TRANSLANGUAGING IN THE MULTILINGUAL CLASSROOM OF A NATIONAL-TYPE (CHINESE) PRIMARY SCHOOL IN MALAYSIA

Universiti Malaya

TRACY LEE YI NING

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR

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TRACY LEE YI NING

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ABSTRACT

In the multiracial and multilingual classroom of a Malaysian National-Type (Chinese) Primary School (SJKC), students as well as the teacher often make use of their wide linguistic repertoire to interact with each other more effectively. Although the Ministry of Education Malaysia has stressed that English should be used as the sole medium of instruction (EMI) and communication during English lessons in school, the use of translation and switching between languages undeniably still occur to help students make sense of what they are learning. This paper aims to explore how translanguaging is used among students during English lessons and how a teacher who does not speak the students' first language (Mandarin) employs strategies to carry out translanguaging during English lessons. A qualitative case study was carried out to explore how the students and teacher translanguage using English, Mandarin, Bahasa Malaysia and Manglish during English lessons through field notes of classroom observations and a semi-structured interview with selected students and the teacher. The data collected was analysed to develop themes and to answer the research questions posed in this study. The findings of this study revealed that students used translanguaging among themselves using several strategies, such as using their common L1 (Mandarin and Bahasa Malaysia), making language choices to accommodate to the other person's L1, code-switching between Mandarin and English to keep English terms accurate, translating English grammatical terms to their L1 (Mandarin) equivalent and translating Mandarin to English for the non-Mandarin speaking teacher. Meanwhile, the English teacher used strategies to carry out translanguaging during her English lessons such as using non-verbal communication to recognise her students' needs, using translanguaging cues to encourage students' language use and using instances of translation for English language input. It is hoped

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that the findings of the study will help teachers, school administrators and policy makers understand the concept of translanguaging better and further research translanguaging as a teachable strategy to boost second language learning in multilingual classrooms.

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TRANSLANGUAGING DALAM KELAS PELBAGAI BAHASA DI SEKOLAH JENIS KEBANGSAAN (CINA) DI MALAYSIA

ABSTRAK

Di dalam kelas pelbagai bangsa dan bahasa di Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan (SJKC), para pelajar dan guru sering menggunakan himpunan linguistik yang luas untuk berinteraksi antara satu sama lain dengan lebih berkesan. Walaupun Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia (KPM) menegaskan bahawa Bahasa Inggeris harus digunakan sebagai satu-satunya bahasa perantaraan semasa pengajaran Bahasa Inggeris di sekolah, penggunaan terjemahan dan *code-switching* masih berlaku untuk membantu pelajar memahami apa yang sedang dipelajari. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mendalami bagaimana *translanguaging* digunakan di kalangan pelajar semasa mempelajari Bahasa Inggeris dan bagaimana seorang guru yang tidak memahami bahasa ibunda pelajar (Bahasa Cina) menggunakan strategi-strategi untuk menjalankan *translanguaging* dalam kelas Bahasa Inggeris. Kajian kes kualitatif telah dijalankan untuk memahami bagaimana pelajar-pelajar dan seorang guru Bahasa Inggeris menggunakan Bahasa Inggeris, Bahasa Cina, Bahasa Malaysia dan *Manglish* semasa pengajaran Bahasa Inggeris melalui nota bidang pemerhatian kelas dan temuduga separa berstruktur dengan guru dan pelajar-pelajar yang terpilih. Data yang dikumpul dianalisis untuk mengenal pasti tema dan menjawab soalan penyelidikan yang dibangkitkan dalam kajian ini. Penemuan kajian ini mendedahkan bahawa pelajar menggunakan *translanguaging* sesama sendiri melalui beberapa strategi, seperti menggunakan *common L1* (Bahasa Cina dan Bahasa Malaysia), membuat pilihan bahasa untuk menampung keperluan L1 orang lain, *codeswitching* antara Bahasa Cina dan Bahasa Inggeris untuk memastikan istilah Bahasa Inggeris tepat, menterjemahkan istilah tatabahasa Bahasa Inggeris kepada *L1 equivalent* (Bahasa Cina) dan

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menterjemahkan Bahasa Cina ke Bahasa Inggeris untuk guru yang tidak memahami Bahasa Cina. Sementara itu, guru Bahasa Inggeris menggunakan beberapa strategi untuk menjalankan *translanguaging* dalam kelas Bahasa Inggeris seperti menggunakan komunikasi bukan lisan untuk mengenali keperluan pelajarnya, menggunakan isyarat terjemahan untuk mendorong penggunaan bahasa pelajar dan menggunakan terjemahan pelajar sebagai input bahasa Inggeris. Diharapkan penemuan kajian ini akan membantu guru, pentadbir sekolah dan pembuat dasar memahami konsep *translanguaging* dengan lebih mendalam dan menambahkan penyelidikan tentang strategi *translanguaging* sebagai pedagogi untuk meningkatkan pembelajaran bahasa kedua dalam kelas yang berbilang bahasa.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

SK	:	National School *(Sekolah Kebangsaan)*
SJKC	:	Chinese National-type School *(Sekolah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina)*
SJKT	:	Tamil National-type School *(Sekolah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil)*
MOE	:	Ministry of Education
L1	:	First language
L2	:	Second language
TL	:	Target language
EMI	:	English medium of instruction
NVC	:	Non-verbal communication

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Like many other developing countries of today's world, citizens of Malaysia speak more than one language in their everyday lives. These languages originate from the various ethnic groups that reside in Malaysia, comprising of the Malays, the Chinese, the Indians and the natives of Sarawak and Sabah. To keep up with the main languages which are deemed extremely important in everyday life, students are instructed in and taught multiple languages in Malaysian public schools.

Under the Ministry of Education Malaysia (2015), Malaysian public schools are divided into two categories at the primary level; national schools (Sekolah Kebangsaan) and national-type schools (Sekolah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina / Sekolah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil). In *Sekolah Kebangsaan* (SK), Bahasa Malaysia is used as the main medium of instruction while English is taught as a separate subject. On the other hand, *Sekolah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina* (SJKC) and *Sekolah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil* (SJKT) schools use the mother tongue, Mandarin and Tamil respectively as their main medium of instruction. Contrary to SK schools where the national language, Bahasa Malaysia is given more priority, SJKC and SJKT schools place a larger emphasis on the mother tongue. All subjects are taught in the mother tongue while Bahasa Malaysia and English are taught as individual subjects as a part of the students' curricula.

In this multilingual education system, the use of each language is often controlled by school administrators and teachers. There has also been continuous debate that "modern target language teaching methodologies should emphasise on the maximisation of target language input for a better learning outcome" (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Moeller & Roberts, 2013). Therefore, some English language teachers

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reject the use of the mother tongue in their classroom, due to their strong belief in the monolingual principle.

However, when conversing with someone from a different race or a different socio-economic background, it is common for Malaysians to switch between languages as they speak to better convey their message. This phenomenon is known as code-switching or translanguaging. Translanguaging is similar to code-switching in a way that it refers to multilingual speakers' shuttling between languages in a natural manner (Park, 2013). However, García and Wei (2014) further explain that translanguaging differs from code-switching in the sense that it includes "the speakers' construction and use of original and complex interrelated discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or another traditional definition of language". Their knowledge and ability to speak these languages make up the speakers' complete language repertoire.

Through strategic classroom planning, translanguaging seeks to assist multilingual speakers in making meaning, shaping experiences, and gaining deeper understandings and knowledge of the languages in use and the content being taught (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012; Williams, 2012 in Park, 2013). Therefore, language teachers in Malaysian schools may adapt their instructional or communication practices to suit their students' needs. Teachers often make use of the students' first language/home language during their lessons to make their teaching more meaningful and valuable. By switching between the target language (English) and the students' mother tongue, this diminishes the gap between the children's home and school culture (Brown, 2007).

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1.2 Statement of the Problem

In Malaysian SJKC schools, it is common to have students from various ethnicities and linguistic backgrounds, as this school system is not limited to Malaysian students of the Chinese ethnicity. The Ministry of Education Malaysia requires SJKC schools to be opened to Malaysian students of all races (Chinese, Malays, Indians and others) and to welcome non-Malaysian students living in the country. Due to its multiracial and multilingual nature, children in Malaysia grow up in homes where parents and families have various ways of speaking. As they move from the family context into the community context, children acquire different language practices and ways of 'languaging' (García, 2009). In order to communicate effectively with others outside of home, children subconsciously use translanguaging in their everyday lives. Translanguaging is a powerful way for children to use their existing languages to communicate with others, and as a resource and scaffold to learn a second or foreign language. In the words of García (2009), translanguaging is the act performed by bilinguals (or multilinguals) of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what is described as autonomous languages, in order to maximise communicative potential.

In the context of Malaysian education, studies carried out in various high schools and universities show that teachers and instructors often use code switching and code mixing as a positive tool so that students can understand the content better (Ariffin & Husin, 2011; Maarof, 2017; Mahadhir & Then, 2007; Martin, 2005). For both teachers and students, code-switching and code-mixing has its benefits because it aids comprehension of the subject being taught. Translanguaging however, goes beyond code switching and code mixing as bilinguals and multilinguals use languages based on prestige, appropriateness, preference, ability and other factors (García, 2007).

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It also understands that language learning is a long-term process and aims to help the learner negotiate meaning, not enforce correctness (García, Johnson & Seltzer, 2017). In the primary level classroom, students use translanguaging to make sense of what they are learning.

As studies on translanguaging have mostly been carried out in high schools (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Mejia Colindres, 2015; Gorges, 2017; Hassan & Ahmed, 2015; Herrera, 2017; de los Rios & Seltzer, 2017) and universities (Ariffin & Husin, 2011; Champlin, 2016; Rivera & Mazak, 2017) internationally and locally, this gives us room to explore the phenomenon in the primary classroom. It is also known that translanguaging in the classroom functions well when the students and teacher share the same first language. Much studies in the field of translanguaging have dealt with teachers who speak the students' first language (Garza and Langman, 2014; Pontier & Gort, 2016; Shifidi, 2014) and less on those who do not speak the students' first language. It is interesting to note that in Malaysian SJKC classrooms, students and teachers hail from various ethnicities and different language backgrounds. This allows us to question how translanguaging takes place in such situations if the teacher does not speak the students' first language.

Thus, this present study aims to investigate an interesting phenomenon of how primary school students of various ethnicities and linguistic backgrounds use translanguaging during English lessons in an SJKC school. It also seeks to examine how a teacher who does not speak the students' first language makes use of translanguaging strategies during English lessons to help his/her students make sense of their learning.

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1.3 Research Objectives

There are two objectives in this study. First, it aims to investigate how primary school students use translanguaging during English lessons in a SJKC school. This is done by observing the students' discourse in an ESL classroom and identifying how students translanguage with each other during the lesson. Secondly, this study also attempts to discover the strategies used by an English language teacher who does not speak the students' first language to carry out translanguaging during English lessons.

1.4 Research Questions

In relation to the objectives of the study, the following research questions are formulated:

1. How do primary school students use translanguaging during English lessons in an SJKC school?
2. What are the strategies used by an English language teacher who does not speak the students' first language to carry out translanguaging during English lessons?

1.5 Theoretical Background

This section will discuss three theoretical points of view over six decades that play a major role in supporting the use of translanguaging in language classrooms. The subsections below will first explain Vygotsky's (1962) Social Development Theory and its foundation in translanguaging (Section 1.5.1), followed by Cummins' (1979) Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis which initiated the support for transfer between languages (Section 1.5.2), and finally, the recent theory of translanguaging by García and Li Wei (2014) (Section 1.5.3).

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1.5.1 Social Development Theory

The Social Development Theory by Vygotsky (1934) stresses that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition. This theory is also one of the foundations of constructivism, which argues that the learner is not a blank slate (tabula rasa) but rather, brings past experiences and cultural factors to a situation. The Social Development Theory asserts three major themes regarding social interaction, the more knowledgeable other (MKO), and the zone of proximal development (ZPD).

In the views of Vygotsky (1962), social interaction plays a fundamental role in the process of cognitive development, whereby social learning precedes development. Vygotsky believed that everything is learned on two levels; first, through interaction with others, and then integrated into the individual's mental structure. In Vygotsky's (1978) work, it is stated that "Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals." (pp. 57)

In the second major theme of the Social Development Theory, the more knowledgeable other (MKO), Vygotsky (1978) asserts that adults are also an important source of cognitive development. Much important learning by the child occurs through social interaction with a skillful tutor. The tutor may model behaviours or provide verbal instructions for the child and Vygotsky refers to this as cooperative or collaborative dialogue. When the child understands the actions or instructions provided by the tutor, they internalize the information and use it to guide and regulate their own performance.

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Finally, Vygotsky (1978) sees the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) as the area where the most sensitive instruction or guidance should be given - allowing children to develop the skills they will then use on their own - developing higher mental functions. Vygotsky's theory is relevant to language teaching in terms of instructional concepts such as "scaffolding" and "apperenticeship". In the language classroom, a teacher or a more advanced peer can help to structure, arrange or explain a task so that a novice can work on it successfully.

Similarly in translanguaging, students use the knowledge they already have to work on a task in a different language. The use of the students' L1 in the language classroom can help students communicate (social interaction) with peers and teachers (the more knowledgeable other) to understand a task better. When students are allowed and encouraged to draw on their knowledge in the L1, they are enabled to complete the task successfully. Vygotsky's theories also feed into the current interest in collaborative learning, where scaffolding in the Zone of Proximal Development comes into play. Thus, as the aim of translanguaging is to make meaning to assist one's learning, it is in line with the propositions of the Social Development Theory.

1.5.2 Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis

Cummins' Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (1979) posits that bilinguals do not separately store two different languages. Instead, there is a cognitive interdependence between the L1 and L2, known as the common underlying proficiency (CUP). Commonly represented as the 'dual iceberg' model, this hypothesis posits that every language consists of surface features. However, underlying those surface features, there is a common underlying proficiency across languages. This reveals the relationship between the first language and the learning of another. Although the surface features of the L1 and L2 appear to be different, the more cognitively

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demanding tasks such as literacy, content-learning, abstract thinking and problem-solving are common across all languages.

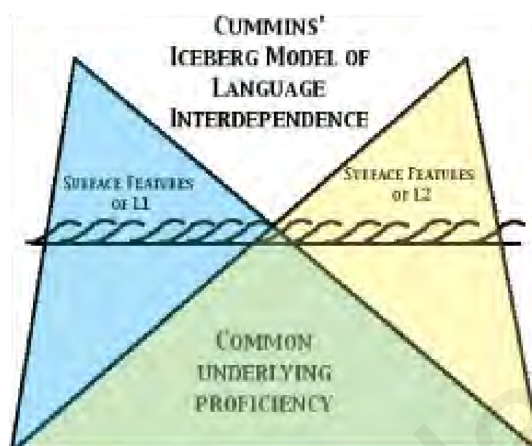

Figure 1.1: Cummin's Iceberg Model of Language Interdependence (1979)

This hypothesis is supported by Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2000) who argue that a fundamental principle of learning states that "learners' pre-existing knowledge is the foundation for all future learning". As early L2 learners' prior knowledge is encoded in their L1, activation and building on prior knowledge requires the linking of the L2's concepts and knowledge with the learner's L1 cognitive schemata (Cummins, 2001, 2007; García, 2009; Lucas & Katz, 1994 in Cummins, 2009). In the development of translanguaging as a bilingual pedagogy, Cummins (2005) argued for a need to articulate bilingual instructional strategies that teach explicitly for two-way cross-language transfer. Cummins' theory has played a significant role in García's (2009) concept of translanguaging, which she describes as "the usual and normal practice of bilingualism without diglossic function separation". Thus, García and Wei (2014) argue that the teaching of one language cannot be enacted in total separation from other language practices, and this leads us to the use of translanguaging in bilingual and multilingual language classrooms.

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1.5.3 Translanguaging

Albeit having roots in the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis, the theory of translanguaging differs from that of Cummins' (1979). As described in the section above, the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis suggests that bilinguals/multilinguals have separate linguistic systems, although they feed each other and are interdependent. The Common Underlying Proficiency enables learners to transfer concepts (both academic and linguistic) from one language to another, but maintains that the L1 and L2 are two separate linguistic systems.

In contrast, García and Kleyn (2016) argue that in translanguaging, bilinguals and multilinguals have one language system, as shown in Figure 2 below. Translanguaging is defined as the deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire, whereby the features (F) of the speaker's linguistic repertoire is annotated with a nominal (n), and are not separately designated or labelled as L1 or L2 (García & Li Wei, 2014). Figure 2 below shows how bilingual / multilingual speakers work with two or more languages within a single linguistic repertoire.

Figure 1.2: Model of Translanguaging by García & Li Wei (2014)

As the theory of translanguaging views that bilingual / multilingual speakers have one complex and dynamic linguistic system (García & Kleyn, 2016), the features (F) of a bilingual / multilingual repertoire simply belong to the speakers themselves and not to the language. García and Li Wei (2014) suggest that the speaker then learns to separate the languages into individual ones, as defined by social factors and not simply linguistic ones. To exemplify, when García speaks in her bilingual home, she

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uses a mix of Spanish and English words. However, to García, these words do not simply belong to the Spanish or English language, but they are simply her own words. As there are no linguistic features in 'casa' and 'table' that make one Spanish and the other English (García & Kleyn, 2016), the translanguaging model argues that named languages like Spanish, English and Russian have material and social reality, but not linguistic reality (Otheguy, García, & Reed, 2015). Therefore, it is important for language educators to encourage multilingual learners to develop their full language repertoire to support their understanding of content, develop their language performances and buttress their socioemotional development (García & Kleyn, 2016).

1.5.4 Summary

This proposed study aims to discover how students use translanguaging among themselves, moving within the "one complex and dynamic linguistic system" that they possess from living and learning in a multilingual society. It also seeks to explore how English teachers who do not speak the students' first language use their own linguistic repertoire and make use of their students' linguistic repertoire to translanguage during English lessons. Thus, this study will be guided by the theory of translanguaging, whereby the researcher aims to explore how students and teachers move within their linguistic repertoire of English, Mandarin, Bahasa Malaysia and Manglish in order to make sense of English language learning in the classroom.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study will have implications for policy and practice in English language teaching in Malaysian SJKC schools. In many teacher education programmes, English language teachers are urged to follow an 'English-only policy' where lessons should be strictly taught in English only. In addition, language teachers can be made aware of the benefits of bilingualism and translanguaging. Teacher

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educators also play an important role in this process, as they are the ones who provide future teachers with the knowledge and skills to apply translanguaging in their teaching.

1.7 Limitations and Scope

This study focuses on one SJKC school in an urban city of Malaysia, where students come from multiracial backgrounds and have been exposed to multilingual education for several years. The languages used in this school are Mandarin, English and Bahasa Malaysia. It is to be noted that not all teachers who work in SJKC schools speak or understand Mandarin, as their first language is English or Bahasa Malaysia. This study also focuses particularly on the oral practices of translanguaging among SJKC students and the teacher in the English language classroom. By the end of the study, the researcher will discuss the pedagogical implications of this practice.

1.8 Definition of Key Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definition of terms will apply:

1.8.1 Bilingualism

Bilingualism is defined as the use of two languages, either by a speaker or a community of speakers. In Malaysia, most residents are at least bilingual, whereby they speak their mother tongue (Bahasa Malaysia, Mandarin, Tamil, or other dialects) and English which is taught as a second language in Malaysian schools.

1.8.2 Multilingualism

Multilingualism is defined as the use of two or more languages, either by a speaker or a community of speakers. In Malaysia SJKC schools, most students are multilingual as they learn Bahasa Malaysia, Mandarin and English as core subjects in school. However, it must be noted that not every student is proficient in speaking or

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using all three languages. Malaysian students who graduate from SJKC schools often have varying degrees of fluency in these three languages.

1.8.3 Translanguaging

Originally, translanguaging was a term first coined by Cen Williams (1994), known as 'trawsieithu' in Welsh. It can be controlled by both the teacher and the student to maximise the learner's bilingual ability. The prefix 'trans' carries several important meanings, such as:

1. the fluid practices that go beyond (transcend) socially constructed language systems and structures to engage diverse multiple meaning-making systems and subjectivities.
2. the transformative capacity of translanguaging practices, not only for language systems, but also individual's cognition and social structures.
3. the transdisciplinary consequences of re-conceptualizing language, language learning and language use for linguistics, psychology, sociology and education.

