

**Students' Translanguaging in Task-based Learning
in a Senior High School in China**

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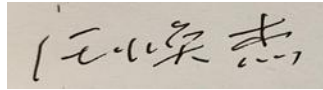
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A rectangular box containing a handwritten signature in Chinese characters, which appears to be '王心泉' (Wang Xinquan). The signature is written in black ink on a light-colored background.

Date

May 3, 2023

Abstract

The reason why I conducted this study was based on the current situation of Chinese high school English classrooms. I have attempted to intentionally activate Chinese and English languages' interactions with each other by Chinese students to advance English-language pedagogy and reveal the overall picture of how students' cross-language learning promotes the mastery of the target language (English) and the completion of learning tasks. This study analysed the role of translanguaging in Chinese students' English learning classes based on task-based learning in a senior high school in China. It has described the linguistic (grammatical and lexical) features that appear when students use English and Chinese in their interactions. Also, this study has explained the communicative purposes as well as linguistic choices students make when they use translanguaging.

In order to select the most appropriate samples to best represent the data I wanted to obtain, I chose one representative group in each class, and two typical groups representing each grade. There were six groups in total who attended a senior high school in China. Practitioner research, as a methodological choice, involved me collecting data in respect of students' communication in the classroom through observations, audio-recordings, and face-to-face interviews with these participants. Also, transcriptions were analyzed under particular themes, thus, identifying cross-language connections. These methods allowed the students to participate in translanguaging and elicited them to produce real ideas to the maximum extent.

The results revealed the extent to which students perceived that translanguaging improves their understanding and communication of the targeted language of English and translanguaging's influence on their learning potentials or ways of meaning-making in task-based learning. The findings suggest code-switching and borrowing represent two main linguistic features of translanguaging, while meaning negotiation function, information reconciliation function, coherence and textuality function, together with supplement and social function are four linguistic functions of translanguaging. The ease of

communication and contextual resources are the main reasons for students' language choice in translanguaging.

The research makes theoretical contributions as it showcases ways in which Chinese students promote flexible languaging, go beyond traditional cognition of separate language modes as well as create a unique ideology to liberate their language use from either monolingual or bilingual constraints, entrusting them with local integration and flexible meaning transformation of their English language learning. The research also has pedagogical implications that teachers in China should make full use of the functions of translanguaging in order to promote students' English learning initiative. The practical implications for students are that the Chinese language should not be ignored or banned in English learning, because translanguaging changes their way of English learning for comprehensive language input, experimental expression, and meaningful language output in task-based learning.

Key words task, translanguaging, linguistic features, communicative purposes, linguistic choices

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This thesis represents a bridge between my time as a practising teacher at a senior high school in Ningbo, China, and as an EdD student at the University of Nottingham, and my current life as a researcher with my supervisor, colleagues, and my classmates' help and care along the way.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

English learning in China bears witness to the journey of China's reform and opening-up as well as the modernization process. China has chosen to make English learning a priority due to its economic and political needs in national development. Economically, China needs to establish trade relations with more countries. Politically, China wants to play a role in the larger political arena. Meanwhile, English as a foreign language is also subtly changing the Chinese people's understanding of the world. Actually, English learning has been a popular subject of paramount importance in China over several decades. Firstly, it is embedded in a national network of cognitive and social relations within cultural, political, and historical contexts as mobile resources or practice (Blommaert & Dong, 2010). Secondly, due to the surging demand for proficient English speakers, it provides the impetus for learners to pursue language proficiency as well as a medium to learn other knowledge (Shu, 2010). In addition, students regard English as a driving force to be exploited for their own personal gain, such as achieving high marks in the college entrance examination or graduating for further study abroad. As a result, China has become a hotbed for English learning where there is an exponential growth of English learners and English becoming a compulsory curriculum has also been carried out by the national education policy.

The motivation of Chinese students to learn English determines their ways of learning the language. This study has focused on senior high school students in Ningbo, Zhejiang Province, China. Although English is one of the main courses in senior high school, students still have different attitudes towards the language. If they learn English for academic and professional purposes, they tend to care more about their marks rather than the process itself and learn English as the compulsory subject requires. If they learn English for

communicative intents, they are more likely to improve their language fluency through communication activities with others. If they conceive English as being a medium of learning, they are more engaged in its political, cultural, and historical vehicle role of meanings by focusing on the knowledge that it carries. Therefore, their understanding of English learning determines what they want to achieve through such learning, and also determines the direction of energy and effort they may need to invest within the process of English learning. These factors demonstrate the significance of researching aspects of English learning in China. For this thesis, I chose to study the phenomenon of translanguaging (specifically students' use of their mother tongue, Chinese, in learning English). This is defined as being a linguistic practice as well as a journey of knowledge-building where individuals make use of different languages and language varieties (Williams, 1996) in order to maximize their communicative potential (García, 2009). The practice raises important issues regarding the validity of translanguaging as a learning strategy in developing competence in a foreign language that has assumed a high-stakes status in China.

In a questionnaire survey conducted before my EdD research began involving nearly 90 students in two classes of WX Senior High School (a pseudonym) in Ningbo city on the theme of *status quo* of students' English learning, I found that they had a lot of confusion and difficulties in learning English even though most of them had strong motivation. They learnt English without knowing the meaning of the language and used it to express certain meanings in a proper and decent manner. For example, when discussing a topic in English, some students were unable to think of appropriate words and phrases to express meaning of what they wanted to express, or some students were found to know all words for meaning, but not know how to use correct English sentence patterns and grammar to organize the language. Moreover, even if they had a good command of English, but they could not express themselves in the language very well. Some Chinese students may easily confuse English thinking with Chinese thinking, leading to the emergence of

Chinglish. In a word, English as a target language, in which Chinese students wish or are required to master, cannot effectively serve their understanding, learning, communication, and all other learning motivations. Therefore, they tend to learn English with Chinese features because learning English well cannot eliminate dependence on the mother tongue.

Chinese students' habit of using their mother tongue is sometimes evident in English learning. It can also appear in teachers' methods within the context of ELT in China. The principle teachers should only use the target language and avoid using the mother tongue (L1) except as a last resort is sometimes apparent as they teach students via a mix of both languages if English fails to ensure the normal process of teaching and students' efficient understanding.

Students have complicated feelings about the use of Chinese in their English classes. Their inability to comprehend the content delivered in class or poor English proficiency affects their confidence of further advancement in English learning, while speaking English causes ambiguity and, hence, misunderstanding, thus, achieving a smattering of knowledge covered in class. Some students feel ashamed using Chinese when facing the gaze of other students if they fail to be acquainted with how to express in English. This is caused by psychology and *Mian zi* ("face" or dignity), or even feeling guilty because using Chinese in their English class keeps them off track and does not integrate them into the English learning process. Some students have said that when other students were able to express themselves in fluent English, they themselves would feel a little out of place using both Chinese and English because it was an English class. Obviously, students in an English class have more psychological advantages in adhering to the language. On the other hand, some students think it is very normal to use Chinese and even think it is "a feeling of releasing nature" using Chinese in their English class. They believe using Chinese can express their meaning more clearly, more completely, more conveniently, and more smoothly, and can play a role in assisting their understanding. As a beginner, learning another language without using one's

mother tongue as a reference point can be very challenging. These students willingly accept the fact that their proficiency in English is not good enough, but use Chinese to give priority to their understanding of meaning. It is worth noting that some students think Chinese is fine for explaining, but too much use of the language will make English classes lose their flavor. In short, whether students subjectively avoid using Chinese or are objectively required to use English, it is an unavoidable fact that Chinese is used in English classes in China.

In the dialogical interactions in English-learning classes in China, due to a lack of English language reserves, if students use English for the whole process, they may occasionally or frequently fail to understand the knowledge explained by their teacher. Alternatively, students who are more proficient in using the target language, sometimes, cannot express themselves clearly with limited mastery of the target language. Therefore, in English classes, students can better understand each other's content and express their own meaning by using Chinese. However, students in English classes need to be influenced by the English atmosphere and awareness that using English will improve their language sense, so they will remain constrained by invisible pressure when using Chinese. Students tend to suffer from an urgent desire to learn English, longing for the benefits that English learning can bring to them, but cannot exert their learning ability because of their limited English. Students are constantly subjected to the dilemma where English learning is divorced from Chinese or there are Chinese language features (Chinglish) in all English expressions.

As students need to face the differences between the Chinese and English languages and interferences between the two languages occurs, errors will be produced (Nunan, 2001). This could be a major impediment to English learners in China (Yu, 2004). Here, translanguaging makes it possible to balance between students' exposure to the English language's dominance and their penetration of their mother tongue in the service of target language learning. For Chinese students, learning English involves the interplay of two language systems whose components each include form (or the syntax, morphology, and

phonology of language), content (or semantics), and use (or pragmatics) (Owens, 2012), and students have flexibility in meaning-making by making choices in switching between the two language systems.

Research demonstrates that the simultaneous development of languages occurs because linguistic competence is transferred among languages (Leafstedt & Gerber, 2005). When students begin to learn another language, they just start to use linguistic resources from their first language (L1). Actually, if Chinese students have acquired a set of English language operations, they will easily accommodate Chinese language operation to circumstances where English dominates.

With a cross-linguistic lens, the study has offered an important opportunity to advance the understanding of *what*, *why*, and *how* translanguaging relates to target language promotion after reflecting on issues in Chinese students' English learning. The study proposes that translanguaging helps Chinese students take advantages of both the English and Chinese languages as well as bridge the gap between them by giving priority to meaning comprehension and making rational choices between the two languages in order to improve communicative competence.

1.2 Personal motivation for the study

The main motivation for me to do this research relates to my personal experience and reflections about the pedagogical reform in my school. A fortunate chance came to me when I was recommended to attend a summer teacher training course at the University of Nottingham in Ningbo (UNNC) from August 4 to 15, in 2008. I was impressed with the way I interacted with a mixed use of English and Chinese to acquire knowledge in class, because it was the first time that I had realized the power of dialogical interaction in learning, bridging both the English and Chinese languages. My experience with conversational students in classes refreshed my understanding of traditional teaching and learning methods. After witnessing the process of group-designed

tasks and classroom operations, I became increasingly aware that learning is not only reciprocal between teachers and students, but also between students who speak two languages simultaneously or alternatively and switch between them. Students will attain not only good scores but also develop their way of inner thinking by using their whole linguistic repertoire.

Had it not been for my experience at UNNC, I would not have been endowed with the role of a participant or pioneer in the school's teaching reform. An unexpected phenomenon took place that students at the middle level made little progress and students at the lowest level fell behind. I realized the limitation of class division based on scores and changed the criteria of division: academic performance and communicative competence. The latter not only focused on students' participation in answering teacher's questions but also on communicative meaning-making in group learning. Over the past few years, as I have dominated this small-scale learning reform, most of my observations have attended to the potential impact translanguaging in small groups can have on students' cognitive or academic development, such as organizing their thoughts, coordinating information that they share, connecting linguistic components to produce a smooth semantic flow, and so on. It was shown in Vygotsky's book *Thought and Language* that there is a close relationship between thought and word (Vygotsky, 1991). This book inspired me a lot and I put what I had learned into my classes and school practice. Later, a new reform about students learning was launched in the whole school and most schools in Yinzhou district. I was proud of my role in practice. More importantly, students' performance in English learning has taken on a new and natural look through translanguaging, especially in task completion efficiency and target language mastery.

The practice of class reform spotlighting students' participation in language flexibility and translanguaging in groups has improved students' linguistic contribution, but it also needs to be improved. These research questions have helped me to further generalize what the nature of translanguaging is and probe

into the positive roles in the dynamic conversational process, ranging from its communicative significance to its cognitive and social functions. For example, English learning classrooms place students in social interactions where knowledge, relationships, and identities are simultaneously constructed and reconstructed (Fairclough, 1992).

My research incentive has also been to explore the potential power of translanguaging in triggering student's vitality in their English language advancement and meaning-making through English-Chinese linguistic exchange. Different from other contexts, English classroom interactions are featured by students' use of English language in advancing, extending, and stimulating their learning initiative with their replies as well as responses addressed in verbal communication in translanguaging as their priority. The learning environment that prioritizes the sole use of the English language has a potential detrimental effect on communication (Mercer, 2000). Instead, students can easily use both English and Chinese to express and represent knowledge, relate themselves to others, and identify what is not unfamiliar according to their own discourse conventions (Seedhouse, 1997, 2005), thus, making communications smooth, complete, and efficient. However, the inherent ambiguity and adaptability of language use (Mercer, 2000) limit interactions to a certain extent but provide space for translanguaging, thus, bridging two languages in order to construct learned knowledge in the meaning-making process. In addition to meaning-making, it still has great value in shaping students' knowledge and experience (Swain, 2006) in a more acceptable way and change the way they learn the target language.

Clearly, the pursuit of the target language and the reality of the knowledge gap between students bring the possibility for further translanguaging in group learning. Specifically, the penetration of students' translanguaging with their learning purposes for the target language is sometimes not evident, but it is more notable in improving the efficiency of group learning. Therefore, my efforts have been made to figure out how the intricate verbal thought

(Vygotsky, 1991) interacts in translanguaging and improves the efficiency of English language use in group learning. As “an interactive complex process” (Davis & Sumara, 2006), group learning situations have a sound foundation, allowing students to utilize language in challenging tasks (Storch, 2001), form personal agency in academic settings (Morita, 2004), and have access to useful language practices in social context interactions (Doughty & Pica, 1986). In addition, it combines students’ personality, collaborative orientation, and agency consciousness, which bridges individual learning and group learning well (Morita, 2004; Storch, 2001). Finally, in a more authentic learning environment it provides students with the opportunity to negotiate meaning, improve their proficiency (Watanabe & Swain, 2007), and promote the development of communicative competence (Savignon, 1983). Of course, the formation of heterogeneous groups may be prioritized, making students more creative and innovative (Paulus & Nijstad, 2003). However, as constructive and open-ended results are produced through learners’ intercommunication in groups (Saito & Atencio, 2014), Salonen et al. (2005) believe that it is necessary to co-regulate interpersonal relations and (each) cognitive information. Translanguaging plays a role as this kind of co-regulation.

Furthermore, subordinate to this overriding purpose for target language improvements, my desire for practical outcomes of translanguaging in group learning has stemmed from my use of task-based learning (TBL) in the classroom. Pedagogically, it emphasizes learning to communication through interactions in the target language (Nunan, 2004). The core of tasks is to use students’ linguistic resources and communicative process in translanguaging to understand meaning. Notably, when dealing with tasks, students are more likely to exhibit cooperative and argumentative tendencies as well as performance when using the target language. Therefore, the contextualization (Duranti, 2001) within their translanguaging practices has turned my attention to contextual influences which are exerted on students’ target language, apart

from exploring linguistic features, language functions, language choices, and language influence in bilingual interaction.

My study on whether students choose to switch between English and Chinese or use only one language independently lies in the uniqueness and typicality of each language in the acquisition of the target language, respectively focusing on the linguistic convergence and deviation between the Chinese and English languages. Besides, whether students try to seek out the similarities of these two languages or emphasize their distinctions can be explained by their intentional adjustment of language use, which relies on relational meanings that are found in some interpretive contexts (Mercer, 2000).

Thirdly, students' translanguaging in tasks not only establishes a joint understanding by them but also engages students in their interpersonal interaction to focus on linguistic items and learning content (Swain & Lapkin, 2000), which is open for students to continuously activate both languages to different degrees (Thierry & Wu, 2007). In English learning classes, Chinese students are open to contact with both the English and Chinese languages and make their connections. According to Garcia (2009), translanguaging engages students in a dynamic process of performing bilingually and drawing on their entire linguistic repertoire. Some researchers (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003) state that translanguaging is used mainly to manage and clarify tasks. In brief, Dynamic Translanguaging Progressions (Garcia et al., 2016) in TBL focus on students' continuum of language performances to leverage their bilingualism for learning. Thus, my further motivation has derived from the need to weigh the effects of students' bilingual interactions exercising TBL on the situations of students' translanguaging.

Little research has been conducted to examine the use of translanguaging based on English language TBL in the portrait of students' linguistic features (grammatical and lexical features), language functions, language choices, and language influence. As Van den Branden (2006) states, students not only learn

language in order to use it functionally, but also by making functional uses of it. That is, it is important translanguaging serves as a means of accessible cross-linguistic connections in service of the target language in a more authentic learning environment. Through translanguaging, students' discourse can be modified in an appropriate linguistic form to ensure the continuity and comprehension of conversations.

In practice, there will be a gap between Chinese and the target language where students often repeatedly use their familiar language resources or the knowledge they have mastered in communication in order to achieve the basic purpose of communication or master a new language. However, due to the limitation of the level of language mastery or the scope of knowledge, their language application does not point to the effective application of the target language, or even hinder in-depth learning. Therefore, my research's aim has been to fill this gap by providing students with chances to flexibly switch between these two languages, activating their value in pushing the target language norms advancement.

In theory, there is also a gap between research design and practice where translanguaging is a way to seek associations when miscommunication threatens. Actually, both English and Chinese are fundamentally complementary in the pursuit of improvements in the target language, rather than contradictory in interference with its mastery. However, the practice also indicates that translanguaging is not necessarily conducive to linguistic correctness, and it foregrounds meaning and understanding in dealing with linguistic relations, matching students' language choice with their target language advancements as well as resonating to communicative effects. This gap demonstrates the value of deep insight into the cross-modal linguistic landscape.

1.3 Areas covered in the study

The study was situated in an English learning classroom context within a senior high school in China. With its own discourse conventions (Seedhouse, 2004), teachers design tasks to promote students' verbal communication where individuals address others' replies (Howe & Abedin, 2013) in group learning. In the group learning context, other researchers argue learners who are placed in "part of a grander unity" and "a complex of interacting unities" (Davis & Sumara, 2006, p. 14) are more likely to be exposed to social meaning and circumstances. As is noted, another value of group learning lies in "peer culture and peer interaction" integrated with the "sphere of academic labour" (Sidorkin, 2004, p. 68). Some researchers support that co-regulation contributes to learners' ability to plan and manage in social group environments (Mercer & Littleton, 2007; Volet et al., 2009).

The study was also situated in TBL. To involve students in the natural, practical, and functional use of language for meaningful purpose, TBL helps them to internalize language skills in a natural way and try to solve problems they encounter in real life (Lin, 2009) by providing authentic functions of learning that contribute to the contextual and natural processes of learning, so that students can draw on knowledge naturally and autonomously of learning materials in order to process the content of learning optimally (Anwar & Arifani, 2016). The study also indicates that TBL provides students with translanguaging opportunities to stimulate their feedback, comprehensive input, and modified output in group learning in order to promote understanding.

In both group learning and the TBL context, students expressing combinations of words in their own meaning may hinder collective thinking, and listeners should use linguistic resources to understand them in specific contexts and rely on their shared knowledge (Littleton & Mercer, 2013). More importantly, it is their "context-sensitive alignment and complementary dynamics" in

interactions that will drive “interpersonal synergy” (Fusaroli et al., 2014, p. 147).

Translanguaging arises in students’ group interactions to finish their tasks. It is “a practice that involves dynamic and functionally integrated use of different languages and language varieties, but more importantly, a process of knowledge construction that goes beyond language(s)” (Li, 2018a, p. 15). The concept of translanguaging most concerns me regarding the language practice of multilingual language users because questions are formulated based on holistic descriptions to observe how Chinese students use a mixture of English and their mother tongue (Chinese) in tasks by mediating cognition to make meaning and shape knowledge through language (Swain, 2006, p. 97). Apart from exploring relevant linguistic features, the study has also focused on why and how translanguaging has the potential to liberate their voices (García, 2009) as well as its influence on their understanding in communication and target language mastery.

Therefore, my study set out to resolve the following question:

RQ1: To what extent do students perceive that translanguaging improves their understanding, communication, or targeted language of English?

To help answer this question, three sub-questions were formed which focused on three aspects: linguistic features, language functions, and language choice:

RQ1.1: What are the linguistic (grammatical and lexical) features of the students’ use of Chinese and English in interactions?

RQ1.2: For what communicative purposes do students use translanguaging in English language TBL?

RQ1.3: Why do students make their linguistic choices when translanguaging in English language TBL?

According to the research questions listed above, the first area covered in my study was the linguistic features of translanguaging. Despite inherent ambiguity and adaptability (Mercer, 2000), language use in students’ dialogues

facilitates meaning making apart from knowledge and experience shaping (Swain, 2006). Within or across sentences boundaries, code-switching can take place because students cannot find alternative lexical or grammatical components with target language norms. For this reason, students are habituated to find equivalents in other familiar languages or build their own language system through communication practices. Occasionally, when facing internal inconsistency between two languages or an expression with unequal meaning in each language, students have an idea to borrow some words or phrase(s) in their mother tongue in order to replace the target language, especially Chinese colloquialisms, idioms, and proverbs with certain cultural connotations. The study, therefore, presents linguistic features in students' communicative trajectory.

The second area covered in my study was language functions in translanguaging. There exists a language use reservoir where language's functions are displayed comprehensively, such as ideational function that signify and represent knowledge, as well as relational and identical functions (Fairclough, 1992). While translanguaging, Salonen et al. (2005) argue that the co-regulation of interpersonal relationships and (each) cognitive information will help to shape the dynamics of groups' problem-solving. As a consequence, a meaningful state of knowledge exchange will arise from translanguaging in groups with high levels of reciprocity and redistribution. It is natural for Chinese students to make use of their mother tongue as a support to expand their opportunity for understanding, as well as a means to get the most out of the subject content, in order to achieve their communicative goal and build self-confidence in their English learning. In the process of translanguaging, all semiotic resources available are used by students to make them understood and mediate understanding among each other. In addition, students revise peers' mistakes, and co-construct or reconstruct meaning of what other students are saying (García & Wei, 2014). As a result, there will be a faster

development of a subject-related language. The study has attempted to reveal how students use translanguaging in English TBL and for what purpose.

The third area covered in my study was language choices while translanguaging. Language choice is an issue which depends on the language dominance or students' relative abilities in two languages. Students choose one language without hesitation if there is a clear imbalance between the two languages. This process is not an arbitrary one but one to activate the proper words in the target language while inhibiting their translation equivalent (Abutalebi & Green, 2007). The study has collected the landscapes of translanguaging accumulation in order to see how students switched between languages in task-learning activities and why they chose one language rather than the other, trying to picture clear patterns of language choice.

The fourth area covered in my study was the influence of translanguaging. Translanguaging provides inclusive learning environments where students are enabled to learn new language elements, items, or subject-related language. While weakening the boundaries between the English and Chinese languages, students begin to access all linguistic repertoires, engage themselves in the cognitive creation of intersubjectivity with the learning task to improve their participation and make meaning. More importantly, the study has treated translanguaging as a scaffold for acquisition of the target language in a way that enables students to establish connections between morphemes, syntax, and grammar of two languages. The study has also witnessed how students used translanguaging to position themselves in social engagement because they chose their language according to their communication needs and their desire to maintain affinity with each other.

Apart from these areas, whether translanguaging integrates key drivers for the target language has also been discussed. Many researchers suggest that Communicative Apprehension (McCroskey, 1984), Willingness to Communicate (Kang, 2005; McCroskey & Richmond, 1987), and Communicative Competence (Savignon, 2005) interact to promote meaningful and effective communication

orientations among students. While translanguaging, “they select features [from their one linguistic repertoire] strategically to communicate effectively” (García & Li Wei, 2014, p. 22). Apart from the discussion about key drivers for communication, this study has also explored key drivers for understanding because students engage in such multiple discursive practice in order to figure out their bilingual words (García, 2009, p. 4) through meaningful participation in such a social accomplishment (Canagarajah, 2011). Most importantly, the key driver for the target language has been researched in students’ motivation to ensure target language choice as a priority and their will to protect against interference from alternative languages (Green & Abutalebi, 2013) while translanguaging.

In conclusion, translanguaging in classroom talk provides a platform for them to investigate the significance of student-student interactions (Wolf et al., 2005). This research has forged linguistic connections between two languages where linguistic features and language functions are vividly reflected in TBL through translanguaging, thus, empowering me as a practitioner to see my work and students’ task-based interactions writ large with a new set of eyes and examine whether their language choice in the translanguaging process drives the target language learning forward.

The research areas have been examined from two theoretical and practical dimensions. From the theoretical aspect, translanguaging, when undertaken in these chosen contexts, can help get to the bottom of diverse students’ knowledge reformulation and flexible language use with students’ levels differentiated. What is more, students can organize and mediate their mental process in understanding as both languages are used in a dynamic and functionally integrated way. From the pedagogic aspect, as Lindahl (2015) states, this sort of cross-linguistic dialogue and spontaneous, dynamic, and seamless language shifting have their compromising mix of language features towards a monolingual goal. That is, translanguaging enables shared reasoning of both language uses in service of the target language despite their separate

linguistic forms, different language functions, and the balance of their language choices in different kinds of tasks based on different contexts. The way they translanguage provides pedagogically-feasible insights into how students construct a certain kind of “discourse” as they conduct meaningful and contextualized tasks, which advances some students to make receptive and productive learning skills in translanguageing. The results show that the correlation and degree of interaction between tasks, contexts, and interactions affect the degree to which students prioritize initiative in understanding, communication, or acquisition of the target language in translanguageing.

1.4 Overview of the research design

As my research was deeply contextual, my methodological choice of practitioner research has allowed me to have access to authenticity, integrity, and objectivity of the research and focus on the phenomena of Chinese students using both English and Chinese alternately in their English classes. Ontologically, my thesis has viewed truth as something that is mediated and interpreted by agents, therefore, I have analyzed students’ translanguageing through their perceptions and my own interpretations. This kind of knowledge or collection of languages has been composed of students’ voices valued, my practitioner knowledge, contextual knowledge, their experience and practice in their classes through analytic generalization. Epistemologically, this qualitative research has engaged me in exploring a wide array of dimensions of the experiences of the research participants in translanguageing, and their intentions regarding why they used both languages at intervals, aiming to produce rich and detailed data. More importantly, my beliefs of enhancing students’ target language use in translanguageing has been tested to bridge the knowledge-practice gap (Noffke, 1997), therefore, the adoption of qualitative research was a valid means to conduct a systematic inquiry into my own practice (Burns, 2005), enabling me to check how I have been performing as a researcher as a basis on students’ language improvements and how students have used translanguageing to

improve their target language use. This qualitative research incorporated three main methods to access three groups of data sources in three research stages.

The preparatory stage was more than making preparations. This stage aimed to familiarize myself with the research topic, confirm representative samples, and check whether the tasks were feasible. Firstly, the topic focus “translanguaging” and “TBL” were explored and developed further based on continuous literature reviews, especially epistemological reviews, which exposed me to cutting-edge theories. In this way, my ideas have been constantly updated and linked to the desired research practice. Secondly, the design of the tasks related students to what they had learned and what they would learn, guiding them to use subject-related language. Undertaking a pilot study was a necessity for me to look at the deficiencies as well as to check whether there were still some improvements to make. Thirdly, the planning of an analytical framework made it feasible for me to envisage how my research would be conducted in order to achieve my aim and help me situate where I had approached. Thus, the first group of data was about tasks design and representative samples.

When it came to the practice stage, I collected the main data through observations, auditory recordings, and field notes to deal with the question “what are the linguistic (grammatical and lexical) features of the students’ use of Chinese and English in interactions?”, which provided a solid foundation for subsequent analysis. Later, I identified the data by familiarizing myself with data in the process of transcriptions and interpretations, reflecting on the question “for what communicative purposes do students use translanguaging in English language TBL?”. I examined each data or data response verbatim (Ball, 1990) and meticulously in the transcripts. Aiming to read the voices or words literally, but also “interpretively and reflexively” (Mason, 2002) from students’ positions and intentions, I checked the data through semi-structured interviews and group interviewing. I interviewed some students to reveal and ascertain their thoughts on the question “why do students make their linguistic choices

when translanguaging in English language TBL?”. Thus, the second group of data was about the original recordings of the students’ conversations, and verbatim transcripts with my interpretations.

Finally, naturally came the theorizing stage. As qualitative data analysis is a back-and-forth, iterative process (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 251), I began to review and refine the literature in the light of new knowledge. In the meantime, there was the coding process where I broke down segments of text data into smaller units and then checked, compared, categorized, and conceptualized the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), following the themes of identification, thematic networks constructions and comparison, in order to provide constructive findings and make a conclusion about “whether students perceive that translanguaging improves their understanding, communication or targeted language of English? To what extent?”. The third group of data, therefore, was about new answers, and my new understanding about the phenomena. Then, I integrated all sources of data in a logical and systematic way, which empowered meaning to the data and energized the data.

Triangulation enabled me to develop a comprehensive understanding of the phenomena, and helped me to test validity through the convergence of the data from different sources. It was an iterative process where I compared the data, categorized the data under certain themes, and finally combined these data to strengthen the outcome of the study.

1.5 Introduction of the different chapters

The main objective of my thesis was to broaden the scope of research on how students leverage their knowledge across different languages to communicate meaningfully and effectively in translanguaging and narrate a vivid landscape of expanded linguistic repertoire in an attempt to develop both language and content knowledge. By excavating and articulating **What**, **How**, and **Why** translanguaging works, I recorded their words, and took notes of their dialogical trajectory, and analyzed their thoughts behind and inside their performances in

finishing learning tasks. I knitted and weaved these pieces into cohesive narratives that addressed the aspects and ideas I have attempted to present.

Following this introduction, the thesis itself has been divided into 7 chapters. Chapter 2 presents a comprehensive review of the relevant academic literature, which explores previous research on ELT methodology through the historical lens of analysis. I further investigate TBL worldwide and, in China, examine literature about what, how, and why translanguaging works, and analyze the literature review responding to language choice. At the end of this chapter, I comb through the literature and reconsider the key driving factors of target language acquisition.

