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Grade 9 learners' translingual reading competencies of a history text

by

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Supervisor: Dr Nkhensani Maluleke

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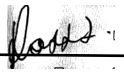
DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation/thesis, which I hereby submit for the degree Master of Education at the University of Pretoria, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other tertiary institution.

Alex-John van der Merwe

14 November 2024

Supervosor: I confirm that this dissertation was completed under my supervision and that it is ready for examination.



Dr Nkhensani Maluleke

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- Registered title, and
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this research to my parents, Riaan and Adele van der Merwe. Without your sacrifices, this work would never have come to fruition.

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LANGUAGE EDITOR'S CERTIFICATE

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To Whom It May Concern

I hereby confirm that I have edited the dissertation, **Grade 9 learners' translingual reading competencies of a history text,** by Alex John van der Merwe.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANA	Annual National Assessments
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
DoE	Department of Education
L1	Home Language
L2	Second Language
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study

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ABSTRACT

Various studies report that South African learners find it challenging to read with comprehension. However, most recent studies focus on the foundation and intermediate phases. This study, therefore, evaluates the reading competence of South African senior phase learners in Grade 9 and additionally captures the influence of multilingualism on their reading competence. The theoretical framework that underpins this study is Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis, which stipulates that a weak first language (L1) will lead to a weak second language (L2) (Cummins, 1979a). The primary reason for selecting Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis as a theoretical framework is that most South African high school learners attend school in their L2. This study used a mixed-method approach consisting of a quasi-experiment followed by semi-structured interviews to collect data. The population is Grade 9 learners in South African urban settings, with the sample being taken from a school in Johannesburg, South Africa. In the quasi-experiment, this study found that Grade 9 learners understand only half of what they are reading and that they can extract explicit information, but not enough to be able to extract implicit information. Further, learners are not as competent in their home languages as in English, their second language. This leads to the generalisation that Grade 9 learners have not obtained high enough home language levels to act as a foundation for second language acquisition. In terms of multilingualism, this study found that learners' home languages are underdeveloped, leading to the low reading competency of Grade 9 readers. This study discusses factors that lead to the diminishment of home languages, such as urbanisation, language attitudes and power dynamics of languages. At the end of the study, I recommend various avenues that can be followed to improve South African learners' access to home language education.

Key terms: Bilingualism, translanguaging, translanguaging pedagogy, reading competence, historical literacy, critical literacy, and standardised testing.

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL ORIENTATION

1. Introduction

This study uses a history project to investigate the standard of Grade 9 reading. Various studies portray reading in South Africa, but there is no big emphasis on reading in South African high schools (Howie et al., 2017; Madikiza, 2016; Moopelwa & Condy, 2019; Naiken, 2016; Phala & Hugo, 2016; Wills et al., 2022). Given the multicultural context of South Africa, this study places multilingualism at the focal point of how it affects reading competence amongst Grade 9 learners. Little is known about the standard of senior phase reading after the Annual National Assessment (ANA) report conducted in 2014; hence, there is a need to establish whether senior phase learners are competent readers (DoE, 2014).

1.1. Background

National and international reading studies on South African reading achievement portray worrying statistics. The Annual National Assessment report, the last diagnostic assessment written on a national scale, reported that senior phase learners achieved 49.3% for Afrikaans and 47.9% for English in their home language assessments (DoE, 2014). It is concerning that Grade 9 learners achieved less for the diagnostic assessments than the Grade 4 and Grade 6 learners in the same diagnostic assessment, ultimately indicating a regressing reading competence amongst older learners. Two educational phases were assessed during the ANAs and took place in 2014, rendering it an older study, yet one of the few that focussed on the senior phase in conjunction with the intermediate phase.

Table 1: The regressing of South African learner achievement from the intermediate to the senior phase based on the ANAs (DoE, 2014)

Home Language	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 9
Afrikaans	55.1%	57.5%	62.7%	49.3%
English	57.2%	56.9%	62.7%	47.9%

The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) indicates that South African intermediate-phase learners have a lower ability to read with comprehension

than their international counterparts (Howie et al., 2017). The study used descriptive statistics to rank countries based on home language reading achievement, where reading with comprehension was the focus. The standards for how the PIRLS study measured reading competence are discussed in the literature review. The subsequent PIRLS study in 2021 indicates a further decline in South African intermediate-phase reading competence (DoE, 2023). The South African mean reading achievement score dropped from 320 points in 2016 to 288 points in 2021 (DoE, 2023).

Furthermore, 81% of South African intermediate-phase learners cannot read with comprehension in any language in 2021, compared to 78% of incompetent readers in 2016 (Mullis et al., 2023). The findings of the PIRLS 2016 and PIRLS 2021 studies suggest that the South African reading competence problem starts in the intermediate phase. In contrast, the ANAs findings indicate that learners are competent readers in the intermediate phase and seem to regress in the senior phase.

What is further prominent in these studies is that South African learners, across multiple educational phases, need more reading comprehension skills. Therefore, the curriculum and reading focus of the various educational phases become essential in conjunction with reading practice.

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy (CAPS) states that through focused lessons, learners will be taught how to be effective readers (DoE, 2014). The focus of the foundation phase is learning to read. The curriculum focuses mainly on phonemic awareness, word recognition, vocabulary, and fluency. In the foundation phase, teachers are expected to actively engage the learners to focus on the above skills in tandem with each other. Reading aloud is encouraged in this phase, where learners are expected to participate in group reading activities. Decoding skills, fluency and vocabulary building are thus the main focus of reading in this phase. Regarding reading fluency, it was determined that 40 to 60 words per minute are considered the ideal fluency for foundation phase learners to read with comprehension, and anything above or below the benchmark will prevent effective reading comprehension (Wills et al., 2022).

In the intermediate phase, the focus shifts from learning to read to reading to learn. When the CAPS document is analysed for home language education, one can see that the activities are centred around comprehension instead of decoding strategies. CAPS divides reading into three stages: Pre-reading, which focuses on activating background knowledge and predicting. Reading includes comparing content with prior predictions, rereading sections learners did not understand, pausing to think about the text, and visualising texts. Post-reading focuses on summarising the text, answering comprehension questions, and posing new questions about the topic (DoE, 2014).

Learners who enter the intermediate phase are expected to have mastered reading; however, teachers report that learners in the intermediate phase are not competent readers yet. This means that while the intermediate phase focuses on reading to learn, teachers focus on learning to read (Naiken, 2016; Phala & Hugo, 2016). Phala and Hugo (2016) found that Grade 4 learners have not yet mastered the skill of decoding, which will then slow down the reading process, and the reading fluency-comprehension benchmark of 40-60 words will not be reached, making it difficult for learners to comprehend what they are reading (Wills et al., 2022). Naiken (2016) also reiterates that Grade 4 intermediate-phase learners have not mastered reading, making interdisciplinary learning difficult. Naiken (2016) further found that non-language content subject teachers are teaching decoding skills. By the end of the text, learners were focused on deciphering the words instead of understanding the text.

When learners enter the senior phase, the reading focus shifts again. The three-stage reading process is still utilised in this phase, where pre-reading centres around skimming and scanning strategies and developing a pre-conceived idea about the text. During reading, the focus is on inference-making, where known ones should deduce the unknown. Post-reading in the senior phase includes answering lower to higher-order questions, creating opinions from the texts, and interpreting the texts differently. Critical language awareness and inferential skills also become a focus in the senior phase (DoE, 2014). Inference-making ability is an area of concern in terms of classroom practice. Moopelwa and Condy (2019) found that Western Cape teachers do not believe that inference-making is a skill that can be taught, yet when they conducted an intervention in an experimental study, a learner's inference-making skills improved. Madikiza (2016) also found that teachers use summarising skills as their

main post-reading activity and refrain from skimming and scanning strategies reminiscent of the intermediate phase. Olifant et al. (2022) found in a case study that reading comprehension lessons turned into vocabulary lessons and had a solid oral focus that echoed the reading focus of the foundation phase.

Policy and practice differ when learners exit the foundation phase and enter the intermediate phase. Learners are expected to read to learn in the intermediate phase, but intermediate-phase teachers observe that learners still need to be trained to read (Naiken, 2016; Phala & Hugo, 2016). Intermediate-phase teachers are not tasked to practice decoding strategies but should focus on language comprehension strategies to facilitate reading comprehension. When learners enter the senior phase, one could deduce that there is a backlog of reading competence because of the “learning to read” interventions practised by intermediate-phase teachers. Teachers’ lack of pedagogical knowledge regarding reading instruction is the most common reason for poor reading comprehension (Olifant et al., 2022; Pretorius & Klapwijk, 2016). Learners also face a backlog of reading competence when they enter new phases. The expectation from a policy point of view differs from that of practice.

The Language in Education Policy stipulates that language is a valuable national asset and that the policy, in conjunction with school stakeholders, should promote multilingualism. This policy is aimed at additive bilingualism, which means that learners could add a language to their linguistic repertoire and eventually make meaning in more than one language and perspective. Additive bilingualism and translanguaging will be discussed in more detail in the literature review and theoretical framework. The policy states that Grade 1 and 2 learners should have at least one language as a subject (the language being the language of learning and teaching (LoLT)); Grade 3 learners should have one language (the LoLT) and an additional language. Furthermore, if there are more than 35-45 learners of a specific language in a particular school, the school, in conjunction with the provincial government, should make home language education accessible for the learners if it is practical.

For the reasons above, this study evaluates Grade 9 learners’ reading competence through a history test. Furthermore, this study explored multilingualism’s influence on Grade 9 learners’ reading abilities.

1.2. Rationale and significance of this research

This study is essential to me professionally because I am a language teacher. Reading is at the centre of language; therefore, language teachers should strive to equip learners with the best tools to be competent readers. Language teachers should be aware of shortcomings in reading comprehension within the senior phase. The senior phase is also crucial as it prepares learners for the final FET phase of their schooling careers. In essence, the knowledge which I obtain in this study should make me a better educator.

Teacher shortcomings are easily found in reading studies regarding reading instruction (Olifant et al., 2022; Pretorius & Klapwijk, 2016). However, the last diagnostic study concerning Grade 9 learners was conducted in 2014, and the situation may have changed. The nature of this study will also determine whether learners can effectively interpret text on an interdisciplinary level because it will use a non-language subject rich in literature but not centred around improving reading skills in practice. This is important because strong readers can gain more skills, knowledge and values. A further professional reason for this study is to establish the true nature of reading in South Africa and to identify reasons, outside of the cliché of teacher shortcomings, for the state of South African reading comprehension.

On a scholarly level, there is more focus on the foundation and intermediate phases regarding reading. The upper level of the senior phase receives very little attention regarding reading research. I want to contribute to understanding reading as a phenomenon among teenagers.

1.3. Problem statement

Reading research indicates that South African learners have reading comprehension deficiencies in the intermediate and senior phases (DoE, 2014; Howie et al., 2017). Although reading comprehension was tested in all official languages in the intermediate phase, it was only tested in Afrikaans and English in the senior phase (DoE, 2014). The Annual National Benchmark test was last conducted in 2014, rendering it an outdated portrayal of the Grade 9 reading competence level. As outlined in the literature review chapter, there are concerns regarding standardised

testing and, specifically, the reliability of this reading assessment (Maphalala & Mncube, 2017).

Given the diverse nature of South Africa, literacy studies relating to multilingualism and translanguaging became a central focal point, but most studies focus on how translanguaging is used within the classroom as an interactive and engaging language pedagogical approach (Makalela, 2015; Maseko & Mkhize, 2021). These studies also strongly support better language and content comprehension when translanguaging is a pedagogical approach. This is true for South African learners and is an international trend where students with diverse linguistic repertoires meet (Chu, 2017; Espinosa & Herrera, 2016). All tests conducted are primarily language tests before they test any other skills. Translanguaging theorises that it levels the playing field between monolingual and multilingual students because it enables multilingual students to access their entire repertoire of languages to demonstrate a particular skill (Garcia & Kleifgen, 2019).

While multilingualism and translanguaging are growing, there needs to be more research on how translanguaging and multilingualism are used in reading assessment to include learners' linguistic repertoire and enhance learners' meaning-making processes. Further, the Grade 9 reading competence is also unknown. Hence, this study evaluates how translanguaging in a reading assessment will affect learners' reading competence within the South African context and determine the reading competence of Grade 9 learners.

1.4. Purpose statement

This study evaluated Grade 9 learners' reading competence through a history test. Furthermore, the study explored multilingualism's influence on Grade 9 learners' reading abilities.

1.5. Research questions

- What are the levels of reading competence in Grade 9 history texts?
- How does multilingualism affect learners' reading competence?

1.6. Introduction to the literature review, theoretical framework and methodology

The literature review for this study will first focus on what reading comprehension means. I provide the reader with a broad background in reading comprehension and narrow the scope of reading comprehension as the literature review progresses.

I first present the reading comprehension models and how monolingual and multilingual learners read. Secondly, I present the various levels of reading comprehension based on Barrett's taxonomy. I compare historical literacy as well as critical literacy to Barrett's reading taxonomy and I synthesise how these reading comprehension aspects exist in symbioses in my study.

Because I am studying how multilingualism affects reading comprehension, I used Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis as a theoretical framework for my study. This theoretical framework centres around the home language and second language and the relationship between the two. Translanguaging and translingual pedagogy are also aspects of my literature and I review what other studies found in international and national contexts.

This study used mixed methods in the explanatory sequential approach to firstly benchmark learners' reading competence and secondly determine how multilingualism affects learners' reading competence. I used a quasi-experiment to collect data. The quasi-experiment makes use of two intact groups of Grade 9 classes in Johannesburg. These classes wrote a pre-test and post-test and received a reading intervention to determine to what extent multilingualism affects reading comprehension. After the results were analysed, semi-structured interviews were conducted with participants to understand the quantitative results better.

1.7. Key concepts

Bilingualism: "All instances in which communication occurs in two or more languages in or around writing" (Hornberger, 2002). As explained in the literature, this study assumes that any language is a meaning-making tool within an individual.

Translanguaging: The deployment and meshing of all known languages within an individual to enable meaning-making processes (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016).

Translanguaging pedagogy: The facilitation of planned translanguaging during classroom activities.

Reading competence: The ability to read a text and understand what is being read (Thürer et al., 2023). It is further described as understanding written text (Mullis et al., 2019). This study breaks down reading competence into eight micro-skills that encompass reading competence in the literature review.

Historical literacy: Literacy skills associated with interpreting the past accurately and realistically. Historical literacy consists of substantive knowledge, in which identifying the facts and the order of events is the focal point, and procedural knowledge, in which representation and interpretation of historical accuracy take centre stage.

Critical literacy: Critical literacy is the interplay between discursive practices and unequal power relations (Vasquez et al., 2019). This study relates to history in terms of critical evaluation of text, the discourses the texts represent, and why they present these discourses.

Standardised testing: Standardised testing is a valuable tool for capturing data, where feedback in data analysis can improve instruction and learner understanding or competence (Maphalala & Mncube, 2017). This study will use low-stakes testing to determine reading competence amongst multilinguals in a South African school.

1.8. Thesis structure

Chapter 1

This chapter outlines the background, problem statement, research questions and theoretical framework.

Chapter 2

This chapter is a literature review focusing on reading comprehension and multilingualism both internationally and in the South African context.

Chapter 3

This chapter explains how data was collected for this study. Research paradigm, research approach, research design, population and sampling, data collections and tools and data analysis are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 4

The study findings are presented in this chapter. I present the reading results quantitatively using tables and descriptive statistics. I also present tables that indicate the t-scores as well as Cohen's *d*-score. This is followed by a thematic presentation of the qualitative data relating to multilingualism.

Chapter 5

Discussions relating to the findings and the literature are shared during this study phase. The reading standards of Grade 9 students are discussed in relation to multilingualism and learners' home language competency.

1.9. Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have outlined the worrying state of reading in South Africa and argued that there has been an emphasis on reading studies in the intermediate and foundation phases. I have also portrayed what happens during a South African child's reading journey throughout the South African public schooling system. I have posed two research questions. One research question seeks an answer to the overall performance of Grade 9 students' reading competency, and the other question seeks explanations relating to the student's reading comprehension competence. I have wrapped this chapter up by explaining Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis. This theoretical framework underpins the study as the guiding work in comparing learners' home language to English to further our understanding of how multilingualism could affect reading comprehension in the senior phase.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Introduction

The first aspect of this literature review focuses on reading and what it entails to be literate. It explores the processes of reading and how readers make meaning from text. It also delves into what constitutes a competent reader. Reading in history and critical literacy are further explored. Through the course of the study, I also demonstrate how general reading competence, historical reading competence, and critical reading are intertwined. The second important aspect of this literature review falls on multilingualism, where I look at present literature regarding bilingualism, attitudes towards language amongst multilingualism, translanguaging and meaning-making through translanguaging, and most importantly, other studies regarding Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis.

2.2. Reading processes

Reading consists of three multidimensional components (Alexander et al., 2012). A competent reader regulates the various dimensions of reading, including the cognitive aspects of reading, reading motivation, social and contextual factors of an individual reader, and neurophysiological processes.

Reading unfolds developmentally. This means that reading is not innate but needs to be acquired through human experiences, processes and beliefs. Learning to read is expected to occur between ages 9 and 13 and reading to learn is likely to occur from 13 upwards; however, learning to read and reading to learn are described as interchangeable activities (Alexander et al., 2012). When the reading foci of the various South African educational phases are considered, the emphasis on reading to learn is more prominent, and the curriculum rarely makes provision for learning to read from the intermediate to senior phase (DoE, 2014). In other words, the South African reading policy does not provide the interchangeable nature of learning to read in the intermediate and senior educational phases.

2.3. Reading models

The Simple View of Reading is a seminal view of reading comprehension and competence where the basic notion of decoding in conjunction with language

comprehension leads to reading comprehension (Hoover & Gough, 1990). Hoover and Gough (1990) theorise that reading comprehension is achieved through parsing parts of sentences, bridging them and ultimately building a discourse on them. Decoding and language comprehension are conditional to each other. The decoding includes mastering phonology, deciphering and orthographic processes; language comprehension includes semantic processes (Kendeou et al., 2016). A competent reader would thus be able to decode and comprehend language to create meaning from a text.

A top-down reading approach becomes prominent because background knowledge becomes central to reading comprehension when considering the human experience (Alexander et al., 2012; Suraprajit, 2019). Human experience leads to inference-making, which forms part of language comprehension when considering the simple view of reading (Hoover & Gough, 1990). The top-down reading model is described as a guessing game where readers bring their prior knowledge and ideas to a text to enhance their understanding further, strengthening the notion of inference-making (Almutairi, 2018; Nadea et al., 2021; Suraprajit, 2019). Scanning, predicting after analysing text structure and having a reader aim or goal in sight, which relates to the third dimension of reading, form part of the top-down approach, which is a common reading comprehension model used by English first additional language readers (Nadea et al., 2021; Suraprajit, 2019).

The third component is that reading is goal-orientated and intentional. This aspect of reading refers to the interaction between the author and the reader and its meaning-making processes. A competent reader must consider the author's and the reader's intentions and purposes. In summary: "Reading competence represents the ability to modulate and tune the interaction of one's reading knowledge, beliefs, abilities, and processes appropriately given the socio-contextual conditions confronted, along with one's intentions" (Alexander et al.; 2012; Decristana et al., 2022).

2.4. Reading competence

Thürer et al. (2023) define reading competence as reading and understanding what one has read. The PIRLS study adapts a similar view and defines reading literacy as the ability to understand written words (Mullis & Martin, 2019). Reading

comprehension consists of retrieving and focusing on explicit information, inference-making, interpreting and integrating ideas, and evaluating and critiquing content and textual elements (Mullis & Martin, 2019).

A further extension of micro-skills relating to reading competence is further presented as a) understanding words within context, b) understanding the text structure and the parts conforming to the text structure, c) the ability to retrieve explicit information from a text, d) the ability to answer questions relating to the explicit information in the text, e) the ability to answer questions in different wording and expressions, f) the ability to make inferences, g) the ability to comprehend literary aspects of texts and lastly, h) being able to identify and understand the writer's intentions of a text (Prasetyo, 2017).

It is worth looking at Barrett's taxonomy as a reading comprehension guide as it classifies and distinguishes the cognitive aspects necessary to read with comprehension. Its classification of cognitive reading abilities also indicates the difficulty of cognitive reading abilities.

Barrett's taxonomy is a reading comprehension taxonomy, adapted from Bloom's taxonomy, which was developed to aid teachers in setting appropriate and standardised reading comprehension questions that test various levels of reading comprehension (Clymer, 1968). Barrett's taxonomy consists of five levels: 1) literal comprehension, 2) reorganisation, 3) inferential comprehension, 4) evaluation, and 5) appreciation (Clymer, 1968; Javed et al., 2015; Lim et al., 2014). Barrett's taxonomy is also described as a measuring scale, which enables the measurement of reading capability by categorising reading questions and relating one of the five reading levels to a question that captures a reading comprehension level (Alhaldi & Zainil, 2023). The logic of Barrett's taxonomy is that one reading comprehension skill follows the other. In other words, the first reading comprehension level should be reached before a reader can achieve the next level. Furthermore, the reading levels range from easy to difficult (Göçer, 2014).

Literal comprehension refers to the ability to retrieve explicit information from the text; reorganisation refers to the integration, analysis and synthesis of texts, including the ability to synthesise information from various sources (Lim et al., 2014).

Reorganisation, as a cognitive reading ability, also demands readers to weave together different text sections to form a diverse worldview by making connections between texts (Aqeel & Farrah, 2019). Inferential comprehension refers to assumptions and conjectures readers make from the explicit information in the text (Lim et al., 2014). Aqeel and Farrah (2019) describe inferential comprehension as reading between the lines. Evaluation refers to the judgements based on criteria whose foci are accuracy of texts, desirability, probability of occurrence and desirability. These judgements could include judgments on facts or opinions, judgments of validity and appropriateness (Göçer, 2014). The criteria for evaluating texts could stem from authoritative sources like teachers or similar facilitators or originate internally based on reader experiences, values and prior knowledge. Finally, appreciation uses all of the reading comprehension skills in Barrett's taxonomy to elicit an emotional reaction to the text (Göçer, 2014).

2.5. Historical literacy

Historical literacy has been defined and redefined over the last few decades. Prominent definitions and discussions will be provided to contextualise historical literacy and what it means to be historically literate. At the end of the discussion, historical literacies and literacy in history will be compared.

Literacy in history and historical literacy are distinguished aspects of literacy, the former being the ability to read, write, speak and view within the history class and the latter being a set of historical literacies of which the highlights will be discussed in this section of the literature review (Moposa & Wasserman, 2009). Key aspects mentioned in a comprehensive review of historical literacies are knowledge, conceptual understanding, source work, historical consciousness and historical language. Moposa and Wasserman (2009) explain that these aspects of historical literacies are not dependent on each other, and a person can be more or less literate in a specific aspect of these historical literacies. Furthermore, these historical literacies also co-exist in an intertwined fashion where one literacy aspect overlaps the other (Moposa & Wasserman, 2009).

The idea that history teaching should move away from exclusively "imparting knowledge" and move towards "teaching skills" was revisited as educationists were trying to transform the behaviourist educational model to a cognitivist educational

model in the late 1970s (Scheiber, 1979). Scheiber (1979) proposed that learners must be able to differentiate between the “facts” and the “interpretation” in historical texts. Learners should understand historical sources and how to construct meaning from various sources to eventually interpret history and conclude valid generalisations.

After studying how trained historians and gifted high school learners interpret history texts, Wineburg (1991) named three heuristics: Corroboration, sourcing and contextualisation. Corroboration is “the act of comparing documents with another” (Wineburg, 1991). This skill entails comparing and contrasting facts in other documents relating to the same event or narrative to determine whether an event is plausible (Maposa & Wasserman, 2009; Wineburg, 1991). Downey and Long (2016) posit that one should know the past to be historically literate. Downey and Long (2016) elaborate that to demonstrate historical understanding, one does not merely need to recite facts but compare historical evidence and use the facts within the sources to construct discourse surrounding the particular history being studied.

Sourcing, as Wineburg’s (1991) second heuristic, becomes a point of discussion relating to historical literacy. Sourcing “is the act of looking first to the source of the document before reading the body of the text” (Wineburg, 1991). A historically literate individual should be able to evaluate the origin of the document (Maposa & Wasserman, 2009). In the seminal study, which named the three heuristics, Wineburg (1991) noted that only 31% of the participating students, who are viewed as skilfully literate, considered the source of the history texts. During the sourcing phase, readers can find the author’s intention. Not only is this a historical literacy, but it resonates with critical literacy, which will also be discussed in this literature review.

Downey and Long (2016) acknowledge the importance of sourcing in their definition of historical literacy: Learners should understand that history is not only facts that need memorising but that the historical content consists of understandings about the past that learners must construct from various sources. The goal of historical literacy is to achieve a conceptual understanding of the past and how it relates to the present and future. This can only be achieved through active engagement with the facts, found in texts (Downey & Long, 2016). Historical literacy is the ability to interpret texts and to understand that existing texts are someone else’s interpretation of history. This echoes Lee’s (2017) definition of historical texts as a synthesis of evidence found in various

texts to create a sense of past worlds. Historical literacy is constructing and interpreting a past world using various sources.

Rantala and Khawaja (2018) reinforce that historical literacy consists of substantive and procedural knowledge. Substantive knowledge relates to Downey and Long's (2016) and Scheiber's (1979) facts and an interpretation of historical context. Procedural knowledge relates to the interpretation of history, specifically how it is produced and by whom it is produced. Sourcing is thus labelled as procedural knowledge. Rantala and Khawaja (2018) conclude that a historical literate learner should understand that different narratives surrounding the same historical event or phenomenon exist.

Contextualisation, "the act of situating a document in a concrete temporal and spatial context," is the final heuristic as described by Wineburg (1991). Wineburg (1991) describes contextualisation as simply where an event occurred and how it occurred. However, the significance of the where and when becomes central if one places the event in the context of other historical events and instances around the event. Maposa and Wasserman (2009) elaborate on contextualisation: without placing a historical event in context, one tends to view the past as unconnected events. Maposa and Wasserman (2009), in conjunction with Wineburg (1991), conclude that a historically literate person must be able to map the past within time and space. Wineburg (1991) took a big step in shifting ideals from history as a behaviourist subject in which a body of facts was to be recited and remembered to a cognitivist subject that investigates texts and draws conclusions about the past with skilful and purposeful literacy competencies.

Researchers agree with each other when they define historical literacies, albeit differently labelled. It is summarised that historical literacies are strategies and skills that enable learners to construct meaning from historical texts (Nokes, 2023).

However, most of the historical literacy researchers missed values in historical literacies. Lee (2017) crucially defined historical literacies in terms of values: Historical literate individuals should be able to respect the evidence by following it to where it leads, despite one's preconceptions, prejudices and biases. This connects to the corroboration of historical texts and adds value to the process of reading historical

texts (Lee, 2017; Wineburg, 1991). Lastly, one should respect people as human beings of the past while they are being studied (Lee, 2017).

Challenges that teachers experience in historical classrooms do not differ much from what teachers experience in other literacy-focused subjects, like languages. The main challenges in history classrooms relating to literacy were that learners have fewer encounters with printed texts; the modern learner typically reads and writes less; historical vocabulary, word usage and text structure were identified as challenges (Downey & Long, 2016). Another challenge that Downey and Long (2016) report is that learners frequently speak a different language at home than at school. Of course, my study speaks to the last challenge and views it as a resource instead of a challenge in a multilingual, diverse setting.

A path to historical literacy is paved, and researchers seem more or less in agreement with one another, only slightly differing in naming the various processes of historical literacy. However, there are connections between historical and traditional literacy. It should be acknowledged that historians aim to understand literacy within their domain, but I will argue that historical literacy and traditional reading competence are not different from each other.

2.6. The relationship between historical literacy and reading competence

The picture researchers paint about historical literacy does not differ much from general literacy, especially surrounding historical reading texts.

Consider the perimeters of reading comprehension and what I have presented reading comprehension to be in this study, especially the micro-skills relating to the cognitive acts of reading comprehension, reading processes, the interaction between author and reader and finally, Barrett's taxonomy of reading comprehension (Alexander et al., 2012; Alhadi & Zainil, 2023; Aqeel & Farrah, 2019; Clymer, 1968; Decristana et al., 2022; Göçer, 2014; Javed et al., 2015; Lim et al., 2014; Mullis & Martin, 2019; Pratsetyo, 2017).

The historical literacies of distinguishing between *facts* and *interpretation,* as presented by Scheiber (1979), are similar to general reading comprehension. The three heuristics, as presented by Wineburg (1991), which could be classified as both

factual and *interpretative* literacy skills, could also be classified under general reading comprehension relating to Barrett's taxonomy and the micro-skills of reading.

Rantala and Khawaja (2018) label the *facts* of history as substantive knowledge and the *interpretation* of history texts as procedural knowledge. This labelling can be found in traditional reading comprehension models such as Barrett's taxonomy. Inferential comprehension acts as a bridge between substantive knowledge and procedural knowledge because successful inferences should be made during both these reading processes and ultimately connect the facts and interpretation stages of reading.

Upon further examination, one could determine that the "facts" in historical texts relate to the ability to extract explicit information from texts (Rantala & Khawaja, 2018; Scheiber, 1979; Wineburg, 1991). These facts could be extracted from the text using the lower cognitive abilities of literal comprehension and reorganisation and, in some cases, inferential comprehension, as seen in Barrett's taxonomy.

The "interpretation" of history texts is rooted in middle to higher-order reading skills, which include the ability to understand text structure, the literary aspects of the text, and finally, the writer's intention of a text. One could also relate Barrett's taxonomy of reading comprehension to the *interpretation* stages of reading historical texts. According to Barrett's taxonomy, inferential comprehension, evaluating capabilities and the ability to appreciate the text, which are the highest levels of reading comprehension, would logically seem necessary to accomplish a successful interpretation of historical literacy.

Furthermore, the "interpretation" of history texts, as described by Scheiber (1979), Wineburg (1991), Downey and Long (2016), and Rantala and Khawaja (2018), is also closely related to discourse building accompanied by reading intentionality, which is not regarded as historical literacy but general reading competence and stretches to become a critical reading competence (Alexander et al., 2012; Hoover & Gough, 1990).

It is important to revert to Wineburg's (1991) heuristics to establish concurrences with traditional literacy. Corroboration is not exclusive to texts but is also important when studying artefacts, visual representations and other historical evidence. However, in the context of my study, corroboration is the comparison and contrast between texts

to gather historical evidence and build discourse. In simple terms, corroboration is reading across texts to establish one's discourse.

Corroboration, by nature, would then take all cognitive aspects to understand a text, from understanding the explicitly stated to identifying underlying implications such as author-reader intentions, reader background and inference capability, context, text structure, and so more to compare various discourses effectively. While corroboration is an important skill to demonstrate in history classrooms, it does not differ much from general literacy skills, especially relating to reading competence.

Upon examining Barrett's taxonomy of reading comprehension, the second highest level of reading comprehension is to evaluate text. It is my argument that to compare and contrast evidence across texts successfully, one needs to understand the literal and implicit meaning of texts, evaluate the source and the intention of the source and pass judgment thereon. Therefore, the skills necessary for corroboration are rooted in Barrett's taxonomy of reading comprehension.

Sourcing, as a heuristic of historical literacy, would also be found under the evaluation skills of Barrett's taxonomy and general reading comprehension because of the evaluative processes that need to occur when reading across texts (Wineburg, 1991). Judgment skills are crucial during evaluative comprehension, and sourcing allows readers to judge texts.

The last heuristic that becomes a focal point of this discussion is contextualisation (Wineburg, 1991). Mapping out events and narratives of historical events concerning other events requires text reorganisation. Contexts are important for a reader to understand historical events, and the reorganisation of textual content provides an opportunity to contextualise historical events across time and space against various perspectives. Reading across texts to place history in context is necessary for reorganising text.

Appreciation, which is at the pinnacle of reading comprehension and is regarded as the most difficult aspect of reading comprehension, is achieved after all the other aspects of reading comprehension are considered (Göçer, 2014). In historical literacy, appreciation relates to the moral and value judgement readers gain from texts. Appreciation also relates to the respect shown to those from past lives and the ability to interpret history morally and truthfully, despite one's preconceptions (Lee, 2017).

I have compiled a visual representation of Barrett's taxonomy as well as historical literacy to represent my argument.

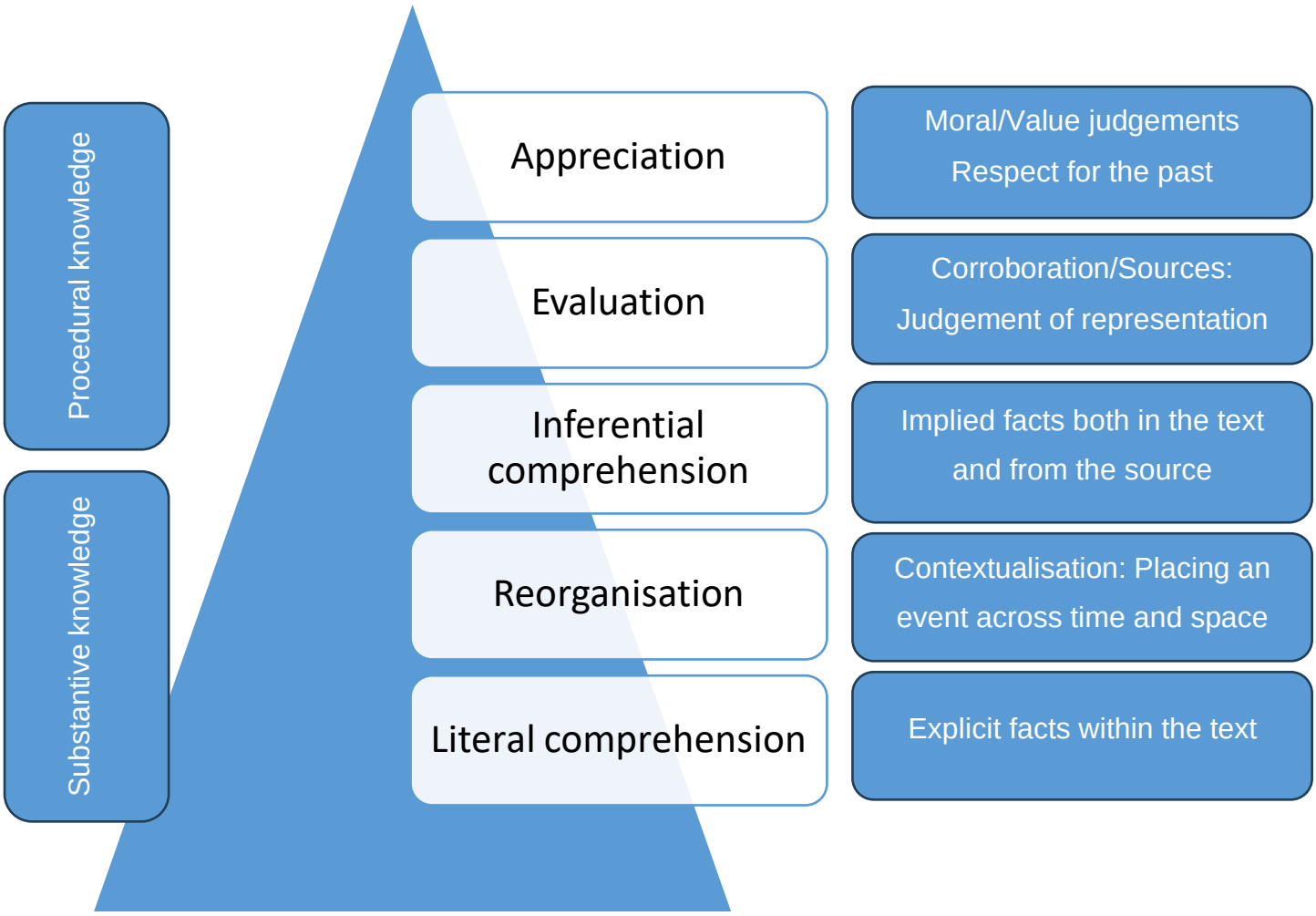

Figure 1: A representation of Barrett's taxonomy and historical literacies

I argue that historical literacies exist but as different labels to Barrett's reading taxonomy. The differences are slight, but the different labels are a light bearer to interdisciplinary reading and comprehensive pedagogical, historical thinking. Furthermore, these labels are important when reading historical texts because they provide more guidance on what historical literacies specifically focus on and finally guide historians on how to read in their field.