According to García (2010), translanguaging is the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, in order to maximise communicative potential. In Potowski and Rothman (2011), translanguaging is further described by García, Sylvan and Witt (2011) as hybrid practices of languaging bilingually. This means that languages are crossed over strict linguistic boundaries so their language performance shows hybridity. In a case study by García et al. (2011), translanguaging is known to take place across teachers and students in four ways. First, *to mediate understanding*. This occurs when students use translations and interpretations to mediate among themselves and with others. Secondly, *to co-construct and construct meaning*. This is when children make use of the other language for understanding. Thirdly, *to include*, which

refers to children being responsive to perceived interlocutor's language use. Lastly, *to exclude and to show knowledge*. This occurs when they intend to exclude other children from interaction and when they are trying out the words that they know (p.33). In other words, translanguaging simply refers to the language practices of bilingual people.

In this study, the distinction between codeswitching and translanguaging follows the definition by Adamson and Fujimoto-Adamson (2012) whereby code-switching is a tool used by translanguaging, a pedagogical approach to negotiate meaning making by multilingual learners in an educational setting. Beyond codeswitching, translanguaging also includes translation.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter provides some background information about the education system in Malaysia, particularly the SJKC schools and the phenomenon of translanguaging in Malaysian SJKC classrooms. It also presents the objectives of the study which should be accomplished by the researcher by the end of the study. In addition, this chapter also discusses the importance of this study to both teachers and teacher educators, and some limitations that the researcher might face upon completing the study. It also explains the definition of some important linguistic terms which will be used throughout the study. The researcher hopes that this chapter is able to introduce the concept of translanguaging to the readers and give them some insights of what they can expect of the study.

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CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

In the recent years, a great deal of research work has been actively conducted on the phenomenon of translanguaging in bilingual and multilingual societies. Translanguaging is advocated as a valuable pedagogy that not only develops one's ability to operate between languages, but also nourishes creativity and a multilingual sense of self (Di Pietro, 2015). Translanguaging is unique, in the sense that it permits individuals to co-construct meanings and share knowledge, skills and experiences across multiple languages and cultures. With great interest, translanguaging has been viewed from various perspectives by linguists, sociolinguists, and language teachers who have been practising it in their classrooms. Though their emphasis may differ, prior research (García & Wei, 2014; Grosjean, 2016; Williams, 2002) has provided significant and interesting findings that provoke further research for a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of translanguaging.

This literature review encompasses three main sections that will first provide readers with the major trends in second language teaching and learning around the world, as well as in Malaysia (Section 2.2). It will then introduce the common pedagogical practices in ESL classrooms (Section 2.3), followed by a review of multilingual schools and classroom language ecologies (Section 2.4).

2.1 Second Language Teaching and Learning

Second language teaching and learning has been ever-changing over the decades as language teachers constantly try out newer and better ways to teach students a second language most effectively. While some pedagogies work better than others, proponents of each pedagogy believe that their ways work best, which leads us to the diverse range second language teaching and learning pedagogies we have in the current

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day. In the subsections below, we will look into the major trends in second language teaching and learning (Section 2.1.1). We will then further explore the arguments between the proponents of the monolingual principle (Section 2.1.2) and how bilingual / multilingual education has challenged the assumptions of target language only input in second language teaching and learning (Section 2.1.3). Finally, we will look into the benefits of being bilingual / multilingual in second language teaching and learning (Section 2.1.4).

2.1.1 Major Trends in Second Language Teaching and Learning

Over the last 50 years, and especially during the last 20 years, the perspectives on English language teaching and learning have changed with time. English is no longer a second language to most learners as many can already speak and know more than two languages. With this awareness, the acronyms for the field of English language teaching have also evolved from TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language) to TESOL (Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages). Rather than placing emphasis on the teaching and learning of "English as a second language", research and discussions have gradually shifted to focus on the issues of "World Englishes" and "English as a Lingua Franca" (Sun, 2017).

In the past, the goals of second language teaching and learning focused solely on developing language skills and mimicking native English speakers (Moeller & Catalano, 2015). However, great knowledge of a language does not come of much use if the learner is unaware of world issues, has no social conscience, cannot use their communication skills to solve international crime, corruption or environmental destruction (Brown, 1994; Cates, 1997). This has led English teachers to recognize that the purpose of students learning a second language is not just to imitate native speakers, but to produce competent language users who are capable of being critical

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thinkers (Luk & Lin, 2014) and constructive social change agents in the world (Crookes, 2017; Ennser-Kananen, 2016).

As a result of the change in perspectives and goals of second language teaching and learning, a shift in the approaches in teaching has also been observed. In the 21st century, also known as the 'Post-Method Era', Kumaravadivelu (2006) argues that the concept of 'method' needs to be deconstructed and eclecticism is the favoured teaching approach, whereby a variety of language learning activities are used in the classroom (Kumar, 2013; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Teachers in the post-method perspective are seen as teachers with autonomy, as well as co-learners and researchers with their students and the materials used in their lessons (Richards, 2013).

Today, the use of L1 in L2 pedagogy and the use of different accents in listening activities and tests are encouraged in second language teaching and learning. The principled use of L1 in conjunction with the target language (TL) has been proposed for a variety of pedagogical reasons. It is used to promote transition from L1 to TL use (Cook, 2010; Shamash, 1990), to provide scaffolding for learning and completing tasks (Anton & Dicamilla, 1998; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2014; Cho & Kim, 2017; García Mayo & de los Angeles Hildalgo, 2017), to improve negotiations (Cho & Kim, 2017; Swain & Lapkin, 2000), to enhance TL comprehension (Bartlett, 2017; Turnbull, 2001) and to reduce cognitive overload and anxiety levels in the L2 classroom (Bruen & Kelly, 2014). Although the benefits of L1 use in L2 classrooms have been justified, none of its advocates endorse its unlimited use and warn against excessive L1 use (Atkinson, 1987; Bozorgian & Fallahpour, 2015; Cook, 2001; Shabir, 2017; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Turnbull, 2018; Wells, 1999). Therefore, it has been greatly recommended that language teachers should be sufficiently educated in using

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the L1 optimally to facilitate students' learning in the L2 classroom (Lo, 2014; Turnbull, 2018).

Along with the changes seen in language classrooms, researchers have put focus on the expansion of the communicative competence framework proposed by Canale and Swain (1980, 1981). Cook (1991) introduced the term "multi-competence" as a new way of looking at second language acquisition (SLA). Multi-competence was first referred to 'the compound state of a mind with two grammars' (Cook, 1991) and was later re-defined as 'the knowledge of more than one language in the same mind' (Cook, 1994). Multi-competence thus presents a view of second language acquisition (SLA) based on the second language (L2) user as a whole person rather than on the monolingual native speaker (Cook, 2012). Meanwhile, Byram (1997), Kohn (2013), Neuliep (2017), as well as Samovar, Porter, McDaniel and Roy (2014) have emphasized the importance of intercultural communicative competence, the ability to understand cultures including one's own, and use this understanding to communicate with people from other cultures successfully. When teaching intercultural communicative competence, teachers need to attend to both local and international cultures in order the produce effective English language users who are able communicate with people from other cultures. Therefore, in today's multilingual classrooms, teachers ought to be prepared to teach English as an international language (Matsuda, 2017).

The implication of the changes in second language teaching and learning above is the change in the views, roles and responsibilities of effective English teachers (Sun, 2017) In order to create effective pedagogy to teach English as an international language (McKay, 2018), teachers must first understand the cultures their students come from and aim to produce effective language users competent to use English

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beyond the classroom and not simply learners who imitate native speakers' languages and cultures. Thus, second and foreign language teachers have multiple roles and responsibilities as facilitators of student learning and creators of a productive classroom environment. In today's second language teaching and learning, an effective English teacher is no longer determined by their linguistic identity and first language background. Rather, non-native-English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) are now more recognized for their linguistic, instructional and intercultural competence (Sun, 2017), as well as having their viewpoints influence current ELT practice and research. (Middlecamp, 2017).

2.1.2 The Monolingual Principle

Over the decades, there has been a continuum of perspectives on target language (TL) and first language (L1) use in the teaching and learning of second languages (Hawkins, 2015; Macaro, 2005). There are two opposing views - those who support the use of only the target language (TL) and those who prefer to incorporate first language (L1) into the teaching and learning of English. In support of Krashen's (1982) comprehensible input hypothesis, proponents of the monolingual principle argue that exposing learners to extensive periods of comprehensible input in the TL will ensure mastery in the TL as it emphasizes the general law of learning: We learn what we practice.

The monolingual principle dominated L2 classrooms around the world for many decades as researchers and language teachers strongly believed that this was the best way for students to learn a second language. This principle initially gained widespread acceptance in the context of the direct method and has continued to exert a strong influence on various language teaching approaches since that time (Yu, 2000). Howatt (1984) emphasized on the instructional use of the TL to the exclusion of students'

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home language (L1), where teachers are encouraged to use only the TL and avoid using the mother tongue (L1) at all costs. The goal of the monolingual principle is to enable learners to think in the TL with minimal interference from the L1. It was believed that by strictly separating L1 from TL, cross-contamination between languages can be avoided, thus making it easier for the child to acquire a new linguistic system as he / she internalizes a lesson (Jacobson & Faltis, 1990). Cummins (2005, 2007) further describes the assumptions behind the monolingual instructional approach as follows:

1. Instruction should be carried out exclusively in the target language without recourse to the students' LI.
2. Translation between L1 and TL has no place in the teaching of language or literacy. Encouragement of translation in TL teaching is viewed as the reversion to the discredited grammar/translation method, or concurrent translation method.
3. Within TL immersion and bilingual/dual language programmes, the two languages should be kept rigidly separate: They constitute "two solitudes." (p.588)

Under the influence of the monolingual principle, English teachers are urged to use only English in teaching, either exclusively or as much as possible (He, 2012). As a result, TL has been acknowledged as the only legitimate language in second language classrooms (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). In Malaysia, a study on code-switching carried out by Martin (2005) has highlighted that although it is common to use the L1 in the teaching of English, it is often lambasted as "bad practice" and teachers are blamed for their lack of English language competence (p.88). Thus, the insistence of the TL being used as the sole medium of instruction in language lessons can be seen in classrooms across the country.

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2.1.3 Challenging the Monolingual Principle: Bilingual / Multilingual Education

As citizens of the world have increasingly become bilingual/multilingual, challenges to the exclusive use of TL in second language teaching and learning have emerged over the years. The growing popularity of translanguaging in education is mainly spurred on by the view of bilingualism as being an advantage rather than a disadvantage as we progress towards becoming global citizens (Carstens, 2015). Studies have confirmed that the first language can be beneficial as a cognitive tool that aids in second language learning (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Lantolf, Thorne & Poehner, 2015; Lin, 2015; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Watanabe, 2008 in Moeller, 2013). Various scholars such as Swain and Lapkin (2000), Turnbull (2001), and Turnbull and Arnett (2002) have also argued that by using L1 as a frame of reference, language can be more easily processed by the learners as it moves from input to intake (Turnbull, 2001, p. 533). This results in a greater understanding of the TL (Dickson, 1992; Py, 1996). Looking back to the past four decades, Cummins' (1979) theory of linguistic interdependence posits that both languages bolster each other in the students' acquisition of language and knowledge. Concurrently, Cummins proposed his theory of common underlying proficiency, positing that knowledge and abilities acquired in one language are potentially available for the development of another. As learners' pre-existing knowledge is the foundation for all future learning (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000), L1 should not be banished from the classroom if it is useful to help L2 learners link English concepts and knowledge with their L1 cognitive schemata (Cummins, 2009).

Despite the support given, attempts to increase the amount of the TL in classrooms have been criticized by several researchers such as Brubacker (2009),

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Macaro (2009) and García (2014), who argue that such a claim does not have much theoretical or empirical support to date. However, Cummins (2009) proceeds to argue that there are strong empirical and theoretical reasons to challenge the monolingual principle and articulate a set of bilingual instructional strategies that more adequately address the challenges of English language and academic development. Recent studies carried out by Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009), Cummins (2007), Escobar (2016), Hawkins (2015), Kirkpatrick and Chau (2008) as well as Schecter and Cummins (2003) show that the monolingual principle has been challenged and the role of L1 as a teaching and learning resource for L2 development is now acknowledged (He, 2012). Grosjean (1982) and García (2014) unanimously argue that bilingual students are not merely speakers of a first and a second language. As a child learns languages, new language practices emerge in interrelationship with old ones, and these language practices are always dynamically enacted.

Many scholars have also argued that bilingualism / multilingualism can be better seen as dynamic (De Bot, Lowie & Verspoor, 2005; Flores & Schissel, 2014; García, 2009; Laarsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) as bilinguals and multilinguals often use their complex language repertoire to fulfill the communicative needs that emerge from the different landscapes and speakers through which they shuttle back and forth (García, 2014). A study carried out by Lee (2012) also discovered that young EFL learners in Korea were not in favour of an English-only teaching approach but instead, support the recent movement towards bilingualism. This has led to the advancement of bilingual and multilingual education, which are defined as the use of two (or more) languages of instruction at some point in a student's school career (Cummins, 2008).

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Traditionally, the teaching of English as a second language has taken place in English only, but as the complex translanguaging practices of bilinguals are made more evident, teaching pedagogies which emphasise on language separation have to be abandoned. The idea that an additional language could be taught to a monolithic group that starts out as monolingual is no longer viable (García, 2009) and monolingual education cannot be sustained in an environment where most of the children speak a language other than English. The teaching of English cannot be enacted in total separation from other language practices (García, 2014) as bilingual/multilingual education requires the use of diverse language practices to educate (García & Lin, 2017). Thus, as we move forward into bilingual and multilingual education, language teachers must learn to adopt translanguaging strategies in their pedagogy.

2.1.4 Benefits of Being Bilingual / Multilingual

In the current day, the view of bilingualism is remarkably different from how it was understood in the 20th century. Researchers, educators and policy makers once long considered a second language to be a cognitive interference that hindered a child's academic and intellectual development (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). Although it has been proven that the interference does exist, at the same time, it forces the brain to resolve internal conflict, giving the mind a workout that strengthens its cognitive muscles. Researches in the 21st century have supported the notion that bilingual education has positive outcomes (August & Shanahan, 2006; Bialystok, 2016; Genesee, Lindhom-Leary, Saunders & Christian, 2006) and shown that bilinguals/multilinguals have an advantage in cognition over monolinguals (Goldenberg & Wagner, 2015; Goriot, Denessen, Bakker & Droop, 2016; Marian & Shook, 2012).

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Dating back as far as 1962, Peal and Lambert (1962) discovered that bilinguals performed significantly better than monolinguals on both verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests. It is argued that bilinguals have a language asset, are more facile at concept formation and have a greater mental flexibility. Studies have also discovered that bilingual brains have better attention and task-switching abilities than the monolingual brain (Marian & Shook, 2012; Wiseheart, Viswanathan & Bialystok, 2014). This is due to its ability to inhibit one language while using the other and their ability to switch between two or more languages allows them to perform better in switching tasks. This has been proven through studies on executive functioning carried out by Bialystok and Viswanathan (2009), Goriot et al. (2016), and Morales, Calvo, and Bialystok (2013) as the bilingual experience improves the brain's executive function - a command system that directs the attention processes that we use for planning, solving problems and performing other mentally demanding tasks.

Managing and switching between two languages is assumed to result in enhanced and more flexible switching abilities (Green, 1998; Wiseheart, Viswanathan & Bialystok, 2014), as well as more efficient processing of information in working memory (Adesope, Lavin, Thompson, & Ungerleider, 2010; Blom, Kuntay, Messer, Verhagen, & Leseman, 2014). This is because for bilinguals/multilinguals, languages are not discrete and separate. Instead, they are an integrated system whereby multiple languages are negotiated for communication (Canagarajah, 2009; García & Lin, 2016). For these reasons, language proficiency for multilinguals is focused on repertoire building, such as developing abilities in distinct functions served by different languages, rather than total mastery of each individual language.

Finally, it has also been argued that bilingualism has positive effects at both ends of the age spectrum. Several studies have reported a positive effect of childhood

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bilingualism on executive control and functioning (Foy & Mann, 2014; Nicolay & Poncelet, 2015; Sorge, Toplak & Bialystok, 2017) and inhibitory control (Verhagen, Mulder & Leseman, 2017). Bilingual children as young as seven months can better adjust to environmental changes compared to their monolingual peers (Marian & Shook, 2012) and develop better expressive language skills through language use/output (Ribot, Hoff & Burridge, 2017). On the other hand, bilingual seniors experience less cognitive decline as being bilingual helps to shield against dementia in old age (Bak, Nissan, Allerhand & Deary, 2014; Marian & Shook, 2012). Higher degrees of bilingualism were also associated with increasingly later age-of-diagnosis and age of onset of symptoms of Alzheimer's disease and Mild Cognitive Impairment (Bialystok, Craik, Binns, Ossher & Freedman, 2014; Gollan, Salmon, Montoya, & Galasko, 2011).

2.2 Common Pedagogical Practices in ESL Classrooms

Pedagogies of teaching a language are constantly changing in second language classrooms across the globe. With the emergence of newer and so called "better" pedagogical approaches, some traditional pedagogical approaches have slowly disappeared over time. In every part of the world, language teachers often use the best available approaches to teach more effectively in order to provide students with the best quality of language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In recent years, pedagogical practice in ESL classrooms have gradually shifted from the "focus on forms" to the "focus on students" approach. The "focus on students" approach emphasises students' communicative competence, whereby teachers make use of approaches such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) and Content Based Language Teaching in their language classrooms. These communicative pedagogical practices have been made popular due

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to their ability to allow students to communicate in the target language whilst completing a task. In Springer and Collins (2008), the findings of their study revealed that during communicative activities, participants could fill gaps in their interlanguage capacity by communicating with one another. Whilst communicating with others, translanguaging plays a great role to make meaning, as translanguaging concerns effective communication, function rather than form, cognitive activity as well as language production (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). In addition, translanguaging also bridges gaps across languages and cultures in everyday life and communication (Dooly & Vallejo Rubinstein, 2018).

2.2.1 Pedagogical Practices in ESL Classrooms Through the Years

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach places its focus on interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of the study. The goal of CLT is the learner's ability to communicate in the target language and the process of learning requires practising the target language through interaction with other learners and the instructors. Therefore, the essence of this approach is the engagement of learners in communication to allow them to develop their communicative competence (Savignon, 2006). To achieve its goals, CLT encourages the use of language in class combined with the use of the language outside of class, focuses on the use of real-life language and encourages the use of authentic texts and authentic materials in the lessons. In relation to translanguaging, CLT is an approach that understands language as inseparable from individual identity and social behaviour (Savignon, 2006). Therefore, Hornberger and Link (2012) argue that the welcoming of translanguaging is not only necessary in the communicative classroom but is in fact a desirable educational practice. The implication of this is that schools need to offer new spaces to be exploited for innovative programmes, curricula and practices that recognize, value and build on

the communicative repertoires and translanguaging practices of students, their families and communities.

The Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) approach has been deemed the most favourable approach to second and foreign language teaching in some countries like New Zealand and Vietnam (Van den Branden, 2016). TBLT originally grew out of applied linguists' and pedagogues' discontent with the existing approaches to second/foreign language teaching. Long (1985) argued that in many second language classes, language was approached as a system of elements and rules that were explicitly taught in a piecemeal and decontextualized fashion. This approach to language learning is inconsistent with the way people learn a language naturally. Therefore, linguists have coined the term 'task-based' in attempts to organise language learning curriculum around a series of task-based projects (Prabhu, 1987; Long, 1985; Pica, 1987). The aim of TBLT was to expose language learners to meaningful input from the early stages and encourage them to communicate using whatever limited linguistic resources they had already built up (Van den Branden, 2016). Scholars have defined 'tasks' in various ways over the past three decades, but all of them share a common core: a task is a goal-oriented activity that people undertake and involves the meaningful use of language. It has been discovered that goal-related and outcome-oriented activities allowed students to actively communicate to complete the tasks. (Mak, Coniam & Kwan, 2008). These task-based activities reflected the situational and interactional authenticity in second language use. While completing tasks given, bilingual and multilingual students subconsciously use translanguaging as a communicative resource to gather information in their first and second language. It has been discovered that the awareness of translanguaging in completing tasks has led to improvements in written work (Adamson & Coulson, 2015), students' ability to create

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bilingual texts and effectively translate for one another (Rowe, 2018). Therefore, it has been argued that there should be room for development of a multilingual teaching pedagogy to advance theory and practices of translanguaging as a teachable strategy.