Chapter 3 focuses on my research methodology and explores the rationale behind the research questions based on a basic interpretative qualitative study (Merriam, 2002) to deal with text analysis (Marshall & Rossman, 2006) transcribed from students' words in their interactions, attempting to examine the theoretical frameworks in the research process, which have underpinned my approach. I discuss some of the limitations with a philosophical stance of the researcher and justify what students do with languages in certain contexts.

Chapters 4-6 report on the data generated during observations in the communicative field and the face-to-face interviews with student participants. These chapters draw principally on the following themes: (1) Translanguaging from English to Chinese; (2) Translanguaging from Chinese to English; (3) Translanguaging with Chinese-English interspersed; and (4) Translanguaging in English-immersion interactions, separately to deal with linguistic features, linguistic functions, and language choices. The emphasis switches from holistically reporting on what I have identified in answering the research questions to analyzing students' intentions as well as translanguaging's influence on their target language learning.

Chapter 7 finishes by demonstrating contributions my study makes to practice and to the literature, and outlines some implications for the findings. It also establishes the rationale for further research into the what, how, and why

of translanguaging can be potentially drawn on in an attempt to reach the optimal position while I continue to take a reflective process which entails many practical recommendations in order to help participants involved to overcome their difficulties and monolingual ideology.

Chapter 2. Literature review

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the review of the literature is more than a listing of previous work (Paltridge & Starfield, 2007). Instead, it is extended systematically to establish a context for my work from a macro perspective of the research background to a micro theoretical understanding of the research questions. The way I have organized the literature is like “peeling the bamboo shells” from the outside to the inside until I see the “shoots”.

It begins with clarification of key terminology “translanguaging” in Section 2.2, and then its historic development, related trends as well as scholars’ concern are introduced within the Chinese ELT context. In the following part, the literature briefly identifies some controversies with the field of TBL and students’ interactions in TBL, where their translanguaging is fed and nurtured. Later, it deals with evidence and gaps according to the research questions and illustrates theoretical foundations for them. In brief, by defining my research scope to the core field where students’ translanguaging is, this chapter suggests how the review findings led to the research topic closely and comprehensively.

In order to break through the bottleneck of relevant research, this chapter fills the gap between translanguaging behaviors and meaning constructions when misunderstanding threatens. It also breaks down the boundaries between native and target languages, finding a link between linguistic code and language meaning. Through macro-based analysis, this chapter aims to ensure congruence between the research questions and the whole context. With a micro-analysis approach, it also deals with the specific perspective of students’ fluid language choice in their interactions and reflects on the functions of translanguaging to fulfill classroom tasks using their linguistic repertoire.

2.2 Translanguaging

Translanguaging is conceptualized in relation to the field of bilingualism. The Welsh educator Cen Williams originally coined the term “translanguaging” as a different approach to bilingualism in education (García & Li, 2014). It was chosen to deepen the use of Welsh and English; thus, students would have access to deliberately alternate the language of the input and the output (Baker, 2001) for the sake of receptive or productive use. Williams (1996) defines translanguaging as a linguistic practice as well as a journey of knowledge building where individuals make use of but goes beyond different languages and language varieties.

García (2009) argues translanguaging is a psychological process that organizes multiple languages in a dynamic and functional way and mediates understanding, learning, reading, speaking, and writing to make meaning, shape experience and acquire understanding and knowledge. Some researchers also agree that it is a purposeful shifting process of language mode of output and input through language production as well as cognitive activities (Lewis et al., 2012a, 2012b). It acts as a scaffold for understanding concepts by helping them to distinguish related concepts, simplify complex concepts, and express conceptual content (Baker, 2001). Translanguaging also serves as a crucial method to reconcile students' identities (García & Li, 2014; Lin & He, 2017).

Translanguaging has emerged as a new paradigm in the communication process. Students use “dynamic and creative linguistic practices that involve flexible use of named languages and language varieties as well as other semiotic resources” (Li, 2018a, p. 14). Translanguaging is different from code switching, which is the “subtle and purposeful way in which bilinguals switch between their two languages” (Baker & Jones, 1998, p. 37). Firstly, some researchers (Velasco & García, 2014) describe code-switching as the alternation between languages during a conversation to replace or translate a word, whereas translanguaging is a flow of comprehending input, applying knowledge,

and synthesizing a conversation, a task, or a lesson while employing the features of all the languages utilized in the class, along with cultural nuances and identity associations of the language (García et al., 2016). Secondly, some researchers point that whilst code-switching implies the boundaries between languages, translanguaging softens language boundaries (Cenoz, 2017), creating more chances to react to the vulnerability of code switching, and sees multilingual users' linguistic practices as original and creative processes by building new, temporary, and transitional linguistic norms for understanding.

Although code-switching differs from translanguaging, it is used intra-sententially or inter-sententially (Cook, 2001), which differ in shifts in language in the middle of a sentence or at sentence boundaries, in practice for different communicative functions like conducting cognitively demanding tasks (Reyes, 2004), or conveying intended meaning more accurately (Zentella, 1997) as well as playing its interpersonal, social role. The previous studies analyzed the symbolic effects of code-switching. It is found in Blom and Gumperz's (1972) research that a local dialect is adopted to express their local identity, attitudes, and values in otherwise formal, official situations. In their assumptions, people's communicative behaviour like language choice has been explained. Another type of function of code-switching is the specific tasks which code-switching accomplishes with using two languages available in a person's community. Briefly, code-switching has its symbolic-oriented and task-oriented role in multilingual engagement.

According to Li (2011), translanguaging not only involves creativity, which is to follow the norms of language use, but also criticality, which is to use evidence to question, problematize, or express opinions. Li (2011) initially raises the conception of "translanguaging space", where various dimensions of the multilingual speaker such as personal history, experience, context ideologies, and cognitive and physical capacity are brought together into a social space where "one coordinated and meaningful performance" is engaged. That is, in order to be more invested in meaningful participation, students'

language choice and language skills are closely dependent on their individual language levels, strategic use of their chronically accumulated linguistic repertoire and understanding the cues of different contexts. He further explains the concept of this space where the interaction of multilingual individuals “breaks down the artificial dichotomies between the societal and the individual, the macro and the micro, and the social and the psycho in studies of bilingualism and multilingualism” (Li, 2011, p. 1234).

Nevertheless, there is theoretical opposition to translanguaging. The immersion approach advocates exposing students to communicative interactions through the target language. Swain and Lapkin (1986) positively summarize that students can develop a good listening and reading comprehension with this great amount of exposure to the target language. They argue that this learning causes no long-term detriment to their control of the native language. Hammerly (1987) further proposes the availability of total immersion where students can interact quite freely in an authentic second language (L2) environment. Otherwise, it can result in linguistic drowning.

2.2.1 Translanguaging in teaching

Building on the ideas from García and Sylvan (2011) that students use diverse language practice which is intended to learn, and teachers use inclusive language practices which is designed to teach, Williams (2012) takes up translanguaging as unique pedagogical attempts that aim to change the language of input and output, but conducts deeper learning through “dual language” processing. Although it is not advocated that teachers should adopt translanguaging in their teaching because it will reduce some cognitive and metacognitive opportunities to students (Macaro, 2009), acts of students’ translanguaging as well as teachers’ use of translanguaging facilitate students’ understanding of subject material by deploying their full language repertoire (Williams, 2012). Lewis et al. (2012b) distinguish between pupil-directed

translanguaging and teacher-directed translanguaging. Teacher-directed translanguaging involves planned and structured activities by the teacher as a transformative pedagogy, while in natural translanguaging, students flexibly self-regulate themselves and naturally take control of their own learning when and how to language, depending on the context where they perform (Williams, 2012).

In teaching, translanguaging has its pedagogical value. Firstly, Sayer (2008) holds the view that when students are subject to the practices of academic language, translanguaging is valuable for academic content learning and affirm students' ethnolinguistic identities. Li (2014) examines how translanguaging works as a "co-learning" process where students can simultaneously try to adapt to each other and contribute individual efforts to reach desirable outcomes. Nevertheless, translanguaging is only as pedagogy valued or adopted by today's teachers in the service of providing rigorous instruction of learning content and academic language. Chicherina and Strelkova's (2023) study expand students' and teachers' perceptions of English language learning and teaching in the Russian university context, revealing that the most preferable ELT is based on translanguaging with minimized use of Russian as the mother tongue (Chicherina & Strelkova, 2023). However, whether translanguaging's exposure to task-based learning helps Chinese students' language use in senior high school in China remains to be seen.

2.2.2 Translanguaging to learn

Translanguaging plays a role in mediating students' identities as well as complex cognitive activities (García & Li, 2014). It not only provides students with access to "languages of power" (García, 2009, p. 12) but also it "provides an area for constructing and performing identities" (Merchant & Carrington, 2009, p. 63). Therefore, "the agency to negotiate their linguistic and meaning-making repertoires" (García & Li, 2014, p. 75) makes it possible for

students to guide languages to fulfil tasks or reach outcomes based on different contexts, needs, and challenges. Translanguaging also stresses the natural use of the full linguistic repertoire where students naturally use whatever linguistic features best suit social and linguistic situations (Canagarajah & Wurr, 2011). Using translanguaging to learn also enables students to act as “language brokers” to other learners (Lee et al., 2011), leading emergent bilinguals to model forms of knowing and talking for others (Fitts, 2009).

Research also indicates that language is increased under the circumstances that students amplify the language of the text, sometimes in English, sometimes in Chinese, and occasionally bilingually. Walqui and van Lier (2010) attach importance to amplification or increasing language use and stating concepts or ideas in multiple ways, because translanguaging provides students with access to a higher or at least different amplifications for them with multilingual spaces opened up to amplify both language and content. With cross-linguistic repertoire, many researchers think that it benefits students’ understanding of the language and create chances to develop the notion of language proficiency. For example, Cummins’ (1991) early research helps teachers note that language proficiency also lies in students’ ability to carry their knowledge across languages, and they believe that students’ overall understanding of the material has been reinforced in the service of bilingual readings.

In addition, students potentially gain a high sense of self-efficacy using translanguaging strategies because they self-regulate their learning (Velasco & García, 2014) to autonomously and flexibly internalize what they have learned personally. However, building on Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory (1978), before being internalized, knowledge is acquired interpersonally, that is, in relationships with others and the world. Therefore, by using translanguaging, Lantolf (2000) says, students can extend their zone of proximal development because they use metatalk (talk about talk) through translanguaging. For instance, students use [Chinese] language to talk objectively about [English]

language (Bouffard & Sarkar, 2008). In this way, it may be possible to make better use of the current level of students' Chinese language as a foundation for the potential level of development of the target language with other students' interactive guidance or scaffolding. Apart from this importance, other researchers evidence that translanguaging is also essential for learning in rich spaces such as metacognition (talk about the task), and whispered private speech (Kibler, 2010).

Translanguaging also plays a vital role in task-based learning practices. It allows students to manage tasks, to collaborate, and to extend their control over the language and forms used (Seals et al., 2020). Seal et al.'s (2020) findings also suggest that students use translanguaging to request and provide metalinguistic assistance, to generate ideas during rehearsals, and use L1 for metadiscursive commentary. Engaging with translanguaging is one way that students are more fully able to fulfill the meaning making goals of task-based learning, and task-based learning might more fully achieve this socially progressive goal.

Besides, some researchers indicate that translanguaging use as an effective tool can engage bilingual students in higher-order thinking skills. Firstly, there is a space for students to utilize all language skills to communicate their understanding, find meaning, and model and support each other's learning (Celic & Seltzer, 2012). Secondly, students can be enabled to be more creative and critical when transforming subject positionalities in the process of translanguaging but performing with their own internal norm (Li, 2011). That is, involving two languages builds bilingual students' creativity, as well as criticality. In translanguaging, the weaker language develops in reciprocal relationships with the dominant one, which contributes to students' deeper understanding of language use and learning content. Awareness of language differences as a consequence of translanguaging, students are well integrated into the classroom across the bilingual continuum (Lewis et al., 2012b). As a whole, translanguaging serves a tool to deepen cross-linguistic connections.

2.2.3 Translanguaging in English as a foreign language in China

The research on translanguaging in China is still at the theoretical stage and tends to pay more attention to higher education (Du, 2019; Shan, 2018). Empirical studies are more inclined to apply translanguaging to promote students' learning efficiency (Guo, 2019; Tang & Peng, 2019) rather than the ways students' use translanguaging in an EFL (English as a Foreign Language) class as well as reasons why students are translanguaging in target language learning. Thirdly, researchers are interested in translanguaging as pedagogical scaffolding strategies or supporting roles (Lin & He, 2017).

The dominant Confucius-influenced learning culture is inclined to a monoglot ideology and monoglossic pedagogy in language use and language education (Zhou & Li, 2015). Xie (2011) argues that teachers overuse L1 (Chinese) in order to achieve four purposes: translation, personal comment, translation drills, and meta-linguistics. Wang (2003) concludes that both teachers and students hold positive attitudes towards the reasonable use of L1 in learning grammar, but there is a mismatch on the use of L1 for some other pedagogical purposes. Many Chinese researchers advocate the use of the target language (English) as much as possible as well as the necessary use of L1 (Chinese) in FL teaching and learning (Chen, 2004; Zhou & Mao, 2006). However, there is no agreement on how much and when L1 should be used in English classes. As a matter of fact, Chinese teachers and students both consciously and unconsciously choose translanguaging to facilitate their meaning-making. Wang (2019) finds that teachers initiate translanguaging as a managerial strategy and an explanatory strategy while students initiate translanguaging as an interpersonal strategy, alleviating the difficulty of tasks and providing metalinguistic or cognitive scaffolding for meaning-making activities.

2.3 L1 and target language in ELT methodology

For many decades, English as the target language or L2 has been advocated to maximum use of by teachers, with near consensus in many countries (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). Many scholars worldwide see the fact that students stretch English learning beyond its own limits. For example, Lantolf (2002) views second language as a mediated process which needs the acquiring of new linguistic signs. Krashen's (1983) theories on $i+1$ also indicates that students can produce new languages by making communication understandable with enough comprehensible input received. Communicative Language Teaching pedagogy advocates doing things using words with a "natural approach" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), which indicates students natural ability to acquire language simply through communication. These ideas further promote the role of the target language (English) as a communicative language.

The literature suggests that students' linguistic features in bilingual communication are adjusted according to psychological reasons or communicator's intended effects. For example, Giles's theory of speech adaptation, which includes two situations in code-switching like ***linguistic convergence*** and ***linguistic deviation***, shows speakers intentionally adjust his or her linguistic features to be closer to or be different from those of other communicators in order to maintain his or her affinity or widen the psychological distance between himself or herself and listeners (Giles, 2016). Krashen and Sliger (1975) indicate in their mediated language theory that speakers' linguistic features in communication should be consistent with the communicator's intended effect.

The literature also reveals that students' language choice is an intentional process of language use. According to Verschuren' theory of linguistic conformity, it is argued that the process of language use is viewed as a continuous process of linguistic choice by students at different levels of consciousness, based on internal and external reasons, involving every possible

level of morphological, lexical, syntactic, and semantic choices (Verschuren, 1999).

Verschuren (1999) also points out that linguistic choice is not only a linguistic form, but also a linguistic strategy. If a linguistic interlocutor makes a strategic choice in communication, it also requires a more specific choice at many structural levels, because each subtle change at each level may convey a different semantic meaning. Language selection is also a dynamic asymmetric process, the most basic external motivation of which is language contact. Linguistic contact refers to various linguistic phenomena occurring in the course of direct or indirect contact between individuals or groups using two or more languages or variants, as well as the variety of changes resulting from their use. Language after language can be produced: linguistic phenomena include language mixing, language co-use, language transfer, and language extinction. It can be seen that linguistic choice is not a mechanical act, but a highly flexible one based on strict linguistic rules or linguistic forms - linguistic functions - which aim to achieve or approach a specific communicative purpose.

However, some researchers consider that L1 hinders target language advancement and even take a monolingual approach or suggest a framework of principles for balancing L1 and the target language in classrooms (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). For example, Cook (2001) attempts to discourage the use of L1 by banning or minimizing the use of L1 while maximizing exposure to the target language in classrooms. However, he also points out that excluding L1 for "exclusion's sake" could hinder students' learning. Similarly, Atkinson (1993, p. 13) warns that if L1 risks the primacy of the target language or "the most important ally a foreign language can have" if it is used "systematically, selectively and in judicious doses" (Butzkamm 2003, pp. 30, 36), L1 can be "the single biggest danger".

Actually, many researchers think highly of L1's merits and show their justified and positive reasons for L1 use (Edstrom, 2006; Macaro, 1997; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Van Der Meij & Zhao, 2010), including time efficiency

(Atkinson, 1993), performing tasks more effectively (Swain & Lapkin, 2000), its role in learner-learner collaborations (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Swain & Lapkin, 2000), the use of L1 in the preparation and rehearsal stages of a lesson (McMillan & Rivers, 2011), and for the comparison of the target language and L1 (Harbord, 1992), as well as for classroom management functions, instructions for activities and assessment requirements (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). Butzkamm concludes the use of L1 as a “conversational lubricant” (1998, p. 81). Some researchers also see the effects of L1 use on affective and personal functions in monolingual content-based classes (Nikula, 2007). Edstrom’s (2006) research also supports this idea because it demonstrates how she used the L1 to connect with her students, and the use of L1 helps students recognize the challenges in learning a language, understand the association between a language and the realities it prescribes, and avoid stereotypical ideas about the culture related to a target language. In many researchers’ eyes, L1 helps build a more humanistic and reassuring learning environment (Harbord, 1992; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008).

It must be pointed out, however, that some researchers are already aware about the precondition for the function of L1 and that it should be “deliberately and systematically used” rather than considered as something which is “a guilt-making necessity” (Cook, 2001, p. 418). Besides, Nation (1990) suggests that limitation of L1 use can make students believe that their own language is somehow inferior to L2. Therefore, many researchers support the appropriate use of L1 (Hall & Cook, 2013; McMillan & Rivers, 2011) rather than its excessive use (Kang, 2008; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002; Turnbull, 2001). Obviously, the literature presents an “overwhelming impression” that L2 should be the predominant language of interactions in classrooms (Macaro, 2006, p. 68) and ELT takes the use of the target language as the priority principle and occupies a dominant position, admitting exposure to the target language is significant for language learning (Chavez, 2003; Macaro, 1997; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). More importantly, some findings on

learners' concepts about L1 and target language use (Neokleous, 2016; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002) do not deny L1's role in English teaching and exclude the L1 completely (Macaro & Lee, 2013), because it is not just for acquiring explicit knowledge of the linguistic features of the target language (Chavez, 2003; Macaro, 1997), but also for its developing rapport (Hall & Cook, 2013) and its role in enhancing L2 learning (McMillan & Rivers, 2011) either directly (e.g., as an element in a teaching technique or to explain a difficult point) or indirectly (e.g., to build positive relationships or help manage learning) (Littlewood & Yu, 2009, p. 64).

Therefore, researchers have begun to focus on how to make use of L1 in service of the target language. Cognitively, Cook (1993, p. 32) gives priority to students' own first language, which serves as a way into the new language. Inevitably, learners make use of difference of languages to connect each through comparison and contrast, which can assist in understanding and building up confidence by liking the new and familiar, also cultivating students' general language awareness (Littlewood & Yu, 2009, p. 71). Translation of languages shows solid evidence that it is a useful learning strategy (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), and works as an effective cognitive strategy for learners (Hummel, 2010). Many researchers have confirmed its role of assisting in new language learning (Blyth, 1995; Centeno-Cortes & Jimenez, 2004) by alleviating the cognitive loads for learners during more challenging tasks (Scott & Fuente, 2008). For example, Alshehri's (2017) research shows that many students use L1 to translate vocabulary using dictionaries, and also to compare English grammar to Arabic grammar, with the purpose of explaining vocabulary and clarifying unclear meanings.

Littlewood and Yu (2011) deliberately exploit the strategic use L1 as an aid to achieve language learning goals at different learning stages. At the presentation stage, students' learning can advance to the more crucial stage of active use and internationalization by using L1 to clarify the meaning of words and structures of utterances. At the practice stage, L1 works as a stimulus to

elicit the equivalent target language in terms of meanings, which are implanted into a students' cognitive system. Students then re-express through the target language. The L1 stimulus "makes demands on the learner's meaning system and creates a need for this to be extended and enlarged" (Munro, 1999, p. 7). At the production stage, activities are designed where students begin with circumstances of L1 use and these function as input or stimuli for the target language use. Auerbach (1993) presents the importance of such activities as a natural bridge between L1 and the target language, as well as a source of security and ownership over learning.

Borrowing is an important way to construct a connection between L1 and the target language. Some researchers argue that linguistic elements are borrowed from the other languages and then they experience various degrees of adaptations between the languages (Van Hout & Muysken, 1994). They argue that borrowed words will accompany the phenomena such as "syntactic convergence or influence" (p. 40), so it is difficult to separate the effects of these two languages in individual cases. However, when borrowing words, it is difficult to achieve absolute equivalence between the two languages. For example, just as Hu (1999) argues, in the communicative process, the connotations of the borrowed words may be extended or diminished because of the inevitable cultural influence. That is, these borrowed words or languages do not carry corresponding cultural connotations, but only play the role of superficial meaning expression temporarily.

Interest in the interaction between L1 and the target language gives rise to the idea of "interlanguage", which is proposed by American linguistic Selinker (1972), as a relatively independent language system that is different from both the mother tongue and the target language. He defines it as "a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a target language norm" (Selinker, 1972, p. 214). According to Selinker, it is generated in the process of learners learning the rules of the target language. He argues that it is the product of five main

cognitive processes in L2 learning: language transfer which is the sub-system of interlanguage derived from the transfer of the mother tongue, transfer of training which comes from some characteristics of L2 training process, L2 learning strategies from specific processing of learning materials, communication strategies in L2 derived from special ways in which people communicate with native speakers of the target language, and overgeneralization of the target language material which may come from overgeneralization of the grammatical rules and semantic features of the target language.

Ellis (1997, p. 350) contends that interlanguage “is used to refer to both the internal system that a learner has constructed at a single point in time (‘an interlanguage’) and to the series of interconnected systems that characterize the learner’s progress over time (‘interlanguage’ or ‘the interlanguage continuum’)”. He argues that interlanguage should be approached as a dynamic and open process rather than a product.

Language transfer is a major process in L2 acquisition (Karim, 2013). Researchers cannot ignore any role of mother tongue in L2 acquisition, whether positive or negative. Sometimes, ELT meets some resistance, mainly from perceptions as well as practice. For example, Imam (2005, p. 482) thinks that “in the minds of most people, national identity and learning English are positioned as antagonistic, not complementary”. Therefore, some countries such as South Korea suggest that the use of L1 be limited to an absolute minimum (Lu et al., 2004). However, many scholars agree on the role and value of L1 transfer in serving as part of a repertoire of strategies in the course of L2 acquisition (e.g., Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Mu & Carrington, 2007), and some suggest that the use of L1 in conjunction with the target language can promote the transition from L1 to target language use (Shamash, 1990), because it can provide scaffolding for tasks (Anton & Dicamilla, 1998), improve negotiations (Swain & Lapkin, 2000), and enhance target language comprehension (Turnbull, 2001) and so on. In the middle state between mother

tongue and English, the existence of interlanguage, as an open and compatible language system, plays a role of balance and transition, because this is the need of students' self-improvement trend in English learning.

2.4 Task-based learning

2.4.1 Tasks in TBL

TBL is defined as learning that relies on successful meaning transfer to complete interactive tasks and focuses learners' attention more closely on the comprehensibility of the language they are using, thereby increasing the likelihood that interlanguage forms will converge to task-language norms (Foster, 1999). It is worth flagging that there are in fact "strong" and "weak" forms of TBLT (Task-Based Language Teaching) which have been discussed in the literature. Skehan (1996) has distinguished between strong and weak forms of TBLT. It is argued that strong forms of TBLT focus on transacting tasks with everything else subsidiary while weak forms are similar to CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) in general. One strong version of task-based approaches, advocated by Willis (1996), offers more chances than weak variations for students' choice of language. One example of weak version is task-supported teaching (Ellis, 2003), which facilitates the communicative practice of language items that have been introduced in a traditional way. The two-form versions illustrate the flexibility of TBLT, but they also confuse researchers.

Prabhu is a major figure in the early development of TBL in ELT. He emphasizes that conditions should be created for learners in order to deal with communication when learning a language (Prabhu, 1987). He further argues that it is better for students to learn the target language through tasks, as TBL empowers students to use the full range of skills and language they have at the same time (Lindsay & Knight, 2006). Afterwards, many researchers began to relate TBL research to language contexts in communication. For example, TBL

has emerged as a form of CLT that focuses on contextualized communication (Ellis, 2003; Garcia Mayo, 2015; Kim, 2015; Long, 2015; Skehan, 2014).

The definition of "task" has aroused debate internationally. Nunan (1989) defines it as a communicative activity where students are centered on meaning through their interaction in the target language. In Bachman and Palmer's (1996) opinion, "language use task" involves achieving a particular goal or objective in a particular situation in using language. Similarly, Ellis (2003, p.3) argues that tasks are "activities that call for primarily meaning-focused language use". Littlewood (2004) proposes a summative definition of the meaning of "task": it is a gradually changing range from focusing on grammar to focusing on semantics, that is, classroom activities with two different objectives focusing on grammar and semantics. In his opinion, TBL should effectively integrate classroom teaching with extracurricular real-life situations, so as to meet the language needs of students both inside and outside classrooms. Bygate et al. (2001) put it in a nutshell that tasks emphasize the use of language for meaning and goal attainment. In line with their opinion, Van den Branden's (2006, p. 4) defines a task as "an activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language". These researchers reached a consensus that tasks immerse students in meaningful communication, which is effective for them in using and learning a second or foreign language to gain a goal which helps them with better language development. Therefore, they all agree that the task is featured by its focus-on-meaning in authentic language use contexts to achieve goal-oriented outcomes.

There are several ways to categorize task types (Ellis, 2003; Pica et al., 1993). One way depends on the direction in which information flows. In a one-way task, the information flows from one who possesses all information to the other who is going to obtain it. In a two-way task, two parties (including all participants), exchange information that is helpful to resolve the task. Ellis (2003) also differentiates the difference between unfocused and focused tasks.

Focused tasks are aimed to stimulate communicative language use as well as target the use of a predetermined target linguistic feature. They can be done by making language itself the content of a task or learners' performing a particular linguistic feature. However, unfocused tasks do not take the use of a specific form into consideration.

Currently, many researchers draw attention to students' language output during task performance with regard to linguistic quality (e.g., complexity, accuracy, fluency) or interactional characteristics (Kim, 2015; Plonsky & Kim, 2016). Tasks are employed to check how they master the language use well and present how they interact with each other. Obviously, the task design is done to effectively engage students in real language use (Willis & Willis, 2007) because the task has its important role in necessarily involving using language as vehicles to trigger an outcome through some interactive process of thought and providing students with better language learning opportunities (Richards et al., 1985).

There are also benefits in exploiting L1 to learn the target language in tasks. For example, Villamil and de Guerrero (1996) use the data collected from the discourse of Spanish-speaking students in peer revision of their target language (English) writing to demonstrate that "L1 was an essential tool for making meaning of text, retrieving language from memory, exploring and expanding content, guiding their action through the task, and maintaining dialogue" (p. 60).

There is a controversy about how to maintain the authenticity of the task in implementing and contextualizing TBL according to its principles (Waters, 2009). Nunan (2004) stresses that TBL should strengthen the use of authentic materials in the learning process and relate classroom language to the language used outside classrooms. Long (2016) adds that learners should put the L2 beyond their classroom into real-world communicative uses to do things which they do in and through their L2.

Research gaps such as task sequencing, teacher development, and task-based learning transferability (Ellis, 2017; Long, 2016) have been explored to examine the effectiveness of language use in task performance. Besides, some factors influencing the effectiveness and nature of collaborative tasks such as task implementation (e.g., Kim, 2011), interaction patterns (e.g., Storch, 2002), task modes (e.g., Baralt, 2013), and learner features (e.g., Shin et al., 2015) have been widely investigated. Collaborative interaction is like a thread binding the task-based learning all together. Students' participation in real-time interactions and collaborative conversations helps them to conduct their tasks jointly or individually on an equal basis to construct meaning and improve their language learning. Some researchers (e.g., Kim, 2008; Nassaji & Tian, 2010; Storch, 2007) argue that language use and learning can be simultaneously triggered by students' collaborative interactions produced during task performance. Students' engagement in collaborative dialogue results in learning of grammar and vocabulary (Swain & Lapkin, 2002). Ellis (2003) believes that a further significant boost to advantages of task-based interaction lies in two research aspects: the psycholinguistic and sociocultural. From the psycholinguistic aspect, how different task categories and task conditions exert influence on students' performance has been focused on (Robinson, 2001). From the sociocultural aspect (Vygotsky, 1978), social interaction plays a vital part in triggering knowledge construction in task performance because learning is regarded as a mediated process (Lantoff, 2000).

Skehan (1998) asserts that engagement where students rely on their L1 too much may lead to undermining the psycholinguistic rationale for task-based interaction with the interlanguage stretched in a communicative task. When it comes to the advancement of students' interlanguages in tasks, Seedhouse (1997) finds that tasks fail to 'push' students in very minimal, heavily elided forms of communication. Then, the chances of stretching their interlanguage

linguistically are consequently lost with their strategic competence required to deal with the communicative demands of a task.

On the whole, TBL seems to offer an interactive platform where students can have more chances and attempts to use the target language with “interactional scaffolding” (Gibbons, 2009) and linguistic encoding (Cadierno & Robinson, 2009; Robinson et al., 2009). While doing tasks, students are put in situations where they “largely have to rely on their own resources (linguistic and non-linguistic) in order to complete the activity” (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 184). However, TBL has its limitation in class contributions caused by varying forms of contributions to the target language use or by translanguaging which may even cause poor relationships among students in group learning because of a lack of coordination in meaning negotiation. It puts teachers in an awkward situation at the mercy of predominant students’ interactions. These limitations have led me to investigate the role of students’ translanguaging in TBL in the absence of a teacher and navigate how students balance their own coordination in their target language use and cross-linguistic choices in TBL.