Maposa and Wasserman (2009) suggest that possessing one literacy skill and not the other does not make one historically illiterate but perhaps historically less literate. It is

argued that historical literacy is a continuum. However, if historical literacy is to be viewed in the same light as Barrett's taxonomy, one literacy level needs to be mastered before the next literacy level can be mastered.

2.7. Critical literacy

There are various definitions and interpretations of critical literacy. I will present the various interpretations of critical literacy, followed by a discussion of how it is applied in texts and, more specifically, how critical literacy was applied in previous studies. I will conclude the various literacies by drawing a comparison between historical literacy and critical literacy.

Critical literacy is the relationship between texts, meaning-making and power that enables transformative social action and finally contributes to social justice and equity (Janks & Vasquez, 2011). Critical literacy is further described as the interplay between discursive practices and unequal power relations (Vasquez et al., 2019). Comber (2013) posits that critical literacy is the analysis and interrogation of the micro factors in the text, the macro conditions, and the power relations between the two factors.

A theoretical and practical approach to critical literacy is described by Luke (2014). Theoretically, critical literacy is described as "unpacking myths and distortions and building new ways of knowing and acting upon the world." Power struggles are often struggles of information and interpretation of texts (Luke, 2014; Vasquez et al., 2019).

Regarding the practical approaches to critical literacy, three core questions are asked to help readers attain critical literacy (Luke, 2014). Whose version of cultures, history and sciences will be perceived as official knowledge? Which modes of information and cognitive scripts, designs and genres shall be deemed worth learning? Finally, what kind of approaches will be taught regarding reading and writing and for what social and cultural purposes? Critical literacies in practice consider the above three questions.

Luke (2014) further elaborated on a definition of critical literacy:

> [Critical literacy refers to the] "use of technologies of print and other media communication to analyse, critique and transform the norms, rule systems and practices governing the social fields of institutions and everyday life."

Critical literacy aims more specifically to transform and deliver a critique of dominant ideologies, cultures economies, institutions and political systems (Luke, 2014). Luke (2014) takes a closer look at critical literacy as a pedagogical approach, determines how it meshes social, political, and cultural debate, and discusses how text and discourse work. Critical literacy is also occupied with where and with what consequences are presented and whose texts interest the reader.

Another major factor in critical literacy is critical language awareness. Critical language awareness consists of critical discourse analyses and overt teaching on how texts work. A critical literate student should be able to analyse various texts, from functional and academic to literary texts.

Luke (2000) subcategorises what contributes to the critical analysis of texts: Lexico-grammatical structure, ideological contents and the identifiable conditions of production and use of the text.

Critical linguistics draws distinctions between ideology formations in texts, their social functions and their linguistic features (Luke, 2014). This enables readers to shape a text version based on the grammar and the readers' discourse choices. Readers are allowed to reshape worlds and represent them differently if they are critical of the language and discourse structures surrounding the text. Critical literacy also entails the understanding that texts are manipulated to represent the world (Luke, 2014).

Janks (2010) takes a practical approach to critical literacy. The effects of various sentences, questions, and commands in texts are analysed to determine the writer's position. As in historical literacies, Janks (2010) suggests that the writer's position exposes the writer's intention and that the competent reader should be able to find the writer's intentions in the text. Janks (2010) theorises that the lexical, grammatical and sequencing choices are what positions a text. These three factors are implemented to make a text believable and "true" with the final aim of the text to position the competent reader according to the writer's orientation. Janks (2010) elaborates on Vasquez et al.'s (2019) definition of critical literacy being the interplay between discursive practices and unequal power relations: Discursive patterns are found in the syntax, that is, the deeper analysis of lexical, grammatical and sequencing choices (Janks, 2010). In simple terms, these three aspects of text represent a version of reality (Janks,

2010). Texts are not neutral; neither are people. Our reality often affects our ability to read either with or against a text (Janks, 2010).

Janks and Comber (2019) also developed the idea that one can read with or against the text and practically demonstrate it through questions that the critical reader can use to read with or against it. Firstly, reading with the text entails aligning themselves with the author and following and engaging in the author's arguments. Readers should consider the argument that a writer is making and place themselves in the writer's shoes to be able to read the text (Janks & Comber, 2019).

Luke (2014) reiterates this in Janks and Comber's (2019) work on critical literacy. The rhetorical context also becomes central when one reads with the texts: When was the text written, why and to who is the text aimed at? Readers should also consider the cultural force of the language and words chosen (Janks & Comber, 2019). Janks and Comber (2019) explain that it is easy to read the text when one is aligned with the writer and agrees. However, reading the text is difficult when the readers' worldviews and values are challenged.

Readers should further understand that texts are not neutral and should dissect texts critically (Janks, 2010; Janks & Comber, 2019; Luke, 2014; Vasquez et al., 2019). Reading against the text is when the reader rejects notions in the text (Janks & Comber, 2019).

Another practical approach is taken by Janks and Comber (2019) towards critical literacy. Here follows a list of questions competent readers should ask when they read against texts, as proposed by Janks and Comber (2019).

- *What might be the social effects of the position on offer?*
- *Who benefits from the views, arguments, values and constructions of normativity expressed?*
- *Whose interest does the text serve?*
- *Does the text support social justice, or prejudices, exclusion and supremacy?*
- *Is the text racist, classist, sexist, ageist, homophobic or xenophobic?*
- *Who is included?*
- *Who is excluded?*
- *What kind of person would agree with this?*

Janks and Comber (2019) conclude that claims and counterclaims should be weighed against each other to find the difference between truths, half-truths and lies in texts.

Lastly, readers can only fully critique a text if they have read with the text and against the text. This enables readers to make an ethical consideration at the conclusion of critical reading (Janks & Comber, 2019).

2.8. Studies about critical literacy in practice in South Africa

Lloyd (2016) observed a Gr 11 English class in a Cape Town township while they were reading fictional texts in an attempt to understand how and if critical reading takes place in these contexts. Lloyd (2016) observed the reading of a short story, *The Toilet,* about a young South African black woman who stayed illegally with her sister, a domestic worker, in a white suburb of Johannesburg. The woman in the short story wanted to become a writer and not a teacher or nurse, the latter occupations being perceived as of higher stature. Because of this, the main character experiences loneliness and exclusion. Given the context of this story, there are a lot of power dynamics at play, for example, the main character's dreams of becoming a writer versus what her elders' dreams are for her of becoming a teacher or nurse; the power dynamics between the domestic worker and her employer which is portrayed through word choice and dialogue. Lloyd (2016) found that instead of literacy activities relating to the power dynamics, recall and recollection questions were used as a post-reading activity, and students were not challenged to engage with the power dynamics found in the text. Furthermore, there were few inferential reading questions and only one question that spoke to the power relations between whites and blacks in apartheid South Africa. The conclusion that can be drawn from the post-reading activity is that learners may not be guided to engage in critical literacy that questions power dynamics.

Lloyd (2016) conducted semi-structured interviews with the learners and found that their discourse hinders comprehending power dynamics in a text. The participants did not relate their struggles and hardships to that of a black woman in apartheid South Africa. Instead, participants linked moral lessons to the story, which was far removed from the story's context, and the discourse of "the previous generation suffered more than the current generation" was addressed by participants. Finally, Lloyd (2016) found that the texts had the themes of professions and identity of black women, urban sexual exploitation by urban men and racial relations. This allowed the class to engage in

critical reading (and literacy) focusing on power dynamics, but they did not. Again, only the lower levels of the reading taxonomy were addressed, such as literal comprehension and reorganisation. If this study's findings are linked to the theory on critical literacy and reading competence as outlined in the literature review, one could also add that learners failed to identify the author's intention of the fictional text they were reading. Learners focus more on the literal and surface meaning of the text rather than delving deeper into exploring the issues of gender, class, and race in this fictional text (Lloyd, 2016). Upon careful consideration, the issues of gender, class and race could fall under evaluation in Barrett's taxonomy. The evaluation skill uses an existing criterion, whether internal criteria based on the reader's experience or external criteria based on other texts and knowledge the learner has acquired (Göçer, 2014). Therefore, I believe critical literacy could be found in evaluating texts based on certain criteria.

What was further intriguing about Lloyd's (2016) study was that a fictional text about apartheid South Africa is, in fact, a historical text. The findings in this study also support my argument surrounding Barrett's taxonomy and its connection with historical literacy and the connection between historical and critical literacy.

Sibanda (2021) sought to investigate how critical literacy is approached in a township high school in Johannesburg, South Africa. Sibanda (2021) used newspapers as a pedagogical tool and articles about former South African president, Mr Zuma, to determine how language positions learners and to find how critical language influences learners' understanding of the world. I will only discuss the results of the headlines of newspapers, how meaning was created, and how discourses were identified in newspaper articles and omit the visual critical literacy of participants.

Sibanda (2021) asked learners to rewrite headlines in newspaper articles to indicate their stance on a certain issue. The meaning of the heading did not change; only the words changed; however, students' biases were portrayed using different lexical choices. There were pro-Zuma headings and anti-Zuma headings. I will provide two examples: 1) Zuma to blame versus Zuma blamed again and 2) The rise and fall of Zuma versus Zuma rises from the ash. Sibanda (2021) found that participants can position themselves accordingly when aware of critical language use. The newspaper articles that the high school learners read were about Mr Zuma when he was

summoned to court for a rape case. After learners read two articles about the same stories, their responses were significantly different. Learners could identify the salient discourses in the articles (Sibanda, 2021). One learner said that Zuma was a bad example for the youth and needed to be punished for his deeds, and the other learner said that it seemed like the author disliked Zuma and portrayed him as guilty. The writers' intentions were successfully identified. This indicates that the author wants to position the reader when they engage with the text (Janks, 2010; Sibanda, 2021). Participants also showed that their critical engagement with the text led to ideas linked to social justice (Sibanda, 2021). Sibanda (2021) also assumes that texts are not reality but a constructed version of reality. Like Lloyd's (2016) study, learners had to judge newspaper articles and article headings using their critical thinking abilities. There are links between evaluation as a cognitive reading competence and aspects of critical thinking and reading.

The biggest difference between Sibanda's (2021) study and Lloyd's (2016) study is that Sibanda (2021) gave participants instruction and guidance on how to engage critically with texts. The biggest difference is that a teacher overtly guides students to critical reading before observing their critical literacy skills. This means that the reading teacher plays a major role in critical literacy and that students need expert guidance. The contexts are similar in that both schools are township schools where people are still disadvantaged. However, the instruction regarding critical literacy made a difference in reader competence.

2.9. Critical reading on an international front

Suarcaya and Prasati (2017) make a case for critical literacy and reading in the EFL context. Suarcaya and Prasati (2017) believe texts about their purpose, message, values, and ideology should be questioned. It is further maintained that language can hide agendas in texts and uncovering them is a big part of critical reading (Suarcaya & Prasati, 2017). In their study, where they collected data from 12 participants who did not speak English as a first language, they also pointed out a difference between critical thinking and cognitive benefits. Critical thinking is the ability to connect a text to language, politics and history, whereas cognitive activities include the skills associated with reading, such as inferencing, analysing, synthesising and evaluating (Suarcaya & Prasati, 2017).

Participants were given an Indonesian indigenous story about arranged marriage and womanhood within the traditional Indonesian context. Participants were tasked with reading the story, answering comprehension questions, and answering a set of questions indicating how their socio-cultural background guided the comprehension questions' answers. The aim was to understand how participants' socio-cultural background aided the interpretative meaning of the text. Further, the questions demanded that learners be critical towards the values promoted in the texts and connect the text with related matters beyond the text, including the participants' experiences. Interviews were further used to capture the process of critical thinking during critical literacy activities (Suarcaya & Prasati, 2017).

Suarcaya and Prasati (2017) found that values were reconstructed during critical reading. The example that their study provides is the idea of a mother as a caretaker and housewife who has reached success upon marriage and birthing children, which was reconstructed to a mother who has the knowledge and can produce a better future generation. Further, the idea of achieving success upon marriage and birthing children was negated.

Students compared and contrasted texts with their cultural values and norms. The values which they did not agree with were negated by critical arguments. Some values in the texts were also confirmed but with conditions attached (Suarcaya & Prasati, 2017). Finally, a definition of critical literacy is formulated: Critical literacy is the ability to see the text from multiple perspectives; issues are seen from different angles, which amounts to different results (Suarcaya & Prasati, 2017). This critical literacy text also relates to historical literacy and evaluative cognitive reading competence. Participants had to make judgements again, and in this critical literacy exercise, the criteria for judgment were within the participants' concept of gender roles. One could further argue that appreciation, as a cognitive reading competence, is also present as participants relate the characters' lives to their own.

Vasquez (2017) describes critical literacy as a concept, framework, perspective on teaching and learning, and an attitude towards literacy. Critical literacy focuses on unequal power relations, social justice and equity to support diverse learners. Diverse learners also include multilingual learners, who bring their entire linguistic repertoire into classrooms (Vasquez, 2017).

2.10. How can critical literacy relate to historical literacy?

There is a strong resemblance between historical literacy and critical literacy. Historical literacies assume that a body of facts and interpretative skills must be historically literate (Downey & Long, 2016; Rantala & Khawaja, 2018; Scheiber, 1979). On the other hand, I argue that who constructed the body of facts? The body of facts is a construct of the reader who engaged with multiple historical texts, corroborated the information through cognitive abilities and presented their (the readers') version of history. Scholars of historical literacies are largely in agreement regarding multiple versions (realities) of a single event's existence and that the source from which the reader glances into the past provides us with biased recollections (Downey & Long, 2016; Lee, 2017). Therefore, the origin and context of the text need to be investigated to apply critical literacy to the text. In historical texts, the origins of texts are often constructed from a source of power, for example, a speech by an SS officer during the Holocaust in World War II. One needs to investigate the discursive discourses of the time and take into account the lexico-grammatical, structure and ideological context of the speech as a history text to critically engage with it (Janks, 2010; Janks & Comber, 2019; Luke, 2000; Wineberg, 1991). Luke (2014) brings forward a critical literacy question that we can easily apply to historical literacies: Whose version of culture, history and sciences will be perceived as official knowledge? To be critically and historically literate, the reader must interpret texts with an awareness of the power relations embedded in text. Rantala and Khawaja (2018) remind us that there are different narratives surrounding the same event, and therefore, it is important to read both with the text and against it (Janks & Combs, 2019).

When readers read with and against historical texts from various sources, the multiple narratives will become clear, and readers will be able to construct their narratives. Perhaps it is risky to say that historical literacies are an equation of facts and interpretations because the text is a mere version of reality (Janks, 2010). Of course, to a degree, incontestable events are undisputed. However, the context surrounding these events and narratives will always be questioned. There are overlapping factors between historical literacies and critical literacies. The importance of Janks and Comber's (2019) critical reading questions comes to mind when one analyses and interprets a history text: Why, and to whose interest was this text constructed, to whom is it directed and from where does it originate?

2.11. Bilingualism and multilingualism

The seminal threshold hypothesis articulates that learners whose first additional language (L2) has not reached a competent level will face cognitive deficits and proficiency in their home language (L1) will decline (Cummins, 1976). Cummins (1976) concludes that the L1 and L2 should be balanced in language proficiency for a learner to gain cognitive benefits from it. When L1 and L2 are unbalanced, learners cannot gain cognitive benefits from it but are put at a cognitive disadvantage. Learners who were exposed to an L2 before they reached school proved to reach a balance between L1 and L2, rendering their bilingualism balanced.

Biliteracy is: “All instances in which communication occurs in two or more languages in or around writing” (Hornberger, 2002). Hornberger (2002) further emphasises that language is a diversity asset and should be viewed as a resource. The ecology of the language continuum represents communities with more than one language.

The ecology of language consists of language evolution, language environment and language endangerment (Hornberger, 2002). Hornberger (2002) explains that 1) language evolution is the acknowledgement of a language’s existence with another language; 2) language environment refers to a language’s socio-political, economic and cultural environments, and this is where a language is considered to be a dominant or non-dominant language of a community or society; and 3) language endangerment is a phenomenon that takes place if there is not sufficient support for a language within the linguistic ecosystem. Hornberger (2002) found that biliteracy development can take on various fronts, such as the classroom, the community and the society. Still, this proposal is focused on how it develops within the individual and becomes synthesised into a meaning-making reading resource.

2.12. Translanguaging

Garcia and Kleyn (2016) define translanguaging as “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire, which does not in any way correspond to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named languages.” From this definition, it is essential to establish what named languages are: Named languages are juxtaposed with their *language.* Named languages are languages like English, Arabic and French, which

are described as conventionally named and, in most cases, were used for colonial and nation-building reasons. In contrast, own language refers to an individual's manner of meshing all individually known languages together for communicative and meaning-making processes (Garcia & Kleifgen, 2019; Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). Another critical part of Garcia and Kleyn's (2016) definition of translanguaging is clarifying language boundaries: Translanguaging does not acknowledge boundaries between languages but views language as an intertwined unitary linguistic system. Translanguaging rejects the traditional idea that languages are separate systems within the bi/multilingual. Still, it advocates that all these languages form a repertoire from which bi/multilingual people can create meaning (Garcia & Kleifgen, 2019; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Makalela, 2015).

Translanguaging is "purposeful pedagogical alternation of language in spoken, written, receptive and productive modes" (Hornberger & Link, 2012). The input language and the output language are purposefully different from each other. For example, a test or a lesson might be delivered in a particular language, but the response from a learner will be in a different language.

Gracia and Kleifgen (2019) further argue that when only one authorised language input and output is expected from learners, a big part of the multilingual learners' semiotic meaning-making resources is also ignored. Garcia and Kleyn (2016) further extend that translanguaging is used to "leverage" all the linguistic resources within an individual to enhance the learner's content and language comprehension.

Translanguaging is described as both a theoretical lens and a pedagogical strategy (Maseko & Mkhize, 2021). In terms of a theoretical lens, it enhances researchers' understanding of how bilinguals or multilinguals use their linguistic, sociocultural and semiotic resources in a multilingual setting. As a pedagogical strategy, translanguaging promotes interlingual learners and teachers' participation and understanding within the classroom.

A review of translanguaging studies will follow with emerging themes within the translanguaging framework to establish where this proposal and potential reading comprehension translanguaging study will fit in.

Maseko and Mkhize (2021) conducted a study in Soweto, Johannesburg, using diverse learners speaking different South African home languages to understand the implications of translanguaging on these learners. The participants were 43 Grade 3 learners with five different home languages present in the class. Maseko and Mkhize (2021) found that translanguaging enhances learner engagement, creativity and understanding of texts. Learners could negotiate the meaning of a text using multiple languages. Furthermore, learners found higher-order questions like comparing and contrasting easier when they could use multiple languages as resources to obtain the answers (Maseko & Mkhize, 2021).

Makalela (2015) investigated the effect of translanguaging techniques on reading comprehension in a primary school and found that a translanguaging intervention that included recognition and vocabulary differentiation in both English and Sepedi and reading the same text in English and Sepedi resulted in English reading comprehension improvement among 60 Grade 6 Sepedi speaking learners. Makalela (2015) also found that students are more receptive to language teaching in spaces that allow them to draw from their language repertoire.

However, within the Arabian context, it was found that there was no significant difference in L2 reading comprehension among Arabic-speaking undergraduate university students when they conducted reading comprehension using translanguaging techniques within an English reading assessment (Qureshi & Aljanadbah, 2022). In an experimental study, Qureshi and Aljanadbah (2022) found no statistically significant differences when translanguaging was used when learners had to answer the main idea, cloze-reading, and vocabulary test items. Qureshi and Aljanadbah (2022) suspect that, in second language education, it is not beneficial to use L1 as it will be used at the expense of L2. Second-language education and second-language reading education become relevant to this study because most South African schools use English as the language of learning and teaching, even though South Africa has ten other official languages.

Chu (2017) experimented with a control group that received a reading comprehension text in L2 with the comprehension questions in L2 and an experimental group that

received the reading comprehension text in L2, but the questions in both L1 and L2. The output language in the experimental group could be both L1 and L2. Chu (2017) found that the Taiwanese Grade 6 learners' mean scores were significantly higher in the assessments where translanguaging was allowed. The study further found that learners score significantly higher in literal, inferential, evaluative or critical thinking questions. Chu (2017) concludes that translanguaging in reading assessment could capture students' actual knowledge more accurately. Lastly, Chu (2017) states that background knowledge is activated through translanguaging because it proved an essential tool for answering the experimental group's higher-order (inferential and evaluative questions).

A case study conducted by Espinosa and Herrera (2016) in New York with Spanish-speaking Grade 6 science learners who are considered to be emergent English speakers, according to USA standards, found that learners who engaged in translanguaging found clarity in reading texts deepened scientific discourse and contributed to deeper subject comprehension. The researchers of this case study observed a lesson where sticky notes were used as notepads where learners could annotate the main ideas of the text in any language of their choosing, in a Spanish textbook whereafter learners had to conduct a scientific experiment. Espinosa and Herrera (2016) explain that learners used all their semiotic knowledge, including Spanish, English and drawings, on the sticky notes to synthesise the content of the scientific text provided. They further state that translanguaging enables learners to develop their language repertoire and provides the meaning-making processes required to make sense of various texts (Espinosa & Herrera, 2016).

A study in the Limpopo province of South Africa concluded that translanguaging during a reading intervention leads to better reading comprehension amongst Grade 4 learners aged between 10 and 12. Ledwaba (2020) implemented a pre-test, reading intervention, and a post-test in her study to conclude from these results. The intervention included pre-reading, reading and post-reading activities. Pre-reading activities comprised vocabulary exercises emphasising the text's keywords by creating sight words and their translations in Sepedi. The learners matched the English words with the Sepedi words (their L1) and made sentences with the words to understand the true meaning in context. During reading, the teacher asked higher-order questions,

and learners were allowed to answer the questions in English and Sepedi. The questions ranged from lower-order to higher-order questions. Post-reading activities included identifying the main idea of a text and retelling the story using English and Sepedi (L1 and L2) in groups of six learners. Finally, learners were asked to summarise the story individually. The control group was given the same task, but the language in which they were tasked to engage with the text was different. The control group could only engage in English, the LoLT. The main difference during instruction was that the control group could not answer the reading questions. In contrast, the experimental group could answer the during-reading questions confidently and accurately. The pre-test confirmed the PIRLS 2016 findings regarding reading competence because both groups scored less than 50% regarding reading comprehension. The pre-test consisted of two sections, namely 1) comprehension and 2) sequencing of events. After the translingual reading intervention, the mean score of the groups improved, and an effect size calculation determined that the intervention was significantly successful, with a total effect size of 1.076. The reading comprehension section in the post-test also significantly improved. However, the sequencing of the events section did not improve after the translingual reading intervention. The study affirms that a deeper understanding of the subject matter forms when two or more languages are accessed in conjunction (Ledwaba, 2020; Makalela, 2015). Furthermore, when keywords were explained in learners' L1, they understood texts better, echoing the Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis (Cummins, 1979a). Concepts that learners already grasped were accessible to the intervention group, which demonstrated clear comprehension of vocabulary if it existed before the translation relating to Cummins' CALP (Cummins, 1979a). Finally, it is recommended that learners collaborate in groups using L1 and L2 during reading instruction. Teachers should also encourage a creative and safe learning environment where translingual reading instruction can occur (Ledwaba, 2020).

2.13. Meaning-making during translingual interactions

It is important to consider translingual negotiation strategies between interlocutors and when a multilingual person reads a text. Reading is a mode of communication between reader and author in which both parties have an intention and various interpretations. Therefore, translingual negotiation strategies will be considered in this study.

In translingual spaces where English is often the *lingua franca*, multilinguals use different strategies to co-construct meaning. Early work relating to multilinguals in English *lingua franca* contexts considered Conversational Analyses as a framework to investigate meaning-making processes amongst multilinguals. The critique of this framework is that it does not fully recognise the power, culture, identity and ecology between interlocutors. When one considers the Translanguaging theory and the Ecology of the Language continuum, it becomes clear that power, culture, identity and ecology are inseparable from language. Another model used to investigate the meaning-making strategies of multilinguals is Pragmatics. Pragmatics incorporates a diverse semiotic system by acknowledging cultural background, albeit from an etic perspective. The critique against Pragmatics is that it is often a problem-based approach regarding language comprehension and treats multilingual interpretation as a problem instead of an additional resource for meaning-making.

Though culture and language are interwoven, it remains important to note that culture does not primarily determine behaviour and communication in English *lingua franca* contexts. Multilingual will start to negotiate meaning from their preferred cultural identity before moving beyond their “native” culture to negotiate further meaning in these contexts (Canagarajah, 2012).

Four macro-level negotiation strategies exist: envoicing, recontextualisation, interactional and entextualisation. These four negotiation strategies do not exist in isolation, and they are often combined in various ways for multilingualism to construct meaning (Canagarajah, 2012).

Firstly, envoicing is when multilinguals encode their identity and location into the text. Language uses desires to be understood with all their social and cultural particularity. This means that negotiation and cultural identity become Inseparable. Envoicing is complex and strategic. The speaker decides to mesh codes and access various languages as a meaning-making resource to comprehend and communicate successfully through talk and text. Envoicing is not purely utilitarian but enhances how language users represent their identity (Pacheco et al., 2019). Envoicing is further a language users’ attempt to represent their identity and interests when they speak, write or reproduce text (Canagarajah, 2012). Languages mesh during envoicing so that the speaker or writer can express his intentions more accurately (Canagarajah, 2012).

Secondly, recontextualisation centres around the footing and frame of a multilingual. Footing refers to “the alignment we take up ourselves and the others present as expressed in the way we manage the production or reception of an utterance” (Goffman, 1981). The multilingual method determines which frame applies to various linguistic interactions. It is crucial for the multilingual to find the appropriate footing to negotiate meaning successfully. Ultimately, recontextualising aids in a shared understanding of communicative goals, processes and topics (Canagarajah, 2012). It is strategic in that it is deployed in such a way that it addresses the power dynamics of a language by aligning meaning-making negotiation with the dominant language in terms of ideology and communicative contexts (Canagarajah, 2012; Pacheco et al., 2019). Recontextualising centres around determining where a language user stands regarding language power dynamics and how meaning is situated around the dominant language (Pacheco et al., 2019).

Thirdly, interactional meaning-making strategies are when language users reciprocate to negotiate meaning, rhetoric or social objectives. They do this by matching language resources with people, situations, objects and communicative ecologies (Canagarajah, 2012; Pacheco et al., 2019). In vernacular terms, it could be regarded as a continuous back and forth between language users or language users and text to negotiate meaning. Language users co-construct meaning when they have little shared language norms in this manner but strive to reach the desired outcome of comprehension (Canagarajah, 2012).

Lastly, entextualisation is when multilinguals use linguistic resources to code text intentions. Learners recognise, reconfigure and redeploy their resources to determine meaning (Canagarajah, 2012). Intentions are inferred when entextualisation takes place. It is further occupied with how meanings are coded. Entextualisation ensures clear communication across time and space and linguistic power dynamics (Pacheco et al., 2019).

Pacheco et al. (2019) affirmed that translingual participation in texts leads to meaningful engagements amongst Grade 3 learners. The main reading strategies investigated were the whole class interactive read-aloud, small group guided reading, and buddy reading. All the strategies included a high frequency of English, Spanish and Arabic, and student backgrounds varied vastly among participants. Pacheco et

al's (2019) study found that entextualising occurred during the small group guided reading, allowing learners to access and activate their diverse backgrounds to engage with the text. Metalanguage awareness also became a focus amongst the learners through comparing and contrasting languages and selected words within the text when they engaged translingually with the text, their peers and their teacher. Ultimately, the Grade 3 students learned the language, and they learned about language during translingual literacy instruction.

Furthermore, envoicing was featured as a meaning-making strategy among the participants in this study. Cultural, linguistic and social identities became important in interpreting texts, and students' meanings became apparent to researchers and teachers only through clarifying and understanding personal reference frameworks. This reiterates the importance of L1 and the relationship between learners' language. Furthermore, it exemplifies that languages are not merely a set of words but are part of a bigger semiotic system embedded in culture and identity (Pacheco et al., 2019).

Lastly, learners recontextualise meaning and language when translingual reading and instruction occur. Learners were reluctant to use their home languages in class because of linguistic power dynamics. Only upon encouragement from the teacher, an English L1 speaker, learners started utilising their L1. This multilingual event strongly ties with Hornbergers' Continuum of Biliteracy, which details that a learner's L1 becomes suppressed to the dominant, in this case, Anglo-centric (English), academic language in class (Hornberger, 2002).

2.14. Studies and their findings on language attitudes in Africa and South Africa

Alvarez-Mosquera and Marin-Gutierrez (2021) investigated attitudes of South African English accents of first-year students at the University of Cape Town to understand attitudes of language surrounding English. Alvarez-Mosquera and Marin-Gutierrez (2021) distinguish between standard South African English accents and non-standard South African English accents. A non-standard South African English accent is an accent of an English additional language speaker in their study. Alvarez-Mosquera and Marin-Gutierrez (2021) found that more participants presented positive bias towards a standard South African English accent over an English L2 accent. It was also reported that positive biases towards English were reported by participants who

attended schools where the LoLT was English. On the contrary, students who attended schools where English was not the LoLT reported positive biases towards non-standard English accents. Alvarez-Mosquera and Marin-Gutierrez (2021) explain that positive bias toward English among first-year university students could stem from the stigma that English provides a better prospect for learners regarding education, culture and job opportunities.

Surprisingly, of Alvarez-Mosquera and Marin-Gutierrez (2021), 80 participants, only six participants reported having attended a school offering their home language as a LoLT. Another interesting aspect of Alvarez-Mosquera and Marin-Gutierrez's (2021) study is that more than 63% of the participants used English at home, although they reported a different home language. Alvarez-Mosquera and Marin-Gutierrez (2021) conclude that students may find English a transformative asset providing them equal opportunity.

Ditsele (2016) conducted a survey followed by interviews to capture the attitudes of university students in Gauteng and Northwest province towards Setswana, their L1. The study aimed not to compare the attitudes of Setswana to those of English, but regardless, these themes emerged during interviews with the participants. The ecology of language presents itself in Ditsele's (2016) study because the study showed that language exists concerning other languages, and the idea of language dominance reveals itself covertly in Ditsele's (2016) study (Hornberger, 2002). Two findings in this study are noteworthy. First, the participants noted that English was a language of overt prestige. Participants believed English provides them with better economic, social and academic opportunities. English was also seen as a tool to access resources. Participant L1, on the other hand, was perceived for covert prestige, such as cultural significance. Second, Ditsele (2016) found that the students felt that their L1 should be used in higher education; however, they felt that assessments and examinations should not be conducted in their L1. Students believed that Setswana does not have the necessary academic terminology for assessment.

Klapwijk and Van der Walt (2016) explored isiXhosa and Afrikaans speakers and their perceptions of home languages and home language education in tertiary English lingua franca educational environments. Their findings are that participants believe

home languages are important in general and education. Further findings are that 36% of participants believed home languages carry little value in Africa, and 44% believe their home languages are of no value internationally. The study further focuses on the differences between Afrikaans and isiXhosa university students' perceptions of languages. Yet again, the theme of language dominance in diverse settings takes a central place. 37% of isiXhosa students rated their home language as important to achieving academic success, compared to 64% of Afrikaans students rating their home language as important to their academic success (Klapwijk & Van der Walt, 2016). Klapwijk and Van der Walt (2016) explain that Afrikaans was the dominant language in academic institutions from the 1930s onwards through political nationalisation and has thus acquired linguistic capital. Therefore, Afrikaans is still used as a LoLT at large, which might explain the difference of opinion between the two groups. isiXhosa speakers may not recognise the language possibilities of isiXhosa because it has not historically been used as much as LoLT. The numbers indicate that university students, both isiXhosa and Afrikaans, foster an understanding that home language is an important and useful meaning-making resource (Klapwijk & Van der Walt, 2016).

Students' identity with regards to language and culture were also explored in Klapwijk and Van der Walt's (2016) study: Students felt, to an extent, that English as a LoLT threatens their home languages and experience a separation between themselves and their own culture as a result of English LoLT.

Regarding LoLT, most students in the combined group (consisting of both isiXhosa and Afrikaans participants) were in favour of receiving translingual instruction from their home language and English. However, upon further investigation, it was found that Afrikaans university students are much more in favour of L1 and English instruction than isiXhosa university students (Klapwijk & Van der Walt, 2016). The reasons for this could be the political ties of nationalisation of Afrikaans and the long-lasting practice of Afrikaans as LoLT in formal education institutions (Klapwijk & Van der Walt, 2016). An inference that can be drawn from Klapwijk and Van der Walt's (2016) study is that the more a language is used in an educational context, the more empowered their speakers become to use it as a meaning-making resource.

