). Teachers and learners in the standard one classrooms in four primary schools in two divisions were the study's target group. The researcher asked the assistance from local district and ward authorities in identifying these four schools. The main consideration was the practice of multilingualism, accessibility, and possession of representative characteristics of rural environments. In each

standard one class, five boys and five girls were selected purposively. In every

purposively selected school, the selection to participate in the interview is based on

their ability to practice two or more languages. Also in each purposively selected

school, two standard teachers (male and female) were purposely selected based on

their multilingual, experiences of teaching standard one in rural areas, knowledge of

the learners' native language, and their readiness to participate in the study. In each

of the four selected schools, 10 learners (five males and five females) and 2 teachers

from standard one rural primary schools were purposively selected from a class of

about 40 learners based on their knowledge of multilingualism and gender. The

distribution of the samples is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: The Sample size for the standard one teachers and pupils

Division	Name of school	No. of classes	No. of learners selected	No. of teachers
Ukukwe	School KP	1	10	2
	School GY	1	10	2
Pakati	School MS	1	10	2
	School NJ	1	10	2
TOTAL		4	40	8

3.7.2   Sampling procedure

Purposive sampling was used for this study because the researcher was aware of the

requirements of the current research problem. The sampling procedure was

acceptable since it allowed the researcher to select participants specifically to address

the research problem they were familiar with participants' accessibility (Leedy, 1989; Neuman, 2006).

3.8   Data collection techniques

Data collection is a methodical process of gathering specific information to proffer solutions to relevant questions. It focused on finding out if there is a particular problem. Data is collected to be further subjected to hypothesis testing which seeks to explain a phenomenon. Data collection was achieved by using specific tools or research instruments.

Data collection techniques the study dragged into the study included interviews and observations (Non-participants). Below is a detailed discussion of interviews and observations.

3.8.1   Observation

Observation enables the researcher to get data on the physical settings (the physical environment and its organisation); and human settings (the organisation of the people, the characteristics and make-up of the groups or individuals being observed). Observation is also suitable for interactional settings (the interactions that are taking place, formal, informal, planned or unplanned, verbal or non-verbal); and programme settings, that is, the resources and their organization, pedagogical styles, that is, curriculum and its organisation (Neuman, 2006). In this study, the researcher used one classroom observation form as an observational guide (see Appendix A). The form was specifically designed for the researcher to observe translanguaging strategies (interactional and contextual adjustments) in trying to make their lessons

comprehensible to learners. The observation method helped the researcher to see the realities of the translanguaging practice by observing facial expressions, freedom during translanguaging, and frequency of translanguaging during teaching and learning from both learners and teachers. For observation, the researcher attended three (3) periods in each lesson at every school.

3.8.2 Interviews

Interviews are sessions in which a researcher holds one-on-one conversations with an interviewee. The researcher prepared a set of questions that guided the conversation and expected answers to the items of the interview that led to the research findings. Researchers distinguish structured interviews and semi-structured interviews. Unstructured interviews have maximum flexibility and minimum input from the interviewer (Dörnyei, 2007). In unstructured interviews, the researcher (interviewer) creates a relaxed atmosphere in which the participants may reveal more than they would in formal contexts.

This study used semi-structured interviews. This is an interview which is based on the use of an interview guide. That is a written list of a few questions or topics that need to be covered in the interview session (Kombo and Tromp, 2006).

Thus, both teachers and standard one pupils were interviewed in an attempt to elicit the answers to the specific objectives of the study. Interviews were conducted to enable the participants to provide detailed explanations regarding translanguaging as a strategy for simplifying the teaching and learning process. Teachers were interviewed in their offices to understand their knowledge about the strategies and

get their views and opinions regarding the role of translanguaging to their learners. Each teacher whose lesson was observed was also interviewed to justify what was observed in the classrooms. All interviews were carried out in school environments on appointed dates to avoid disrupting school curriculum activities. The researcher conducted these interviews by using the interview guides prepared in advance (see Appendix B).

The appointment for interviewing learners was made between the interviewer and the teachers of respective classes to seek permission to spare some lesson minutes for the interview. The teachers then introduced the interviewer to the learners and asked them to participate in the study voluntarily. The average time for the interview was 5 minutes for each learner.

Learners, on the other hand, were interviewed to get their views and opinions on their translanguaging practice. The interviews also sought to know if they noticed and preferred any strategy used by their teachers when speaking and interacting with them. Note-taking and audio recording techniques were mainly used to record the interviews.

The strength of this interviewing technique is that it was flexible, consisting of both closed and open-ended questions. That is, after the teacher's responses, the researcher was free to ask additional open-ended questions on points that needed more clarification.

3.9   Data analysis procedure

Research data was analyzed through thematic analysis which is an accessible, flexible, and increasingly useful method of qualitative data analysis. The research themes were created through a thorough overview of all collected data before starting to analyze a single item. In this step, the researcher reads the data collected through observations and interviews and then summarises initial notes. These initial notes resulted in codes. The researcher intensively looked over the codes assigning themes. The created themes were carefully compared with the collected data to confirm if those themes represented the collected data. After justification of the themes, themes were reformulated exactly and data were analyzed based on those themes.

3.10   Validity and reliability of the research study

3.10.1 Validity of the study

The validity of the study determines whether the outcomes obtained meet all of the requirements of the technical study process. The researcher used several recommended approaches to ensure validity, including using multiple sources of evidence, pre-testing the interview questions and observation guides to ensure their relevance in data collection, and reaching conclusions based on the data collected.

3.10.2 Reliability of the study

The study's reliability ensures that the method of data collection yields consistent and reliable results. The method used to ensure the reliability of this study was based on the study objectives and a review of the literature. Furthermore, the use of significant information gathering and data analysis procedures about the study problem, purposes, and questions that ensure dependability is acknowledged. The study also

employed the recommended approaches which are purposive sampling and sampling unit selection (Yin, 2009).

3.11   Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations and moral practices were followed during the data collection phase to safeguard the participants from potential harm brought on by their involvement in the study. Several methods were employed to ensure that the research met ethical standards: First, the researcher asked the Open University of Tanzania for a research introduction (permission) letter (See Appendix D). The researcher used the letter to introduce himself to local government officials in the district where data were obtained, Rungwe District, in the Mbeya Region. The researcher secured letters of introduction addressed to the relevant divisional offices and school heads from which the data were gathered. The research authorization letters were followed for all data-gathering procedures. The researcher made sure that the research subjects were treated with respect. He explained to the interviewees the goal of the study. Participants who wanted to discontinue their involvement in the research at any point were free to do so because there was no coercion used by the researcher during the data-gathering process. No participant was asked to divulge her/his identity during data collection, and the names of the participants were held in the strictest confidence. Finally, the researcher avoided the practice of paying participants to recruit teachers or learners for the study.

CHAPTER FOUR:

FINDINGS/RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1   Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses data from the field. The study sought to explore the practice and attitudes of translanguaging in standard one classrooms in Rungwe District (Mbeya Region). The general objective of this study was to explore the application of translanguaging strategy in multilingual standard one classrooms, especially in rural areas and the value they add to the teaching and learning process. The data analyzed and presented in this chapter were collected through observations and interviews with pupils and teachers in the aforementioned class. Four (4) schools were purposively selected to take part in the study. The schools that were selected based on their location (rural) and the existence of multilingual learners were Njugilo (NJ), Kipande (KP), Masukulu (MS), and Goye (GY). A total of Forty (40) standard one pupils and eight (8) teachers participated in the study. The researcher collected, presented, and analyzed data based on the specific objectives namely; to find out contexts in which translanguaging practice is used in standard one classrooms, to identify the causes of translanguaging in standard one classrooms, and to assess teacher's attitudes toward translanguaging practice during the teaching and learning process.

This chapter is divided into sections. Section 4.2 presents the context in which the translanguaging strategy is used, section 4.3 presents the causes of translanguaging, and section 4.4 presents the teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging pedagogies in

their teaching and learning process. The next section presents the contexts in which the translanguaging strategy is used in standard one classroom.

4.2 Contexts in which translanguaging practice is used in standard one classrooms

The first objective was to find out contexts in which the translanguaging strategy is used in standard one classrooms. Data for this objective were collected through observations and interviews. The researcher investigated the contexts that made teachers and learners opt for translanguaging among standard one pupils through interview and observation methods with respective participants.

Table 4.1: The contexts of translanguaging among teachers and pupils

Context	Observations	Interview teachers			Interview learners			
	TRANS	KI	L1	TRANS	KI	L1	TRANS	Mean
Greetings	3 (12.5.5%)	5(62.5%)	1(12.5%)	2(25%)	25(62%)	5(13%)	10(25%)	26.78%
Explaining lessons	3 (12.5%)	3 (37.5%)	1 (12.5%)	4 (50%)	21 (52%)	07 (18%)	12 (31%)	30.50%
Drawing the attention	9 (37.5%)	4 (50%)	2 (25%)	2 (25%)	19(48%)	08(21%)	13(31%)	33.92%
Explaining difficult terms	12 (50%)	2 (25%)	4 (50%)	2 (25%)	20(50%)	07(17.5%)	13(32.5%)	37.57%
Asking questions	9(37.5%)	4(50%	1(12.5%)	3(37.5%)	17(43%)	08(20%)	15(37%)	33.90%
Summarizing lessons	12 (50%)	4 (50%)	2 (25%)	2 (25%)	22(55%)	04(9%)	14(36%)	28.57%
Dismissing the class/saying goodbye	6 (25%)	4 (50%)	2 (25%)	2 (25%)	25(61%)	05(13%)	10(26%)	34.28%

Key: KI Kiswahili, L1= First Language, TRANS= Translanguaging.