Specific aspects of TBL have also triggered the research interests of Chinese scholars. TBL in China makes connections between two seemingly disconnected linguistic systems, English and Chinese. Unconscious use of the mother tongue is unavoidable although students perceive deviance of bilingual discourse, which is rooted in the link between languages. Pan’s (2007) exploration of task design in listening comprehension tests, Wu’s (2010) study of the impact of tasks on vocabulary acquisition, and Miao’s (2014) research into writing tasks for big classes in Chinese EFL settings all suggest that TBL is effective to some extent in the Chinese context.

However, based on the implementation of TBL in Hong Kong, Carless (2007, p. 596) claims that “task-based teaching may prove to be in conflict with traditional education norms”, such as traditional Chinese Confucian educational ideas, including the authority of teachers. TBL also challenges teachers’ beliefs of language learning, because ELT in China fixes attention on grammar-based

content (He, 2014) while TBL is oriented towards acquisition. Luo and Xing (2015) report on the difficulties teachers encounter in implementing task-based language teaching due to the lack of teacher training, and the tasks designed for students' being too challenging, while traditional presentation, practice, and production methods are relatively easy to operate. Besides, students lack confidence when participating in task activities (as will be discussed later in this chapter). The education environment dominated by college entrance examinations also constrains the development of TBL. The local awareness of TBL is weak, especially in the theoretical construction combining local practice (Li, G.F., 2015; Liu & Guo, 2020). On top of that, EFL in China is short of a natural learning environment for acquisition and use (Liu & Guo, 2020). Studies by both Chinese and foreign scholars indicate that Chinese classrooms fail to provide enough input for complex rules to be naturally learned (Gass, 1987; Liu, 2013). In conclusion, language context, classroom culture, lack of theoretical integration of implementing TBL, and examination-oriented instruction and learning are challenges in China (Liu & Guo, 2020). Some scholars suggest adaptation and localization instead of simply abandoning it (He, 2014; Ji & Tang, 2009; Zheng & Borg, 2014).

2.4.2 ELT change and task-based learning in China

The general trend of ELT in China has shifted from emphasis on linguistic knowledge and skills to communicative language competence, and the pedagogical approaches tend to be more skills-centered, task-based, and process-oriented (Wesche & Skehan, 2002). These shifts can be attributed to a host of macro and micro influences. For example, some scholars regard English proficiency as a national as well as a personal asset (Hu, 2002b; Jin & Cortazzi, 2003). Since the mid-1980s, with China's drive for modernization and prosperity, ELT is closely bound up with its people's pursuit of personal welfare because it provides potential opportunities for careers which require English

proficiency (Wu, 2001). On the other hand, ELT enables China to bridge the gap to the outside world for economic and political goals (Adamson, 2004).

However, a variety of factors have been identified that constrain the implementation of ELT, such as insufficient resources and instructional time, limited teacher proficiency, cultural resistance, and examination pressure (Hu, 2002a; Li, 1998; Nunan, 2003; Tran & Baldauf, 2007; Yu, 2001). As a result, Chinese students learning English sometimes find themselves in the awkward position of being good at grammar-based written exams (Wen & Clement, 2003), but failing to survive in authentic English contexts (Ai, 2015). Passing the English exam seems to be their main motivation (Wang, 2008) and plays a crucial role in measuring the standard of learning English well (Pan & Block, 2011). How Chinese English teachers teach and how they evaluate students' English learning has already determined the way students learn English, as well as their motivation for English language learning. Garner identifies two kinds of motivations for learning English: instrumental and integrative. The former includes pragmatic reasons for learning a language while the latter indicates an interest in learning the language in order to identify with the target language community (Liu et al., 2016).

Apart from the rapid growing demand for English proficiency in China, there is also an increasing need for efforts aimed at improving the effectiveness of ELT in real communication. The pedagogical adoption of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is intended to develop students' communicative skills, involving interactional and transactional functions of communication (Brown & Yule, 1983). However, some researchers argue that because of different contextual constraints where language teaching occurs, CLT has failed its intended goals (Humphries & Burns, 2015; Li, 1998) without adequate input, output, and interaction, particularly given the time constraints of a language class (Spino & Trego, 2015).

Nonetheless, the government has promoted TBL as a way of improving the communication skills of Chinese students. In 2003, the Ministry of Education

issued the “High School English Curriculum Standards (Experimental Draft)” which clearly proposed the use of TBL in English classrooms (Liu & Guo, 2020). In 2017, the Ministry of Education issued an improved version of the National English Curriculum Standards, which mentioned the core competencies and activities in English teaching, and proposed pedagogical evaluation and activities established on core competencies. The new curriculum standards proceed to emphasize language competence and take up holistic tasks in language teaching and evaluation (Liu & Guo, 2020).

TBL emphasizes the meaning and authenticity of communication, and that the association of meaning and language is perceived close to reality, which attracts many language teachers and learners (Pérez, 2004). Since then, there has been a wave of TBL in English classes in China. Teachers design real-world tasks based on course objectives and content while students interact and cooperate to complete learning tasks and acquire different language skills.

2.5 Students’ interactions in TBL

Ellis (2009) divides interactions into five types based on the purpose of the interaction: method-oriented, information-oriented, activity-based, system-oriented, and social-oriented. Seedhouse (1994, pp. 38-81) divides interactions into four categories in terms of classroom models: Real World Target Speech communities, which emphasize that interactions should be aimed at real life; Classroom Speech Community, emphasizing classroom-centered interactions; Task-oriented Speech Community, emphasizing task-oriented interactions; and Form and Accuracy Speech Community.

Why can students’ interactions serve as a basic context of translanguaging? In essence, interactions and context are tied up inextricably with each other, because Mercer (2000) argues that interactions have contextual foundations. Interactions are directly subject to “inherent properties of language and the human mind” (Chafe, 1992, p. 89). They have value in contents as well as

contexts they produce. More importantly, they are viewed as a chief resource for understanding translanguaging itself and students' cognition in the process of translanguaging. Halliday (2006) notes that while translanguaging, interactions are the register where students can extend the potential of a language to the fullest. In his opinion, their status is special because they accommodate the context where students take full advantage of resources of language they have. In addition, students are subject to these situations where they can improvise and innovate (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). Goodwin and Heritage (1990, p. 289) also agree that interactions through translanguaging are "the point of departure for more specialized communicative contexts". Besides, context can be constructed by the interaction itself through translanguaging. That is, students can use interactions to create contexts (Littleton & Mercer, 2013) and "language as context" (Goodwin & Duranti, 1992, p. 7) in interactions redefines students in their interpersonal orientations and perceptions. Both the collaborative context and the argumentative context are indispensable and inextricably linked to the interaction where the target language is acquired, but which context works better?

The context where students' interactions through translanguaging representatively arises is characterized by the shared wealth of knowledge. In a shared cross-linguistic environment, students are psychologically co-constructing verbal thoughts. Firstly, in the collaborative context, students can internalize the content of the dialogue through the process of sharing resources through interactions and transform different resources into their own (Swain, 2006). Secondly, Galton and Williamson (1992) argue that students can achieve common goals by maintaining coordination about their actions and adjusting cooperation in shared tasks. This context contributes to the interactive efficiency of students through collaborative dialogues (Swain, 2000) and more interactive engagement (So & Brush, 2008) in their collective reflections. Thirdly, in this context, students are well cognitively linked to each other, sparking off collaborative learning through ideas exchange and

knowledge complement. In these ways, collaboration is beneficial to students (Johnson & Johnson, 2002) by their co-constructing and sharing of knowledge. Fourthly, its benefit also lies in the stimulating effect of different cognitive or social roles and tasks on complementary speech (Weinberger et al., 2005). Fifthly, the collaborative context promotes cooperation, influencing students' intrinsic motivation and learning outcomes (Schmidt & Moust, 2000), and improves group interaction with a high level of interdependence among members in groups (Dillenbourg, 1999), as well as individual accountability (Stanton & Fairfax, 2007). However, some researchers are concerned that although this context plays a role in bettering task performance, it may not necessarily lead to subsequent learning in targeted forms (Hung et al., 2013). In addition, the restrictions of collaborative context settings also involve the degree of sharing and collaboration exposure in group interactions, as well as the degree of interdependence among group members.

Students' interactions unavoidably give rise to challenge and disagreement (Alexander, 2004). Some researchers support the idea that disagreement does a favor in forwarding students' knowledge construction (Wells, 1999). Studies indicate that students' cognitive ability can be acquired through argumentative reasoning developed in such a context (Kuhn & Udell, 2003), and the argumentative schema in interactions (Reznitskaya & Anderson, 2002) helps students expand their thinking. In contrast to the collaborative context, the argumentative context requires students to specify or elaborate on references to defend their own views or challenge the views of others without creating more explanatory problems. Consequently, they use conversations to examine evidence, analyze ideas, and explore values, rather than accept others' conclusions without doubt.

In short, each context is likely to hinder or promote the use of its language in some way. Comparing the collaborative context with the argumentative context, Richards and Rodgers (2001) reach a conclusion that the collaborative context contributes to reducing students' pressure while building a positive

classroom atmosphere to reach an agreement. However, the argumentative context risks encountering opposition or intervention during the critical thinking and reasoning process as well as providing alternative views or demanding others' views (Newton et al., 1999). Either way, these two contexts have their dynamic potential in constructing students' knowledge and promote their target language use (Kolb, 1984).

2.6 Interactions and meaning construction

Bakhtin (1986) believes that interactions unequivocally build interlocutors' meaning and understanding, because meaning and understanding both engage dialogic interaction. Some researchers argue that more creative output can be facilitated by students' interactions. Moran and John-Steiner (2004) indicate that interactions among students are of great benefit to stimulate students' dynamic and personal innovation by sharing multiple perspectives instead of inhibiting creativity. While facilitating more productive exchanges of views with students' shared struggles, their interactions can produce more accomplishments in simultaneous advancement (John-Steiner, 2000) in meaning making. Besides, other researchers hold the prospect of promoting the charm of its dynamic "space" (Littleton & Mercer, 2013) in order to achieve something new and useful. In short, the tacit knowledge of students can be enriched through more interactive ways, helping them balance the process of advocacy, inquiry, and reflection (Bronn & Bronn, 2003). However, a potential risk lies in the process that students fail to generate understanding and new insights through interactive efforts. As a result, some researchers stress that students' absorptive capacity does matter in influencing the speed, frequency, and magnitude of their innovations (Van Wijk et al., 2011).

Some researchers also raise the question of whether students' interactions can go smoothly in obtaining the target language, pointing out cases where students fail in personalized relationship building (Mercer, 1995) and in building an atmosphere of mutual respect, trust, and cooperation (Van Gorder, 2007).

Despite communication in the presence of simultaneous differences (Clark & Holquist, 1984), interactions are considered a practical way to interact with others, thereby promoting their participation, independence, confidence, and responsibility in the interactions. In “enriching the conversation” (Pearce, 2002), some researchers propose coordinating some students’ voices with others’ drawing on these voices.

In China, the curriculum goal of the English subject set by the Ministry of Education of China changed in 2014 from “cultivating students’ comprehensive language use ability” to core literacy (or key competences). Group interactions have gradually become the main form of language communication and classroom interactions, becoming accepted by the majority of front-line English teachers and widely used in the teaching process (Wu & Pan, 2019). Jiang (2012) and Xu and Kou (2011) conduct relevant empirical research on group interaction strategies, emphasizing the improvement effect of interactive strategy training on college students’ oral expression. In addition, research on the role of students in group interactions has shifted from teacher-students to peer students, emphasizing the positive role of peer students in group interactions (Jia & Fang, 2009; Xu, 2016). Wu and Pan (2019) explore group interaction patterns in high school English listening and speaking teaching from two dimensions of equality and reciprocity, and analyzed the distribution of group interaction patterns in classes and the relationship between group task types and interaction patterns. Their research implies adopting a situational approach to role-playing tasks consciously.

Chinese scholars (e.g., Cheng, 2004; Gong & Luo, 2003; Jiang, 2006; Lu et al., 2003) recognize that students learn English passively, and the integration of students’ cognitive ability, personality characteristics, and knowledge experience in interactive learning is ignored in the teaching process. Pei and Li (2006) randomly selected ten senior high school English and conducted a classroom observation study. They found that the interaction patterns of Senior high school English classes are mainly Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF)

models. Various other studies identify problems in interactions in TBL and propose improvements. Firstly, there is the **interference (negative transfer) of mother tongue** in interactions. Chinese students have a systematic foundation of the Chinese language and deep-rooted Chinese thinking. Therefore, they will be influenced and interfered by their mother tongue in many aspects in the process of English communication and interactions. In terms of pronunciation, Li and Li (2002) find that Chinese students cannot distinguish the long and short vowels in English; they are obviously disturbed by the pronunciation of Chinese dialects, and they are not sensitive to English stress patterns. In terms of vocabulary, Chinese students do not grasp the connotation and denotation of English and Chinese word meaning, they confuse the part of speech and collocation of English and Chinese words, and do not distinguish the meaning of words. In grammar, negative transfer is particularly prominent in Chinese. For example, there exists the mixed use of singular and plural nouns, the misuse of the case of nouns and pronouns; there also remains non-predicate verbs and predicate verb confusion, verb tenses, and mood uncertainty; there appears incorrect sentence patterns. In addition, there are differences in modifiers and word order between the English and Chinese languages. However, meanwhile, some researchers notice the positive role and influence of mother tongue in target language learning. Wen and Guo (1998) confirm the positive role of the mother tongue in target language writing. They all agree that the influence of the mother tongue on the target language should not only be examined in what has been output, but also in how the output occurs, especially in the mother tongue's role in the cognitive process.

Secondly, the low quality of communication stems from Chinese students' **anxiety and lack of confidence in foreign language learning**. Liu and Jackson (2008) show that most students are unwilling to risk exposing themselves to English in class. More than one third of students are anxious in English classes. Poor communication is significantly correlated with foreign language anxiety. Chen and Chang (2011) show that foreign language anxiety

is positively correlated with cognitive load. Liu (2006) also points that a number of Chinese EFL students are rather nervous in class, especially when they are forced to speak without any preparation. Wang (2013) shows that foreign language anxiety in oral classes is negatively correlated with the total number of words in oral communication units. Wang (2016) indicates that teachers' teaching methods, classroom atmosphere, and students' tolerance of ambiguity in English Learning are also associated with anxiety. The relationship between anxiety and students' performance is negative (Kui, 2016; Li, 2015; Qiu & Liao, 2007; Zhou & Tang, 2010). However, some scholars have shown that academic performance has no correlation with foreign language anxiety at all, and those students with a high anxiety level even have higher academic performance (Chen, 2008). Along with learning anxiety, there exists communicative pauses and incoherent speech in interactions. Although pause has many positive functions in natural language production, such as easing speech load, controlling, or indicating the speech turn (Yang, 2004), one of the manifestations of difficulty or non-fluent output in L2 is pause (Riggenbach, 1991). Chinese students' accuracy and fluency may be affected because their speaking may be loaded with "hesitations, false-starts, grammatical inaccuracies and limited vocabulary" (Hughes, 2002, p. 77).

Thirdly, Chinese students tend to **lack active communicative willingness** in interactions. According to Tsui (1996), Asian students are seen as being more reticent in language classes, including Chinese students, as compared to their Western counterparts. Wen and Clement (2003) argue that under the influence of Confucius culture, Chinese students obey authority and are accustomed to teacher-centered classes, so they are unlikely to participate in classroom communication. They also tend to be face-protection orientation and avoid participating in classroom communication, because they are sensitive to others' judgments about their language behavior. Li (2009) further points out that the Chinese test-oriented education model has a negative impact on the student's willingness to communicate in English. Yang and Gao (2013) report

that learners with high language proficiency make frequent repairs, thus, emphasizing their concerns about language forms they have not yet mastered, while learners with a low language level can only pay attention to and uptake corrective feedback through the teacher's prompting and induction. Wen (1993) stresses the importance of classroom interaction in English learning and teaching. Her experimental results confirm the difference between English majors and students with less expertise due to their different performances in the interaction. Han (2008) finds that independent learning by students in classroom interactions could more stimulate students with middle and upper grades to ask creative questions.

To address the problem of students failing to get the meaning across in interactions with full exposure to the target language, Zhao (2017) suggests that the transfer of L1 in foreign language teaching should be taken seriously. Some scholars (Jin, 2010; Wu, 2000) argue that using L1 cannot be ignored, and others even support a positive role for L1 in foreign classrooms (Gong, 2014; Guo, 2002; Ni, et al., 2012).

2.7 Summary and conclusion

In order to string all concepts into a line and integrate them into a whole, this chapter has attempted to sensitize itself to constructing the inner relation between various concepts or theories and identifying themes that emerge from the synthesis process within the problem.

This chapter aimed to elaborate how translanguaging can play a coordinating role in two languages in the process of meaning construction through students' interactions based on TBL to serve target language use, despite the constant changes and languages' gap in their knowledge and understanding.

The core of this chapter has laid in sorting out and analyzing translanguaging practices and perspectives. The concept of translanguaging examines students' use of a combination of two real languages, focusing on

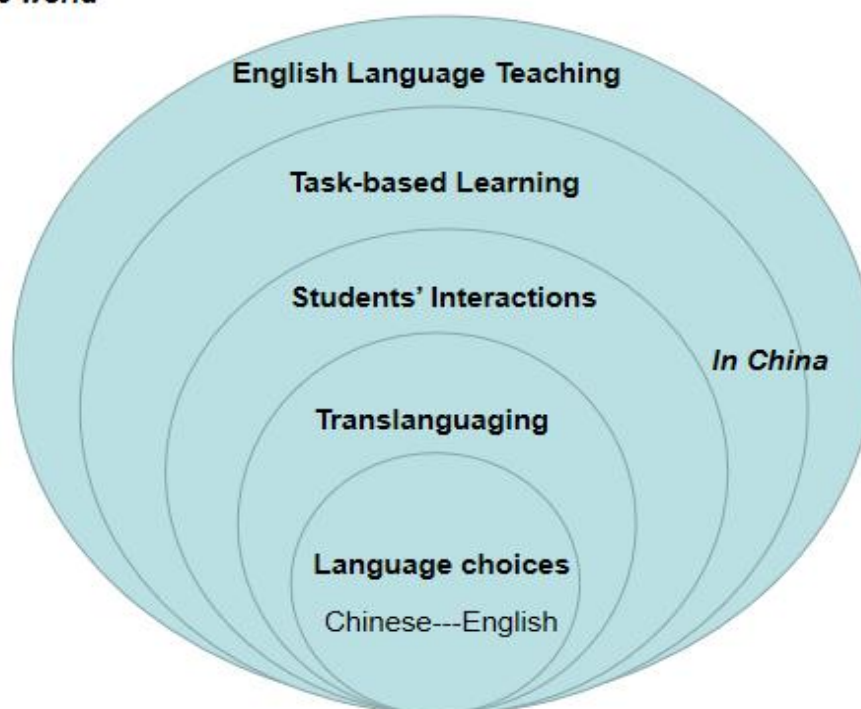
their choices between two languages (L1 and the target language). This combination brings flexibility in promoting their proficiency in multiple languages (Cummins, 2007) and deepening their metalinguistic awareness (Martin-Beltrán, 2014). With the totality of their language knowledge to engage in both languages use, translanguaging bridges unique meaning, experiences, knowledge, and understandings through two language uses (Jones & Lewis, 2014). What is more, language alternation for input and output enriches the meaning of translanguaging.

Second, this chapter re-examined previous studies about translanguaging contexts from a macro perspective. Students' interactions within their respective ZPDs continuously deepens their understanding of the problem, along with the meaning making. Tasks encompass the purpose of both learning and communication. They promote students' translanguaging possibilities and trigger their initiatives to activate their individual linguistic resources with tasks' features. TBL provides students with a real situation where they place themselves in translanguaging to perform tasks in order to achieve an outcome (Willis, 1996) in interactions. Based on many ELT methodologies, China has provided its pedagogical implication and contextual feasibility of translanguaging based on TBL.

Figure 2.1

Contexts of the study

In the world



This chapter has provided an analytical dimension from the outer contexts to the core research problems. Specifically, as is shown in Figure 2.1, the core layer of the contexts is the direct and interactive environment where students use translanguaging. Linguistic features, language functions, as well as students' language choices to use both English and Chinese in interactions are written down and recorded to describe their internal connections and examine the degree of service in target language improvements. The second layer involves the relations between tasks and contexts through translanguaging process and tasks' influence on translanguaging. That means tasks may exert different influences on students' translanguaging. The third layer shows the kinds of TBL closely integrated with linguistic features, language functions, as well as language choices in different ways. The fourth layer is how the role of ELT is played with the significant consequences of translanguaging caused. Finally, the overarching outer setting is the wider cultural context involving China's educational and pedagogical reforms in target language improvements (e.g., laws and regulations).

In this chapter, identifying the essential tension or gap between accepted prior knowledge and new ideas provided me with insights on the research focus. Resonating to certain works as groundbreaking, I have attempted to use my own words to describe the questions originating both from practice and theory, revealing my awareness of the central questions to be discussed in the field. It is worth stating that I attempted to group some representative literature works under specific themes around the topic of issue. For example, Li's (2011) work has extended my understanding into translanguaging space. Some findings on L1 and target language use have made me re-examine the feasibility of translanguaging in Chinese English classrooms. Giles' (2016) work and Verschueren's theory added to new ideas that translanguaging is a process of language choice, with new linguistic forms and new language functions presented. Similarly, the new trend of ELT in China has not only enabled me to focus on students linguistic switching between languages, but also language functions in students choices of languages in a more broad context.

In the chapter that follows, the research methodology employed in this study will be discussed. My focus will switch to a discussion of how my research was conducted based on the research questions, such as the selection of methods, processes of data collection and analysis, as well as some ethical issues I needed to pay much attention to in order to ensure inner methodological coherence.

Chapter 3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I provide reasons for the qualitative research paradigm as my methodological choice. The design will be portrayed in terms of epistemology and ontology, including research methods selected, procedures adopted in the data collection and analysis, matters of ethics, problems encountered and how they were dealt with. I will provide an overview of the methodology critically and systematically as an insider researcher.

This chapter begins by clarifying the rationale for my epistemological and ontological position. I discuss why a qualitative approach was my optimal choice in order to answer the main problems: can translanguaging help increase the targeted language use based on TBL? It then discusses in detail the strategic sampling that best represented the participants as well as my justification for selecting them. It also deals with task design and piloting that ensured research reliability and validity.

Specific methods were adopted to collect raw data according to the sub-questions (RQs 1.1, 1.2, and 1.3), which were positioned beneath the main research question: (1) As for linguistic features, what are the linguistic (grammatical and lexical) features of the students' use of Chinese and English in interaction? Auditory recordings were the main means to record raw data. (2) As for Language functions, for what communicative purposes do students use translanguaging in English language TBL? The approach I adopted was transcribing and interpreting the raw data. (3) As for language choice, why do students make their linguistic choices when translanguaging in English language TBL? Qualitative interviews were used to elicit students' account of their language choice.

The chapter also discusses the analysis approaches and describes the analytical framework. Matters of ethics are taken into serious account. The chapter ends by reflecting on some of the strengths and limitations.

3.2 Epistemology and ontology

Qualitative research paradigm

Qualitative research was my chosen paradigm because it is a process of conducting social discourses to explore a wide array of dimensions of the social world in dialogical meaning constructions, and the experience or rationale of research participants in making language choices while translanguaging. Besides, the research process is always deeply contextual and depending on students' language mastery and their cognitive level.

Methodologies of qualitative researching also aim to produce factual and descriptive information (Johnson & Christensen, 2012, pp. 29-37). In-depth examination of phenomena, understanding nuances in contexts, and a wide range of experiences of research participants as well meanings of the interaction process or discourses are key elements of qualitative epistemology.

In response to the first sub-research question (RQ.1.1), observations or auditory recordings allowed me to re-examine the translanguaging performance of students that might be taken for granted, expected, or go unnoticed in group learning (Cooper & Schindler, 2001, p. 374) in the most natural and real English learning settings. I adopted observations as a manner of data accumulation to discover the essence and rules of students' linguistic features in translanguaging practice. Moreover, observations provided a reality check (Robson, 2002, p. 310) for later data analysis. The unique advantage of them was not only that I could use direct cognition to systematically acquire and generate real data, but also the observations were contextually sensitive and had strong ecological validity (Moyles, 2002).

To answer the second sub-research question (RQ1.2), I adopted methods of transcribing fragments under certain themes by adding symbols to best represent the language functions I wished to analyze in-depth. The utility of transcripts transpired from often disclosing previously neglected but repeated features of the organization of talk (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984). Then, interpretation was a necessary step for me to further analyze language functions. "Interpretation as a process of understanding oneself in relation to one's understanding of others" (Nixon, 2012, p. 32) meant giving meaning to as well as animating data based on my understanding that the second sub-research question needed. It went beyond classification and coding of the data. Instead, it served for an interrogative interchange between myself and the raw data to jointly make sense of the topic.

Resonating to the third sub-research question (RQ1.3), qualitative interviewing was an important way for me to have a deeper understanding of why students made language choices in translanguaging. It was also the main method for me to describe, interpret, and understand experiences and meanings. Sometimes, the data collected in the interviews were additional but necessary verification or illustration. In order to obtain detailed insights from these participants, these qualitative interviews required "a respect for and curiosity about what people say, and a systematic effort to really hear and understand what people tell you" (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 17). I learned the skill of being capable to step in and out of the interviews. Just as Jonsson and Lukka (2006, p. 3) describe, researchers should have the need "to cross the border between the etic [outsider] and the emic [insider] perspectives, there and back again". Through interviews, I wanted to elicit reasons why participants chose to communicate in different languages and to elicit the features and functions of their use of those languages, attempting to find a connection between the two.

Specifically, qualitative researching engaged me in exploring abundant data about real life people and situations (De Vaus, 2014; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014),

especially situations of Chinese students using Chinese and English alternately in my English classes and the phenomenon of translanguaging when using their target language (English). The research questions emanated “from neither theory nor practice alone but from critical reflection on the interaction of the two” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, p. 15). That is, the *status quo* of students making use of two language’s diversity as a resource for communication invited me to rethink the role of translanguaging in bridging the languages.

This qualitative interviewing was a kind of guided conversation that made participants’ responses meaningful and understandable (Warren, 2002). With digital recordings accompanied by post-interview field notes as well as a research log, the semi-structured interviews helped me to elicit students’ accounts of how they explained their translanguaging experiences and intentions of these choices.

Therefore, practitioner research as my methodology choice enabled me to be responsible for my research focus on participants’ responses to translanguaging in serving the target language learning as well as new knowledge constructed in response to my own position within the context in every step of the research process (Drake & Heath, 2011). Apart from academic and professional knowledge, practice can be treated as a place for critical reflection (Scott et al., 2004) and promote reciprocal transformation and dialectical growth (Nakkula & Ravitch, 1998) in my research process.

3.3 Selection of methods and processes of data collection

The research sought to investigate representative Chinese students about how and why they translanguage based on tasks, in attempting to answer the research questions. For qualitative research, my selection of methods aimed at in-depth explanation, description, and interpretation of a phenomenon (Maxwell, 2013).

3.3.1 Research sample

After reflecting on the research questions, I first decided to try to develop a pool of potential interview participants based primarily on whether they met the following two requirements: (1) students who had a strong desire to express, although there would be some English expression difficulties; (2) students' active participation to use both the Chinese and English languages. The purpose of sampling in qualitative enquiry is to "select key informants with access to important sources of knowledge" (Mays & Pope, 1996, p. 110). Therefore, participants were selected purposefully and carefully to yield representative cases that were "information rich" (Patton, 2015, p. 264) to maximize efficiency and validity (Morse & Niehaus, 2009) and to achieve depth of understanding, as studying informative cases assisted me to achieve the purpose of the investigation and produce insights and profound understanding instead of empirical generalizations (Patton, 2015).

I faced a dilemma with regard to how to select appropriate samples in the same grade or even in the same class, because I did not know the students very well first hand. Thus, I only chose samples according to the teacher's feedback and my subjective impression based on my contact with the students in person. To use data to "represent authentically the experience of the 'other'" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 21) and avoid lack or repetition of representation, I determined the sample size, based on the principle of saturation, a point when diminishing returns sets in (Mason, 2010). Besides, my determination was based on "judgment and experience in evaluating the quality of the information against uses to which it will be put" (Sandelowski, 1995, p. 183).

Specifically, there were three grades in my school and every grade consisted of ten classes, two of which were typically chosen in each grade, where students were grouped using translanguaging. I chose one group in each class, two groups representing each grade and six groups in total, which was deemed as the optimal number to allow me to infer all groups more validly. The

sample size was neither too large nor too small, and just enough to achieve data saturation (Morse, 1995), theoretical saturation (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), and avoid informational redundancy (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Not all translanguaging practices were observed; I just obtained representative data, valuable for understanding the depth, complexity, and variation of translanguaging. It was convenient for me to carry out a qualitative analysis with “the ability or capacity to perform or act effectively” (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007, p. 117).