Ditsele's (2016) finding is reiterated when Klapwijk and Van der Walt (2016) found that language exists in Functional and Cultural domains. However, Ditsele (2016) describes it as an overt and covert use of language. Both studies indicate that participants use English for functional tasks such as education, finding jobs and communicating internationally, whereas home languages fulfil cultural functions.

Indigenous languages and languages of former colonisers are also a melting pot in the broader scope of Africa. The *lingua franca* situation and language attitudes towards English and the 41 other languages, specifically Luganda, reached polarising heights in Uganda. Ssentanda and Nakayiza (2017) found that teachers thought that learners should learn English at the cost of their home languages because their home languages are invaluable. Teachers also disregard Uganda's policy stipulating that students should receive home language instruction in grades 1 to 3 and teach in English at the cost of learners' home languages (Ssentanda & Nakayiza, 2017). The general attitude towards English and their home languages is that English is the language of high social class, status, and prestige because English has been and continues to be the official language of government. Ssentanda and Nakayiza (2017) further elaborate that English is promoted and perceived as the language of academic success and associated with intelligence. As the home language is described by Ssentanda and Nakayiza (2017), the mother tongue is devalued and often viewed as a "source of failure" among Ugandans. Ironically, English is not used as the vernacular, and it is further noted that a big portion of the approximate 62% of literate individuals in Uganda lose the ability to speak English and it leads to a mass exclusion in terms of political decisions (Ssentanda & Nakayiza, 2017). This contrast and polarising ideas and attitudes of language could be complicit in the low literacy levels in Uganda. It will be a concern in my study as I look at the literacy levels of senior phase history learners and their attitudes towards languages in South Africa, given South Africa's low literacy achievement levels as presented by PIRLS in 2016 (Howie, et al, 2017). Ssentanda and Nakayiza's (2017) work raises questions such as Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis (1979) and the fact that the suppression of L1 leads to the failure to master L2. Nancy Hornberger's (2002) language ecology also comes to life in this portrayal of Uganda's multilingual society: The dominant colonial language prevails at the loss of indigenous languages and, from my perspective, meaning-making resources available to learners.

Forty students were interviewed as part of a language attitudes discussion surrounding Africa in a study concurrently conducted in Durban, South Africa, and Eldoret, Kenya. Both research sites were universities and had English as the LoLT, although most students' first languages were not English, rendering them similar linguistic contexts (Kamwangamalu & Tovares, 2016).

In Kenya and South Africa, English is perceived as a unifying language and a language of communication, especially in linguistically diverse spaces. Participants highlighted that English is used to bridge cultural and communicative gaps. In Kenya, however, more people speak Swahili as a second language than English. In addition, the overwhelming discourse surrounding the research site in Kenya is that English is the language of the elite, even if it is only spoken by a minority of the Kenyan population as a first language. The research site in Durban is described as a space where English is not needed as a lingua franca because of the majority isiZulu-speaking population. Yet, English remains the dominant language (Kamwangamalu & Tovares, 2016).

Kamwangamalu and Tovares (2016) point out that this phenomenon can be described as *linguistic instrumentalism.* Linguistic instrumentalism is when a language is used for utilitarian purposes, including achieving economic goals or social mobility. To elaborate further, in South Africa, participants associated English with securing employment and communicating through English in the workplace. English is eventually described as the "key for everything" by an isiZulu speaker in South Africa. In Kenya, perceptions of English are largely similar but a higher status is attached to English. Privilege and wealth are prominent themes among Kenyans relating to English. Native languages are also perceived as supplementary to English (Kamwangamalu & Tovares, 2016).

One of the findings was that English are used for the public domain and native African home languages are used for the private domain. Professional spaces such as classrooms, lecture halls, daycares and workplaces are seen as the public domain. The private domain is where both the South African and Zulu population live out their cultural identity through home languages. Interestingly social settings where participants are removed from their families, it seems that English dominates the

Kenyan linguistic repertoire within these spaces, but there are instances of code-switching for better and clearer expression and communication amongst the South African and Kenyan population in this study (Kamwangamalu & Tovares, 2016).

2.15. Standardised testing

Standardised testing is a valuable tool for capturing data, where feedback in data analysis can improve instruction and learner understanding or competence (Maphalala & Mncube, 2017). Maphalala and Mncube (2017) specifically placed the ANA national standardised assessment under the microscope. They found through focus groups that South African teachers were teaching to the test because of possible accountability backlash that they could face, which renders the findings less valid and reliable. Govender and Hugo (2020) affirm the above findings in a secondary analysis when they state that the ANA has been criticised for encouraging teachers to maximise test scores, thus affecting the true reflection of literacy competence in the senior phase. Howie (2016) addresses the accountability matters of teachers in the USA through a keynote address, in which she states that standardised testing is used to enforce accountability on teachers and schools regarding curriculum content. As a result, teachers narrow the curriculum and teach to the test to avoid negative accountability on them.

An Irish report on standardised tests describes narrowing the curriculum content as emphasising curriculum content within standardised tests at the cost of content not in the standardised test and linking teaching-to-the-test to knowledge fragmentation (O'Leary et al., 2019). This links to Govender and Hugo's (2020) and Maphalala and Mncube's (2017) findings that standardised testing becomes unreliable because teachers coach their learners to answer standardised tests. In essence, the standardised test should be used to benchmark learners and improve education, but the negative effect of standardised tests is that teachers are held accountable if they do not reach the standards. If standardised tests are unreliable and teachers are teaching the test, one can assume that our knowledge of senior phase reading competence has gaps.

2.16. Theoretical framework: The threshold hypothesis

The threshold hypothesis evolved in response to inconsistent studies investigating the relationship between bilingualism and cognition. Cummins (1979a) explains that there are three types of bilingualism: a) additive bilingualism, b) dominant bilingualism, and c) semi-lingualism. Cummins (1979a) states, “There may be threshold levels of linguistic competence which bilingual children must attain both to avoid cognitive deficits and to allow the potentially beneficial aspects of becoming a bilingual to influence cognitive growth.” A learner must, therefore, attain a minimum competence level of a second language not to face the adverse effects of the language and a higher competence level for the language to benefit a learner. Additive bilingualism is the upper threshold; learners will likely face cognitive benefits when they reach this threshold. Additive bilingualism is when a learner has reached a native-like language competency in both languages (Cummins, 1979a). Dominant bilingualism is the lower threshold where a learner likely experiences no cognitive benefits, but no cognitive deficits will be experienced. When a learner is native-like in one language and emergent in the other, the learner would be considered above the dominant bilingualism threshold but below the additive bilingualism threshold. Below the dominant bilingualism threshold lies the semi-lingualism threshold, where learners have a low competence level in both languages. The semi-linguist will experience cognitive difficulties (Cummins, 1979a)

The graph visually represents Cummins’ linguistic threshold hypothesis (1979a). The first bar represents learners with low home language and low second language competence. Learners with both low home language and low second language competence are likely to have a low level of reading competence, which will classify these learners under the lower linguistic threshold. The second bar represents learners with a high level of home language competence and a low level of second language competence. Learners with a competent home language and a low second language competence will likely show no benefits or disadvantages regarding reading competence. Learners with dominant bilingualism may be competent readers because of their high home language competence. This last bar represents learners with high home language and second language competence. These learners will have a high reading competence level and thus be classified under the higher threshold.

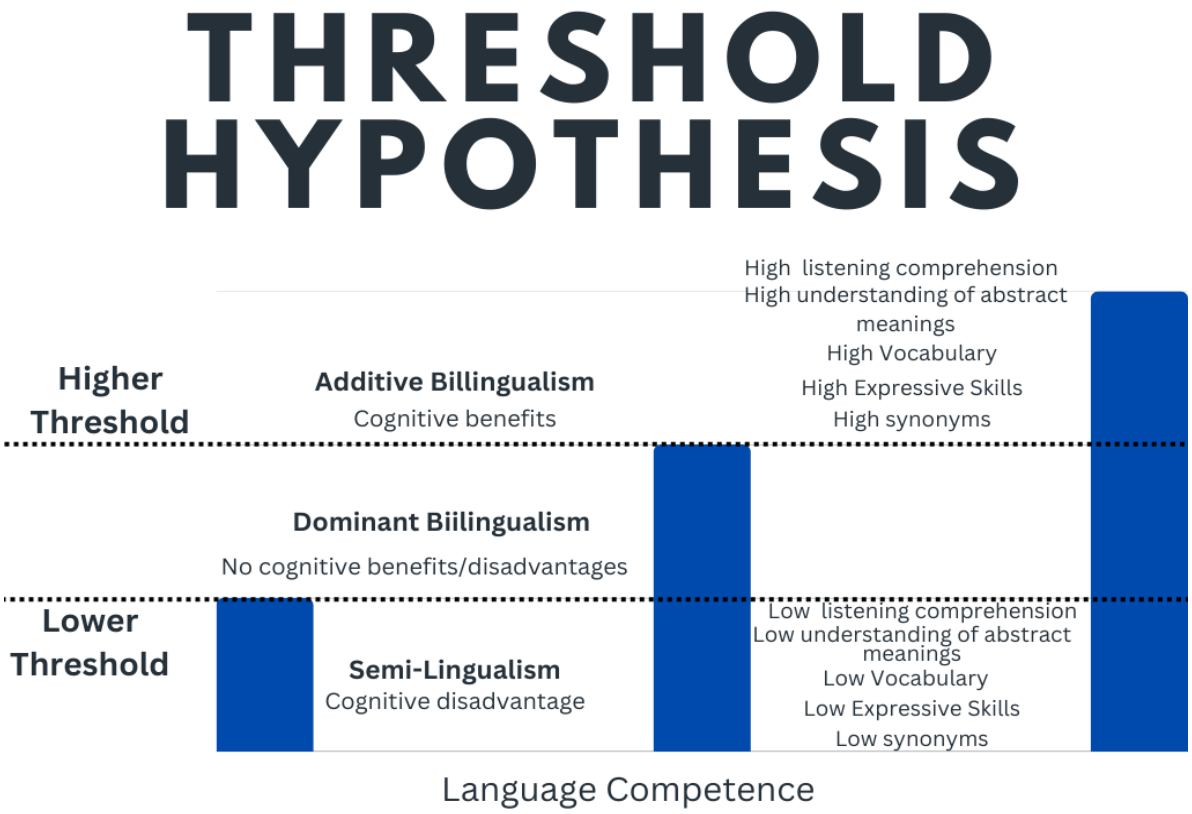

Figure 2: A visual representation of Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis (Cummins, 1979a)

Another important aspect of the threshold hypothesis is understanding what separates the higher- and lower thresholds of language competence. The focus of this study falls on academic language competence. Thus, the factors surrounding cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) will be discussed to determine what makes a learner competent or incompetent in a specific language. A low level of listening comprehension characterises the lower threshold of Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis, a low level of expressive skills, difficulty understanding abstract meanings, a low level of synonyms and a deficient vocabulary (Cummins,1979b). If the learner has low levels of language competence in the above-mentioned language characteristics, the learner will be considered semi-lingual (Cummins, 1979a). If a learner has high levels of listening comprehension, expressive skills, vocabulary and synonyms in two languages, a learner has developed additive bilingualism. Cummins (1979b) further states that L2 learners face no cognitive deficits in the early grades, but cognitive deficits can be observed as the curriculum progresses into more abstract concepts in higher grades.

It is important to distinguish between home and school languages (Cummins, 1979b). Cummins (1979b) found that learners who receive education in L2 often speak a minority language. As a result, the learners switch between the two languages at home (the vernacular) and at school (the academic). It is universally regarded that an incomplete vocabulary in L2 – which is also the language of learning and teaching – leads to poor reading comprehension performances. The general notion is that certain things within a text do not exist for the reader if the reader does not have the vocabulary to understand it (Cummins, 1979b). Furthermore, higher-level skills such as inferring and predicting text become more challenging for learners with this vocabulary deficiency. As a result, L2 learners may never reach the reading comprehension performance level that L1 learners have reached.

In response to the previously mentioned inconsistent studies, the threshold hypothesis suggests that controlling for background knowledge related to learners' access to languages in terms of when and how the language was acquired is crucial. This is important because if learners acquire a good level of language competence before entering school, cognitive deficits will not be found, but learners will likely experience cognitive gains (Cummins, 1979a).

The threshold hypothesis and CALP lead this study, especially in the quantitative phase. Upon completing a reading assessment to determine reading competence, bilingual participants were categorised within one of the thresholds. CALP was also a leading factor in developing assessment tools to ensure learners' linguistic competence concerning reading could be accurately captured. The methods and the significance of this theory will be further elaborated in the methodology chapter.

2.17 Threshold Hypothesis in studies: Global results and interpretations of multilingual spaces

Kim et al. (2022) investigated to what extent vocabulary affects reading and writing amongst Korean-English (L1-L2) university students by applying Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis (1976; 1979a). Kim et al. (2022) found no significant correlation between

L2 reading comprehension and L1 competence but attributed the finding to their participants having reached the threshold hypothesis. Contrasting their reading comprehension findings, they found that learners who reached a competent L1 level are also competent L2 writers, but incompetent L1 writers are also incompetent L2 writers. The study affirms that the threshold hypothesis is higher for writing than reading. This is important within this study because learners' responses to test items are recorded using their written language. This also deems translanguaging as a necessary aspect of this study.

Atrieda (2017) determined that L1 reading comprehension moderately correlates with beginner L2 reading comprehension achievement. The study further found no significant difference between L1 and L2 intermediate speakers' reading comprehension achievement scores, suggesting that the balanced threshold was reached. This study also found that students are disadvantaged academically when the language of learning and teaching is in L2 and learners' L1 is underdeveloped. Atrieda (2017) used adult participants speaking Spanish and Catalan in Barcelona, whose L1 and L2 competence were tested before the L2 assessment.

Ventura (2016) reviews multiple studies around science achievement within the Maltese context, which is similar to a South African context in terms of the language of learning and teaching: The majority language in Malta is Maltese, but the language of learning and teaching, including assessment and learner-teacher support materials, are dominantly English. An interesting study critiques Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis, which should be viewed as a probability model that could predict achievement (Ventura, 2016). Ventura (2016) maintains that the threshold hypothesis can predict learner performance based on language proficiency after a study found outliers in the data analysis of learner achievement in science education. Hence, the threshold hypothesis could be a probability model.

Van Steensel et al. (2016) position themselves from a vocabulary point of view when analysing multilingual senior-phase learners' reading comprehension. They maintain that vocabulary knowledge in L2 is a vital reading comprehension predictor. Their positionality on vocabulary is evident when they state that knowing words leads to better text understanding, that vocabulary processing automates reading, and frees

space for other cognitive processes to occur while reading. Van Steensel et al. (2016) conducted a study in the Netherlands by selecting monolinguals and bilinguals as participants. The criteria for a bilingual in their study was that the participant speaks a language other than Dutch (the language of learning and teaching) 50% of the time at home. Firstly, they conducted a vocabulary test followed by reading comprehension tests. When they controlled vocabulary differences, based on the initial vocabulary test, the effect of bilingualism was positive on reading comprehension, suggesting that bilinguals could have better reading comprehension than monolinguals if their L1 and L2 vocabulary were balanced, echoing the linguistic hypothesis theory. Van Steensel et al. (2016) admit they did not measure learners' reading and writing competence in their L1, which could be an implication in their study regarding Cummins' linguistic threshold hypothesis. It is thus important to control whether learners can speak, listen, read and write in their L1 before testing the threshold hypothesis.

2.18 Chapter summary

The literature review focused on two major aspects: reading competence and multilingualism. Regarding reading competence, I explored what it meant to be able to read with comprehension. I further explained how meaning is made from texts according to various reading models. I present Barret's reading taxonomy, as South African language curriculum policies prescribe that learners should be able to achieve the reading competencies as stipulated by Barret. I also found it important to present historical literacy and what it entails, as well as critical literacy, as a supplement to historical literacy and higher-order reading competence skills. The second part of the literature review focussed on multilingualism. It was important to me to review literature about what it means to be bilingual and multilingual and how the individual perceives their home language concerning the language of learning and teaching. Very importantly, I highlighted translanguaging and translingual pedagogy and ideas surrounding this practice both around the world and locally. Lastly, I thought it would be good to review studies about the threshold hypothesis and global perspectives surrounding this hypothesis to gain a deeper insight into how the threshold hypothesis is interpreted around the world.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3. Introduction

Both quantitative and qualitative data were used in this study. In line with the sequential explanatory research design, I used qualitative data to explain the findings of the quantitative phase. The quantitative phase was a quasi-experiment, and the qualitative phase used semi-structured interviews with selected participants. Towards the end of the study, I link the findings to Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis and determine the competency levels of Grade 9 reading and how multilingualism affects reading comprehension (Cummins, 1979a).

3.1. Research paradigm: Pragmatism

A paradigm is "a set of beliefs or worldview that guides research action or investigation" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). A paradigm is further defined as the first principle, which shows the researcher's positionality and how meaning will be constructed from embedded data (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). A paradigm consists of laws, theoretical assumptions, and applications by a specific scientific community (Khaldi, 2017). Ultimately, a paradigm is a worldview and guide of knowledge construction (Khaldi, 2017; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Reham & Alharthi, 2016).

3.2. Pragmatism

I will explain pragmatism, using elements of the positivist and constructivist philosophies. Positivists claim that knowledge is universal, absolute and objective, whereas constructivists argue that there are multiple realities and that knowledge exists subjectively (Subedi, 2016). Positivism posits that reality exists independently of humans; it cannot be mediated through our senses but consists of immutable laws (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). Positivism is centred around a cause-effect relation and is rooted in the domain of natural sciences (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). Positivism strives to establish certain laws in relationships and use these laws to predict the future.

Pragmatists deem knowledge to exist in a continuum between the positivist and constructivist extremes and accept aspects of the positivist and constructivist paradigms (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019; King, 2022).

Pragmatism accepts multiple realities but can also be empirically affirmed, allowing knowledge to be constructed from a qualitative and quantitative method. The reality is dependent on the environment and the human experience. Pragmatism assumes that the human experience and meaning are inseparable, which echoes the epistemological assumption that knowledge and experience are intertwined. The pragmatist views thought, perception and socio-cultural context as wells of knowledge.

Pragmatist research problems are also viewed as practical and actionable. It is considered that pragmatists want to contribute to problem-solving through inquiry instead of merely portraying phenomena (King, 2022). Dewey proposed that inquiry is an investigation to grasp a certain reality and create knowledge that could change reality (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019).

Reading can only be accurately tested with empirical evidence and a reading score. Descriptive statistics are thus used to test Grade 9 reading competence in history texts, relating to a positivist paradigm. However, reading is a big part of language and language does not exist in isolation. Language is context-bound and individually perceived. It is thus important to understand what contextual factors affect reading competence and relate to the constructivist paradigm. The study therefore investigates the level of Grade 9 reading competence in history and determines how multilingualism affects reading competence in a specific reality.

3.2. Research approach

Mixed methods integrate qualitative and quantitative data within a single study (Creswell & Ivankova, 2009). Before comprehensively defining mixed methods, it is essential to understand what qualitative and quantitative approaches encompass.

Quantitative approaches refer to numerical data, which statistical techniques analyse to prove or disprove the hypothesis (Creswell & Ivankova, 2009). Qualitative data concerns participants' experience of phenomena in their natural surroundings. Data is collected in the form of words, images or text. There is generally no preconceived hypothesis, and the data is analysed and categorised into themes (Creswell & Ivankova, 2009).

Finally, Creswell and Ivankova (2009) outline the mixed-methods approach: “A procedure for collecting, analysing and mixing quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study to understand a research problem completely.” Further, the mixed method integrates quantitative and qualitative approaches in one study (McCruden et al., 2019).

The research question, as opposed to the methodology, becomes the focal point of the study, which links with the pragmatist approach (McCruden et al., 2019). Subedi (2016) further strengthens this observation by emphasising that each research question can be approached by either a quantitative or qualitative approach, depending on the nature of the research question.

The first research question, which is the level of Grade 9 reading comprehension, in this study, is approached quantitatively. A quasi-experiment is used to determine Grade 9 reading competence in history texts. Descriptive statistics are further used to analyse learners’ results. The second research question was approached qualitatively, using semi-structured interviews with questions based on the analysis of the initial descriptive statistics.

3.3. Research design

The explanatory sequential research design is one of four major designs within the mixed-method approach. It follows up on initial quantitative results with qualitative data (Edmons & Kennedy, 2019).

The explanatory sequential design enables a researcher to expand on the initial quantitative results with qualitative data to explain phenomena further. The explanatory sequential design is a two-stage process that starts with collecting and analysing quantitative data. The second stage is when qualitative measures are implemented to expand on the findings of the initial quantitative stage.

This study focuses on the follow-up explanations model variant of the explanatory sequential design. This variant emphasises that the researcher identified aspects of the quantitative results that need further elaboration using qualitative methods.

Table 2: A table indicating the explanatory sequential design adapted from Creswell and Clark (2006)

Phase of research	**Tools, processes and actions**
Collect Quantitative Data	Quasi-experiment
Analyse Quantitative Data	DescriptivesStatistics
Summarise Results of the Quantitative Phase	
Identify quantitative findings that merit qualitative follow-ups	Significant/non-significant or outliers etc. in test results
Collect Qualitative Data	Semi-structured interviews
Analyse Qualitative Data	Group existing themes
Summarise Results of Qualitative Data	
Interpret both quantitative and qualitative results in conjunction	Discuss findings

Creswell and Clark (2006) propose the above process for follow-up explanation studies. The aim is to supplement quantitative findings with qualitative interpretations. Hence, the focus of the study is on quantitative methods, but I strive to supplement the quantitative results with qualitative explanations.

The first stage consists of a quasi-experiment to collect quantitative data and consists of steps 1 to 3. During this phase, the researcher collected quantitative data, analysed the data and summarised the findings.

The following occurred during steps 1 to 3 in my study. A reading test was conducted in two classes. One class's learners received a reading comprehension test, with standardised Grade 9 history texts, which allowed learners to read in English and answer in English. This group was labelled the Monolingual Group. Another class's learners received the same reading comprehension test, with the same history texts, which allowed them to read in English, but learners were allowed to answer the test in their home language. The second group was labelled the Translingual Group.

After learners wrote the first tests, the Multilingual Group received a reading intervention. The Monolingual Group received reading lessons without the teacher

making use of translingual pedagogy. The Multilingual Group received the same reading lessons but with translingual pedagogy. In other words, deliberate translingual reading activities were planned as a reading intervention for the Multilingual Group. The intervention consisted of four reading lessons, spanning over a week, with each lesson focussing on how to extract meaning from text, based on Barrett's taxonomy.

After learners received the intervention, learners wrote a post-test. The Monolingual Group wrote a reading comprehension post-test, in which they could only read the standardised history texts in English and answer in English. The Translingual Group wrote a reading comprehension post-test in which they could only read in English but respond in their home language.

After the pre-tests, intervention and post-tests, the reading comprehension papers were marked, and scores were compared. A summary of the quantitative data was thus made, concluding step 3 of this study's research design.

After the summary of quantitative data, a qualitative inquiry took place in the form of semi-structured interviews. After writing the findings of the quantitative phase, I selected three learners who reported that they were multilingual. Using semi-structured interviews, I asked them questions that related to their home languages and language orientation in general. I specifically asked questions about the literature in my literature review to conclude in the qualitative phase. The interviews lasted between 15 and 20 minutes each.

Steps 5 to 7 focused on placing the qualitative results into themes I identified in Chapter 4 of my study. After I conducted interviews with my participants, the findings were finally synthesised from the quantitative and qualitative approaches. In my synthesised discussion in Chapter 4, I use qualitative data to explain the quantitative results.

In summary, Grade 9 South African historical reading competence is determined by qualitative measures in the form of a pre-test and post-test, and the reasons for their reading competence are explained after an interview is conducted with Grade 9 learners.

3.4. Population

A population is the entire group of people that could be studied (Wilson & Joye, 2019). This study studied multilingualism amongst Grade 9 learners. Hence, the population was all multilingual Grade 9 learners in South Africa.

3.5. Sampling and sample

A sample is a part of the population which represents the entire population.

Intact sampling is a random sampling scheme in which a researcher selects a random group containing individuals that represent clusters of the group which is researched (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). Two intact groups were used in the form of classrooms from the same school as a sample, resulting in a non-equivalent sampling being implemented for the quantitative phase of the study. The class sizes amounted to 33 Grade 9 learners. The sample size was two classes, thus amounting to a total number of 66 participants. The sample was geographically located in Johannesburg, in the Gauteng province of South Africa.

This study used purposive sampling for the qualitative phase, using semi-structured interviews as the data collection tool. Purposive sampling is selecting participants based on a certain criterion of inclusion and exclusion (Daniel, 2012). In other words, participants possessed certain linguistic traits which enabled them to participate in the qualitative phase of the study.

Daniel (2012) emphasises that an important step in purposive sampling implementation is to set a criterion for the inclusion and exclusion of participants and to create a plan to recruit these various participants. Hence, participants were selected in the qualitative phase based on their language habits and multilingualism. Before the commencement of the reading test, participants completed a basic questionnaire with linguistic background regarding their foundation phase LoLT, their language habits at home and school environment, their achievement in their LoLT and their academic L2, their language preferences, their ability to speak, listen, read and write in their home language, and further language-related questions. Participants' test results were also

taken into consideration. Participants are regarded as bilingual if they speak one language at home that differs from the LoLT. Participants were regarded as multilingual if there were two or more different languages within their household.

3.6. Data collection tools

An experiment aims to isolate the cause of an event (Swain, 2017). Wilson and Joye (2019) further describe experimental research as manipulating participant experiences to observe an outcome.

The experimental design dictates a control group, phenomena in its natural setting, and a group(s) where variables are controlled. This control group provides the researcher with a baseline to compare the manipulated group (Wilson & Joye, 2019). The variable-controlled group is often given an intervention to minimise various factors and determine how a specific aspect affects an outcome. Determining that a specific intervention leads to a specific outcome alone is not sufficient. Still, it is cardinal to determine that a specific outcome has not been reached without the initial intervention.

A quasi-experiment was used during the quantitative phase of this study, followed by semi-structured interviews to elaborate on the findings of the quasi-experiment.

Experiments are used to test theory (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). This means that the results of this study should be linked with the seminal theories and the findings of other peer-reviewed studies to confirm or reject the effect of multilingualism on reading competence. These discussions and links will be found under the findings and discussions chapter at a later stage. However, this study did not make use of a true experiment. Instead, a quasi-experiment was used to collect the quantitative data.

A quasi-experiment is an experiment where the independent variable is manipulated, and participants are assigned to groups based on specific criteria (Chiang & Jhangiani, 2015). Its lack of randomly assigned participants further characterises it, and it usually occurs in a natural setting instead of a laboratory where all variables are controlled (Rogers & Révész, 2019).

3.7. Piloting the data collection tools

The quantitative and qualitative phases of this study were conducted during the piloting to refine the data collection tools. The piloting was done at a school near the school in which the final data collection took place. The quasi-experiment, that is the pre-test, intervention and post-test was piloted as well as semi-structured interviews with participants after the commencement of the tests. A total number of six students participated in the piloting of the study. I, therefore, focussed on the processes and specifically on the qualitative phase of the study, though I still made minor changes to the quantitative phase after the feedback I received from the participants in the pilot study.

3.7.1. The pre-tests and post-tests

Participants referred to certain questions which they found difficult or confusing to understand. The instructions for the specific questions were changed so that there could be more clarity for the participants regarding the questions.

3.7.2. The intervention

Participants were hesitant to use their home languages in the pilot intervention. Initially, I was not sure if it was because of a lack of language comprehension or a lack of confidence. I decided to change the first intervention class to something more engaging that provides learners with some freedom and confidence to express themselves in their home languages.

During the intervention, learners did not understand what it meant to make inferences after the lesson. I adjusted the instructional methods for the intervention that focussed on inferences with the aim of better exploring what inference-making entails.

The intervention was originally planned to be four days, however, after the piloting, I changed the reading intervention to seven school days. This gave learners more time to work slowly and accurately through the reading texts in time. Another reason is that the translingual group took much longer to complete the reading activities than the

monolingual group. To keep the sample group as close as possible to each other, the intervention had to be administered at the same pace.

3.7.3. The semi-structured interviews

During the semi-structured interviews, I found certain themes, such as where learners acquired their home languages and language migration, which I never anticipated in the initial study. As this was a study using the sequential-explanatory design, I adjusted some questions in the final study to probe more into the themes that unfolded during the pilot interviews.

I also did not consider learners' linguistic backgrounds when I initially interviewed them in the pilot study, which I changed during the study. This was because I interviewed a participant who has Swati parents but does not speak Swati himself. The questions about multilingualism seemed to have little relevance that pertains to the participant who reported that he only speaks English, albeit that he is from a Swati family. I, therefore, controlled for languages spoken at home and by parents when I conducted the semi-structured interviews as I wanted to capture how true bilinguals and multilinguals – as opposed to alienated home language users – reading comprehension is affected by multilingualism.

3.8. Data collection processes

The study consisted of two intact groups. A control group and an experimental group. The independent variable is access to multilingualism, and the dependent variable is reading competence.

The control group was given an English history pre-test, post-test, and monolingual English intervention, and answers were only accepted in English. Thus, the input and output of the test will be monolingual. The experimental group received the same pre-test and post-test as the control group but with a multilingual intervention. Participants in the experimental group were allowed to answer the text in their home language. Therefore, the input and output language differ, rendering it a translanguaging intervention.

The manipulated variable encouraged access to multilingualism in the experimental group, whereas, in the control group, participants were only allowed to use English. Although language access cannot be restricted, the tests and interventions in its design and instruction overtly advocated using the experimental group participants' linguistic repertoire.

The semi-structured interview is a series of open and closed-ended questions that enable a researcher to investigate how and why questions further (Adams, 2015). A semi-structured interview is further described as a planned set of questions relating to a study's research questions, theoretical framework, and theory, allowing a researcher to probe into further detail with unplanned follow-up questions when unexpected responses are collected (Durdella, 2015).

The literature is filled with Western, Eastern and Middle Eastern perspectives on the threshold hypothesis and multilingualism, but it is limited within the African context. The quasi-experiment, therefore, validates or denies the threshold hypothesis in an African context, and through further qualitative enquiry, the researcher expands on empirical evidence.

Although this study was set out to test a hypothesis, it gained deeper insight into the underlying factors of the hypothesis, which was enhanced through qualitative measures.

3.9. Data analysis

The researcher measured descriptive statistics using SPSS to compare the effect of multilingualism on reading competence. T-tests were conducted to determine whether the difference between monolingual and multilingual groups was significant. If a difference was significant, a Cohens *d* was calculated to establish whether the difference was big, small or large. Translanguaging, the Threshold Hypothesis and the Ecology of Bilingualism are discussed concerning the study's findings.

Semi-structured interviews will be used to collect further data to elaborate on the initial findings of the quasi-experiment. Relevant closed-ended questions were asked to participants, and the results were reported numerically. Responses to open-ended questions were allocated to themes relating to the threshold hypothesis, translanguaging and the ecology of bilingualism.

3.10. Data management and storage

Data will be kept safely and with limited access, on the University of Pretoria's campus. This data will be safely kept until the year 2029.

3.11. Internal and external validity

Confounding variables is the biggest internal validity challenge relating to quasi-experiments. The best way to control for confounding variables is to limit the diversity within the group by screening participants before conducting the quasi-experiment. The criteria that were used for grouping participants are mentioned under data collection and tool and are in line with the following:

- Language level based on prior LoLT language and first additional language achievement.
- Home language(s) and frequency of spoken language(s).
- Number of years in a school where English is the dominant and only LoLT.
- LoLT during the foundation phase and the intermediate phase.

To ensure further internal validity, the two intact groups were selected with characteristics as close as possible to one another. Both groups attended the same school and received language and history education from the same teachers during the academic year 2024.

Generalisability is the biggest concern relating to external validity. The study is conducted so that the findings can be of value and generalisable across time and space and on different yet similar populations to have external validity (Gopalan et al., 2020).

3.12. Validity and reliability

3.12.1. Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which the data collection tool measures the targeted phenomena accurately (Heale & Twycross, 2015). In my study, the quasi-experiment tool is thus the data collection tool that merits a discussion surrounding validity.

I will discuss content validity with regard to the quantitative research instrument I used to collect data in my study. Content validity is mainly concerned with the research instruments' coverage of the researched aspect (Heale & Twycross, 2015). To demonstrate this, I can practically apply it to my study by asking a simple question: Does the quasi-experiment measure reading comprehension and does the quasi-experiment provide insight into how bilingualism and multilingualism affect reading comprehension on a Grade 9 level?

I have concluded that the quasi-experiment effectively covers reading comprehension and a large part of multilingualism. Firstly, there is no doubt that the quasi-experiment measures reading comprehension effectively. The research question of "What are the levels of Grade 9 reading comprehension?" is thus effectively addressed by this tool. Secondly, the second research question of "How does multilingualism affect reading comprehension?" could be answered to an extent with this tool. The reading texts that the translingual group received were in English but the answers were in their home languages. Thus, the output of multilingual thinking and writing was measured in conjunction with the process of translingual reading in the pre-test and post-test. The baseline levels of home language competence could be captured by this research instrument, enabling me to establish what linguistic threshold levels Grade 9 learners have obtained in accordance with Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis. I could have strengthened my assessment of home language competencies by providing learners with a home language text to read as well, however, I considered that learners studied in English as the LoLT and I wanted to establish how multilingualism could affect learners in English LoLT schools. This was the reason for providing both groups with English texts. This further enabled me to truly capture how translingual pedagogical

practice affects learners' reading competence and if it is something that can be implemented in secondary schools to the benefit of learners. Further, the qualitative instrument aided me in alleviating the shortcomings of not having a translated text. After all, if I had a translated text in the quasi-experiment, I would not have tested translingual reading, but rather home language reading.

In terms of construct validity, I used Barrett's taxonomy to measure the various levels of reading competence amongst Grade 9 learners. This robust reading taxonomy has been explained in the literature review. The taxonomy breaks down reading comprehension into five different levels and the research instruments, in both the tests and the intervention, address Barrett's taxonomy. The pre-tests and the post-tests have been set with questions in accordance with Barrett's taxonomy. The intervention addressed reading skills associated with Barrett's taxonomy. I further used Barrett's taxonomy in the design of the pre-test and the post-test, as well as the translingual intervention to study the effect of multilingualism on these various reading comprehension competencies.