Source: Researcher's field data (2020)

4.2.1   Greetings

Through interviews, out of forty pupils, twenty-five (62%) said that they used Kiswahili when greeting; five (13%) participants said that they used L1 while ten (25%) participants said that they used both Kiswahili and L1 in greeting. In addition,

teachers reported having used Kiswahili in greeting, five (62.5%) teachers said that they used Kiswahili when greeting, while two teachers translanguaging in both Kiswahili and L1, Lastly, one (12.5%) teacher used L1 when greeting pupils.

In addition, the findings were also collected through the observation method and it was ascertained that during the teaching and learning process, the observer noted three scenarios that involved translanguaging mainly when greeting. Therefore, translanguaging was practised in standard one classes of rural areas by both teachers and learners. The greeting was an important aspect that influenced translanguaging as teachers wanted to make the opening of lessons interesting, this also influenced learners to translanguaging during greeting with fellow students as well as with some teachers. In an interview with the teachers, one of the teachers stated:

> *I sometimes translanguaging immediately after I enter the classroom, especially when greeting my learners. This opening conversation in both L1 and Kiswahili encourages learners to feel that they are part and parcel of the conversation and thus improves their confidence during the teaching and learning process.*

Also through interviews with the learners, one of the learners reported that;

> *Our teacher sometimes uses both L1 and Kiswahili when she begins the lesson, especially when greeting us and she tells us not to fear to participate in the lesson.*

In addition to the above findings, through observation, one teacher was seen and heard stating the following:

Good morning learners! Are you all fine? Today we are going to study living things, which in our L1 language are called.....

Indeed the findings reveal that translanguaging was practiced in standard one classrooms in rural primary schools, especially during the greeting. An introduction of greeting into L1 in line with the language of teaching and instruction seemed to create a conducive atmosphere for standard one learners to effectively participate in the study.

To support this finding, several studies have previously demonstrated how greeting through translanguaging, and introduction of the lesson in L1 can stimulate pupils to participate during the teaching and learning process effectively. To support this finding, Sembiante and Gort (2015) investigated how translanguaging practice assisted early language development among multilingual pupils. All the investigators explained that translanguaging is significant even though the policy of language always does not favour minority languages. The teachers went on to say that artificial restrictions guarantee that pupils attain their education in multilingual as much attention is observed by learners where the L1 is used by teachers during teaching.

Therefore regardless of the artificial restriction which involved the policy not allowing the learners L1 to be used during the teaching and learning process, it was being practised in standard one classes due to its importance that was revealed by both teachers and learners in the selected standard one classes of rural areas of Rungwe district.

4.2.2   Explaining lessons

The data revealed that teachers translanguaging during lesson presentations. In other words, teachers used L1 and L2 (LoI) when explaining lessons. Classroom observations showed that out of twenty four classroom observations, three (12.5%) observations revealed teachers translanguaging when explaining lessons, especially in the course of the introduction of a new lesson.

On the other hand, interviews with standard one pupils in four schools under the study revealed that out of forty standard one pupils involved in this study, twenty one (52%) pupils said they used Kiswahili when explaining what the teacher asked during teaching and learning, seven (18%) pupils said that they used L1 when explaining lesson during teaching and learning, and twelve (31%) pupils said that they used both Kiswahili and L1 when explaining the lesson in classrooms. On the teachers' side, out of eight teachers that were interviewed from the four schools, four(50%) teachers said that they used Kiswahili during presentations of lessons, two (25%) teachers said that they used L1, while two (25%) teachers said that they used both Kiswahili and L1 (translanguaging) during teaching standard one classrooms. Explaining the lesson was an important aspect that strongly led both teachers and learners to practice translanguaging regardless of whether it was allowed or not. The practice of translanguaging in standard one was mainly based on its importance or necessity to do and the entire process was to make the process of teaching and learning easy.

For example, the researcher through observation, witnessed a standard one teacher at a school in NJ while teaching Arithmetic as follows:

Teacher: Leo tutajifunza hesabu za kujumlisha.Je mnaelewa maana ya kujumlisha? (Today we are going to learn Arithmetic on the topic of addition. Do you understand the meaning of addition?)

Wanafunzi: Kimyaa! (Silence!)

Teacher: Hamuelewi maana ya kujumlisha? (Don't you understand what is addition?

Wanafunzi: Ndiyo! (Yes!)

Mwalimu: Ninaposema kujumlisha ni sawa mnaposema ukongelapo kamo kwa Kinyakyusa (When I say addition is like ukongelapo kamo in Nyakyusa language)

Wanafunzi: Aaah! Mwalimu ngimba lahisi itolo! Tunaelewa. (Aaah! Teacher, it is very simple! We have understood)

In addition to the above statement, through an interview, the teacher noted as follows, confirming that translanguaging occurred in standard one classroom:

We sometimes trans language in L1 and L2 when explaining the lesson which is when learners fail to grasp the language of teaching and instruction since learners have not yet acquired most words in L2. Translanguaging during the lesson also helps the learners to advance in the L2.

Translanguaging was an important practice to standard one learners as it helped them to explain the lessons, this was two-sided by both teachers who wanted to clarify what they were teaching. They translanguaging sentences they believed were difficult for learners to understand on their own. In the same way, learners were too

translanguaging to explain contents they felt were challenging to explain in L2. Therefore the practice of translanguaging was both intentional and unintentional but the practice was mainly to enable effective teaching and learning processes.

Several previous studies are also in line with this finding, for example, Mlelwa, (2016) and Wei, (2018) through their studies they revealed that translanguaging was one of the strategies advocated by scholars to simplify teaching and learning in multilingual communities. These scholars believed that the learning process was made effective in a multilingual society where translanguaging was practised. Similarly, in Cameroon, an investigation was conducted at lower primary schools and revealed that when children study in their L1, their understanding and comprehension are greatly improved and enhanced. This investigation was longitudinal and based on a bilingual education programme involving a language called Kom. The findings revealed that Grade 1 Kom learners of Kom had a higher score than other pupils taught in English medium classrooms in language arts and mathematics (Walter & Trammell, 2010). Having discussed the above literature that is in line with the findings of the study, one can broadly say that translanguaging indeed plays an important role in breaking the barriers that could arise due to language insufficiency and enabling an effective learning process in standard one classrooms of rural areas.

This finding also concurs with Mamani's (2019) study on translanguaging in primary schools. The findings revealed that translanguaging was a common feature in many primary schools in the country. According to Mamani, translanguaging filled the gap

where teachers and pupils lacked adequate terminology or when teachers wanted to emphasize something Prax-Dubois & Hélot (2020).

This finding has been supported by various previous studies. Hurst & Mona, (2017) argued that learners felt bad when their L1s were considered inferior, therefore to create a conducive learning environment, learners need to feel a sense of ownership of the language of teaching and learning. Also, Rivera and Mazak (2017) and Lwanga-Lumu (2020) perceive that incorporating the pupils' L1s could lead to a better sense of possession within the education procedure and nurture a more solid sense of identity. The study further asserts that developing learners' L1 was a catalyst for the development of L2 which is a language of instruction. These authors support that translanguaging was important during the teaching and learning process.

4.2.3   Drawing attention

Translanguaging was also observed in classrooms in the process of drawing learners' attention. The data of this finding reveal that three (37.5%) observations were motivated by the need to attract the attention of the pupils in standard one. For example, the researcher observed a standard one teacher at school MS translanguaging during the Reading session when teaching about reading syllables. The teacher discovered that learners who sat behind were not paying attention during the teaching process. To make them pay attention to what was being read, the teacher said,

> *"Ugwee! Ndimbwelu acha kelele" ("You! Ndimbwelu stop making noise").*

This statement that combined both Kiswahili and L1(Kinyakyusa) made learners in standard one immediately keep quiet and pay attention to what the teacher was teaching. Therefore learners were much more comfortable when the teacher translanguaging in their L1.

Interviews with the pupils and teachers reveal that out of forty pupils, nineteen (48%) pupils reported using Kiswahili when speaking to their fellow learners to pay attention to what the teacher was teaching, and eight(21%) pupils used L1 when alerting their fellow learners pay attention to the teachers or the classmates while answering or asking the question to the teacher, and the rest thirteen(31%) pupils reported to have used both Kiswahili and L1.

In addition, Interviews with eight (8) standard one teachers, reveal mixed reactions; four(50%) standard one teachers said they used Kiswahili, two(25%) teachers said that they used L1, and then two(25%) teachers reported to have translanguaging between Kiswahili and Kinyakyusa when drawing attention learners' attention. Through an interview with the teacher from KP school, the following statement was spoken:

> *There is no problem with translanguaging in case there is a need to do so. As you can see, these learners are still young and not well familiar with Kiswahili, the language of teaching and learning, although the education policy is clear about the use of Kiswahili and English during teaching and learning, it is not practical at all for*

standard one learners who are deeply rooted in the remote village.
Translanguaging practice is still important.

During an interview with the standard one class monitor, she stated that to make her fellow learners pay attention and maintain silence during individual reading and discussion; she uses L1 to notify them.