3.3.2 Task design and pilot study

In my research, tasks were chosen and designed lying in the reasons for their prevalence in academic discourse and conversational discourse in the servicing of target language use. According to the information flowing directions, six topics for each group were given to reality with authentic materials, which provided enough opportunities for students’ critical thinking (Ennis, 1993) or reached consensus with practical and communicative meaning combined. These topics, such as wildlife protection, volunteer experience sharing, Chinese students studying abroad, Chinese and American multiculturalism, old Tom and the killer whale and the future of cloning technology, were taken from the students’ English learning textbook, but the questions were designed to take into account the content of the text, and to go beyond or expand the content of the text. Around the topic, the design of questions focused on guiding students to have something to say, to be willing to say, and to have a certain communicative space (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2005) with specific objectives of content learning and the target language underlined (see Table 3.1). As Wright (1987) suggests, task design is composed of two principal elements: input data and instructional questions that invite learners to operate on the input in some way. My design of tasks included three elements: topics, questions and learning objectives, which identified the topic of the tasks, the specific problems to be solved, and the learning objective to be achieved

with the purpose of achieving comprehensible input and efficient output. The tasks were intended to elicit students' linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (Canale, 1983), making it possible for students' translanguaging.

Referred to as feasibility research, the pilot study was conducted not only to check whether the tasks were doable and valuable, but also helped to predict potential challenges that were encountered related to the data and determined future areas of inquiry. I put one drafted task into targeting one class of students in Senior 1 in my school, examining whether this task was designed well enough for students using translanguaging and whether the difficulty level was suitable for students to promote their target language learning. After deliberating on the problems ascertained in the pilot study, the modified skeletons were newly drawn and updated in the light of the whole direction of the entire study with the focus of the problem narrowed.

The design of tasks was connected with the rationale which addressed the "how" of translanguaging as well as its influence on the target language in TBL. Firstly, tasks were designed to ensure a primary focus on meaning but also allowed for incidental attention to form. Long (1985) claims the coexistence of students' processing of meaning and their attention to form, and he also suggests establishing the target tasks that a group of students need to be able to perform for specific purposes. Doughty (2001) argues that speech processing draws students' attention to form in their utterances planning with their intensive focus on specific language errors to facilitate their communication. Secondly, the tasks were ideal for exploring and specifying the content for collaboratively communicative needs as well as suitable for building up the synthesis of information based on the arguments in their reasoning process. Tasks closely reflected what students needed to do with the language in authentic learning situations. Overall, these tasks involved a transfer of given information from one person to another, or from one form to another, or from one place to another, generally calling for the encoding of decoding of

information from or into language (Prabhu, 1987, p. 46). That means TBL was not only based on information gap and but also on reasoning gap that derived some new information from given information through the processes of deduction, inferences, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns (Prabhu, 1987, p. 46).

When it came to students' task application (see seven cases in Appendix 2), after designing the tasks and pilot study, the first step to complete a task was to form a study group composed of four students with different English levels. The second step was to clarify the requirements and objectives of the tasks, which helped students to establish schema construction, be familiarized with the task context, and contact some key expressions and language usages required by the tasks. I attempted to provide context including related content from the textbook or extra-curricular materials. The next step was for students to engage in a dialogue around the questions provided, using knowledge of the vocabulary, structure, and function of the target language to expose students to the language as much as possible. The fourth step, was for students to communicate in dialogues and interactions which were not affected or interrupted by external factors. In the process, students initiated dialogues, organized dialogues, negotiated meaning, cooperated with each other, debated with each other, and finally summarized what they had done. At last, students participated in reflecting on the completion of the task, about such as whether to use the target language to complete the task. The process of students completing tasks was like a boat loaded with "goods" that was the translanguaging I needed.

Table 3.1*Task design in my research*

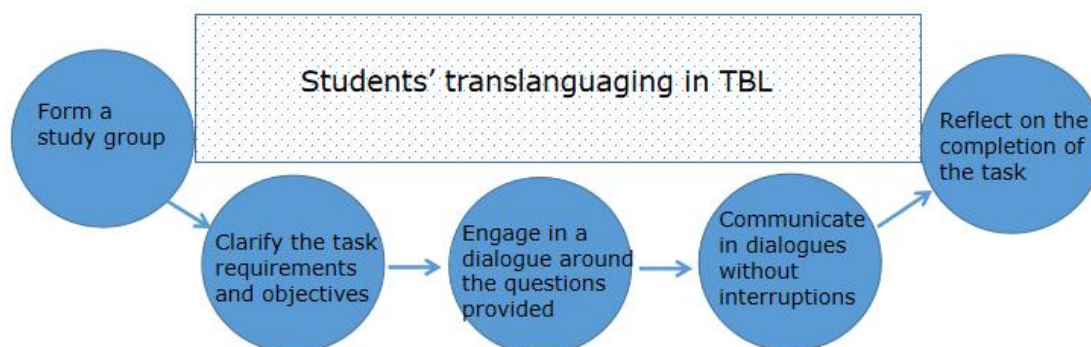
<i>Group</i>	<i>Topics</i>	<i>Questions</i>	<i>Objectives</i>
<i>Pilot</i>	<i>A love story of robot and human</i>	<i>What is Claire (woman)'s original problem? Does Tony (Robot) help Claire solve the problems in the end? How does it happen? Is Claire's satisfaction guaranteed</i>	<i>Let students know technology is innocent</i>
<i>1</i>	<i>Wildlife protection</i>	<i>Why do you think we should do to protect wildlife? What do you think we should do to protect wildlife?</i>	<i>Let the students be aware of the necessity of wildlife protection</i>
<i>2</i>	<i>Old Tom the killer whale</i>	<i>What is the relationship between Old Tom and the whalers? What other animals help humans out in hunting? And how? What is the difference between the killer whales and other animals? What can we learn from these two anecdotes?</i>	<i>Students are encouraged to reflect on the relationship between humans and animals</i>
<i>3</i>	<i>Volunteer experience sharing</i>	<i>Would you like to go to a school like the one described in the letter? Give reasons? What are the differences between the school you go to and the one described in the letter? If you were Jo, how do you think you would have felt? Give reasons. Would you like to work as a volunteer in a poor area? Why?</i>	<i>Students learn to reflect on the meaning of sharing and fulfil personal value</i>
<i>4</i>	<i>Chinese students studying abroad</i>	<i>Would you like to go abroad for study if there is any chance? Give reasons? What problems will you meet while studying abroad? Make list of them. What will you do if you have these problems abroad on exchange programme? What are the differences between studying at home and studying abroad? How do you view the phenomenon of Chinese students going abroad?</i>	<i>Students are encouraged to raise their national consciousness and international awareness to make their choice for further education</i>
<i>5</i>	<i>Chinese and American multiculturalism</i>	<i>Why is California such a multicultural community? Give some reasons. What problems do you think might arise? And what benefits might be brought about? There is a mixture of people from different cultures and ethnic groups in a country, why? Is this a positive or negative development? And give your supporting ideas. Is China a multicultural country? How is it different from American multiculturalism? Give your opinions.</i>	<i>Guide students to think about multi-culture and raise their awareness of multi-culture</i>

Table 3.1 cont'd

6	<i>The future of Cloning technology</i>	<i>What impact will Cloning technology bring on human beings? Can you give some examples? Are you in favour of cloning or against it? give you reasons. If human cloning comes one day, give an example of the ethical issues raised by cloning in the life sciences. What do you think of the future of cloning? Why?</i>	<i>Students are motivated to express their opinions about the possibilities of development of this technology as well as its impact on human beings</i>
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Figure 3.1

The process of students' task application



3.3.3 Data collection: observations, auditory recordings, and field notes

What are the linguistic features of students' use of Chinese and English in interactions? Firstly, I observed in person how students used translanguaging to manage tasks and negotiate meaning in their group interactions. In fact, the observations were conducted under the focused framework during the process of meaning-negotiation, which was intentionally structured to focus on their responses, feedback, questions about students' personal language level, topic familiarity, and interest, as well as their language learning objective (see Appendix 1), looking afresh at any language shift potentials available as well as any features of each context where translanguaging was apparent. The moment I immersed myself in reaching and collecting the observational data, it might have proved strong ecological validity at the cost of adding to its sensitivity to the research (Moyles, 2002). Not only did my observations commit myself to making sense of the contextual nuances that were under description but also bridged the gap between English use and Chinese use while facilitating the comparisons making between both of them.

Secondly, during observations, I logged what they articulated in different language forms and linguistic features to notice what communicative purposes students used in their Chinese and English interactions, which laid an important foundation of analysis of their language choices. What I observed or not was also audio-taped in recordings and, therefore, it possible for me to go back to the observed questions like how students translanguaged through three sorts of code switching proposed by Poplack (1980), such as intra-sentential switching (insertion of words, phrases, or clauses in the middle of a sentence), inter-sentential switching (insertion of a phrase or a clause between sentences), and tag-switching (exclamations, tags, discourse markers, adverbials, terms of address, etc.). Besides, how students adapted themselves using Chinese to English expressions was my observational focus. Students had a tendency to have access to different language forms, such as words, sentence patterns, grammar rules, etc., which were context-oriented and served their learning goals. Due to the dynamic nature of the interactions, I adopted the method of continuous and uninterrupted audio-visual recordings to systematically record what I really hungered for. As variables of linguistic form entered the interactions with consistency, continuous verbal and visual recordings had the ability to document the entire field completely and comprehensively. In practice, however, apprehending and capturing students' voices seemed to be more challenging than expected. A variety of issues such as background noises interfered with the clarity of the recordings. For example, students sitting closest or closer were promptly or conveniently recorded. Records, meanwhile, tended to pick up higher-pitched sounds clearly. The biggest challenge was that the property of the sounds could not be easily told, which meant the owners of the sounds were not clearly identified. When combining two different sets of recordings, it was not feasible to play both recorders at the same time for transcriptions.

Thirdly, field notes assisted me to be involved in what I observed and heard. Russell and Gery (2010) emphasize that field notes are "an essential part of all

qualitative data collection... producing field notes is a process of identifying themes" (Russell & Gery, 2010, p. 46). Field notes available allowed me to deeply re-examine and comprehensively account students' translanguaging behaviors, and even reconstruct their dialogues from which I delineated the relationship between their intentions and words, or even the trajectory of meaning-making. Field notes helped me think about how students used translanguaging to persuade others, ask for clarification, propose, show agreement and disagreement, summarize, and so on. The instant I noticed any nuances and details of students' translanguaging in varying contexts, I seized the opportunity to jot down field notes *in situ*. Throughout the data collection stage, I kept jotting down useful momentary thoughts and feelings and noted down any nonverbal indications, aiming to focus on the contingent factors that arose and influenced my research.

3.3.4 Data identification: transcription and interpretation

In view of these observations and recordings, I took verbatim transcription (see Appendix 3) as an approach to transcribing their interactions in a co-produced text (Riach, 2009). As is highlighted by Rapley (2007), detailed transcripts enable the researcher to become familiar with what they are observing and pay more attention to subtle ways that people interact. While transcribing, I acquainted myself not only with grammatical and lexical features of both languages triggered by interactions, but also with re-thinking of how translanguaging organized their thoughts and for what communicative purposes did students use Chinese and English in interactions?

With regard to interpretation, I struggled to make sense of each meaningful piece of data, interweaving my understanding of the way students translanguaged in target language use in different contexts. The translanguaging process was interpreted from aspects of students' roles, mentality, and communicative ability, as well as group dynamics including

students' rapport, knowledge acquisition methods, dialogue skills, scaffolding and guidance, task itself (task management), and so on. Interpretation was an act of realizing the importance of the creation of any nature and form in translanguaging that was constantly changing. More importantly, how students used translanguaging to transfer information and facilitate smooth communication as well as to strengthen their emotional bonds in interactions were my interpretive stance to recognize language functions in translanguaging, including the social function and the thinking function.

3.3.5 Data check: semi-structured interviews and group interviewing

Apart from knowing linguistic features and language functions in students' translanguaging, I held semi-structured interviews (see Appendix 4) with the students about their language choice in translanguaging during each contextual interaction based on TBL.

To prepare for the interviews, I developed an interview guide and designed the interviews. I grouped interview questions in themes according to the research questions and sequenced them. Thus, I could easily move back and forth between these questions. Then, I thought about what kind of information I wanted to obtain and why I wanted to conduct these interviews. To explore the centrality of students' context-related language interactions, interviewing some of them with the pre-designed questions shown in Table 3.2 could help them gain a deeper understanding of their choice, motivation, and reasons for using languages in translanguaging. It also provided a series of prompts on the design to the point where my research target was situated.

Table 3.2*Interview questions (excerpt)*

Interview Questions (such as from <i>English to Chinese translanguaging</i> part)	Research Question(s)
When do you use Chinese in communicative interaction?	RQ1.1
Under what circumstances will you choose to use Chinese?	RQ1.1
For what communicative purpose do you choose to use Chinese in interactions?	RQ1.2
What are the reasons for your Chinese choice?	RQ1.3
Do these uses of Chinese help your understanding? To what extent?	RQ1

During the interviews, to have access to “rich data”, I adopted some skills or strategies to dig out the data to build the knowledge from students’ voices. Firstly, I drew on “active listening” (Noaks & Wincup, 2004, p. 80) skills to enable students to speak out freely, which ascribed meanings to any overlooked information. Meanwhile, “intensive listening” (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 14) skills drove me to strengthen my curiosity about their proper responses to the focus. Secondly, my dominance over how to continue students’ conversation smoothly was another effort. Occasionally, it was necessary for me to give appropriate verbal and non-verbal feedback and mediation when a student went off topic. Sometimes, my silence maximized their adequate responses and minimized their distraction. Besides, I always remained unobtrusive and modest with any constructive voices so that students were more open and willing to share their new insights. This was due to the collaborative interaction and tacit understanding between me and students in the interviews, which eventually promoted the depth of the research and jointly pushed it ahead with much knowledge generated through the interactive conversations.

Due to the group setting, I adopted the group interview method to collect data for several reasons. Firstly, in the group interview, a group of students were interviewed for a shared objective, and it was possible that their responses could have been unexpectedly various, or that students knew what other

students in the group were saying (Watts & Ebbutt, 1987), so could generate a broader range of valuable responses. Secondly, "a cross-check" effect (Arksey & Knight, 1999, p. 76) could have been yielded in group interviewing with students complementing with others' supplementary ideas, which would give rise to more complete and reliable data. Third, the "group voice" was used to construct the group knowledge generated in the interaction trajectory of students, suppressing unnecessary individual voices. In general, it had the advantage of being practical and organized. However, all students should have had the opportunity to express their ideas freely. I was supposed to be ready to cope with marginalized students or those who monopolized the conversation. Meanwhile, I addressed the divergences or differences in the group.

As a form of group interview, the focus group consisted of carefully selecting four or eight students (Fowler, 2009, p. 117) under a given topic in the group interactions, which was used technically in order to identify how they threw light on my research questions based on their thinking and behaviors. Thus, the voices of knowledge emerged. It was students' rather than my agenda that predominated. The interactions within the group brought about data and outcomes (Smithson, 2000). In the focus group, in order to create a comfortable environment, I was more of being a facilitator than a questioner of the group discussion (Noaks & Wincup, 2004) with facilitation skills equipped with. That is, I played the role of a skilled moderator who promoted students' thinking and reflection, prompted them to speak, and then a record needed to be kept (Newby, 2010). I led the group to my particular topic or theme and supported their discussion unconditionally.

The focus group approach had advantages and disadvantages (Robinson, 1999). It effectively aided me in collecting data on students' talk in the group, while students interacted with each other to check and balance their voices and perspectives. In addition, group dynamics were aligned with the motivation, comments, and mutual support of others in the group, contributing to the synthesis and validation of ideas and concepts and collective perspective

(Stewart & Shamdasani, 2014). However, whether the perspectives expressed by a small number of heterogeneous participants in focus groups can be generalized to a larger population remains uncertain. Data are often difficult to analyze concisely due to flexibility and lack of overall reliability. Obtaining subjective information turns out to be difficult with conflicts or disagreement repressing different ideas to some degree. Further, in the presence of group dynamics such as dominance by other students or relationship between students (Smithson, 2000), some students in the group may choose not to participate. Therefore, as a researcher, I needed experienced skills of facilitation and management to realize the group's potential or energize their interactions.

After the interviews, as words or voices are often heard incorrectly (Gibbs, 2007, p. 19), I collected data from the students' interviews to check whether they were consistent with what they really said. If there was something ambiguous, I turned to the students for clarification. Besides, I narrated the process of the interviews and students' participation. Then, I conducted verbatim transcription, a process of word-for-word reproduction of verbal data in the interviews. I need to scrutinize every verbatim data or verbatim response (Ball, 1990). At last, to ensure accuracy, an interview transcript was submitted to each student for their second checking.

In brief, I needed to take into serious consideration whether students were telling the truth and whether their voices in the interviews were valuable or not (Becker & Geer, 1970). Besides, it was my job to learn how the subjects thought and objectified their subjective states (Biklen & Bogdan, 1998) in order to make my research more valid and reliable.

The practice of reflexivity (Gee, 1999) was another essential way to advance my practitioner research. I always combined my thoughts with practice since the concept of reflection was linked to objectivity in research (Etherington, 2006). That is, I placed myself and the research practice under constant scrutiny by making my reflections more objective and rational. This process was

more like a bridge on which my new understanding always traveled into the research itself, which helped build the research truth. Questions about students' translanguaging practice and theories often sprung into my mind, such as their intentions for shuttling languages, ways they used both English and Chinese to make meaning or generate knowledge as well as ways I theorized their voices. I then kept a reflective memo in my field notes whose contents included my personal belief, contextual limitations of TBL, and so on to incorporate into my research analysis which was readily available.

3.3.6 Codes generation and thematic construction

Before coding, I needed to ensure the originality and accuracy of the raw data, as words or voices were often heard incorrectly (Gibbs, 2007, p. 19). So, I needed to scrutinize very verbatim data or verbatim response (Ball, 1990) in transcripts to check against original records to ensure accuracy. It was also a process of re-understanding because it was of great value to me to read the voices or words not only literally, but also "interpretively and reflexively" (Mason, 2002).

According to Creswell, coding is defined as a process where researchers analyze qualitative data "by taking them apart to see what they yield before putting the data back together in a meaningful way" (Creswell, 2015, p. 156). It is also as a decision-making process to bring the data closer or more systematic to the maximum value of research utilization. As part of "the most basic segment, or element, of the raw data or information that can be assessed in a meaningful way regarding the phenomenon" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 63), codes are words or phrases that symbolically empower the language-based data with summative attribute. In order to bridge the link between data collection and its meaning interpretation critically, coding serves as a process to break down segments of text data into smaller units, and then examine, compare, conceptualize, and categorize the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Why I chose this method was that coding is an essential way of indexing or mapping dense data to “make sense of them” (Creswell, 2015, p. 152) in relation to my research questions. Coding helped me manage my data and ultimately rendered them into the professional and academic value.

Firstly, my approach to coding began with familiarity of the data and connections between the data. As qualitative data analysis is an iterative, back-and-forth process (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 251), it was also a process to familiarize myself with data, identifying how the data were related, and explore why the data were meaningful. I marked groups of data with key terms like linguistic features, language functions, language choices, and language influence. If necessary, I used a secondary or more labels to create more sub-categories.

Secondly, the meaning units with similar meaning were labeled with codes. By analyzing how translanguaging in interactions affected meaning and language use (Wetherell et al., 2001), codes arose from students’ interactive discourse analysis (Potter, 2004) or conversational analysis (Clifton, 2006) under different themes. Some particular information in the margin on the paper were marked by a highlighter pen, including students’ intentions in their voices, any forms of the target language acquired, their relationships or interaction, the entire or specific context of the translanguaging setting, my reflexive thoughts, and so on. These aspects of students’ involvement and my understanding of their performance helped to identify specific features of the data set, which formed the basis of themes within the data set.

Thirdly, evaluating how these meaning units were related contributed to the identification of the themes. I combed through the patterns among these emerging themes, which pointed to the research questions. Translating and summarizing main characteristics of the data through my interactions with the data, I drew on the thematic coding approach to analyze the data. I sought patterns as stable indicators of students’ way of translanguaging and organized the generated data into meaningful groups, which formed interaction profiles in

a systematic order in group contexts. Then, I used my classification reasoning to construct categories for analysis based on the key features of the data, showing connections between the units of analysis.

Table 3.3

Thematic coding

Themes	Categories	Sub-categories
Linguistic Features	Code Switching	Intra-Sentential Switching Inter-Sentential Switching Tag Switching
	Borrowing	-
Linguistic Functions	Meaning Negotiation	-
	Information Reconciliation	O-events AB-events A/B-events
	Coherence and Textuality	-
	Supplement and Social Function	-
Linguistic Choices	Ease of Communication	Unknown Words Organize language Express meaning Simplicity Other Participants
	Contextual Resources	English Text Discussion Format Personal Choice

Fourthly, the theme network was constantly adjusted through comparisons. In the coding process, I had some difficulty in describing, comparing, and interpreting once I failed to identify the themes of the data. With effort, I categorized the different codes into potential themes after analyzing similarities and differences by systematic comparisons among the different sets of data coded. According to the theoretical basis or content, the main theme and sub-themes of a particular data group were represented. Through comparisons, I changed the theme of the network based on the data that supported the theme.

I made comparisons between data freshly acquired after the research and original data from the baseline observations, descriptions, and so on, and also between emerging themes and devised ones, aiming to produce a perfect fit between the categories and data.

Finally, integration was achieved. Facing inconsistencies among the data, I accommodated data dwelling at different sources to achieve consistent access and their unified view. Across these multiple data sources, data integration offered the capability to handle data transparently (Cruz & Xiao, 2005). Faced with the large amount of data acquired during the research, I built a logical framework for data integration, which was concerned with linking data to my knowledge building directions and values. Data of all sources should be optimized to structured data in a logic and systematic way with integration, which was incumbent on me. For instance, organizing data into each theme's networks with sub-themes, I was keen on pursuing the bond between the raw data while setting up structured and tested integrative processes.

My theoretical sensitivity came from things I was looking for and problems I wanted to solve. Themes identification originated not only from my theoretical orientation and values, or rather my prior theoretical understanding of translanguaging, but also from all the relevant coded data extracts, the literature review, as well as my personal experiences (Maxwell, 2013) combined with factual data generated from the field.

3.4 Analysis approaches and analytical framework

If collecting data is like "excavation", "generating data" is "construction" (Mason, 2002, p. 68). This construction started from making judgments about coding, theming, decontextualizing, and recontextualizing the data (Starks & Trinidad, 2007), during this process, I worked as the instrument for analysis. Analytic generalizations were "applied to wider theory on the basis of how selected cases 'fit' with general constructs" (Curtis et al., 2000, p. 1002).

3.4.1 Discourse analysis: any target language use potentials

Discourse analysis involved investigating how languages were in use and affected each other. According to Paltridge (2022), discourse analysis examines patterns of language across texts and how the use of language is affected by contexts. My focus was on how interactions affected students' target language use in translinguaging, so I analyzed the words in communication where students conveyed themselves in both languages and how contexts made a difference to language use (Wetherell et al., 2001) under the condition of spontaneous translinguaging. In addition, I also focused on analyzing the interaction of language use in language selection, language function, and the characteristics of language forms in different contexts. Here, in these contexts, I selected students' interactions based on group tasks as discourse, and attempted to carry out a rigorous investigation of their meaning construction and any contextual factors that influenced students' language use in translinguaging. Specifically, this study employed tasks to aim at investigating (1) what Chinese did students use? what English did students use? (linguistic features); (2) how did students use Chinese? how did students use English? (language functions); and (3) why did they use Chinese in these ways? why did they use English in these ways (language choices).

My interest was in any target language use potentials through the use of discourse, underling students' endeavor to pave the way for their linguistic advancement. For example, in talking about the topic of Chinese students studying abroad, my analysis began to land on what happened to the target language use when students drew on the knowledge they had about the topic to think about the prospective experience or problems they faced. In order to reveal how the text about this topic or the task became meaningful to students' English learning, I also made a chronological comparison analysis of initial effects at the preview stage and improved effects on their target language use after communication through translinguaging, which was not limited to the

linguistic elements that were a must for interactions. Task as a single thread bonded these comparison analyses all together.

3.4.2 Thematic analysis

As a fundamental approach to qualitative analysis, thematic analysis was used for identifying, analyzing, organizing, describing, and reporting themes found within a data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Firstly, I familiarized myself with data by “careful reading and re-reading of the data” (Rice & Ezzy, 1999, p. 258), to identify themes through transcription of verbal data into written texts. For example, I tried to use other synonyms as temporary themes when the language function supplement was not determined. As the analysis progressed, the most appropriate topic name would come to my mind.

Secondly, I generated initial codes by focusing on the critical link between the raw data and their explanation of meaning. I treated the coding process as “part of analysis” (Miles & Huberman, 1994). When I organized my data into meaningful groups (Tuckett, 2005) with my tacit and intuitive senses, I needed to deal with inconsistencies within and across data items. For example, some examples could explain both language features and language functions, or the same example could not be clearly defined with which language function it belonged to. In this case, I would take them to the temporary materials pool, waiting for the final determination.

Thirdly, I used mind-maps to sort different codes into themes, prioritizing overarching themes, situating some sub-themes within them, and even eliminating some irrelevant ones. Mind-maps were a powerful approach for me to brainstorm new ideas and fit them together. All the messy data were strung together like a bunch of grapes, which helped me remember them better and made it quicker for me to review.

Fourthly, I reviewed these themes and refined them by not only separating them with clear distinction but also forming coherent patterns within them around the central idea according to dual criteria (internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity) (Patton, 2015). For example, regarding the theme of linguistic features, themes like intra-sentential switching and inter-sentential switching were easy to determine, but tag-switching was more special. Finally, the determination of themes was also improved based on my literature reading.

Later, I defined and named themes, identifying what was focused about them and why. Names were determined for systematic categorization and the nature of the data, but the importance ranking of these themes was also determined according to the internal logic and importance of the research questions, which affected the direction of the research. Obviously, language function and language selection were the focus of this study.

At last, I produced a report to deliver the merit and validity of my analysis within and across themes, going beyond description of the data. Thematic constructions allowed me to make sense of shared meanings or latent meanings that laid behind the research questions.

The purpose of using thematic analysis laid in its flexibility in modifying the needs of my study, providing a rich and detailed, yet complex account of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006; King, 2004) by summarizing key features of a set of data. This useful method forced me to take a well-structured approach to handling the data, helping to produce a clear and organized final report (King, 2004). However, I also had to be aware of its drawbacks, which were that this flexibility could have led to inconsistencies and lack of consistency when developing themes from the research data (Holloway & Todres, 2003). In their opinion, this problem can be changed by applying and figuring out an epistemological position that can coherently support empirical claims of research (Holloway & Todres, 2003).

3.4.3 Inductive and deductive analysis

Inductive and deductive analysis (Purcell-Gates, 2004) were adopted in my data analysis. Specifically, drawing on the nuances of observations, transcriptions, or participants detailed descriptions in the interviews, I inductively derived concepts, themes, or a model through interpretations made from the raw data. Just as Strauss and Corbin (1998, p. 12) describe, "the researcher begins with an area of study and allows the theory to emerge from the data". However, qualitative content analysis does not need to exclude deductive reasoning (Patton, 2015) because I used this analysis approach to test whether the data were consistent with prior assumptions, theories, or hypotheses identified or constructed by myself.

3.4.4 Analytical framework

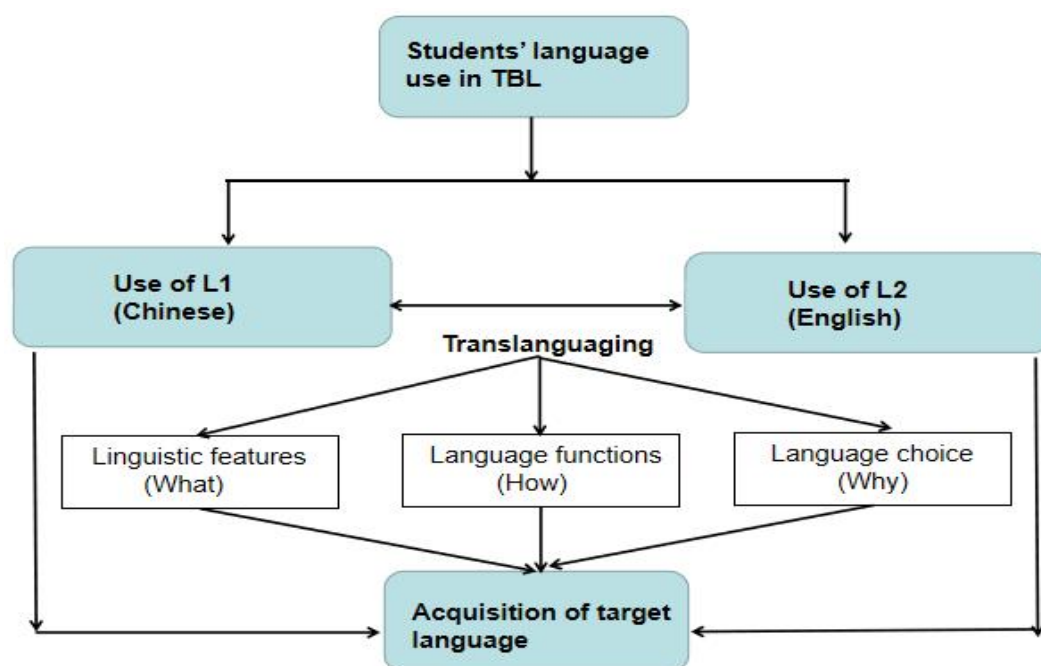
Analysis began from student's authentic language use in English classrooms in one way and two ways of TBL based on seven topics. I analyzed three dimensions or themes (see Figure 3.2) that claimed how translanguaging was focused and modified in an implicit and explicit manner. The first was a general profile of how students reacted to the contextualized task through translanguaging and saw what linguistic features were in the interweaving use of both languages. The second was a shift from my endeavor to expose their linguistic repertoire to access to how they used translanguaging to achieve the outcome in the tasks. Finally, their language choices were voiced in interviews with their intentions and attitudes towards cross-linguistic immersion articulated, and I brought the necessity to connect these linguistic diversities to complementary language use.