3.12.2. Reliability

If a data collection instrument can be used in different contexts and consistently deliver the same results, it is considered reliable (Heale & Twycross, 2015). In terms of the quantitative methods, it is difficult to pinpoint exactly how reliable the instrument was. The pilot test gave some insight, albeit with a small sample into whether the instrument would deliver similar results as the results of the quasi-experiment were similar to the pilot. In terms of the qualitative methods, the interviews were conducted via a recorded phone call and participants were all under the same conditions during the interview.

3.13. Trustworthiness

3.13.1. Credibility

Creditability is whether the qualitative findings are presented truthfully and originate from the data that was collected (Megheirkouni & Moir, 2023). Credibility further refers

to how congruent the findings of qualitative data are (Stahl & King, 2020). This means that correspondents' ideas should have a relationship with each other grounded in similar ideas. Lincoln and Guba (1985), with their seminal view on this matter, state that credibility finally refers to whether the truth within the data was captured and portrayed.

Therefore, in this study, I only reported qualitative findings if there was a relationship between correspondents' responses. In other words, similar responses to the same or similar questions were recorded, analysed and then presented. Anecdotes and experiences with little connotations to the other participants' responses have not been recorded in an attempt to limit the presentation of findings that either do not exist or vaguely exist. In summary, two or more participants had to report the same or similar experiences before I deemed the experiences as presentable and credible data.

3.13.2. Transferability

Transferability means that phenomena can be observed within various contexts (Lincoln & Gaba, 1985; Stahl & King, 2020). In my study, transferability means that the same ideas relating to languages will be found among participants, leading to the reading comprehension scores reported in Chapter 4.

The transferability of the qualitative phase of my study is limited. A reason for this is that the quantitative phase, in accordance with the explanatory-sequential design, was meant to explain my study's quantitative findings. Another reason for the lower transferability of my qualitative findings is that the number of participants that I interviewed was low. It could be that I have obtained an incomplete view of how multilingualism affects reading comprehension in general, even if I obtained a complete view of how multilingualism affects reading comprehension in my study, among my participants.

3.13.3. Dependability

Researchers are described as "producers and consumers" within their own study (Stahl & King, 2020). Researchers are immersed in their study and data and thus have

a bias. This bias is called “bracketing” (Stahl & King, 2020). The immersion of the researcher is not an undesirable event, as it is expected that the researcher can extract the phenomena and group it effectively in the presentation of findings. This immersion aids a researcher in understanding the phenomena, however, a researcher can misinterpret findings. It is therefore important for a study to be reviewed by peers who concur with the findings of the qualitative data. This study does not have a co-author, however, a research supervisor. The research supervisor read the study, including the qualitative findings, before it was made public.

3.13.4. Confirmability

Confirmability is also referred to as neutrality (Ul Haq et al., 2023). Though scholars argue that the researcher is immersed in data, an attempt should be made not to be overly biased. It is possible that a researcher can find something that does not exist and thus construct findings far removed from reality (Mekheirkouni & Moir, 2023).

In this study, I ensured confirmability by adding quotes from my participants. I ensured that the reader saw the phenomena unfold as I did during the qualitative phase of my study. As was the case with credibility, for most parts of the qualitative presentations, I drew from the perspectives of multiple participants and provided quotes to ensure confirmability.

3.14. Ethical considerations

Permission was asked to use a Gauteng Department of Education school as a research site from the Department of Education as well as the principal or managing body of the school before the data collection. All potential participants are minors; their assent and parents’ consent were requested to participate in the study. The test results are kept confidential and stored safely and securely. All other digital information is kept safely on a password-encrypted laptop and tablet. Furthermore, POPIA consent was asked to ensure that the study complies with legal requirements concerning personal information. The proposal for the study underwent investigation by the ethical committee at the University of Pretoria, which has deemed the study to be ethical.

Lastly, the control group were given the same intervention as the experimental group, so the two groups remained as homogenous as I found them.

3.15. Delimitations

The size of the quasi-experiment was small. This means that results are less generalisable because of the smaller sample size. The smaller sample size is due to a limited researcher budget and time. The study's strength lies within the second phase, the qualitative approach, where deeper inquiry could be made into how multilingualism affected participants. Generalisability would also be restricted to urban areas because the research site is Gauteng. Further reasoning is that Gauteng has an immensely diverse population compared to rural areas, which are less linguistically diverse because of smaller populations. The vastly diverse population brings challenges with regard to test marking. The researcher would need competent markers to assist in making sense of test responses in languages the researcher does not understand.

3.16. Chapter summary

This chapter describes the methodological approach to the study. In conclusion, I used a pragmatist approach to this study because it is the most effective way to capture reading competence quantitatively. The effect of multilingualism can be captured quantitatively – however, qualitative measures provided possible reasons for bilinguals' and multilinguals' reading competence levels. The mixed-method approach was implemented to probe into how multilingualism shapes the ideas of Grade 9 readers and how it affects their competence. The population in the study was multilingual in urban areas in South Africa, and I explained that my sample was taken in Johannesburg, South Africa. Lastly, following a semi-structured interview, I used a quasi-experiment in line with the sequential explanatory research design. I explain the matters of internal and external validity as well as the ethical considerations and limitations of my study in the concluding phases of this chapter.

4. CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

As this chapter progresses, I will further unpack the findings of reading competence amongst Grade 9 students, moving from the general to the more specific. I will present the findings of the quantitative phase first in my findings followed by the qualitative findings.

Two groups wrote a pre-test, received an intervention, and wrote a post-test. The tests for both groups were identical, with the only difference being the language in which they were allowed to answer these tests.

The first group was the monolingual group. This group consisted of 33 learners who received English reading comprehension tests and were required to answer the test in English.

The second group was the multilingual group. This group consisted of 33 learners who received English reading comprehension tests and were required to answer the test in their home languages. This group also received a translingual reading intervention.

The results that follow are both groups' reading language competence. I end this chapter with a discussion of what the results mean and how they relate to the threshold hypothesis.

The quantitative results indicate that Grade 9 learners understand around half of their reading. The results further provide us with the details of reading competencies per Barrett's taxonomy. Learners seem like strong readers at the lower end of Barrett's taxonomy but need to be stronger readers towards the higher end of Barrett's taxonomy. The quantitative results further show that translanguaging and translingual reading may benefit bilinguals and fewer multilinguals. As the quantitative data unfolds, it becomes clear that learners are also not proficient in their home languages, leading to semilingualism in South African readers.

The qualitative phase is divided into two parts. A summary of learner responses regarding a theme, followed by the quotes supporting the summary: Learners find their home languages difficult and irrelevant. Their attitudes towards their home language suggest they are used privately and with their families. English is perceived as the language of prestige and access.

The themes of language migration and its effect on language proficiency also surface, as how learners are informally taught how to read and write in their home languages.

4.2. Grade 9 learners understand half of what they read, and translanguaging improves learners' reading competence

Grade 9 learners in the monolingual group understand around half of what they read. The concern is that Grade 9 learners do not understand the other half of the text. Multilingual and bilinguals, before the intervention, comprehended less text than monolingual readers, understanding only 32.38% of what they were reading. It is worth noting that the pre-test is statistically significant. Therefore, there is a language comprehension gap between English and home language competence, with English competence far superior to home language competence.

Contrasting the pre-test results, the multilingual group comprehended more or less the same amount of text in the post-test as the monolingual group after the translingual reading comprehension intervention. These findings are similar to the ANA conducted in 2014, which found Grade 9 learners' reading comprehension competence at an average of 47.9%.

The statistically significant difference in mean scores indicates a big gap between learner reading comprehension when learners answer reading comprehension in their home languages. Cohen's d test further suggests that the difference between the monolingual and the multilingual group is significant, with the effect size being a high figure of 1.202. This implies that learners may not be as literate in their home language as English. Hence, it is plausible to assume that a gap exists between Grade 9 learners' home languages and Grade 9 learners' English competence. Understanding half of a text can be classified as poor reading comprehension levels. As a result, the hovering question is, why do Grade 9 learners only understand half of what they are reading? Moreover, why does the translingual group improve and the monolingual group not? I will probe into these questions during the qualitative phase of my study to find factors that could explain the phenomena.

Table 2: Monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 overall reading competence score

Group Statistics

	Control and Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-Test Total	Monolingual Group	33	50,0018	14,82690	2,58103
	Translingual Group	33	32,3894	14,48649	2,52177
Post-Test Total	Monolingual Group	33	53,3273	16,97379	2,95476
	Translingual Group	33	46,7642	22,25217	3,87360

Table 3: Independent sample tests for monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 overall reading scores

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
						Significance				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	Df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Total	Equal variances assumed	,472	,494	4,881	64	<,001	<,001	17,61242	3,60847	10,40367	24,82118
	Equal variances not assumed			4,881	63,966	<,001	<,001	17,61242	3,60847	10,40360	24,82125
Post-Test Total	Equal variances assumed	2,557	,115	1,347	64	,091	,183	6,56303	4,87190	-3,16971	16,29577
	Equal variances not assumed			1,347	59,820	,092	,183	6,56303	4,87190	-3,18282	16,30888

Table 4: Independent sample effect sizes for monolingual and multilingual groups for Grade 9 overall reading competence score

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardise	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Total	Cohen's d	14,65768	1,202	,672	1,723
	Hedges' correction	14,83230	1,187	,664	1,703
	Glass's delta	14,48649	1,216	,642	1,775
Post-Test Total	Cohen's d	19,78975	,332	–,156	,816
	Hedges' correction	20,02550	,328	–,154	,807
	Glass's delta	22,25217	,295	–,195	,781

a. The denominator is used to estimate the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

A *t* of 4.881 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers regarding reading competency is statistically significant at the 0.001 level.

However, a *t* of 1.347 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers concerning reading competency is statistically insignificant at the .183 level.

4.3. Reading competence levels according to Barrett's taxonomy: Learners can extract explicit meaning from a text, but making implicit meaning remains challenging

Unlike the general reading results of the South African reading standard, which I presented during the introductory phases of this study, I will continue to look at learners' reading competencies following Barrett's taxonomy.

Simply stating that Grade 9 learners only understand half of what they read is insufficient. Reading is an intricate and layered skill, existing from multiple categories and competencies. I, therefore, will present Grade 9 learners' reading competencies according to Barrett's taxonomy.

Barrett's taxonomy is based on the cognitive demands and level of challenge. The first reading competence is the least challenging, and the last most challenging – the results concord with this statement. As a result, readers show that they have an excellent explicit understanding of texts. Still, albeit with a good understanding of explicit meaning, more experience is needed to extract implicit information from a text.

4.3.1. Literal reading comprehension

Learners could extract explicit information directly from a text with 69.10% accuracy, whereas the multilingual group could only extract 50.91% of what they read. Another way to look at it is that monolingual learners must comprehend around 30% of the text. A statistically significant difference in mean scores in the pre-test indicates a difference between the monolingual and translingual groups. Cohen's *d* of 0.830 indicates a medium difference between the two groups, with the monolingual group being able to extract explicit information from texts compared to the translingual group not being able to extract explicit information from texts effectively.

Table 5: Monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 literal comprehension reading competency scores

Group Statistics

		Control and Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-Test Competence	Literal	Monolingual Group	33	69,0909	19,58374	3,40909
		Translingual Group	33	50,9091	24,02650	4,18248
Post-Test Competence	Literal	Monolingual Group	33	69,6988	20,41269	3,55339
		Translingual Group	33	60,9109	24,13143	4,20074

Table 6: Independent sample tests for monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 literal competence reading scores

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
						Significance				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Literal Competence	Equal variances assumed	1,786	,186	3,370	64	<,001	,001	18,18182	5,39583	7,40240	28,96123
	Equal variances not assumed			3,370	61,499	<,001	,001	18,18182	5,39583	7,39395	28,96968
Post-Test Literal Competence	Equal variances assumed	1,218	,274	1,597	64	,058	,115	8,78788	5,50208	-2,20378	19,77954
	Equal variances not assumed			1,597	62,287	,058	,115	8,78788	5,50208	-2,20960	19,78536

Table 7: Independent sample effect sizes for monolingual and multilingual groups for Grade 9 literal reading competence score

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

			Standardise	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Competence	Literal	Cohen's d	21,91798	,830	,323	1,330
		Hedges' correction	22,17908	,820	,319	1,314
		Glass's delta	24,02650	,757	,235	1,268
Post-Test Competence	Literal	Cohen's d	22,34954	,393	–,096	,879
		Hedges' correction	22,61578	,389	–,094	,869
		Glass's delta	24,13143	,364	–,129	,852

a. The denominator is used to estimate the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

A *t* of 3.370 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers while conducting a pre-test regarding literal reading competency is statistically significant at the 0.001 level.

However, a *t* of 1.597 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers regarding literal reading competency is statistically insignificant at the .058 level.

4.3.2. **Reorganisational reading competence**

The mean score difference of reorganisation is quite significant, with a medium effect size of Cohen's *d* of 0.851. There is, thus, a noteworthy difference between the two groups in the pre-test. In the pre-test, the monolingual group scored 61.36% and is thus able to reorganise most of the text. The pre-test reorganisation indicates that learners with access to their home language during reading assessments score much lower at a mean score of 39.39%. However, these statistics changed after the translingual group received a translingual reading comprehension competence intervention. The multilingual group's mean score improved from 36.36 to 46.29 and was no longer statistically significant compared to the monolingual group's mean score of 58.03. Surprisingly, while the multilingual group improved their reorganisational reading competence score, the monolingual group showed regression. The conclusion that can be drawn from this is that the post-test could have had more challenging reorganisational test items, and the multilingual were able to better deal with these more complex items. Still, a mean comprehension of 46.29% seems like it could be more appealing regarding reading comprehension. Therefore, even though a multilingual intervention significantly improved their reading competencies, multilingual learners find it difficult to process and extract essential information by reorganising content.

Table 8: Monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 Organisational Comprehension Reading Competency scores

Group Statistics

	Control and Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-Test Organisation Competence	Monolingual Group	33	61,3636	23,46116	4,08406
	Translingual Group	33	39,3939	25,79237	4,48987
Post-Test Organisation Competence	Monolingual Group	33	58,0303	26,24075	4,56793
	Translingual Group	33	46,2879	26,80311	4,66582

Table 9: Independent sample tests for monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 organisational competence reading scores

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
						Significance				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Organisation Competence	Equal variances assumed	1,023	,316	3,620	64	<,001	<,001	21,96970	6,06948	9,84452	34,09487
	Equal variances not assumed			3,620	63,434	<,001	<,001	21,96970	6,06948	9,84244	34,09696
Post-Test Organisation Competence	Equal variances assumed	,066	,798	1,798	64	,038	,077	11,74242	6,52962	-1,30198	24,78683
	Equal variances not assumed			1,798	63,971	,038	,077	11,74242	6,52962	-1,30209	24,78694

Table 10: Independent sample effect sizes for monolingual and multilingual groups for Grade 9 organisational reading competence score

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardis e er[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Organisation Competence	Cohen's d	24,65433	,891	,381	1,394
	Hedges' correction	24,94803	,881	,377	1,378
	Glass's delta	25,79237	,852	,321	1,372
Post-Test Organisation Competence	Cohen's d	26,52342	,443	–,048	,930
	Hedges' correction	26,83939	,438	–,047	,919
	Glass's delta	26,80311	,438	–,059	,929

a. The denominator is used to estimate the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

A *t* of 3.620 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers while conducting a pre-test regarding reorganisational reading competency is statistically significant at the 0.001 level.

However, a *t* of 1.798 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers regarding reorganisational reading competency is statistically insignificant at the .077 level.

4.3.3. Inferential reading competence

There is a statistically significant difference between the monolingual and translingual groups. The monolingual group has a low level of inferring. The monolingual group could only infer 32% correctly during the pre-test. The translingual groups' inferential competency was even lower during the pre-test. Translingual readers could answer 18% of the inference-based questions on the test. Cohen's *d* score is .838 for the pre-test difference in mean scores, which means there is a medium difference between the groups. At the baseline level, monolingual learners can infer better than translingual learners.

The post-test presents contrasting results. The monolingual group's post-test inferential reading competence score was 42.93%, and the translingual group scored a similar mean score of 41.91%. The post-tests are no longer statistically significant, meaning a translingual reading intervention improves multilinguals' ability to infer texts.

Monolinguals and multilinguals could not infer at the baseline levels. Grade 9 history readers thus need better inferential capabilities. The learners who participated in the translingual test showed lower inferential capabilities. After the intervention, both the translingual and monolingual groups improved their inferential capabilities. The fascinating result of this comparison was that the translingual and monolingual groups had the same score. This means that translingual reading intervention improves multilingual student inferential competency. The only difference between the translingual group and the monolingual group was the language of intervention. This indicates that home language access essentially improves inferential capability.

Table 11: Monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 inferential comprehension reading competency scores

Group Statistics

	Control and Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-Test Inferential Competence	Monolingual Group	33	31,5927	19,14632	3,33295
	Translingual Group	33	17,7497	13,37740	2,32871
Post-Test Inferential Competence	Monolingual Group	33	42,9285	20,42603	3,55572
	Translingual Group	33	41,9082	28,60344	4,97922

Table 12: Independent sample tests for monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 inferential competence reading scores

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
						Significance				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Inferential Competence	Equal variances assumed	,595	,443	3,405	64	<,001	,001	13,84303	4,06588	5,72049	21,96557
	Equal variances not assumed			3,405	57,230	<,001	,001	13,84303	4,06588	5,70195	21,98411
Post-Test Inferential Competence	Equal variances assumed	4,202	,044	,167	64	,434	,868	1,02030	6,11848	-11,20276	13,24336
	Equal variances not assumed			,167	57,901	,434	,868	1,02030	6,11848	-11,22760	13,26821

Table 13: Independent sample effect sizes for monolingual and multilingual groups for Grade 9 inferential reading competence score

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Inferential Competence	Cohen's d	16,51570	,838	,331	1,339
	Hedges' correction	16,71244	,828	,327	1,323
	Glass's delta	13,37740	1,035	,484	1,573
Post-Test Inferential Competence	Cohen's d	24,85337	,041	–,442	,523
	Hedges' correction	25,14944	,041	–,436	,517
	Glass's delta	28,60344	,036	–,447	,518

a. The denominator is used to estimate the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

A *t* of 3.405 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers while conducting a pre-test regarding literal reading competency is statistically significant at the 0.001 level.

However, a *t* of 0.167 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers regarding literal reading competency is statistically insignificant at the .868 level.

4.3.4. Evaluative reading competence

After analysing the statistics relating to evaluative reading, it can be confidently stated that learners' evaluative skills are underdeveloped and that Grade 9 learners cannot evaluate text effectively.

The monolingual group achieved a mean score of 42.86% with the evaluative test items in the pre-test. The multilingual group scored a mean of 19.43% in the pre-test. The statistically significant difference in mean score indicates that learners who do not have access to their home language at baseline levels can better evaluate text than learners who have access to their home language during reading comprehension assessment. Cohen's *d* 1.166 indicates that there was a large difference in means between the monolingual and translingual groups. This means the monolingual group could evaluate text significantly better than multilingual groups. However, this changes after a translingual reading comprehension assessment. The monolingual group's reading comprehension level barely improved in contrast with the stark difference of the translingual group, which scored a mean of 32.54% after a translingual intervention.

Table 14: Monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 evaluative comprehension reading competency scores

Group Statistics

	Control and Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-Test Evaluate Competence	Monolingual Group	33	42,8582	23,95705	4,17039
	Translingual Group	33	19,4264	15,29472	2,66247
Post-Test Evaluate Competence	Monolingual Group	33	43,3333	22,45366	3,90868
	Translingual Group	33	32,5455	25,47191	4,43409

Table 15: Independent sample tests for monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 evaluative competence reading scores

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
						Significance				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Evaluate Competence	Equal variances assumed	4,234	,044	4,736	64	<,001	<,001	23,43182	4,94781	13,54742	33,31621
	Equal variances not assumed			4,736	54,369	<,001	<,001	23,43182	4,94781	13,51359	33,35005
Post-Test Evaluate Competence	Equal variances assumed	1,072	,304	1,825	64	,036	,073	10,78788	5,91092	-1,02053	22,59629
	Equal variances not assumed			1,825	63,008	,036	,073	10,78788	5,91092	-1,02412	22,59987

Table 16: Independent sample effect sizes for monolingual and multilingual groups for Grade 9 evaluative reading competence score

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

			Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Competence	Evaluate	Cohen's d	20,09812	1,166	,639	1,685
		Hedges' correction	20,33754	1,152	,632	1,665
		Glass's delta	15,29472	1,532	,914	2,135
Post-Test Competence	Evaluate	Cohen's d	24,01026	,449	–,041	,936
		Hedges' correction	24,29628	,444	–,041	,925
		Glass's delta	25,47191	,424	–,073	,914

a. The denominator is used to estimate the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation plus a correction factor.
Glass's'delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

A *t* of 4.736 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers while conducting a pre-test regarding evaluative reading competency is statistically significant at the 0.001 level.

However, a *t* of 1.825 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers regarding evaluative reading competency is statistically insignificant at the .073 level.

4.3.5. Appreciation as a reading competence

The two mean scores are similar and statistically insignificant. The monolingual group achieved a mean of 35.61% with the appreciation test items, and the multilingual group scored 23.61% with the appreciation test items. Because these mean scores are not statistically significant, the means are closer to each other than the raw mean score may suggest. This indicates that neither the monolingual nor the translingual participants can appreciate texts. The post-test results portray similar results. Monolingual learners regressed, and multilingual learners showed no signs of significant progression. The statistically insignificant results

indicate that a translingual reading intervention does not contribute to the appreciation of reading competence level.

Table 17: Monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 appreciative comprehension reading competency scores

Group Statistics

	Control and Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-Test Appreciate Competence	Monolingual Group	33	35,6061	25,02366	4,35606
	Translingual Group	33	23,6061	28,50542	4,96216
Post-Test Appreciate Competence	Monolingual Group	33	32,5758	27,58853	4,80255
	Translingual Group	33	26,5152	27,90847	4,85824

Table 18: Independent sample tests for monolingual and multilingual Grade 9 evaluative competence reading scores

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
						Significance				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Appreciate Competence	Equal variances assumed	,338	,563	1,817	64	,037	,074	12,00000	6,60290	-1,19080	25,19080
	Equal variances not assumed			1,817	62,944	,037	,074	12,00000	6,60290	-1,19507	25,19507
Post-Test Appreciate Competence	Equal variances assumed	,574	,451	,887	64	,189	,378	6,06061	6,83132	-7,58653	19,70774
	Equal variances not assumed			,887	63,991	,189	,378	6,06061	6,83132	-7,58656	19,70777

Table 19: Independent sample effect sizes for monolingual and multilingual groups for Grade 9 appreciative reading competence score

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Appreciate Competence	Cohen's d	26,82110	,447	–,043	,934
	Hedges' correction	27,14061	,442	–,042	,923
	Glass's delta	28,50542	,421	–,075	,911
Post-Test Appreciate Competence	Cohen's d	27,74896	,218	–,266	,702
	Hedges' correction	28,07952	,216	–,263	,693
	Glass's delta	27,90847	,217	–,270	,701

a. The denominator is used to estimate the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

A *t* of 1.817 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers while conducting a pre-test regarding appreciative reading competency is statistically insignificant at the 0.74 level.

Further, a *t* of 0.887 with 64 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between monolingual and multilingual readers concerning appreciative reading competency is statistically insignificant at the 0.378 level.

4.4. Bilinguals comprehend text better than multilingual

My study differentiates between bilinguals and multilinguals. I classified bilinguals as learners who speak one home language that differs from the language of learning and teaching (LoLT). For example, a learner's guardians are all Zulu, but the learner attends school in English. This was the criteria to classify a learner as bilingual. A multilingual learner is a learner who lives in a household that speaks multiple languages. The multilingual guardians will speak two languages, such as Zulu and Setswana, and the learner will attend school in a different LoLT than both home languages.

4.4.1. Bilinguals comprehend text significantly better after translanguaging

Bilinguals who participated in the monolingual reading test achieved a mean score of 48.79%, and bilinguals in the post-test achieved a mean score of 32.82%. The statistically significant result, combined with a Cohen's *d* score of 1.381, suggests a big difference between monolinguals and translingual groups during the pre-test.

Bilinguals in the monolingual group scored a mean of 53.27%, and bilinguals in the translingual group scored a similar mean of 52.95%. This shows a massive improvement in bilingual reader comprehension after a translingual intervention. Because the difference in the pre-test between bilinguals and the monolingual and translingual groups is significant and insignificant in the post-test, it can be comfortably stated that bilinguals mainly improved due to reading comprehension.

Table 20: Bilinguals' reading comprehension in the monolingual and multilingual group

Group Statistics

	Monolingual or Multilingual	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test Total	Bilinguals in Monolingual Group	18	48,7861	11,10459	2,61738
	Bilinguals in Translingual Group	12	32,8158	12,24843	3,53582
Post-test Total	Bilinguals in Monolingual Group	18	53,2656	17,84582	4,20630
	Bilinguals in Translingual Group	12	52,9492	20,18997	5,82834

Table 21: Independent sample tests between bilinguals in the monolingual and multilingual group

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
						Significance				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-test Total	Equal variances assumed	,188	,668	3,705	28	<,001	<,001	15,97028	4,31094	7,13972	24,80083
	Equal variances not assumed			3,630	22,070	<,001	,001	15,97028	4,39917	6,84864	25,09191
Post-test Total	Equal variances assumed	,034	,855	,045	28	,482	,964	,31639	7,00695	-14,03670	14,66948
	Equal variances not assumed			,044	21,644	,483	,965	,31639	7,18767	-14,60417	15,23694

Table 22: Independent samples effect sizes to measure the size difference between bilinguals in the monolingual and multilingual group

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Pre-test Total	Cohen's d	11,56746	1,381	,556	2,185
	Hedges' correction	11,88927	1,343	,541	2,126
	Glass's delta	12,24843	1,304	,378	2,192
Post-test Total	Cohen's d	18,80163	,017	–,714	,747
	Hedges' correction	19,32470	,016	–,694	,727
	Glass's delta	20,18997	,016	–,715	,746

a. The denominator is used to estimate the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

After conducting a pre-test, a *t* of 3.705 with 28 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between bilingual readers in monolingual and translingual groups regarding reading competency is statistically insignificant at the 0.001 overall reading comprehension competence level.

Further, a *t* of 0.045 with 28 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between bilingual and multilingual readers with regards to reading competency, after conducting a post-test, is statistically insignificant at the 0.482 overall reading comprehension competence level.

4.4.2. Multilinguals comprehend text better after a translingual reading comprehension, but their comprehension level still needs to improve in the translingual group

Multilinguals who participated in the monolingual reading test achieved a mean score of 51.57%, and multilinguals in the post-test achieved a mean score of 30.86%. The statistically significant result, combined with a Cohen's *d* score of 1.260, suggests a big difference between the monolingual group and the translingual group during the pre-test.

Multilinguals in the monolingual group scored a mean of 54.50%, and bilinguals in the translingual group scored a mean of 41.58%. This shows some improvement in multilingual reader comprehension after a translingual intervention. Because the difference in the pre-test between bilinguals and the monolingual and translingual groups is significant and insignificant in the post-test, it can be concluded that multilinguals notably improved because of the reading comprehension intervention.

Multilinguals in the post-test, unlike bilinguals, still could not read with comprehension.

Table 23: Multilinguals' reading comprehension in the monolingual and multilingual group

Group Statistics

	Monolingual or Multilingual	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test Total	Multilingual in Monolingual Group	12	51,5650	17,24428	4,97799
	Multilingual in Translingual Group	17	30,8853	15,81501	3,83570
Post-test Total	Multilinguals in Monolingual Group	12	54,4967	12,25063	3,53645
	Multilinguals in Translingual Group	17	41,5782	21,56635	5,23061

Table 24: Independent sample tests between multilinguals in the monolingual and multilingual group

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
						Significance				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-test Total	Equal variances assumed	,243	,626	3,342	27	,001	,002	20,67971	6,18806	7,98286	33,37655
	Equal variances not assumed			3,291	22,489	,002	,003	20,67971	6,28435	7,66318	33,69623
Post-test Total	Equal variances assumed	4,128	,052	1,867	27	,036	,073	12,91843	6,91904	-1,27826	27,11512
	Equal variances not assumed			2,046	26,053	,025	,051	12,91843	6,31393	–,05877	25,89563

Table 25: Independent samples effect sizes to measure the size difference between multilinguals in the monolingual and multilingual group

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Pre-test Total	Cohen's d	16,41234	1,260	,439	2,061
	Hedges' correction	16,88653	1,225	,427	2,004
	Glass's delta	15,81501	1,308	,428	2,158
Post-test Total	Cohen's d	18,35108	,704	–,064	1,460
	Hedges' correction	18,88129	,684	–,063	1,419
	Glass's delta	21,56635	,599	–,177	1,358

a. The denominator is used to estimate the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

After conducting a pre-test, a *t* of 3.342 with 27 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between multilingual readers in monolingual and translingual groups, with regards to reading competency, is statistically insignificant at the 0.073 overall reading comprehension competence level.

Further, a *t* of 1.867 with 27 degrees of freedom indicates that the mean difference between bilingual and multilingual readers with regards to reading competency, after conducting a post-test, is statistically insignificant at the 0.482 overall reading comprehension competence level.

4.5. Linguistic confusion because of migration

The interviewed participants moved from areas outside of Gauteng to Gauteng. The participants all reported having access to home language education in the less developed, rural areas; however, they moved to an English school when they migrated to Johannesburg.

> Participant 1*: "Before I came to Gauteng, I came to a school in KZN, and that is where I learned how to write in Zulu."*
>
> Participant 2: *"We needed to speak in isiZulu (in KZN) because there was no other language."*
>
> *Participant 2: '(but) my crèche teachers (taught me Zulu) when we moved to this side (Gauteng) because there were some schools … like I used to go to the creche in Thembisa as well, so we did not like use English all the time, we used like isiZulu sometimes… yes."*
>
> Participant 3: (speaking of when his father moved around for work) "*When I used to go to an Afrikaans school, it was hard for me because I did not understand in Afrikaans as much as I understand in English, and I went to an English school when I came back (to Johannesburg)."*

Migration takes place because of better financial opportunities. Participant 1 described how those better jobs led to their migration, and Participant 2 explained that his father moved around a lot because of work. Unfortunately, a question that could not be accurately answered is, does the view of English education and better financial opportunity for learners' parents lead to better attitudes towards English as a LoLT? There could be a chance for learners to think that English is superior due to the work opportunities their parents received in the urban and developed areas.

> Participant 1: "*My parents decided to come this side (to Gauteng) thanks to the better jobs. So, I came to this side and started to learn in English.'*
>
> Participant 3: "*My father used to go away for work*."
>
> Participant 3: "*I was born in Johannesburg, but I moved from Johannesburg to Mooi Nooi to Plett(enberg Bay), to Rustenburg – I moved a lot."*

Further, learners engage in an early form of translanguaging or language brokering if one considers Participant 2's experience of code-switching between Zulu and English in a township creche on the outskirts of Johannesburg. This phenomenon could occur when learners migrate from one linguistic region to another.

> Participant 2: *"(but) my crèche teachers (taught me Zulu) when we moved to this side (Gauteng) because there were some schools … like I used to go to the creche in Thembisa as well, so we did not like use English all the time, we used like isiZulu sometimes… yes."*

4.6. Power of home languages in different spaces

Learners perceive their home language as spoken in their private lives and English as the academic language. Learners do not regard their home languages as an academic language. They differentiate between their home language as a language for families and personal spaces and English as a language they use for academic purposes. Participant 1 said that their household does not speak English at home. However, when they are in public places, they speak English. Participant 2 views English as an academic language and places herself in English mode when she finds herself at school. She implies that she switches between the school language and the home language. Participant 3 states that he speaks English and Afrikaans at home. During the interview with Participant 3, it became clear that he is from a bilingual family – his mother's side of the family is English, and his father's side of the family is Afrikaans. He thus speaks English and Afrikaans with his family, but exclusively English in public places.

> Participant 1: *"We barely speak English (at home)."*
> *"(I speak) English in public places."*
>
> Participant 2: "*When I come back from school, I am still in school mode so I speak English."*
>
> Participant 3: "*I speak (English) at home and many public places…*

I speak (Afrikaans) with my grandparents and Afrikaans people."

Learners also prefer to go to school in English because their English vocabulary has exceeded their home language vocabulary. Because of this, they are also more comfortable studying English than their home languages. Even if learners prefer to study in English, they still find it challenging, as Participant 2 highlights.

Participant 2: "*Yes, it is (better to go to school in English than Zulu).*
As much as they are complicated, English words make it easier for me to understand things and learn them better."

Similarly, learners prefer to read in English over their home language because of attitudes towards English as a language that will provide them more access and a lack of reading comprehension in their home languages. Participant 1 said he feels that it is irrelevant to read in Zulu because his school does not offer academics in his home language. As a result, he most likely finds it easier to read in English. Participant 2 reported that she only read isiZulu in text messages from friends, but when she texts someone regarding school, she states that they will text in English for clarity of academic terms. This again highlights the difference between English as an academic language and home language as a private language. She further elaborated that she texts in isiZulu with her grandmother and friends, but when the texts are about school. Participant 3 said that he got used to English as a LoLT and prefers to read in English.

Participant 1: '*(I don't read Zulu books), not so often, hey…*
because I find it irrelevant. We do not
learn in our home language at school."

Participant 1*: "I believe it's easier to read in English. English*
would be easier."
Participant 2: "*Reading a text in English is much easier."*

Participant 3: *"I prefer to read in English" and "I prefer*
to have classes in English… It is just that I have
gotten used to it."

4.7. Translanguaging is an innate occurrence amongst bilinguals and multilinguals

Translanguaging is natural because bilinguals and multilinguals grow up around multiple languages. As mentioned earlier in the literature, writing and reading are not innate, but speaking and listening are innate. Learners thus inadvertently use translanguaging to make meaning for themselves when they speak and listen. However, participants also reported using their entire linguistic repertoire; they read and write during schoolwork. Making meaning across different linguistic codes is thus innate for bilingual and multilingual individuals. Participant 3 uses translanguaging in his everyday life to clarify things for himself and, therefore, create meaning by leveraging his linguistic repertoire. He uses translanguaging when he speaks to his parents, as they recognise his use of translanguaging. Participant 2 explains that she speaks different languages depending on how she feels. This shows that the space and feelings associated with space affect her choice of language. She, therefore, makes sense of the world around her using her linguistic repertoires but employs them according to the different spaces in which she finds herself. Participant 1 explained that he uses translanguaging to understand words better.