The Content Based Language Teaching (CBLT) Approach is an instructional approach in which non-linguistic content such as mathematics, science, history or geography is taught to students through the medium of a language that they are learning as an additional language (Lyster, 2017). CBLT shifts the focus from language as a course content to language as a medium of instruction. This is because content-based courses are a natural concomitant of communicative approaches to second/foreign language approaches that emphasise the use of language to interpret, express and negotiate meaning (Savignon, 1991). The effectiveness of teaching language through content has been proven through several studies (Genesee, 1987; Hoffman, Chapter 7; Cenoz, Chapter 8; Genesee, Chapter 11 in Cenoz & Genesee, 1998). Students in immersion programmes, where content is learned through the medium of a new language have shown to develop high levels of language proficiency. They have also met or exceeded expectation for content learning as CBLT can be motivating (Lightbown, 2014). In content-based instruction, meaning is always the focus of instruction, learning experiences and tasks. Engaging students in meaningful interaction that challenges them in cognitively age-appropriate ways can help them maintain their interest while expanding their language skills (Lightbown, 2014). Therefore, students are required to communicate with the teacher, one another, or text, in order to access or apply content (Met, 1998).

In the 21st century, also known as the post-method era, language teaching acknowledges the critical dimensions of the teaching profession. Prabhu (1990) initially rejected the concept of “method” because it is the teacher who should make

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the crucial learning and teaching decisions about what works and what does not work in his/her classroom. As for Kumaravadivelu (1994), the concept of post-method signifies an alternative to method rather than an alternative method. In the post-method era, the role of the teacher is seen as central. An effective teacher is able to analyse their classroom procedure based on their plausibility or principled pragmatism so that they can make necessary changes to their instruction to achieve desired goals (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b; Tasnimi, 2014). Although post-method has striking similarities with the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, in the sense that they both emphasise interpersonal communication as a means for negotiation of meaning, the former recognizes the need for more inclusiveness and empowerment of teachers in the teaching and learning process. (Bell, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Tasnimi, 2014)

To conclude this section, it can be said that the essence of all these teaching pedagogies is communication. Most of the time teachers are working with students to explore concepts, add to their knowledge, make connections between ideas and to help them make their voices heard by others (García, 2009). In the process of communication, the use of all our language resources can be very valuable. Therefore, it has led us to consider translanguaging as a pedagogy for teaching and learning in the bilingual and multilingual classroom.

2.2.2 Second Language Learning Strategies

While teachers employ their best approaches to language teaching in class, students themselves have strategies to cope with the language they are learning. As a result of the International Project on Language Learning Strategies (IPOLLS), language learning strategies are defined as “strategies used by language learners that make language learning and use easier, faster and more enjoyable” (Cohen, 2014, p.

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10). Language learning strategies include strategies for identifying the material that needs to be learned, distinguishing it from other materials if necessary, grouping information for easier learning, having repeated contact with the material and memorizing material which is not naturally acquired through exposure to the language (Cohen, 2014).

When the learner consciously chooses strategies that fit his or her learning style and the L2 task at hand, these strategies become a useful toolkit for active, conscious, and purposeful self-regulation of learning. Various studies in local and international contexts (Che Musa, Khoo & Azman, 2012; Cohen, 2014; Mahalingam & Yunus, 2017; Oxford, 2016) have introduced language learning as an autonomous skill which requires students to be responsible for their own learning. Language learning strategies are classified into six groups identified by Oxford (1990) - cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social; and are still strongly used as a guide for studies on language learning strategies until this day.

Cognitive strategies enable learners to manipulate the language material in direct ways since they involve the awareness, perception, reasoning and conceptualizing process that learners undertake in learning the TL and activating their knowledge (Cohen, 2014). These include note-taking, reasoning, analysis, synthesis, outlining, organising new language, summarising meaning, guessing meaning from context, repetition and using imagery for memorisation to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures), practicing in naturalistic settings, and practicing structures and sounds formally. In Mahalingam and Yunus (2017), it was found that the use of a dictionary while writing is a preferred strategy among good language learners and it resembles the receiving and sending messages strategy under cognitive strategies.

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Metacognitive strategies go beyond the cognitive mechanism and allow students to control their own cognition (Cohen, 2014) and plan language learning in an efficient way. They are often used together with cognitive strategies and support one another (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Language learners use strategies such as identifying one's own learning style preferences and needs, planning for an L2 task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space and a schedule, monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success, and evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy to manage their learning process. Studies of EFL and ESL learners in various countries have shown that metacognitive strategies are often strong predictors of L2 proficiency (Kummin & Rahman, 2010; Shmais, 2003; Vianty, 2007; Yang, 2009,). Good language learners are also known to possess a high frequency of metacognitive strategies because learner autonomy exists for the learner to monitor and govern their own learning process (Adel, 2011; Haifa, 2010; Jalal & Karev, 2011; Nazri, Yunus, & Nazri, 2016).

Memory-related strategies help learners link one L2 item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding (Oxford, 2003). Various memory-related strategies enable learners to learn and retrieve information in an orderly string, while other techniques create learning and retrieval via sounds, images, a combination of sounds and images, body movement, mechanical means, or location. Memory-related strategies have been shown to relate to L2 proficiency in reading, where language learners read words and phrases more than one time to review the content to comprehend the text better (Mahalingam & Yunus, 2017). In the same study, it was found that language learners make use of memory strategies by referring to grammar notes when encountering any doubts in learning grammar. This helps them review and retrieve the information that they have stored earlier to aid the current

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learning situation. Memory strategies are often used by language learners to memorize vocabulary and structures in initial stages of language learning and is needed much less when their vocabulary and structures have become larger.

Compensatory strategies help the learner make up for missing knowledge (Oxford, 2003), which aligns with the concept of translanguaging for emergent bilinguals / multilinguals. Compensatory strategies include the learner guessing from the context in listening and reading, using synonyms and "talking around" the missing word to aid speaking and writing, and using gestures and pause words in speaking. Cohen (2014) discusses how language learning strategies are also used for skills that cross-cut basic skill areas, such as the use of translation where learners may translate strategically to help in comprehension. Rather than translating everything, language learners often choose to translate certain words or phrases when listening to someone talk, in reading for basic comprehension, as well as in speaking and writing. About one out of every three learners may also prefer to write out their text in their L1 (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001) as some students in the beginning and intermediate stages may feel the need to use translation from L1 as a strategy in both learning and using the TL (Cohen, 2014). Similarly, García (2011) suggests that translanguaging serves several functions for bilingual / multilingual language learners. First, *to mediate understanding*. Secondly, *to co-construct and construct meaning*. Thirdly, *to include*, and lastly, *to exclude and to show knowledge*. Strategies that serves the four functions of translanguaging as categorized by García (2011) include translating and language alternation / code-switching (Adamson & Fujimoto-Adamson, 2012; MacSwan, 2017). More recently, García and Otheguy (2020, p. 26) further describe that translanguaging includes non-linguistic multimodal resources such as 'gestures, gazes, posture, visual cues, and even human-technology interactions.'

Affective strategies are learning strategies concerned with managing and regulating emotions, motivations and attitudes, as well as reducing anxiety and providing self-encouragement (Cohen, 2014). Learners can employ affective strategies such as identifying their mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk to help in the process of language learning. Mahalingam and Yunus' (2017) study on rural primary school students in Malaysia discovered that good language learners employed affective strategies in learning new English vocabulary. These learners use rhyming as a creative and fun way to remember new words that they encounter in order to lower their anxiety in learning English. A recent study in South Korea by Back, Han and Weng (2020) also found that emotional scaffolding through translanguaging in the students' home languages (L1) helped to reduce their anxiety and related behavioural issues. At the same time, it also helped to improve their acquisition of academic content. On the contrary, it is important to note that good language learners used affective strategies the least among the others (Nazri, Yunus, & Nazri, 2016) due to their use of cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies which are more highly related to L2 proficiency and self-efficacy. Thus, this concurs with Oxford (2003) that over time, there might be less need for affective strategies as learners progress to higher language proficiency.

Most people learn a new language better with help from people around them. Social strategies in language learning come in a few basic techniques; asking questions, asking for an explanation or verification and cooperating with others to complete a task (Cohen, 2014). These strategies help the learners interact with others and understand the target culture as well as the language (Oxford, 2003) while completing tasks. In the process of learning how to listen and speak in the TL, learners

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often ask people to repeat unfamiliar sounds and words to enhance their listening skills and to correct them when they speak (Mahalingam & Yunus, 2017). When learners are able to use social strategies during meaningful interaction which takes place either inside or outside the classroom, they will pick up more new words, phrases and sentences in the second language that they are trying to learn.

Studies done in Malaysia (Embi, Long, & Hamzah, 2001; Nazri, Yunus, & Nazri, 2016) revealed that good language learners possess greater use of language learning strategies compared to poor language learners. Language learners with a high level of motivation also possess a richer repertoire of strategies and employ them more frequently (Teh & Shukri, 2009). Good language learners also favoured and employed more direct strategies (cognitive, memory, compensatory) over indirect strategies (metacognitive, affective, social) as these strategies are seen to have direct impact with the target language (Nazri, Yunus, & Nazri, 2016). However, not all students are familiar with the repertoire of strategies that are available at their disposal and it is therefore, the teacher or instructor's role to familiarize language learners with the strategies (Shah, Ismail, Esa, & Muhamad, 2012). When low achieving students are exposed to and made aware of the preferred strategies used by good language learners, this minimizes their time taken to choose the best strategy and will eventually reduce the proficiency gap between learners in a classroom (Mahalingam & Yunus, 2017).

2.2.3 Translanguaging as a Pedagogical Practice and Learning Strategy

Code-switching, the systematic alternating use of two languages or language varieties within a single conversation or utterance (Li, 2000) is often known to be an effective teaching strategy when it is used deliberately to further the students' TL proficiency. To assist students' understanding of concepts in the TL, Cook (2001) recommends the use of L1 when "the cost of the TL is too great" (p. 418). García

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(2014), however, highlights the fine line between code-switching and translanguaging. Translanguaging, in contrast to code-switching is not used to refer to two separate languages or even the shift of one language or code to the other. Rather, translanguaging is rooted in the principle that bilingual speakers select language features from a repertoire and "soft assemble" their language practices in ways that fit their communicative practices (García, 2009a, 2013).

Therefore, translanguaging in education can be defined as a process by which students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices that include all the language practices of students. This is to develop new language practices and sustain old ones, communicate and appropriate new knowledge, and give voice to new sociopolitical realities by interrogating linguistic inequality. In many language classrooms, teachers and students often participate in a flexible bilingual pedagogy (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). This pedagogy adopts a translanguaging approach and is used by participants for identity performance as well as language teaching and learning. Yip and García (2015) suggest that translanguaging is an educational approach that can be utilized by all teachers, as the welcoming of translanguaging in classrooms is not only necessary, but a desirable educational practice (Hornberger & Link, 2012). Similarly, Carstens (2015) agrees that translanguaging is a useful tool to perform multiple pedagogical functions in multilingual contexts.

Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2000) argue that a fundamental principle of learning states that learners' pre-existing knowledge is the foundation for all future learning. In the early stages of English language learning, activation and building on prior knowledge requires the linking of English concepts and knowledge with the learners' L1 cognitive schemata (Cummins, 2001, 2007; Lucas & Katz, 1994). Cummins (2009) believes that this linking cannot be done effectively if the students'

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L1 is banished from the classroom. In translanguaging events, spaces for communications were opened up and people made meanings in whatever way possible (Blackledge, Creese, & Hu, 2015). As multilingual learners cannot expect to be equipped with all of the codes or full proficiency required for a contact situation, they look for alignment to create meaning (Firth & Wagner, 2007). Multilinguals align words with other features of the ecology to produce meaning (Canagarajah, 2011).

Several studies have proven that the first language can be beneficial as a cognitive tool that aids in second language learning (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Watanabe, 2008). Dickson (1992) also discovered that it is not the quantity of exposure to target language that is important, but the quality of exposure. Many studies have suggested that teachers who recognize the power of students' fluid language practices should optimize the use of their full language repertoire. For example, bilingual / multilingual students will have better understanding of an English comprehension text if they are allowed to discuss ideas deeply using the language they prefer. Similarly, bilingual / multilingual students will be better writers if they are allowed to pre-write with all the language features they can use. Therefore, translanguaging can act as a powerful way to assist language learners to fully present their ideas in the target language.

2.2.4 Translanguaging vs. Code-switching

Translanguaging is not to be confused with code-switching, a term which linguists use to describe the simple switching of named languages. Throughout the world, code-switching, understood as the going back and forth from one language to another, has been used by teachers to scaffold the teaching of additional languages (García & Lin, 2017). However, translanguaging differs from the notion of code-switching in that it refers not simply to a shift or a shuttle between two languages, but

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to the speakers' construction and use of original and complex interrelated discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or another traditional definition of language, but that make up the speakers' complete language repertoire (García & Wei, 2014).

The distinction between codeswitching and translanguaging has been defined by Adamson and Fujimoto-Adamson (2012) whereby code-switching is a tool used by translanguaging, a pedagogical approach to negotiate meaning making by multilingual learners in an educational setting. Beyond codeswitching, translanguaging also includes translation. With the combination of these two simple practices of codeswitching and translation, bilingual or multilingual students make sense and perform bilingually/multilingually in the myriad ways of classrooms. Apart from that, translanguaging also refers to the internal perspective of what speakers do with the language that is simply their own and is used in all language skills - reading, writing, note taking, discussions and so on (García, Sylvan, & Witt, 2011).

In a nutshell, while code-switching is based on the monoglossic view that bilinguals (or multilinguals) have two (or more) separate systems, translanguaging differs in the sense that it sees the behaviour of bilinguals (or multilinguals) as always heteroglossic, always dynamic and responding not to two monolingualisms in one but to one integrated linguistic system (Garcia & Lin, 2017).

2.3 Multilingual Schools and Classroom Language Ecologies

In today's multilingual classrooms, language teaching should focus on communicating with all students and negotiating challenging academic content with them by building on their different language practices, rather than simply promoting and teaching one or more standard languages (García, Sylvan, & Witt, 2011). As a result, translanguaging is used as a facilitation of communication to improve the lives

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of speakers of language, instead of promoting a specific language or languages. García, Skutnabb-Kangas, and Torres-Guzman (2006) referred to multilingual schools as schools that exert educational effort that takes into account and builds further on the diversity of languages and literacy practices that children and youths bring to school. (p.14) This means going beyond acceptance or tolerance of children's languages, to "cultivation" of languages through their use for teaching and learning (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Schools are also places where students from different backgrounds come together and share their diverse cultures with each other. This section will discuss how the English language took its place in Malaysia and eventually became the official second language of the country. It also explains the model of vernacular schools in Malaysia and provides a description of SJKC schools in detail. It also looks into how translanguaging is pertinent in Malaysian ESL classrooms, particularly in SJKC schools and the existing studies which have been carried out in Malaysia as of today.

2.3.1 A History of Vernacular Schools in Malaysia

In other parts of the world, vernacular schools are also known as complementary schools, heritage language schools, supplementary schools and community language schools, particularly in the United Kingdom. These schools are invariably established by community members and focus on language, culture and heritage teaching (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). In Malaysia, this particular model of schools is known as vernacular schools and is presently divided into Chinese National Type Schools (SJKC) and Tamil National Type Schools (SJKT).

Prior to Western colonization, Malaya (currently known as Malaysia) was ruled by Malay sultanate and feudal structures with distant contacts in this part of the world between the eastern Chinese frontier and western Indian and Islamic frontier

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(Sivapalan, Ong, P.L., Marsitah, Ong P.H., Ong P.T. & Badariah, 2015). During the British colonization, migrant workers from China and India were brought into Malaya, forming a plural society of what we have in Malaysia today. The complex socio-political landscape has led to an amalgam of structures and institutions that underpin the country's education and school system (Sivapalan, et al., 2015).

The history of vernacular schools in Malaysia dates back to its pre-independence era from the British (Ong P.L, Sivapalan, Badariah, Marsitah, Shazlin & Ong, P. H., 2013). During its occupation, the British first introduced secular education in Malaya with English as the medium of instruction. They provided vernacular education for the Malays while the Chinese and Indians established their own vernacular schools with curricula and teachers from mainland China and India. Later on, vernacular schools were classified based on their language of instruction; Malay, Chinese and Tamil.

Similar to the English medium schools pioneered by the British, vernacular schools also emphasised on the acquisition of the three basic skills - 3Rs (Reading, wRiting and aRithmethic) during primary school. Apart from that, vernacular schools taught and guided students in their mother tongues; Malay, Chinese and Tamil. Chinese schools saw the introduction of English and Malay language in 1945 and the syllabus was adapted to suit the local context. This would make students of Chinese vernacular schools trilingual. Post-independence, the Malay medium schools were transformed into national schools while Chinese and Tamil schools were made into national-type schools, namely Sekolah Jenis Kebangsaan Cina (SJKC) and Sekolah Jenis Kebangsaan Tamil (SJKT). Although the Malay language became the main medium of instruction after the 1970s, SJKC schools maintained a staunch preservation of the use of Mandarin as the medium of instruction throughout the six

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years of primary education (Ting, 2006). In Soong (2012), it is noted that the Chinese community has been assertive in supporting the role of Mandarin, resulting in a large number of Chinese independent secondary schools in Malaysia.

2.3.2 English Language Education / English as a Second Language Education in Malaysia

After Malaya's independence from the British, the role and status of the English language was institutionalized as an important second language (English as a Second Language) in the Education Ordinance 1957. It was then reaffirmed in the Education Act 1961 and 1996 and the National Education Policy issued in 1970. Since the introduction of the New Education Policy, the formal education of English as a Second Language took place in Malaysia. Although English is a compulsory subject to be studied in both SK and SJKC schools, it is not compulsory to pass it in standard national exams, therefore not guaranteeing a competent acquisition of the language (Azman, 2016).

The challenges in English language education in Malaysia stems from various reasons, such as inadequately trained and skilled teachers who are not proficient in English themselves, aside from not being native speakers of English. In response to the English proficiency challenges among Malaysian students, the Ministry of Education (MoE) and the Government of Malaysia (GoM) have implemented several national education reforms over the thirty years of English language education in the country. In 1982, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach was introduced in the Integrated English Language Syllabus (KBSR) to emphasise the importance of learning English for communicative purpose, and not for grammatical knowledge (Azman, 2016). However, this education reform was not successful due to

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the mismatch between syllabus objectives and CLT principles with actual classroom practices as well as language assessment (Che Musa, Khoo, & Azman, 2012).

To keep up with globalisation and its emphasis on information and communication technologies (ICT), the SMART school approach, conceived by Perkins (1992) and his colleagues at Harvard, was implemented in Malaysian schools in 1997. Unfortunately, these efforts failed due to hardware and software problems, time factor, limited computer literacy, lack of instructional design, which caused teachers to not aggressively adopt and integrate ICT in their teaching (Azizah, Nor Fariza, & Hazita, 2015; Selvaraj, 2010).

Despite being unable to achieve the aims of previous reforms, efforts to improve English language education in Malaysia have continuously been made. In 2012, the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013 - 2025 (MEB) brought about the third education reform for primary education. The Primary School Standard Based Curriculum (KSSR) 2013 was introduced by stages and gradually led to the development of the English Language Education Roadmap for Malaysia 2015 - 2025 (Don, Abdullah, M.H., Abdullah A.C., Lee, Kaur, Pillai, & Hooi, 2015). This current reform aims to serve as a guide for English language curriculum developers and teachers to ensure that students achieve proficiency levels aligned to international standards, benchmarked against the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

English language education in Malaysia should be a language curriculum that advances on inclusive, learning-by-doing experiences that would encourage more meaningful learning (Che Musa et al., 2012). Therefore, it is crucial to investigate the pedagogical practices of teaching English in Malaysia, and at the same time, evaluate

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and check teachers' knowledge and domain as they are significant agents of translating policy into action.

2.3.3 English Language Teaching in Vernacular Schools

In the Malaysian public education system, vernacular schools consist of the National Type (Chinese) Primary School (SJKC) and National Type (Tamil) Primary School (SJKT). Although SJKC and SJKT schools follow the national curriculum, they differ from the National Primary School (SK) in terms of textbooks used, instruction time and how the language is taught in classrooms. This section will further discuss the English language teaching in SJKC and SJKT schools in Malaysia.

In 1816, the first Tamil school was set up in Malaya, followed by the first Chinese school in 1913. The Indian and Chinese communities first established their vernacular schools with school curricula and teachers hailing from India and China respectively. In 1945, the English and Malay language were introduced in Chinese and Tamil schools, and language and culture accommodation issues were discussed and settled through the Fenn-Wu Report (1951). From then onwards, the syllabus in Chinese and Tamil schools were also reviewed to reflect the local context of people born and residing in Malaya (Selvadurai et al., 2015).