The theme was about what, how, and why translanguaging was performed by students in TBL. How my analysis corresponded to my research goal had been a mix of perceived process of reading the raw data, coding and categorizing the discourse analysis. Initially, based on the literal data as well as

“interpretive and reflexive” data (Mason, 2002), contextual lenses of students grammatical and lexical features in translanguageing were taken into account, which supported my interpretation of cross-linguistic comparisons and helped examine natural samples of translanguageing in interactions with insight.

Figure 3.2

Analytical framework



The first group of data consisted of specific linguistic features while translanguageing. Next, coding helped me retrieve what students said about the identified themes and quickly located excerpts from all interactions and interviews that referred to the same theme, then compared and examined them together. The second group of data originated not only from how they translanguageed objectively but also subjectively for actual communicative or linguistic uses. Then, I attempted to develop arguments by categories and presented the data in an organized way. Finally, how and why students' linguistic behaviors were performed was in line with real choices in discourse. The third group of data were analyzed in the request of authenticity of their

translanguaging in a subjective way with acquisition of the target language qualitatively described and analyzed.

3.5 Ethical issues

As Koch and Harrington (1998) argue, qualitative research is often criticized by many researchers because it is subjective, anecdotal, and subject to researcher bias. Therefore, research' negative effects on students should be avoided at all costs, and my great efforts needed to be put into preventing my research from blindly complying to norms or a set of principles (Israel & Hay, 2006). For this research, I needed to cast my eyes on the following ethical issues such as my researcher role as a "shadow teacher", coercion avoidance, sensitivity emphasis, and intervention.

3.5.1 Researcher role as a "shadow teacher"

One of the biggest problems that might have happened was that students might have encountered teacher intervention in translanguaging, or the research might not have ensured students' adequate language production in the context of natural communication.

As an ethical response, I chose the role of "shadow teacher" to pursue authenticity, objectivity, and integrity of the research. On one hand, the word "shadow" neither implied that I was sitting there or standing behind, indicating that I was intentionally or hesitantly hiding, nor did it imply that I had negative attitudes and actions towards their translanguaging. Instead, it meant a free and authentic environment without my interference or interruptions should be set up where I was more open to negotiate with students on unfamiliar or uncertain issues arising in the research and I was more willing to accept the misconducts or mistakes of students in their translanguaging performances. On the other hand, my subjective ethical beliefs and values were more likely to cast shadow on students' interactions, so I tried to keep relatively independent and

avoid personal biases of ideology affecting the process. That is, I was independent of students' learning, allowing them to complete tasks autonomously, and give up my role of organizing and managing students' learning and providing verbal cues or any scaffold. Besides, my practitioner research followed the interactions' nature (Punch, 1994). Generally, despite my presence, this role exposed myself to maximizing students' effective participation and minimizing intervention.

3.5.2 Coercion avoidance

In the process of research, I also encountered various special situations, such as students unwillingness to participate in my research, or students wanting to quit midway, or distortion of data authenticity after the research, etc.

Prior to the research, as a cornerstone of ethical conduct (Howe & Moses, 1999), I clearly stated my research procedures, intentions, and challenge risks in the informed consent form, and applied to the school principal and the ethics committee for formal approval as my priority. Besides, all research information exposed to the practice was informed to students and their parents to ensure their understanding and support of the research as well as their voluntary participation.

In research, students were free to give up and cancel their participation at any stage to avoid their antipathy to participation at the mercy of coercion. In the interactive setting, obviously at odds with the principle of informed consent or involving deliberately misleading people (Lugosi, 2006), covert observation without considering students' situation and their willingness needed to be relentlessly avoided by myself. If I used an audio recorder to collect their voices, it had to be done with the student's permission. If not, it would be unethical to record their interactions, especially private ones. During the data collection phase, students could request the destruction of all or part of the data they contributed and were free to modify or change their consent. More

importantly, in the process of the interviews, I prepared verbatim transcripts for students to correct, change, or check if they believed I had insulted, unfairly treated, or misrepresented them. Meanwhile, how the data would be used was explained by me for clarification.

After the research, students still had the right to have data analysis revisited if they felt their voices were misrepresented, misinterpreted, or placed under a negative light. Should this have happened, I would have made efforts to avoid discrepancy or deception in my report by sincerely receiving students' requests to ensure facts and transparency.

In short, it would have been hazardous to impose my own decisions or ideas on students. Students' confidence could have been raised in making a notable verbal or intellectual contribution to my research with appropriate representations of the students' position or relation to my research.

3.5.3 Sensitivity emphasis

Sometimes, some students had negative psychological changes due to their own performance during the research process, such as stress, confusion, or inability to adapt or contribute to the research. Thus, I was also concerned about ethical sensitivity.

Ethical sensitivity refers to the ability to interpret the reactions and feelings of others, and to recognize that one's own actions or inaction affect others (Scott, 2006). Firstly, students' sensitivity to their role in translanguaging in the presence of their teacher was not ignored unwittingly. I paid less attention to their stress caused by obstacles in meaning comprehension or communicative advancement. Instead, more attention was directed to their stress to enable their engagement and facilitate them to be free talkers.

Secondly, students' sensitivity to the emotional effect on their performances in translanguaging were focused upon. For example, students were more uncertain about the direction where the practice led, or even felt

being especially treated. Therefore, in order to avoid being puzzled, or being marginalized of others in the groups, eliminating uncertainty or avoiding bias were good responses to these sensitivities.

Thirdly, students' sensitivity to changes in practitioner research varied greatly in terms of their tolerance and acceptance. Those who were stagnated and refused to change needed more understanding or help to avoid inappropriate actions. I offered them alternative options, procedures, or solutions, and they needed to be aware of their beliefs and values about what they really wanted.

3.5.4 Intervention

Several extreme cases also occurred, such as the serious impact on students' study or physical and mental state due to their participation in the research. In this case, I took appropriate intervention to avoid them.

As a practice-researcher, I intervened to ensure students' good professional and academic conduct if they showed problems in research practice or academic tests. The intervention had the effect of improving students' translanguaging conditions. For example, dealing with stasis or inaction in interactions was done by means of my intervention rather than tolerating their passive participation, which was beneficial to students. But intervention did not mean conducting the research at the expense of making students uncomfortable with what I was doing. Another example was to deal smoothly with the ethics of intervention in conflict situations where students suffered psychological abuse during translanguaging by stopping the practice to reduce harm to them. I had a responsibility to clearly state the costs and benefits of the intervention during the research. I did not usually take an intervention approach when it was unnecessary.

3.6 Research strengths & limitations

It is worth mentioning that this qualitative research involved a mutual interaction between what I knew and what I needed to know by collecting and analyzing data concurrently, which ensured the essence of attaining reliability and validity. Also, my research questions and the components of the method were closely connected to ensure their inner consistency. However, my research was also limited by the challenge I had constantly faced, that was maintaining a sustainable degree of objectivity. What students contributed in their voices were all loaded with their subjective interests and intentions. I have to admit that my research failed to achieve more extensive inferences and generalizations that would satisfy the conditions of further validity.

3.6.1 Research strengths

The research helped me define what needed to be studied both in students' English learning and teachers' pedagogical practice, although there is no theory on the topic and variables are unknown (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). Actually, contrary to quantitative research, my research cannot be reproduced (Bryman, 2008, p. 391) since this qualitative research bridged students' translanguaging being dynamic in their values and beliefs with the research being conducted (Bryman, 2008, p. 394; Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 33).

From a theoretical aspect, although translanguaging had its particular purpose, it indeed, engaged students in identifying cross-language connections, which went beyond target language use and task completion. Blindly pursuing the use of a single language while inhibiting students' unconscious use of their mother tongue hindered the achievement of meaning understanding. However, TBL provided students with translanguaging opportunities to stimulate their feedback, comprehensive input, and modified output in the group learning to promote understanding. Translanguaging, when undertaken in these chosen contexts, helped enlighten diverse students'

knowledge reformulation and flexible language use with students' differentiated levels. In addition, students used both languages dynamically and functionally to organize and regulate their mental understanding processes.

In practice, the direct reconstruction of knowledge by students during interactions also provided collateral attention to language forms (Long, 2015) and intentions to use both languages. More importantly, the way students translanguaged offered pedagogically-feasible insights into how they constructed a certain kind of "discourse" as they performed a meaningful and contextualized task, which allowed some of them to master productive and receptive learning skills in translanguaging. The results showed that the correlation and degree of interaction between tasks, contexts, and interactions affected the degree to which students prioritized initiative in translanguaging. In addition, each task was unique in that it used translanguaging to support fluency in the target language and response to intentions of language use.

3.6.2 Research limitations

China's ELT seemed to advocate only using the target language in classes in the pursuit of target language proficiency, which was a barrier to the potential communicative meaning flow at the cost of other language advancement in use because students' instinct to use their mother tongue cannot be changed. As for my research, mentally consciously or deliberately resisting the use of the mother tongue did not make students release more complete language power to achieve the goal of learning tasks. Besides, it was recognized that English and Chinese were integrated naturally in students' minds fused in language interactions. Translanguaging, indeed, opened up students' complex relationships with their language use and also problematized the fragmentation of the two language forms despite the close connections of the two linguistic resources. In terms of making language choices in translanguaging, not much had been done in the presence of task-context in group learning.

Given the potential of translanguaging as an alternate mediation of social interactions, it was extended to increase opportunities for multilingual production at the cost of balancing between the two languages. However, Li (2018, p. 24) states that translanguaging “challenges the conventional understanding of language boundaries between... culturally and politically labelled languages”, translanguaging to learn as well as learning to translanguage are both effective strategies expected to promote target language use.

However, the study was limited by its failure to generalize the claims in a broader context. It was generally believed that due to the lack of argument rooted in Chinese harmonious ideas and culture, students tended to build consensus with others in the group, so the task topic’s argumentative nature determined the maximization of effectiveness as well as comparability in each context, thus, students’ devotion to challenging argumentative tasks became an inevitable necessity in interactions. In addition, this study has suggested that future investigations should pay more attention to L1’s interference as well as contextual restrictions of language use in tasks, since neither enabled students to play an interactive role in promoting target language use through translanguaging. Instead, I focused more on students’ acceptance and willingness, rather than our own way to point out their problems in using translanguaging to learn the target language, which is quite fatal.

Secondly, a limited number of tasks as well as a narrow range of tasks design did not pinpoint the usefulness of translanguaging clearly in service of target language use with the focus on how students finished the tasks rather than how they used both languages’ resources to achieve their purposes. Therefore, TBL worked as a springboard to simultaneously use both languages in the classroom, therefore, if the relationship between the two languages was not handled well, it would fail to lead to broader and deeper knowledge of language. Besides, it was better if the findings could be reflective of a wider population (Shank & Brown, 2007, p. 27).

At last, this small scale research was conducted with limited time, causing less extension to engagement in discourse, that had the potential to promote students' further cross-linguistic flexibility and their metalinguistic awareness. The value of translanguaging in group learning had been portrayed, but value outside group learning and outside the classroom had not been established. Therefore, replicability is another problem associated with my research promotion and application. In other words, another researcher in another place cannot replicate this study exactly and reach the same results (May & Williams, 1998).

In summary, explanations on the basis of my interpretations (De Vaus, 2014; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014) were more or less subjective, which failed to present consistent and reliable data when compared to using quantifiable figures (Atkins & Wallac, 2012).

In this chapter, I have attempted to explain the way I assembled and sequenced my research tools, as well as how the data were produced and analyzed. In order to live up to the research's potential, this chapter has presented my efforts to dig out rich data in a meticulously planned way, which was key to making practical contributions to the findings. Meanwhile, I have tried to provide rationales for my methodological decision when faced with specific methodological challenges.

In the following chapter, I will present my findings from verbal transcriptions and interviews. In response to the research questions, language features, language functions, and students' language choices in translanguaging are crafted to provide a picturesque translanguaging trajectory in TBL.

Chapter 4 Linguistic features of Translanguaging

4.1 Introduction

The chapter is divided into four sections, of which Sections 4.2 and 4.3 summarize the linguistic features of translanguaging. Section 4.4 gives a summary to this chapter. The linguistic features included in examples in the transcripts are **code-switching** and **borrowing**. Code-switching refers to the alternate use of more than one language or its variants by a person in a single conversation. Borrowing is the process by which a word in one language is adapted for use in another language. Code-switching can exist in the form of segments and sentences, and borrowing is often a separate word. Borrowing happens when there was no other alternative expressions in one language.

In this chapter, I use examples from the transcripts to reply to the question of what the characteristics of students' use of Chinese and English language (grammar and vocabulary) in their interactions are. When the four students conducted their conversations, they essentially transformed English into Chinese. I discovered that the majority of respondents utilized incomplete sentence structures, missing subjects, definite articles, and other grammatical errors in their discussions, but this had no bearing on the respondents' opinions.

Through the analytical lens of my research focus, seven transcripts are provided as I transcribed what students unfolded in the classroom bilingual exchange scene (see seven cases in Appendix 2). Every snippet of student communication was transcribed in order to fully capture or represent what was recorded, even if there were a lot of linguistic errors, or semantic failures. In the following analysis process including Chapter 5 and Chapter 6, I have typically extracted dialogue fragments according to theme classification in an original written form. The Chinese parts spoken by students have been accordingly translated into English in brackets.

4.2 Code-switching

Code-switching, is an important process where speakers in communication switch back and forth between languages or varieties of the same language, sometimes within the same utterance (Mesthrie et al., 2000). As mentioned in Section 3.3.3 in Chapter 3, Poplack (1980) summed up the three categories of code-switching, namely, inter-sentence switching, intra-sentence switching, and tag switching. According to Cook (2001), bilinguals typically account for 84% of in-sentence conversions, 10% of in-sentence conversions, and 6% of add-on conversions. Therefore, the frequency of intra-sentence conversion is very high, followed by inter-sentence conversion. The structure of code-switching in English-Chinese sentences is realized by the insertion process, i.e., code-switching and embedded code-switching (single word or segment) from the data are inserted into the sentence to form a double utterance.

It has also been found that linguistic elements from English and Chinese were used within one discourse. These three kinds of code-switching, indeed, existed because students had difficulty in differentiating between two languages or were linguistically incompetent by using the target language. Indeed, students' linguistic failures like lexical, grammatical, and pragmatic obstacles prevented them expressing meanings appropriately. Such sophisticated knowledge of the grammars between English and Chinese added to the complexity of students' code-switching.

4.2.1 Intra-sentential switching

Intra-sentential switching is a process where speakers in communication switch from one language variety to another at the word, phrase, or clause level within a single utterance. Sometimes, it is hard to find equivalent linguistic elements within a sentence. Speakers may switch languages at the particular part of a sentence. In my research, transcripts were of my observations of classroom tasks students were asked to work on.

Switching at different locations

First of all, this part focuses on the position of switching in sentences in both languages. In Chinese-English translanguaging communication, the adverbs in which the code-change took place were usually located at the beginning of a sentence. In Chinese, the adverbs were usually located behind the subject, except for the adverbial in mood and some adverbs in time.

For example, in Transcript 7:

S1: In short, cloning technology 给我们带来了许多的便利 [**has brought us a lot of convenience**], such as 抗旱... 抗旱的农作物 [**drought resistance... drought-resistant crops**].

Here, *such as* was located at the beginning of the sentence as a cognate. It appeared that S1 had undergone several rounds of code-switching because with the previous sentence *brings us a lot of convenience* as the predicate and object directly transferred to *such as* later, which is an intra-sentential transition. The first phrase *such as* was transferred to *drought-resistant crops*.

Switching in dominant syntactic framework

Secondly, I also observed some changes in language transformation within the framework of body language sentences. English descriptors acted as the center of sentences, dominating the subject relations of Chinese nouns and pronouns. It showed that language contact changed the syntactic function of lexical groups and made English adjectives more dominant than monolingual ones. This held true in Chinese as well.

For example, in Transcript 4:

S2: Em...I think I may be not too. Em...It is too far for me get to a such remote school, and if it rains on the way, could be danger, dangerous. I think, second, I think the classroom was so...so...很陈旧 [**old**]. Em...The the roof is made of grass. I think it is dangerous.

The sentence consisted of English with the character “很陈旧” added as an object at the end of the sentence to modify the classroom. “很陈旧” occupied a sentence component in the sentence, changing the syntax of English, allowing

the Chinese adjective to dominate the sentence, modifying it, and expressing the meaning. The dominant subject language provided a syntactic framework for the transformation of the two languages. The order of systematic morphemes and the rules for their use are called frameworks. In the main language of Chinese, “of” is an extremely common and important auxiliary word, which belongs to the Chinese system morpheme. When the speaker produced utterance behavior in the grammatical framework provided by the main language Chinese, they unconsciously used the systematic words in that framework.

For example, in Transcript 6:

S2: In my opinion, they will have many arguments in daily lives, such in a supermarket or in a restaurant. And I think it will benefits to make California’s culture more fantastic and 丰富的 **[rich]**.

The sentences in S2’s text were mostly in English, and the word “丰富的” was added at the end of the sentence to modify and describe the word with “culture”. The word “丰富的” did not change the English syntax or sentence but allowed the Chinese adjective to dominate the sentence and modify it. S3, on the other hand, introduced “丰富的” into the sentence, and the presence of “丰富的” added interest to the sentence and also enhanced the vividness of the text.

A flexion change or no flexion change

Thirdly, I have found the differences between Chinese and English in language conversion in sentences. Chinese is an independent language, so there is no real morphological flexion in Chinese words or segments, while English is a flexural language, indicating grammatical change in *tense, person, singular and plural, part of speech, etc.*, and the grammatical meaning of English words or segments is always presented through the form of a flexion. A flexion change is the addition of a flexion element to a single word to indicate a grammatical change. For example, when the subject is in the third person singular, *read* is turned into *reads* to indicate a grammatical change. In the cases of this study, it was found that the noun vocabulary retained the flexion

form of the embedded language when it conformed to the syntactic framework of Chinese; while none of the noun segments in the embedded language lost the original flexion form of the embedded language, and it could be said that they completely followed the syntactic form of the subject language.

For example, in Transcript 3:

S3: In my views, from the first one, we learn that we need to 形成一种 **[develop a]** teamwork with the animals. From the second one, we learn that animals are always the friends for the people, we need to protect them.

Teamwork was an uncountable noun, but the speaker used “一种” to describe *teamwork* under the influence of the independence of the main language. Since the noun phrase was a language island composed entirely of embedded morphemes and constructed according to embedded grammars, it still had an embedded grammatical structure. When the speaker encountered the collision of two speech code frames in the process of in-sentence code transformation, the convenience and economy of the language tended to shed the embedded grammatical features of the embedded language island so as to better adapt to the grammatical framework in the whole language pool. Nouns still had “-” markers and noun phrases lost “-” markers because embedded island grammars were more complex than embedded words and social norms were generally more tolerant of more complex grammatical frameworks.

The highest frequency of lexical transformation of nomenclature includes not only common nomenclature, but also specialized nomenclature such as minorities, and translation of scientific and technical terms. There are two main types of noun conversion: linking and summarizing, where linking refers to connecting sentences and summarizing summarizes the previously mentioned text. Both types of noun conversion are centered on nouns. There are also special circumstances. The purpose of noun conversion was to make the language more concise and clear and have a specific meaning. A noun metonymy usually occurred inside or outside a sentence, and its meaning was

often related to the original concept, sometimes at the beginning or the end of a sentence. Most of these nouns were converted by participants to perform certain functions, such as instruction, lexical interpretation, or terminology translation. Indication of the ability to communicate is often referred to in cross flow as code-switching to exclude some listeners and to indicate others. When switching from English to their mother tongue, participants could not use code-switching to specifically refer to one student to the exclusion of others. In English classes, participants sometimes switched codes in order to draw out unfamiliar nouns that were often embedded in English. One of the most distinctive features of Chinese nouns is that the nouns themselves do not have the concept of number. Since Chinese nouns do not have a compulsory singular-plural marker, they are morphologically invariant. Therefore, the morphology of the noun remains the same whether it is singular or plural, in a sense just like the English uncountable nouns *paper*, *water*, and *weather*. The nouns in English may remain unchanged in the language matrix framed by the Chinese language.

For example, in Transcript 6:

S3: In my opinion...In my opinion, because there have many people who have difficult (different) opinion there, so they may have some 冲突 **[conflicts]**. But it is good for there to learn more about the world. This all.

S4: I don't think China is a multicultural country. Because our culture all called Chinese culture. Although we have many different ...形式**[form]**, but we have many same ideas in our culture. We are very 团结 **[united]**. That's different from American. American have many different people, such as black people and white people. That's all.

S3 converted *conflicts* into “冲突”, embedded as objects at the end of a sentence. S3 used the character “冲突” to express itself in its entirety. S4 replaced “形式” with *form* to explain that “although we have different forms, there are many similarities in our cultures”. When considering the

code-switching of nouns, users usually ignored the dual plural.

Chinese insertion to express content

Finally, I have also found that the insertion of Chinese language elements in sentences is more for the purpose of expressing content. The type of code-switching previously mentioned refers to phrases that are embedded in another language. In this case, there were more phrases inserted into another language. Most of these phrase conversions were used to explain the content of the text. The most common phrase conversions were verb phrases, prepositional phrases, and noun phrases.

For example, in Transcript 7:

S1: In short, cloning technology 给我们带来了许多的便利 [**has brought us a lot of convenience**], such as 抗旱...抗旱的农作物 [**drought resistance... drought-resistant crops**], Dolly sheep. Some of us agree it because of its updated technology. Hmm, some of us...Another think, against it because it may cause moral problems, physical problems and mental problems. If human cloning comes one day, it also causes many ethical issues, such as break up people's relationship and...lose basic belongings. But most of us think the future, the cloning's future is good. Because it brings more beneficial than harmful to humans. That's my all.

When S1 was speaking, he used the phrase "brought us a lot of convenience" to describe cloning technology, and the Chinese insertion was used as a verb phrase instead of a predicate phrase.

For example, in Transcript 1:

S3: Character 是什么 [**what does this word refer to**]?

S1: 性格 [**character**]。

In order to ensure the accuracy of the definition, S3 first replaced the English content mandatory word "character" with the Chinese word "性格" to achieve the purpose of disciplinary vocabulary infiltration and interpretation, avoiding students' bias in understanding disciplinary vocabulary, fully taking

into account the level of students' cognitive academic English language ability, and reflecting the essence of superlative communication. S3 was unable to organize the English sentence structure at first, so the subject was expressed in English when the question was asked, and S1 did not have a complete sentence answering S3's question with Chinese words in a concise manner. The purpose of S3's inversion was to get an explanation of "character" and help from others. It needed to be interpreted in her native tongue, based on her own lack of understanding of what character means. Pushed by the purpose of explaining or expounding classroom knowledge, the students' inner-sentence code-switching showed the direction from English to Chinese. Speech intention is the psychological tendency to work on speech in order to accomplish a certain objective. It reflects the speaker's knowledge, understanding, and attitude about a particular situation and the people they are communicating with, as well as their ability to speak the language they are using.

4.2.2 Inter-sentential switching

Inter-sentential switching is characterized by a switch from one language variety to another outside the sentence or the clause level. In code-switching between sentences, the language shift happens at the sentence boundary. This is most common among fluent bilinguals. It has been found that inter-sentence code-switching was the most common phenomenon when I took the time to read the data thoroughly. In this study, I found the following inter-sentence transitions in narrative texts and conversations between characters.

In Transcript 5:

S3: In my opinion, may be a new environment can make some beneficial for you. On the one hand, you can learn a new language and improve you communicate skills. On the other hand, you can express yourself, such as making foreign friends and communicate with foreign

students, 你可以在跟他们的交流中学到一些外国的文化 **[You can learn some foreign cultures by communicating with them].**

In S3's utterances, I assumed that he tried to use a complete English sentence in his first statement and then continued the next sentence in Chinese to reinforce his intention in his first statement. In this case, S3 referred to people who, for different reasons, explained the benefits of the environment, one of which, was to improve communication skills. This is consistent with Hamminck's (2000) suggestion that speakers switch codes to reiterate or emphasize a point. By repeating the same point in another language, the speaker was emphasizing the subject under discussion or making it more relevant. S3 reiterated the idea that the environment can facilitate communication with foreign students by repeating “你可以在跟他们的交流中学到一些外国的文化”.

In addition, sentence transitions occurred in the middle of a sentence, bounded by a comma. Both the beginning and the end of a sentence could be marked with a comma, but the position was different, with the former inserted from front to back into an empty space at the back and the latter on the front.

Generally speaking, English adjectives often appear in the form of bilingual adjective phrases, which are direct predicates according to Chinese rules and do not appear in systematic terms. The transformation of adjective phrases, while not against Chinese rules, is contrary to the strict language habits of the Chinese language, because the frequency of Chinese sentences is significantly lower than that of English.

In Transcript 3:

S1: 我们先可以给点关键的词, 比如说 **[We can start with some key words, for example]** endangered, plants and animals. And we can also write some...some...比如说, 有什么动物灭绝了和即将灭绝。然后, 写点我们之前讲述的...然后写点我们之前讲述的, 然后写一篇作文。把讲义(模板)拿出来, 一起来读 **[For example, what animals are extinct and going extinct. Then, write about what we talked about...Then, write**

about what we talked about before, and then write a composition. Take out your notes (templates) and read them together].

Here “and” is a conjunction, which is a systemic morpheme and is often used to describe the subject language, while here, the use of the English conjunction in the embedded language triggered the embedded language island, which provided all language elements, including both real and systemic morphemes.

In Transcript 7:

S4: I think cloning technology have many advantage in our daily lives.

For example, in 农业方面可以帮助我们人类培育非常多的抗旱和抗病虫害的优

势高产品种 **[In agriculture, (it) can help us to breed a lot of superior high-yield varieties of drought resistance and resistance to diseases and pests].**

Transformation in S4 involved a sentence inserted in the middle of another sentence. However, there was a comma between the two sentences. The first sentence was a complete sentence in English and the next sentence was a complete sentence in Chinese. In this transformation, S4 wanted to express her concern about cloning. Gal (1979) reports several instances where switching at the end of an argument not only helps to end the interaction but may also serve to emphasize a point. Here, the speaker could use English, but she chose to use English translation for emphasis.

4.2.3 Tag switching

Additional code-switching refers to the insertion of an additional component (tag) of a single language expression into a single sentence or clause, which does not necessarily occur at the end of the clause but can occur anywhere in the sentence.

Labeling transformation, also known as symbolic transformation, marks

certain phrase groups in one language, marks certain terms or words in one language, and inserts them into words in another language entirely (Appel & Muysken, 2006). This code-switching usually occurs at the border as a reinforcement strategy to emphasize words, keep the listener's attention, and drive attention and action (Ariffin & Rafik-Galea, 2009).

For example, in Transcript 4:

S1: So, my question is why do you think Jo become a volunteer in PNG, give reasons. And would you like to get the volunteer in the poor area? Why?

S4: I think Jo is so responsible. And for me, I think I would like to have a volunteer work in a poor area. Because I think the people in poor area need 更多的知识 **[more knowledge]**. I think 教育应该在世界得到普及 **[Education should be universal in the world]**.

I think could be seen as a sentence filler to connect the next sentence, and even deletion did not affect S4's meaning. Some of S4's phrases were used as sentence fillers and could be classified as labeling conversions. Sentence fillers, or speech markers, consist of meaningless particles that are used to guide or redirect the flow of conversation without adding any significance to the discourse (Nordquist, 2015). In most cases, speech markers are syntactically independent, that is, they can be removed from a sentence and still remain structurally intact. Discourse markers are, therefore, more common in informal speech than in most forms of writing.

In Transcript 2:

S1: Decrease...decrease the ...怎样说“对栖息地的破坏” **[How to say "habitat destruction"]**? The loss of the protection...哦，不对。栖息地怎么说 **[Oh, no. How do you say "habitat"]**, habitat?

In S1, the sentence filler "habitat" was used to come up with supplemental or additional ideas and indicated that someone was waiting for an answer or explanation.

As S4 showed in Transcript 1, sentence fillers have another function.

S4: No, I disagree with you. See this sentence. "But she began to trust him". She... em... gave her belief to the robot. That means she likes robot. And then the robo...the woman kissed the robot and (S3: Kiss ...) hugged (misread) her.

In Transcript 1:

S2: Look at this sentence. "He held her firmly in his arms when she felt the warmth of his body. She screamed, pushed him away and ran to her room for the rest of the day". So I don't think she would accept robot.

"See this sentence" in S4 was used as a rhetorical statement. It was used when S4 expected others to understand what he was saying or asking. Then, in S2's talk, "look at this sentence" was used to get someone's attention and guidance before announcing something in a conversation.

For example, in Transcript 2:

S1: 我们先可以给点关键的词，比如说 **[We can start with some key words, for example]** endangered, plants and animals. And we can also write some...some...比如说，有什么动物灭绝了和即将灭绝。然后，写点我们之前讲述的...然后写点我们之前讲述的，然后写一篇作文。把讲义（模板）拿出来，一起来读 **[For example, what animals are extinct and going extinct. Then, write about what we talked about...Then write about what we talked about before, and then write a composition. Take out your notes (templates) and read them together]**.

"We" here was a first-person pronoun that indicated participation, followed by a discussion of the content of the writing using a number of content words and some connectives to continue the flow. "把讲义(模板)拿出来，一起来读"; here, the subject was missing, and there was no clear reference, but the subject could be derived from the context. "And we can also write some... some..."; S1 used English to express this sentence, and in the example S1 repeated the extinct plants and animals he had mentioned before to emphasize his point.