Participant 3: *"It helps me understand it more… so usually, my parents say I speak a lot of 'Mengels'. (It is) when you mix the two languages together. So, uh, it helps you a lot 'cause some words that I don't know how to say in English, I understand in Afrikaans, and some words I understand in English, I do not understand in Afrikaans."*

Participant 2: *"I don't speak isiZulu all the time… like sometimes when I come back from school I am still in school mode, so I speak English. Sometimes, I speak Xitonga depending on the day and how I feel."*

Participant 1: *"As I said before, it is because it is a language that I frequently talk, and I think that it would be way easier to write in my home language as I know what this word means and this word means, for example in English, some words are big, and it is hard to understand them but when you put them in your home language, they make more sense."*

Some participants in the translingual group did not use translanguaging in schoolwork before the intervention and stated that they would start doing so in the future because they found it easier to understand the text. Other participants stated that translanguaging helps them clarify and confirm words' meanings during assessments. Participant 1 said that he had never used translanguaging strategies prior to the intervention, but he will do so in the future. He also said he could understand more clearly when he deployed translanguaging skills. Translanguaging significantly affects reading comprehension and could be one of the factors leading to an improvement among bilingual and multilingual readers. Participant 3 said he used translanguaging strategies to confirm answers, questions, and text vocabulary during the post-test. This again indicates that bilinguals and multilinguals, when equipped with translingual strategies, use it for practical meaning-making purposes. Participant 1 further elaborated that translanguaging made it easier for him to understand texts from his perspective. This could speak to historical texts, the corroboration of facts, and the individuals' stance on certain events. Participant 3 briefly expresses the translanguaging process that she follows when she reads. She translates it mentally, "*in (her) head,*" to her grandmother, who she also mentions is monolingual, and then compares English with her home language, isiZulu.

Participant 1: "*No, I have never done that (used translingual strategies); I have always just used English."*

Participant 1: *"(Translanguaging) showed how easy it would be and how easy it would make things if we actually did every exam or most exams in general … I would most definitely use it in the future."*

Participant 1: *"(Translanguaging) made it easier from my perspective. It made it easy to understand."*

Participant 3: *"I would read the text in my head, and like pretend If I am like explaining it to my grandmother so that she can understand it, then I bring it back to English and translate it."*

Participant 3: "*I used it (my home language) in the second test (post-test) to try and confirm*."

Translanguaging also led to learners understanding texts from their perspectives. Participant 1 further elaborated that translanguaging made it easier for him to understand texts from his perspective. This could speak to historical texts, the corroboration of facts, and the individuals' stance on certain events. Participant 2 said that translanguaging helped him understand the historical texts from others' perspectives, and he further said that translanguaging helped him understand the emotions of others while reading the text. Translanguaging involves a greater awareness of emotive language and, especially in a subject like history, allows learners to peacefully explore each other's views based on their cultural experiences and discourse.

Participant 1: *"(Translanguaging) made it easier from my perspective. It made it kind of easy to understand."*

Participant 3: "*Yes… It made a difference because I could understand it from other people's perspective…. Because of the way they said it, the emotion Moreover, um… in their language also how they said it."*

4.8. Early childhood literacy language, grandmothers, and language preferences

During the interviews, I discovered that learners are fluent speakers of their home languages and usually access their home languages at home, while, in contrast, they access their English language in public spaces. However, I probed into who taught learners to read and write their home languages, as it seemed that most of my participants needed more education in their home languages.

There is a connection between migration and home language education access. Participant 1 stated that he attended an Israeli school and formally learned to read and write during Grades 1 to 3. After his family moved to Johannesburg, this learner attended an English school, and his education changed from reading and writing in Zulu to reading and writing in English. Interestingly, this learner did not use translanguaging skills prior to the reading intervention he received. The participant needs to speak English with his family. Participant 2, on the other hand, learned English in Grade RR and three years later, she started learning to read and write in English. This likely means that Participant 2 needed more time to develop English to an equal level of her home language to be a strong reader. Participant 2 also states that she has not received formal home language education on reading and writing. Participant 3, from a bilingual household, stated that he went to an Afrikaans school and could not understand what happened in class. In summary, early home language education was not accessible to one participant; another participant seemed to have benefited from it, and the last participant had difficulty understanding his home language because of his family's linguistic dynamics.

Participant 1: *"…before I came to Gauteng, I came to a school in KZN, and that is where I learned how to write in Zulu."*

Participant 2: *"Grade RR is when I started learning how to speak English."*

Participant 2: *"I learned completely how to read and write in English from Grade 1."*

Participant 3: *"…when I used to go to an Afrikaans school, it was hard for me because I did not understand in Afrikaans as much as I understand in English."*

Participants who found their home language difficult were taught by family members. It seems like Grandmothers play a role in home language acquisition and literacy. Both Participant 1 and Participant 3 were taught to read and write by their grandmothers. Participant 1's grandmother, a Zulu speaker, took the primary role in language education. In contrast, Participant 3 grandmother, an Afrikaans speaker, assumed an additional tutor role in teaching her grandson how to read and write in Afrikaans.

Participant 2: "*My grandma used to watch shows in isiZulu and yes, that is also how I learned more*."

Participant 3: "*My father used to go away for work. He could not taught me that much; my grandmother had to*."

Interestingly, these two learners also found that it is easier to learn in English. This could be because of the informal language education they received from their grandmothers. The participants whose Grandmothers' taught them literacy in their home languages concur that English is their preferred LoLT and that they understand concepts better in English. Participant 2 said she found writing tests in her home language difficult. She gave it because her home language is too complex and difficult to understand. This could have something to do with her time studying her home language and how she studied her home language. Because she has yet to formally receive an education in her home language from a literacy-trained teacher, she found it challenging to conduct assessments in her home language. Participant 3 said that he found it challenging to understand Afrikaans, making it difficult for him to conduct a reading assessment.

Participant 2: *"No, actually, I found it (translanguaging) difficult to do that in the history test."*

Participant 2: *"Because my home language is just too complex, I must start all over by learning the*

subjects in my home language and my home language is confusing like isiZulu is really confusing."

Participant 3: *"I did not understand Afrikaans as much as I understand in English."*

Contrasting these findings, Participant 1, also a Zulu speaker who received formal home language education in Grades 1 to 3, is assured that Zulu education will benefit him more than English education and prefers to receive education in his home language. Participant 3 is convinced that he will find it easier to receive home language education because he is a frequent Zulu speaker. Participant 1 is confident in his home language vocabulary and reading and writing skills in his home language. What makes Participant 3 different is that he only speaks Zulu at home, whereas the other two participants speak a mixture of languages at home. Another factor contributing to his attitude towards his home language is that he received a formal education during the foundation phase.

Participant 1: *'I would prefer to have my tests in my home language over English."*

Participant 1: "*As I said before, it is because it is a language that I frequently talk and I think that it would be way easier to write in my home language as I know what this word means and this the word means, for example, in English some words are big, and it is hard to understand them, but when you put them in your own home language, they make more sense."*

4.9. The threshold hypothesis

I strategically placed my findings regarding the threshold hypothesis last. Firstly, the threshold hypothesis is grounded in quantitative data, which I acknowledge. However, factors leading to learners' lack of home language comprehension can be found in the above snippets and analysis of the interviews I conducted with bilingual and multilingual learners. The qualitative analysis is critical in shedding some light on why their reading performance was lower at the home language level than in English, their L2.

The threshold hypothesis is intertwined with these factors, and I will analyse how some of these factors I found in the qualitative phase led to low home language competence. In the final discussion in Chapter 5, I will consider the threshold hypothesis in relation to all the findings above, whether quantitative or qualitative.

In saying all of this, there are, however, some aspects of the qualitative phase that speak directly to the threshold hypothesis, and I will present the findings in this section.

Learners reported that they understand English better than their home languages in an academic setting. Participant 1 initially doubted if English is a better academic language than Zulu but changed his mind, stating that he finds English more accessible as an academic language than Zulu. Participant 2 states that she thinks English is a better academic language than English.

> Participant 1: *"I find it um… fairly half-half, but I believe it is easier in English to… English would be easier. Yes."*
>
> Participant 2: *"I know English better than isiZulu*."

Exploring why learners find English less challenging than their home languages is also essential. Learners stated that they are familiar with English. Because learners have been attending English schools for extended periods, they are finding English easier than their home language. Participant 1 affirmed this by saying he always used English in academic spaces. Although he studied Zulu in Grades 1 to 3, he still finds English easier to access

academically. The second reason participants cited for preferring English over their home language in academic spaces is that they find that their home languages are complex and complicated. Learners feel that their home language vocabulary needs to be improved to attend school in their home languages. Again, the theme of being used to English as an academic language stands out when Participant 2 says that she will not do well in English because she has been learning English. Participant 2 also says that, even though English is difficult, it is easier for her to comprehend English than her home language. English education also estranges learners from their home languages. Participant 2 says that she could not communicate as effectively in English as in her home language, Zulu. Finally, Participant 3 said he went to an Afrikaans school but needed help managing the language of learning and teaching. This could be because of the initial English education in the participants' linguistic background.

Participant 1: *"I have always just used English, yes."*

Participant 2: *"English words, as much as they are complicated, make it easier for me to understand things and learn them better. For example, now… Learning mathematics in isiZulu… I do not think I'll do very well compared to how I am doing now. Because I am learning in English."*

Participant 2: *"…and some of the (Zulu) words, like I am not sure what the words are…*
If I wanted to say something, I'd say it in English, but I would not know how it is in isiZulu."

Participant 3: *"When I used to go to an Afrikaans school, it was hard for me because I did not understand Afrikaans as much as I understand in English."*

Learners also found that it is easier to write in their L2. Learners find it difficult to read and write in their home language if they compare it to English. Participant 2 explicitly stated that she would not fare well academically if she were to write in her home language.

Participant 2: *"My home language is confusing… I don't think I'd cope if I were to write in my home language."*

4.10. Discussion of findings

4.10.1. The overall performance of Grade 9 reading and the difference between monolingual reading and translingual reading groups

Firstly, I want to discuss the implications of writing in home languages. Learners expressed their answers in writing in their home languages, and they cannot express themselves coherently in their home languages. However, the implication of studying reading through comprehension assessment involves much writing. Albeit a potential limitation, it also suggests that learners are part of the semilingualist category in Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis (Cummins, 1979a). I refer to Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis, as I quoted earlier in the theoretical framework: "There may be threshold levels of linguistic competence which bilingual children must attain both to avoid cognitive deficits and to allow the potentially beneficial aspects of becoming a bilingual to influence cognitive growth" (Cummins, 1979a). Learners with undeveloped L1s will have underdeveloped L2s, which will not surpass L1 competence. Learners in this group, relating to both pre-tests and post-tests, performed better in English, their L2, than in their home language. This result indicates that learners need to attain the linguistic threshold, which indicates why they only understand half of their reading.

Following the logic of the Threshold Hypothesis, most learners will have a cognitive disadvantage regarding reading competencies due to a lack of home language comprehension. It is crucial to remember that language does not merely exist in its spoken form but also its written form. Therefore, reading and writing in conjunction with speaking and listening at a higher level will classify learners as true masters of the home language. Unfortunately, a reading comprehension of around 32% – the overall translingual group

reading comprehension score – does not qualify as home language reading competence. This figure of around 32% reading comprehension when learners have access to their home languages confirms that learners have low home language reading proficiency and, therefore, have low English reading proficiency.

The post-test, however, contrasts these findings, possibly indicating that the use of translanguaging pedagogy may improve learners' reading competence. The post-test, which proved statistically insignificant with similar mean scores, indicates that the translingual group's reading competence increases after a translingual reading intervention. It is difficult to accept that learner reading competency improves after only a five-day program. Other factors could have led to the improvement of translingual reading, yet there is still an improvement amongst the translingual group, which indicates that translanguaging pedagogy, whether in assessment or lessons, improves bilingual and multilingual learners' reading competence. Learner testing and translingual assessment experience might have something to do with the insignificant difference in the post-test. Therefore, the qualitative aspect of this study delved further into factors that contributed to the improved form of Grade 9 reader competence.

4.10.2. Barrett's taxonomy and reading competence

According to Barrett's taxonomy, literal comprehension should be the most accessible reading competency (Göçer, 2014). The statistics surrounding the monolingual group agree with this, as learners scored the highest out of all the other reading competencies in the literal reading competence category. Learners achieved lower reading comprehension levels as reading comprehension became more challenging in the higher levels of Barrett's taxonomy.

The literal comprehension in the monolingual group is reasonable, but it would have been ideal if it were higher. Another way to look at it is that learners miscomprehend around 30% of a text. That is just below a third of what they read. I want to use a film as an analogy: If a viewer misses a third of a film, they would likely be unable to follow the story and all its implications. The same applies to a reader; if a reader misses a third of a text, the reader will be at risk for total miscomprehension and misinterpretation of a text. A further worry is that

explicit extraction of information and a literal understanding are prerequisites for mastering the sequential reading competencies.

This result gives us a different perspective from the PIRLS (2016) and the PIRLS (2021) studies. PIRLS (2021) concluded that around 81% of Grade 4 learners cannot read with literal comprehension. My study indicates that Grade 9 learners can read with literal comprehension. That is extracting explicit information from a text. An inference that can be drawn across these two studies is that the more and more extended learners read in English, the higher their ability to extract explicit information becomes. It feels like stating the obvious, but it takes a long time for learners to become *more* competent English readers. An important note to be made is that the PIRLS (2016; 2021) studies had a much higher number of participants than my study, and the inference I've drawn between the two studies is broad and even on the weaker side yet based on the data I have.

In terms of history and literacy, I argue that literal literacy is the basis of all disciplinary and subject-specific literacy. It is only from this base that other reading competencies, whether general or discipline-specific, can stem from. The ability to extract explicit information is the cornerstone of reading comprehension.

Reorganisation is weaving different parts of texts (Aqeel & Farrah, 2019). I argued before that reorganisation and corroboration as historical literacy could go hand in hand as many historical texts revolve around the same topic but present and represent information differently. A multilingual approach to reorganisation in texts thus enhances the multilingual capability to reorganise text. Reorganisation, paired with literal comprehension, is one of the reading competencies that readers use to extract explicit information from various historical texts and weave historical events together. During this phase of reading history, a reader might gather information, thus rendering it part of the substantive knowledge of historical literacies.

The monolingual group can gather explicit information to an extent, and they can reorganise this explicit information to an extent. However, I would like to reiterate that, if learners only understand 45% to 60% of what they are reading, they are likely missing main ideas and critical rhetoric in history texts. Therefore, grade 9 history readers are not effective text corroborators and need to obtain substantive historical knowledge.

Inferential reading capability requires learners to make conjectures and assumptions based on the evidence of explicit information. Learners thus make implicit meaning based upon the texts' explicit meaning. I have argued that inferences act as a bridge between historical substantive knowledge and historical procedural knowledge. It also acts as a bridge between the lower levels of reading comprehension, literal and reorganisational competencies, and the higher levels of reading comprehension, evaluative and appreciative competencies. The low scores of evaluation and appreciation as reading competencies establish that inferential capabilities bridge substantive and procedural knowledge.

I have argued that evaluative reading competence and critical reading skills are closely related. To be a critical reader, one needs to be able to evaluate texts. The accuracy of texts can be evaluated, the probability of occurrence, the desirability, the difference between fact and opinion, judgements of validity and judgements of appropriateness are all the described features of the evaluative reader skill (Göçer, 2014). Evaluative reading and critical reading become specifically important when facts must be separated from opinion, how history is presented, and the unearthing of myths and distortions to find the truth behind historical narratives (Luke, 2014). Therefore, it is dangerous when learners cannot evaluate effectively when they are engaging in historical texts because histories can be manipulated to suit the narrative of those who present and represent history. Some of the test items hinted at how a standardised Grade 9 historical text presented the incarceration of civilians during World War II. The texts that were used described the Japanese internment camps, in which Japanese civilians were kept in a manner that resembled being in concentration camps. By labelling it an internment camp, and not a concentration camp, it seems like the American side of this inhumane part of human history, is made dissonant in historical texts. The labelling of the "internment camp" as opposed to concentration camps diminishes the infringements on human rights in America. Yet, the Nazi camps and the Japanese prisoner-of-war camps are described as horrific places, juxtaposing the idea that the Americans were complicit in violating human rights. A practical reader with critical evaluation skills will identify the difference in discourse. Evaluation and critical reading speak to these aspects in historical literacy and texts. Learners who cannot evaluate more than half of the text will be in danger of miscomprehending the world and events that helped shape the world. Learners who cannot evaluate texts may be prone to naivety, which authors and media outlets can feed on. Thus,

text evaluation is an important life skill that will retain social order and ensure that readers are well-informed.

Upon revisiting the post-test results and establishing that the mean scores between the monolingual group and the translingual group are not statistically significant anymore, one could argue that translingual reading may lead to higher evaluative reading competency. Reading translingually, and perhaps thinking in one's home language, assists in critical and evaluative reading competence and will eventually lead to readers being able to spot injustices in the world.

In terms of the appreciation competence at the pinnacle of the reading competence taxonomy, it is clear learners could not formulate suitable answers to demonstrate their appreciation for the text. An emotional response to a text should always be linked to the text. Furthermore, appreciation as a literacy skill also investigates the author's word choice, imagery, and rhetoric, which are used to evoke emotions and connection between reader and author. Learners, in both the monolingual group and translingual, cannot identify this, reinforcing that they cannot critically comprehend historical texts. There was also little to no improvement in both groups with regard to the appreciation of reading competence, which is an indication that learners do not have the foundational skills to reach the highest level of reading competence. These overt and subtle messages of the texts may be completely missed by learners, because of their little knowledge about language use, structure, rhetoric and how this creates discourse for meaning-making.

As predicted, learners are more competent with the lower-order reading competencies and demonstrate less reading competence as Barrett's taxonomy progresses from easier reading competence to more challenging reading competencies. Drawing inferences was the most challenging reading for both monolingual and multilingual groups. Learners could not make implicit meaning. The logical explanation may be that learners must extract more explicit information to generalise, draw conclusions and infer successfully. Although learners show a fair amount of explicit comprehension, as indicated by their literal and organisational competence, more is needed to form a foundation for higher-order reading competencies. Grade 9 history learners lack inferential, evaluative and appreciative reading competencies.

4.10.3. Translanguaging as a possible remedial reading pedagogy

After the translingual reading intervention, learners could mesh *their known languages* to make better meaning. The translingual learners improved in the first four literal, reorganisational, inferential, and evaluative reading competencies. This is similar to Makalela's (2015) findings of Sepedi learners' improved reading comprehension due to translanguaging. Translingual learners' reading comprehension of higher-order reading questions improved, as in Maseko and Mkhize's (2021) study in Soweto, South Africa. In an international context, Chu (2017) found that Taiwanese students' reading competencies were better captured using translanguaging in assessments because learners could express their answers more accurately. A critical difference between my study and Chu's study (2017) is that Chu used English texts but with translingual questions. Chu's (2017) findings and my findings are similar in that the translingual learners scored higher results in a post-test. However, it differs because translingual learners scored statistically significantly higher than monolingual learners. The context of Chu's study may play a significant role in his findings, as done in Taiwan. Multiple orthographies were likely present in the translingual reading assessment as Taiwan is a Chinese-speaking region. Chu (2017) also explored translingual reading assessment question comprehension, which my study overlooked.

My study's results also indicate that reading translingually could be an excellent remedial strategy for learners. The translingual group showed significant improvement after the reading intervention. Garcia and Kleyn (2016) highlighted that translanguaging activates learners' linguistic meaning-making repertoire. Learners could better access their linguistic repertoire after the translingual intervention to understand the meaning of the text. This access to the linguistic repertoire is the reason for the translingual groups' improvement in reading scores. If this is the case, I further argue that Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) improves in learners' home language(s) when they can use it in academic spaces. If we compare the translingual pre-test and post-test scores to each other and their monolingual counterparts, we find that the translingual group's reading improves. However, the monolingual group's reading competencies remain the same. This indicates that the translingual intervention improved the translingual group's CALP.

In an urban setting, South African Grade 9 history readers show a degree of reading competence in lower-order reading skills. However, the reading competency decreases in medium- to higher-order reading skills. This is an indication of learners experiencing a cognitive disadvantage. However, meshing languages and using learners' unitary linguistic repertoire positively affected the translingual learners' reading competence. Translingual learners understand texts better after exposure to translingual pedagogy, a practice where language boundaries are blurred, and language altercation is purposefully used to leverage full linguistic repertoires. However, the translingual group did not perform better than the monolingual group. This confirms that Grade 9 history readers are semilinguals. They are not fully competent in a single language and may face cognitive disadvantages.

The results show that learners need to be more competent home language users, and because they are not competent in their home language, they cannot be competent in English, which is the learner's LoLT. Learners may face the cognitive deficits Cummins (1979a) mentions in his threshold hypothesis because their home language is not sufficiently developed. This results from a lack of formal home language education.

4.10.4. Informal language acquisition leads to bilingualism if it is the primary means of obtaining home language competence

The challenge for the multilingual within the South African context is thus that their home languages are less developed than their English competence. This is because learners were not allowed to learn their home language through formal education.

The output of all the tests amongst the translingual group was written in their home languages. However, most learners have yet to receive the opportunity to learn to read and write in academic spaces formally. During the qualitative phase, learners reported that they did not receive a formal home language education and that their family members took the primary role of language and reading teachers. I remind the reader that I previously mentioned that reading and writing are not innate to humans and a process to be acquired (Alexander et al., 2012). When one observes a baby, one finds that the child first listens and then speaks. After these two competencies are developed, to an extent, the child slowly begins to read and, lastly, write. The last two linguistic competency categories are not innate and need to be

learned. If something is to be learned, someone needs to teach it for a student to reach a higher level of competence. The implication is that if an amateur teaches a learner skills, the learner most likely reaches amateur levels, however if an expert teaches a learner a skill, expert levels can eventually be reached by learners.

It is therefore crucial to establish where and how learners learn their home languages. Indeed, if 33 learners answered question papers in their home language, they must have learned how to read and write in their home languages from someone. A surprising finding from my qualitative data is that learners' grandmothers play a role in developing their home language. Learners learn language from their family and their grandmothers. Ancestors, therefore, play a role in the acquisition of home languages.

The problem is that family members are not formally trained teachers, meaning that they are not the so-called expert. Learners informally learned reading and writing from their untrained family members. While this could work in a supportive role, there are other methods of mastering a home language than this one. The family's methods to teach their grandchildren a home language was also unplanned, like using the television and drilling exercises with minimal support. These methods are likely not effective pedagogical procedures as it is both unplanned and unstructured, and delivered through a non-expert. However, this happens because the scheduled daily planned lessons administered by professional and literacy-trained teachers are received in L2 and parents and grandparents do not want their children to lose their home language.

In contrast, unscheduled spontaneous lessons by untrained family members are what the learner receives for their home language education at home. Learners, therefore, develop faster in their L2 than in their L1. This is a further reason for learners not to have obtained dominant bilingualism, therefore not meeting the linguistic threshold. Learners will, therefore, have cognitive deficits, leading to lower reading comprehension scores.

Further insight into my sample provides the basis for my 'lack-of-formal-home-language-education-argument.' Out of 59 bilingual and multilingual participants in my study, only four received formal education in their home language during the foundation phase, and only two received formal education in their home language during the intermediate and the first year of the senior phase. To break this down into further statistics, from my sample, only 6.78% of

participants received formal education in their home language in the foundation phase. Further, only 3.39% of participants received formal education in their home language during the intermediate phase and the first year of the senior phase. Reading and other linguistic competencies may be out of reach for some learners who did not receive home language education because their cognitive and academic language proficiency at the home language level was never allowed to develop (Cummins, 1979b).

4.10.5. Bilinguals, multilingual and reading: Bilinguals are stronger readers than multilinguals in South Africa

The most interesting phenomenon observed after analysing these statistics was that bilinguals improved by 20%, and multilinguals improved their reading competence by about 11%. A reason for this could be found in Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis (1979a). Bilingual learners, that is, learners with a single language in the household, only use two languages – their home language and their LoLT. The risk of staying in the semilingualist category of Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis is not as high as that of learners surrounded by more languages. Multilingual learners with two household languages different from the LoLT will likely be surrounded by three languages daily. In order to be sufficient second language speakers, learners' home language must reach a certain threshold of competence – learners must either reach the dominant bilingualism threshold or the additive bilingual threshold (Cummins, 1979a). Therefore, exposure to three languages and not mastering one might have led to cognitive disadvantages. It is thus more challenging for multilingual learners to attain balanced linguistic levels.

Another possibility for multilinguals' low reading performance and lower reading improvement might be their confusion about their home language. Bilinguals benefit more from translingual practice as they are confident about their home language and have a higher chance of attaining dominant or additive bilingualism to balance their linguistic repertoire. It is further accepted that multilingual negotiate meaning from their preferred cultural identity before moving beyond their native culture (Pacheco et al., 2019). The multilingual would thus find it challenging to know from which preferred linguistic identity meaning stems as they possibly have multiple linguistic realities, which leads to confusion as to which language to adopt as

theirs. So many languages surround the South African multilingual, none of which are dominant, leading to a lack of comprehension.

This warped linguistic identity is because learners moved from less developed areas to South Africa's economic hub because their parents received better economic opportunities. As a result of this move, learners changed schools. Initially, learners attended schools catering to their home language needs, but after urbanisation, they attended schools in English, their L2. A sudden change in their LoLT during the transition from the foundation to the intermediate phase may have led to cracks in their home language competence, eventually leading to a weaker home language. This disruption in learners' LoLT may have threaded through to the senior phase and contributed to the low literacy levels that I found in my study. Learners did not attain the linguistic threshold of reaching a dominant language before they changed from their L1 to their L2 in an academic setting; therefore, they are semilinguals. Semilinguals with low CALP will most definitely have gaps in their reading comprehension.

Translanguaging is also a natural occurrence among learners. Input languages and output languages differ in everyday situations for bilinguals and multilinguals. The participants in my study said they speak two different languages and use these languages to make meaning. One participant even named *his language* "Mengels." Gracia and Kleifen (2019) argued that if we, as educators and an educational system, do not provide learners access to their home language, we are ignoring entire linguistic repertoires and thus ignoring a big part of knowledge from learners. If translanguaging is natural, how we educate in English is unnatural and will thus not be as effective. The dilemma, in summary, is that learners use code-switching in everyday life. They use translanguaging, but as soon as reading is involved, learners do not use their entire linguistic repertoire, which halts their reading progression. This means for the threshold hypothesis that their home language is at an academic standstill and their English continues to develop very slowly. Because learners' home language competence is at low levels, their English reading competence is developing very slowly. This slow development could also factor in the low reading comprehension levels.

4.10.6. Learners' linguistic preferences and attitudes

Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis points out that if learners' LoLT differs from their home language(s), their home language(s) might be minority languages (Cummins, 1979b). Given

South Africa's diverse linguistic range, it is difficult to label a language a minority language; however, South African languages, according to some studies, are perceived by their speakers as minority languages on a global scale, and thus, individuals view their home languages as non-academic languages (Alvarez-Mosquera & Marin-Gutierrez, 2021; Ditsele, 2016; Klapwijk & Van der Walt, 2016). Therefore, I further present how learners view their language and how it relates to bilingual and multilingual reading competencies in history.

Learners view their home language as a language used for private matters, and learners perceive English as an academic language. This means that learners limit their home language for personal usage. As a result, learners' entire linguistic repertoires cannot be used in school settings. As a pedagogical tool, translanguaging changed learners' perspectives about their home language. When the teacher gives learners access to their home languages, they implement their home language. Still, the translingual group did not perform better than the monolingual group in the post-test, but in the qualitative phase of the study, the translingual group found reading to be more accessible. A study over an extended period can tell if translanguaging changes results, but a short intervention changes learner attitudes towards their home language. Translingual pedagogy may deliver favourable academic results if the learners' attitudes change about their home languages.

The cause of learners' attitude towards their home language is primarily due to colonisation. English is a prestigious language because most learners attend English and have only been attending school in English. The colonial legacy is the English *lingua franca* and all the prestige that comes with it. Language exists among other languages in a continuum where one language is more powerful than the other (Hornberger, 2002). Because of the academic status it has achieved both in the minds of South African learners and in practice, English has become a powerful language in relation to learners' home languages. As a result, learners diminished their home languages in favour of English. A diminished language of little academic importance will ultimately not be used as part of a person's linguistic repertoire. Home languages are thus in grave danger because this linguistic orientation, over a few generations, can lead to language endangerment and, most likely, the end of specific languages and, as a result, entire meaning-making codes.

4.10 Chapter summary

I presented the findings of the study in this chapter. The quantitative phase indicates that South African Grade 9 learners understand around 50% of their reading. It also indicates that multilinguals struggle to express themselves in their home language. This means that learner' L2 is more robust than their L1. This indicates that learners are semilinguals, with neither their home language nor their L2, which is the LoLT, being sufficiently developed to be competent language users. Further, learners can extract explicit information, but implicit information seems too difficult for learners to comprehend. In all aspects of reading competencies, monolingual learners performed better than multilinguals.

The quantitative phase of the study indicates that learners diminish their home language when they migrate with their parents from less developed areas in Johannesburg, South Africa – the financial hub of South Africa. Learners divide their linguistic semiotic system into two parts: a home part and a school part. Learners access their home languages at home and English in the classrooms. An interesting topic that arose in two interviews was that grandmothers play a role in teaching home language to learners. Lastly, I probed into how learners viewed their home languages about English and concluded with the Threshold Hypothesis. Finally, it is essential to note that all of the above findings link, to some extent, to the Threshold Hypothesis.

5. CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, IMPLICATION OF STUDY ON THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

All of the factors I mention in my discussion relate to Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis in one way or another (Cummins, 1979a). Learners only understand half of what they read because they must pay attention to their home language. It is not their fault for having their home language neglected. However, socio-economic conditions and historical factors such as colonisation play a role in neglecting learners' first language. Their minds are still colonised in how they think about their home language and how diminished it has become. In the following part of my study, I provide possible reasons for learners' low literacy rates in Gauteng, South Africa.

5.2 Summary of findings

- Learners have a low first-language reading proficiency. Learners could only answer 32% of the reading questions correctly in their home language.

- Learners have a higher second-language reading proficiency. Learners could answer half of the reading questions correctly in English, their second language.

- A low level of first-language reading competence leads to low English reading. This explains why South African learners can only comprehend half of a text.

- When multilinguals are given access to their home languages within the classroom, their reading competence improves significantly.

- Learners can extract explicit information from a text, but more is needed to identify implicit information.

- Regarding historical literacy, learners can extract substantive knowledge, but not enough to master procedural knowledge effectively.

- Learners cannot evaluate or appreciate the text. Judgments of texts and writers' intentions are thus tricky for readers to make and identify. This is an indication that learners cannot be critical readers.

- Translanguaging may be used as a remedial reading pedagogy. Learners who answered tests translingually improved their reading competence but were still not on a higher level than learners who answered the reading comprehension test in English. Learners who used home languages to answer the questions showed swift improvement. Translingual reading may be more beneficial over the long term for bilinguals and multilinguals.

- Bilinguals are stronger readers than multilinguals. A possible reason is that bilinguals understand fewer languages; therefore, their languages are reaching higher linguistic thresholds faster. Multilinguals may experience linguistic confusion, not focusing on one specific language as a primary meaning-making language. As a result, their languages are at a lower linguistic threshold.

- Translanguaging is natural, but it is ignored in schools favouring English education. This leads to learners having to undergo an education that is against their natural way of making meaning. Entire knowledge systems should be addressed when

translanguaging is not taking place, and as a result, learners may be reading at a lower competence.

- Most learners learned their home languages from their families, not a trained literacy teacher. This could be another reason learners are not competent home language users.

- Learners diminish their home language in favour of English. Therefore, they do not develop their home language to the extent that they develop their English language competence and face cognitive deficits.

5.3 Discussion of findings in relation to the theoretical framework

My findings merit some final remarks and comments relating to Cummins' Threshold Hypothesis (Cummins, 1979a).

The threshold hypothesis is confirmed in my study. Low home language competence leads to low L2 competence. However, certain areas of reading comprehension seem to be attained while other areas of reading comprehension seem to be lacking. Both bilinguals and multilinguals can make explicit meaning from texts. A reason for this is that learners possibly spent a lot of time in English LoLT spaces and received the bulk of their education in English, their L2. It could be that the longer learners receive education in L2, the less cognitive effects they will experience from the threshold hypothesis. Again, I am referring to the DoE (2023) study which outlines that 81% of South African learners cannot read with comprehension in their home language in the 4th Grade. I have found that 31% of learners cannot read with literal comprehension in Grade 9[1]. This could be an indication that as bilingual and multilingual learners mature, the cognitive disadvantages that they face due to home language deficiencies are reduced. Furthermore, it is also an indication that the longer learners are immersed in L2 education, the higher their ability to comprehend language, and reading becomes. This can be an indication that L2 improves over time and learners are able to make meaning explicitly from texts. However, it may also be that learners cannot make implicit meaning, even if they have been receiving education in L2 for years. The only way to determine the accuracy of this statement is to study adult literacy by comparing tertiary students' home language literacy levels to their English literacy levels. This can finally confirm

[1] See table 5 for literal reading comprehension statistics on page 66.

if time has an effect on L2 reading comprehension. However, in saying this, I maintain that the maturation of learners and time spent in L2 education leads to better explicit meaning-making from texts. It could also be an indication that CALP improves over time. Even if there is improvement, the improvement seems limited to explicit meaning-making in texts.

Home language mastering is necessary for learners to attain higher levels of reading comprehension. Learners cannot infer, evaluate or appreciate text if they have not reached the home language linguistic threshold. When learners “live” in one language and “study” in another language, the linguistic gap widens. Learners can therefore not make inferences, evaluate and appreciate texts fully. For learners to be fully capable of making inferences and evaluating and appreciating texts, they must first develop home language CALP. By attaining a good home language foundation, their personal discourse in their home language can better develop and as a result, readers can transfer and communicate their discourse effectively in their L2.