Chinese and Tamil schools began to follow the national curriculum in 1970, placing English as a second language to the Malay language (Lim, 2013). In that year, English was introduced in Primary 3 as a subject only for Chinese and Tamil schools (Darus & Subramaniam, 2009) and English language instruction was provided a few hours a week in the national syllabus with a smaller allocation in comparison to the national schools (Hall, 2015). By the year 1983, English was taught in Primary 3 for 60 minutes per week and in Primary 4 to 6 for 90 minutes per week (Darus & Subramaniam, 2009). This carried on until 2003, when the ETeMS policy (English for

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Teaching Mathematics and Science) was implemented in all primary and secondary government schools, including SJKC and SJKT schools to help Malaysian students compete in the era of globalization and to improve the standard of human capital in the country (Rashid, Rahman, & Yunus, 2017). However, this policy received resistance from the Chinese (Le Ha, Kho, & Chng, 2013), particularly the SJKC schools, backed by the *Dong Jiao Zhong* (the United Chinese School Committee's Association of Malaysia) and various Chinese educational groups. The *Dong Jiao Zhong* ferociously guards the rights of the Chinese to retain their mother tongue (Karchner-Ober, Mukherjee, & David, 2011) as they fear that using English as a medium of instruction in Mathematics and Science may erode the usage of Chinese as the main medium of instruction in Chinese schools (Halim, 2013).

In 2009, the ETeMS policy was abolished gradually and the teaching of Mathematics and Science was fully reverted to Malay, Chinese and Tamil by 2013. It was replaced with the MBMMBI policy (Upholding the Malay language and Strengthening the English language) to ensure that every Malaysian child masters both Malay and English languages fluently by the end of their secondary education (Ministry of Education, 2015: para 1). Under the MBMMBI policy, SJKC and SJKT students receive more contact hours for English; 150 minutes for Year 1 to 3 and 180 minutes for Year 4 to 6, which is relatively more compared to the previous policies.

In regards to the teaching of English in vernacular schools, a study carried out by Lim (2013) in all three types of Malaysian public primary schools (SK, SJKC and SJKT) showed the differences. In Chinese schools, it was observed that students are usually silent in class and only speak when they are asked a question. It is also common for the teacher to provide each student with a prompt before they speak. Students in Chinese schools are encouraged to speak grammatically correct, full sentences and the

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teacher diligently corrects their mistakes, which tends to result in stunted, rehearsed, rote speaking instead of authentic dialoguing (Lim, 2013). On the other hand, it was discovered that Tamil school students talk actively in the English classroom, whether they were on task or off task. Most conversations are held in English mixed with the Tamil language and students were less attentive to the teacher in comparison to the Chinese schools (Lim, 2013).

In terms of the teaching of reading in English, Chinese school students are often asked to read aloud and repeat the content they are reading. The reading content is usually textbook oriented and aligned with the UPSR (Primary School National Examination). In Tamil schools, it is observed that repetition often takes place in reading too but sentences used during the lesson are mixed with Tamil and Malay words. Meanwhile in writing, Chinese school students are given dictation for vocabulary words and plenty of textbook exercises and supplementary book exercises. They are also strongly drilled in grammar-based sentence building to ensure grammatical correct sentences. As for Tamil school students, there is a lot of teacher-led writing activities while the students are tasked to copy what is given. They are also given repetitive sentence building exercises (Lim, 2013). As a result, some students from Chinese and Tamil primary schools are passive and are only willing to accept knowledge, not to contribute and share what they know (Halim, 2013). This is because their focus is only the end product (the exam results) and not the process of gaining knowledge and learning through experience.

Thus, it is understood that English language teaching in Chinese and Tamil vernacular schools differ from that of national schools. The culture of learning through rote memorization and being quiet in the classroom is prevalent (Lim, 2013) and this inhibits students from being creative in the use of the English language (Halim, 2013).

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2.3.4 Translanguaging in the Malaysian Classroom

Translanguaging is a practice in which educators allow the mixing of languages in bilingual educational settings and is also known among some linguists as "codeswitching" (Adamson & Fujimoto-Adamson, 2012, pg. 59). The distinction between codeswitching and translanguaging has been defined by Adamson and Fujimoto-Adamson (2012) whereby code-switching is a tool used by translanguaging, a pedagogical approach to negotiate meaning making by multilingual learners in an educational setting.

In Malaysia, the term "translanguaging" is not largely used among researchers as it is fairly recent. In most studies, researchers and teachers still refer to the switch between languages as "code-switching" rather than translanguaging. Some notable works include Arrifin and Husin (2011) who studied the frequency of code-switching and code-mixing between Bahasa Malaysia and English in a Malaysian public university. The findings of this study show the mixed attitudes towards code-switching and code-mixing. While some instructors and students found them to promote better understanding, more proficient learners felt that it was an impediment to improving their English language competence.

Low (2016) explores the effectiveness of classroom code-switching in Malaysian Science Classrooms and discovered that code-switching in English medium classes provides strategic function for classroom management and transmit of content knowledge. Students also appeared to be very receptive to classroom code-switching and even view it as a way to improve their language skills. In a study carried out in Singapore, which has a similar multilingual background as Malaysia, Vaish and Subhan (2015) studied the use of Malay language to scaffold the teaching of English. Translanguaging was used as the theoretical foundation and teachers translanguaged

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mainly to aid comprehension (in 41% of switches) and translate vocabulary (in 39% of switches). It was found that the use of Malay language in their reading class changed the interactional patterns by closing the gap in talktime between teacher and students, and it also changed the way students attempted to answer questions in class.

As for Malaysian teachers' and learners' attitudes towards translanguaging, Ahmad (2009) conducted a study to learn more about the learners' perception of the teachers' codeswitching, the relationship between that codeswitching and the learners' affective support, the relationship between the codeswitching and the learners' success in learning the language. The implications of the study were to examine the potential future uses of codeswitching English language teaching. It was discovered that close to 75% of the participants indicated that codeswitching was used to check for their understanding in a classroom. Approximately another 73% stated that codeswitching was used to explain the meaning of new words and concepts, and just under 70% of participants said that codeswitching was used when explaining grammatical structures. Similarly, almost 70% of participants felt that codeswitching was also used by teachers to establish contact with students. Students' perception of codeswitching was mainly positive, as it helped them understand a lesson better and contributed to their academic success. 72% of the participants acknowledged that codeswitching helped them understand new words better while 71% of them agreed that their teachers' use of codeswitching helped them comprehend difficult concepts. In conclusion, the findings of the research supported the author's argument that codeswitching helped to facilitate the management and flow of the classroom as it allows teachers to use the best linguistic resources available to them or their students as an effective teaching strategy (Nambisan, 2014).

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2.4 Conclusion

This chapter describes relevant literature on translanguaging (and its synonyms) and presents various researches on translanguaging done abroad and a few in Malaysia. While many theorists have discussed translanguaging and its benefits in various countries, no known research has been carried out to study how teachers who do not speak the students' language use translanguaging as an effective teaching strategy. The proposed study was thus conceived and its research questions, which aim to explore how students use translanguaging during English lessons and the strategies used by a teacher who does not speak the students' first language. The next chapter outlines the methods that will be used to conduct this study.

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CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the research method adopted by this research. It discusses the research design, selection of participants and research site, data collection and instrumentation, and data analysis. Finally, this chapter also discusses the issues of trustworthiness and triangulation, ethical considerations and the strengths and limitations of this study.

3.1 Research Design

This study was of a qualitative case study design, which aimed to explore a single case which is specific, unique and within a bounded system (Stake, 2006). The case study approach was particularly useful in studying how translanguaging was used during English lessons in an SJKC classroom with teachers and pupils of various races, as it was able to delve deeply in the use of translanguaging of an individual, a group, a program, or an event (Merriam, 1998). In this study, the group case was referred to "a group of students and an English teacher" bounded within the system of "National Type (Chinese) Primary Schools in Malaysia".

In general, case studies are the preferred strategy when "how" or "why" questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context (Yin, 2013). In this study, the researcher aimed to find out "how" primary school students use translanguaging in an English lesson and "how" a teacher who does not speak the students' first language employs translanguaging strategies in his/her lessons. The researcher had no control over events in the classroom, as he/she only acted as an observer and not a participant in this study. This study also focused on the ongoing

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phenomenon of translanguaging which happens in most bilingual/multilingual language classrooms.

The advantage of choosing a qualitative case study methodology is because it is an approach that supports deeper and more detailed investigation of the phenomenon. It provides tools for the researcher to study complex phenomena within their contexts (Baxter and Jack, 2008). This study used different tools to collect rich data on the use of translanguaging during English lessons in a National Type (Chinese) Primary School in Malaysia. The tools included field notes taken during classroom observations and semi-structured interviews with selected students and the teacher involved.

However, the disadvantages of using a case study is that it is not generalizable to populations or universes due to the small size of its data set. The results of this case study may help us understand better how translanguaging works during English lessons of an SJKC school in Malaysia, but it will not be able to represent the phenomenon of translanguaging in all multilingual classrooms in the country.

3.2 Selection of Participants and Research Site

The participants of the study were selected through purposive sampling. The main goal of purposive sampling is to focus on particular characteristics of a population that are of interest to answer the research questions. This sampling method also ensured that the participants took part in this research voluntarily, with permission from the respective school head and the students' parents.

The target sample was a class of Year Four students and an English teacher in an SJKC school in Malaysia. The primary selection criterion was the teacher's willingness to participate in this study. The class was then selected from one of the teacher's afternoon extra classes, with the most diverse student ethnicities. The

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afternoon extra class focused on Grammar lessons, therefore the contents of the lessons were consistent throughout all three observations. The students in this class were also seated in groups, in contrary to the traditional 'pairs in rows' seating in other classes. This gave the researcher opportunities to observe the students' interaction with each other within their groups.

The selected school was located in the urban area of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, where students came from multiracial and multilingual backgrounds. While most SJKC schools in Malaysia consist of mainly Chinese students, the selected school had a mix of 70% Chinese students, 20% Malay students, 5% Indian students and 5% international students. A majority of the students spoke Mandarin as their first language, while others spoke Bahasa Malaysia, English, other Chinese dialects (Cantonese, Hokkien, Hakka and etc.), East Malaysian native languages (Dusun, Iban and etc.) or other languages (Korean , Japanese or Arabic) with their family members. This diversity enabled the researcher to explore how students of different races and linguistic backgrounds use translanguaging among themselves during English lessons. The selected class consisted of students of Malaysian Chinese, Malay, Native Sarawakian, Native Sabahan, Japanese, and Mainland Chinese ethnicities, which gave the researcher a huge advantage in observing translanguaging among students of various ethnicities and linguistic backgrounds. To examine how the teacher uses translanguaging in the multilingual classroom, the selection of teacher was based on several factors:

1. The teacher is an English major and is teaching the English subject.
2. The teacher did not speak the students' majority first language, Mandarin.
3. The teacher had knowledge about translanguaging and supported the use of translanguaging during English lessons.

4. The teacher allowed students to use translanguaging among themselves during English lessons.
5. The teacher participated voluntarily in this study.

3.3 Data Collection and Instrumentation

In this proposed study, the primary source of data was collected through field notes of classroom observations in the selected class. In addition, individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with the students and teacher to gather in-depth data about how they use translanguaging during English lessons.

3.3.1 Field Notes on Classroom Observations

For an in-depth understanding of the participants' daily experiences, and to answer the research questions posed in this study, classroom observations were carried out in the selected class for three English lessons during the school's afternoon extra class. Classroom observations were essential to capture the first-hand encounter with the phenomenon of interest (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015), translanguaging. In this study, the researcher played the role of a non-participant observer and an observation checklist was used systematically as a research tool to address the two research questions. Translanguaging events among the students and between the teacher and his/her students were observed and field notes were taken to log for switches between languages. The field notes of classroom observations were used as the primary source of data on the actual linguistic practices of the students and teacher involved in this study. The classroom observations were conducted in September 2018 when both the teacher and students were free from school exams that were carried out in October. This allowed the researcher to observe a more authentic classroom interaction between the teacher and students when the lesson was not focused on examination drilling practices.

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During the classroom observations, field notes were taken to record translanguaging behaviours and activities among students and when the teacher used translanguaging strategies in her lesson. In order to take accurate field notes that focus on the research problem and the theoretical framework underpinning this study, the researcher used an observation checklist (Appendix A) to limit the scope of what is to be observed. This allowed the researcher to focus on two main aspects (i) listening to translanguaging among students and (ii) how the teacher employs translanguaging strategies during the English lesson. This also allowed the researcher to collect unbiased data without forming an opinion or making an on-the-spot evaluation during the lesson.

3.3.2 Semi-Structured Interview

To support the findings of the classroom observations in answering the second research question, individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven selected students and the teacher. The researcher asked the students about the languages they spoke at home and at school, as well as their preferences. The students were also asked about their translanguaging activities from the field notes of the classroom observations. The researcher asked about the teacher's background and her daily interaction with the students in the classroom. The teacher was also asked regarding her knowledge on translanguaging and the strategies she employed to carry out translanguaging during English lessons.

The students and teacher were asked open-ended questions to encourage more flexibility and honesty in their answers. These open-ended responses were analysed qualitatively to support or offer explanations for the behaviours and activities observed in the classroom. The interview with the students took five to ten minutes each and the interview with the teacher took about 30 minutes. Permission was sought from all

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participants for the interview to be audio-recorded for transcription and analysis. Prior to the semi-structured interview being carried out, the researcher planned and developed an Interview Protocol (Appendix B) to ensure that the questions asked during the interview will be focused towards answering the research questions.

3.4 Data Analysis

As a case study database includes a multitude of different evidence from different sources, data analysis of this rich resource was based on examining, categorising and tabulating evidence to answer the research questions in the study. As the study progressed to develop patterns and themes about the issue being researched, a number of methods were used to ensure that data was treated thoroughly, and conclusions drawn are trustworthy. To answer the research questions posed in this study, the six steps in thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) were used to identify, analyse and report patterns and themes within data.

1. Data familiarisation: After data was collected, the researcher transcribed the information gathered from the audio-visual recordings and semi-structured interviews. Then, the researcher read and re-read the transcripts and field notes taken during classroom observations, as well as watched the audio-visual recordings to gain a comprehensive understanding of the content of interaction and become familiarised with all aspects of the data.
2. Generating initial codes: Once the researcher was familiar with the data, initial codes (or features of the data that appear meaningful or interesting) were identified. During the process of data reduction, data from the transcripts and field notes were simplified and categorised into manageable components. First, the researcher examined and edited, segmented and summarised each sentence or group of sentences with descriptive names. Translanguaging events

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observed in the transcripts, audio-visual recordings and field notes were coded according to students' use of translanguaging and strategies utilized by the teacher. Findings from the students and teacher were analysed separately. During this process, it was important to ensure that data is not stripped from its context in order not to lose information.

3. Searching for themes: After the initial coding had been done, the researcher began to collate codes into their potential themes by gathering all relevant data to each potential theme. Data was displayed in a visual representation such as mind maps, graphs, charts or diagrams to aid the formulation of patterns and themes identified. Codes were written on the right-hand margin in different colours to aid the visual representation of the data. Researcher memos written during throughout the reading of the data helped in the development of themes that shape the findings.
4. Reviewing themes: In this stage, the researcher checked if the themes developed worked in relation to the coded extracts (Phase 1) and the entire data set (Phase 2). The researcher also questioned whether to combine, refine, separate or discard initial themes as there should be clear and identifiable distinctions between themes.
5. Defining and naming themes: Next, the researcher "refined and defined" the themes and potential subthemes within the data. Clear theme names and clear working definitions were provided in order to create a unified story of the data.
6. Producing the report: Lastly, the researcher transformed the final themes into a piece of writing. The report relays the results of the analysis that answer the research questions. Finally, member checking was carried out to establish credibility by presenting the final themes to participants to elicit feedback.

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3.5 Issues of Trustworthiness and Triangulation

The proposed study maintained its trustworthiness by ensuring validity and reliability. To ensure validity, multiple sources of evidence were collected (triangulation) to corroborate the same fact or finding (Mills, 2014). A chain of evidence was also established to cite appropriate field notes and interviews. Key participants reviewed the draft of the case study report for the purpose of member checking and peer review. To ensure reliability, a case study database was developed during the data collection procedure. This database included field notes made by the researcher, interview notes or transcripts and analysis of the evidence.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

Before the study was carried out, the researcher sought for permission and written consent from the head of the selected school to conduct a study in one of the classes during the afternoon extra classes which were held after schooling hours from 1.30p.m. to 5.00p.m. The researcher sought for expression of interest for participants and studied one selected teacher and her classroom. This ensured that the participants choose to participate in the study voluntarily. Written consent was also obtained from the selected teacher and the students' parents. As no photographs or videos were taken, the confidentiality and anonymity of all participants were ensured throughout the duration of the study. In the following chapters, names of all participants have been changed to ensure their confidentiality and anonymity.

3.7 Strengths and Limitations of the Study

There are strengths, as well as limitations to this research. The strengths of this research lie in three aspects: the class and participants chosen, the observation of three separate English lessons and the execution of post-observation semi-structured interviews with selected students and the teacher.

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Firstly, the class and participants chosen consisted of students of six different ethnicities (Malaysian Chinese, Malay, Native Sarawakian, Native Sabahan, Japanese and Mainland Chinese), which is not common in most SJKC schools. The selected class was also taught English by an English teacher of Malay ethnicity, who did not understand or speak Mandarin. This allowed the researcher to observe and explore the translanguaging practices among students and the teacher in a two-way situation. Had the teacher been able to speak Mandarin, he or she might have been the one doing most of the translations for the students instead.

Secondly, the observation of three separate English lessons allowed the researcher to sit with a different group of students for each lesson. This was possible because the students in this class were seated in groups from the beginning of the year and were always encouraged to carry out discussions. The researcher was able to listen to the students' communication with each other in detail while observing the lesson carried out by the teacher. As all three observations were done during the afternoon extra classes, the lessons taught by the teacher were focused on Grammar, hence there was consistency in the type of lessons observed.

Thirdly, the execution of post-observation semi-structured interviews with selected students and the teacher contributed to the researcher's understanding of how students used translanguaging and confirmed the strategies used by the teacher to carry out translanguaging in her English lessons. As the teacher and students were willing and interested to participate in the semi-structured interviews, they answered the open-ended questions with enthusiasm and provided the researcher with valuable data.

However, there are some limitations to this study. The first limitation concerns the school profile. As this SJKC school is located in the urban area of Kuala Lumpur and is more ethnically diverse due to the number of international students, it is

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important to be aware that the findings of this study may not be generalised for all SJKC schools in Malaysia. This is because students in the urban area have more exposure to the English language than students in rural areas. Under these circumstances, more students in this school were more capable of translating from Mandarin to English for the teacher and translating from one language to another for their classmates.

The second limitation is that the researcher was given consent by the school head to carry out classroom observations during the afternoon extra classes held after schooling hours. As the afternoon extra classes were conducted separately by the school and Parent Teacher Association (PIBG), it was not compulsory for all students to participate in them (only 25 out of 36 students attended). Hence, the researcher was unable to gather data from a larger set of sample.

The third limitation concerns the lack of data from audio-visual recording during the classroom observations, as any form of audio-visual recording in the classroom was not permitted by the school head. Due to this constrain, the researcher could only sit with one group during each observation in order to listen to the students' communication with each other and collect field notes at the same time. Had audio-visual-recording been allowed in this research, I believe that more data could be gathered by placing a camera in each group to record the communication happening in all five groups simultaneously. Audio-visual recordings would also have been a good way to capture the gestures used by the teacher and students as a part of their translanguaging process.

Prior to the data collection process, the researcher applied for permission from the Ministry of Education Malaysia to carry out this research in one of its schools. Although permission was granted, classroom observations and audio-visual recordings

were not permitted. This limited the researcher from gathering valuable in-depth data about how students translanguage among themselves and how the teacher who does not speak the students' first language use translanguaging in her English lessons. Alternatively, the researcher made use of the afternoon extra classes organized by the school's Parent Teacher Association (PIBG) in order to collect the necessary data. Written consent was obtained from the head of the school, the teacher and parents of all the 25 students who attended the afternoon extra class.

3.8 Summary

This chapter provides background information about the participants selected for this research, the potential research site, the instruments used for data collection and methods utilized for data analysis. The instruments included field notes of classroom observations and semi-structured interviews with the teacher. Issues of trustworthiness and ethical considerations were discussed and conducted accordingly by the researcher.

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CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is divided into four main sections. In this section, the framework used for analysing the data is recapped. Section 4.1 presents the research participants' background gathered from the semi-structured interviews. It describes in detail the members of the selected class, the students' various linguistic backgrounds, and the non-Mandarin speaking teacher's linguistic background.