I do not know much about Kiswahili but I am the class monitor, I, therefore, use both Kiswahili and L1 (Kinyakyusa) to report to my fellow learners what the teacher sends me to tell them. I also use Kiswahili and L1 to stop them from making noise during the classroom learning process.

Paying attention was one of the major contexts that moved both learners and teachers to translanguaging as it is revealed in the findings above. Attentiveness has always been part of the effective learning process. A conducive environment where learners pay attention to what is being taught leads to the effective grasping of what is being taught.

However, although translanguaging was important in standard one classrooms, both learners and teachers faced challenges during the practice as they felt that it was not worth using. The study by Hurst & Mona (2017); and Horne & Ferreira-Meyers (2017) enlighten that the process of language choice in the teaching and learning process is still marginalized since the pupils' first languages in schools are understood to cause negative effects. The investigators explained that pupils feel less

confident as they struggle to fluently speak the language of teaching and learning which is stated in the education and training policy. Additionally, research from other authors reveals that pupils feel discomfort and sad that they have to refrain from using their first Languages (L1).

Translanguaging practice led to a better sense of ownership within the education procedure and nurtured a clear solid sense of identity; this influenced even their attitude towards behavioural change. It was ascertained that pupils paid more attention in case there was a practice of L1 use than when the L2 was used alone. This could partly be linked to effective understanding during the learning process as difficult terms were translanguaging.

4.2.4   Explaining difficult terms

Another important finding on the contexts that led to translanguaging in standard one during teaching and learning was when explaining some difficult terms or vocabularies that the learner could not understand in L2. Observations were conducted on the aspect of the definition of terms and the result indicated that twelve(50%) observations involved translanguaging when explaining difficult terms. Through, twenty(50%) informants revealed that they used Kiswahili(L2) to explain difficult terms, seven(17.5%) learners said that they used L1, while thirteen(32.5%) learners reported that they used both L1 and Kiswahili (translanguaging) to explain difficult terms. Among the participants, although the majority(50%) used Kiswahili which is the language of teaching and learning to explain difficult terms, there is a significant number of learners who used either L1(17.5%) or those who used both L1

and L2 (translanguaging). This simply indicates how learners' L1 was a resourceful tool for explaining difficult terms.

In addition to the above findings, when teachers were interviewed, they mostly stated that learners had insufficient words in the L2, and as a result in the cases where a difficult term was uttered during learning, learners could find difficulty in understanding. This raised a necessity for teachers to find a convenient way of making such terms known and understood to learners (translanguage). Therefore two(25%) of the teachers stated that they used Kiswahili(L2) when explaining difficult terms, four(50%) teachers said that they used L1, while two(25%) teachers said that they used both Kiswahili and L1 (translanguaging) to define terms to the learners.

One of the teachers who teaches Writing subject in standard one at KP primary school declared that he was translanguaging in case learners failed to comprehend some terms. The teacher said that when was teaching about some animals living in water, he mentioned "Kaa" but the whole class laughed at him and disagreed. Then the teacher tried to explain what an animal "Kaa" though learners failed to comprehend it until she told them "Kaa is what you call Ngwehe" in Kinyakyusa (crab). One of the teachers through interview stated:

> *Most of these learners are from remote rural areas and their L1*
> *which they speak daily is not a language of teaching and learning.*
> *This creates a gap in the learning process. We as teachers must be in*
> *a position to adjust ourselves to incorporate learners' L1 into the*

learning process, especially during the need to explain difficult terms.

In addition, one of the learners through interview confirmed that translanguaging occurred especially during an explanation of difficult terms:

We are not allowed to speak our L1 although sometimes we use it when explaining to the teacher as well as the teacher to us in case we don't understand.

Translanguaging was much practised during an explanation of difficult terms by both teachers and learners. This finding is strongly supported by different authors such as Elizabeth et al., 2017; and Alidou et al., 2006. Furthermore, Snell (2017) argues that translanguaging plays a great role in constructing and nourishing knowledge in educating pupils. Literacy abilities develop quicker and more deeply when pupils practice their first languages and traditional collections without restrictions and study over their previous understanding instead of outside it. It is further argued that translanguaging facilitates home-school links and cooperation. Eleuthera (2015) stated that theory and practice prove that a strong literacy foundation in one's first language or mother tongue promotes not only the learning of other subjects better but also the learning of the subsequent languages by enabling learners to freely participate in asking questions in case they never understood. In addition, teachers are free to ask learners questions in their first languages as they seek the right answers since the learners understand their native languages.

In addition, Wortham (2006) adds that using only language in teaching and learning in a multilingual society leaves teachers complaining that the teaching practice is less practical, and may lead to poor understanding during the teaching and learning process. Such complaints come from teachers who fail to accommodate multilingual learners in their lessons. The use of translanguaging is important in such cases as there are no language barriers. The learners translate words for the teacher and the teacher translates for the learner hence learning is a double-sword affair. However, some words and phrases might be beyond the learner"s translation capabilities like abstract words and traditional taboos.

4.2.5   Asking questions

The observation of question and answers sessions revealed that teachers and pupils translanguaging during lessons. Findings from the observation method revealed that data reveal that nine(37.5%) classroom observations manifested translanguaging in the course of asking questions.

When interviewed, seventeen (43%) pupils stated that they used Kiswahili when asking questions, eight(20%) pupils said that they used L1 when asking questions or answering questions, while fifteen(37%) pupils said that they used both Kiswahili and L1 (translanguaging) when asking or answering questions.

In addition, standard one teachers were also interviewed and 4(50%) teachers said they used Kiswahili when asking questions, 1(12.5%) teacher reported to have used L1, while 3(37.5%) teachers said they used both Kiswahili and L1 simultaneously asking questions in classrooms.

Learners were motivated to translanguaging in the process of asking questions, as noted by one of the teachers through an interview,

A clear understandable sentence by learners requires good mastering of the many vocabularies in L2 which is still lacking due to their young age as well as the continuous use of L1 in their respective homes. Sometimes, one may use L1 to construct a meaningful sentence of the question so that they can be assisted accordingly.

Also during an interview with the learners, one of them stated as follows:

When the teacher is not in the class, I usually ask my fellow learners to explain to me the lesson in L1. But sometimes teachers also allow us to ask questions in case we do not understand through L2.

Therefore asking the question was identified as one of the major contexts that moved both learners and teachers to practice translanguaging. This was due to the necessity to enable participation and understanding, therefore, doing away with language barriers to enable the aforementioned benefits was necessary for standard one classroom. This finding is in line with previous studies that state the importance of translanguaging among early learners. This finding concurs with Li & Ho (2018) who point out that translanguaging has consequences in language learning and teaching, particularly in speaking and writing. The cooperation approaches are used or applied to elucidate information and co-construct meanings in an approach that ensures separable voices are more efficiently received. Blackledge and Creese

(2010), stated that translanguaging helps to maintain identity, access to content, and self-confidence among learners therefore it was necessary to create an atmosphere where learners are free to trans language.

In addition, Garcia and Li (2014) point out that in some cases translanguaging involves reading, asking questions, and conversing in one language and writing in a different language. This enables pupils to understand and comprehend the target language. Moreover, it is claimed that as a pedagogical approach, translanguaging enhances teaching by using the speaker's multilingual and multicultural identities to expand the presenter's understanding of the L2 (Carroll & Mazak, 2017).

Furthermore, the findings by Nyika (2015) assert that the practice and use of a mother tongue or home language in conjunction with the language of teaching and learning as a moderate of education is very important through all the stages of learning. The author further points out that pupils whose home language is used as LoI have an advantage over those whose L1s are not used as LoI. Therefore, although the education policy supports translanguaging in learners' L1 or not, in reality, the translanguaging practice exists in standard one classes of rural areas. There is a need to consider the learners and incorporate them into the teaching and learning process to make the education policy practical.

4.2.6   Summarizing the lesson

Through observation method during classroom teaching showed that twelve (50%) observations revealed translanguaging in the process of summarizing the lesson. This is due to the importance of emphasizing the concluding remarks. Teachers, therefore,

saw the importance of emphasizing what had been taught during the lesson. Summarizing the lesson through translanguaging in both Kiswahili and L1 emphasised the learners to understand the lesson effectively.

Interviews with learners revealed that twenty-two (55%) pupils used Kiswahili when summarising, four (9%) pupils used L1, while fourteen (36%) pupils said they used both Kiswahili and L1 when concluding. This came as teachers asked learners to summarise what the teacher had taught to assess whether they had understood the lesson. The teachers encouraged learners to translanguaging in case they found it difficult to use only L2 (the language of instruction).

Further, an interview with teachers showed that four (50%) used Kiswahili when concluding, two (25%) teachers stated that they used L1, while two (25%) teachers stated that they used both Kiswahili and their mother tongue to conclude. Indeed translanguaging practice made an impact on the learning process of standard one learners as both teachers and learners practised. From the findings above, one can boldly say that translanguaging was important in the learning process of standard one pupils as it simplified the understanding process of what was being taught by teachers but also made the teaching process by teachers much easier than when using only L2.