4.3 Borrowing

Borrowing is the diffusion of one form of language from one language to another, and this diffusion is not an individual act. The purpose of borrowing is to enable the communicators to communicate more effectively. Therefore, borrowing words has become one of the most commonly used rhetorical devices. Borrowed words is a special language art phenomenon in the course of human social development. According to Sapir, "the necessities of intercourse bring the speakers of one language into direct or indirect contact with those of neighboring or culturally dominant languages" (Sapir, 2001, p. 159). Borrowing is a natural result of language contact between different language systems for students to mention some particular words or matters, which, indeed, enriches vocabulary and cultural connotations.

However, it has been found that when the cultural meaning of a specific Chinese proverb or idiom could not be expressed in the target language, temporary loan words in Chinese became a compromise choice. In fact, students had no other better options. In the transcripts, Chinese loan words were the common phenomena, because it was more convenient and flexible for students to express coherent meaning through Chinese. The reason why there were almost no English loan words was that students had not reached the language ability to arbitrarily extract English loan words.

Firstly, it has been found that some borrowers were words from other languages, usually single words, that had been incorporated into the vocabulary of the target language. English is unique in comparison with other languages. English, as one of the most important universal foreign languages in the world, has many kinds of loanwords. There are two kinds of borrowing words in English: one is direct borrowing; the other is the indirect introduction of words or phrases in the target language through borrowing, transliteration, and paraphrasing. Due to the differences between English and Chinese cultures, there are a lot of homonyms between the English and Chinese languages, of

which, “English loanwords” are the most common. In some special cases, the use of Chinese loanwords could help readers better understand and appreciate the text.

For example, in Transcript 3:

S4: For example, the killer dogs and the killer Eagles and luci 鸬鹚 **[cormorants]**. The killer dogs and the killer Eagles, maybe 更多的是帮助 **[It's more about helping]** help the people to check 猎物 **[prey]**, 但是 cihu 鸬鹚、鱼鹰这种就直接 **[But cormorants, osprey this kind is directly]...**

S3: luci 鸬鹚 **[cormorants]** it has a big mouth, they could put the 猎物 **[prey]** in their mouth, and wait their masters to get the 猎物 **[prey]** from their mouth. They also could eat from the hunt.

S3 and S4 borrowed the pronunciation of the cormorant and the Chinese of the osprey to add to the subject of the sentence. The third student narrated the statement except for the Chinese component, the other main components of the sentence could adequately convey the meaning of the text, and the expression in English paved the way for describing the way of hunting later, and the specific way of hunting was understood by describing the characteristics. S3 was trying to express in English while trying to express in Chinese, and there was confusion in the language system. Verbs like “put”, “wait”, and nouns complemented the sentence structure, clearly describing the way and object of the action.

Secondly, borrowed words are words that one language “borrows” from another, using direct citations, transliteration or parody from another, such as “Internet, Downing Street, water ballet”. Borrowing is a form of language borrowing that is translated directly according to the morphological structure and word-forming principle of the source language in the process of translating foreign words. Also known as a translation loan, it is a special borrowing in which each morpheme or word is translated from the morpheme or word equivalent of another language, such as “Bluetooth” or “hot line”. The use of words from other cultures can be complementary. Due to the absence of a

counterpoint between cultures, lexical borrowing is a labor-saving and convenient way to supplement a large number of proper nouns, such as human names, place names, and other words that have no counterpoint in other cultures. Subjectively, according to the goal or background theory of cognitive linguistics, appropriate borrowing of words from other cultures, especially “culturally rich words”, in the process of cross-cultural communication can play a prominent role in attracting attention. Take “Fuwa” for example. “Fuwa” is a word full of Chinese traditional culture and modern Olympic spirit. It conveys the Chinese nation’s yearning for peace, friendship, and prosperity. At first, the translation of “friendly” is too bland and forced to reflect the cultural implications of “Fuwa” or draw attention to it. “Fuwa”, as it is later transliterated directly, stands out against the background of other languages. Speakers are unfamiliar with its pronunciation and form, and even less aware of its meaning. Instead, it snaps people’s attention to it, and they are eager to find out what it means through various channels.

For example, in Transcript 5:

S4: To my problem, I have stomach disease, I will miss Chinese food, there is an old Chinese saying in China “天大地大吃饭最大 **[nothing is more important than eating]**” and I will miss my homeland food, and I can’t be familiar with foreign food.

“天大地大吃饭最大” was translated directly into “nothing is more important than eating”, and it might have a similar meaning, but it did not convey the meaning of heaven and earth in the original sentence, and lost its artistic and infectious power. Then S4 said, “I will miss my home food so much”, which was repeated to show cause or effect.

S4: According to your opinions. Qian think studying abroad can 促进东西文化交流 **[promote cultural exchanges between the East and the West]** and Lou Jiayu think studying abroad 能够提高语言能力和对国外文化的理解 **[can improve language skills and understanding of foreign cultures]**, and Du Zheyin think studying abroad can make her

more independent. To me, the phenomenon of Chinese students going abroad may cause 人才流失 [**brain drain**]. As a Chinese, we miss the problem of 人才流失 [**brain drain**]. Nowadays, China needs more 高尖端人才 [**top talent**], and it's a great problem to China.

A great number of Chinese words were used to express some specific nouns, and these words assumed the sentence components and were the main content words. The Chinese colloquialisms were in an indeterminate format, and it was difficult to find alternative sentences and expressions in English, so direct translation did not convey its connotation.

Thirdly, temporary borrowing is a rhetorical device used when another language is borrowed from the principal language and the borrowed language component has no alternative words or other words in the principal language. It includes two aspects: the first is borrowing and the second is metonymy. Temporary borrowing has rich cultural connotation, the reason of which is related to the psychology of pursuing the diversity and individuality of language forms in the course of human social development. At the same time, it is also influenced by ethnic cultural differences and the entry of foreign words. Temporary borrowing can not only enhance the effect of language expression, but also help to expand the scope of communication, increase the frequency of communication, promote information transmission and emotional communication. Temporary borrowing occurs mainly in written languages, especially English and Chinese. Temporary loan words have their own characteristics with a wide vocabulary source, a variety of word-formation, flexible use, and so on. Meanwhile, there are some problems: the target of temporary loan is not clear, the scope is not wide enough, the regulation is lacking, the abuse is random, etc.

For example, in Transcript 5:

S1: Nowadays, there is more and more Chinese students going abroad. This phenomenon is a good way to broaden your horizon and it's also a good way of 东西交流 [**East-West countries communication**].

S1 did not know the English expression for “东西交流” and, therefore, could not use the English language better. Therefore, he temporarily borrowed the English expression for East-West countries communication to express the full meaning, because in all his knowledge, he could not find a word that could completely replace and express the meaning of East-West countries communication.

4.4 Summary

In this chapter, I have studied the linguistic features of the translanguaging phenomenon and find that the most obvious feature of translanguaging is code-switching. Translanguaging is a special means of communication, and code-switching can help people express themselves better. In addition, it can enhance the textual effect and bring some psychological implication to the readers. Code-switching and borrowing are often present in interactive discussions between Chinese and English. From a grammatical point of view, discussants often express their meanings in Chinese and English without considering the effects of tense, person, and singular-plural. Intra-sentence conversion is the most frequent code-switching phenomenon, and inter-sentence conversion and appositive conversion are both present in code-switching. From a lexical point of view, noun conversion often occurs in code-switching and borrowing, and the borrowing is mainly of nouns. Code-switching can facilitate cross-cultural communication. Code-switching can help students deepen their memory and consolidate what they have learned. Code transformation includes in-sentence transformation, sentences transformation, and attachment transformation. Several common forms of code-switching are substitution, ellipsis, acronym, and interpolation. It basically sums up all the phenomena of code transformation in this case. In addition, there is some temporary borrowing of words, which is mainly manifested in some proper nouns.

In this chapter, having analyzed the linguistic features of translanguaging, I

find that translanguaging in a bilingual setting, from the perspective of focus there mainly exist two broad foci on linguistic transfer, the predicate focus and the sentence focus, and the narrow focus which is a component of a sentence. I have also provided specific cases as illustrating evidence to support these transition features, reporting students' cross-languages experience in their translanguaging trajectory. Code-switching and borrowing are the linguistic features of translanguaging I have discussed in this chapter, which makes it ready to answer the question "for what communicative purposes do students use translanguaging in English language TBL?" to be discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 5 Linguistic functions of Translanguaging

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the focus now shifts to reporting on the particular language functions that have emerged from words exchanges in students' interactions. Resonating to descriptions in Section 3.3.4 in Chapter 3, language has the social function and the thinking function. The social function includes the information transfer function and the interpersonal interaction function. The thinking function includes the ability to communicate and associate emotions. These two complement each other and together constitute one of the most basic and important forms of human existence - social interaction. Thus, language is often considered a bridge or medium for communicating social relations, information, and interpersonal communication. This explanation provides the theoretical basis for the extended description of language functions in this chapter.

In this chapter, I reveal that the functions of language in group discussions are mainly those of negotiation of meaning, regulation of information, coherence and structure, and supplement and socialization. They all represent an examination of how English and Chinese are interacted to influence students' communication, meaning understanding as well as the target language use. This chapter also reveals the meaning beyond the communicative role of a single language or the pragmatic role of a single language. Besides, this chapter explores the function of serving the target language under the joint action of the two languages. This chapter aims to illustrate that language itself is a complex and diverse unity that contains a rich variety of linguistic, cognitive, social, and psychological features.

5.2 Meaning negotiation function in translanguaging

The most obvious language feature in the transition from English to Chinese is meaning negotiation. Meaning negotiation refers to the discourse modification and information reconstruction conducted by learners and their conversational objects when they have difficulty understanding each other's discourse. Meaning negotiation originates from Long's theory of interactive modification (Long, 1981). Pica (1994, p. 495) defines L2 acquisition as "the modification and reconstruction of speech by learners and interlocutors when they anticipate, perceive, or encounter difficulties in meaning comprehension". Simply put, all speakers may encounter communication difficulties or obstacles in the course of communication. In order to overcome this communication difficulty, the three ways in which communicators had to negotiate meaning usually include understanding verification, clarifying requirements, and confirming verification to negotiate meaning.

For example, in Transcript 1,

S3: Character 是什么 [**what does this word refer to**]?

S1: 性格 [**character**]。

S1 and S3 asked questions because they wanted help. In order to be able to continue the discussion smoothly, I explained the meaning of a word in Chinese.

In small group discussions, participants tried to engage other participants in classroom interaction by using targeted statements they could understand and appropriate "socializing techniques" to facilitate group communication in order for other participants to understand their thoughts.

The theoretical basis for meaningful negotiation is Long's interactive hypothesis. Long (1985) theorized on the interaction hypothesis: when communication comprehension becomes difficult, both sides of the conversation must make linguistic adjustments based on feedback from the other side on whether they understand or not. That is, negotiate meaning makes input intelligible and, thus, facilitates acquisition. Meaning negotiation

refers to the mutual adjustment between learners to achieve communication, including both input and output. In order to achieve the goal of negotiation, there are many kinds of feedback methods to prompt or correct grammatical errors that may exist in discourse.

In Transcript 1:

S1: Having read the article, in my opinion, I think her satisfaction is not guaranteed. Because I think her mental problem is not solved.

S3: I don't agree with you. Because, em, after Tony, em, arrived her home...em... Claire felt warm and her many problems were solved by Tony. Tony showed more like a human than a machine, who gave her, em, what she really wanted.

S1: No. No. let's see this sentence, the article says, "when she first saw the robot, she felt alarmed". So, I think the robot, maybe, a potential (misread) danger to him. He fears a lot with the robot.

S4: No, I disagree with you. See this sentence, "but she began to trust him". She... em... gave her belief to the robot. That means she likes robot. And then the robo...the woman kissed the robot and (S3: Kiss ...) hugged (misread) her.

S1, S3, and S4 all participated in the meaning negotiation process. S1 first presented his opinion on the text, saying that "her satisfaction is not guaranteed". Next, S3 disagreed with his opinion and denied it, citing the text "her many problems were solved by Tony" to support his opinion. S4 thought that "felt alarmed" was the impression of their first meeting, and later "she began to trust her". During the exchange, the three participants constantly revised their opinions and pointed out the shortcomings of each other's opinions, thus, forming a consensus.

In his later interactive hypothesis, Long (1996) tweaked his previous view. In particular, the interactive adjustment made by native speakers or conversationalists is conducive to language acquisition. Meaning negotiation provides intelligible input for L2 acquisition. Meaning negotiation also provides

intelligible output for L2 acquisition. Meaning negotiation enables learners to pay attention to language forms. Krashen's (2003) "intelligible input" studies meaning negotiation from an input perspective. It is believed that interactive modification promotes input understanding; understanding input promotes acquisition; so, cross-correcting promotes acquisition. Many empirical studies have also confirmed the positive significance of cross-modification for understanding. In general, meaning negotiation can facilitate the understanding of inputs. However, the indirect causality of comprehension and acquisition has led me to realize that meaning negotiation plays a more important role in L2 acquisition than just input understanding. Swain (1985) proposes that "intelligible output" can also be called mandatory output, which is another necessary factor for acquisition. Unlike input, intelligible output is generated by default feedback. This feedback form of negotiation instruction allows the speaker to find problems arising from the use of the language and to correct them in a timely manner to make inappropriate language more accurate and appropriate. The speaker adjusts his or her language output according to the negotiation instruction and corrects his or her speech in a timely manner, so there is a close relationship between output correction and negotiation instruction.

In Transcript 1:

S3: 不是，机器人亲那个女的 [**No, the robot kissed the woman**].

S4: 不是抱了吗 [**Didn't the robot hug the woman**]?

S2, S3: 机器人主动（亲）的 [**The robot actively kissed the woman**].

S2 responded to S4's question by stating his intentions directly and refuting them. The first sentence of S3 reminded the other students that the second sentence of S3 meant something different from what S2 said, and then repeated and corrected it to make it clearer to the other students. S4 challenged S's point of view, challenged his own point of view, and strengthened his understanding of the article after he had resolved his doubts.

The attention hypothesis is the learner's conscious attention to a particular form of language, so that two important elements of that form of knowledge, addition and absorption, attention: salience and frequency, and meaning negotiation plays an important role in these two factors. On the one hand, the communicative parties highlight some linguistic forms through negotiation of meanings in order to prevent the interruption of communication. In the course of communication, when a communicator has difficulty in understanding, he will reconstruct the speaker's language in the form of ascension, stress, repetition of information, etc., just as he understands the verification and clarification requirements, so that certain linguistic features will be highlighted.

In transcript 1:

S2, S3: 机器人主动（亲）的 **[The robot actively kissed the woman]**。

S4: 哦，等会儿。等会儿，我知道怎么说了，就这样，我知道怎么拍了 **[Oh, wait a minute. Wait a minute. I know what to say. That's it. I know how to shoot it]**。

S4: 哪个？重.....重....**[which? Again....., again....]**

S4: The robot kissed the woman and they are fall in love (grammatical mistake).

S4 did not understand or remember what the speaker mentioned, so he repeated the speaker's words as well as his own to enhance his understanding by reconstructing them as a way to validate his own expression of his point of view.

Meaning negotiation processes, on the other hand, can increase the frequency with which certain language forms appear. Meaning negotiation plays an important role in word acquisition. It combines input, output, error, and feedback. The learner can adjust his speech in time during meaning negotiation, which can attract the attention of the listener through three ways. Meaningful negotiation promotes learners' understanding of a foreign language. Comprehension is the basis for communication. Meaning negotiation also provides a good opportunity for learners to interact and connect. Both meaning

and form can be considered in the process of meaning negotiation. A good atmosphere and environment can facilitate foreign language learning, and meaning negotiation provides a channel for enhancing understanding.

5.3 Information reconciliation function in translanguaging

The rhetorical question is one of the means of adjusting information in dialogue and communication, and it has the function of coordinating common background. The use of rhetorical questions is related to the common background knowledge of the communicators involved. A rhetorical question may be used when the communicator needs to call up a piece of information from a common background, or when there is disagreement about the common background information of the conversation. Although the rhetorical question does not expect a specific answer per se, it engages the speaker in getting listeners to come around to his or her point of view, eliciting an emotional or communicative response from the listener. From the point of view of information exchange, the use of a rhetorical question will cause participants of the conversation to exchange and flow new information.

For example in Transcript 2:

S1: Firstly, we should.....

S3: Make some laws?

S1: Set up some ...

S4: 不应该是向政府提出一些建议，他们来制定法律吗？ ***[Shouldn't they make recommendations to the government, and make the laws?]***

We should write a letter to the government to give some suggestions about wildlife protection.

S4 used the rhetorical question “不应该是向政府提出一些建议，他们来制定法律吗？” to answer S1: “set up some” and explained that the law should not be made by us, “we can give advice to the government and the government will make the law”. S4 used a rhetorical question to emphasize what he said. In this example, S3 was also unsure of his own thoughts and wanted more information.

S1 gave his opinion and S4 answered with rhetorical questions. S4 used rhetorical questions because he thought the other participants knew them too, which was common background information for all involved in the discussion. At this point, the communicators completed a relatively complete converse sequence.

Communication consists of at least A (the speaker) and B (the recipient), and both need to adjust their messages to keep the conversation going. How people coordinate information is a fundamental question of language use (Clark, 1996). In A and B information interactions, I have relied on the A- and B-events theory of Labov and Fanshel (1977). The theory includes the following:

- 1) A-events (known to A, but not to B) are known to A, unknown to B and, therefore, called events based on A;
- 2) And B-events (known to B, but not to A) are known to B, unknown to A, and so called B based event information;
- 3) If the speaker believes that this information is known to both A and B, then it can be called AB-events (known to both A and B), that is, information based on events known to both A and B; and
- 4) If the information is common knowledge, then they are O-events, or information based on common knowledge.

In this discussion, all of the information is essentially known to all participants, with the exception of a few word transformations and details. Therefore, the use of rhetorical questions by participants in discussions facilitates the regulation of known information, the constant revision, and expansion of known information.

Questions can play a role in discourse rotation in dialogue, leading to the adjustment of information. According to Sacks et al. (1978), only one party speaks at a time (one person speaks at a time called a conversational wheel), and a conversational wheel shift takes place in the conversation, which is the basis of conversational organization. When a question is asked, asked for an answer, or confirmed, most of the time, there is a turn of phrase. However, the

question does not necessarily cause the turn of the conversation, or the question may be sent after the conversation, or the question appears in the middle of the turn.

For example in Transcript 1:

S3: So, I think Tony give Claire, em, Tony give Claire 什么个? 温...温暖的...那个精神... 精神和? 怎么说? **[Well, what? Wa... Warm... The spirit... spirit and? How do you say?]**

S4: 那个 slogan 是吗 **[The slogan, right?]**

S3 was asking the other students to answer, and there was a turn of phrase. S4 then solved S3's doubt, here, the use of the question helped to understand the article, helped students understand the spirit of the word, and also helped other students understand.

All types of interrogative questions are the most likely to occupy a single conversation wheel. But a question is not exactly a question; that is, the speaker does not necessarily need an answer or wait for one. The speaker may send a question and then continue the conversation, or in the process, send a question and the question does not give the speaker the right to speak.

For example in Transcript 1:

S3: 都讲完了吗? **[that's all?]**

S3 did not necessarily need an answer here, and if no one did, S3 could pretty much confirm that it was all said and done.

In practical conversational communication, a sentence that is formally a question does not necessarily express a "question", whether specifically referring to a question, a right or wrong question, or an additional sentence that has other functions besides a question function, such as committing a verbal act or organizing a topic. The use of interrogative sentences is to bring the previous situation back to the current conversation or to express an evaluation, and has the function of topic organization. The speaker does not question, but simply repeats the facts that have come before. The speaker does not question, but simply repeats the facts that appear in the previous context. The speaker is

positive about the facts and does not wait for the other person to respond. So, the speaker continues to talk without waiting for an answer.

For example in Transcript 2:

S1: We'd better advise people some protective measures.

S3: Suggestions?

S1: 就是呼吁人们去做一些保护措施, 就是我上面讲的 ***[It's an appeal to people to do something about it, and that's what I said]***。

S1: If everyone has the sense of protecting wildlife,

S4: The world will be more beautiful.

S3 questioned here and guided the next discussion in the direction of making some suggestions. S1 followed up with his own ideas, and S4 picked up where S1 left off, finishing their ideas and reintegrating them into the classroom in English. S3's words were formally general questions, but they actually pointed out the facts and brought the previous words back to the present.

5.4 Coherence and textuality function in translanguaging

Discourse function is mostly based on the analysis of written material. It shows how the meaning expressed in a text is related to the context. The so-called discourse function refers to the effect of pragmatic marker language on discourse coherence and textuality. Coherence refers to the grammatical or lexical connection or both of the linguistic components in a text, which is usually expressed as a connection between words. There are two levels of cohesion: one is the consistency of words and the second is the coherence between words and sentences. Together, they form a complete sentence structure. This is a dynamic process. Coherence not only makes speech materials echo each other, but also produces new communicative effects, which is the core of discourse. Consistency is the concept of meaning field. It is the consequence of the interactions between situational context and linguistic form. However, the continuity of topics and the rich diversity of main events determine that communication activities require more and more information to be transmitted.

So, communicators need to convey themselves in a variety of ways in order to be understood. As a result, I found it difficult to communicate without appropriate expressions and techniques.

Textuality function means that the speaker connects units of speech that are related in meaning through pragmatic markers to produce a semantic coherent text. In other words, the speaker uses pragmatic markers to organize individual, incoherent units of speech into a coherent text. Thus, these units of speech must first be coherent in meaning. In other words, it is only possible to use pragmatic markers between units of coherent discourse in a meaningful sense. Pragmatic marker plays the role of a bridge and link in discourse, connecting various semantic and logical relationships between sentence and sentence, paragraph and paragraph, and marking the contextual relationship of discourse behavior. Therefore, pragmatic markers can be used to organize discourse, construct communicative contexts, and maintain the coherence of meaning of units of discourse. In addition, the language can have a certain degree of coherence and textuality. Since pragmatic markers themselves do not constitute any structural elements, they do not cause grammatical rules to change, thus, ensuring the stability of the language as a whole. Pragmatic markers highlight their discourse construction functions, such as the ability to mark the beginning, end, chakra, theme, and modification of prior ideas and intentions, as a means of discourse construction.

For example, in Transcript 3:

S4: Someone think the school is so poor, so they can... they can't get enough knowledge at school. And ...and the school is far from their house, so they may be dangerous in the way. The class is so 陈旧的[old].

And the school was short of the computers and textbooks. Em...it's all.

S4 quoted from the book, and inferred from the details described in the book and specified the reasons for not going. It was better to quote the contents of the book in English to ensure their accuracy and completeness. That was the end of the unit of speech. It meant the amount of time that remained after a

sentence had been completed. If the word “I” and my decision appeared in that gap again, the sentence would become a complete sentence.

In Transcript 3:

S4: For example, the killer dogs and the killer Eagles and luci 鸬鹚 **[cormorants]**. The killer dogs and the killer Eagles, maybe 更多的是帮助 **[It's more about helping]** help the people to check 猎物 **[prey]**, 但是 cihu 鸬鹚、鱼鹰这种就直接 **[But cormorants, osprey this kind is directly].....**

S4: Let's check the last question, what can we learn from these 2 anecdotes?

S4 opened a new discourse in English and constructed the next. S4 shifted the conversation to “us”, emphasizing teamwork rather than social context to make the text more inclusive and acceptable.

Different languages tend to have different textual structures. In the process of discourse transformation, appropriate models should be chosen according to the specific context. Meanwhile, the necessary coordination is needed, taking into account the academic level of the various members. This contradiction can be effectively resolved through group consultations, and the overall efficiency of collaboration can be improved. Therefore, in the group discussions, the participants expressed sentences somewhat different from the original text, but not entirely unrelated. After the participants translated it themselves, others were given information or cues not in the original book. That satisfied the interests of others without compromising the transmission of the text. The inclusion of Chinese and English helped to keep the original style characteristics unchanged, not affecting the understanding of other participants, and avoided the influence and interference of the original text on the translation. This method eliminated the defects of the layout of the text, ensured the coherence of the text, and achieved the goal of successful communication.

For example, in Transcript 3:

S4: For example, the killer dogs and the killer Eagles and luci 鸬鹚

[cormorants]. The killer dogs and the killer Eagles, maybe 更多的是帮助 **[It's more about helping]** help the people to check 猎物 **[prey]**, 但是 cihu 鸬鹚、鱼鹰这种就直接 **[But cormorants, osprey this kind is directly]**.....

Here, Chinese and English phrases helped other students connect the preceding words through repetition, so that they could understand them better.

5.5 Supplement and social function in translanguaging

It is well known that diverse languages bear different cultures, and even between different variations of the same language, there is not necessarily a corresponding form and meaning, which creates a linguistic gap. Facing this gap, Chinese students better use their own languages' linguistic knowledge or culture in translanguaging to leverage the learning of the target language.

Due to the lack of uniform norms and standards, there are some differences in group communication, which can be achieved by adjusting the subject matter or replacing the original words in a particular geographical area. When a code does not properly express the special connotation given by its culture, the function of code transformation will be reflected. "Windows, Office, Word, Excel", for example, are words that people often use when talking about computer software. These words are not translated into Chinese, but are used directly because there is no such concept in Chinese. If something has a certain meaning, it should be described in different code-words according to the specific context, so that it can be understood and can be meaningful. Many Chinese dialects, such as Hakka and Chaoshan, often need to borrow words from Mandarin because there is no corresponding concept or phonetic form in their dialects. In this case, code-switching actually optimizes the configuration of language resources, fills language gaps, and achieves communication goals in the most economical way.

For example, in Transcript 4:

S2: OK. My question is Jo felt it was a privilege to have spent a day with

Tombe's family, if you were Jo, how do you think you will feel. Give my reasons.

S4: I think it will very 抵触 **[contradictive]**. 因为 **[because]**...because the people maybe 没有很好的卫生意识 **[not having a good sense of hygiene]**. Their house was so poor, so dangerous.

S3: I think I would feel like to. Because I can have a special experience, and all the villagers are 热情 **[passionate]**. And...em... em...

Chinese filled in some of the elements of Chinese and English translation in a sentence, and S4 answered S2's question to push the topic forward. And S3 wanted to take it a step further and made a personal point from his own understanding.

For example, in Transcript 5:

S1: Nowadays, there are more and more Chinese students going abroad. This phenomenon is a good way to broaden your horizon and it's also a good way of 东西交流 **[East-West countries communication]**.

According to S1, the use of "East-West exchange" was more explicit, broader, and related to studying abroad. It helped to understand and broaden the discussion of the phenomenon, expressed agreement with one aspect of the phenomenon, and supported the arguments made. And it was difficult to find a substitute for this word in English, so the use of Chinese filled the gap.

An important reason for group discussions to do code-switching was to facilitate their understanding of what they were learning. In the examples in the transcripts, when a panellist introduced his or her point of view, he or she first described a phrase or sentence in the target language and then repeated it in the target language in order to convey the point most effectively. Participants chose a full paragraph or sentence repetition for the difficulty of the lesson or a partial repetition for the key information so that the meaning, sentence meaning, and text meaning were more accurate. It could be said that part of the

content was presented in two languages in rotation, which achieved both the knowledge and the foreign language objectives of subject teaching. Of course, there was no need to repeat sentences, so as not to damage the subject by reducing the efficiency of instruction, but appropriate repetition emphasis should be promoted in bilingual teaching to ensure accurate transmission of knowledge and to deepen students' understanding of important points of knowledge. Accurate transmission of the connotation and extension of the meaning of the target language was one of the important functions of the students' transfer from the target language to the mother tongue. Participants provided a mother tongue explanation or additional information to help other students understand the previous presentation more accurately.

For example, in Transcript 2:

S3: Government should set up wildlife protection.

S2: Nature reserve.

S1: It is necessary to, 就是我之前所说的一点, 就是减少购买 **[As I said before, buy less]**.

S2: Avoid buying clothes made of fur.

S1: Only in this way will

In communication, switching codes was also sometimes used to better engage the listener's attention and to provide additional information to help the listener better understand what the speaker was referring to. In this conversation, S1 warned that a keyword should be given, and other participants learned the meaning of the speaker's words immediately after the speaker switched code interpretations. The situation where misunderstandings resulted from conceptual misunderstandings frequently happened. It was the complementary interpretive function of code-switching and the most economical means of communication to provide additional information by using words in English that shared the same meaning category as Chinese words to supplement the meaning of Chinese words.

For example, in Transcript 2:

S1: 我们先可以给点关键的词, 比如说 **[We can start with some key words, for example]** endangered, plants and animals. And, we can also write some...some...比如说, 有什么动物灭绝了和即将灭绝。然后, 写点我们之前讲述的...然后写点我们之前讲述的, 然后写一篇作文。把讲义(模板)拿出来, 一起来读 **[For example, what animals are extinct and going extinct. Then, write about what we talked about...Then, write about what we talked about before, and then write a composition. Take out your notes (templates) and read them together]**.

The purpose of this panel discussion was to connect with others. Code switching could help speakers communicate better with others and help them understand each other better. This is the communicative function of code-switching. By using code-switching, speakers are better able to express what they really mean to each other and avoid misunderstandings in their communication. When talking about specific topics of opinion or thought, participants habitually use code-switching so that others can better understand them.

Speech communication is a kind of social activity, in the course of communication, dialogical speakers will choose the code according to the communication needs because of the differences in the environment, cultural background, educational background, professional background, and so on. In the course of this activity, the choice of code also reflects the psychology of speakers in communication. From a pragmatic perspective, one of the main purposes of verbal communication is to make each other feel close and identify.

According to Giles' (2016) theory of speech adaptation, two kinds of situations occur in code-switching: linguistic convergence and linguistic deviation. Language closeness means that the speaker intentionally adjusts his or her linguistic features to be closer to those of his or her communicator in order to maintain his or her affinity with the listener; on the contrary, language deviation means that the speaker intentionally adjusts his language appearance

to be different from that of the communicator in order to widen the psychological distance between himself and the listener.