Section 4.2 presents how multilingual students use translanguaging during English lessons. The data shows the various ways the students used to translanguage to meet certain purposes. Section 4.3 presents the translanguaging strategies used by the English teacher. As the English teacher did not speak the students' first language, Mandarin, she made use of her students' multilingual abilities to carry out translanguaging during her English lessons. In this section, instances of translanguaging committed by the teacher are presented. Both Section 4.2 and 4.3 look into the data analysed from the field notes of classroom observations, supported by data from the semi-structured interviews. A summary is provided at the end of the chapter in Section 4.5.

As the aim of the research is to address the specific research questions, data collected from field notes taken during classroom observations was analysed through thematic analysis. The two research questions are as follow:

1. How do primary school students use translanguaging during English lessons in an SJKC school?
2. What are the strategies used by an English language teacher who does not speak the students' first language to carry out translanguaging during English lessons?

Data that was relevant to the research questions or captured instances of translanguaging among the students and teacher was coded. Data was coded through

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open-coding. There were no pre-set codes and codes were developed and modified as I worked through the coding process. (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). After the themes were developed, I carried out individual semi-structured interviews with seven selected students and the teacher to elicit more data to support the findings of the classroom observations.

4.1 Research Participants' Background

First and foremost, this section introduces the selected class for the study (Section 4.1.1), the students' linguistic backgrounds (Section 4.1.2) and the English teacher's linguistic background (Section 4.1.3) based on the findings of the semi-structured interviews.

4.1.1 The Class

For the purpose of this study, the class selected consisted of students of diverse ethnicities and linguistic backgrounds. It was a class of 25 Year 4 students, all aged ten. There were 18 Malaysian Chinese students, three Malay students, one Native Sarawakian student, one Native Sabahan student, one Japanese student and one Mainland Chinese student. The students in this class were arranged to be seated in five groups by their class teacher. During English lessons, students were rearranged into groups with members of varying English language proficiencies by the English teacher. The researcher chose to sit with one group for each of the three classroom observations carried out.

4.1.2 The Multilingual Students

As all 25 students in the selected class have had at least four years of education in a Chinese medium school, they were able to understand, speak, read and write Mandarin. In school, they were also taught Bahasa Malaysia (the national language) and English (the country's official second language). Therefore, all students in this

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class were multilingual but had different levels of English language proficiency. Some of the students spoke English at home while others did not. In order to support the findings from the field notes taken during classroom observations, seven students were selected to be interviewed based on their English language proficiency and level of participation observed during three English lessons. The seven selected students were the Class Monitor, Nate, Fahmi, Aurelia, Jenny, Jian Shen and Kalisha. All names have been changed to ensure the participants' confidentiality and anonymity.

The Class Monitor and Nate were selected to be interviewed as they were both active participants during English lessons. They frequently volunteered to answer questions asked by the teacher and offered to help friends who could not. Fahmi and Aurelia were selected because they were active contributors during group discussions in their respective groups. Finally, Jenny, Jian Shen and Kalisha were selected because it was observed that they required a lot of help from classmates and group members during English lessons.

4.1.3 The Non-Mandarin-Speaking English Teacher

Miss S has been an English teacher in an SJKC school for seven years. As Miss S is of Malay ethnicity, she speaks mostly Bahasa Malaysia and occasionally, English with her family members at home. In school, where most of the teachers are of Chinese ethnicity, they communicate with Miss S in English with as they identify her as an English teacher. When she is with other teachers of Malay ethnicity, she speaks Bahasa Malaysia with them. Although she has been immersed in a Mandarin - speaking environment for seven years, she does not speak the language. However, she understands a few common instructions and basic phrases in Mandarin which are often repeated by the teachers and students around her. During her English lessons, Miss S understands some phrases and conversations in basic Mandarin but is unable to catch

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up when the students speak too fast. Therefore, Miss S used some strategies of her own to understand her students better and to help students understand her English lessons better.

4.2 How Multilingual Students Translanguage

In this section, I will focus on the analysis on how students in the selected class used translanguaging during English lessons. All three lessons observed were grammar lessons as the afternoon extra classes focused on English grammar input and practice. Students were also seated in groups and this gave the researcher a huge advantage in observing their interaction within groups.

For Observation 1, the researcher sat with Group 1 which consisted of six students. There were three Malaysian Chinese students (Meng, Jing and Sze Ern), two Malay students (Fahmi and Kalisha) and one Native Sarawakian student (Nate). The grammar lesson for the day was Articles (a, an, the).

For Observation 2, the researcher sat with Group 2 which consisted of four students. There were three Malaysian Chinese students (Jian Shen, Jason Lim and Ee Ling) and one Mainland Chinese Student (Hong). The grammar lesson for the day was Adjectives (Comparatives and Superlatives).

For Observation 3, the researcher sat with Group 3 which consisted of six students. There were four Malaysian Chinese students (Jenny, Yen, Xuan Wei and Jen Son), one Native Sabahan student (Aurelia) and one Japanese student (Takeshi). The grammar lesson for the day was Adverbs of Time.

From the data analysis, similarities were found in terms of how the students used translanguaging to maximise communicative potential and achieve their purposes (to ask for or give help, to explain something and to discuss). The students in this class used their multilingual abilities to carry out pupil-directed translanguaging, which

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refers to translanguaging activities undertaken independently by more competent bilinguals (Jones, 2017). The students carried out pupil-directed translanguaging using several different strategies which are: (1) using their common L1 (Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia), (2) making language choices to accommodate to others' L1, (3) code-switching between Mandarin and English, (4) translating English grammatical terms to the L1 (Mandarin) equivalent and (5) translating Mandarin to English for the non-Mandarin speaking teacher. All these strategies are further presented, according to the communicative functions, in the following sub-sections.

4.2.1 Translanguaging Strategies Used to Help

As translanguaging maximizes one's communicative potential (Garcia, 2014), it is often used by bilinguals and multilinguals when they ask for help from others and when they give help to others. On several occasions, it was observed that some students asked their classmates or group members for help using their common L1 (Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia) when they missed an instruction or did not understand something in English. Students also made language choices to accommodate to the other person's L1 when they wanted to ask for help. In response to help, the more competent multilingual students code-switched between Mandarin and English to provide answers, but at the same time, keeping the English terms accurate. Sometimes, they also translated English terms to their classmate's L1 equivalent. Let's take a look at some examples:

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Table 4.1

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Students		Strategy
Do we have Spelling today?	All:	Yes!	
	Meng:	[1] 什么书？ *(Which book is it?)*	[1] USING COMMON L1 (MANDARIN) TO ASK FOR HELP
	Jing:	[2] Spelling 书！ *(Spelling book!)*	[2] CODE-SWITCHING ENGLISH AND MANDARIN TO HELP

In the above extract, Meng was unsure of which book to use for the 'Spelling' task mentioned by the teacher, possibly because he was not listening and missed her question, 'Do we have Spelling today?' Upon realising that everyone was taking their books out, he sought help from Jing by asking in their common L1, Mandarin, '什么书？*(Which book is it?)'* and she replied him, 'Spelling 书！*(Spelling book!)'* in Mandarin too.

However, in this situation, Jing code-switched in her response, using English information from the teacher's question 'Spelling', combined with the Mandarin word '书 *(book)*' to answer Meng's request for help. Instead of replying '听写书 (*Spelling book*)' entirely in Mandarin, it was necessary for Jing to use the English word 'Spelling' because '听写书 (*Spelling book*)' would refer to the Spelling book used in their Mandarin lesson instead. If she had told Meng '听写书 (*Spelling book*)' entirely in Mandarin, he might have taken out the wrong book. This simple act of code-switching between English and Mandarin ensured that she gave Meng the accurate information while replying him in their common LI, Mandarin.

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Table 4.2

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Students		Strategy
Who hasn't finished their work yet?	Nate:	[5] **什么日期?** *(What was the date?)*	[5] LANGUAGE CHOICE (MANDARIN) TO ACCOMMODATE
	Sze Ern:	[6] **Nah.** *(Here you go.)* [Shows him the date written in her book.]	[6] USE OF CHINESE COLLOQIUAL LANGUAGE AND NON-VERBAL CUES
	Fahmi:	[9] **什么日期?** *(What was the date?)*	[9] LANGUAGE CHOICE (MANDARIN) TO ACCOMMODATE
	Sze Ern:	[10] **9 月 3 号!** *(3 September!)*	[10] RESPONDING IN L1 (MANDARIN) TO HELP
	Fahmi:	Okay, thanks!	

In the extract shown in Table 4.2, the teacher wanted to collect the students' exercise books to be marked. She asked, 'Who hasn't finished their work yet?' to check if anyone had not completed the homework she previously gave. Looking through their homework, both Nate and Fahmi realised that they had not written the date for their homework, which was necessary in every page of their exercise books. Although neither Nate nor Fahmi were of Malaysian Chinese ethnicity, they separately asked for help from Sze Ern by asking, '**什么日期?** *(What was the date?)'* in Mandarin to accommodate to her L1.

In the semi-structured interview with Nate, a Native Sarawakian whose L1 is English, he mentioned that he generally prefers using English, but speaks more Mandarin in class because, 'usually the ones very close to me don't really speak English. Most of them actually speak Chinese (Mandarin).' (Nate, personal communication, 22 November 2018). In Table 4.2, Nate asked for help in Mandarin to accommodate to Sze Ern's L1. To help Nate who sits beside her, Sze Ern simply

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said, '**Nah.** *(Here you go.)'* using Chinese colloquial language and gave a non-verbal cue (hand gesture) to show him the date written in her book.

As for Fahmi, a Malay who speaks English and Bahasa Malaysia at home, he mostly speaks English in school and only uses Mandarin with certain friends. In this situation, he also used Mandarin to ask for help from Sze Ern to accommodate to her L1. Since Fahmi sat in a different group located next to hers, Sze Ern replied him verbally with '**9 月 3 号！** *(3 September!)'* in Mandarin.

From this observation and their responses in the semi-structured interview, we know that Nate and Fahmi were both able to communicate in English but preferred to ask for help from Sze Ern in Mandarin because she does not speak English often. In response, Sze Ern helped them by sharing the answer to their question in Mandarin too.

Table 4.3

Extract from Observation 3 (Grammar Lesson: Adverbs of Time)

Teacher	Students		Strategy
Okay, class. Discuss question number one in your groups. Question 1, Ally cycles to school every day.	Jenny :	[86] 这个是？ *(What is the answer for this?)*	[86] USING L1 (MANDARIN) TO ASK FOR HELP
	Yen:	[87] 应该是 'How often'. *(It should be 'How often'.)*	[87] CODE-SWITCHING TO HELP
	Jenny :	[88] *'How often' 是什么? (What does 'How often' mean?)*	[88] CODE-SWITCHING TO ASK FOR HELP
	Group 3:	[89] ***'多长'**. ('How often' in Mandarin.)*	[89] TRANSLATING ENGLISH TO L1
	Jenny :	[90] *Ooo…*	[90] USING NVC TO SHOW UNDERSTANDING

In the above extract, the students in Group 3 were discussing the question given by the teacher. First, they were to identify the adverb of time in the sentence, 'Ally

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cycles to school every day.' Then, they were asked to identify whether the adverb of time (every day) fell in the category of "When", "How long" or "How often". After identifying the adverb of time (every day), the students spent some time thinking about its category individually, but Jenny was unable to figure out the answer. She asked her group members for help in her L1, Mandarin, '**这个是？** *(What is the answer for this?)'*. Yen responded in Mandarin with, '**应该是** 'How often'. *(It should be 'How often'.)*' but code-switched to the English term 'How often' as they were discussing English grammatical terms. However, Jenny did not remember what 'How often' meant and she sought further help from her group members to clarify the meaning of 'How often'. Unanimously, all five members of her group responded by translating 'How often' into its Mandarin equivalent, '**多长**' *('How often' in Mandarin)*. After Jenny replied with 'Ooo…' to show that she now understood the term, Aurelia reminded her in Mandarin that the teacher had just taught them the meaning of 'How often' earlier in the lesson.

In the semi-structured interview with Jenny, a Malaysian Chinese whose L1 is Mandarin, she told the researcher that when she does not understand the English teacher's instructions or questions given, she gets help from her friends to translate it into Mandarin. When they help her by translating from English to Mandarin, she understands the instructions and tasks better. As a result, she is able to finish the tasks given by the English teacher.

From the three extracts discussed above, data from the classroom observation field notes and semi-structured interviews show that the multilingual students in this class asked for help and gave help by (1) using their common L1 (Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia), (2) making language choices to accommodate to the other person's L1, (3)

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code-switching between Mandarin and English to keep English terms accurate and (4) translating English grammatical terms to their L1 (Mandarin) equivalent.

4.2.2 Translanguaging Strategies Used to Explain

On several occasions, it was observed that students used translanguaging to explain grammatical terms to their classmates and groupmates. They used their multilingual knowledge to translate English grammatical terms into the equivalent L1 (Mandarin) term for their groupmates and classmates. By doing this, the students helped their non-Mandarin speaking English teacher to explain English grammatical terms to students who were weaker in English, with the help of their L1. In some situations, the more competent multilingual students used their multilingual knowledge to translate Mandarin into English for their non-Mandarin speaking English teacher. They did so independently as they knew that their teacher needed translation. Here are some examples:

Table 4.4

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Students		Strategy
[Rephrases Nate's answer for the class.] Great! The word "university" starts with the "y" sound, not the "u" sound. So, we have to listen to the first sound of the noun, not look at the first letter of the noun.	All:	[Nod.]	
	Pei Pei:	[16] What is a noun?	[16] ASKING FOR EXPLANATION
	Meng:	[17] 动词！ *('Dong Che' - 'Verb' in Mandarin.)*	[17] TRANSLATING ENG GRAMMATICAL TERM TO L1 EQUIVALENT (MANDARIN)
	Jing:	不是啦！ *(No, it's not!)*	
	Meng:	是, Noun 是动词！ *(Yes, 'Noun' is 'Dong Che'! - 'Verb' in Mandarin)*	

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Table 4.5

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Students		Strategy
[Teacher hears the dispute between Meng and Jing.] A noun is a person, an animal, a thing, or a place. What do you call a noun in Mandarin?	Jing:	[23] **哦,** Noun **是名词！** *(Oh, 'Noun' is called 'Ming Che' in Mandarin.)*	[23] TRANSLATING ENG GRAMMATICAL TERM TO L1 EQUIVALENT (MANDARIN)
	Class Monitor:	[24] Yes, it's **名词!** *(Yes, it's called 'Ming Che' - 'Noun' in Mandarin.)*	[24] CODE-SWITCHING TO CONFIRM TRANSLATION

In the extract shown in Table 4.4, the teacher mentioned the English grammatical term 'noun' in her explanation of how to use the articles 'a' and 'an'. Pei Pei did not know what a 'noun' was and asked her groupmates, 'What is a noun?' In attempt to explain the term 'noun' to Pei Pei, Meng translated it to his L1 (Mandarin), '**动词！** *('Dong Che' - 'Verb' in Mandarin)*', which was unfortunately wrong. Meng was corrected by Jing, his groupmate who noticed that his translation was wrong. After getting further explanation from the teacher, 'A noun is a person, an animal, a thing, or a place.', Jing linked the teacher's explanation to her prior knowledge and translated the term 'noun' into its correct Mandarin term, '**名词** (*'Ming Che' - Noun in Mandarin)*' for the teacher and the class.

In this situation, Miss S, the English teacher, did not know the term for 'noun' in Mandarin but she noticed that some students required further explanation and L1 translation to understand the grammatical term 'noun' better. Therefore, when Miss S asked, 'What do you call a noun in Mandarin?', the more competent multilingual students (Jing and the Class Monitor) used their translanguaging strategies to help her.

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Jing gave the correct L1 (Mandarin) translation while the Class Monitor code-switched between English and Mandarin to confirm that Jing's L1 translation was correct.

Table 4.6

Extract from Observation 3 (Grammar Lesson: Adverbs of Time)

Teacher	Students		Strategy
That's right. Question 5, Our school bus is always late.	Yen:	'Always'.	
	Aurelia:	'Late'.	
	Yen:	Are you sure it's 'late'?	
	Jenny :	[102] I think it's 'always'. 'How often' **ma**. 'Often' 就是 'always'. 你们刚刚教过我的！ (*I think it's 'always'. It refers to 'how often'. 'Often' means the same as 'always'. All of you just taught me that a while ago!)*	[102] CODE-SWITCHING TO EXPLAIN A GRAMMATICAL TERM
	Aurelia:	[103] Ooo… Okay.	[103] SHOWING UNDERSTANDING
	The rest of Group 3:	[103] Yeah, its 'always'.	

In the above extract, the teacher asked students to identify the adverb of time in the sentence 'Our school bus is always late.' Remember Jenny who asked her groupmates for help in Section 4.2.1? They helped her by translating the term 'How often' into her L1 equivalent (Mandarin) so that she could answer Question 1. By the time they got to Question 5, it was Jenny's turn to explain to her groupmates who were having a small disagreement whether 'always' or 'late' was the adverb of time. In the semi-structured interview with Jenny, she revealed that she preferred to speak Mandarin in school because her friends did not understand her when she spoke English. 'It's because some people doesn't (don't) understand what I said so I must speak in Chinese (Mandarin).' (Jenny, personal communication, 22 November 2018). Even

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though Jenny did not speak English well enough to explain English terms to her groupmates, she still attempted to explain what she knew by code-switching between English, Chinese colloquial language and Mandarin. She told her groupmates in English that 'always' was the correct answer. Then, she used Mandarin to explain that 'Often' **就是** 'always'. **你们刚刚教过我的！**(*'Often' means the same as 'always'. All of you just taught me that a while ago!),* while retaining the synonymous terms 'often' and 'always' in English. In this situation, Jenny used her newly acquired bilingual knowledge and code-switching as her translanguaging strategy to explain to her groupmates about an English term they had taught her earlier.

Table 4.6

Extract from Observation 2 (Grammar Lesson: Adjectives)

Students		Strategy
The bell rings. Prefects on break duty are dismissed earlier to have their meals before carrying out their duties.		
Class Monitor:	49 **是站岗时候！** (It's time for the break duty!)	49 USING COMMON L1 (MANDARIN) TO ACCOMMODATE
Sue Ng:	50 Teacher, it's break time for the prefects.	50 TRANSLATING TO ENGLISH TO EXPLAIN

In the above extract, the bell rang and the Class Monitor shouted aloud in Mandarin, '**是站岗时候！** *(It's time for the break duty!)*'. Being the one who usually speaks English, the Class Monitor deliberately announced this in the majority's common L1 (Mandarin) so that the prefects in his class were aware that it was time for their break. In the semi-structured interview with the Class Monitor, he mentioned that he generally prefers speaking English, but prefers speaking Mandarin in class because his friends 'don't speak English very well' (Class Monitor, personal communication, 22 November 2018). Most of the time, he tries to accommodate to his classmates' L1 by telling them things in Mandarin, so that they understand what he is trying to convey

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better. Upon hearing the Class Monitor's announcement, Sue Ng, another prefect, immediately translated what he said in Mandarin into English for their teacher. After hearing Sue's English translation, the teacher dismissed the prefects for their break.

From the three extracts discussed above, data from the classroom observation field notes and semi-structured interviews show that the multilingual students in this class used translanguaging strategies to explain better during English lessons. To explain grammatical terms, they (1) translated English grammatical terms to their L1 equivalent (Mandarin), (2) code-switched between Mandarin and English to confirm translations and (3) code-switched between Mandarin and English to explain English grammatical terms. To explain a situation, they (1) made language choices to accommodate to the other person's L1 (Mandarin) and (2) translated Mandarin to English for their non-Mandarin speaking teacher.

4.2.3 Translanguaging Strategies Used to Discuss

The purpose of carrying out group work during lessons is to encourage students to interact and discuss questions or tasks given to them. Sometimes, students also discuss personal matters that are unrelated to the lesson. During all three observations, students worked in groups and this gave the researcher opportunities to observe the students' interaction with each other within their groups. Several translanguaging events happened in the process of students engaging in discussions. Here are some significant examples that show how students used translanguaging strategies to discuss:

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Table 4.7

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Students		Strategy
Who hasn't finished their work yet?	All:	[Flip pages quietly.]	
	Fahmi:	[4] **I tak buat lagi.** (I haven't done it yet.)	[4] LANGUAGE CHOICE (BM) TO ACCOMMODATE
	Kalisha:	[4]**Habislah kau!** (You're going to be in trouble!)	
	Fahmi:	Haha… Just kidding!	