Translanguaging seemed to reduce the gap between L1 and L2 reading competence, however, it does not bridge the gap fully. This shows that if learners are exposed to home language pedagogy, the cognitive disadvantages that semilingualist learners experience, are experienced to a lesser effect. Translanguaging pedagogy, thus dulls the cognitive deficits experienced by semilinguals. Translanguaging pedagogy does not negate the cognitive deficits but can serve as an equaliser to assist semilingual learners to obtain more or less the same levels of reading comprehension. It seems that translingual pedagogy improves learners’ CALP which leads to higher translingual reading score.

Another explanation for multilingual learners’ improved reading competence in the post-test, is also that learners actively use their full linguistic repertoire to make meaning. The premise of the translanguaging theory is meshing all known languages to form one unitary system for meaning-making. To an extent, this ignores the fact that two languages exist as separate entities within the individual and rather accepts that these languages are one system for meaning-making. Of course, one cannot ignore that two languages exist as separate entities, but making meaning from these languages together will improve CALP in both languages simultaneously, as was the case with my study. The effect of translanguaging on the threshold hypothesis is that the languages used during translingual pedagogy are both improved and thus crawl closer to the threshold in which additive bilingualism can be achieved.

The threshold hypothesis can further be seen as existing within each bilingual and multilingual individual. My study has shown that the more languages learners speak, the lower their home language competency. This is because of the range of languages learners speak. If learners speak a second and third language, there is less time for learners to allocate to the development of their L1. This means that additional language acquisition, prior to a high level of home language acquisition is hindering the development of learners. It seems that, in terms of the theory of the linguistic threshold hypothesis, home language acquisition should be higher and more advanced if learners are exposed daily to an L2 and further additional language(s).

Another implication of this study on the threshold hypothesis as a theory is that the threshold hypothesis can be used to determine if a country is still a linguistic colony. If languages are politically and geographically named, for example English, the language of England, and learners face a cognitive disadvantage because of English's dominance within the studied society, one can accurately and truly say that semilingualism is a side effect of British colonialism. This becomes apparent when learners use English as a language for academic spaces while reducing their home language to an exclusively conversational language. This was exactly the case in my study. Learners neglect their home languages in search of perceived better opportunities that they feel English can provide them. While the learners' idea holds merit, they – and other educational stakeholders - fail to see that a strong home language will lead to a better understanding of English, their L2.

5.4 Conclusion

South African learners' L1 needs to be developed more to use the language academically. This suggests that English may only develop up to their home language capability. The threshold hypothesis maintains that a learner's L2 cannot develop past a learner's L1 (Cummins, 1979a). If learners have underdeveloped L1s and find reading and writing in their home languages challenging, they will find reading and writing in English challenging.

Learners are thus in a state of semilingualism. Learners stated that their L1 vocabulary needs to be improved so that they can use their L1 as an academic language. Vocabulary is one of

the cornerstones of CALP; learners need a sufficient vocabulary in their L1 to find school easier in their L2. Because of underdeveloped L1, learners are facing cognitive deficiencies. Language comprehension is why Grade 9 learners only understand half of their reading.

5.5 Recommendations

Recommendations for the South African Department of Education

- Though an expensive task, learners should have more opportunities to access education in their home languages.

- Even at English schools, learners should be allowed to take their home language as either their first language or as an additional one.

- A home language campaign that focuses on academic resources can be spread through various types of media, whether traditional or social media, to grant learners access to their home languages from an academic point of view.

- A literacy program can be set up for adults to provide resources and essential pedagogical literacy tools to teach their children, grandchildren and other family members how to read and write in their home languages.

- Teachers can be trained to make use of translanguaging pedagogy in their reading instruction.

- Universities can add more languages of higher education to their existing languages, which could plant the idea amongst bi- and multilinguals that their home languages are also worthy of academic languages and, therefore, change the attitudes of individuals towards their home languages.

- Cultural awareness days can be held in academic institutions, from primary schools to universities, to promote home language use in academic spaces.

Recommendations for professional practice

- Teachers should plan and implement translanguaging pedagogy in their classrooms to ensure that language barriers in education are addressed accordingly.

Recommendations for further research

- I explained in my results that it will be interesting to see if the effects of the threshold hypothesis diminish with student age and time, in terms of years, learners spent studying in their L2. It will thus be interesting to compare tertiary education students' or adults' home language reading competence with their L2 reading competence to determine whether the threshold hypothesis is upheld in older populations.

- The relationship between Translanguaging and CALP is also something that can explored further. Future studies about how translanguaging improves CALP in both home languages and in learners' LoLT will also be insightful.

5.6 Limitations of my study

Learners had to respond to reading texts in their home language. The input was English, and the output was their home language. Thus, I recorded their answers in their home language and benchmarked their home language competence by doing so. The study could have gone a step further and given learners the reading texts in their home languages, providing us with a more complete view of their home language competence.

Unfortunately, a limitation of my study is that I cannot determine what effect a translingual intervention will have on readers who have initially responded in English in the pre-test and translingually responded to the post-test. This would have given an indication of how a translingual intervention would affect a group that had previously only written tests monolingually.

The implication of having one group write a multilingual pre-test and post-test and another group write a monolingual pre-test and post-test is testing experience. Learners have gained

insight into how historical questions are asked in assessment, which may account for some of the improvements within the post-test group.

5.7 Chapter summary

This chapter consolidated the findings of my study and the literature review in conjunction with the theoretical framework. I discussed the findings, placed them in relation to existing research, and drew inferences between studies and between the quantitative and qualitative phases of my study.

Establishing the level of Grade 9 reader competence and how multilingualism affects reading comprehension was at the forefront of this study. In the final chapter, I explained that bilinguals and multilinguals still need to meet the Linguistic Threshold, thus showcasing low reading comprehension levels.

Lastly, the study recommends various ways to make home language more accessible for learners to improve their home language competence.

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7. ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE A: Pre-Test Question Paper

Name:

_____

Cell/WhatsApp number: _____

Instructions:

1. **Read the texts given to you about World War I**
2. **Answer all the questions that follow**
3. **Hand this worksheet in on _____2024**

Read the text on page 4 and answer the following questions:

1	Give one reason why Britain declared war on Germany.	1

2	Explain how Britain's declaration of the war had an effect on South Africa.	1

3	Motivate why some countries thought it was a good idea to join the war.	1

4	Why do you think South Africa told Britain that South Africa would "look after its own defences"?	1

5	Why do you think Britain hesitated to join the war initially?	1

Read the text on page 6 about conscription, propaganda and conscientious objectors and answer the following questions:

6	Explain why Britain had to force more people to join the army after December 1941.	1

7	Provide a word for the following description: *A person who refuses to join the army and fight in armed conflicts.*	1

8	Describe a form of discrimination in the text and state why you think it is discrimination.	2

9	Do you think that this discrimination has an impact on our lives today? Motivate your answer.	1

Read the texts on page 7 and answer the following questions:

10	How were the soldiers rewarded for going to war against Germany?	1

11	Name the different roles described for black and white people during World War I.	1

12	Describe the technique the newspaper used to convince black people to join the war.	1

13	Explain how the two articles differ from each other in how they convince various racial groups of South Africans to join the army.	1

14	How does the reality of the war relating to black and white people differ from the reality portrayed in the newspaper?	1

Read the text on PAGE 8 and answer the following questions:

15	Name the countries that formed the Western Front.	1

16	Explain how the South Africans who served on the Western Front are recognised today.	1

Read the texts on page 16 and answer the following questions:

17	Name two ways that World War I changed the role of women in Europe.	2

18	Why were women's roles in South Africa not similar to women's roles in Europe?	1

19	What evidence supports the difference between women in South Africa and women in Europe during World War I?	1

20	What does the difference in women's roles imply about the South African government?	1

21	Refer to your answer in question 20 to answer this question. How did the ideas of the South African government during the 1910s lead to the emergence of apartheid in the 1950s?	1

Read the text on page 17 and answer the questions that follow:

22	Who do you think wrote the text?	1

23	What unequal ideas do you find in the text about women in clerk roles in South Africa?	1

24	How would you present the idea of women in the workforce differently if you wrote this article? Write three sentences at a maximum.	1

Read page 18 and answer the questions that follow:

25	What did the SANNC believe during World War I?	1

26	When did white women vote for the first time?	1

27	Why do you think were South African white women only allowed to vote over the age of 30?	1

28	Refer to your answer to question 27. Do you think it is fair that women can only vote after they turn 30? Motivate your answer.	1

Read the text on page 20 and answer the questions:

29	Why did the countries give away Germany's colonies?	1

30	Predict how Germany would react to the other Western powers taking her colonies away.	1

ANNEXURE B: Post-Test Question Paper

Name: _____

Cell/WhatsApp: _____

Instructions:

1. **Read the texts given by you about World War II in the Pacific.**
2. **Answer the questions that follow**
3. **Hand this worksheet in on _____2024**

Answer the following questions:

Read the text on Page 125 and answer the following questions:

1	Explain why the Japanese wanted to become a superpower.	1

2	Why did Japan view America as a rival?	1

3	Name two of Japan's allies. (Allies refers to friendly countries)	1

4	Explain what the "New Order in Asia" means.	1

5	Why would America not like if Japan allies with Germany and Italy?	1

6	Explain why Pearl Harbor came as a shock to the USA.	1

7	Do you think it was fair for Japan to attack Pearl Harbor? Motivate your answer by referring to the text.	1

8	Describe the American losses, in both personnel and equipment after the Pearl Harbor battle in Hawaii.	1

9	When did the Pearl Habor incident occur?	1

Read the text on page 125 titled: "Japanese Americans forcibly moved into internment camps in the USA" and page 126 to answer the following questions:

10	Describe the conditions in the internment camps for Japanese Americans.	1

11	What was the Japanese Americans' reaction towards the internment camps?	1

12	Refer back to your knowledge about the holocaust and Nazi Germany: Give a synonym for "internment camps". Also, provide a possible reason for the different naming.	1

13	What generalisation did the American government make about Japanese Americans when they placed them in internment camps?	1

14	Do you think it is fair for the Americans to place Japanese in the camps? Motivate your answer.	1

15	Name the atrocities that Japan is accused of in China.	1

16	Explain why Japan mistreated prisoners-of-war.	1

17	Compare the Japanese prisoner-of-war camps to the American internment camps. Name two differences.	2

Read Page 134 and answer the questions that follow:

18	Name the aeroplane that dropped the first nuclear bomb on Japan.	1

19	Name the two cities that were destroyed by atomic bombs.	1

20	How did Japan react after the nuclear bombs were used against them?	1

Read Page 135 and answer the following questions:

21	Explain why America decided to use nuclear weapons against Japan.	1

22	Do you think it was wise for America to develop the nuclear weapon? Explain your answer.	1

23	Explain why atomic bombs were only used in one war and never again.	1

Read Source D and Source E and answer the following questions:

24	Why do you think the author of Source D said that the nuclear bomb was a good choice by America?	1

25	How does Source E criticise the USA's decision to use nuclear bombs?	1

Read Source F on page 136 and answer the following questions:

26	Compare the content of page 134 and Source F and answer the question: Were nuclear bombs purely militaristic? Motivate your answer.	1

27	Quote a word from Source F that supports the following statement: *The text accuses America of inhumane behaviour.*	1

28	What about Source F makes it a trustworthy account of nuclear warfare?	1

29	What is the message of Source F?	1

Read Source G on page 136 and answer the following questions:

30	What is the opinion of the American president on the Japanese according to text G?	1

31	What does the writer of the text want readers to know about the nuclear bomb?	1

Read the rest of page 136 and answer the following questions:

32	How did nuclear bombs make countries powerful after America's attack on Japan?	1

33	If you were the president of America during WWII, would you have used the nuclear bomb on Japan? Motivate your decision.	1

ANNEXURE C: Reading Text for the Pre-Test

4

Reasons Why World War 1 broke out

On 4 August 1914, Germany invaded Belgium and, as a consequence, Britain declared war on Germany. This meant that all the territories in their respective empires were also at war. This included South Africa which was a dominion (self-governing territory) of the British Empire.

The direct cause of the war was the domino effect of countries supporting each other after the assassination of the Archduke of Austria-Hungary by Serbian Nationalist Gavrilo Princip. Austria used the opportunity to suppress Serbian nationals, which saw Russia come to Serbia's assistance. France became involved in honour of its treaty with Russia while Germany in turn supported Austria. Britain hesitated about getting involved, but when Germany invaded neutral Belgium to enter France, Britain declared war on Germany.

While South Africa was automatically at war because Britain had declared war, the South African government could determine the extent to which the country became involved. On 7 August 1914, the Union government let Britain know that it would look after its own defence. This allowed the Imperial Garrison troops, stationed in the country after the 1899-1902 South African Anglo-Boer War, to return to Britain. In addition to putting the German wireless stations out of action in German South-West Africa (today's Namibia), South Africa would also look to occupy the territory.

The war provided an opportunity for countries to fulfil long-term ambitions concerning other territories and trade routes.

In 1901, Jan Smuts told his commando: 'The flag of the great Republic would yet float from the Equator to Simonsbay'.

In 1911, Louis Botha 'admitted to [David] Lloyd George [...] that in the event of a German war he intended to invade South-West Africa'.

In 1917, Smuts told the committee determining Britain's war demands, that he considered it 'very important to secure the elimination of Portugal from the southern part of her present East African territory,' because 'that territory had a seaboard of 2000 miles, a great part of which interfered directly with the natural development of the Union of South Africa and of Rhodesia.'

Activity: In small groups:
Using the map of the world on the next page, identify which countries South Africa wanted to include in the Union.
Discuss:
- Why do you think South Africa wanted these territories?
- How do you think Britain would react to a subordinate territory wanting to expand?

6

Conscription, Propaganda & Conscientious Objectors

In August 1914, there was a rush by many in Britain and the colonies to enlist in the army. They expected that the war would be over by December. However, the war was to last another four years and an ever increasing number of men were required to join the army. Unlike other European countries, Britain did not have conscription at the start of the war, but relied on volunteers. When it became apparent that there were not enough volunteers, steps were taken to introduce conscription in stages. Because so many enlisted who were regarded as essential workers, such as miners and munition workers, some men were not allowed to enlist in the army. However, there were people who did not believe in fighting or armed conflict to resolve differences. They were known as conscientious objectors.

In South Africa, apart from a very short period in 1914 when the National Reserve was called up to deal with the Boer Rebellion against the government, there was no conscription. All South Africans who served in a military capacity outside of the country had to be volunteers according to the Defence Act of 1912. However, for some South Africans there was a fine line between enlisting voluntarily and being told to enlist. The rebellion was soon crushed but the Boers were allowed to keep their weapons after the rebellion because of the 'Black Fear'. The 'Black Fear', or 'Swart Gevaar', was the concern by white South Africans that if black men were allowed to own guns, they would use them against the whites. As a result, when black men were taken into service with the Union Defence Force, they were not allowed to be soldiers. Instead they served in a wide variety of labour roles.

In both Britain and South Africa propaganda was used to convince men to enlist. When the propaganda failed to attract the numbers of people required, conscription was introduced or considered. In South Africa employers made it easier for white men to enlist by protecting their jobs, while the mine owners arranged contracts that allowed their black staff to do war work whether they wanted to or not. In some areas pressure was put on chiefs to supply specific numbers of labourers for the army.

Activity: Class Discussion:
What would make you serve in the army?
If you were a chief tasked with supplying 100 men for work, how would you decide who goes and who stays?
Read the statement by Stimela Jason Jingoes on the next page. How do you think the appeal he refers to differs from the other forms of propaganda on the page?

Activity:
Pick two items on the following page and consider the following:

- Who is the target audience ?
- What message do you think is being conveyed?
- How successful do you think it was?
- Think of advertising today. How different is it to 100+ years ago?


EAST RAND
LEAVE FOR ACTIVE SERVICE

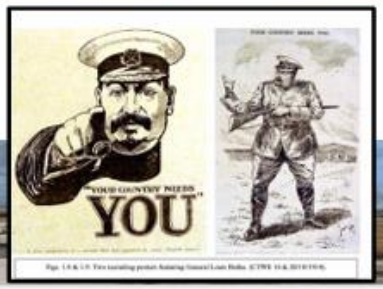
Rand Daily Mail, 15 May 1917
EAST RAND
LEAVE FOR ACTIVE SERVICE
The following special clause which ?? an addendum to the Germiston Municipal leave regulations, having been open for inspection for the period as required by the Ordinance, will be submitted for adoption at this evening's meeting of the Germiston Town Council. "During the period of the present war and for a period of six months thereafter special leave may be granted by the Council to employees proceeding on military service against the German Empire and its Allies for such periods and upon such terms and conditions as the Council may by resolution determine. The special clause shall be taken to be operative from the 5th day of August 1914."

When the First World War broke out, I, as a member of the British Commonwealth, felt deeply involved. The picture that the newspapers drew of men doing battle in trenches in the mud and the cold of France, fascinated and horrified me. I followed closely the progress of the war, as our papers wrote it up, and I felt growing in me the conviction that I should go and help in some way.
There had been many appeals in our Bantu newspapers for black people to volunteer. One such appeal was upon these lines:
'The present war is a world war. Every nation must take part in it. Even we Bantu ought to play our part in this war. Some of you have done a great deal in German East Africa and South West Africa already. You are still expected, even across the seas, to go and help.
'Without you, your white comrades cannot do anything, because they cannot fight and provide labour at the same time. So you must go and do the labour while your white fellows are doing the fighting. Please, everyone who loves his country and respects the British Government, join this war without hesitation. Forward! Forward!'

Stimela Jason Jingoes, A chief is a chief by the people (OUP, 1975) p72

Activity:
Divide the pupils into two groups:
Group 1 is to consider the benefits of conscription
Group 2 is to consider the disadvantages of conscription

During Apartheid after 1948, South Africa introduced conscription, but it did not feel the need to do so in either of the two World Wars.
Why do you think this was?



8

Where South Africans served: Europe

The main theatre of war for Britain was in continental Europe, in Belgium and France, along what became known as the Western Front.

While some South Africans paid their own passage to Britain to enlist in British regiments, others stayed behind to first fight in German South-West Africa and then enlisted for service in Europe or East Africa. In 1917, South Africans who were no longer needed in East Africa went to Palestine or the Middle East to fight.

The force which went to Europe was under the command of Henry Timson Lukin. Before they arrived on the Western Front, they first had to fight the Senusi in Egypt. After their success they arrived on the Western Front, soon after the Battle for the Somme began. They were assigned to Delville Wood where between 7 and 21 July 1916, the South Africans made a heroic stand, losing many men.

In 1927 South Africa arranged for a memorial to be erected at Delville Wood across the road from the cemetery. Today, the Delville Wood Memorial recognises all South Africans who participated in the various theatres of World War 1.

South Africans served in various theatres of war:

Embarking at Durban

Population / Gender Group	Number served	Number died	Comments
All groups	254,344	11,589	All theatres, forces (land, air, sea)
Black Males	82,769	1,729	Support roles including drivers for artillery, animal transport units, scouts and to fill local labour needs in GSWA, Europe, East Africa; includes men from Bechuanaland, Basutoland and Swaziland
Coloured Males	25,000	217 450	Support roles in GSWA, Europe, East Africa and 7,000 Cape Corps in East Africa and Palestine
Indian Males	350	17	Stretcher Bearers in East Africa
White Males	145,897	8,551	All theatres
White Females	328	14	Nurses in GSWA, EA, Europe

16

Women During World War 1: Changing Roles

The Home Front, both in Britain and South Africa, played an important role in keeping the fighting theatres operational. Industry was adapted to manufacture war material such as at the railways workshop at Salt River, Cape Town. The war provided an opportunity for South Africa to become more independent because imported supplies were restricted. This gave women an opportunity they had not previously had.

The war was to see a transformation in the role of women, particularly in Britain where they started to do work generally regarded as men's work. Their fashions also changed with skirts becoming shorter and trousers or long pants becoming acceptable. Although there was a similar move in South Africa, it was not to the same extent as there was a large untapped labour force, the black population, who were preferred because they could be paid less than white women. No photographs of South African women in pants have been found for the war years 1914-1918.

Voluntary Aid Detachment (VAD) Hospice, Durban

Planting and looking after gum trees at Empangeni, KZN. Once planted along the railway line, the trees would help protect the sugarcane plantations from catching fire when trains passed. This work had previously been done by men.

Activity: Using the information on these four pages (14-17), and your own knowledge (other research), prepare a 5 minute presentation on the diversity of involvement in the First World War.

Investigation activity: Not all population groups are mentioned. Which groups are missing? Why do you think this is? What do you think the women of these groups were doing during the war? You might have to do some wider research to answer these questions. Some of the resources mentioned on the inside back cover will be of use.

17

Braamfontein Ladies' (Soldiers' Comforts) Committee, 1914

Lady Railway Clerks at Bloemfontein.
The accompanying text reads:
One of the indirect results of the war has been the introduction of lady railway clerks, in South Africa as well as overseas, and at Bloemfontein all the departments – with the exception of Stores – have a certain number of feminine clerical assistants. One wonders what will be the eventual outcome of this flooding of the railway world with the opposite sex; but the thought at present that lies uppermost among those here who have the best interest of the Empire at heart is that, in looking at the photograph, they are reminded that for every two lady clerks shown, one, and in some cases, two, able-bodied and willing volunteers have been released for service either overseas or in East Africa.

18

Women During World War 1: The Vote

While British women used their support of the war to push for getting the vote, the Suffragettes and Suffragists used the opportunity to show they were responsible citizens and deserved to have a say in how the country was run. This was similar to the approach taken by the South African National Native Congress (now the ANC). The SANNC leadership believed that if black people showed their loyalty to Britain, unlike the rebellious Boers, they would be given the vote. Women in Britain who were over the age of 30 were given the vote in 1918, white women in South Africa were given the vote in 1932 while black men and women were allowed to vote for the first time in 1994.

While women such as Millicent Fawcett, Emily Hobhouse, Fanny Parker and others are remembered for their activism in helping women get the vote, the women in South Africa have generally been glossed over. Here are some who were active during the 1914-1918 war years. Millicent Fawcett and Emily Hobhouse had been in South Africa during the 1899-1902 South African Anglo-Boer war campaigning for better conditions in the camps where the Boers were interned.

Women in Britain

Dame **Millicent Garrett Fawcett** GBE (nee Garrett) (11 June 1947 – 5 August 1929) was an English politician, writer and feminist. From 1897-1919 she led Britain's largest women's rights association, the National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies (NUWSS).
This statue of her was unveiled on Britain's Parliament Square in 2018. South Africa's Jan Smuts and Nelson Mandela also have statues on the Square.

Emily Hobhouse (9 April 1860 – 8 June 1926) was a welfare campaigner, anti-war activist. Her ashes are scattered in Bloemfontein.

Frances Mary "Fanny" Parker OBE (24 December 1875 – 19 January 1924) was a suffragette who became prominent in Scotland and was repeatedly imprisoned for her actions. She was the niece of Lord Kitchener who had led the British forces in the 1899-1902 war in South Africa. Lord Kitchener is the man in the poster – Your Country Needs You.

20

The Defeat of Germany and the Treaty of Versailles

The war came to an end in Europe on 11 November 1918 when the armistice was agreed. The fighting in Africa only ended on 25 November 1918 with the Germans laying down of arms in East Africa.

The end of the war brought an expectation of better things to come. At the time, it was regarded as the war to end all wars.

Activity: Discussion – why do you think people thought World War One was the war to end all wars? Were they right? Were they wrong?

Mandates and League of Nations

From January 1919, the leaders of the countries which had fought in the war all met at the Palace of Versailles in France to discuss the peace terms.

One of these was the Mandate system which allocated all Germany's colonies to other countries for a period of time. In this way, South Africa came to control South-West Africa (Namibia) until 1990. After the Second World War (1939-1945) the League of Nations was replaced by the United Nations Organisation with the same aim to maintain international peace.

The Mandate territories were overseen by the League of Nations which was formed to help keep international peace. South Africa's Jan Smuts wrote the pre-amble (introduction) to the League of Nations and the United Nations, and was also instrumental in designing the Mandate System.

Activity: Do you think the mandate system (giving territory to other countries) was the right way to punish Germany at the end of the war? In your group, prepare a news report explaining your views. Present this to the rest of the class.

ANNEXURE D: Post-Test Reading Text

Unit 3 World War II in the Pacific

America in the War vs. Japan: Pearl Harbor

In the years before World War II, Japan wanted to expand its empire in order to be a self-reliant **superpower**. Japan was able to do this because it gained control of the former German colonies in the Pacific after World War I. Japan also gradually pulled away from international agreements and this angered the Western countries. Japan had relied on vital imports of rice and rubber from countries like Malaysia and China. One of Japan's rivals was America which had become a colonial power in the Philippines. In 1940, the **Tripartite Pact** was signed between Germany, Italy and Japan. This recognised Japan's right to a New Order in Asia. Now Japan could take positive steps to conquer new territories. The result was that Japan fought the Allies for control over the entire East Asian region in the war in the Pacific from 1941 to 1945.

key words

superpower country with a powerful position in the world which has the ability to control events and further its own interests

tripartite made up of three parts

The Japanese air force attack of Pearl Harbor was a surprise military strike conducted by the Imperial Japanese Navy against the United States naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, on the morning of 7 December, 1941. The attack was intended to keep the American Pacific fleet from interfering with military actions which the Empire of Japan was planning in Southeast Asia.

Japan launched 353 Japanese fighters, bombers and torpedo planes from six aircraft carriers. As there had been no declaration of war, America was caught off-guard. Sixteen American ships were damaged or destroyed, 2 402 Americans were killed and 1 282 wounded while Japanese losses were light with only 65 servicemen killed or wounded.

America and Britain immediately declared war on Japan, and soon the USA was at war with Germany and Italy too.

Figure 5.16 Pearl Harbor, 7 December 1941

Activity 11 The Rules of war

In groups, discuss whether you think Japan was wrong to attack Pearl Harbour without first declaring war on America.

Should there be rules in war? If so, who should make them?

Japanese-Americans forcibly moved into internment camps in the USA

As a result of the attack on Pearl Harbor, the Americans interned Japanese-Americans. In February 1942 about 120 000 people of Japanese descent living

key words

atrocities appalling behaviour or acts, cruelty by soldiers

mutilated physically injured, maimed, disfigured

decapitation death by severing the head from the body

in America were removed from their homes and sent to 10 different internment camps in case they spied for the Japanese. Life in the camps was hard. They lived in barracks and had to use communal areas for washing, laundry and eating. All of them suffered hardships, particularly the children. At the end of the war, some remained in America and rebuilt their lives. Others, though, were unforgiving and returned to Japan. In 1983, the USA acknowledged the injustice of internment.

Japanese expansion and atrocities in China

Japan sought to expand into Asia and fought a brutal war against China from 1931 onwards. This lasted for fifteen years until 1945.

Japan wanted to be economically self-sufficient so looked to occupy other countries to provide raw materials. Japan first occupied Manchuria, then went into China, but this was a much bigger country and many soldiers were needed to keep control to put down resistance. This developed into full-scale war, known as the Sino-Japanese war. Many **atrocities** were committed by the Japanese, such as in Nanking where 200 000 men were used for bayonet practice, machine gunned or set on fire. Many other people were **mutilated** or murdered, some by **decapitation**. Japan wanted China to surrender, but this did not happen.

Japanese prisoner-of-war camps for Allied soldiers

Japan did not treat prisoners-of-war (POWs) in accordance with international agreements, because the Japanese viewed surrender as dishonourable. Prisoners of the Japanese found themselves in camps in Japan, Taiwan, Singapore and other Japanese-occupied countries. Prisoner-of-war camps in Japan housed both captured military personnel and civilians who had been in the East before the outbreak of war.

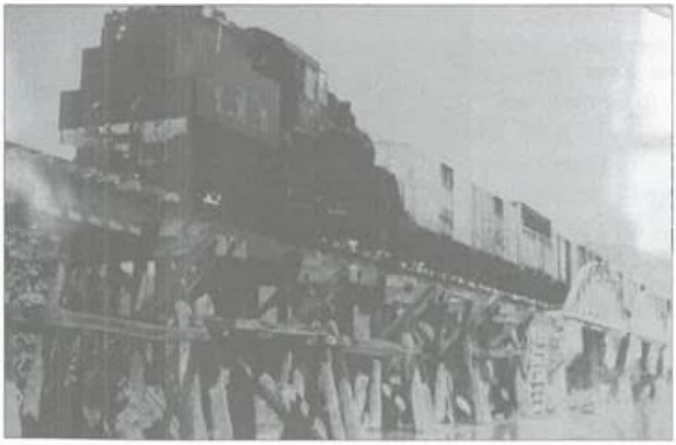


Figure 5.17 The bridge over the River Kwai, built in World War II

The Japanese inflicted starvation rations, beatings, murder and forced labour on Allied prisoners, such as forcing them to build the bridge on the River Kwai, part of the notorious Thailand-Burma railway built to carry supplies for the Japanese army. The death rate of western prisoners was seven times more than those taken prisoner in Germany or Italy. POWs had no access to the International Red Cross and it was difficult for them to escape as they looked western and could not hide amongst the Asiatic people who looked so different.

Unit 2 End of World War II in the Pacific: atomic bombs and the beginning of the Nuclear Age

key word

treaty written agreement between countries

In 1940 the Japanese signed a **treaty** with Germany and Italy (the Axis Powers in World War II). On 7 December 1941, the Japanese bombed the US naval base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii and in so doing brought the war into areas of the Pacific Ocean and the Far East. The Americans lost more ships than in the entire World War I, and 2 400 US soldiers died in the attack.

Soon after Pearl Harbor, the United States joined the Allied forces (Britain, Russia and France) in World War II.

On 7 May 1945, the Germans surrendered to the Allied forces. Victory in Europe Day (VE day) was celebrated on 8 May, marking the end of the war in Europe. But in Asia and in the Pacific, fighting continued.

Source B: Little Boy and Fat Man

When, where, why, and how did World War II come to an end?

How

On 6 August 1945, the aircraft Enola Gay dropped the first atomic bomb on the Japanese city of Hiroshima. The Americans chose Hiroshima because it was an industrial city with military operations. The bomb was nicknamed 'Little Boy', and destroyed about 90% of the city. Three days later, on 9 August 1945, the Americans dropped a second bomb on Nagasaki. This was Japan's oldest city port and the bomb was aimed at the shipping yard. It missed its target and the bomb destroyed half of the city.

Why

The USA and Britain issued an ultimatum demanding that Japan surrender, but Japan decided to continue the war. The belief of the US government at that time was that Japan would never surrender unless the country was utterly devastated.

When

The Japanese formally surrendered on 2 September 1945, bringing World War II to an end.

Where

The formal surrender took place on board the battleship USS Missouri, anchored with other United States and British ships in Tokyo Bay. It took less than half an hour.

Why did the USA drop the bombs?

In 1939, Albert Einstein and other scientists had warned the US government that the Germans were working on an atomic bomb. The Americans were sure that Hitler would use nuclear bombs against them, and therefore started their own nuclear programme. It was called the Manhattan Project and some of America's top scientists were commissioned to work on it. It was a top secret operation, led by scientist Robert Oppenheimer.

After VE Day, as the war continued in Asia, the Japanese occupation of China and of southeast Asia was costing the lives of thousands of Asian people as well as Allied soldiers. By the end of July 1945, almost half of Tokyo was destroyed and many Japanese cities levelled. The US planned to invade Japan, but they thought that half a million Allied forces might die if this were to happen. The US President, Harry Truman, therefore decided to drop the newly built atomic bomb on Japan.

Source C: Hiroshima

Mushroom cloud over Hiroshima

Was dropping the bombs justified?

The bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki – the first and (to date) last time atomic weapons were used in warfare – is still one of the most controversial decisions in military history. The two bombs killed almost 110 000 Japanese citizens and injured another 130 000. By 1950, another 230 000 Japanese had died from injuries or radiation. The vast majority of the casualties were civilians.

Source D: An opinion in support of the bombings

"Japan would have gone on in a horrible fashion for a long time with great loss of life on both sides. So to have ended war with the bombs seemed very sensible, especially at that time."

(Jay Weschler, a scientist who worked on the Manhattan Project)

Source E: An opinion against the bombings

"I think the American people were wrong ... the U.S. government exaggerated the situation; especially how many American troops would be killed if they invaded Japan ... the Japanese were close to being defeated."

(Peter Kuznick, American history professor)

ANNEXURE E: Intervention Program

Grade 9 learners' translingual reading competence of a history text.

Intervention: This study aims to understand Grade 9 multilingual learners' reading competence through a history text. Two in-tact Grade 9 classes from a double/parallel medium school will be used to determine how translingual reading affects reading comprehension amongst senior phase students.

A reading intervention program focussing on translingual reading practices and instruction in a history class will be implemented at a government school situated in the Gauteng province to collect data relating to Grade 9 learners' reading competency and Grade 9 learners' translingual reading experiences.

Reading interventions with multilingual and translingual pedagogical approaches will be conducted with the experimental group, while the control group will receive the same reading interventions without the multilingual and translingual elements. The intervention will take place in three sessions. The intervention sessions will range between 50 and 60 minutes. The total intervention time will range between 150 and 180 minutes. The following reading competencies will be addressed in the intervention sessions:

1) Extracting explicit information from a text
2) Answering questions in different wording than the text
3) Inference-making capabilities
4) Vocabulary in context
5) Evaluation and appreciation of reading skills

All intervention sessions will be facilitated by a qualified language educator registered with the South African Council for Educators.

Upon the completion of the intervention, both groups will undergo a reading comprehension and competency assessment in the form of a history text. The control group will only be allowed to answer the questions in English, which is the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) whereas the experimental group will be able to implement the translingual strategies which they have been equipped with the intervention sessions.

Based on the assessment results, a selected number of learners will be interviewed to better understand how translingual reading affected their competency and their reading experience.

Lesson 1: *(Vocabulary and Text Predictions)*

Outcomes for the lesson:

- At the end of the lesson, learners should be able to deduce meaning from unknown words.
    - At the end of the lesson, learners should be able to identify the vocabulary that contributes to the main idea in each paragraph.
    - At the end of the lesson, learners should demonstrate the ability to infer new vocabulary in a text.
    - At the end of the lesson, learners should be able to predict what paragraphs are about and compare their predictions with the actual texts.