Through the observation method, the following interaction attempts to explain what is presented above was seen and heard from a classroom interaction between the teacher and learner. In the conversation, a teacher in a school in NJ was teaching the environment to standard one pupils, and the following was noted:

*Teacher: Nosyagha ebu tuambie umeelewa nini kuhusu 'mazingira',
hata kwa kilugha cha mama elezea tu 'Nosyagha please tell us what
do you understand about 'environment', you may even use your
mother tongue.'*

*Nosyagha: **Masingila** ni maeneo yanayotuzunguka; yaani nyumbani
tunaita '**lubhingilo'** 'Environment are areas that surround us; at
home, we refer to it as 'lubhingilo.*

One can also note that there existed an interconnection between the L2 and L1 as "mazingira" and "masingila" were almost similar in pronunciation. Most learners in standard one could not identify the difference, although the teachers kept on encouraging the learners to pronounce the word correctly as "*mazingira*".

In addition, to the above finding, through interviews with the teachers, the following statement was stated:

*When I summarise the lesson in L1 or use both L1 and L2, I improve
their confidence and attentiveness to grasp the general knowledge of
what the topic was all about but also encourage them to summarise
what they understood when I was teaching. This is very important
during the teaching and learning process.*

Further, through interviews with the learners, they stated as follows:

*We sometimes use L1 when the teacher after teaching asks us to say
what we have understood during teaching.*

Practically, most rural primary schools translanguaging although the magnitude of the level of practice differs. L2 which is the language of teaching and learning all over the country is practically less spoken by families in rural areas. Translanguaging in L1 comes in as a gap filler in cases where words are inadequate in L2. Therefore the practice is mostly based on the importance of breaking the language barrier and the need to improve the level of understanding and participation.

Studies from different authors support this finding, to mention that this finding concurs with Li and Ho (2018) who point out that translanguaging has advantages in language learning and teaching, particularly in speaking and writing. The cooperation approaches are used or applied to elucidate information and co-construct meanings in an approach that ensures separable voices are more efficiently received. In addition to the above a study by ETP (2014) revealed that although Kiswahili is the LoI in primary school education as per the Education and Training Policy, pupils were unable to use Kiswahili fluently in education and as a result, there was a need for better teaching practices that could improve teaching and learning process. Translanguaging was one of the strategies encouraged to improve the teaching and learning process in cases where learners were insufficient in Kiswahili.

The policy assumes that every citizen knows Kiswahili and can use it as LoI. This assumption, however, is not in any way reflected considering such cases where pupils require L1 to advance in their education. This is supported by Simpson (2016) who argues that in educational contexts there is insufficient acceptance of the realities of both rural and urban multilingualism and a lack of acknowledgement of how multilingualism can be utilized as an educational resource. According to

Mohanty (2010), studies in India found that multilingualism is practised in classrooms as decisions on language(s) of instruction are loosely governed by India's national language in education policy. It was observed that pupils are taught in their native language when they are at the primary level with a second Indian language being taught as a subject then English initiated later.

The issue of policy on language teaching and learning has been one of the major challenges that hinder translanguaging, especially in African countries where the L1 practice is regarded as a problem that could lead to disunity. A belief created by the colonialists to do away with most African culture, norms, and beliefs. However as some African countries see the need and importance of translanguaging, they have slowly started to embrace the practice of translanguaging.

4.2.7   Dismissing the class/Saying goodbye

In the context of ending the class, out of 24 observations from four schools, six (25%) observations were translanguaging in L1 and L2. This finding reveals that through observation in standard one, a quarter of the lessons were translanguaging. On the other hand, interviews with learners revealed that twenty-five (61%) learners confirmed that Kiswahili was used, five (13%) learners said that they used Kinyakyusa to say goodbye to the teacher, while ten (26%) learners said that they used both Kiswahili and Kinyakyusa (translanguaging) when saying goodbye to teachers. In addition, when the teachers were interviewed on the same matter four(50%) teachers stated that they said goodbye using Kiswahili, two(25%) teachers said that they used Kinyakyusa, while two(25%) teachers said that they used both Kiswahili and Kinyakyusa (translanguaging).

In an interview, one teacher school KP stated as follows:

> *Sometimes using the learners' L1 to end or dismiss the lesson is important as it motivates them to come the next day for learning. It is a strategy for retaining learners.*

In addition one of the learner's interviews stated as follows:

> *When we are about to end the lesson we sometimes use L1 when communicating with each other.*

The translanguaging practice existed in standard one classroom by both teachers and learners as various contexts reveal the results. Some contexts were more frequently translanguaging than others due to the need that arose during the process of teaching and learning. Saying goodbye or dismissing the class had significant numbers of replies from both teachers and learners to translanguaging. This was due to the need to end classes in an attractive, participatory way that encouraged learners to attend the lessons the next day. These findings are also supported by different authors who state that translanguaging can create a conducive environment for learners to participate effectively as they are free to shuttle between different languages they are well vast with.

The findings concur with the findings of Scholars Kamisch and Misyana (2011) and Tabaro (2013) who argue that since it could be a bit disturbing or hard to discover a classroom dialogue in areas rich in languages, different learning strategies such as translanguaging should be considered in a situation such as dismissing the class.

These strategies have been reported to be successful elsewhere (Tabaro, 2013; Delport, 2016).

Furthermore, the study by Garcia *et al.* (2017) revealed that translanguaging could lead to a classroom space whereby pupils test or challenge the language hierarchies and instantaneously enable pupils to perceive themselves as respected and valued members of the teaching and learning society within a classroom. This aids them in practising all their language resources at hand to engage entirely or fully in the teaching and learning activities within a classroom. Some authors support translanguaging in the L1 idea as they believe it could enable pupils to voice the best position and improve and arrange forthcoming training which could lead to equal teaching and learning activity.

Therefore to conclude on the contexts under which translanguaging was practised, the average was ascertained and it was revealed that in the contexts under which translanguaging was observed; data reveal that translanguaging was observed in greetings (26.78%), explaining lessons (30.50%), and drawing the attention of learners (33.92%). Other contexts include explaining or defining terms had a mean of 37.57%, asking questions had an average mean of 33.90%, summarizing lessons had an average mean of 28.57, and dismissing the class which had an average mean of 34.28%. To conclude on the context under which translanguaging was practised in the classroom, the data reveal that translanguaging was mostly practised when explaining difficult terms, followed by the context of drawing attention. It was also revealed that the context of asking the question had a mean of 33.90% and explaining

lessons had a mean of 30.50%. Lastly, the context of summarizing the lesson had a mean of 28.57.

The above contexts under which translanguaging was observed were mainly due to their importance to both learners and teachers during the teaching and learning processes in standard one classroom. Therefore, the contexts under which translanguaging was practised appeared to be dynamic and were influenced by social factors such as the nature of the learners, and teachers, and environmental factors such as the location of rural settings.

4.3   Causes of translanguaging in lower primary schools in Rungwe District

The second objective aimed to identify the causes of translanguaging in lower primary schools in the Rungwe District. In this objective, the researcher looked at the participants' views on what were the causes of translanguaging in lower rural primary school classrooms, and below are their responses. Interviews were used to assess the causes of translanguaging in classrooms. Table 4.2 summarizes the causes of translanguaging in the schools visited. The study by Hurst and Mona (2017); Ferreira-Meyers (2017) and Oihana *et al.* (2020) enlighten that the process of language choice in the teaching and learning process is still marginalized since the pupils' first languages in schools are understood to cause negative effects. The investigators explained that pupils feel less confident as they struggle to fluently speak the language of teaching and learning which is stated in the education and training policy. Additionally, research from other authors reveals that pupils feel discomfort and sad that they have to refrain from using their first Languages (L1).

Table 4.2: Causes of translanguaging in standard one classrooms

Causes identified by learners	Percentage	Causes identified by teachers	Percentage
Need for effective participation during learning	62.5%	Need for effective participation during teaching	58 %
Insufficient understanding of LoI in the classroom	58%	Increasing learner's freedom	40 %
Developing a good relationship between learners and teachers	50%	Developing a good relationship between learners and teachers	53 %
Gaining better comprehension	53%	Facilitating better comprehension	67%
Enabling the continuity of speech rather than presenting an interference	27%	As a tool in various language teaching	20%
Presence of learners belonging to the same mother tongue	45%	Presence of learners belonging to the same mother tongue	47%
Expressing group solidarity	23%	Expressing solidarity	20%

Source: Field data (2020)

4.3.1 Facilitating or gaining better comprehension

This was one of the most cited causes of translanguaging in standard one classrooms in visited rural primary schools. Data indicate that 53% of pupils reported translanguaging to find better expression and comprehension of what was taught. These pupils used their Kinyakyusa repertoire when responding to teachers' questions or making contributions to the lessons presented. Similarly, standard one teachers – about 67%, said they used pupils' L1 to ensure that the pupils understood lessons. Teachers claimed that standard one pupils had low proficiency in Kiswahili – the LoI, hence they (teachers) assisted the pupils by letting them express themselves in their Kinyakyusa (L1).

In line with the above finding, one of the teachers from school NJ stated the following through the interview when asked about the causes of translanguaging:

> *I was teaching mathematics on the topic of subtraction through Kiswahili and I found only 15 learners out of forty were able to understand but when I translanguaging (Kiswahili and learners' first language- Kinyakyusa) I found that the rest were able to understand the topic.*

Several authors support the above finding that indeed the need to gain better comprehension is one of the major causes of translanguaging practice as was noted in standard one classes in the rural setting of Rungwe District. Such authors reveal that the main aim of translanguaging is to aid learners during teaching and learning to grasp effectively what is being taught.