In the extract, Fahmi and Kalisha from Group 1 were having a short discussion in Bahasa Malaysia. When the teacher asked who hadn't finished their work yet, Fahmi quietly told Kalisha, '**I tak buat lagi.** *(I haven't done it yet.)*' to which Kalisha loudly responded with, '**Habislah kau!** *(You're going to be in trouble!)*'. Fahmi then laughed and told Kalisha in English that he was just joking. In the semi-structured interview with Fahmi, he mentioned that he speaks English most of the time in class. However, he chooses to speak Bahasa Malaysia with two Malay classmates, Kalisha and Masyitah, to accommodate to their L1. This is because both girls prefer speaking Bahasa Malaysia and do not speak English very well - 'They like to speak Malay, and then they don't know how to speak English.' (Fahmi, personal communication, 22 November 2018). Therefore, Fahmi feels more comfortable speaking Bahasa Malaysia with both of them. As for Kalisha, she usually mixes English and Bahasa Malaysia when she speaks to her classmates. However, similar to Fahmi's situation, she feels that Fahmi and Masyitah understand her better when she speaks to them in Bahasa Malaysia. This makes her 'feel more comfortable and happier' (Kalisha, personal communication, 22 November 2018) during discussions with them.

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Table 4.8

Extract from Observation 3 (Grammar Lesson: Adverbs of Time)

Students		Strategy
Aurelia:	[79] **你有多的笔芯笔吗?** *(Do you have an extra mechanical pencil?)*	[79] LANGUAGE CHOICE (MANDARIN) TO ACCOMMODATE
Jenny:	[79] **这个坏了.** *(This one is spoilt.)*	
Aurelia:	[79] **借我这个啦.** *(Then lend me this one.)*	
Aurelia:	[Aurelia takes a 2B pencil from Jenny 's pencil case.]	
Yen:	[80] [Looks at the researcher and turns to Aurelia.] Hello, hello, what is your name?	[80] LANGUAGE CHOICE (ENGLISH) TO ACCOMMODATE
Aurelia:	[Looks at the researcher and turns back to Yen.] [80] Hahaha.	

In the extract shown in Table 4.8, Aurelia and Jenny were discussing some personal matters in Mandarin. As Aurelia is of Native Sabahan ethnicity, she revealed in the semi-structured interview that she speaks four languages (Dusun, English, Bahasa Malaysia and Mandarin) in her daily life. During English lessons, she usually speaks English and sometimes Mandarin because she feels more comfortable speaking Mandarin to certain friends. As Aurelia wanted to borrow Jenny's mechanical pencil, she asked Jenny politely in Mandarin, '**你有多的笔芯笔吗?** *(Do you have an extra mechanical pencil?)'* to accommodate to Jenny's L1. Jenny replied in Mandarin and Aurelia continued responding in Mandarin too.

Upon hearing her groupmates speaking in Mandarin and noticing the researcher's presence in their group, Yen looked at Aurelia and joked with her in English, 'Hello, hello, what is your name?'. They were making fun of themselves for

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speaking Mandarin during an English lesson, in the presence of a researcher. The students in the class usually communicated with the researcher in English and knew that she could understand what they were saying in Mandarin. Aurelia turned around to look at the researcher's reaction before responding with laughter at Yen's attempt to speak to her in English.

In the semi-structured interview with Aurelia, she mentioned that she is selective of the language she uses to communicate with different friends. With certain friends, she discusses in English, and with others, she discusses in Mandarin. As for Jenny, she prefers discussing in Mandarin because 'some people doesn't (don't) understand what I said (in English) so I must speak in Chinese (Mandarin).' (Jenny, personal communication, 22 November 2018). In this situation, we observe that Aurelia made a language choice (Mandarin) to accommodate to Jenny's L1 in a discussion, while Yen made a language choice to speak in the target language (English) to accommodate to the researcher's presence in their group during an English lesson.

Table 4.9

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Students		Strategy
[Rephrases Nate' answer for the class.] Great! The word "university" starts with the "y" sound, not the "u" sound. So, we have to listen to the first sound of the noun, not look at the first letter of the noun.	All:	[Nod.]	
	Pei Pei:	[16] What is a noun?	[16] USE OF TL TO ASK FOR EXPLANATION
	Meng:	[17] 动词！ *('Dong Che' - 'Verb' in Mandarin.)*	[17] TRANSLATING ENG GRAMMATICAL TERM TO L1 EQUIVALENT (MANDARIN)
	Jing:	[18] 不是啦！ *(No, it's not!)*	[18] USING COMMON L1 (MANDARIN) TO DISAGREE

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Table 4.9 continued

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Students		Strategy
	Meng:	[19] 是, Noun 是动词！ *(Yes, 'Noun' is 'Dong Che' - 'Verb' in Mandarin!)*	[19] USING COMMON L1 (MANDARIN) TO INSIST
[Teacher hears the dispute between Meng and Jing.] A noun is a person, an animal, a thing, or a place. What do you call a noun in Mandarin?	Jing:	[23] 哦, Noun 是名词！ *(Oh, 'Noun' is called 'Ming Che' in Mandarin.)*	[23] TRANSLATING ENG GRAMMATICAL TERM TO L1 EQUIVALENT (MANDARIN)
	Class Monitor:	[24] Yes, it's 名词! *(Yes, it's called 'Ming Che' - 'Noun' in Mandarin.)*	[24] CODE-MIXING TO CONFIRM TRANSLATION

The extract shown in Table 4.9 is similar to the one in Table 4.4: Extract from Observation 1 which has been presented in Section 4.2.2. Apart from using translanguaging strategies to explain, the conversation among students in Group 1 also showed how students used their common L1 (Mandarin) to discuss an English grammatical term.

In this extract, students of Group 1 used their common L1 (Mandarin) to discuss the Mandarin equivalent of 'noun'. When Meng wrongly translated the English grammatical term 'noun' in Mandarin for Pei Pei, Jing expressed her disagreement, '不是啦！ *(No, it's not!)*' in Mandarin. Meng insisted that his translation was right by repeating his translation, '是, Noun 是动词！ (*Yes, 'Noun' is 'Dong Che'! - 'Verb' in Mandarin*)'. Fortunately, the teacher noticed the dispute between Meng and Jing from their loud tones (paralinguistic cue) although she did not understand what they were saying in Mandarin. After the teacher defined the term 'noun' in English, Jing was able to produce the right translation for 'noun' in Mandarin. Her translation was then

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confirmed by the Class Monitor, who agreed by saying, 'Yes, it's '名词'! *(Yes, it's called 'Ming Che' - 'Noun' in Mandarin)*. In this situation, Meng and Jing used their common L1 (Mandarin) to disagree and insist during their discussion. Then, Jing used her prior knowledge in Mandarin to translate an English grammatical term into Mandarin, which was confirmed by the Class Monitor. The discussion resulted in all the students and the teacher knowing the Mandarin equivalent for 'noun'.

Table 4.7

Extract from Observation 3 (Grammar Lesson: Adverbs of Time)

Teacher	Students		Strategy
Question 3, It started raining suddenly.	Takeshi:	[94] 是 'started' 还是 'suddenly'? *(Is it 'started' or 'suddenly'?)*	[94] CODE-SWITCHING TO ASK QUESTIONS
	Yen:	[95] 是 'started'. *(It's 'started'.)*	[95] CODE-SWITCHING TO ANSWER QUESTIONS
	Jenny :	[95] 是 'suddenly'. *(It's 'suddenly'.)*	
	Aurelia:	[96] Eh, cannot speak Chinese. *(Eh, we are not supposed to speak in Mandarin.)*	[96] LANGUAGE CHOICE TO ACCOMMODATE
	Group 3:	[96] [laughs shyly.]	
	Yen:	[97] 写 'started' 啦。 *(Write down 'started'.)*	[97] CODE-SWITCHING TO DISCUSS
	Aurelia:	[97] 是什么 category? *(What category is it?)*	
	Jenny:	[97] 我觉得是 'How long'. *(I think it's 'How long'.)*	

In the above extract, the students in Group 3 were discussing a question given by the teacher. They were asked to identify the adverb of time in the sentence, 'It started raining suddenly'. While Takeshi, Yen, and Jenny were discussing the answer

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in a mixture of Mandarin and English, Aurelia told them in Manglish, '**Eh, cannot speak Chinese.** (*Eh, we are not supposed to speak in Mandarin.)*' because the researcher was sitting with them. Aurelia code-mixed by using the filler (Eh) and direct translation from Mandarin (cannot speak Chinese) in her attempt to speak the target language (English) in the researcher's presence. The whole Group 3 responded to Aurelia with shy laughter, but they continued their discussion in a mixture of Mandarin and English again.

During the semi-structured interview with Aurelia, she mentioned that her preferred language in school is English. However, the researcher noticed that she frequently spoke in Mandarin to her group members during English lessons and asked her some questions about it. According to Aurelia, she speaks both Mandarin and English during English lessons because she needs to translate certain things for her groupmate, Yen, 'because she don't (doesn't) really understand the things that Miss S… teacher says to us.' (Aurelia, personal communication, 22 November 2018). She feels that Yen understands the teacher's instructions better after she has translated them into Mandarin for her.

In this situation, the discussion among students involved them code-switching between Mandarin and English because they discussed in Mandarin but retained the original English terms. Although Aurelia tried to accommodate to the researcher's presence in their group, the group continued discussing in the language preference of their groupmates in order to complete the task given more effectively.

From the four extracts discussed above, data from the classroom observation field notes and semi-structured interviews show that the multilingual students in this class use translanguaging strategies in discussions such as (1) making language choices to accommodate to others' L1 (Bahasa Malaysia, Mandarin or English), (2)

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using the common L1 (Mandarin) to disagree and insist, (3) translating English grammatical terms to their L1 equivalent (Mandarin) and (4) code-switching between Mandarin and English.

4.3 Translanguaging Strategies Used by the Teacher

In this section, I will focus on the analysis on how the English teacher, Miss S, used translanguaging strategies during her English lessons. All three lessons observed were consistently grammar lessons as the afternoon extra classes were focused on English grammar input and practice.

In a case study by García et al. (2011), translanguaging is known to take place across teachers and students in four ways. First, *to mediate understanding*. Secondly, *to co-construct and construct meaning*. Thirdly, *to include*, and lastly, *to exclude and to show knowledge*. In other words, translanguaging simply refers to the language practices of bilingual / multilingual people. In achieving these four functions, several translanguaging strategies were involved.

According to Jones (2017), two models of classroom translanguaging became apparent based on research findings into language arrangements within Welsh–English bilingual schools in Wales (Lewis, 2008). One of the models could be classified as teacher-directed translanguaging, which refers to a planned activity by the teacher for both emergent and more-competent bilinguals. Teacher-directed translanguaging strategies include (1) instances of responsible code-switching, (2) instances of translation, (3) language alternation for input and output, and (4) giving translanguaging cues. García and Otheguy (2020, p. 26) further describe that translanguaging includes non-linguistic multimodal resources such as gestures, gazes, posture, visual cues, and even human-technology interactions.

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As the English teacher, Miss S, did not understand or speak the majority common L1 (Mandarin), she was unable to use translanguaging strategies such as code-switching, translating to Mandarin or language alternating independently. In order to achieve her purpose (to help the students understand her English lesson better), she needed other strategies of her own to use translanguaging during her English lessons with students of various linguistic backgrounds

From the findings of the classroom observations and the semi-structured interview, Miss S had to first use non-verbal communication to recognize her students' needs, then use translanguaging cues to encourage her students' language use, and finally, use instances of translation to transform her students' translations into English language input. The findings of the classroom observations were confirmed by the English teacher in the semi-structured interview.

4.3.1 Using Non-Verbal Communication to Recognise Students' Needs

Miss S teaches in an SJKC school, where most of her students are of Malaysian Chinese ethnicity. Out of the three afternoon extra classes that Miss S teaches, the selected class is the most diverse as there are 17 Malaysian Chinese students, four Malay students, one Native Sarawakian student, one Native Sabahan student, one Japanese student and one Mainland Chinese student. Therefore, Miss S must recognise the language needs of students from six different ethnicities and different first languages in order to teach English effectively.

As Miss S does not understand what the students talk about in Mandarin, she needs to pay extra attention to their non-verbal communication in order to recognize their needs. Non-verbal communication refers to the ways in which beings convey information about their emotions, needs, intentions, attitudes, and thoughts without the use of verbal language (Hall, 2001). One of the domains of non-verbal communication,

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paralinguistic cues, are powerful non-verbal communicative signals that add information above and beyond what is explicitly stated verbally (Hall, 2001). Paralinguistic cues occur via a variety of channels such as prosody (linguistic functions such as intonation, tone, stress, and rhythm), gestures, posture, and facial expressions (Borod, Bloom, Brickman, Nakhutina, & Curko, 2002).

The following are the instances where Miss S uses non-verbal communication to recognize students' needs as the first step of her translanguaging strategy:

Table 4.8

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Strategy	Students	
Now, what about the word 'university'? Do we use the article 'a' or 'an' before 'university'?		Nate & Sze Ern:	[Trying to outwit each other.] 'A!' 'A!'
Why?		Nate:	[Interrupts quietly.] **Because 'university' is 'y' sound.** *(Because 'university' starts with the 'y' sound).*
[15] Great! The word 'university' starts with the 'y' sound, not the 'u' sound. So, we have to listen to the first sound of the noun, not look at the first letter of the noun.	[15] REPHRASING IN ENGLISH	All: Pei Pei: Meng: Jing: Meng:	[Nod.] What is a noun? **动词！** ('*Dong Che*' - '*Verb' in Mandarin.)* **不是啦！** (*No, it's not!)* **是,** 'Noun' **是动词！** (*Yes, 'Noun' is 'Dong Che'* - '*Verb' in Mandarin!)*
[20] [Teacher hears the loud dispute between Meng and Jing and looks at Group 1.]	[20] USING NVC TO IDENTIFY A PROBLEM		

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Table 4.11 continued

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Strategy	Students	
21 A noun is a person, an animal, a thing, or a place. What do you call a noun in Mandarin?	21 EXPLAINING IN ENGLISH	Jing:	哦, Noun 是名词！ *(Oh, 'Noun' is called 'Ming Che' in Mandarin.)*
		Class Monitor:	24 Yes, it's '名词'! *(Yes, it's called 'Ming Che' - 'Noun' in Mandarin.)*
26 Thank you, Jing.			
27 Nouns are called '名词' in Mandarin.	27 TRANSLATING TO L1 EQUIVALENT (MANDARIN)	Class:	[Nods] Ooo…

In the extract shown in Table 4.11, Miss S was asking the students why the article 'a' should be placed before the noun 'university'. After Nate answered her question correctly, Miss S rephrased his answer for the class. When she said, 'So, we have to listen to the first sound of the noun, not look at the first letter of the noun.' the students in her class nodded to show that they understood her explanation. However, Pei Pei from Group 1 did not remember what a 'noun' was and asked her groupmates, 'What is a noun?' In attempt to explain the English grammatical term 'noun', Meng wrongly translated 'noun' into '动词 (*verb*)' and Jing immediately disagreed with him. When Meng insisted that his translation was correct, Miss S noticed the loud dispute between her students in Group 1 and realised that not everyone understood her explanation. Although Miss S did not understand Mandarin, she knew that they were arguing about what a 'noun' is because they used a mixture of Mandarin and English ('noun') in their argument. Therefore, Miss S was aware that they might have forgotten

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the meaning of ‘noun’ and needed further explanation. As she was not able to directly translate ‘noun’ into their L1 equivalent (Mandarin), she further explained in English, ‘A noun is a person, an animal, a thing, or a place.’ and asked her multilingual students, ‘What do you call a noun in Mandarin?’ Her explanation helped Jing to remember the correct term for ‘noun’ in Mandarin, which is ‘是名 (*noun*)’. Then, the Class Monitor agreed with Jing and other students confirmed Jing’s translation by nodding their heads. Recognizing that the students understood better when they could relate the term ‘noun’ to ‘是名 (*noun*)’ in Mandarin, Miss S thanked Jing for her translation and repeated it for the class, ‘Nouns are called “名词 (*noun*)” in Mandarin.’

In this situation, it is evident that Miss S made use of non-verbal communication as a strategy to carry out translanguaging in her English lesson. First, she checked the students’ understanding by looking at their gestures (nodding) and identified a problem when she heard her students speaking to each other in raised tones and intonations. Then, with help from her more competent multilingual students, she managed to translate the English grammatical term ‘noun’ to her students’ L1 (Mandarin) equivalent.

Table 4.9

Extract from Observation 2 (Grammar Lesson: Adjectives)

Teacher	Strategy	Students	
Correct. Now, if we have words like ‘colourful’, how many syllables are there?	USING NVC TO IDENTIFY A PROBLEM	All: Class Monitor:	[remained silent] [after some hesitation] Three!
That’s right. CO-LOUR-FUL. Three syllables. [32] Syllables are like ‘**suku kata**’ in BM. Count with me, CO-LOUR-FUL. Three syllables.	[32] TRANSLATING TO NATIONAL LANGUAGE (BM)	All:	[33] Ooo…CO-LOUR-FUL. [count syllables with fingers]

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In the extract shown in Table 4.12, Miss S was teaching the students the rules of adding 'more' and 'most' when changing adjectives to comparatives and superlatives. She explained that when an adjective has three syllables or more, they should add 'more' and 'most' to the adjective instead of the suffixes '-er' and 'est'.

To check the students' understanding, she asked the students how many syllables were there in the adjective 'colourful'. However, all the students in her class remained silent and only the Class Monitor responded with the correct answer, 'Three!' after some hesitation. Due to their silence, Miss S realised that most of the students may not have understood what 'syllables' were. Therefore, she repeated the Class Monitor's answer (three) by separating, 'CO-LOUR-FUL' into three syllables. Then, she proceeded to explain the meaning of 'syllables' by translating it into its Bahasa Malaysia equivalent, '**suku kata** (*syllables*)'. She told the students that, 'Syllables are like **suku kata** in BM. Count with me, CO-LOUR-FUL. Three syllables.' and the students responded by using their fingers to count the syllables in 'CO-LOUR-FUL'. When Miss S saw her students imitating her actions (saying CO-LOUR-FUL while counting with their fingers), she knew that they had understood the meaning of 'syllables'.

In this situation, Miss S also used non-verbal communication as a strategy to recognise her students' needs for further explanation. She noticed that their silence meant that they were unable to answer her question. Then, with her bilingual knowledge, she translated 'syllables' to the national language (Bahasa Malaysia) because she knew that the students had all learnt '**suku kata**' in Bahasa Malaysia from Year 1 to 3. Next, she also made use of gestures to help students understand the syllables in 'colourful' by asking them to count 'CO-LOUR-FUL' with their fingers while saying it aloud. Although Miss S was unable to explain the term 'syllables' in

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their L1 (Mandarin), she made use of her students' prior knowledge in the national language (Bahasa Malaysia) and used non-verbal communication (silence, hesitation and gestures) as a translanguaging strategies to help them understand her lesson better.

Table 4.10

Extract from Observation 2 (Grammar Lesson: Adjectives)

Teacher	Strategy	Students	
Alright, next question.		Group 2: Jian Shen: Jian Shen, Hong and Ee Ling: Jason Lim:	Among potato chips, apples and chocolates, apples are the … (healthy). 'Most healthy'. **到我们了，谁要站?** (It's our turn. Who wants to stand up?) [all look at Jason Lim.] [stands up.]
Okay, Group 2. Jason, in this sentence, how many things are we comparing?	[55]USING NVC TO IDENTIFY A PROBLEM	Jason Lim: Jian Shen:	Three. [55] **四个，四个.** *(It's four, it's four.)* [uses his fingers to gesture "four" at Jason and the teacher sees it.]
Hmm… Class, how many things are there?		All:	Three! Potato chips, apples and chocolate.
That's right. So, when we compare three or more items, we use the…		All:	Superlative!
What's the superlative for 'healthy'?		Group 2: Others:	'Most healthy'. "Healthiest!"
Yes, the superlative for 'healthy' is 'healthiest'. 'Healthy, healthier, healthiest.'		Group 2:	Ooo… [Nod.]

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In the extract shown in Table 4.13, students were discussing the following question in their respective groups, 'Among potato chips, apples and chocolates, apples are the … (healthy)'. They were asked to identify the number of things being compared in the sentence given and change 'healthy' into its correct form of adjective. After giving them two minutes to discuss among themselves, Miss S asked Jason Lim from Group 2 to tell the class the number of things being compared in the sentence. When Jason Lim said 'three' (the correct answer), Miss S overheard Jian Shen, Jason Lim's groupmate, trying to correct him by saying, '**四个，四个.** (*It's four, it's four.)*' in Mandarin. Although she did not understand what he is saying, she also noticed that he was using his fingers to gesture 'four' at Jason. Realising that some students may have counted the number of things wrongly during the group discussion, Miss S felt the need to discuss it with them again before proceeding to the next step. She asked the whole class, 'Hmm… Class, how many things are there?' which they all responded with, 'Three! Potato chips, apples and chocolate.' After making sure that the students knew how to count the number of things correctly, she then proceeded to elicit the answers ('superlative' and 'healthiest') from them.