In group discussions, in order for other participants to better understand their own ideas, the panelists may sometimes present their ideas in Chinese, which is more familiar to all, or in English, which appears in the text. The idea is to bring each other closer psychologically, in the hope of maintaining a sense of affinity, and the discussion of the two becomes closer as the code changes. Such strategies are often used by teachers in their classroom. For instance, after class, teachers can communicate with students in more casual, approachable language, even in dialect, while in the classroom, students are taught or interacted with in more formal, rigorous, or even near written language. There is also the unusual situation of teachers deliberately using non-standard language as a topic of conversation in an attempt to engage students. This approach usually requires a high level of professionalism and good communication skills on the part of teachers. The purpose of this is to maintain some psychological distance between the teacher and the students by adjusting the code in the classroom, so that the students can experience the majesty of the teacher and the relative seriousness of the classroom from the teacher's classroom language. This action, which is of great importance in the effective organization and maintenance of classroom discipline, is actually a means to influence the psychological state of interlocutors through code-switching.

5.6 Summary

In this chapter, I have explored a list of language functions of students' translanguaging by analyzing their linguistic landscape from transcripts. Students use translanguaging in English TBL for the purposes of meaning negotiation function, information reconciliation, coherence and textuality, and supplement and social function.

It has been found that through meaning negotiation in translanguaging based on task-based language learning, participants obtain more

comprehensible input, modify and adjust the discourse, and make the discourse output, in an appropriate and reasonable linguistic form, maximally acceptable to other participants, thus, facilitating foreign language learners' acquisition and learning of the target language. This chapter has also revealed that the information was regulated in such a way that interlocutors were capable to communicate at their own basic level of knowledge and continuously acquire each other's views and perspectives to enhance their own understanding of the text. Information conditioning helped participants to gain new understanding from the environment. Meaning negotiation and information reconciliation are aimed at correcting and organizing the content of the discussion. This chapter has further indicated that coherence and textuality made the participants' communication hierarchical and more fluid, aiming to ensure the smooth advancement or continuity of communication and better comprehension of the conversation.

This chapter has provided deep insights into supplement and social functions, which made the participants' sentence expressions complete in meaning and more acceptable to others. Supplement and social functions are aimed at filling in some of the missing words in the sentence formation process and accomplishing the social function. In the following chapter, I will present my analysis of what language choice students made and why they made such choices in translanguaging. In this chapter, I will attempt to explore the relationship between students' language choice and Chinese and English language factors respectively, and further analyze the communicative factors, student factors, and environmental factors of language choice.

Chapter 6 Linguistic choices in translanguaging

6.1 Introduction

In Chapters 4 and 5, I examined the linguistic features and linguistic functions of translanguaging. In Chapter 6, in order to answer the question “Why do students make their linguistic choices when translanguaging in English language TBL?”, I will examine the phenomenon of language choice in transcripts and the purpose of linguistic choices will be studied. That is, for Chinese students, there always does not exist coherence and consistency in the use of a single language to express meanings. I have further found how Chinese students respond to the presence of linguistic incoherence or inconsistency contributes to the temporary separation of the two languages or connection between them.

This chapter also explains the reasons for Chinese students’ language choices from different analytical perspectives, such as language, communication, environment, and students themselves in linguistic contact situations. Chapter 6 consists of two sections, which study both students and environmental aspects that trigger the language choice.

The elaboration of this chapter is also a response to part of the theory in Chapter 2. For example, Giles (2016) states the linguistic consequences of the division of speakers’ conformity into convergence and divergence, emphasizing speakers’ intentional adjustments to linguistic closeness or differences to achieve different psychological effects. Verschueren’s (1999) theory of linguistic conformity gave another theoretical hint for my analysis, which stands for a deeper analysis for pragmatic reasons.

In this chapter, it has been found that linguistic choices in translanguaging are largely related to the respondents’ language ability and language environment. Respondents may choose to use Chinese expressions because they do not know the English expression for a word or are unfamiliar with the

English syntax. The linguistic choices of some participants are also important external factors for others' selections under the group discussion. The choice of language can be to aid in understanding or may be for the continuation of communication.

6.2 Ease of communication

It has been found that students' translanguaging, indeed, facilitated their communication in a more acceptable way. The gap between two languages acts as a barrier for students' communication. However, as John-Stein's (2000) work which was referred to in Chapter 2, students' simultaneous progress in communication will be facilitated with more productive output with their shared efforts in interactions. That is, students could choose English and Chinese according to the advantages of the existing language they had mastered, and finally, promoted the normal process of communication, so as to avoid the loss of face and other problems caused by communication barriers. My findings also confirm that students' language choice in translanguaging can fill the loss of meaning interrupted by communication barriers, students' low language level, or their tendency to pick out advanced linguistic elements.

Use Chinese as an intermediary language

This linguistic shift was evident in positive thinking, which allowed students in the study to understand more clearly what they were saying. When they did not say enough, they interrupted and responded. In the process, the learner adjusted his or her tone to keep pace with the topic. Students filled the pauses with word marks to buy more time for subsequent expressions.

However, due to the influence of the mother tongue, most unsophisticated students did not have a certain speaking ability, so they often used Chinese as an intermediary language and learnt through imitation. Such an approach enabled learners to better grasp the rules of grammar and improve their ability to express language, or just to facilitate communication and do some simple repetitions or omissions, so as to enhance the effect of language communication.

Both methods had different characteristics and advantages. The most common English filler word used for interpretation is "like". It means the adverb of the tone used by the speaker to evaluate things or phenomena, which is usually composed of two parts: the affirmative tone; another part was negative. The corresponding expressions in Mandarin, such as "是", "然后", "和" (equivalent to "yes", "then", "and" in English) were also frequently used. These words all indicate a tone. In Chinese, they are often used to emphasize a state. However, these two different types of words are not completely opposites and can sometimes be combined to express certain meanings. In Chinese, there is a close relationship between "只是" and "就是" and they have one thing in common - both can be used as mood aids. Through the analysis of several modal auxiliary verbs commonly used in modern Chinese, it was found that they had both commonality and individuality.

In Transcript 1:

S1: OK, if we are different. We are different opinions. Let's just talk about it, her character.

S3: Character 是什么 **[what does this word refer to]** ?

S1: 性格 **[character]**。

S1: Let's find some sentences to prove her character.

In Transcript 1:

S1: Firstly, we should.....

S3: Make some laws?

S1: Set up some ...

S4: 不应该是向政府提出一些建议，他们来制定法律吗？ **[Shouldn't they make recommendations to the government, and make the laws?]**

We should write a letter to the government to give some suggestions about wildlife protection.

During the discussion, the student alternated between Mandarin and English to explain a textbook term and a choice he had made. This sentence served as a tool, suggesting the key word "character" to help other students

understand what the role's character was like. And more straightforward, it played a driving role. S1 also used the colloquial filler "firstly" to prepare his thoughts. It turned out he could speak his mind in one language. S1 further explained that he chose Chinese because it better expressed what he meant. At the time, S1 did not have enough time to react and express it in the correct English sentences. He subconsciously used the translation language to complete his sentence. S1 also said he preferred to use English fillers when he had trouble getting his meaning across because it bought him more time to think and improved his performance.

Use Chinese as a scaffold to express meanings

The lack of vocabulary and sentence accumulation was an important cause of the students' low language level. In addition, the poor cultural knowledge of Chinese also affected the language expression of learners. Lack of language ability was one of the main reasons why students made language choices. On the one hand, they did not understand or grasp the relevant words because of negative transfer of their mother tongue; On the other hand, the lack of necessary vocabulary and grammar rules made it difficult for students to understand the message. As a result, students turned to their mother tongue to express their views and opinions.

In Transcript 2:

S1: 我们先可以给点关键的词，比如说 **[We can start with some key words, for example]** endangered, plants and animals. And, we can also write some...some...比如说，有什么动物灭绝了和即将灭绝。然后，写点我们之前讲述的...然后写点我们之前讲述的，然后写一篇作文。把讲义（模板）拿出来，一起来读 **[For example, what animals are extinct and going extinct. Then, write about what we talked about... Then, write about what we talked about before, and then write a composition. Take out your notes (templates) and read them together].**

S1 explained the use of two other fillers in Mandarin. The phrase “比如说”

means “like” or “such as”, and “然后” means “then” or “after”. In fact, class records showed that students who participated in the discussion often used both expressions. He confirmed that the two supplements also regularly featured in his monolingual Mandarin dialogue, which bought him extra time to think about what to say next. When he spoke in English, the location of the marker helped improve his ability to express himself. From these two examples in the transcripts, it can be concluded that students were more likely to express themselves in their mother tongue when they were unable to express their meaning in its entirety or when they needed time to think.

Take into account of the appropriateness of the word use

In Transcript 4:

S2: Em...I think I may be not too em... It is too far for me get to a such remote school, and if it rains on the way, could be danger, dangerous. I think, second, I think the classroom was so...so... 很陈旧 **[old]**. Em...The the roof is made of grass. I think it is dangerous.

In the case above, when considering the use of Chinese and English, the second student also took into account the appropriateness of the word meanings, rather than just translating directly from Chinese. S2 elaborated the classroom conditions, making each other understand specific details and extracting key words and phrases from the book to help other students understand, but only general concepts were available, and the degree was not deep. She said she knew that “陈旧的” could be used to mean old, but she wanted to use some more advanced words to convey the meaning of the word. Using a traditional monolingual perspective on these examples, it may be concluded that students were switching between languages because they were not good at either. However, I believe that the translation language analysis method provided a more convincing and up-to-date explanation for their bilingual strategies. Translating helped maintain an interactive dialogue process and improved understanding, which, in turn, helped maintain an interactive dialogue process and, thus, contributed to a more sustainable classroom

environment.

In Transcript 3:

S3: And also the dogs they need be trained, they will 形成一种密切的默契和它的 **[Form a close tacit agreement with its]** master, when see the 猎物 **[prey]** 就可以发出 **[can send it out]** aims 它就可以精准地快速地找到那个猎物 **[It can find that prey with great precision and speed]**.

S3 used a mixture of Chinese and English to avoid the difficulty of being unable to express certain terms because they did not know the English words. Choosing a mixture of Chinese and English helped them to express their ideas more fluently, which was a way to make communication smoother.

In Transcript 2:

S3: Suggestions?

S1: 就是呼吁人们去做一些保护措施, 就是我上面讲的 **[It's an appeal to people to do something about it, and that's what I said]**。

S1: If everyone has the sense of protecting wildlife,

S4: The world will be more beautiful.

It would be too long in Chinese and more concise in English. A third student felt that using English would ease the tension in the conversation and increase engagement. S4 picked up where S1 left off and continued to finish their point and reintegrated into the class using English.

In Transcript 3:

S4: For example, the killer dogs and the killer Eagles and luci 鸬鹚 **[cormorants]**. The killer dogs and the killer Eagles, maybe 更多的是帮助 **[It's more about helping]** help the people to check 猎物 **[prey]**, 但是 cihu 鸬鹚、鱼鹰这种就直接 **[But cormorants, osprey this kind is directly]**.....

S3: luci 鸬鹚 **[cormorants]** it has a big mouth, they could put the 猎物 **[prey]** in their mouth, and wait their masters to get the 猎物 **[prey]** from their mouth. They also could eat from the hunt.

S3: And also the dogs they need be trained, they will 形成一种密切的默契和它的 **[Form a close tacit agreement with its]** master, when see the 猎物 **[prey]** 就可以发出 **[can send it out]** aims 它就可以精准地快速地找到那个猎物 **[It can find that prey with great precision and speed].**

Because the English word “prey” could not be used accurately, it was expressed in Chinese. The phrase “to form a close understanding” was chosen to describe the behavior and action of the previous sentence in Chinese to convey the meaning because it could not be expressed in English sentences or related words.

Chinese language has its own advantages

In Transcript 4:

S4: I think it will very 抵触 **[contradictive]**. 因为 **[because]**...because the people maybe 没有很好的卫生意识 **[not having a good sense of hygiene]**. Their house was so poor, so dangerous.

S4 chose to express in Chinese because of being used to thinking in Chinese and the lack of English vocabulary. Because the expression of hygiene awareness would not be possible, the corresponding sentences could not be organized and expressed directly in English. Chinese helped understanding specific emotional expressions and situations.

S4: I think Jo is so responsible. And for me, I think I would like to have a volunteer work in a poor area. Because I think the people in poor areas need 更多的知识 **[more knowledge]**. I think 教育应该在世界得到普及 **[Education should be universal in the world].**

S4 did not know the English expression and could not express it in complete sentences, but Chinese was more direct. Chinese helped to understand the reasons for volunteering. It could also help other students understand the reasons for making suggestions and spreading knowledge.

In Transcript 3:

S3: In my views, from the first one, we learn that we need to 形成一种 **[develop a]** teamwork with the animals. From the second one, we learn that animals are always the friends for the people, we need to protect them.

S1: Through the first story I think sometimes maybe there are some animals can help us to achieve our 利益 **[profit/benefit]** through the second stories I think we should protect them and should return their home for them because nowadays, many peoples are 破坏 **[destroying]** their home.

In Transcript 5:

S3: In my opinion, may be a new environment can make some beneficial for you. On the one hand, you can learn a new language and improve you communicate skills. On the other hand, you can express yourself, such as making foreign friends and communicate with foreign students, 你可以在跟他们的交流中学到一些外国的文化 **[You can learn some foreign cultures by communicating with them].**

The word “利益” was used because S1 could not express the meaning of the word in English, and he thought that using Chinese would help him understand the keyword. The word “破坏” was used because S1 could not think of the matching word, so it served as a substitute. S3 did not have a good grasp of the core keywords, so the result elicited was expressed in Chinese in the example. Moreover, the meaning of the phrase in Chinese and English was relatively similar and could be replaced, which helped to draw a conclusion. Therefore, the lack of vocabulary was the main reason why S3 used Chinese, but, of course, its purpose remained for the discussion to proceed smoothly.

6.3 Contextual resources

It has been found that context resources are a range of factors that are thought to influence participants’ language choices in classroom interactions, including words and phrases in textbooks and what their peers say, information about the

words, sentences, and structures used by the discussion organizers in processing the content of the material, learners' reactions to what they heard, etc. These factors are key to language choice.

As Verschueren's theory of linguistic conformity mentioned in Chapter 2, how students made linguistic choices in their language use was a dynamic process of adaptability to the contextual factors (Verschueren, 2000) in communication. This study investigated contextual factors such as motivation and characteristics of language selection through interviews as well as transcripts. There were several obvious characteristics when students spoke mainly in English: (i) non-compulsory speech; (ii) irregular topics; (iii) non-normative verbal acts; and (iv) non-emotional words. Non-coercive speech had a high degree of credibility. But irregular topics had the big difference, and more affected by the social environment and the communication purpose, and often appeared in some new questions. As a result, students tended to use regular topics to make their point. Students were more likely to refer to words from Mandarin textbooks to ensure they communicated accurately, fluently, and appropriately. And the tendency to follow previous speakers also showed a dependence on the mother tongue.

The findings also echo to Giles' (2016) theory of speech adaptation, which indicates that speakers make language choice more in line with how they deal with English-Chinese differences or similarities. There are obvious differences between Chinese and English: English is a pinyin, whereas Chinese is not. English emphasizes clear meaning, strict structure, and precise words, while Chinese pays attention to subtle euphemism and humor. These two kinds of differences cause speakers to agree and accept the content and form of discourse to different degrees, which results in linguistic convergence. Linguistic convergence is reflected in linguistic consistency. Consistency can be understood as sameness or similarity, but cannot be equated. Linguistic convergence reflects a willingness to agree or please, and the more convergent the speaker, the more likely the language is to move toward the other. Language

deviations reflect the disapproval of the subject, and the further the speaker deviates, the greater the emotional distance between the two and the greater the likelihood of antagonism. Linguistic convergence leads to pragmatic errors in communication, which violate politeness principles such as cooperation. Pragmatic failure is caused by socio-cultural factors: first, national psychology; the second is thought patterns and values. In this case, almost all the students showed linguistic convergence.

Chinese language choices

For example, in Transcript 1:

S1: OK, if we are different. We are different opinions. Let's just talk about it, her character.

S3: Character 是什么 **[what does this word refer to]**?

S1: 性格 **[character]**。

S1: Let's find some sentences to prove her character.

In this example, S1 answered S3's question about the meaning of "character" in Chinese and wanted to continue the conversation in English, so S1 asked his partner to find sentences about the heroine's character in English. The reason for S1 to change from Chinese to English was because the discussion and the text were all based on English.

In Transcript 4:

S1: So, most students think Jo became a volunteer in PNG is a responsibility to work as a volunteer to help these in poor areas and share their knowledge with them. They also like to work as a volunteer in poor areas because some of them want to improve their social skills. And some want to share 真情 **[sincere feelings]** with them. It's all.

S1 did not consider the English expression of the topic and gave priority to the Chinese meaning, ignoring the descriptive norms in English. S1 later mentioned that it was not that he did not know the English word for "真情", but because the previous students expressed it in Chinese, he also chose Chinese to express his point of view for the continuity of the discussion. This was the result

of S1 being influenced by the speaker in front of him and changing his choice of language, a typical effect of the environment.

English language choices

In Transcript 4:

S4: Someone think the school is so poor, so they can... they can't get enough knowledge at school. And ... and the school is far from their house, so they may be dangerous in the way. The class is so 陈旧的 [**old**]. And the school was short of the computers and textbooks. Em...it's all.

S4 here quoted from the book, organized it, and made a list, clearly stating the reasons and justifications for not going. Quoting from the book in English better ensured its accuracy and completeness. The fact that the English text contained the original sentences stating the ideas was the main reason why S4 chose English. In addition, he did not use "old" instead of "陈旧的" in his description and showed that this was because the previous speaker did not use "old", and that the speaker and the English text together reflected the influence of the environment.

In Transcript 4:

S2: OK. In conclusion, someone think is 抵触 [**contradictive**], because they have no sense about the cleaning. But some students would feel like Jo, because she think the villagers are very hospitality...hospitable. And the other students said she would feel tired, because the way to the school are... is dangerous and so far, but she would feel more pleasant than tired because it's meaningful. OK.

In Transcript 1:

S2: But why she was run, pushing him away when the robots save her from the ladder?

S2: Look this sentence. "He held her firmly in his arms when she felt the warmth of his body. She screamed, pushed him away and ran to her room for the rest of the day". So, I don't think she would accept robot.

In Transcript 4, S2 restated the previous student's dialogue and did not

replace it with the appropriate English words to accurately express the core meaning of the sentence, and for another reason for lack of a better expression. In Transcript 1, S2 subconsciously asked questions in English here and pointed out the relevant sentences in the sentence. The English here was the key sentence that could refute his question and help him understand the relationship and inner emotions of the two main characters. A big reason for asking questions in English was because this was an English-language discussion group, and in addition, the text of the discussion was also in English, and using English could facilitate the discussion more.

In Transcript 3:

S2: They are also cooperation **[cooperative]**, because when the killer whales...hit the other killer whales, they may have a good feed, while the humans may some benefits from it.

S2 spoke in English as much as possible in order to minimize comprehension bias, but his responses clearly had shades of Chinese English. As a native Chinese speaker, S2's ability to express himself fluently in English suggested that he made a conscious choice to use English here in order to achieve better comprehension. The context of the discussion was the main reason for his choice to use English. Chinese, although able to express opinions more fluently, did not fit the topic of the English discussion.

In Transcript 2:

S1:我们先可以给点关键的词，比如说 **[We can start with some key words, for example]** endangered, plants and animals. And we can also write some...some...比如说，有什么动物灭绝了和即将灭绝。然后，写点我们之前讲述的...然后写点我们之前讲述的，然后写一篇作文。把讲义（模板）拿出来，一起来读 **[For example, what animals are extinct and going extinct. Then, write about what we talked about...Then, write about what we talked about before, and then write a composition. Take out your notes (templates) and read them together]**。

In today's class, we have discussed the reasons why the number of some _____ plants and animals has already _____ and some animals have already _____.

S3: Die out?

S2: Decrease, 因为前面是 **[Because the front is]** the number of, then die out.

S2 argued that he used "because the front is" at that time, and there was no need to use English. In addition, S2 thought it was normal to speak in Chinese under the influence of communication habits, with the purpose of using Chinese to introduce the words that followed in order to prove his point. S2's purpose of choosing Chinese here was to emphasize his point that follows, and S2 chose English to illustrate it because the text was in English. Therefore, the English text as an environmental factor influenced S2's choice.

In Transcript 1:

S4: 哦, 等会儿。等会儿, 我知道怎么说了, 就这样, 我知道怎么拍了 **[Oh, wait a minute. Wait a minute. I know what to say. That's it. I know how to shoot it]**。

S4: 哪个? 重.....重....**[which? Again....., again....]**

S4: The robot kissed the woman and they are fall in love (grammatical mistake).

S2: But why she was run, pushing him away when the robots save her from the ladder?

The English text had corresponding phrases that made it easier for the speaker to organize the language, and the spoken words on paper helped him understand the phrases. Chinese acted as a mediator and facilitator. The English text was the main reason why S4 chose to express himself in English, a side-effect that confirmed the influence of environmental resources on language choice. English helped him connect the text, connect meaning, articulate his point of view, and facilitate talk about the text and others' rebuttals to the point of view.

In Transcript 1:

S3: Then, Tony try his best to help, em, Claire. Em, Tony worked steadily on the improvements, and..., and when... when Clair fell off a ladder, and even though Tony was in the next room, he managed to catch her in time. This time, em, Claire, em, must feel very, em, sa... sa...safe and feel, em, feel the warm from Tony. So, I think Tony give Claire, em, Tony give Claire 什么个? 温...温暖的...那个精神... 精神和? 怎么说? **[Well, what? Wa... Warm... The spirit... spirit and? How to say?]**

S3 used the effect of readjustment to continue answering questions and return to the original English situation, allowing the conversation to proceed smoothly, clarifying ideas, and providing a clearer understanding of the psychology and behavior of the protagonist in the text. S3 appreciated the difference between Chinese and English, and could translate when communicating. From this case, I could see that in an English discussion environment, the discussant subconsciously and consciously applied the target language to continue the discussion. The fact that Chinese was rarely used in this case proves that the environment was also an important factor influencing the choice of discussants.

6.4 Summary

The main motivation for the choice of language in translanguaging is to make communication easier and to discuss the impact of the environment. The combination of these two factors leads speakers to express their opinions in different languages in order to be better understood by others involved in the conversation. In the case of this study, most students chose to express themselves in Chinese consciously, trying to prolong their time of thinking by expressing themselves in Chinese, either to avoid words they do not speak, or to answer other students' questions. As for English speaking, many students chose to use Chinese as an expression because Chinese has more advantages,

such as simplicity and brevity. In the English discussion, students chose English because it was more in line with the English environment and the language choice of the previous student. In order to continue the point of view of the previous classmate, it was likely that students would choose to speak in the same language form as the previous classmate. I found that if students did not know how to use these English expressions, they would not be able to complete the communication task well. In the process of communication, participants were often faced with the problem of choosing the most appropriate code, so the emergence of code-switching inevitably affected the smooth communication. They selected the appropriate language according to different communication environments, and if necessary, even mixed two codes to achieve the desired effect, but at the same time, their pragmatic function was changed by the overuse of some codes, which led to communication failure. In this chapter, I have analyzed the phenomenon of students' language choice in translanguaging and found that the ease of communication and the surrounding environment were the main reasons for their language choice.

Chapter 7 Discussions on the research questions

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapters have demonstrated the use of deductive and inductive methods for thematic analysis of translanguaging phenomena. In Chapter 7, the research questions will first be summarized based on these results. This is followed by a discussion of each research question. In addition, this section will discuss whether the results of this study are relevant to the understanding of the field. These analyses were obtained based on an empirical study of a large language collection and applied in practice.

By mapping the tensions between accepted theoretical statements and new ideas discovered in my findings, I exemplify actual students' translanguaging practices to demonstrate how the complex process of translanguaging influences students' linguistic features, language functions, and language choices linguistically, pragmatically, and socially, and why the translanguaging practice can be introduced to the pedagogical field and are essential to students' target language learning.

7.2 Summary of the findings

The purpose of this qualitative research was to study the three topics related with translanguaging, namely linguistic features, linguistic function, and language choices. The problem addressed in this research has not been addressed so much by prior researchers who have never attempted to investigate students' performance in translanguaging. The results of the study are based on a sample of students who previously participated in translanguaging research, mainly conducted based on a discussion forum.

Two linguistic features are stated in the study which are code-switching and borrowing. Code-switching is a special kind of communication tool that helps people to better express the information they need; it also allows users to read

original texts more clearly. Code-switching and borrowing often appear in interactive discussions between Chinese and English. This thesis has explored the different linguistic features and functions between Chinese and English. From a grammatical point of view, discussants often expressed their meanings in both Chinese and English; however, semantically, it was easier for them to understand and grasp English by using Chinese than English. Code-switching and borrowing usually do not take into account the effects of tense, person, and singular/plural. From a lexical point of view, noun conversion is often found in code-switching and borrowing, and it is mainly nouns that are borrowed. Adjectives and adverbs, for example, are also often found in code-switching or borrowing, since they all have specific usages.

Students use translanguaging in TBL for the following purposes: meaning negotiation function, information reconciliation, coherence and textuality, complementarity and sociality. From a textual perspective, meaning negotiation and information reconciliation aim at correcting and organizing the discussion so as to achieve topic coherence; coherence refers to the willingness and action of communicative parties to reach consensus on a common goal, including interactions between individuals as well as coordination within a group. Coherence emphasizes the importance of mutual understanding and trust between individuals. Coherence and structure, on the other hand, reflect a person's attitude and behavior toward the subject matter to be communicated. These are determined by the speaker and the listener and can, therefore, also be seen as an emotional or volitional response. Complementary and socialization, on the other hand, aims to fill in some of the gaps in the sentence formation process and to complete the social function. It is usually limited by culture, social background, gender, age, and many other factors, but its significance is very far-reaching. I needed to explore it from multiple perspectives to truly understand the meaning.

In the process of translanguaging, the main motivation for choosing a language is to make communication easier and to discuss the influence of

context. The combination of these two factors leads people to use different languages to express themselves in order to be better understood by others involved in conversations. When the same or close language is used, it becomes necessary to consider how this information will be conveyed to others. If attention is not paid to these details, then it is difficult to achieve the desired communication goals. During the communication process, participants are often faced with the problem of choosing the most appropriate code, so the presence of code switching inevitably affects the smooth flow of communication. They can choose the right language to achieve the desired result depending on the different communicative contexts, but simultaneously, they cannot ignore this possible cause of unnecessary trouble.

7.2.1 Research Question 1.1

What are the linguistic (grammatical and lexical) features of the students' use of Chinese and English in interaction?

The first research objective was to identify the linguistic (grammatical and lexical) features of the students' use of Chinese and English in interactions. Through observations, the data of students' Chinese and English language switching points were collected, and then, the ways of language switching were analyzed and classified. The findings suggested code-switching and borrowing were the main linguistic features of the study, and code-switching was used in three types: intra-sentence, inter-sentence, and tag switching (Azlan & Narasuman, 2013). Code-switching is the alternate use of more than one language or its variants in a conversation by one person. Borrowing is the process of adapting a word from one language for use in another language. Code-switching can take the form of fragments or sentences, and borrowing is usually a word. Borrowing is the process of importing linguistic items from one language system to another, a process that occurs at any time when two cultures come into contact. It includes both superficial borrowing of

phonological and lexical features, as well as grammatical and deep semantic borrowing. Borrowing is one of the key factors affecting learners' foreign language learning.

Since there are differences between the English and Chinese languages, many scholars have proposed various hypotheses to explain this cross-cultural communication style. Among them, mediated language theory, represented by Krashen and Sliger (1975), has received widespread attention and is considered to be a powerful tool for analyzing how L2 learners can effectively listen and speak through the use of the target language. This study explored the role of code-switching in communication, using "English + Chinese culture" as an example. The vast majority of respondents believed that their linguistic features in communication should be consistent with the communicator's intended effect, i.e., to be able to communicate effectively by understanding and accepting their point of view. This intention was found to be often ignored, and they focused more on the expressive effect of the words themselves and whether interlocutors agreed on the content of the topic or made a judgment based on the actual situation. However, if the necessary preparation is lacking, this desire may not be realized even if certain specific information is known. Therefore, respondents tended to choose more appropriate expressions. Since many people cannot express themselves accurately due to different cultural backgrounds, Chinese people often need to resort to some special sentences to improve the intuitiveness of their language expressions in daily communication. For example, although some questions can be answered with "I", sometimes they have to use "I" in order to say them, while Americans often have to use "I" in order to say the answers. These factors often lead to linguistic errors in cross-cultural communication.

In intra-sentence transitions, it was found that students largely switched from English to Chinese in their communication. Most respondents used incomplete sentence structures, missing subjects, determiners, and other grammatical errors in their discussions, but this was not relevant to their

perspectives. When respondents encountered a collision between two code-frames during the intra-sentence code-switching process, they tended to discard the embedded grammatical features of the embedded segments for convenience and economy in order to better fit the grammatical framework of the language pool. Nouns remained marked and noun phrases lost their markers. Respondents performed code-switching and borrowing most frequently for nouns, especially proper nouns. The purpose of noun conversion is to make the language more concise and clearer, with a specific meaning. Noun conversions usually occur inside or outside of sentences, and their meanings are often related to the original concept, sometimes at the beginning or end of the sentence. Most of these nouns are switched by participants to perform certain functions, such as instructions, lexical explanations, or terminological translations. During the discussion, participants sometimes switched codes to elicit unfamiliar nouns, which were often embedded in English. In addition, since Chinese nouns do not have the concept of quantity, while English nouns do have the concept of quantity. Therefore, when switching from Chinese to English, respondents often overlooked the singular and plural of nouns, resulting in pragmatic errors, and when switching from English to Chinese, the singular and plural features of nouns were lost. Participants also used confusing discourse code conversion rules in their communication, and mostly by imitating them.