Introduction: (10 minutes)

Pre-reading: See textbook (Social Science Today Grade 9 Learners' book page 110)

- **Activity 1:** Activate background knowledge
    - Learners' prior knowledge about WW1.
        - Divide learners into groups of 4-6 and let them discuss what they can remember from WW1, which was done in the prior year.
        - Give the groups prompts about how WW1 ended and ask the groups to make a **prediction** as to how WW2 started.
        - The groups share their predictions with the class.
        - **NB! Learners are encouraged throughout the introduction and pre-reading phase to converse in English and their home languages.**

Body: (30 minutes)

<u>Reading:</u>

- Group Guided Reading
    - Learners read the text aloud in their groups while the teacher rotates from group to group
    - Learners are encouraged to underline and write the words they do not know the meaning (20 minutes)

<u>Post-reading:</u>

- Vocabulary-building
    - The unknown vocabulary words are written on laminated cards with a marker and put on the whiteboard/blackboard using magnets.
    - Learners will be asked to write down these words in their home languages and match the English word on the board with their home language words.
    - Learners discuss the meaning of words in their groups in both their home languages and English. (10 minutes)

- Each group makes 5 sentences with the words that can be used in similar contexts. Groups share the sentences which they made.

Conclusion: (10 Minutes)

- Learners play a game called vocabulary tic-tac-toe.
  - The previously unknown vocabulary is placed in their English and learners' home languages on the board in the tic-tac-toe board. Learners have to write a sentence in which the meaning of the word is obvious in order to be able to make an X or an O.
  - This activity also serves as a formative assessment to determine if the translingual vocabulary expansion exercise was efficient.

LTSM's:

- Each group will have 1 dictionary
- White laminated cards and a whiteboard marker
- Laminated tic-tac-toe board suitable for whiteboard marker ink

Predicted difficult vocabulary in the history texts of Lesson 1

Word	**Translation to home language**	**Synonyms**
Heritage		
Constitution		
Politics		
Occupation		
Nationalism		
Occupied		
Colonies		
Reduced		
Debt		
Currency		
Inflation		
Unemployment		
Morale		
Divided		
United		
Resist		
Master plan		
Hatred		
Anti-Semitism		
Imposed		
Agreements		
Onset		
Affected		
Laid off		

Hyperinflation		
Extreme		
Scapegoat		
Encountered		
Hardship		
Incapable		
Publicised		
Rallies		
Propaganda		
Promoted		
Belonging		
Overthrow		
Contributed		
Instability		
Revolt		
Wall Street Crash		
Attended		
Enthusiastically		
Coalition		
Dictatorial		
Eradicating		
Muzzling		
Abolishing		
Prohibiting		
Threat		
Regime		
Opponents		
Loyalty		
State		

Vocabulary Tic-Tac-Toe Examples:

Colonies	Moral	Resist
Occupied	Reduced	Hatred
Debt	Currency	United

Master plan	Anti-Semitism	Impose
Agreement	Onset	Affected
Laid off	Hyperinflation	Extreme

Scapegoat	Hardship	Encountered
Incapable	Publicised	Rallies

Propaganda	Promoted	Belonging
Attended	Enthusiastically	Coalition
Dictatorial	Eradicating	Abolishing
Prohibiting	Threat	Regime

Group 1+2

Unit 1 The rise of Nazi Germany

Did you know?
Weimar is a city in Germany famous for its cultural heritage. It is the place where Germany's first democratic constitution was signed after the First World War, giving its name to the Weimar Republic period in German politics of 1918 – 1933.

key word

inflation rise in the general level of prices of goods and services in an economy

morale the capacity of people to maintain belief in an institution or a goal, or in themselves and others

You have already learned about World War I. Many factors had led to this war, one of which was Germany's occupation of land due to its growing nationalism. Although Germany was defeated in the war, the Germans were still proud of their country. The Allies blamed Germany for the war and the terms were so harsh that the Weimar Republic (the new name for Germany) had severe problems.

End of World War I; Weimar Republic; Treaty of Versailles

PREDICTION

The Treaty of Versailles (1919), which ended the War, laid down the following peace terms:

1. Germany had to pay for damages caused by the war.
2. Germany lost the land it had occupied before World War I, as well as its four colonies in Africa.
3. Germany was allowed only a reduced, small army and navy and no air force.
4. Germany had to agree that they alone had caused the war, which many Germans thought was unfair.

PREDICTION

The huge war debt meant that the Weimar Republic struggled financially: prices of goods and services rose and their currency became almost worthless. In 1923, French and Belgian troops occupied Germany's main industrial region – the Ruhr River Valley – because Germany had not paid back their war debt or delivered enough coal or steel. This occupation of the centre of the German coal and steel industries made the German people angry and they stopped working. The result was **inflation** and **unemployment** (around 30%) and **morale** was low. Politically, the country was divided.

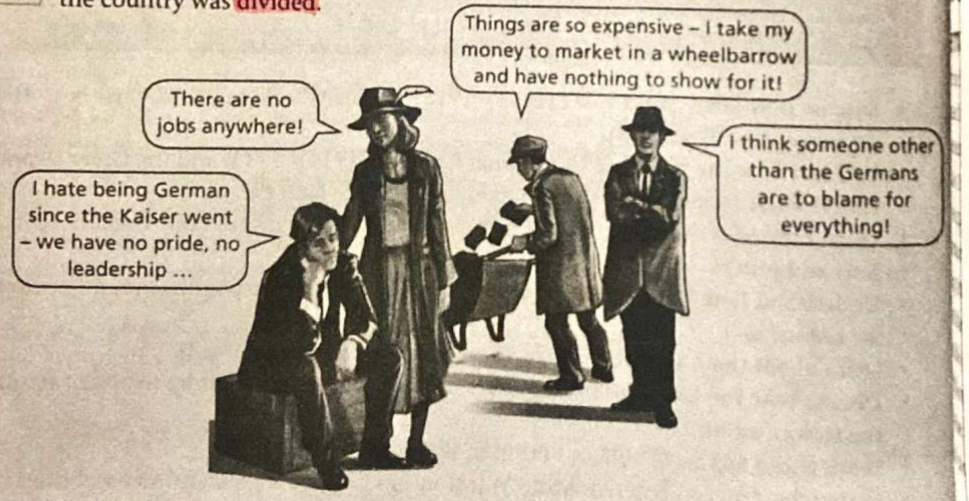


Figure 5.1 What ordinary Germans were feeling and saying in Germany in the 1920s

Activity 1 Misery in Weimar

Look at the cartoon in Figure 5.1 to see what ordinary Germans were feeling and saying in Germany in the 1920s. The important industrial region of the Ruhr had been invaded by Belgian and French troops. The price of a loaf of bread had increased a hundred times.

1. How would this make you feel if you were a German?
2. Would you look for somebody to blame?
3. Act out a discussion as if you were the people in the cartoon.

Group 3+4

Hitler and the Nazis, 1920s

The National Socialist German Workers' Party, called the Nazi Party, was formed in Munich on 5 January, 1919. Adolph Hitler became the seventh member in that year. By 1921 he was playing a big role in the party. The Nazis made popular promises:

- to create jobs
- to make Germany strong and united
- to resist carrying out the instructions of the Treaty of Versailles.

Because Hitler worked against the Weimar Republic, he was arrested in 1923 and sent to jail where he wrote a book called *Mein Kampf* ('My Struggle'). He spelt out his master plan for Germany, a country to be populated only by the pure German race which he called the Aryan race. He promoted nationalism and hatred of the Jews or anti-Semitism.

→ Blue eyes/Blond hair.

In 1924, he was released from prison and promised to seek power by legal means.

Did you know?

The word 'arya' in Sanskrit (an old language) means 'pure'. Hitler was obsessed with the idea of a pure race consisting of superior people (*Ubermensch*) which would last over 1 000 years. Aryans were blond, blue-eyed, muscular, healthy people, morally and physically strong.

The Great Depression of 1929 and effects on Germany

After the Ruhr occupation, Germany could not continue to pay the war debt imposed by the Treaty of Versailles. America lent Germany money in the agreements called the Dawes Plan (in 1924) and the Young Plan (in 1929). In October 1929, the Wall Street stock market crash meant the end of the strength of America's **economy**. The result of this was the onset of the so-called Great Depression of 1929 and it affected countries all over the world. As Germany had built up its economy on American loans, it was hugely affected when America wanted the money back. Germany was given 90 days to start repayments. This was impossible and the effect on Germany was that German companies went bankrupt and millions of workers were laid off. **Hyperinflation** meant that money lost most of its value. Those who saw no end to their troubles turned to the more extreme political parties in Germany – the Nazi and Communist Parties.

key words

economy economic systems of a country
hyperinflation dramatic rise of prices of goods and services

NB!!

Group 3 5+6

Did you know?

The Munich Putsch was also known as the Beer Hall Putsch as the revolt was launched by Hitler from a large beer hall in Munich where many people gathered. The Nazi Swastika flag was first used during this event: it was covered in the blood of one of the Nazis who was killed and so got its red colour.

Failure of democracy in the Weimar Republic

Because the Weimar Republic had accepted the Treaty of Versailles, German people saw it as a sell-out. They were dissatisfied and bitter, and wanted a scapegoat (someone to blame). After the Wall Street crash, people encountered great hardship and the government was incapable of helping them. They liked the Nazis' direct and simple solutions which were publicised through rallies, on radio, in films and posters. All the Nazi propaganda promoted German unity and a sense of belonging to a powerful nation.

There were many attempts to overthrow the Weimar Republic, and these contributed to its instability. Three of these were the *Spartacusbund* revolt of January 1919, the Kapp revolt of March 1920 and the Munich Putsch of November 1923, which resulted in Hitler going to prison.

PREDICT THE REASONS

Reasons for public support for Nazi Party

For over ten years, the German people had been suffering loss of national pride, economic and financial hardship and a feeling of hopelessness, especially after the Wall Street crash when the loans made to them were called in. The Nazis offered hope by promising a strong, united Germany with jobs and renewed purpose in building Germany up.

Figure 5.2 Standard bearers at a Nazi Party rally in 1933

The Nazis used a great deal of propaganda. They spread their ideas throughout Germany so people saw posters, heard radio broadcasts and attended rallies where they participated enthusiastically and felt proud to be German again. Hitler was an excellent public speaker himself, and he used Josef Goebbels to make Nazi policies public and well-known. Hitler was presented as the German people's last hope. Goebbels later became Hitler's Minister of Propaganda.

(and TRANSLINGUALLY)

GROUPS VERBALLY COMPARE THEIR PREDICTIONS with the actual information

Group 1/2 7+8

key words

Reichstag building and meeting place for the Reichstag or parliament

coalition agreement among individuals or groups to co-operate and join forces for a common cause

Schutzstaffel (SS) storm troopers, a branch of Hitler's armed forces

Gestapo Secret State Police

regime repressive government

The 1932 and 1933 elections

After the Great Depression struck Germany, the government was struggling and people wanted a more stable party. The Nazis found the money to finance three massive election campaigns between 1930 and 1932. In 1929 they had only 12 in the **Reichstag**. By July 1932 the Nazi Party was the strongest with 230 seats, there were also other parties such as the Communist Party, and the Nazis failed get the majority vote. Powerful forces in the government decided to promote H President Paul von Hindenburg made Hitler Chancellor of a coalition governm in January 1933 and in the March 1933 elections, Hitler won 288 seats.

Enabling Act 1933 and dictatorship

Because the Nazis won so many seats, they were immediately able to force thro an Enabling Act, giving Hitler dictatorial powers for four years.

He set about eradicating all opposition by:

- muzzling the press
- abolishing other political parties
- imprisoning other leaders
- prohibiting trade unions
- burning non-Nazi books.

Hitler succeeded in giving Germans back their national pride, but he did not tolerate any opposition. Ernst Röhm was the leader of the Brownshirts or SA (*Sturmabteilung*). He wanted to redistribute wealth to improve the financial welfare of the masses. Hitler found that Röhm was becoming a threat, so even though the Brownshirts had helped Hitler come to power, Hitler had their leade (including Röhm) killed during the 'Night of the Long Knives' in June 1934. Most of the killings were carried out by the ***Schutzstaffel*** (SS) and the *Gestapo* (*Geheime Staatspolizei*), the **regime's** secret police. Concentration camps were set up to confine and question or sometimes torture the Nazis' political opponents. When the president of Germany, Paul von Hindenburg died in August 1934, Hit combined the role of president and chancellor in one and proclaimed himself *Führer*. The German army had to swear an oath of loyalty to him. Thus Germany had become a dictator's state.

Did you know?

During the 1933 elections the Reichstag was set on fire. Hitler used this to accuse the communists of a plot to seize power and to turn people against the Communist Party.

p. 113

Lesson 2: *(Extracting the main idea)*

Outcomes of the lesson:

- At the end of this lesson, learners should be able to identify the main idea of the text.
    - At the end of this lesson, learners should be able to identify the main ideas of each paragraph.
    - At the end of this lesson, learners should be able to determine the main idea of the whole text.
    - At the end of this lesson, learners should be able to extract explicit information from the text.

Introduction:

Pre-reading:

- Recap what happened in the previous lesson with vocabulary. Reiterate that if learners are unfamiliar with a word, they should write down the word and translate the word into their home language.
- **Activity 1:** Learners read the headings in paragraphs and predict what the paragraph is about. Learners write their predictions on a sticky note in their home language. This is individual work. (7 minutes)

Body:

During reading:

- **Activity 2:** Learners will read in pairs. Before they read, they will share each of their predictions with one another. (7 minutes)
- **Activity 3:** Learners read aloud in pairs. They write down the main idea of every paragraph underneath their initial prediction. (20 minutes)

Pre-reading:

- **Activity 4:** The learners compare and contrast their predictions and what the main ideas of each paragraph were in their home languages with one another.
- **Activity 5:** The learners underline/highlight the words and phrases in each paragraph that contribute to the main idea. They translate these words into their home languages and rewrite the main idea of the paragraph in their home languages. (**Activity 4&5 20-30 minutes**)

Consolidation:

- **Activity 6:** 1 Member from each group shares with the class what they have found. The learner will be encouraged to use translingual practice during the presentation of findings. In other words, the content on the sticky notes is read and the class is invited to discuss the main ideas. Ideas are compared and contrasted. The educator should facilitate the conversation in class using prompts such as: “Do you agree with XYZ?; Why could you possibly disagree

with XYZ's statement?; What about your main idea differs and what about your main idea is similar to XYZ's main idea?; Could there be a secondary main idea in the passage?; Is that the only main idea, who could help?

LTSM's:

- Sticky notes (Stick-it notes)

Teacher reflection on the lesson:

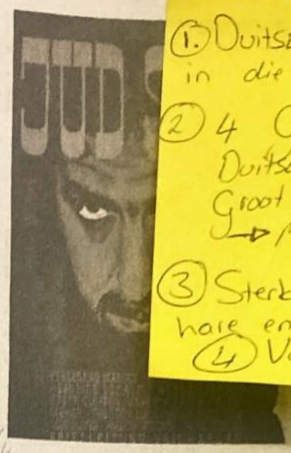
Nuremberg Laws and loss of basic rights of Jewish people, 1935

The Nuremberg Laws of 1935 were anti-Semitic laws in Nazi Germany introduced at the annual Nuremberg Rally of the Nazi Party. After the takeover of power in 1933 by Hitler, Nazism became an official ideology, including anti-Semitism as a form of racism.

The Nuremberg Laws classified people with four German grandparents as 'German or kindred blood', while people were classified as Jews if they descended from three or four Jewish grandparents. A person with one or two Jewish grandparents

was a *Mischling*, a crossbreed, of 'mixed blood'. These laws deprived Jews of German citizenship and prohibited marriage between Jews and other Germans. 9/4

The reason for this was that Hitler wished to produce a pure German Aryan race of *Ubermensch*, a 'master race'. The ideal Germany (the 'Third Reich') and the countries they took over should be ruled by the 'master race'. They idealised the powerful, muscular, blue-eyed, blond features. Hitler hated the Jewish people. This bias is called anti-Semitism.



1. Duitsers is beter as Jode in die Derde Ryk.
2. 4 Grootouers is 'n ware Duitser; 3/4 Joodse Groot ouers is 'n "Mischling" → Mischling → "crossbreed".
3. Sterk te meng met blonde hare en blou oë;
4. Vooroordeel → anti Semitisme

Figure 5.5 A poster advertising an Anti-Semitic film

Activity 3 Hitler's views

HW -9-3/4

Source A: Point 4 of the DSDAP Program

Only members of the nation may be citizens of the State. Only those of German blood, whatever their creed, may be members of the nation. Accordingly no Jew may be a member of the nation.

(Adolph Hitler and Anton Drexler, founder of the German Worker's Party; point 4 of the 25-point Party Programme adopted in 1920)

Source B: Extract from *Mein Kampf*

It is the Jew who struggles for his domination over the nations. No nation can remove this hand from its throat except by the sword ... Such a process is and remains a bloody one.

(*Mein Kampf*, Hitler, 1939)

In pairs read the two sources above. Then write answers to the questions.

1. In your own words explain what Hitler is saying in Source A and Source B.
2. Describe what Hitler saw as the ideal Aryan person.
3. How did Hitler see Jewish people?
4. In what way is Source B a threat to Jewish people?
5. The German people were looking for someone to blame for their problems. Why do you think Hitler's hatred of the Jews would have appealed to them?
6. Aryans thought of themselves as morally superior, yet they killed millions of non-Aryans. How do you think they explained this to themselves?

Did you know?
In concentration camps, prisoners could be identified as to which 'undesirable' group they belonged by the colour triangle they wore. Green triangles were for criminals; yellow triangles were for Jews; red triangles for political prisoners; purple triangles for homosexuals, etc.

Persecution of political opponents: Jehovah's Witnesses; Roma (gypsies); homosexuals; Slavs; black people; disabled people

Aside from the Jews, there were other people who were also considered inferior (not good enough) to live in Germany. These included Jehovah's Witnesses who had beliefs different from other Christians; the Roma (gypsies); homosexuals; Slavs, people from the Slavic race; black people; and disabled people. There was no place for these people in an Aryan homeland. Anti-Semitism had a long history in Germany and many Germans supported the Nazis' racist views.

Activity 4 **Using primary sourc**

ing passages in Sources C a

t

.. They took us by car ... [t
Welfare. They examined
ain this to ordinary people
noses. We were lucky we w
rilised. It was all over in two
reed not to marry people with
we wouldn't have sexual relations
d offensive. I felt only half human.

n from the Rhineland who were
sterilised because they were classified as being of 'mixed race')

unt

earlier raid. At the railroad station.
d been taken. He asked the Germans
wo days later we arrived at Dachau [a
locked in the airless boxcar for about
heard a shout as thirty or forty young
ew open the doors. "Pigheads," they
ngo niggers, run." Their whips fell on
ard the gates of Dachau.

y the SS arrived for his family)

3. Who were the ordinary people to whom the writer found the event difficult to describe?
4. Being sterilised is a humiliating and horrible experience. Why do you think the writer says, "We were only sterilised"?
5. Continue the writer's explanation, "I felt only hal human because ..."

Refer to Source D.

6. Do you think the father wa brave to ask the Germans t let the family travel togethe in the same boxcar? Why?

(1) Nie-Duitsers was verantmenslik.
(2) Nie-Duitsers was getoets en gesteriliseer en forseer om in dokument te teken wat hulle verbied om verhoudings met Duitsers of halwe-Duitsers te hê.
(3) Ander mense was doodgemaak "euthanasia".

(1) Die SS het gypsies konsentrasie kampe toe geneem
(2) Gypsies were dehumanised and treated badly. ~~with~~ by torture and abusive language.

(1) Nazi's ~~are~~ felt Germans are superior to Jehova's Witnesses, Roma (gypsies); homosexuals; black people (Africans) and disabled people and slaves
(2) They prosecuted all of the above because they were not SEEN as aryan.
(3) There was no place in Germany for them.

7. Explain in your own words what a concentration camp was.
8. In what ways were the guards offensive when they let the people out?
9. Why did the guards regard life so cheaply that they killed two men?

Key words

euthanasia mercy killing, or, killing someone to save them from what's to come

concentration camps camps where 'undesirable' people were sent to keep them all together in one cramped, fenced-in place with very little food

- Kristalnacht beteken die gebreek van glas.
- 9 November 1938 word 100 Jode doodgemaak, 30 000 word na konsentrasie kampe gestuur, 7500 Joodse winkels word vernietig.
- Diskriminasie teen Jode begin amptelik; Jode mag nie meer openbare fasiliteite gebruik nie. → Almost like Apartheid.

By 1938 the Nazis started on a full-sc… of 9 November 1938, SS men killed a… concentration camps. They burnt do… and shattered the glass fronts of over… throughout Germany. This night is k… shattering of the glass. *Kristallnacht* … shooting of a German diplomat.

Kristallnacht is generally seen as the … After *Kristallnacht*, various laws wer… public life. Jewish people were not … profession where they dealt with 'non-Jewish' people; they were treated as less than human.

Hw-9/3

Activity 5 Kristallnacht

Read Source E and discuss the following questions in groups.

Source E: *Kristallnacht*

Kristallnacht changed the nature of persecution from economic, political, and social to the physical with beatings, incarceration, and murder; the event is often referred to as the beginning of the Holocaust. In the words of historian Max Rein in 1988, "*Kristallnacht* came ... and everything was changed."

Figure 5.7 Broken windows on *Kristallnacht*

1. Discuss what the writer meant by "economic, political, and social persecution". Give examples.
2. What other examples of physical persecution can you think of?
3. Why do people say that *Kristallnacht* was the beginning of the Holocaust?

Nazi Germany as an exar… (compared with democra…

In a fascist state, the nation is all-importan… common ancestry and culture, and nation… **Paramilitary** organisations, such as the … opponents with violence. Discipline is stro… contrast to a democracy where everyone h… are regarded as very important.

- Germany becomes a fascist state
- The country becomes more important than individual human rights.

Fascist State	Democracy
• Common Ancestry • common Culture • Paramilitary org. threaten with violence • Discipline + conformity	• individual human rights MATTER. • Everyone has a vote

Lesson 3: *(Inference-making abilities)*

Outcomes of this lesson:

- At the end of this lesson, learners should be able to make inferences with the text.
    - At the end of this lesson, learners should be able to explain historical events and the impact they made on individuals through their inference-making abilities.
    - At the end of this lesson, learners should be able to read various different texts, such as poems and personal accounts like diary entries, and infer how historical events shaped the lives of individuals.
    - At the end of this lesson, learners should be able to morally judge historical events and their appropriateness as well as extract lessons learned on social responsibility by using inference-making skills.

Introduction:

- **Activity 1:** Learners receive a picture, and they have to infer as much as possible information from it in groups of four; Learners write down their findings (in both English and their home language). Learners share their findings with the class.
- **Activity 2:** The class is tasked to describe what it means to infer. The teacher will only assist and intervene when necessary.

Body:

<u>Pre-peading:</u>

- Learners must be made aware that they will read “between the lines”.
- Remind learners of the previous lesson; learners had to summarise the paragraphs and main ideas of the text in their own words in sticky notes.

<u>During reading</u>

Learners will continue to write down the main ideas in their own words on sticky notes but with added activities:

- **Activity 3:** On the sticky notes learners will write:
    - The texts say: (proceeds to write in their own words what the text says)
    - I know that: (proceeds to write what the learner knows from general knowledge or other texts)
    - Hence: (proceeds to combine the information from the text from their own background knowledge to draw a conclusion)
- **Activity 4:** Learners share their inferences with the rest of the class. It is important for learners to share how they have drawn their final conclusions.

<u>NB! Learners do this in groups and only on page 118. The rest of the texts will have other inferences activities.</u>

- **Activity 5:** Learners read the poem, written by a Jewish child in a concentration camp. They read this with the text on page 119 about the concentration camps and extermination camps. They are tasked with the following questions and must discuss this in groups while writing down their findings:
    - What type of life did the writer have? Motivate your answer.
    - What links are there between the poem and Anne Franks's story? How can you tell?
    - Revisit chapter 2 and draw further connections between Anne Franks's story and the laws of Nazi Germany.

Conclusion:

- **Activity 6:** Learners are tasked with reacting to the text and atrocities of Germany in WW2 with a simple question:
    - Write down and explain to your group how your culture would react if oppressed.
        - The translingual group are encouraged to write this down in their home language and discuss it with their peers translingually whereas the control group would only complete this task in English (LoLT).

Inference making: Reading between the lines

"Drop off"

Answer the following questions:

1) How is the girl feeling? How do you know?
2) Why is she feeling that way?

3) Who is the man?
4) Where are they?
5) Does the title give you any clues about this image?
6) What are the characters thinking? Draw speech bubbles to accompany the picture.

Unit 2 World War II: Europe

Did you know?
The **annexation** of Austria was known as the *Anschluss*. A referendum was held immediately, and the Nazis claimed that 99,7% of the people voted in favour of unity with Germany.

key words
expansionist policy of a state expanding its territories, usually through military aggression/force
annexation incorporation (inclusion) of territory into an existing political unit, such as a country or city (and usually by force)

Nazi policies made the German people change from feeling hopeless and crushed by the Treaty of Versailles, to pulling together and feeling national pride. Nazi ideas were, however, taken to extremes, and other nations began to fear Hitler's **expansionist** policy which allowed for no minority groups or other opinions.

N onist foreign policy

f

erman. Nazis believed that extra an population, both in land and ler stated that inferior Slavic ople. In 1938 Hitler united Austria did nothing to stop him although en Hitler took Sudetenland, an area nd after that, other parts as well. e Allies said they would declare war if he attacked Poland.

l: Axis vs. Allies

the Battle of Britain, British pi ftwaffe (air periority. led to Britain. This housands n Russia, ter, and sia, which was erman army at this battle the only go in on

118

- The text says:
  Germany had taken land even though they were not allowed to
  - Britain and France did nothing about it; they only worried about Poland.
- I know that:
  - War is bad
- Hence: (inference)
  Britain and France tried their best to avoid war.

The text says:
- Axis alliances was a group of nations that fought the Allies.
- The group consists of Germany, Italy & Japan.

I know that:
Countries that fight together are friends

Hence:
Italy and Japan had similair norms and attitudes as Nazi Germany and are therefore also fascits.

The text says:
- Germany invaded Netherlands and France.
- Germany was prevented to invade England.

I know that:
Germany is very strong for conquering France/Netherlands

Hence: inference
Britain is strong and very important to stop Germany from taking more land.

The text says:
- Hitler decided to rather attack Russia in the cold winter instead of Britain, and that it he failed.

I know that:
- Winter is very cold

Hence:
Because it is so cold, the Germans failed to invade Russia.

Activity 6 Interpreting cartoons

Look at the cartoon, Figure 5.8. Now write answers to the following questions:

1. Which is the stronger country, Italy or Germany?
2. What two details of the drawing tell you this?
3. What is the badge on the German soldier's arm?
4. Explain the Italians' probable reaction to this cartoon.

(1) Learners are asked to read this text with the poem on the next page and the passage about ANNE Frank.

genocide, the solution'

atic **genocide** of various ethnic, World War II.

of the Holocaust. What the Nazis called was formally instituted in September all. The commonly used figure for Other 'undesirables', especially Slavs es), the mentally or physically disabled, olitical **dissidents**, were also persecuted and murdered. Taking these other groups into account, the total death toll rises considerably, to at least 11 million.

The Holocaust was Hitler and the Nazis' 'final solution'. Jewish people and others were taken, by force, to 'work camps' which were concentration camps. Because very few people came out of these alive, these camps were also known as death camps. Possessions were taken away from the prisoners. They had their heads shaved and were forced to do hard physical labour. They were starved, humiliated and tortured. Children and parents were separated.

At first, victims were shot or beaten to death, but later they were gassed to death and then burnt in large rooms known as crematoria, after having had their gold teeth pulled out. There were 22 **extermination** camps, the most notorious being Dachau, Treblinka, Auschwitz and Buchenwald. This was one of the most shameful episodes in the history of the world.

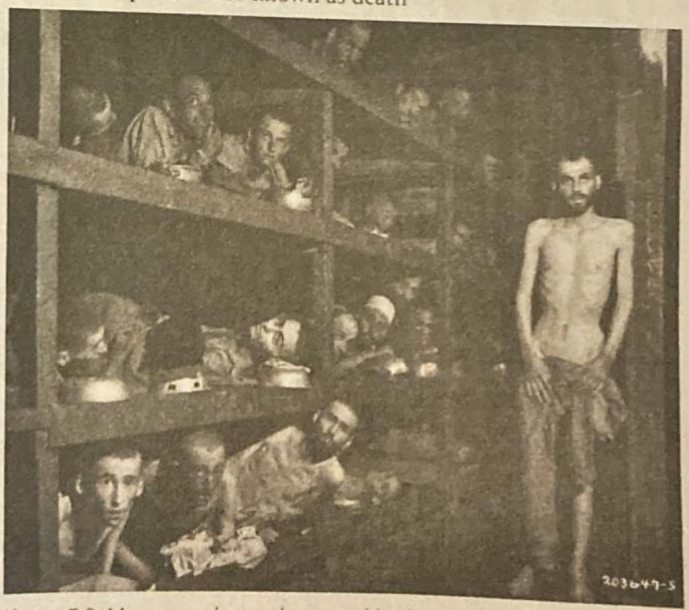


Figure 5.9 Many people nearly starved in the 'death camps'.

key words

holocaust the killing of approximately 6 million European Jews during World War II, programme of systematic state-sponsored murder by Nazi Germany

genocide destruction of an entire group of people, such as the Jews

dissidents people actively challenging an established doctrine, policy, or institution

extermination deliberate and systematic destruction of a group of people

Activity 8 Jewish children

In pairs, read Source E (translated), written by a child in a concentration camp. Answer the questions that follow.

Source E: AT TEREZIN

When a new child comes
Everything seems strange to him.
What, on the ground I have to lie?
Eat black potatoes? No! Not I!
I've got to stay? It's dirty here!
The floor – why, look, it's dirt, I fear!
And I'm supposed to sleep on it?
I'll get all dirty!

Here the sound of shouting, cries,
And oh, so many flies.
Everyone knows flies carry disease.
Ooh, something bit me! Wasn't that a bedbug?
Here in Terezin, life is hell
And when I'll go home again, I can't yet tell

(A poem written by 'Teddy' in the Terezin concentration camp, Czech Republic, 1943)

Inferences:
1) What type of life did the writer have? → Motivate your answer.
2) What links are there between the poem and Anne franks' story?
3) What links does the Anne Frank Story have with the previous chapter.

1. Discuss your feelings about the poem. Do you think Teddy ever went home? Why or why not?
2. As a creative activity, you should either illustrate this poem or write a new poem, describing how you would feel in a similar situation.

Another Jewish child was Anne Frank. She wrote about her experiences, and her book was later published as *The Diary of Anne Frank*. She was born in Germany but lost her citizenship because of the Nuremberg Laws. Her family moved to Amsterdam where they were trapped when the Nazis occupied the Netherlands. The family went into hiding in July 1942, in the hidden rooms of the office building of Anne's father, Otto Frank. After two years, the group was betrayed and transported to concentration camps. Anne Frank and her sister, Margot, were eventually transferred to the Bergen-Belsen concentration camp, where they both died of bacterial typhus in March 1945. Otto Frank, the only survivor of the family, returned to Amsterdam after the war to find that Anne's diary had been saved, and his efforts led to its publication in 1947. The diary, which was given to Anne on her 13th birthday, tells about her life from 12 June 1942 until 1 August 1944.

9/3

Examples of resistance to Nazism in Germany

Sophie Scholl and the White Rose Movement

Did everybody in Germany support Hitler? Initially, no. He was seen as too violent by some. After *Kristallnacht* many Germans were shocked – not by the fact that Jews were persecuted, but by the fact that they were so viciously and publicly beaten up and that violence spread to the streets and that there was such destruction of property. However, even though they were disapproving, these Germans did little to help the Jews.

Figure 5.11 Christopher Probst and Sophie Scholl

The White Rose Society was a resistance movement in Germany calling for non-violent resistance against the Nazi regime. Hans and Sophie Scholl and their friend, Christoph Probst, were the leaders of a group of five students who released six leaflets in 1942 and 1943. A seventh leaflet, which may have been prepared, was never released because the group was captured. Sophie Scholl shocked everyone in the courtroom when she remarked: "Somebody, after all, had to make a start. What we wrote and said is also believed by many others. They just don't dare to express themselves as we did." They were all found guilty of treason and were executed.

key word

Confessing Church Protestant church in Nazi Germany opposed the government – sponsored efforts to nazify the German Protestant church

Activity 9 Attempting resistance

It is 1934 and the Nazification of Germany has begun to get more serious. You have been passive until you witness street violence against Jews, hear that some of your women friends in the public service have lost their jobs, and you are harassed by Nazis when you try to go to your church.

Draw up a pamphlet which has a catchy heading, in which you:

- outline some objections you have to what is happening
- suggest ways to resist the Nazis
- illustrate your ideas.

Dietrich Bonhoeffer and the Confessing Church

Dietrich Bonhoeffer was a German Lutheran pastor, anti-Nazi, and founding member of the **Confessing Church**. Bonhoeffer became known for his resistance against the Nazi dictatorship by strongly opposing Hitler's euthanasia programs and the genocide against the Jews. He was also involved in plans by members of the German Military Intelligence Office to assassinate Adolph Hitler. He was arrested in April 1943 by

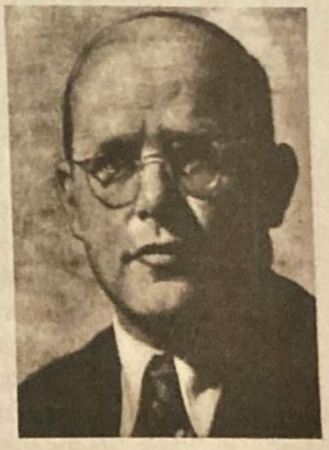


Figure 5.12 Dietrich Bonhoeffer, founding member of the Confessing Church

the Gestapo and executed by hanging in April 1945, 23 days before the Nazi surrender. He was only 39 years old.

key word

ghetto part of a city predominantly occupied by a particular group, because of social or economic issues or forced to live there

Warsaw ghetto uprising

This was the largest single revolt by the Jews during World War II and was the first mass uprising in Nazi-occupied Europe. The Warsaw GHETTO in German occupied Poland, concentrated 300 000 – 400 000 people into a densely packed central area of Warsaw. In 1942, thousands of these people were sent to the extermination camp at Treblinka. By the end of 1942, ghetto inhabitants had found out about the extermination process. Many of the remaining Jews decided to revolt. The Polish Resistance supported the Jews by attacking German units near the ghetto walls. 13 000 Jews were killed in the ghetto during the uprising. the remaining 50 000 residents, most were captured and shipped to concentration and extermination camps, in particular to Treblinka. The suppression of the uprising officially ended on 16 May 1943.