This study is in line with the study of Cenoz & Gorter (2017) who stated that it is appropriate to deduce that translanguaging creates a space for the use of two or more languages inside one lesson to support learners to learn and understanding through interactional communication with the teachers and their peers. Therefore the need to gain better comprehension is achieved through effective interaction through translanguaging among learners and between teachers and learners.

In addition, a study conducted by Banda (2018) on translanguaging and English-African language mother tongues as linguistic dispensation in teaching and learning

in Black Township school in Capetown, revealed that linguistic repertoire can be used to access, produce, and consume knowledge.

To mention, Johanes (2017), the negative impact of language translanguaging in learning is a lack of confidence in the use of the language of teaching and learning, which reduces learners' practices of the language of instruction, lack of effective understanding of the content taught, less participation making learners unable to master the language of instruction. When concepts are explained in a familiar language, they feel more secure. Also, a study by Martine (2018) on the assessment of the impacts of codeswitching on students' English language proficiency in Tanzania revealed that when teachers code-switch it negatively affects students' language proficiency. This is because a student mixes two or more languages that are not parallel and as a result, it sometimes affects the construction of grammatical sentences correctly in L2.

Therefore findings from other authors reveal that translanguaging may not always provide space for creative or critical thinking which is often discussed in translanguaging literature (Rabbidge, 2019).

4.3.2   The need for effective participation

Another cause of translanguaging was to arouse pupils to learn and take an active part in classroom learning activities. Standard one pupils (62%) reported in the interviews that they used their L1s to comprehend classroom teaching. This finding concurred with standard one teachers who confirmed that they used pupils' L1 to check comprehension. In addition, 58% of the teachers interviewed said they

translanguaging to make pupils active in learning. Teachers also revealed that although they wished to use Kiswahili alone as LoI, they were limited by the low proficiency levels of the pupils in Kiswahili. Because of the inadequate proficiency, teachers allowed the use of Kinyakyusa to make pupils participate in classroom activities – question and answer cues, discussions, and self-expression.

To support this finding, one of the teachers in school KP stated as follows in an interview:

> *During the teaching process through Kiswahili, those learners who are not proficient in the language remain silent for any question you ask. But when you translanguage through learners' first language, they cooperate and participate effectively.*

For example, Sahib (2019) conducted a study on the use of translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy in EFL and revealed that students usually use translanguaging unconsciously. Translanguaging helps to facilitate the flow of classroom interaction between students and their teachers since teachers do not have to spend too much time trying to explain to the students or searching for the simplest word to clarify any confusion that might arise during the teaching process.

4.3.3   Developing good relationship

The study found that the use of Kinyakyusa in standard one classes helped to build a relationship between and among the teachers and pupils. Learning takes place through interactions with fellow pupils, hence the teachers used translanguaging to bring pupils together to ensure they learn as a community. Pupils (50%) said in

interviews that they are translanguaging to develop good relationships with other pupils. In addition, 53% of teachers said that they used pupils' L1 - Kinyakyusa, as a tool for cultivating good relationships among the pupils. According to the teachers, a good relationship paved the way for active participation and quickened the pace of the pupils speaking Kinyakyusa to learn L2 (Kiswahili) in classrooms.

One teacher from school MS revealed the following through an interview:

> *Frankly speaking, translanguaging builds a friendly relationship between teachers and learners and among learners themselves as learners feel free to say anything to their teachers or fellow learners even through their first language.*

A study by Creese (2010) supports the finding above and is also similar to the findings reported in current studies (Lin, 2019; Wang & Curdt-Christiansen, 2019), researchers in Western societies have promoted mainstreaming policies, which include the inclusion of translanguaging in general classes and are supported by collaborative relationships between mainstream and teachers to improve the learning process (Creese, 2010).

However, unlikethe findings in the current study, Muthusamy et al.'s (2020) study on the factors of codeswitching among bilingual international students in Malaysia showed that code exchange in some situations may produce an unharmonious association between speakers and the language community because codeswitching words and expressions may not have the same value status and functions in speakers' culture.

4.3.4 Pupils speaking L1 that is not LoI

It was found that translanguaging was caused by the presence of pupils who spoke L1 that was not LoI – Kiswahili. It appeared that standard one teacher had no choice but to allow pupils who did not speak Kiswahili to use their L1 instead. This was a positive gesture to help this category of pupils to benefit from teaching otherwise; these pupils would not find lessons interesting.

Data revealed that 45% of the learners said that the use of L1 in classrooms was caused by the category of pupils who spoke Kinyakyusa as their L1. These are the pupils who came from families that were predominantly Kinyakyusa and had no contact with Kiswahili at home. Similarly, standard one teachers 4(47%) supported this reason saying that they used L1 as a teaching tool for a large group of pupils who spoke L1, specifically Kinyakyusa, and not LoI (Kiswahili). They said that this group of pupils forced them to use Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili in teaching standard one pupils.

These findings are also in line with findings from Tambulukani (2014), Mwanza (2012) & Zimba (2011) who provided sufficient evidence that using monolingual practices (L2 only) 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 as it is the case with Tanzanian lower primary schools in a rural setting. In this view, Banda & Mwanza (2017) proposed translanguaging as a solution to epistemic access among grade one learners in Zambia's multilingual-multi-ethnic classrooms. In other words, instead of the monolingual classroom practices that have been practised since missionary time to

date, Banda and Mwanza (2017) proposed a shift to multilingual practices and in this case, translanguaging as pedagogic practice.

4.3.5   Inadequate proficiency in Kiswahili

The study reveals that the use of community language other than the official LoI in standard one classrooms was caused by inadequate or low proficiency in Kiswahili, which is the official Language of Instruction. The pupils cannot comprehend the content when the LoI is not familiar to them, according to the teachers. As a result, the pupils struggle all the time with less success unless their respective L1s are brought on board in the learning environment. 58% of the pupils who were interviewed confirmed not to know Kiswahili to the level that they can use it as LoI. In other words, these pupils said they could not understand lessons taught using full-fledged Kiswahili and that allowing them to use their L1 had a great positive impact on their learning.

The researcher interviewed one teacher to ascertain why learners in class one mix Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili during teaching and learning at school MS and she said:

> *Most standard one learners in rural settings use their home language in their community, thus in classrooms sometimes these learners fail to find correct terms in Kiswahili though they know it in their first language.*

This finding is in line with a study conducted by Tuntunjian (2014) who found that low-proficiency learners in the language of instruction benefit from first language

usage whereas high-proficiency learners appear to prefer and benefit more from the stated language of instruction. Therefore for the case of this study where most learners were less proficient in Kiswahi in standard one primary schools in rural settings, translanguaging enabled them to gain more knowledge easier.

4.3.6   Increasing learners' freedom

Teachers interviewed in this study said they allowed pupils to use their native languages, especially Kinyakyusa, to give more freedom to standard one pupils. The interviewed teachers said the pupils felt freer when their native languages were used in teaching in classrooms. The teachers said that standard one learners are young children who experience the school environment and curriculum activities for the first time away from their families. Thus using a language that is unfamiliar to learners denies them the freedom to express challenges, feelings, and their contribution to the lesson. Therefore, using the languages they speak at home is a way of reconnecting them with the content being taught and giving them a sense of freedom.

In support of the above finding, an Interview with the teacher at school NJ on why learners translanguaging, replied as follows:

> *Sometimes being less restrictive in using only Kiswahili in this standard one class at this school helps learners to feel free to express their needs to me at any time.*

4.3.7   Expressing group solidarity

Another cause of translanguaging according to this study is the need to express group solidarity. Interviews with pupils indicated that they used their native languages in classrooms to express their group solidarity however this happened unconsciously since learners knew that their L1 was not the school language of teaching and learning. During interviews, 23% of the pupils stated that they used their mother tongues to express group solidarity. At the same time, 20% of teachers showed that pupils used their native languages to express their group solidarity. Teachers claimed that pupils' first languages (L1s); or in this case mother tongue, acted as unifying languages because nearly all pupils spoke Kinyakyusa. It is strongly believed that solidarity plays a major role in the uniting of people. In the same way, pupils effectively achieve their academic success through group solidarity as they are in a position to combine different talents and come up with more meaningful action. Group solidarity helped standard one pupils to engage in active learning as they all had a uniting language that joined them together to achieve a given assignment or task given to them by teachers.

4.3.8   A tool for various language teaching

This study found that translanguaging is a tool for teaching just like LoI and other educational tools. The standard one teachers interviewed said that mixing languages– LoI and L1, was a strong tool for teaching not only languages but also other content subjects. Of the teachers who were interviewed (20%) said that translanguaging acted as a tool for teaching various languages. This means that L1 is used as a

resource to facilitate the learning of other unfamiliar languages such as Kiswahili in this case.

Blommaert (2010) contends that a child's language is a resource that should not be restricted or suppressed by policies or physical barriers. Therefore in the case of the Tanzanian context, children in lower primary in rural settings should be helped to gain knowledge on L2 through the use of L1 which could be seen as a resource rather than a hindrance in teaching and learning.

Generally commenting on why teachers resorted to using languages other than LoI - Kiswahili, one teacher from a school in NJ said the following.