In this situation, Miss S once again used non-verbal communication as a strategy to carry out translanguaging. By looking at the hand gestures of her student, she was aware that he did not understand something correctly even though he spoke in Mandarin, a language she does not understand. Therefore, she was able to address the issue and give further explanation to ensure that her students understood her lesson.

From the three extracts discussed above, data from the classroom observation field notes show that Miss S uses non-verbal communication as a strategy to recognize her students' by paying attention to their gestures, tones, intonations and silence. Although she does not understand or speak the majority's common L1 (Mandarin), she

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does not see it as a setback and instead, uses non-verbal communication as her first translanguaging strategy to recognize her student's needs.

4.3.2 Using Translanguaging Cues to Encourage Students' Language Use

Apart from paying attention to her students' non-verbal communication to recognise her students' needs, Miss S also gives translanguaging cues to encourage her students' language use. Translanguaging cues are information about language use in the classroom provided by the teacher (Jones & Lewis, 2014) and in Miss S' lessons, these translanguaging cues were mainly in oral form that served as a signal/prompt/reminder to her students about which language to use during her English lesson. For emergent multilinguals, Miss S attempts to scaffold the translanguaging by initiating a conversation in the language and instructs both emergent and competent students to speak in the target language (English). Here are some examples:

Table 4.11

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Strategy	Students	
Teacher looks at Fareed's bandaged head.			
Fareed, what happened to you?	[3] GIVING TC TO SPEAK IN ENGLISH	Fareed: Others:	[Keeps quiet.] He fell down!
Oh no, I reminded you to stay safe during the holidays and come back in one piece!		All:	Yes. [Laugh.]
While waiting for students to take out their English workbook, teacher looks at Fareed and asks him about his head injury.			
[3] Fareed, when did you fall down?	[3] GIVING TC TO SPEAK IN ENGLISH	Fareed:	[3] [Hesitates.] Yesterday.
[3] Are you okay?	[3] GIVING TC TO SPEAK IN ENGLISH	Fareed:	[3] [Nods.] Yes.

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In the extract shown in Table 4.14, Fareed is a Malay boy whose L1 is Bahasa Malaysia. He is not proficient in both English and Mandarin, therefore he tends to keep quiet during English lessons. He usually speaks Bahasa Malaysia to his classmates and his teachers. In the situation above, Miss S had just entered the class and noticed Fareed's bandaged head. When she asked him what happened in English, he kept quiet and did not answer. Noticing Fareed's silence, the other students in the class told Miss S that Fareed had a fall. After that, Miss S approached Fareed personally and asked him in English again, 'Fareed, when did you fall down?', to which Fareed hesitated before answering quietly, 'Yesterday'. After that, Miss S continued asking him in English, 'Are you okay?' and Fareed nodded his head in response before saying 'Yes'.

Although both Miss S and Fareed are of Malay ethnicity and speak Bahasa Malaysia as their first language, Miss S initiated the conversation in English to give Fareed a translanguaging cue to speak in English too. However, Fareed did not respond to Miss S' first question and his classmates answered in English on his behalf. After that, Miss S approached Fareed again personally and initiated another conversation in English. Although Fareed hesitated in his reply, his response showed that he was able to understand her question in English and follow her translanguaging cue to reply in English. This encouraged Fareed to use the target language, English.

Table 4.12

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Strategy	Students	
Okay, let's begin now.		All:	[Look around.]
Question 1. 'Student Number 14', please.		Class Monitor:	Lim Yee Xing!
		Yee Xing:	不是我！老师换了我们的号码！ *(That's not me! Our teacher has changed our numbers!*

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Table 4.13 continued

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Strategy	Students	
[12] [Looks at the Class Monitor.]	[12] GIVING TC TO SPEAK IN ENGLISH	Class Monitor:	[12] Class teacher changed our numbers already. Yee Xing is now 'Number 13'. 'Number 14' didn't come. *(Our class teacher has changed our numbers. Yee Xing is now 'Number 13'. 'Number 14' is absent today.)*
[Nods at the class monitor's explanation.] Okay, 'Student Number 8' then.		Jing:	[Stands up.]

In the extract shown in Table 4.15, it is interesting to note that some SJKC schools number their students according to the alphabetical order of their names. Sometimes, when the teacher wants to call a random student to answer a question, he / she can call the 'Student Number'. In this situation, one of the students in this class no longer participated in the afternoon extra class, therefore Lim Yee Xing was moved forward to 'Student Number 13'.

In the semi-structured interview with Miss S, she mentioned that she gave the students opportunities to explain a situation in their own languages instead of stopping them and asking them to speak only English. When the Class Monitor wrongly called Lim Yee Xing as 'Student Number 14', she voiced out in Mandarin, '**不是我！老师换了我们的号码！** (*That's not me! Our teacher has changed our numbers!*)'. Knowing that Lim Yee Xing was not very proficient in English, Miss S looked at the Class Monitor, giving him a translanguaging cue to translate what Yee Xing said into the target language (English). In response, the Class Monitor attempted to translate what Lim Yee Xing said, '**Class teacher changed our numbers already.**' (*Our class*

teacher has changed our numbers.)' He then followed his translation with an explanation, **'Yee Xing is now 'Number 13'. 'Number 14' didn't come.'** *(Yee Xing is now 'Number 13'. 'Number 14' is absent today.)* Although the Class Monitor translated Mandarin into Manglish and proper English, Miss S understood what his translation and nodded her head in response. Having a teacher who encourages students to express themselves in various languages, the students were not afraid to translanguage and use their wide linguistic repertoire during Miss S' English lessons.

Table 4.14

Extract from Observation 3 (Grammar Lesson: Adverbs of Time)

Teacher	Strategy	Students	
Teacher writes "Adverbs" on the whiteboard.			
Have I explained to you what an adverb is?		All:	Nooo…
Alright. An adverb is a combination of an…		Nate: Meng:	Adjective. 哦。。。形容词！ *(Ohh… It's Xing Rong Che! - 'Adjective' in Mandarin)*
Yes, an adjective. What is an adjective for, Meng?	GIVING TC TO SPEAK IN ENGLISH	Meng:	To describe things!
Yes, Meng is right. Adjectives are used to describe things. What are the categories of these 'things'?		All:	Erm… People… Animals… Places… Things…

In the extract shown in Table 4.16, Miss S elicited her students' prior knowledge by asking them to explain what an adverb is. When Nate said that an adverb is partly made up of an 'adjective', Meng immediately translated it to his L1 equivalent (Mandarin), '哦。。。形容词！ *(Ohh… It's Xing Rong Che! -'Adjective' in Mandarin)*'. Miss S noticed that Meng was interested to answer her questions but was

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still using his L1 (Mandarin). Therefore, she attempted to ask him a question in English as a translanguaging cue for him to speak in the target language (English) instead. Upon hearing Miss S' question in English, Meng responded in English too, 'To describe things!'. Miss S acknowledged Meng's correct answer and repeated it for the class.

In this situation, it is evident that Miss S allowed students to use other languages (Mandarin) during her English lesson to link new information with their prior knowledge. Then, she made use of translanguaging cues as a strategy to prompt her student to give an answer in the target language, English. This encouraged her students' language use in both the L1 (Mandarin) and target language (English).

Table 4.15

Extract from Observation 3 (Grammar Lesson: Adverbs of Time)

Teacher	Strategy	Students	
'Kelly studied in her room.' What kind of adverb of time can we add?		All:	How long!
'+ for five hours.' 'Kelly studied in her room for five hours.'		Meng:	哇。。。这样多！ *(Wow… that's really long!)*
		All:	[Laugh.]
[76] Why are all of you laughing?	[76] GIVING TC TO SPEAK IN ENGLISH	All:	[76] Because five hours is very long!
Oh. [Laughs.]			

In the extract shown in Table 4.17, Miss S asked her students what category of adverb of time they could add to the sentence, 'Kelly studied in her room.' After the students responded with the correct answer ('How long!'), Miss S proceeded to write 'for five hours' behind the sentence on the whiteboard. Upon seeing that, Meng expressed loudly in his L1 (Mandarin), **'哇。。。这样多！** *(Wow… that's really*

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long!)' which invited laughter from the whole class. Miss S, who did not understand what Meng said in Mandarin, asked the class in the target language (English), 'Why are all of you laughing?' as a translanguaging cue for them to speak English. Together, the class told her that they laughed, 'Because five hours is very long!' and Miss S laughed with them too.

This situation shows us that Miss S did not stop her students from expressing themselves in Mandarin although she was carrying out an English lesson. Instead, she used this opportunity to give translanguaging cues as a strategy to ask students to explain what they were laughing about into the target language (English) for her. By doing this, Miss S not only understood her students better, but was also encouraging them to use the target language (English) to explain situations to someone who does not understand Mandarin, such as herself.

From the four extracts discussed above, data from the classroom observation field notes show that Miss S used translanguaging cues (asking questions in the target language, English) as a strategy to encourage her students' language use during her English lessons.

4.3.3 Using Instances of Translation for English Language Input

As we can see from the previous situations Miss S encountered, instances of translanguaging occurred during her English lessons between Miss S and the students although she does not speak the majority's common L1, Mandarin. Using non-verbal communication to identify her students' needs, Miss S learnt new Mandarin words and was able to encourage her students to translate Mandarin to English. By giving translanguaging cues, she was also able to encourage her students' language use. Another translanguaging strategy used by Miss S was instances of translation for

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English language input, to help the weaker students understand the lesson better. Here are some examples:

Table 4.16

Extract from Observation 1 (Grammar Lesson: Articles)

Teacher	Strategy	Students	
Correct! We use 'an' when the next word begins with a vowel sound, 'A, E, I, O, U'.		All:	[Nod.]
Now, what about the word 'university'? Do we use the article 'a' or 'an' before "university"?		Nate & Sze Ern:	[Trying to outwit each other.] 'A!' 'A!'
Why?		Nate:	[Interrupts quietly.] **Because 'university' is 'y' sound.** *(Because 'university' starts with the 'y' sound).*
[15] Great! The word 'university' starts with the 'y' sound, not the 'u' sound. So, we have to listen to the first sound of the noun, not look at the first letter of the noun.	[15] TRANSLATING MANGLISH TO ENGLISH	All:	[Nod.]

In the extract shown in Table 4.18, when Miss S first explained that they should use the article 'an' if the next word begins with a vowel sound. Then, she asked the class to choose the right article before the word 'university', which was answered correctly by Nate and Sze Ern. When Miss S asked the class why they should place the article 'a' before the word 'university', Nate attempted to answer in Manglish, '**Because "university" is "y" sound.** *(Because "university" starts with the "y" sound).*' After hearing Nate's answer, Miss S did not reprimand him for speaking

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Manglish or, but subtly corrected him by rephrasing his answer in English for the class. She told the class, ‘Great! The word ‘university’ starts with the ‘y’ sound, not the ‘u’ sound. So, we have to listen to the first sound of the noun, not look at the first letter of the noun.’ The students nodded their heads in response to Miss S’ explanation.

In this situation, Miss S used instances of translation as a translanguaging strategy to provide her students with English language input. By allowing her students to reply in Manglish, this gave them more opportunities to attempt speaking English instead of their L1, Mandarin.

Table 4.17

Extract from Observation 2 (Grammar Lesson: Adjectives)

Teacher	Strategy	Students	
The lesson is interrupted by an announcement by the Senior Assistant in Mandarin: **“对不起打扰教学。这里有一份报告。下课后，穆斯林同学不需要去 Agama 课室，因为我们会在 Agama 课室进行活动。报告到止，谢谢。”** *(“I’m sorry to interrupt the teaching and learning session. Here’s an announcement. After the break, Muslim students do not need to go to the Agama classroom because we are carrying out an activity in the Agama classroom. That’s all. Thank you.”)*			
What did the announcement say?		Class Monitor:	Erm…After the break, the Muslim students don’t need to go to Agama class today. They are using the Agama classroom for an event.
Okay, thanks Monitor. [45] Muslim students, please take note. Do not go to the Agama classroom after the break today.	[45] REPEATING ENGLISH TRANSLATION	Muslim Students:	Okay, teacher.

The above extract in Table 4.19 captured a situation where a school-wide announcement was being made in Mandarin over the PA System. The senior assistant made a quick announcement, saying, **‘对不起打扰教学。这里有一份报告。下课后，穆斯林同学不需要去 Agama 课室，因为我们会在 Agama 课室进行活动。报告**

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到止，谢谢。*(Sorry to interrupt the teaching and learning session. Here's an announcement. After the break, Muslim students do not need to go to the Agama classroom because we are carrying out an activity in the Agama classroom. That's all. Thank you.)'* As Miss S does not understand Mandarin, she asked the class, 'What did the announcement say?' She wanted to find out what the announcement was about and ensure that all the students in her class understood the announcement. As the Class Monitor was a more competent multilingual student, he helped Miss S by translating it into English, 'Erm…After the break, the Muslim students don't need to go to Agama class today. They are using the Agama classroom for an event.' Upon understanding the Class Monitor's translation, Miss S thanked him and repeated his English translation for the Muslim students in her class, 'Muslim students, please take note. Do not go to the Agama classroom after the break today.' The Muslim students responded by saying 'Okay, teacher.'

From this situation, it is evident that Miss S did not ignore the things she did not understand and tried her best to find ways to understand what was happening. By using her students as a medium to translate Mandarin to English, she could also use the translation to help other students who might not understand Mandarin well.

From the two extracts discussed above, data from the classroom observation field notes show that Miss S used instances of translation as a translanguaging strategy to provide her students with English language input. Although she did not understand or speak the majority's L1, she made use of her students' multilingual abilities to help her use translations during her English lessons.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has analysed the data collected from the classroom observation field notes and semi-structured interviews with selected students and the teacher. The

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findings show that students in this class used translanguaging to serve several purposes (to ask for or give help, to explain something and to discuss). To achieve these purposes, the students carried out pupil-directed translanguaging using several different strategies which are: (1) using their common L1 (Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia), (2) making language choices to accommodate to others' L1, (3) code-switching between Mandarin and English, (4) translating English grammatical terms to the L1 (Mandarin) equivalent and (5) translating Mandarin to English for the non-Mandarin speaking teacher. The findings also show that the teacher used (1) non-verbal communication to recognise her students' needs, (2) translanguaging cues to encourage students' language use and (3) instances of translation for English language input as her teacher-directed translanguaging strategies. The next chapter will summarise the findings of the study and discuss the findings of the study in detail.

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CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.0 Introduction

As highlighted in Chapter one, there are two objectives in this study. First, it aims to investigate how primary school students use translanguaging during English lessons in an SJKC school. Secondly, this study also attempts to identify the strategies used by an English teacher who does not speak the students' first language to carry out translanguaging during English lessons.

This chapter presents further discussion and interpretation of the research findings presented in Chapter Four. There are five sections in this chapter. Section 5.1 summarizes the findings in relation to the first research question, how primary school students use translanguaging during English lessons in an SJKC school. Section 5.2 summarizes the findings in relation to the second research question, the strategies used by Miss S, the English teacher who does not speak the students' first language, to carry out translanguaging during English lessons. Section 5.3 discusses the findings of the first research question and the second research question, as well as how they relate to previous literature. Section 5.4 discusses the implications of the findings and Section 5.5 discusses suggestions for future research. Finally, Section 5.6 concludes the findings of this study.

5.1 Summary of Findings for Research Question One

Previous studies on translanguaging have discussed why students use translanguaging among themselves. García (2011) discovered that pupils use translanguaging to mediate understanding, construct meaning within themselves, include and exclude others and demonstrate knowledge. Several other studies have looked into the phenomenon of code-switching and translanguaging among students in universities (Ariffin & Husin, 2011) and high schools (Low, 2016), but not among

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students at the primary level. Therefore, the first research question in this study aims to address the gap in the literature which is how primary students of different ethnicities and linguistic backgrounds use translanguaging during English lessons.

As defined in Chapter 1, translanguaging is the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, in order to maximise communicative potential (García, 2010). From the analysis of the field notes of classroom observations and semi-structured interviews, similarities were found in terms of how the students used translanguaging to maximise communicative potential and achieve their purposes (to ask for or give help, to explain something, or to discuss). The students in this class used their multilingual abilities to carry out pupil-directed translanguaging, which refers to translanguaging activities undertaken independently by more competent bilinguals (Jones, 2017). The students carried out pupil-directed translanguaging by (1) using their common L1 (Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia), (2) making language choices to accommodate to the other person's L1, (3) code-switching between Mandarin and English to keep English terms accurate, (4) translating English grammatical terms to their L1 (Mandarin) equivalent and (5) translating Mandarin to English for the non-Mandarin speaking teacher.

Firstly, when students used their common L1 (Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia), they were able to ask for help and discuss easily with others who shared the same L1. For instance, in Section 4.2.1, Meng used the common L1 he shared with Jing (Mandarin), to ask her for help when he missed the teacher's instruction. In Section 4.2.3, Meng and Jing once again used their common L1 (Mandarin) to disagree with each other and insist that they were right during a group discussion.

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Secondly, the students made language choices to accommodate to the other person's L1, whether in Mandarin, Bahasa Malaysia or English. In Section 4.2.1, both Fahmi and Nate used Mandarin to accommodate to Sze Ern's L1 when they asked her for help. In Section 4.2.2, the Class Monitor chose to announce the break time to his classmates in Mandarin to accommodate to those who understood Mandarin better. In the semi-structured interview, the Class Monitor mentioned that he generally speaks English but prefers speaking Mandarin in class because his friends 'don't speak English very well'. (Class Monitor, personal communication, 22 November 2018) Similarly in Section 4.2.3, Fahmi made a language choice to speak in Bahasa Malaysia to accommodate Kalisha's needs even though they were having an English lesson. In the semi-structured interview, Fahmi revealed that Kalisha does not speak English well, therefore he speaks Bahasa Malaysia to accommodate to her L1,

> *'And then, she (Kalisha) don't know how to speak the English, so I speak with Malay (Bahasa Malaysia).'* (Fahmi, personal communication, 22 November 2018)

Thirdly, the students code-switched between Mandarin and English when they wanted to give help, explain something or discuss. Although they were mainly speaking in Mandarin, the students were careful to retain the English terms such as 'Spelling', 'noun', 'how often', and 'always' because translating them to Mandarin would change their original meaning. A simple example can be found in Section 4.2.1, where Meng asked Jing '什么书？*(Which book is it?)'* in Mandarin to find out which book was needed. Instead of replying, '听写书 (*Spelling book*)' entirely in Mandarin, it was necessary for Jing to use the English word 'Spelling' 书！ *('Spelling' book!)* in her reply. This is because '听写书 (*Spelling book*)' would refer to the Spelling book used in their Mandarin lesson instead. By using a simple code-switch, this ensured that

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she gave Meng the accurate information while replying him in their common LI, Mandarin.

Fourthly, students translated English grammatical terms into the L1 equivalents (Mandarin) when their friends needed help or explanation, and also during group discussions on grammar questions given by the teacher. Apart from just translating grammatical items, the semi-structured interviews with the students revealed that the more competent multilingual students also translated the teacher's instructions from English to Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia to help their friends who do not understand English well. According to Jenny, she gets help from the Class Monitor and her groupmates to translate the teacher's instructions in English into Mandarin when she does not understand. (Jenny, personal communication, 22 November 2018). By translating certain things into Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia, students feel that they are helping their classmates. During the semi-structured interview with the Class Monitor, he shared his opinion on how he used translation to help his friends,

> *'Um… Like, if he doesn't understand and he doesn't know how to do that (a task), I will like… teach him or explain it to him in Chinese (Mandarin) or using different languages.'* (Class Monitor, personal communication, 22 November 2018)

Besides translating into Mandarin for most of his classmates, the Class Monitor also helped his Malay classmates by translating into Bahasa Malaysia,

> *'Um… mostly, if it's my Malay friend, I'll use Malay and Chinese (Mandarin) more because she understands a little bit of Chinese (Mandarin).'* (Class Monitor, personal communication, 22 November 2018)

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Lastly, students also translated Mandarin into English for their non-speaking English teacher in order to help her understand a situation or explain a situation to her. The example in Section 4.2.2 shows how a student, Sue Ng took the initiative to translate the Class Monitor's announcement in Mandarin to English for the teacher without being asked. The students in this class were aware that their teacher did not understand Mandarin and by translating to English, it would help to explain the situation to her. In the next section, we will look into how the teacher uses teacher-directed translanguaging to carry out translanguaging although she does not speak the students' L1, Mandarin.

In conclusion, these are the common translanguaging strategies used by the students in this study to serve different purposes, such as to help, to explain and to discuss.