Figure 5.13 British Prime Minister Winston Churchill

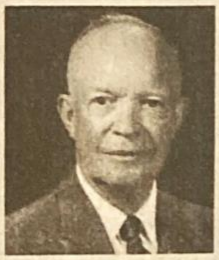


Figure 5.14 General Eisenhower of the Allied Forces

Figure 5.15 Joseph Stalin, dictator of the USSR from 1929 until 1953

Activity 10 Resistance fighters

Imagine you are a member of a resistance group against the Nazis, either The White Rose Society or the Polish Resistance.

Write a letter to a member of your family explaining why you feel you must resist and why you think the Nazis are wrong in what they are doing to other people.

Although the Warsaw Uprising ended with the killing of the Jews in the ghetto, it was an indication that what the Nazis were doing was completely unacceptable and had to be resisted. The Russians had defended their country against Hitler's invading forces, and after America came into the War, Britain and America were in a better position to start attacking Hitler's forces in occupied Europe.

The end of World War II in Europe

The German army was badly weakened by the Russian campaign. The Americans joined the war and on D-Day on 6 June 1944, the Allies, under General Eisenhower, invaded Europe by crossing the English Channel and landing on the beaches of France. They progressed steadily across France and also up into Italy. The Italians surrendered and the Allies and Russians met in Berlin. The Germans were defeated: cities were in ruins and Hitler committed suicide in his bunker. The final surrender took place on VE Day, 8 May 1945, when the British Prime Minister, Winston Churchill, declared that the war was over. Both Germany and Berlin itself were occupied by the British, Americans and Russians. Prisoners of war and the people still in concentration camps were freed.

Lesson 4: Evaluation

Outcomes:

1. Learners must be able to distinguish between important and less-important content in the text
2. Learners must be able to evaluate, against certain universal criteria, what in the text is valid, just and reliable.
3. Learners must understand how authors purposefully select words to portray their reality to readers.
4. Learners must determine what emotion is being provoked by authors of various texts, whether the texts are informational or literary.

Introduction:

ACTIVITY 1:

1. Purse activity:
   - Learners stand in a circle and the teacher empty a purse in front of the learners. The contents of the purse are discussed. The learners determine which items is more important and which items is less important. The learners argue what items could go and what items must be kept in the purse and give their reasonings.
   - Ask: What does the items tell us about the person? (Appreciation regarding word choice and imagery)
   - Explain: TEXTS are the same. Some parts of the text are very important while others are not as important. You as the reader should judge why some of the things are (Evaluation)

Body:

ACTIVITY 2:

1. Define evaluation as a class:

Evaluation is:

a. Readers forming opinions
b. Readers make judgements
c. Develop ideas while reading

AND

d. Focus on ideas and information in a text and consider the relation to their own views and their purpose for reading
e. Make thoughtful, evidence-based judgements about the information in a text

f. Consider how judgements affect their response to the text and determine whether they need to seek further information or collaborate with others

Consolidation:

Evaluation Activity: Readers read the text on page 119 to page 122 in groups of 6:

ACTIVITY 3:

- Write down the evidence that the holocaust really took place.
- Do you think it was right for the Germans to act against minority groups in the way they did? Motivate your answer.
- What does the holocaust imply about Nazi Germany?
- Do you think the poem on page 121 is an accurate portrayal of the concentration camps? Motivate your answer by referring to other texts in the textbook.

Discuss the answers.

Activity 4: Appreciation Activity: In the same groups of 6 read the texts and discuss the following questions:

- Read the poem on page 121 and answer the following questions
  - How does this poem make you feel?
  - What does the repetitive use of the exclamation mark tell the reader?
  - What makes this poem a trustworthy account of concentration camps?
- Read the extract of “the footsteps of Anne Frank” on page 122 and answer the following questions:
  - Explain why the word “violently” is fitting in this extract.
  - What atmosphere does the “big dogs” with the SS officers create?

Discuss the answers.

ANNEXURE F: Consent letter to parents in English

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Department of Humanities Education

Dear Parent/ Guardian

My name is Alex-John van der Merwe. I am a MEd student (Humanities Education) at the University of Pretoria. The title of my study is: **Grade 9 learner's translingual reading competence of a history text.** I would like to request your permission for your child to participate in a study aimed at exploring multilingual Grade 9 learners' reading of a history text.

What the study is about.

Various studies indicate that South African learners are finding reading with comprehension difficult. This study wants to determine Grade 9 reading competence using a history text, because there is uncertainty regarding senior phase reading competence. Furthermore, this study wants to explain how multilingualism affects Grade 9 reading.

What the data collection will involve:

- **Questionnaire**- Your child will be asked to complete a questionnaire relating to their language background. Questions relating to language competency will be asked in this questionnaire.

- **Test-** Your child will be asked to complete a history text and write a reading comprehension test about a history text to capture their reading competence. Your child may receive an opportunity to answer this history test in his/her home language. It is important to note that even though it is a test, it does not count marks towards your child's progress and that your child does not have to study for this test.

- **Intervention Classes-** The intervention will consist of academic classes that will focus on reading comprehension skills and reading of history texts. The activities are designed in such a way that it could contribute to the teaching plan of the term in an attempt to minimize academic disruption. The timeframe on the reading intervention stretches between 5 and 8 periods. The intervention classes wil be administered to two existing classes. Intervention classes will be administered during normal academic time.

- **Interview**- The interview would take place at your convenience and therefore need not take place during school time. It will be 45 minutes at a maximum. Take note that not all participants will be interviewed. The interview will be recorded and transcribed for data analysis.

We would like to request your permission to use your child's data, confidentially and anonymously for further research purposes as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include *secondary data analysis, the use of the data for teaching purposes, data sharing, and open-access data use. The confidentiality and privacy applicable to this study will be binding on future research studies.

* '**Secondary data analysis'**; means that future studies may use data that exist from previous studies for research purposes to investigate a research problem.

*'**Data sharing**'; means that researchers make use of data that already exists.

*'**Open access data use**'; means that, all around the world, researchers agree to freely share data that already exist, and use this existing data in research.

Please note the following:

'**The Desktop Data usage clause**; I grant the University of Pretoria permission to use the data provided for this study, confidentially and anonymously, for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and using the data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy application to this study will be binding on future research studies.

COVID-19 clause; Due to COVID-19, and to minimise the spread of infection, the research may be conducted online or through various other media platforms where necessary, as per the regulations.

No award clause; Since participation in the study is voluntary; please note your child as a participant will not receive any monetary awards or awards of any kind.

Confidentiality clause; in line with the POPI Act, none of the participants' names or personal information will be used in the report of my study. Because confidentiality is essential, we expect that any information that will be provided is also private and that it will not be discussed with anyone.

All these activities will take place after an ethical clearance certificate has been granted by the University of Pretoria.

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E-mail address: u17340609@tuks.co.za

Supervisor: Dr. Maluleke N
Contact Number: 0793057443
Email address: nkhensani.maluleke@up.ac.za

Consent Section

I.....hereby give permission to Alex-John van der Merwe to include my child as a participant in his research on: **Grade 9 learners' translingual reading competence of a history text.** I have read and understand the contents explained above.

Confirm the following by placing a tick in the relevant place.

a)	I give consent to have my child's voice recorded during the interviews so that the recording can be used during reporting of the results.	yes	no
b)	I understand that my child's participation is anonymous and neither my name nor the identifying details will be published.	yes	no
c)	I understand that my child's participation is voluntary and no award will be given in form of cash or kind to any participant.	yes	no

Signature of parent

Date

ANNEXURE G: Consent letter to parents in Zulu

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FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Department of Humanities Education

Ngiyakubingelela Mzali

Igama lami ngingu-*Alex-John van der Merwe*. Ngingumfundi wezifundo ze-Masters ngaphansi komnyango we-*Humanities Education* eNyuvesi yasePitoli.

Isihloko socwaningo lwami sithi: **Ikhono labafundi bebanga lesikhombisa lokufunda ukuhumusha imibhalo yesifundo sezemilando *(History)***.

Ngithanda ukukumema ukuba uvumele ingane yakho ibe yigxenye yocwaningo lokuhlola ikhono labafundi bebanga lesikhombisa bezilimi eziningi ukufunda imibhalo yesifundo sezemilando.

Lolucwaningo lumayelana nani.

Ucwaningo lukhombisa ukuthi abafundi baseNingizimu Afrika bakuthola kunzima ukufunda ngokuqondisisa. Lolucwaningo luqonde ukuhlolisisa ikhono labafundi bebanga lesikhombisa ekufundeni imibhalo yesifundo sezemilando ngoba akunasiqiniseko samakhono okufunda kulelibanga. Ngaphezu kwalokho, lolucwaningo luhlose ukuchaza ukuthi abafundi bezilimi ezahlukene bathinteka kanjani ekufundeni imibhalo yesifundo somlando.

Ulwazi luzoqoqwa ngalezindlela ezilandelayo:

- **Uhlu lwemibuzo** – Ingane yakho izocelwa ukuba iqedele uhlu lwemibuzo emayelana nengemuva lakho lezolimi. Imibuzo emayelana nekhono lwakho lwezolimi izobuzwa kuloluhlu lwemibuzo.
- **Isivivinyo** – Ingane yakho izophendula isivivinyo lapho izofunda umbhalo wesifundo sezemilando ukuze kubonakale ikhono lakhe lokufunda. Ingane yakho ingaba yingxenye yabafundi abazophendula imibuzo ngolimi lwakho lwasekhaya okanye ulimi lweSiNgisi. Imiphumela yesivivinyo izogcinwa iyimfihlo futhi lemiphumela ngeke ibe yingxenye yezivivinyo zesikole ezizosiza ingane yakho iye ebangeni elilandelayo *(School Based Assessment).*

- **Izifundo zokungenelela** - ngenhloso yokuthuthukisa ulwazi – lezizifundo zizobe zigxile ekufundweni kwesivivinyo sokuqondisasa kanye nemibhalo yesifundo sezemilando. Imisebenzi ezokwenziwa emva kwesifundo yenzelwe ukuba ingahluki futhi ingaphazami kwizihloko ezibekwe yimigomo yohlelo lokufunda kanye ne-*term* okanye ikota yonyaka. Isikhathi esibekelwe ukufunda isivivinyo sokuqondisisa sizokwenzeka kahlanu (5) ukuya kwisishiyagalombili (8). Lezizifundo zokungenelela zizokwenziwa emagumbini amabili okufundela asevele ekhona esikoleni esiqokelwe ukuthola ulwazi locwaningo ngesikhathi esibekelwe ukufunda.
- **Inhlolokhono** – Inhlolokhono ngeke iphazamise ukufunda kwengane yakho kwalelolanga, kodwa izokwenzeka ngesikhathi esilungele umfundi/ingane yakho. Inhlolokhono izothatha imizuzu engamashumi amane nanhlanu (45), iqoshwe ebese ibhalwa ukuze kuhlaziywe ulwazi.

Ngithanda ukucela imvume yakho ukuze ngisebenzise ulwazi locwaningo ngokwemfihlo ukuze kwenziwe olunye ucwaningo njengoba lolulwazi lwengamelwe yiNyuvesi yasePitoli. Ukwenziwa kolunye ucwaningo kufaka phakathi ulwazi lwesibili ngenhloso yokufundisa, ukwabelana ngolwazi kanye nokusetshenziswa kolwazi ngokuvulelekile. Ukugcinwa kuyimfihlo nobumfihlo obusebenzayo kulolu cwaningo kuzobophezela ocwaningweni oluzayo.

- Ulwazi lwesibili lusho ukuthi ulwazi oluqoqwe kulolucwaningo luzosetshenziswa kolunye ucwaningo ukuphenyela olunye ucwaningo.
- Ukwabelana ngolwazi kusho ukuthi abacwaningi basebenzisa ulwazi oseluvele lukhona.
- Ukusebenzisa ulwazi ngokuvulelekile kusho ukuthi ulwazi locwaningo emhlabeni jikelele lusetshenziswa kolunye ucwaningo.

Konke lokhu kuzokwenzeka uma iNyuvesi yasePitoli isinikezele ngemvume.

Ngicela uphawule okulandelayo:

Isigatshana sokusebenzisa ulwazi lwekhompiyutha – Njengomzali, nginikeza iNyuvesi yasePitoli imvume yokusebenzisa ulwazi oluqoqwe kulolucwaningo ukuze kwenziwe olunye ucwaningo.

Isigatshana sesifo se-COVID 19 – Ukuze kunciphe ukusabalala kwesifo se-covid 19, lolucwaningo luzokwenzeka ezinkundleni zokukhumana ze-inthanethi zilawulwa yimigomo.

Umgomo wokunganikezeli ngemiklmelo – Njengomzali, ngiyazi ukuthi ngeke okanye ingane yami ngeke ithole umklomelo ngokuba yingxenye yalolucwaningo.

Isigatshana semfihlo – Ngokwemigomo ebekwe yi-POPIA okungumthetho obhekele ezokuvikeleka kolwazi olumayelana nabantu – akunamagama nemininingwane eyimfihlo ezovezwa kulolucwaningo.

Konke lokhu kuzokwenzeka uma iNyuvesi yasePitoli isinikezele ngemvume.

Umfundi: van der Merwe A (Mr)
Inombolo yocingo: 082 324 4853
Ikheli le-imeyili: u17340609@tuks.co.za

Umphathi: Dr. Maluleke N
Inombolo yocingo: 079 305 7443
Ikheli le-imeyili: nkhensani.maluleke@up.ac.za

Mina …….. Nguymunikeza u-Alex van der Merwe imvume yokuthi ingane yami ingaba yingxenye yocwaningo olumayelana nokuhunyshwa kwemibhalo yezemilando ebangeni lesikhombisa. Nguyifundile futhi ngayiqondisisa imiyalelo engaphezulu.

Qiniseka ngokubeka umaka (✓) ebhokisini elino yebo noma cha.

a)	Ngiyavuma ukuthi ingane yami iqoshwe izwi ngesikhathi se-*inthavyu* ukuzwe kubhalwe umbiko wocwaningo.	Yebo	Cha
b)	Ngiyakuqonda ukuthi ukuba yingxenye yocwaningo kwengane yami kusho ukuthi igama layo lizoba yimfihlo kuze kufike la kubhalwa khona umbiko wocwaningo.	Yebo	Cha
c)	Ngiyakuqonda ukuthi ukuba yingxenye yocwaningo kwengane yami kusho ukuthi izikhethele yona futhi angeke kube nankokhelo ngokwezimali okanye olunye uhlobo lwenkokhelo.	Yebo	Cha

_____
Igama

_____ _____

Isiginesha Usuku

ANNEXURE H: Assent letter to learners in English

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UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

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FACULTY OF EDUCATION
Department of Humanities Education

To be read to children under the age of 18 years

Dear learner

My name is Alex-John van der Merwe. I am a MEd student (Humanities Education) at the University of Pretoria. The title of my study is: **Grade 9 learner's translingual reading competence of a history text.** I would like to invite you to participate in a study aimed at exploring multilingual Grade 9 learners' reading of a history text.

What the study is about.

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- **Questionnaire**- You will be asked to complete a questionnaire relating to your language background. Questions relating to language competency will be asked in this questionnaire.

- **Intervention Classes-** The intervention will consist of academic classes that will focus on reading comprehension skills and reading of history texts. The activities are designed in such a way that it could contribute to the teaching plan of the term in an attempt to minimize academic disruption. The timeframe on the reading intervention stretches between 5 and 8 periods. The intervention classes wil be administered to two existing classes. Intervention classes will be administered during normal academic time.

- **Test-** You will be asked to read a history text and write a reading comprehension test about a history text to capture your reading competence. You may be part of a group to answer the questions in your home language or in English. These results will be kept anonymously and results will not in any way contribute towards a school mark for you.

- **Interview**- The interview would take place at your convenience and therefore need not take place during school time. It will be 45 minutes at a maximum. Take note that not all participants will be interviewed. The interview will be recorded and transcribed for data analysis.

We would like to request your permission to use your data, confidentially and anonymously for further research purposes as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include *secondary data analysis, the use of the data for teaching purposes, data sharing, and open-access data use. The confidentiality and privacy applicable to this study will be binding on future research studies.

* 'Secondary data analysis'; means that future studies may use data that exist from previous studies for research purposes to investigate a research problem.

*'Data sharing'; means that researchers make use of data that already exists.

*'Open access data use'; means that, all around the world, researchers agree to freely share data that already exist, and use this existing data in research.

Please note the following:

'**The Desktop Data usage clause**; I grant the University of Pretoria permission to use the data provided for this study, confidentially and anonymously, for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and using the data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy application to this study will be binding on future research studies.

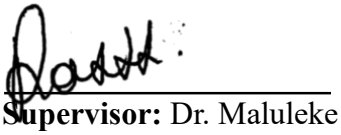
COVID-19 clause; Due to COVID-19, and to minimize the spread of infection, the research may be conducted online or through various other media platforms where necessary, as per the regulations.

No award clause; Since participation in the study is voluntary; please note you will not receive any monetary awards or awards of any kind.

Confidentiality clause; in line with the POPI Act, none of the participants' names or personal information will be used in the report of my study. Because confidentiality is essential, we expect that any information that will be provided is also private and that it will not be discussed with anyone.

All these activities will take place after an ethical clearance certificate has been granted by the University of Pretoria.

Student: van der Merwe A (Mr)
Contact number: 082 324 4853
E-mail address: u17340609@tuks.co.za



Supervisor: Dr. Maluleke N
Contact Number: 0793057443
Email address: nkhensani.maluleke@up.ac.za

Assent section

I _____give consent to Alex-John van der Merwe to include me in his study. I have read/had someone read to me the information above.

Please confirm by placing a tick in the relevant place

a)	I give assent to have my voice recorded during the interviews so that the recording can be used during reporting of the results.	yes	no
b)	I understand that my participation is anonymous and neither my name nor the identifying details will be published	yes	no
c)	I understand that my participation is voluntary and no award will be given in a form of cash or any form to any participant.	yes	no

_____ _____

Signature of Learner Date

ANNEXURE I: Assent letter to learners in Zulu

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Department of Humanities Education

Lencwadi kumele ifundelwe abafundi abangaphansi kweminyaka eyishumi nesishiyagalombili (18)

Ngiyakubingelela mfundi

Igama lami ngingu-*Alex-John van der Merwe*. Ngingumfundi wezifundo ze-Masters ngaphansi komnyango we-*Humanities Education* eNyuvesi yasePitoli.

Isihloko socwaningo lwami sithi: **Ikhono labafundi bebanga lesikhombisa lokufunda ukuhumusha imibhalo yesifundo sezemilando *(History)***.

Ngithanda ukukumema ukuba ube yigxenye yocwaningo lokuhlola ikhono labafundi bebanga lesikhombisa bezilimi eziningi ukufunda imibhalo yesifundo sezemilando.

Lolucwaningo lumayelana nani.

Ucwaningo lukhombisa ukuthi abafundi baseNingizimu Afrika bakuthola kunzima ukufunda ngokuqondisisa. Lolucwaningo luqonde ukuhlolisisa ikhono labafundi bebanga lesikhombisa ekufundeni imibhalo yesifundo sezemilando ngoba akunasiqiniseko samakhono okufunda kulelibanga. Ngaphezu kwalokho, lolucwaningo luhlose ukuchaza ukuthi abafundi bezilimi ezahlukene bathinteka kanjani ekufundeni imibhalo yesifundo somlando.

Ulwazi luzoqoqwa ngalezindlela ezilandelayo:

- **Uhlu lwemibuzo** – Uzocelwa ukuba uqedele uhlu lwemibuzo emayelana nengemuva lakho lezolimi. Imibuzo emayelana nekhono lwakho lwezolimi izobuzwa kuloluhlu lwemibuzo.
- **Isivivinyo** – Uzophendula isivivinyo lapho uzofunda umbhalo wesifundo sezemilando ukuze kubonakale ikhono lakho lokufunda. Ungaba yingxenye yabafundi abazophendula imibuzo ngolimi lwakho lwasekhaya okanye ulimi lweSiNgisi. Imiphumela yesivivinyo izogcinwa iyimfihlo futhi lemiphumela ngeke ibe yingxenye yezivivinyo zakho zesikole ezizokusiza uye ebangeni elilandelayo *(School Based Assessment).*

- **Izifundo zokungenelela -** ngenhloso yokuthuthukisa ulwazi – lezizifundo zizobe zigxile ekufundweni kwesivivinyo sokuqondisasa kanye nemibhalo yesifundo sezemilando. Imisebenzi ezokwenziwa emva kwesifundo yenzelwe ukuba ingahluki futhi ingaphazami kwizihloko ezibekwe yimigomo yohlelo lokufunda kanye ne-*term* okanye ikota yonyaka. Isikhathi esibekelwe ukufunda isivivinyo sokuqondisisa sizokwenzeka kahlanu (5) ukuya kwisishiyagalombili (8). Lezizifundo zokungenelela zizokwenziwa emagumbini amabili okufundela asevele ekhona esikoleni esiqokelwe ukuthola ulwazi locwaningo ngesikhathi esibekelwe ukufunda.
- **Inhlolokhono** – Inhlolokhono ngeke iphazamise ukufunda kwakho kwalelolanga, kodwa izokwenzeka ngesikhathi esilungele wena. Inhlolokhono izothatha imizuzu engamashumi amane nanhlanu (45), iqoshwe ebese ibhalwa ukuze kuhlaziywe ulwazi.

Ngithanda ukucela imvumo yakho ukuze ngisebenzise ulwazi locwaningo ngokwemfihlo ukuze kwenziwe olunye ucwaningo njengoba lolulwazi lwengamelwe yiNyuvesi yasePitoli. Ukwenziwa kolunye ucwaningo kufaka phakathi ulwazi lwesibili ngenhloso yokufundisa, ukwabelana ngolwazi kanye nokusetshenziswa kolwazi ngokuvulelekile. Ukugcinwa kuyimfihlo nobumfihlo obusebenzayo kulolu cwaningo kuzobophezela ocwaningweni oluzayo.

- Ulwazi lwesibili lusho ukuthi ulwazi oluqoqwe kulolucwaningo luzosetshenziswa kolunye ucwaningo ukuphenyela olunye ucwaningo.
- Ukwabelana ngolwazi kusho ukuthi abacwaningi basebenzisa ulwazi oseluvele lukhona.
- Ukusebenzisa ulwazi ngokuvulelekile kusho ukuthi ulwazi locwaningo emhlabeni jikelele lusetshenziswa kolunye ucwaningo.

Konke lokhu kuzokwenzeka uma iNyuvesi yasePitoli isinikezele ngemvume.

Ngicela uphawule okulandelayo:

Isigatshana sokusebenzisa ulwazi lwekhompiyutha – Njengomfundi, nginikeza iNyuvesi yasePitoli imvume yokusebenzisa ulwazi oluqoqwe kulolucwaningo ukuze kwenziwe olunye ucwaningo.

Isigattshana sesifo se-COVID 19 – Ukuze kunciphe ukusabalala kwesifo se-covid 19, lolucwaningo luzokwenzeka ezinkundleni zokukhumana ze-inthanethi zilawulwa yimigomo.

Umgomo wokunganikezeli ngemiklmelo – Njengomfundi, ngiyazi ukuthi ngeke ngithole umklomelo ngokuba yingxenye yalolucwaningo.

Isigatshana semfihlo – Ngokwemigomo ebekwe yi-POPIA okungumthetho obhekele ezokuvikeleka kolwazi olumayelana nabantu – akunamagama nemininingwane eyimfihlo ezovezwa kulolucwaningo.

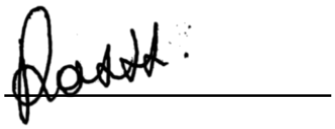
Konke lokhu kuzokwenzeka uma iNyuvesi yasePitoli isinikezele ngemvume.

_____

Umfundi: van der Merwe A (Mr)

Inombolo yocingo: 082 324 4853

Ikheli le-imeyili: u17340609@tuks.co.za



Umphathi: Dr. Maluleke N

Inombolo yocingo: 0793057443

Ikheli le-imeyili: nkhensani.maluleke@up.ac.za

Mina …… Nguymunikeza u-Alex van der Merwe imvume yokuthi ngibe yingxenye yocwaningo olumayelana nokuhunyshwa kwemibhalo yezemilando ebangeni lesikhombisa. Nguyifundile futhi ngayiqondisisa imiyalelo engaphezulu.

Qiniseka ngokubeka umaka (✓) ebhokisini elino yebo noma cha.

a)	Ngiyavuma ukuthi ngiqoshwe izwi ngesikhathi se-*inthavyu* ukuzwe kubhalwe umbiko wocwaningo.	Yebo	Cha
b)	Ngiyakuqonda ukuthi ukuba yingxenye yocwaningo kwami kusho ukuthi igama lami lizoba yimfihlo kuze kufike la kubhalwa khona umbiko wocwaningo.	Yebo	Cha
c)	Ngiyakuqonda ukuthi ukuba yingxenye yocwaningo kwami kusho ukuthi ngizikhethele futhi angeke kube nankokhelo ngokwezimali okanye olunye uhlobo lwenkokhelo.	Yebo	Cha

_____	_____
Igama	Ibanga
_____	_____
Isiginesha	Usuku

ANNEXURE J: Consent letter to teacher

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
Department of Humanities Education

Dear Teacher

My name is Alex-John van der Merwe. I am a MEd student (Humanities Education) at the University of Pretoria. The title of my study is: **Grade 9 learner's translingual reading competence of a history text.** I would like to invite you to participate in a study aimed at exploring multilingual Grade 9 learners' reading of a history text.

What the study is about.
Various studies indicate that South African learners are finding reading with comprehension difficult. This study wants to determine Grade 9 reading competence using a history text, because there is uncertainty regarding senior phase reading competence. Furthermore, this study wants to explain how multilingualism affects Grade 9 reading.

What the data collection will involve:

- **Questionnaire**- The learners will be given a questionnaire relating to their language background. Questions relating to language competency will be asked in this questionnaire.
- **Intervention Classes-** The intervention will consist of academic classes that will focus on reading comprehension skills and reading of history texts. The activities are designed in such a way that it could contribute to the teaching plan of the term in an attempt to minimise academic disruption. The timeframe on the reading intervention stretches between 5 and 8 periods. The intervention classes will be administered to two existing classes. The intervention classes will be administered during normal academic time.
- **Test-** Learners will receive a history text and write a reading comprehension test about a history text to capture their reading competence. Both classes will

receive an English test, but one class will be allowed to implement the use of multiple languages in one assessment whereas the other class will only be able to use English to engage with the tests. These results will be kept anonymously and results will not in any way contribute towards a school mark for the learner.

- **Interview**- The interview would take place at your convenience and therefore need not take place during school time. It will be 45 minutes at a maximum. Take note that not all participants will be interviewed. The interview will be recorded and transcribed for data analysis. The interview will be recorded and transcribed for data analysis.

We would like to request your permission to use your learners' data, confidentially and anonymously for further research purposes as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include *secondary data analysis, the use of the data for teaching purposes, data sharing, and open-access data use. The confidentiality and privacy applicable to this study will be binding on future research studies.

* '**Secondary data analysis'**; means that future studies may use data that exist from previous studies for research purposes to investigate a research problem.

*'**Data sharing'**; means that researchers make use of data that already exists.

*'**Open access data use'**; means that, all around the world, researchers agree to freely share data that already exist, and use this existing data in research.

All these activities will take place after an ethical clearance certificate has been granted by the University of Pretoria.

Please note the following:

'**The Desktop Data usage clause**; I grant the University of Pretoria permission to use the data provided for this study, confidentially and anonymously, for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and using the data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy application to this study will be binding on future research studies.

COVID-19 clause; Due to COVID-19, and to minimize the spread of infection, the research may be conducted online or through various other media platforms where necessary, as per the regulations.

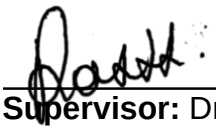
No award clause; Since participation in the study is voluntary; please note the learners as participants will not receive any monetary awards or awards of any kind.

Confidentiality clause; in line with the POPI Act, none of the participants' names or personal information will be used in the report of my study. Because confidentiality is essential, we expect that any information that will be provided is also private and that it will not be discussed with anyone.
All these activities will take place after an ethical clearance certificate has been granted by the University of Pretoria.

_____

Student: Alex van der Merwe (Mr)

Contact number: 082 324 4853
E-mail address: u17340609@tuks.co.za



Supervisor: Dr. Maluleke N

Contact Number: 0793057443

Email address: nkhensani.maluleke@up.ac.za

Consent Section

I.....hereby give permission to Alex-John van der Merwe to include my learners as participants in his research on: Grade 9 learners' translingual reading competence of a history text.

I have read and understand the contents explained above.

Confirm the following by placing a tick in the relevant place.

a)	I give consent to have my learners' voices recorded during the interviews so that the recording can be used during reporting of the results.	yes	no
b)	I understand that my learner's participation is anonymous and neither their names nor the identifying details will be published.	yes	no
c)	I understand that my learner's participation is voluntary, and no award will be given in form of cash or kind to any participant or teacher.	yes	no

Signature of Teacher _____ Date _____

ANNEXURE K: Consent letter to principal and school governing body

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
Department of Humanities Education

Dear Principal and SGB members

My name is Alex-John van der Merwe. I am a MEd student (Humanities Education) at the University of Pretoria. The title of my study is: **Grade 9 learner's translingual reading competence of a history text.** I would like to afford learners the opportunity in your school to participate in a study aimed at exploring multilingual Grade 9 learners' reading of a history text.

What the study is about.
Various studies indicate that South African learners are finding reading with comprehension difficult. This study wants to determine Grade 9 reading competence using a history text, because there is uncertainty regarding senior phase reading competence. Furthermore, this study wants to explain how multilingualism affects Grade 9 reading.

What the data collection will involve:

- **Questionnaire**- The learners will be given a questionnaire relating to their language background. Questions relating to language competency will be asked in this questionnaire.

- **Intervention Classes-** The intervention will consist of academic classes that will focus on reading comprehension skills and reading of history texts. The activities are designed in such a way that it could contribute to the teaching plan of the term in an attempt to minimise academic disruption. The timeframe on the reading intervention stretches between 5 and 8 periods. The intervention classes wil be administered to two existing classes. The intervention classes will be administered during normal academic time.

- **Test-** Learners will receive a history text and write a reading comprehension test about a history text to capture their reading competence prior to the reading intervention and after the completion of the reading intervention classes. These results will be kept anonymously and results will not in any way contribute towards a school mark for the learner.

- **Interview**- The interview would take place at your convenience and therefore need not take place during school time. It will be 45 minutes at a maximum. Take note that not all participants will be interviewed. The interview will be recorded and transcribed for data analysis.

We would like to request your permission to use your school to participate to collect data. The data will be kept confidentially and anonymously for further research purposes as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include *secondary data analysis, the use of the data for teaching purposes, data sharing, and open-access data use. The confidentiality and privacy applicable to this study will be binding on future research studies.

* '**Secondary data analysis'**; means that future studies may use data that exist from previous studies for research purposes to investigate a research problem.

*'**Data sharing'**; means that researchers make use of data that already exists.

*'**Open access data use'**; means that, all around the world, researchers agree to freely share data that already exist, and use this existing data in research.

All these activities will take place after an ethical clearance certificate has been granted by the University of Pretoria.

Please note the following:

'**The Desktop Data usage clause**; I grant the University of Pretoria permission to use the data provided for this study, confidentially and anonymously, for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and using the data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy application to this study will be binding on future research studies.

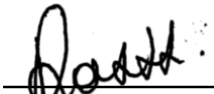
COVID-19 clause; Due to COVID-19, and to minimize the spread of infection, the research may be conducted online or through various other media platforms where necessary, as per the regulations.

No award clause; Since participation in the study is voluntary; please note the participating learner will not receive any monetary awards or awards of any kind.

Confidentiality clause; in line with the POPI Act, none of the participants' names or personal information will be used in the report of my study. Because confidentiality is essential, we expect that any information that will be provided is also private and that it will not be discussed with anyone.
All these activities will take place after an ethical clearance certificate has been granted by the University of Pretoria.

Student: Alex van der Merwe (Mr)

Contact number: 082 324 4853
E-mail address: u17340609@tuks.co.za



Supervisor: Dr. Maluleke N
Contact Number: 0793057443
Email address: nkhensani.maluleke@up.ac.za

Consent Section:

We..... ;.....;
.....hereby give permission to Alex-John van der Merwe to include our learners as participants in his research on: Grade 9 learners' translingual reading competence of a history text.
I have read and understand the contents explained above.

Confirm the following by placing a tick in the relevant place.

a)	I understand that participation is anonymous and the school's name will not be published	yes	no
b)	I understand that participation in this study is voluntary and no award will be given in form of cash or kind to any participant.	yes	no

Signature of Principal _____ Date _____

Signature SGB representative _____ Date _____

Signature of SGB representative _____ Date _____

ANNEXURE L: Permission to conduct research in Gauteng Department of Education schools

GAUTENG PROVINCE
Department: Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

8/4/4/1/2

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	12 June 2024
Validity of Research Approval:	08 February 2024– 30 September 2024 2024/123
Name of Researcher:	van der Merwe AJ
Address of Researcher:	40 Athlone Avenue
	Sandringham/Johannesburg
Telephone Number:	082 324 4853
Email address:	alexjmerwe@gamil.com
Research Topic:	Grade 9 learners' translingual reading competence of a History text
Name of University:	UP
Type of qualification	Masters
Number and type of schools:	1 Secondary School
District/s/HO	Ekurhuleni North, Johannesburg East

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

18/06/2024

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

1

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management
7th Floor, 17 Simmonds Street, Johannesburg, 2001
Tel: (011) 355 0488
Email: Faith.Tshabalala@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

GAUTENG PROVINCE
Department: Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

8/4/4/1/2

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	12 June 2024
Validity of Research Approval:	08 February 2024– 30 September 2024 2024/123
Name of Researcher:	van der Merwe AJ
Address of Researcher:	40 Athlone Avenue
	Sandringham/Johannesburg
Telephone Number:	082 324 4853
Email address:	alexjmerwe@gamil.com
Research Topic:	Grade 9 learners' translingual reading competence of a History text
Name of University:	UP
Type of qualification	Masters
Number and type of schools:	1 Secondary School
District/s/HO	Ekurhuleni North, Johannesburg East

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

18/06/2024

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management
7th Floor, 17 Simmonds Street, Johannesburg, 2001
Tel: (011) 355 0488
Email: Faith.Tshabalala@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za