> *Sisi mara nyingi tunatumia Kiswahili kama lugha ya Kufundishia na hata kuongea darasani na shule nzima kiujumla, ila jinsi unavyo ona shule hii watoto wanatoka vijijini sana na uwezo wa kuongea Kiswahili pekee ni hafifu. Basi hivyo sisi kama walimu tunachanganya lugha kwa ajili ya kuwarahisishia wanafunzi ili waweze kuelewa zaidi*
>
> *'We always use Kiswahili as LoI in classrooms and the language of wider communication in the school, but the way you see in this school pupils come from remote areas and their proficiency in Kiswahili is inadequate. As teachers, we, therefore, speak different languages of the pupils to simplify understanding for the pupils.'*

The above views indicate that standard one teachers and pupils from three rural primary schools used Kiswahili and a mixture of native languages in teaching and learning in the selected schools – NJ, KP, and MS.

Also, different studies support the above finding that translanguaging allows learners to use their first language as a tool to help them excel in their second language (Cummins, 2008). May (2014), claims in his work that the theory of socio-cultural Second Language (L2) acquisition gave rise to translanguaging. Cummins (2008) made a significant point on the interdependence of developmental processes that he had already outlined in a prior publication (Hawkins, 2013). Essentially, Cummins contends that a child's native language must also be well-developed to strengthen their second language (L2). Although fluency and pronunciation in dual languages may vary, there is still a fundamental cognitive or academic language proficiency that applies to both, regardless of these differences (Cummins, 2008). The improvement of learners' first languages not only improves their proficiency in English (or another target language) but also increases their literacy levels in those languages.

Another teacher from the school GY said the following.

> *Sisi hatutumii lugha za makabila maana kuna makabila mengi hapa darasani ambayo wanafunzi wametoka. Hata hivyo nasi kama walimu tuna lugha zetu za makabila na hatuwezi kutumia lugha hizo darasani. Ni lugha ambazo huleta ukabila darasani na hatutaki, tunaamini lugha ni Kiswahili na hiyo tunatumia darasani na shule*

nzima kiujumla. (We do not use Ethnic Community Languages in classrooms because pupils speak different languages. We teachers each have our own languages and we cannot use them in classrooms. These languages bring about tribalism in classrooms and we do not like to entertain tribalism because we know the language of instruction is Kiswahili and abide by that – using it in the classroom and elsewhere in the school).

Teachers at school GY said that translanguaging was impossible in their case because of the rich diversity of languages of the pupils.

A study unlike this finding is by Mukhopadhyay (2020) on translanguaging in primary-level ESL classrooms in India which revealed that the use of translanguaging for pedagogic purposes has also met with resistance from practitioners of direct and monolingual methods of teaching languages as they have felt that this fluid interaction using two or more languages would make the target language learning process laborious and contaminated.

In conclusion, this study found that translanguaging was not practised just for its own sake. Interviewed teachers and pupils revealed that there were various causes of translanguaging. The factors described above might apply to other areas affected by monolingual tendencies. The area under study is one of the areas where a single language is predominant. In Rungwe District, especially in divisions where the study was carried out, the majority of the pupils speak Kinyakyusa. Thus, teachers and

pupils had to translanguaging to ensure comprehension of what was being taught and learned in classrooms.

4.4 Teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging practice during teaching and learning processes

Teachers were interviewed regarding how they felt about using L1 in classrooms. The findings reveal that six (75%) teachers said that they felt good using L1, especially when the L1 in question is their native language, in actual classroom teaching. The teachers claimed that they were proud to speak their native (L1). It was also revealed that the majority of pupils spoke the same L1 – Kinyakyusa, in the schools studied. One teacher of MS primary school expressed her feelings about learners' native language, she said:

> *I cannot stop myself from clarifying points in L1, that is, Kinyakyusa, when I describe something to a pupil and that pupil fails to understand.*
>
> *These teachers stated that when they asked a question and there was a negative or low response or nobody was willing to respond, they changed to pupils' L1. This was a way of arousing pupils to respond to the questions. They used L1 to enable learners to pay more attention during lessons. The teachers also reported having spoken the languages the pupils spoke since the pupils responded to questions in L1 and this had a positive impact on their learning.*

Unlike the 6 teachers above, 2(25%) teachers were against pupils using L1 in classrooms believing that the L1 could lead to tribalism. In other words, these teachers were of the idea that using vernacular language in the classroom would divide the class based on first languages and bring segregation. Since vernacular languages were unofficial languages in school, these teachers considered the languages to be spoken by uncivilized and uneducated people. Thus, using these languages in classrooms, according to these teachers, constituted backwardness and brought a sense of lack of civilization and illiteracy.

4.4.1 The value teachers placed upon translanguaging in classrooms

The investigator sought to know whether the teachers thought translanguaging in classrooms would affect pupils positively or negatively. In this case, the responses of teachers are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3:The positive and negative aspects of translanguaging

Positive aspects of translanguaging	Frequency	Negative aspects of translanguaging	Frequency
Facilitates quick understanding of the lesson	4(50%)	Not used in an examination	2(25%)
Learners are free to use any language they are familiar with	2(25%)	There are many tribes and thus hard to prepare textbooks	2(25%)
Accelerates comprehension and expansion of vocabulary	2(25%)	Mother tongues are not accepted at school	4(50%)

Source: Researcher's Field data (2020)

Teachers were asked whether or not the use of L1 in classrooms had an impact on the learning process of the pupils in standard one. The analysis of their responses revealed that 6(75%) teachers agreed that translanguaging had a positive impact on the learning process in the sense that it helped learners to understand lessons quickly because it accelerated comprehension and expansion of vocabulary.

However, a minority of the teachers, i.e., 2 (25%), claimed that translanguaging did not help learners understand the subject better. These teachers had a view that trans language was not good because L1 was not used in examinations. They also argued that translanguaging was not good because there are many Ethnic Community Languages (ECLs) and, thus, it would be impossible to prepare textbooks for each ECL, while 4(50%) of the interviewees stated that L1s were not accepted in primary schools.

Teachers state that one of the major challenges of translanguaging in the mother tongue is that it is not accepted by the education policy to be used at school. This brings a challenge when translanguaging in learners's L1 for the sake of learners who are not fluent enough to entirely use L2. The Tanzanian education policy states that:

> *3.2.19. Lugha ya Taifa ya Kiswahili itatumika kufundishia na kujifunzia katika ngazi zote za elimu na mafunzo na Serikali itaweka utaratibu wa kuwezesha matumizi ya lugha hii kuwa endelevu na yenye ufanisi katika kuwapatia walengwa elimu na mafunzo yenye tija kitaifa na kimataifa. 'Kiswahili as a national language shall be used as a language of instruction at all education levels and the*

government will facilitate the sustainable use of Kiswahili to ensure proper provision of education that has value both nationally and internationally (URT, 2014:39)

According to the Tanzania Education Policy (ETP) of 2014, Kiswahili is recognized as the national language and Language of Instruction (LoI) in primary education and English for some other primary schools. The policy, however, excludes Ethnic Community Languages (ECLs) for use in the education system and official proceedings. Batibo (2012) points out that by excluding ECLs from use in education and offices, more than one million speakers of these languages are denied access to education. One can observe that the ETP ignores the role of learners' first languages other than Kiswahili and English in academic progress. This could pose a problem, especially when the school-age children do not speak Kiswahili or English, to begin with rather than their native languages – languages spoken at homes and villages by learners.

Through an interview with one of the teachers from the school GY, the following quotation was noted from the teacher:

The policy is clear that Kiswahili should be used as the language of instruction at all levels of primary school in the whole country. The policy seems to generalize that all Tanzanian learners of primary schools are fluent in the Kiswahili language though in reality, there is a greater variation in terms of fluency in Kiswahili between learners of coastal regions, metropolitans and those of rural settings.

For those from rural Kiswahili are their second language while for those from metropolitan and coastal region Kiswahili is their first language. Thus for standard one learners especially in rural settings teaching using only Kiswahili as the policy states is like marginalizing them.

Although Kiswahili is the national language of Tanzania, it does not apply to many community settings as an L1 therefore most Tanzanian population that is rural based (80%), Kiswahili is their second language after community ethnic languages. Therefore using Kiswahili as a language of teaching and learning to lower-level primary classes in rural settings is not practical. As stated by URT(2014), Kiswahili is the national language and is used as the first or second language among many people.

4.4.2   Teachers' preference for L1

Out of 8 teachers who were interviewed, five (62.5%) teachers supported the use of L1 in classrooms and 3(37.5%) teachers did not support the use of L1 in classrooms. In terms of observation, 6(75%) teachers have observed translanguaging between L1 and Kiswahili and 2(25%) teachers did not translanguaging.

Although the teachers also reported that they restrictively do not allow their learners to use their native language, they try to promote the Kiswahili language since it is the national language in which examination is set and answered. One teacher from a school in NJ stated:

I love my native language. A good thing is that my native language is spoken by most of the learners but, in reality, we are supposed to use Kiswahili in the teaching and learning process. In reality, these learners come from remote villages and, therefore, it is hard for them to speak Kiswahili only. For that reason, I code-switch where necessary based on the needs of the time.

4.4.3 Teachers' views on whether there should be translanguaging practice in standard one primary school in rural settings.

When teachers were asked whether or not pupils in standard one should be allowed translanguaging, six (75%) teachers stated that the pupils should be allowed translanguaging because most of them came from remote areas where Kiswahili is not spoken widely. In such areas, therefore, translanguaging could be used to enhance comprehension. In three schools NJ, KP, and MS, the majority of pupils were predominantly speaking Kinyakyusa; hence allowing L1 in addition to Kiswahili (LoI) in lower primary school classrooms could be beneficial to the pupils.