5.2 Summary of Findings for Research Question Two

Recent studies on translanguaging (Allard, 2017; Champlin, 2016; Li & Luo, 2017) have shown that teachers who teach in multilingual classrooms use various translanguaging strategies in their lessons to teach bilingual/multilingual learners. According to Jones (2017), teacher-directed translanguaging is a planned activity by the teacher for both emergent and more-competent bilinguals. This means that the teacher can scaffold the translanguaging process in the classroom. However, the case in this study is unique as the teacher participant, Miss S, did not speak the majority's L1 (Mandarin) and was unable to code-switch or translate to Mandarin independently. Therefore, the second research question in this study aims to address the gap in the literature which is, 'What are the strategies used by an English language teacher who does not speak the students' first language to carry out translanguaging during English lessons?

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The findings of this study revealed three strategies used by Miss S to carry out translanguaging during her English lessons, despite being an English teacher of Malay ethnicity who does not speak her students' L1 (Mandarin). These strategies are, (1) using non-verbal communication to recognise her students' needs, (2) using translanguaging cues to encourage students' language use and (3) using instances of translation for English language input.

The first translanguaging strategy that Miss S employed was using non-verbal communication to recognise her students' needs, particularly their gestures, tones, intonations and silence. For instance, when the students nodded, Miss S knew that they understood her lesson. In one scenario where Jian Shen used his fingers to gesture 'four' (the wrong answer) while giving his groupmate, Jason the answer in Mandarin, Miss S was immediately able to identify Jian Shen's mistake and followed up with further explanation in English. In another situation, Miss S noticed that Meng and Jing were having a loud dispute in their common L1 (Mandarin) by paying attention to their tones and intonations. Although Miss S did not understand what they were saying in Mandarin, she was able to capture the word 'noun' to know that they were having a disagreement about something related to her lesson. Due to this, Miss S knew that her students needed further explanation in English and a Mandarin translation for the term 'noun' to understand her lesson better. Finally, Miss S also identified her students' silence and hesitation in answering as a sign that they did not understand her question. In this case, she used the national language (Bahasa Malaysia) translate the English term, 'syllables' to its Bahasa Malaysia equivalent, **'suku kata'**, so that the students would be able to link the new word to their prior knowledge.

Secondly, Miss S used translanguaging cues to encourage her students' language use during her English lessons. Although Miss S was teaching an English

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class, she allowed her students to make use of all the languages they knew during her lesson. She felt that translanguaging was beneficial for her students to 'understand better and to link the knowledge in other languages' (Miss S, personal communication, 22 November 2018). However, when she wanted her students to speak in the target language (English), she often gave translanguaging cues, which are information about language use in the classroom provided by the teacher that serve as a signal/prompt/reminder to the pupils about which language to use during a translanguaging task (Jones & Lewis, 2014). From the classroom observations, it was evident that Miss S often used translanguaging cues by asking questions in the target language (English) or by looking at them (giving eye contact). Whenever a she heard a conversation in Mandarin, or students answering her questions in Mandarin, she would prompt them to speak in English by asking them questions in English. At times, she looks at the Class Monitor (gives eye contact) to signal him to translate Mandarin information to English as he is proficient in both Mandarin and English. This gave the students great opportunities to make use of their linguistic repertoire during English lessons, as Miss S said, 'I think by doing this 'translanguaging', they can practise their multilingual skills with others' (Miss S, personal communication, 22 November 2019).

Last but not least, Miss S used instances translation for English language input as her translanguaging strategy. The findings of this study revealed that instances of translations were evident throughout the translanguaging process in Miss S' English lessons. Whenever Miss S was capable of translating words / phrases / sentences within her linguistic repertoire, she would do so independently for her students. For instance, when Nate answered Miss S' question in Manglish, she translated it into English to provide the correct answer for the other students. However, knowing that Miss S did not understand Mandarin, the students in this class (particularly the Class Monitor)

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used their multilingual knowledge to translate Mandarin into English for her. For example, when Miss S received Mandarin to English translations from the Class Monitor, she used the English translation to explain the situation to the students who were less proficient in Mandarin.

In conclusion, these are strategies used by Miss S, a non-Mandarin speaking English teacher, to carry out translanguaging in order to help her students understand her English lessons better.

5.3 Discussion of the Findings

Section 5.1 and Section 5.2 above summarized the findings of the data presented in Chapter 4. In this section, the discussion of the findings will be presented.

According to Lewis, Jones and Baker (2012b), much of translanguaging that occurs in classrooms is pupil-directed, whereby translanguaging activities are undertaken independently by more competent bilinguals (Jones, 2017). From the findings of this study, it was evident that translanguaging among the students in the selected class happened whenever the students felt that there was a need to translanguage, even without the teacher's explicit instruction. During the three English lessons, the students were seated in groups so that they could discuss questions given to them. Although some of the students in the class had lower English proficiency levels, translanguaging strategies encouraged them to communicate using whatever limited linguistic resources they had already built up (Van den Branden, 2016).

As translanguaging has roots in the Social Development Theory, the use of the students' L1 in the language classroom can help students communicate (social interaction) with peers and teachers (the more knowledgeable other) to understand a task better. In this study, it was evident that students chose to use their common L1 (Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia) or made language choices to accommodate to the other

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person's L1 for successful communication. By doing so, they were able to ask others for help and explanation, as well as participate in task-based discussions in English lessons. As for the more competent multilingual students, they were able to provide help and explanation to their classmates in a language they understood better.

In Jones (2016) and Jones and Lewis (2014), instances of translation and code-switching are viewed through a translanguaging lens. The learner is encouraged to use his or her whole repertoire within translanguaging spaces, which often includes acts of translation and code-switching but is not viewed as two separate languages (Jones, 2017). In this study, the Class Monitor and Nate often took the initiative to translate the teacher's instructions or English grammatical terms into Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia for their classmates whenever they felt that they needed help. By doing this, they were able to "mediate understanding" (Garcia, 2011) for their classmates during English lessons, as their English teacher does not understand or speak Mandarin. This is in line with Creese and Blackledge's (2010) findings whereby the 'translation' performs a pedagogic strategy of accomplishing one task before moving to the next.

In this study, the students also code-switched between Mandarin and English in their discussions with each other as they felt more comfortable communicating with each other in Mandarin. However, as they were discussing English grammatical terms, they made sure to retain certain words in English and not translate them entirely into Mandarin so that they would not lose their original meaning. As López (2008) argued, both languages are "needed" in connection to one another and the meaning of the message is not clear without both languages. In another Malaysian study by Ahmad (2009), students' perception of codeswitching was mainly positive, as it helped them understand a lesson better and contributed to their academic success. 72% of the participants acknowledged that codeswitching helped them understand new words

better. Similarly, in this study, the students felt that the understood the task better when their friends code-switched between Mandarin and English to help or explain an English grammatical term to them.

Hence, the results of research question one in this study are consistent with other researches in the field of classroom translanguaging. To answer the first research question, ‘How do primary school students use translanguaging during English lessons in an SJKC school?’, the students in this study employed pupil-directed translanguaging strategies such as using their common L1 (Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia), making language choices to accommodate to others’ L1, code-switching between Mandarin and English, translating English grammatical terms to their L1 equivalent and translating Mandarin to English for the non-Mandarin speaking teacher.

Apart from pupil-directed translanguaging, the findings of this study also revealed that the non-Mandarin speaking English teacher, Miss S, carried out teacher-directed translanguaging during her English lessons. From the analysis of the field notes of classroom observations and semi-structured interviews, the researcher came across instances where Miss S used strategies to carry out translanguaging during her English lessons, such as using non-verbal communication to recognise her students’ needs, using translanguaging cues to encourage her students’ language use and using instances of translation English language input.

According to Jones (2017) teacher-directed translanguaging refers to a planned activity by the teacher for both emergent and more-competent bilinguals. Teacher-directed translanguaging strategies include (1) instances of responsible code-switching, (2) instances of translation, (3) language alternation for input and output, and (4) giving translanguaging cues. García and Otheguy (2020, p. 26) further describe that translanguaging includes non-linguistic multimodal resources such as gestures, gazes,

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posture, visual cues, and even human-technology interactions. As Miss S did not understand or speak the majority's L1 (Mandarin), she was unable to carry out responsible code-switching, translation and language alternation for input and output independently. Hence, Miss S' strategies to use translanguaging differ from the translanguaging strategies of language teachers who also speak the students' L1.

In the semi-structured interview with Miss S after the three classroom observations, she revealed that she has heard of the term 'translanguaging' but did not know its exact meaning before participating in this study. After understanding what 'translanguaging' meant, Miss S told the researcher that she has been using these strategies ever since she started teaching in this SJKC school seven years ago. Firstly, Miss S used non-verbal communication as a strategy to recognize her students' needs, such as paying attention to their gestures, tones, intonations and silence. By being aware of the non-verbal cues given by her students, Miss S was able to recognise her students' needs even though she did not understand what they were verbally saying in Mandarin. Similarly, García and Otheguy (2020, p. 26) also suggested that translanguaging includes non-linguistic multimodal resources such as gestures, gazes, posture, visual cues, and even human-technology interactions.

Secondly, Miss S also used translanguaging cues, which are information about language use in the classroom provided by the teacher (Jones & Lewis, 2014) as a strategy to encourage her students' language use. The findings of the study indicated that Miss S did not prohibit students from using their L1 (Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia) or Manglish during her English lessons as she felt that it was important for her students to communicate with each other while completing a task. However, when she wanted them to speak in the target language (English), she would give translanguaging cues by asking them questions in English. With the prompts / signals

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/ reminders given by Miss S, the students knew that they had to try speaking or answering her questions in English and were not afraid to try. This is also consistent with Allard (2017) which suggested that teacher translanguaging played an important role in increasing students' participation and access to class content.

Finally, with the help of her more competent multilingual students, Miss S also used instances of translation as a translanguaging strategy to provide English language input for her students. As we are now in the 21st century, also known as the post-method era, teachers in the post-method perspective are seen as teachers with autonomy, as well as co-learners and researchers with their students and the materials used in their lessons (Richards, 2013). In the process of communication, the use of all our language resources can be very valuable. As Miss S did not understand or speak Mandarin, she became a co-learner of her students and used their multilingual abilities to translate from Mandarin to English and vice versa, whenever it was necessary.

To conclude, the findings of this study are also in line with that of Champlin (2016), who suggested that translanguaging gives students permission to be themselves and translanguaging develops students' language ability. In this study, it was observed that students used translanguaging strategies for a variety of purposes (to ask for or give help, to explain and to discuss) such as, using their common L1 (Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia) with others of the same L1, making language choices to accommodate to the other person's L1, code-switching between Mandarin and English to keep English terms accurate, translating English grammatical terms to their L1 (Mandarin) equivalent and translating Mandarin to English for the non-Mandarin speaking teacher. As the English teacher, Miss S, did not restrict them from using other languages during group discussions, the students in this class were able to use their entire linguistic repertoire to make sense of what was going on during the lessons. She

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also encouraged translanguaging during her English lessons and used several teacher-directed translanguaging strategies to communicate with her students better. This allowed the students to "be themselves" while learning the English language in a safe, translanguaging space.

5.4 Implications of the Findings

The findings of this study provide practical and theoretical implications in the research of translanguaging in multilingual classrooms. In this section, we will look into the practical implications of the findings (5.3.1) and how the findings of this study relate to the Social Development Theory (5.3.2), the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (5.3.3) and the theory of Translanguaging (5.3.4).

5.4.1 Practical Implications

Firstly, the findings of the study imply that to carry out translanguaging in a multilingual classroom, a teacher does not necessarily need to speak the students' first language. In the case of Miss S and her students, it is evident that Miss S makes use of translanguaging strategies and her students' multilingual abilities to carry out translanguaging during her lessons. This also implies that English language teachers (both pre-service and in-service teachers) should be equipped with the right strategies to carry out translanguaging.

Secondly, for bilingual and multilingual teachers, it is important to instill awareness among English language teachers on the good practices and benefits of classroom translanguaging, instead of them merely translating everything into students' L1. Although the benefits of L1 use in L2 classrooms have been justified, none of its advocates endorse its unlimited use and warn against excessive L1 use (Atkinson, 1987; Bozorgian & Fallahpour, 2015; Cook, 2001; Shabir, 2017; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Turnbull, 2018; Wells, 1999). Therefore, it has been greatly

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recommended that language teachers should be sufficiently educated in using the L1 optimally to facilitate students' learning in the L2 classroom (Lo, 2014; Turnbull, 2018). Therefore, training should also be carried out for bilingual and multilingual teachers to help them maintain a balanced used of their languages in the classroom. English language teachers can be taught the right strategies to carry out teacher-directed translanguaging, such as instances of responsible code-switching, instances of translation, planned alternation of language mode for the input and output, and how to give translanguaging cues to pupils (Jones & Lewis, 2014).

Thirdly, the findings of the study revealed that students in the selected class are very willing to make use of their linguistic repertoires to help others. English language teachers can also be trained to make use of pupil-directed translanguaging, which refers to translanguaging activities undertaken independently by more competent bilinguals / multilinguals (Jones, 2017). Teachers can make use of this opportunity to teach students to use their multilingual abilities to help classmates who are weaker in English. Teachers can also use this knowledge to group students accordingly for groupwork activities and classroom seating arrangements. By making students a translanguaging medium, teachers who do not speak the students' L1 will be able to benefit greatly from their students.

5.4.2 Social Development Theory

From the field notes of the classroom observations in the selected classroom that we have studied, it is evident that social interaction happens among students, as well as between the teacher, Miss S, and her students. According to Vygotsky (1934), the learner is not a blank slate (tabula rasa), but rather, brings past experiences and cultural factors to a situation. In this study, the students in Miss S' class use their knowledge of other languages that they have learnt at home or at school (Mandarin,

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Bahasa Malaysia and Manglish) to communicate with each other and help their peers make meaning of what is happening during the English lessons. Previously discussed in Section 5.1.1, Vygotsky (1978) stated that “Every function in the child’s cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals.” (pp. 57). In the case of Miss S’ English lessons, the findings reveal that a lot of the students’ learning happened through interaction with other students. Students were able to understand the teacher’s instructions and tasks given by asking for help and explanation from others. As for Miss S, she was able to understand the communication that happened among her students by asking them for clarification when they spoke in Mandarin. Hence, the findings of this study show that all learning begins with social interaction.

In the second major theme of the Social Development Theory, the more knowledgeable other (MKO), Vygotsky (1978) asserts that adults are also an important source of cognitive development. Much important learning by the child occurs through social interaction with a skillful tutor. However, in this study, the more knowledgeable other (MKO) is not only the teacher, but also the students with multilingual abilities. The findings of this study show that not only adults can be contributors to a child’s English language learning, as peers who are capable of translanguaging between English, Mandarin, Bahasa Malaysia and Manglish have helped the students understand the lessons better and helped the teacher understand what was happening in class.

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Finally, Vygotsky (1978) sees the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) as the area where the most sensitive instruction or guidance should be given - allowing children to develop the skills they will then use on their own - developing higher mental functions. In the language classroom, a teacher or a more advanced peer can help to structure, arrange or explain a task so that a novice can work on it successfully. Similarly in translanguaging, students use the knowledge they already have to work on a task in a different language. The use of the students' L1 in the language classroom can help students communicate (social interaction) with peers and teachers (the more knowledgeable other) to understand a task better. As the students in Miss S' class are allowed and encouraged to draw on their knowledge in the L1 (Mandarin, Bahasa Malaysia and Manglish), they are enabled to complete the group task successfully. Thus, translanguaging in the English language classroom helps students to make meaning and assist each other's learning, therefore it is in line with the propositions of the Social Development Theory.

5.4.3 Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis

As discussed in Section 1.5.2, Cummins' Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (1979) posits that bilinguals do not separately store two different languages. Instead, there is a cognitive interdependence between the L1 and L2, known as the common underlying proficiency (CUP). The Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis is supported by Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2000) who argue that a fundamental principle of learning states that "learners' pre-existing knowledge is the foundation for all future learning". Thus, García and Wei (2014) argue that the teaching of one language cannot be enacted in total separation from other language practices, and this leads us to the use of translanguaging in bilingual and multilingual language classrooms.

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The findings of this research show us that although the English teacher, Miss S does not understand or speak Mandarin, this does not stop her or the students in her class from using Mandarin to help others make meaning of the lesson. In many situations, Miss S makes use of the students' prior knowledge in Mandarin and Bahasa Malaysia to help them link the new English grammatical terms to their existing grammatical knowledge. This shows us that the context of teaching multilingual learners, the teaching of one language is indeed inseparable from other language practices of the learners, as the learning of one language depends on the others.

5.4.4 Translanguaging

In contrast to the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis which maintain that the L1 and L2 are two separate linguistic systems, García and Kleyn (2016) argue that in translanguaging, bilinguals and multilinguals have one language system. Translanguaging is defined as the deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire, whereby the features (F) of the speaker's linguistic repertoire is annotated with a nominal (n), and are not separately designated or labelled as L1 or L2 (García & Li Wei, 2014).

As the theory of translanguaging views that bilingual / multilingual speakers have one complex and dynamic linguistic system (García & Kleyn, 2016), the features (F) of a bilingual / multilingual repertoire simply belong to the speakers themselves and not to the language. García and Li Wei (2014) suggest that the speaker then learns to separate the languages into individual ones, as defined by social factors and not simply linguistic ones.

The findings of this research show that students in this class have different language repertoires from each other. Some students have a wider range of language repertoires from others, such as the Class Monitor who speaks English, Mandarin,

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Cantonese and Bahasa Malaysia and Aurelia who speaks English, Mandarin, Dusun and Bahasa Malaysia. With their wide linguistic repertoires, the Class Monitor and Aurelia are two of the students who often help their classmates during English lessons. They are able to translanguage using English, Mandarin and Bahasa Malaysia to help their friends and explain concepts by translating from one language to another and simplifying the language. As for Miss S, although she only understands English and Bahasa Malaysia, her language repertoire includes noticing her students' needs and understanding them through their tones, gestures and body languages. Therefore, the findings of this research show that it is important for language educators to encourage multilingual learners to develop their full language repertoire to support their understanding of content, develop their language performances and buttress their socioemotional development (García & Kleyn, 2016).

5.5 Suggestions for Future Research

The researcher hopes that this research has opened further research dimensions which can extend the scope of this study of translanguaging in Malaysian schools. Some of these new dimensions could also address the limitations of this research described earlier.

Firstly, this research can be extended by including schools that are not in urban areas. By studying classrooms with students who have less exposure to English language, this may shed light on how translanguaging happens in English language lessons of a different environment. Secondly, other dimensions such as age could be explored in future research to provide comparison to the findings obtained in this study. This research focuses on a specific class of Primary Year 4 students in an SJKC school in Malaysia. Further research on different age groups such as secondary school students could provide a well-rounded picture on the languages used in English

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language teaching and offer a more comprehensive understanding of classroom translanguaging among students and the teacher.

As a final note, translanguaging is a phenomenon that occurs naturally among people who speak a variety of languages, especially in multilingual societies like Malaysia. Therefore, educational authorities should encourage further investigation of the phenomenon and realise the potential of translanguaging as a communicative and pedagogical resource in English language teaching.

5.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings of this study have revealed that primary school students used translanguaging by (1) using their common L1 (Mandarin or Bahasa Malaysia), (2) making language choices to accommodate to the other person's L1, (3) code-switching between Mandarin and English to keep English terms accurate, (4) translating English grammatical terms to their L1 (Mandarin) equivalent and (5) translating Mandarin to English for the non-Mandarin speaking teacher. With the combination of these five strategies, the multilingual students in this study were able to perform translanguaging within their multilingual linguistic repertoire of a ten-year-old. Through the observation of Miss S, the English teacher who does not speak the students' first language (Mandarin), it has been discovered that a non-native speaking teacher is also able to carry out translanguaging during her English lessons through the use of strategies such as (1) using non-verbal communication to recognise her students' needs, (2) using translanguaging cues to encourage students' language use and (3) using instances of translation for English language input.

The findings of this study are also consistent with Adamson and Fujimoto-Adamson (2012), whereby code-switching is a tool used by translanguaging, a pedagogical approach to negotiate meaning making by multilingual learners in an

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educational setting. Translanguaging as a social strategy also helps the students interact with others and understand the target culture as well as the language (Oxford, 2003) while completing tasks. As argued by Blackledge, Creese and Hu (2015), in translanguaging events, spaces for communications were opened up and people made meanings in whatever way possible. Similarly, the teacher in this study allowed translanguaging among her students and made use of her own strategies to carry out translanguaging during to help students understand her English lessons better.

Finally, it is hoped that more research in this field can be done in SJKC schools as there is large potential for translanguaging to be improvised and utilised as a pedagogical strategy to teach English in multilingual environments.

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