Six (75%) teachers supported the idea of using L1 in classrooms and; at the same time, encouraged pupils to speak Kiswahili (LoI). Teachers believed that blaming pupils for using L1 could create fear, low self-esteem, and a lack of confidence in pupils. Blaming learners for the use of L1 might lead to poor performance and probably contribute to dropouts. The teachers also noted that they should always maintain the use of Kiswahili as a way of making pupils get used to the language of instruction believing that after some time, the pupils would have gained pace of

acquisition. Of other teachers, two (25%) of them stated that they discouraged those learners who used L1 in classrooms and encouraged them to use Kiswahili only.

One of the teachers at school Ms stated the following throughout the interview:

> *For standard one learners in rural settings, translanguaging is unavoidable although our education policy does not allow it. But during the teaching process, consciously or unconsciously, both learners and the teachers mix learners' first language and Kiswahili in the process of learning.*

This indicates that although the education policy does not allow translanguaging in ethnic languages, teachers found it necessary to sometimes allow learners to translanguage as a strategy that simplifies the teaching and learning process. In addition to the above-supporting quotation, another teacher from school KP also stated as follows whether there should be translanguaging:

> *In my case, translanguaging is sometimes useful because it contributes to the effectiveness of the learning process. For us teachers, our major role in class is to facilitate the learning process and not to show how competent we are in L2 (language of instruction).*

Indeed the major aim of teaching and learning is to enable effective understanding as noted by the teachers through quotations stated above and the issue of fluency in L2

is added case. In case some situations need the use of learners' first language to enable understanding then there is no need for being conservative and rigid.

However, one teacher from the school GY had an alternative idea and comment on where there should be translanguaging in standard one classroom. The teachers stated as follows:

> *Allowing translanguaging in class is not possible! How can you translanguage to a class that has various ethnic community languages? Where even teachers are not familiar with those learners' first languages? Allowing translanguaging in class is like confusing learners and teachers, creating tribalism and disunity. It may lead learners to fail their examinations since all examinations are constructed in Kiswahili and never in their ethnic community languages.*

The above quotation from the school GY shows how the teacher is against translanguaging practice in class. Translanguaging is not possible according to teachers though in this world nothing is impossible as they are established by human beings. If it has been researched and come up with findings showing the usefulness of translanguaging in the learning process then, the Tanzania education policy may likely allow translanguaging practice since the policy is not rigid to positive changes. The presence of various learners' first languages in class and teachers not being familiar may not avoid translanguaging practice if it is really helpful in the teaching and learning process. Translanguaging practice in standard one learners in the rural setting does not ignore the Kiswahili language of instruction but it emphasizes where

there is a need to be applied by both teachers and learners without feeling guilty. In a class of forty learners, there is a high possibility of some of them being more knowledgeable in Kiswahili so they can share with their fellows in their first language. The same apply to teachers living in learners' community they become part and parcel of that society hence they may learn to some extent the learners' ethnic community language.

Generally, the study reveals missed views about the use of L1 in schools. The study shows that the majority of teachers had a positive view of pupils using L1. The study also revealed that teachers who did not translanguaging could not do so due to a lack of pupils speaking different L1s. The diversity of L1 meant the teachers could not in practice master all the pupils' L1; hence the use of L1 had to be discouraged at the expense of LoI.

4.5   Theoretical implications of the study

The findings of the study were strongly in line with the sociocultural theory of Vygotsky (1978) as it was used in the study. The theory suggests that social interaction leads to continuous step-by-step changes in children's thoughts and behaviour that can vary greatly from culture to culture. This was indeed found during the study that teachers, through translanguaging in the learner's mother tongue, tended to bring group participation, and improved solidarity and freedom within the classroom during the teaching and learning process. This tended to bring about continuous step-by-step in the language of instruction (Kiswahili). The learners were not in a position to repeat the same mistake after translanguaging in their mother tongue.

Based on the study, in some contexts, learners were able to comprehend the content/lesson after receiving some explanations through translanguaging practice from the class teacher or other capable learners. This native learners' language assistance towards the language of instruction is similar to Vygostsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD) and is termed "scaffolding". The study shows a greater relationship between learners' native language, thinking and learning. Learners were able to participate effectively and understand the lesson when they engaged their brains in their familiar language (native language). The language of teaching and learning influences the thinking and understanding of the lesson. The new knowledge that learners gain through translanguaging practice is what Vygotsky (1978) calls "Potential development" as it is the knowledge that is beyond the learners' existing knowledge or actual development. This is similar to Kampittayakul's (2019) findings that the more the learners interact with the teacher through translanguaging, the more they strengthen potential development in their learning process, which leads to acquiring new knowledge.

Although the sociocultural theory by Vygotsky (1978) its main point is that learning is a socially mediated process, the study found some learners were capable of excelling academically without guidance through translanguaging. Although a critic by Lantolf and Thorne (2006) stated that the theory was mainly dependent on external factors the study revealed that socio-cultural theory was relevant to the cognitive development of the children through translanguaging in the classroom. Translanguaging enabled the majority of learners to answer questions that before seemed difficult and led to effective participation during the learning process.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1   Introduction

The chapter draws on the entire thesis to provide a coherent description of the gist of the study. The main objective of this chapter is to take stock of the entire research process and provide valid comments on certain findings and lessons. The chapter presents the summary, conclusion, and recommendations.

5.2   Summary

This study explored translanguaging as a tool for teaching in standard one primary school classrooms in rural communities. The study was carried out in two divisions in the Rungwe District in Mbeya Region. The divisions where the study took place are Pakati and Ukukwe. The study found that teachers used translanguaging as a gap-filler to connect pupils with the new language learned and the content of the subject. In this view, it can be seen that teachers used translanguaging as a way of helping pupils to draw attention, asking questions, explaining lessons, and reviewing what was learned.

The overall mean explaining the contexts under which translanguaging was practised was 30% implying that more words were in Kiswahili as a language of instruction than in L1. This indicates that out of 10 words spoken in classrooms 3 words were spoken in L1. This mix of codes was due to inadequate vocabulary in Kiswahili among the pupils studied. The study found that translanguaging was caused by a lack of proficiency in Kiswahili (LoI). Thus, teachers translanguaging to make pupils understand certain concepts from the L1 experiences of the pupils. Translanguaging

also helped to arouse pupils to learn and adapt to the school climate more easily than when no translanguaging was done.

Another reason for translanguaging was the presence of pupils who used their native languages to learn in the L2 setting. The study revealed that Kinyakyusa, the main L1 for the pupils in standard one, and Kiswahili, the main LoI enforced by the Education and Training Policy (2014), were used on the same par in classrooms. Since these pupils only knew their native language, teachers were forced to teach using pupils' native language as a transitional code to receiving instructions in Kiswahili. It was found that through instruction in translanguaging, both pupils and teachers were in a position to cooperate and exchange meanings and concepts using the Kiswahili medium.

The findings also conclude that teachers in studied primary schools had a positive attitude towards translanguaging using L1 of the pupils. This was demonstrated through the willingness of the majority of teachers to combine Kinyakyusa with the official instructional medium - Kiswahili, in classrooms. The researcher observed teachers providing room to pupils to use their L1 when they failed to grasp the content in L2 – Kiswahili. But amidst all these, teachers encouraged pupils to use Kiswahili believing that Kiswahili is the LoI and the essence of translanguaging to take pupils to the point they master Kiswahili.

5.3   Conclusion

The study concluded that explaining difficult terms, explaining the lesson, drawing attention, and summarizing the lesson were among the main contexts that led both

learners and teachers to translanguage in standard one primary school classrooms in Tanzanian rural areas. It was therefore ascertained that during the teaching and learning process, thirty percent of the discussions in classrooms were translanguaging in both Kiswahili and learners' L1 to facilitate lesson understanding. Additionally, it was concluded that the need for effective participation during teaching and learning, insufficient understanding of the language of instruction, facilitating better comprehension, developing good relationships between learners and teachers, and the presence of learners belonging to the same native language were among the major causes of translanguaging. Finally, the study concluded that teachers agreed to translanguaging during teaching and learning in standard one primary school classrooms in Tanzanian rural areas. Teachers had a positive attitude towards translanguaging, although the Tanzanian education policy does not allow the use of learners' native language during the teaching and learning process. Translanguaging was done with the intention of not going against the policy but enabling learners to go through a transition period of developing L2(Kiswahili) which is a language of instruction as the policy states.

Various studies in Tanzania have previously investigated languages of instruction (Kiswahili and English) at the primary to university level. Scholars have been emphasizing the Tanzanian education policy to allow Kiswahili to be used from the primary level to the university level. Nevertheless, this study explored the usefulness of learners' first languages (ECLs) in rural settings for lower-level primary schools. The findings in this study revealed that learners in standard one in rural settings are less fluent in the Kiswahili language of instruction hence they incorporated learners'

ethnic languages with Kiswahili to enable effective participation and deep comprehension during teaching and learning although it was against the education policy.

5.4   Recommendations

The findings of this study led the researcher to make the following recommendations. Language policymakers should understand the value of Tanzania's ethnic community languages and the role they play in assisting learners, especially in lower-level classes in rural settings, and therefore should see the importanceof reviewing the Tanzania education policy on how to incorporate these ethnic community languages. Therefore there is a need for the Tanzanian education policy to see the usefulness of these ECLs in the education policy to the lower levels in rural settings where there is a need for translanguaging.

Curricular developers and key actors should develop curriculum materials relating to ethnic community languages that may help the usersunderstand more easily. Materials relating to ethnic community Languages help both learners and teachers create permanent memories rather than abstract ones.

5.5   Areas for further research

This study has explored translanguaging in lower primary school levels of education by investigating the interaction of teachers and pupils in two divisions in the Rungwe District. These are the divisions where children join primary school without knowing the LoI – Kiswahili. Teachers use pupils' L1 as a way of teaching Kiswahili and other content subjects. This research can also be replicated in other areas with pupils

speaking other L1 when joining the primary school to find out how teachers and pupils interact in classrooms. Rungwe might not be an isolated case where children cope with the LoI that is not their L1, thus the investigation of the behaviour of both teachers and pupils would be of vital importance. The exploration of this nature could be case by case or comparative where one study combines experiences in several regions to come up with broader generalizations unlike when one investigator focuses on one part of the region.

Another area of study would be to explore translanguaging in upper primary school levels of education, say standards four and five, in similar areas where pupils join primary schools with little or no knowledge of LoI. Standard four and five pupils are expected to have master Kiswahili (LoI), but the interest at this stage would be to find out the practice of translanguaging and the reasons behind it. The assumption is that even in upper primary school levels of education teachers would still be using L1 in their teaching. At this juncture, such studies will explain the persistence of translanguaging and its reasons.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Observation checklist

School……………..Class………………Ward…………….Subject………………

The researcher observed the use of the language by teachers and learners during lessons.

Which language do the teachers or learners use when:

TEACHER	English/ Kiswahili	Mother tongue	Code switch
Greetings			
Explaining lesson objectives			
Introducing the new lesson			
Drawing the learners' attention			
Explaining the difficult terms			
Asking questions			
Defining new concepts			
Giving tasks/ home works			
Giving feedback			
Learners do not understand			
Summarizing the lessons			
Dismissing the class			
LEARNERS			
Asking questions to the teacher			
Answering teacher's questions			
Discussing in groups			
Interacting with others in the class			
Asking for permission			
Reporting those making noise to the teacher			
Asking other learners			
Saying goodbye to the teacher			

APPENDIX B: Interview guide for standard one pupils

My name is Harid Mwambula, a Doctor of Philosophy student at the Open University of Tanzania (OUT). I am doing a study titled, 'The exploration of the practice and attitudes of translanguaging in standard one classroom primary school in Tanzanian rural areas.' You are selected to join this study because I believe you have the information that is needed to answer certain questions in this research.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and nobody is forcing you to attend the interview. During the interview, you may decide to stop answering questions at any time, refuse to answer certain questions without giving reasons, or decide not to disclose certain facts without fear of being intimidated.

I would like to assure you that the information that you supply in this interview is considered confidential and it cannot be shared with a third party without your prior consent. Note also that the information in this study will only be used for this study and nothing more.

If you grant informed consent to take part in this interview, sign below (the parent, guardian, or class teacher/head teachers may sign on behalf)

_____

Signature

1. General information about languages

1.1.   What is your age? _____ years old

1.2.   What is your stream (A, B, C, …)? _____

1.3.   What area do you live in? Name part of the village _____

1.4.   What language do you speak at home?

1.5.   What other languages can you speak?

1.5.1 Mention languages you speak in the following contexts:

1.5.2 Home with mother, father, uncles, aunts, and siblings _____

1.5.3Around the school outside classrooms with teachers and fellow pupils

_____

1.5.4 In classrooms with teachers and fellow pupils _____

1.5.5 In the village arena when playing with other children _____

1.5.6 Do your parents or elder siblings assist you with your schoolwork?

If yes, what language do they use?

If not, give reasons.

2.1. OCCURRENCE

2.2.1 Do you use more than one language during lessons in your classroom?

Yes/No

2.2.2 When do you normally code-switch during the lessons?

2.2.3 Why do you use more than one language during lessons?

3. FREQUENCY

3.1 How often do you change from one language to the next in the classroom?

Never	Sometimes	Everyday	Frequently

4. REASONS FOR TRANSLANGUAGING

4.1. Do you think using your mother tongue and Kiswahili at the same time in a lesson is good or bad?

Give your opinions.

4.2 Do you think learners should be allowed to code-switch during lessons? Give your opinions.

4.3 What could be the reasons why learners are not supposed to code switch in lessons? Give your opinions.

4.4 Do you think translanguaging at your level assists you in understanding the subject better? If your answer is yes, give reasons.

If your answer is no, give reasons.

APPENDIX C: Interview guide for standard one teachers

My name is Harid Mwambula, a Doctor of Philosophy student at the Open University of Tanzania (OUT). I am doing a study titled, 'The exploration of the practice and attitudes of translanguaging in standard one primary school classrooms in Tanzanian rural areas.' You are selected to join this study because you teach standard one pupils and I believe you have vital information for this research.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and nobody is forcing you to attend the interview. During the interview, you may decide to stop the interview at any time, refuse to answer certain questions without giving reasons, or decide not to disclose certain facts at will.

I would like to assure you that the information that you provide in this interview is considered confidential and it cannot be shared with a third party without your prior permission. Note also that the information in this study will only be used for this study and nothing else.

If you grant informed consent to take part in this interview, sign below.

_____
Signature

1. What is your age range? (25-35, 35-45, 45-55, 55+) _____

2. What is your working experience? (less than 2 years, 3-4 years, 5-6 years, 6-10 years, 10+)

3. What is your L1? _____

4. What languages do you normally use when teaching? Give reasons

5. Do you use more than one language (translanguage) during your lesson? Give reasons why.

6. Can you explain situations pupils use their native languages?

5 How do you act in response to the learners asking or answering questions in their mother tongue?

6 Were there times when you as a teacher used learners' mother tongue during your lesson?

7 If yes, in which contexts do you usually use learners' mother tongue during your lesson?

8 How often does this happen and maybe why? Can you explain, please?

9 Tell me please, do you think the learners' mother tongues affect the learning? Explain your answer, please.

10 In your opinion, should the use of two or more languages be allowed in lessons? Explain, please.

11 Do you allow your pupils to use more their mother tongue languages and Kiswahili during the teaching and learning process?

12 What are the successes of bringing other pupils' languages during the teaching and learning process?

13 What are your general views and comments concerning the use of local languages parallel to Kiswahili in the same lessons?

APPENDIX D Research Clearance Letter

THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA

DIRECTORATE OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

P.O. Box 23409
Dar es Salaam, Tanzania
http://www.openuniversity.ac.tz

Tel: 255-22-2668992/2668445
ext.2101
Fax: 255-22-2668759
E-mail: dpgs@out.ac.tz

Our Ref: PG201705139

12th September 2019

District Executive Director,
Rungwe District Council,
P.O.Box 148,
TUKUYU.

RE: RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The Open University of Tanzania was established by an Act of Parliament No. 17 of 1992, which became operational on the 1st March 1993 by public notice No.55 in the official Gazette. The Act was however replaced by the Open University of Tanzania Charter of 2005, which became operational on 1st January 2007.In line with the Charter, the Open University of Tanzania mission is to generate and apply knowledge through research.

To facilitate and to simplify research process therefore, the act empowers the Vice Chancellor of the Open University of Tanzania to issue research clearance, on behalf of the Government of Tanzania and Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology, to both its staff and students who are doing research in Tanzania. With this brief background, the purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Mr.MWAMBULA,Hard Reg No: PG201705139** pursuing **Doctor of Philosophy (PhD).**We here by grant this clearance to conduct a research titled *"Exploration of Attitudes and the Present Practice of Translanguaging in Lower Primary School Classrooms in Rungwe District".* He will collect his data at your area from 15th September 2019 to April 2020.

In case you need any further information, kindly do not hesitate to contact the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Academic) of the Open University of Tanzania, P.O.Box 23409, Dar es Salaam.Tel: 022-2-2668820.We lastly thank you in advance for your assumed cooperation and facilitation of this research academic activity.
Yours Sincerely,

Prof.Hossea Rwegoshora
For:VICE CHANCELLOR
THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA

RUNGWE DISTRICT COUNCIL

Phone: 0252510203
Fax: 2552586

EMail.ded.rungwe@iwayafrica.com

For any reply:

District Executive Directors' office
P.O. Box   148
TUKUYU.

Ref. No. RDC/S.5/VOL.X/81   10th October, 2019

Director,
The Open University Of Tanzania,
P.O. BOX 23409,
DAR —ES - SALAAM.

RE: ACCEPTANCE OF MR. MWAMBULA HARID
FOR RESEARCH

Reference is made from your letter with Ref. No. PG201705139 dated on 12th September 2019 for data collection to your Student.

With this letter I Would like to inform you that the request for the aforementioned Student has been accepted for collecting data at Rungwe District Council in With this letter I Would like to inform you that the request for the aforementioned candidate has been accepted to conduct Research at Rungwe District Council in **Primary Education Department.** The period for which permission has been granted is **September, 2019** to **April, 2020.**

The Student has to report on time as per request.

Thank you for your Cooperation.

Malambugi A.
For: DISTRICT EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
RUNGWE.

Copy: District Executive Director,
            RUNGWE – *Seen in the file.*

    "   Head of Primary Education Department,
            RUNGWE – *Please accept him and assign duties.*

    "   Mwambula Harid – *Report to the Primary Education Officer*