In my study, it was also found that students used intra-sentence conversion very frequently, followed by inter-sentence conversion. Grammatically, the adverb where the code-switching occurred is usually located at the beginning of a sentence. In Chinese, adverbs are usually located after the subject, except for emotional adverbs and some temporal adverbs. Participants used English adjectives as the center of the sentence, dominating the subject relations of Chinese nouns and pronouns. This suggests that the substitution between English and Chinese changes the syntactic function of the phrase, making English adjectives more dominant than monolingual adjectives. This is also true

in Chinese. In my study, the inter-sentence transition occurred in the middle of a sentence, bounded by a comma. Both the beginning and the end of a sentence can be marked by a comma, but in different positions, the former being inserted from the front to the back in the empty space that follows, and the latter being in the front. In general, English adjectives often appear as bilingual adjective phrases, which, according to the rules of Chinese, are direct predicates and do not appear in systematic terminology. Adjective phrase conversions, while not violating Chinese rules, defy the strict linguistic conventions of the Chinese language. Making a conversion at the end of a discussion not only helps to end the interaction but may also help to emphasize a point. Students used appositive transitions as a reinforcement strategy to emphasize words, keep the listener's attention, and drive focus and action. Appositives can also be used as sentence fillers to guide or redirect the flow of the conversation without adding any meaning to the discourse. In most of the cases discussed, discourse markers are syntactically independent, that is, they can be removed from a sentence and still remain structurally intact. Thus, discourse markers are very common in students' oral communication.

Borrowing is the diffusion of a linguistic form from one language to another, and this diffusion is not a personal act. Students use borrowing as one of the most common rhetorical devices. In many examples, borrowing is very common. In English grammar, verbs have many different types of borrowings. These borrowings have both a pragmatic function and reflect specific grammatical structural features. It can also be misleading to users, causing them to misinterpret certain words. A borrowed word is a word from another language, usually a single word, that is incorporated into the vocabulary of the target language rather than a word or phrase created by a person. In the study, students borrowed words in English mainly by direct borrowing and by indirectly introducing words or phrases in the target language through borrowing, phonetic translation, and paraphrasing. Chinese borrowing, on the other hand, uses Chinese characters as the carrier, but its meaning is different from the

general borrowing of words. Borrowed words have the following characteristics: a) they are derived from the native language; b) they are not influenced by any foreign words; and c) they are not related to the target context.

Chinese borrowings are mainly in the form of parts of speech and proper nouns. Due to the cultural differences between English and Chinese, there are a large number of synonyms between English and Chinese languages, of which "English borrowing" is the most common example. From the semantic point of view, "English loanwords" include both the expression of specific meanings in the original language and the specific features of the things referred to in the original language. "Chinese loanwords", on the other hand, reflect more of the author's interpretation of the original text. In some special cases, the use of Chinese loanwords can help listeners better understand and appreciate the text. The use of words from other cultures can be complementary. Since there is no correspondence between cultures, lexical borrowing is a labor-saving and convenient way to complement a large number of proper names, such as names of people, places, and other words that have no correspondence in other cultures.

Students appropriately borrow words from other cultures, especially "culturally rich words" that can serve as eye-catching and salient in the process of cross-cultural communication. Students also employ temporary borrowing as a rhetorical device used in place of the subject, and the borrowed language component is used when there is no substitute or other word in the subject. Temporary borrowing is generally more effective than directly replacing the original English with Chinese; in addition, there are certain linguistic risks associated with the temporary borrowing method. If the user cannot grasp the proper usage, it may lead to mistranslation. In addition, there are some problems with temporary loanwords, such as lack of standardization and inconsistency. In the group discussions, members often used temporary borrowings when discussing the content of the text, and mainly took words from the English language. Temporary borrowings depend on the source text, whose

grammatical structure and expressions constrain the speaker's expressions. Temporary borrowings are characterized by a wide range of lexical sources, a variety of word formations, and flexibility in use.

In summary, code-switching and borrowing are linguistic (grammatical and lexical) features of the students' use of Chinese and English in their interactions. Code-switching and borrowing generally do not change the structure of sentences, but they do cause changes in the morphology and form of words and may result in changes in certain vocabulary or syntactic functions. Students use code-switching and borrowing to avoid the lack of necessary semantic relationships that make text details difficult to understand and prevent users from expressing their meaning accurately.

In addition, the Chinese language has many complex and difficult expressions, such as punctuation, adverbs, and adjectives, and students use code-switching and borrowing to reduce the complexity of these words and make them easier to understand. Chinese itself has a rich variety of sentence types, and each person's cultural level varies greatly in its use, and learners need to acquire a certain level of linguistic knowledge to deal with problems that arise in different situations. In addition, reading the text allows readers to gain a deeper understanding of the text and, thus, deepen their memory and analysis of key information in the text. The grammatical and structural changes in students' communication help them to better link and understand the content of the preceding and following texts.

7.2.2 Research Question 1.2

For what communicative purposes do students use translanguaging in English language TBL?

The second research objective was to identify communicative purposes for which students use translanguaging in English language TBL. Meaning negotiation, information regulation, coherence and structure, and

complementary and social functions, were communicative purposes students used for translanguaging in English language TBL. From the textual point of view, the purpose of meaning negotiation and information regulation is to correct and organize the content of the discussion while the purpose of coherence and structure is to ensure the continuity and comprehension of the conversation, and the purpose of complementarity and socialization is to fill in some missing in the process of sentence formation and to accomplish the social function (Tódor, 2019). By negotiating meaning, students can obtain more comprehensible input, modify, and adjust the discourse so that the discourse output is maximally accepted by other group members in an appropriate and reasonable linguistic form, and ultimately influence their speech acts. It also improves communicators' ability to use vocabulary and grammar when communicating with others. Meaningful negotiation facilitates group members' learning from other members, thus, promoting foreign language learners' mastery and learning of the target language (Foster & Ohta, 2005). In terms of information moderation, members continuously acquire each other's views and opinions through communication to enhance their own understanding of the text. In addition, information moderation helps participants gain new understandings from the environment. In terms of the structure of the discussion, coherence and textuality allowed participants to communicate in a hierarchical and more fluid manner. In terms of the purpose of the discussion, complementary and social functions made participants' sentence expressions complete in meaning and more acceptable to others.

Students in the meaning negotiation mostly corrected their output due to semantic impairment. This result can be explained in two ways. One of the reasons may be related to the factors that play a major role in interactions. In linguistic communication, it is often the vocabulary, rather than the lexis or syntax, which is not the vehicle for communication, that raises barriers to comprehension. In other words, it is the vocabulary that plays a key role in the interaction, because the expression of ideas can be achieved through

ungrammatical grammatical forms and language that is inappropriate from a sociolinguistic point of view. The second reason may be related to the students' attention in correcting the output. As previously mentioned, Long (1996) emphasizes the important role of selective attention in negotiating meaning in the interaction hypothesis. Learners are limited by their own level, which, together with limited attentional resources, results in negotiated interactions in which they can only devote limited attention to the representation of meaning and to the relevant part of the corrected output. The meaning negotiation strategies used by the students in TBL English communication were repetition, confirmation, restructuring, comprehension checking, and clarification requests. The occurrence of meaning negotiation requires one of interlocutors to be more expressive of the language. First, speakers are in a disparate relationship, i.e., one speaker has a higher linguistic ability than the others. At the same time, negotiation for acquisition purposes occurs less frequently or even disappears when interlocutors' linguistic and related encyclopaedic knowledge approaches an overlap. Second, as the language learner's language ability increases, the level of negotiation will gradually increase, but its frequency will also tend to decrease. Moreover, this process is an important manifestation of the "internalization" process of language learning. Of course, under the influence of a particular topic or context, the strongest individual in the conversation may also be transformed by leaps and bounds. The negotiation process, as part of the communication of the target language, enables learners to use the language and put their acquired language knowledge into a practical application cycle, so that language acquisition can gradually move from the systematic stage to the automatic stage and accelerate the internalization of language knowledge, thus, achieving the goal of effective learning.

The students realize the pragmatic function by means of rhetorical questions. In the case, there is a certain pattern of correspondence between the perspective from which the speaker coordinates the common context and the meaning of the rhetorical question. Whether the rhetorical question is doubtful

or unquestionable is rooted in whether it is a B-event, i.e., whether it is based on B's information about the event. If B is the most authoritative person to answer the question, then B may interpret the question as a question from A to B. "Shouldn't they make recommendations to the government, and make the laws?" If it were an A-event, it would mean "they should make recommendations to the government and make the laws". The purpose of rhetorical questions is not to gain information, but to induce the recipient to mentally agree that the implied assertion is true (Moshavi, 2014). But if it is a B-event, then B has a more authoritative answer to "Shouldn't they make recommendations to the government, and make the laws?" B can interpret the sentence as A asking whether the recommendations should be made to the government first, and then the government should solve the problem, and the direction of the discourse will be B's answer to the question of the order of making the recommendations. Therefore, the sentence of a B-event may be a question, creating the appearance of a doubtful expression of the rhetorical question.

The type of event to which the rhetorical question relates, i.e., whether it concerns the speaker's event information or the addressee's event information, has a tendency to be characterized by linguistic form and corresponds to the pragmatic function of the rhetorical question. The pragmatic values of rhetorical questions used by the students in this study can be summarized as refutation, reminder, and courtesy. Rhetorical questions are used between people of equal status to express the speaker's negative position toward the listener, and "reminding and polite" are polite behaviors, while "refuting and displeasing" are impolite behaviors. I believe that the reason for the opposite conclusion is that the function of rhetorical questions is interpreted from the perspective of A-events and B-events, and that there is a hierarchy of politeness in rhetorical questions.

Coherence and textuality fulfil the linguistic function of discourse. Coherence means that the speaker relates the intended meaning to the chosen

communicative object and makes it organically integrated into the whole. Structure represents the specific form of this relationship. In discourse, people use various ways to organize sentences in order to produce coherence. Articulation is one of the most basic means. Articulation can be achieved through different modes of connection. The rotation of speakers is the most direct unit that constitutes the coherence of the group discussion. Therefore, coherence between discussions becomes another important condition for the coherence of discourse. The speaker's speech usually consists of several independent sentences or groups of sentences, which usually form a centripetal structure centered on a single sentence. The overall coherence of the discussion is largely reflected in the relationship between these centripetal structures and the topic of the discussion, i.e., macro-structural coherence refers to the reciprocal relationship between the topic of the discussion and the content expressed by the components of the discussion throughout the conversation. In addition, usually a speaker will have a clear central or thematic idea of the topic. For learners' bilingual discussions, a speaker's expression may have two or even more topic centers due to its mediated linguistic features. And there is often a logical relationship between these topic centers, i.e., each topic contains some related themes, but does not appear in isolation. That is, all topics are not completely independent of each other. They are related and complementary to each other. For the sake of the overall coherence of the group discussion, the topic center of one speaker's discussion is closely connected to the topic center of another speaker or to the topic of discussion in an intrinsically logical way.

In this case, if students are interested in a particular issue, they will take the initiative to bring up the topic that they think is most important. Conversely, even the same student will choose the topic that suits his or her needs depending on the topic. This shows the importance of the articulation mechanism in the learning process for the learners, and that the degree of coherence has an impact on the students' comprehension, and that language with low coherence and structure will lead to delays in comprehension (Horiba,

1996). In addition, due to their language level, students may experience pauses and communication difficulties in their bilingual discussions, which may affect the overall coherence of the discussion. In the group discussion, students did not choose to substitute English for Chinese when using words such as “true feelings”, but rather maintained the consistency of the words and the structure of the discussion. Speakers used pragmatic markers to organize individual, incoherent units of speech into a coherent text.

Complementary and social linguistic function of translanguaging appear in grammatical and semantic terms. When students talk about an issue or give a certain opinion, they often involve many forms of discourse about that issue or opinion. This also makes it possible for everyone to use certain methods to obtain as much information as possible through various means (e.g., oral expressions, written expressions) according to their own understanding, without having to rely on those complicated grammatical knowledge, thus, enabling them to obtain relevant information and facts more easily. At the same time, every member in the communication needs to establish a way of communication in order to achieve a common purpose, and this way of communication is interpersonal communication. In this process, students are constantly learning each other’s expressions and techniques and are able to be flexible and adaptable. Learners provide explanations or additional information in their native language to help other learners understand the previous presentations more accurately. Supplementing the meaning of Chinese words with English words that have the same meaning categories as Chinese words is the complementary explanatory function of code-switching and the most economical means of communication. In this role, students can use English symbols to indicate different meanings to meet different needs and improve the efficiency of communication. Speakers are better able to express what they really mean to each other and avoid misunderstandings in communication. However, the lack of some guidance can lead to failed conversations or even conflicts, because speakers are unable to identify the concepts represented by

any word or sentence and it is difficult to determine which words contain certain specific word meanings. When talking about specific ideas or topics of thought, participants habitually use code-switching so that others can better understand.

In some cases, code-switching not only brings convenience to people, but also helps improve the quality of the conversation. Group members often use Chinese, which is more familiar to everyone, or English, which appears in the text, to present their ideas during discussions. The purpose of this is to bring each other closer psychologically, hopefully maintaining a rapport, and the discussion among the interlocutors becomes closer as the code changes. At the end of the discussion, if someone feels that a particular sentence is not said appropriately, it can be changed to another paragraph, thus, generating a new discussion to further deepen the understanding between people.

Taken together, the four language functions of negotiation of meaning, information regulation, coherence and structure, and complementary and social functions help students to understand the text more deeply and to correct the output more meaningfully. These aspects form an organic whole that interacts, reinforces, and constrains each other to achieve the overall goal of TBL, which is for group members to understand the speaker's intentions. The integrity of the sentences and the overall coherence and structure of the discussion are also ensured, giving everyone the opportunity to participate in the discussion. As a final point, many complex grammatical rules are simplified thanks to code-switching, making it less difficult for learners. In addition, the social function is one of the linguistic functions (e.g., through interpersonal interaction, mutual communication, etc.), which is important for solving cross-cultural communication problems, such as cultural identity.

7.2.3 Research Question 1.3

Why do students make their linguistic choices when translanguaging in English language TBL?

The third research objective was to identify reasons why students make their linguistic choices when translanguaging in English language TBL. The main factors that influence students' language choices are ease of communication, and contextual resources. The combination of these two factors lead to people using different languages to express their ideas in order to be better understood by others involved in the conversation. In the group discussions, most students consciously chose to express themselves in Chinese rather than English because they knew how to use an appropriate way to express their ideas. Students tried to extend their thinking time by expressing themselves in Chinese, either to avoid words they did not know, or to answer other students' questions, etc. Many students chose to express themselves in Chinese because it has more advantages, such as convenience and brevity. These factors contributed for the students to choose to use Chinese (Hari et al., 2016). But there were also students who, on the contrary, tended to choose English expressions because they allowed them to express their answers more clearly. In the English discussion, students chose English because it was more in line with the English environment and the language choices of the previous students. In order to continue the coherence of the discussion, students were likely to choose to speak in the same form of language as the previous student, and they also interacted using expressions easy to understand in order to increase the sense of conversation and improve participation.

The study finds that if students have no idea about how to use these English expressions to express themselves, then communication in the true sense of the word is not possible. When I need to convey a message or make a suggestion to someone, I must consider whether the other persons can understand and accept it. This is because students usually believe that the only way to get satisfactory feedback is to express information in words, so there is little opportunity to let other members know what you think. During the communication process, students are often faced with the problem of choosing the most appropriate code, so the appearance of code switching inevitably

affects the smooth flow of communication. They can choose the appropriate language for different communicative environments, and even mix two codes if necessary to achieve the desired effect, but at the same time, their practical functions may change due to the overuse of certain codes, for example: communication difficulties due to reasons such as not knowing a certain language or habitually being unable to talk to others; or some people's lack of understanding of a certain type of language, etc. All these situations can result in communication breakdown. Communication facilitation is an influential factor that depends on the objective choices of the speaker. The speaker may try to choose a language that the listener understands and apply it to a real situation in order to achieve the purpose of communication, depending on the language ability of the listener. For example, when you greet someone, if the person does not speak Chinese, then you can use English instead, which is a more appropriate way. Another important factor is the effectiveness of the communication because there are many details in the communication process, so the speaker often has many different ideas that are not accepted by others. However, if you can understand someone correctly, it is a very beneficial thing for them. Because they know what they want or what they want to do, they can deal with the problem better. And, because of these differences, conversations between people are usually more fluid and natural than they would be in other situations. Of course, this advantage is not innate, but is cultivated in life. For example, I often see some excellent speakers. Not only do they have strong expressive skills, but they also have good interpersonal coordination and a certain sense of teamwork. In addition, speakers generally choose the language they are good at when communicating so that they can express themselves more comfortably and accurately.

The speaker's linguistic ability and the speaker's willingness are also important; the larger the personal language pool, the more linguistic choices need to be made before using the language. Highly proficient bilinguals in code-switching tasks will experience code-switching cost symmetry as they are

close in proficiency in both languages, they are direct access mechanisms in lexical selection, and the lexical extraction process is similar to monolinguals. The “language-specific selection hypothesis” can explain that high proficiency bilinguals can directly extract the target vocabulary and consider that after the activation of the bilinguals’ lexical systems in both languages, the bilinguals only consider the activated vocabulary in the target language, while the activated vocabulary in the non-target language is not selected, so that the activated vocabulary in the non-target language does not interfere with the extraction of words in the target language, and they do not have the ability to interfere with the extraction of words in the target language, so there is no need to suppress the non-target language. The cognitive flexibility of bilinguals’ switching mechanisms suggests that the language-specific selection hypothesis emerges when the switching task includes a language with high proficiency, and also suggests that language proficiency is one of the factors affecting the cost of switching. When bilinguals are using a lower-level language, the strongest competitor is the other lower-level language, not the higher-level language. Language proficiency in both language comprehension and output tasks affects the extraction of target words. The cognitive flexibility of bilinguals’ switching mechanisms suggests that switching tasks when including a language with high proficiency is consistent with the language-specific choice hypothesis. Therefore, the inhibitory control model and the language-specific selection hypothesis do not account for all the emergent results.

In a wide range, contextual resources can be parents’ education, income, and any environmental factors. Swedish studies show that not only the parents’ education level, but also whether they receive supplementary social benefits is important for children’s scores (Björklund, 2010). In this study, contextual resources are defined as a set of factors that are thought to influence participants’ language choices in classroom interactions, including words and phrases in textbooks and what their peers say. That is, props can be borrowed

when explaining vocabulary and this approach is a better choice for students to learn vocabulary.

However, in the specific teaching process, students do not always find props that match the vocabulary they are explaining, and they need to explain in Chinese. If the explanation is in the target language and the questioner does not understand it, it is necessary to use the language common to other students to assist the explanation. That is, the first speaker starts the discussion in English, then one student confirms the information to the first speaker in Chinese, and the second speaker follows the previous student's Chinese and answers the question in Chinese. For example, in this reported study, S1 later mentioned that it was not that he failed to know the English word for "true feelings", but because the previous student expressed it in Chinese, he also chose to express himself in Chinese for the sake of continuity of the discussion. This is a typical environmental effect of S1 being influenced by the speaker in front of him and changing his choice of language. In these two cases, the later speaker's following the students' language expressions was done unconsciously and naturally and became a linguistic habit of the participants. The code-switching in the group discussions was done in response to the linguistic ability of the participants, the psychological motivation of the students, and their linguistic habits. The code-switching was done consciously for the students' linguistic ability and for the students' individual psychological motivation, while the code-switching was done unconsciously for the language habits. The fact that English texts contain original sentences stating an opinion also makes the speaker prefer English. For non-native English speakers, the time and effort required to process the English text into Chinese for comprehension or output was significant, so participants preferred to express their meaning directly in the original English. The requirement of the group discussions to express in English was a prerequisite for the students' choice of English expression. This forced the participants to consider how to use English as much as possible to meet their communicative needs.

As previously mentioned, language choice, environmental resources, and communication convenience interact closely. The purpose of communication is an essential criterion for language choice and an important influencing factor for environmental resources, but the convenience of communication needs to be reflected and realized through language choice and safeguarded and brought into play through environmental resources. The environmental resources can be managed through appropriate language management so that different language values can be put to good use at different times and in different areas, thus, guiding and regulating people's language choices, but the formulation and implementation of environmental resources cannot ignore the fact that the purpose of language communication and the tendency of language choices make much difference to the target language learning.

7.2.4 The influence of translanguaging

Two theories provide a basis where students use translanguaging in service of target language learning. For example, Vygotsky's theory of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (1978) regards language as a prime mediator to bridge two levels of learning distance, one is the actual level of what students already know or can do while the other one is the potential level of what they will be able to master when provided with scaffolding from a knowledgeable peer or teacher (Vygotsky, 1978). Based on his notion of ZPD, Moll (2014) puts forward the concept of "Bilingual Zone of Proximal Development", which is considered a space where bilingual students are provided with strategic scaffolding in using the target language based on their actual language development level to achieve their proximal level. Moll's theory provides a theoretical framework for Li's (2011) concept of translanguaging space, which is referred to be socially constructed contexts where students make use of their linguistic resource creatively and critically to communicate strategically.

Interactionist theory reveals the positive role of interaction in meaning negotiation based on the tasks. Besides, linguistic form of both English and

Chinese is paid attention to describing what grammatical and lexical features of Chinese and English used in interactions. Through meaning negotiation, linguistic conversational adjustment will be made to promote comprehensive input. Finally, the generic skill of learning how to learn, language shift, and language choice are focused on to reveal the communicative purpose of using Chinese and English in students' interactions and the reasons why they choose the other language.

While ZPD was originally developed to portray children's language development abilities, it is most impressive when students create personal and relational experiences of the possibility or potential to construct knowledge under the guidance or support of a "more knowledgeable other" during the learning process (Walsh, 2006). That is, if students can solve problems independently as one level, another potential level of development can be reached with guidance from others or cooperation with their peers. Vygotsky argues that the distance or difference between these two levels, with language as the main mediator, can be reduced by the dynamic interaction between intramental activities and intermental activities. In addition, both students' collective thinking and individual thinking can complement each other.

Another theory closely giving my research a new perspective is based on Ellis' (1991) revised version of Long's (1981) Interaction Hypothesis (IH). He argues that modifying students' initial output helps the process of integration and enables acquisition. Krashen's input hypothesis (1982) and Swain's output hypothesis (1985) are fused in the current form of IH as features. Interactionist theory discloses that particularly in face-to-face interactions, the use of communicative skills, the negotiation of meaning, and outcomes of participating in discourse are under the influence of the TBL acquisition process. As for the interactive approach, Gass and Mackey (2007) further explain that the reason why interaction promotes acquisition lies in students' selective attention to the use of new words or grammatical structures, as well as the problematic characteristics of language generation.

Informed by these two influential theories, translanguaging, indeed, improves their understanding in meaning negotiation based on the tasks with more comprehensive input engaged. It also helps students construct knowledge in communications with complementary thinking involved. More importantly, it makes it possible for students to be well aware that their shortcomings of language learning and the lack of target language will provide ideological preparation and feed-back effect for new and important target language elements.

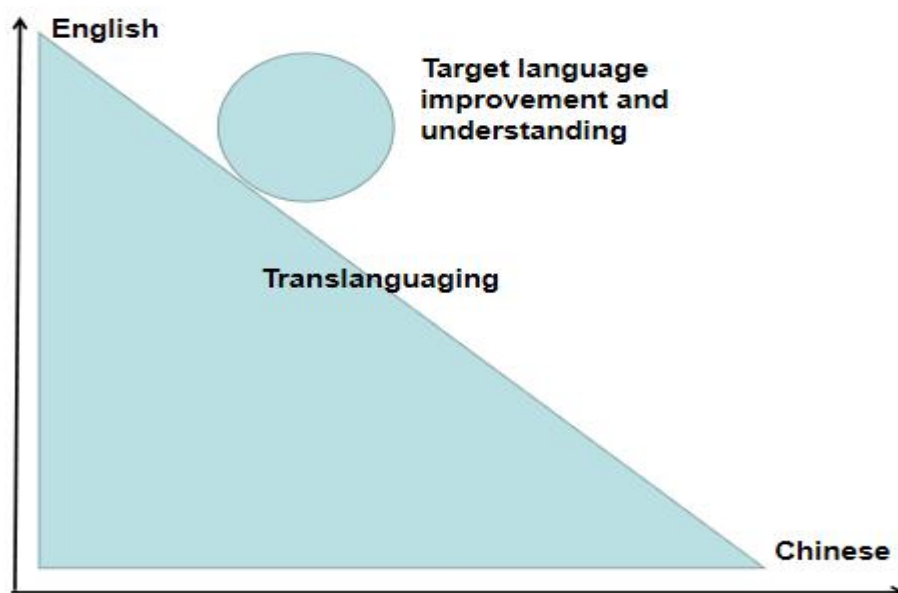
Task itself is an important prerequisite and basic carrier to promote students' understanding, communication, and target language learning. What the task is like determines what content students will talk about or what language elements they will use, and what kind of learning effect they can achieve. For example, when they talked about the topic "the future of cloning technology", some questions are designed to show students opinions about the likelihood of the development of this technology as well as its impact on human being. In the process of discussion, they will use some functional language to express agreement or disagreement, trying to make their opinions more convincing and reasonable. They also use words related to the topic, whether they are new or have been mastered. In the end, students get close to the goal of target language learning in the process of completing the task.

In my research, tasks were used to drive students to make use of many categories of interactions in translanguaging to promote target language use. Translanguaging space based on TBL interaction plays an inevitably but necessary role in transforming bilingual worlds. Li (2011) refers to a translanguaging space as a transformative power since new identities, values, and practices are always produced and combined abidingly. Embracing both creativity and criticality, translanguaging has its own function for students to shuttle between repertoires in their task management, meaning negotiation, linguistic form focus, skills learning, language shift and choice for effectiveness of the target language use.

In the process of student interactions, translanguaging space is like a triangle between the tendency of each language use as their use of English or Chinese in translanguage increases or decreases. For example, while their use of English decreases, students' understanding of meanings, or the target language use will also change with the change of hypotenuse's angle (Figure 7.1).

Figure 7.1

Translanguaging space



To be more specific, in the case of a one-way task, the extent to which students translanguage depends on the burden of completing the task placed on the one who holds the information as others who contribute their knowledge by showing their understanding and effective engagement. However, all the students should be obliged to participate in order to promote the task completion in a two-way task. A one-way task tends to be easier for students to operate on but less common in producing translanguaging in their management, which is more relatively challenging and interactive in two-way tasks. However, Long (1989, p. 13) claims that "two-way tasks produce more useful negotiation

work than one-way tasks". In some sense, there are students tend to deal with a wide range of cognitive processing to integrate all linguistic elements in figuring out what is about, how information is learned, and why they are shifting language choices, which offers the possibilities of promoting the target language use.

In their task management, students translanguage to share opinions that do not require reasoning but bridge the gap between the known and the unknown in collaborative context tasks while students use translanguaging to make connections between pieces of information which is used to question, deduce, and evaluate in argumentative context tasks. Students are expected to be in harmony with or accommodate all the optional processes triggered in translanguaging space whose reliance on collaborative work or argumentative work.

Focusing on the content, students are more likely to be exposed to initial prediction in the light of their own perception instead of meaning generation in reaction to a particular contextualized task. Therefore, translanguaging functions as a provider of this kind of association guarantee that students can mobilize the knowledge in translanguaging space especially if there is a rather robust group of undecided and dissenting content to deal with. Besides, students seek to conform to two ways in English and Chinese to organize the meaning by translanguaging in negotiation.

As for dealing with linguistic form, students meet an amount of grammatical and lexical clusters as a stumbling block or a lubricant for linguistic advancement, which depends on the task at hand in their interactions. Students may need to sacrifice themselves to identify gaps in their language use (Foster, 1998) and confront themselves with language problems such as communication breakdowns or difficulties (Long, 1985). In communications, Skiba (1997) holds positive views about code-switching because it works as a linguistic advantage that provides continuity in speech rather than presenting an interference in language, aiming to compensate for a language difficulty.

When it comes to language function in translanguaging, one approach to conceptualizing communication was used by van Ek (1977), drawing on the work of Wilkins (1972), for devising threshold levels for a common European framework for language learning. The approach comprises functions and notions. Functions refer to the purposes of communication, such as informing, negotiating, debating, explaining, connecting, reasoning, socializing, and so on. Notions refer to concepts that include time, spatial relationships, and other forms of understanding experience. For this thesis, the concept of functions was used for analyzing the students' purposes in using a particular language.

In regard to students' language choices, my findings also indicate that due to communicative needs or language conditions of students, translanguaging, indeed, links their subjective cognition of the task with objective resources surrounding them, finally promoting efficient communications. Making flexible use of both English and Chinese, students cling to tasks and adapt themselves in a combination of their personal decisions in TBL interactions to reach a certain standard of a good language learner performing the target language use in general. Regarding what to do to facilitate learning in the context they find themselves, a good learner is one who takes personal decisions, in an implicit or explicit manner (Grenfell & Harris, 1999, p. 39), and overwhelmingly examines the relationship between the target language use and their choice with two languages simultaneously immersed.

Referring to translanguaging' influence on students' English learning, students create a platform where they interact spontaneously but intentionally in order to cut across the field to make a balance between two languages and solve unexpected problems. Mutual intercomprehensibility can be achieved while translanguaging further promote their explanatory and descriptive power in students' interactions. This kind of interaction helps explore another interpersonal space where "minds meet and new understanding can arise through collaborative interaction or inquiry" (Cummins, 2005, p. 105). More importantly, translanguaging makes up for the linguistic fixity that often occurs

in traditional single-language classrooms by developing connections between two language systems.

Chapter 8 Implications and Conclusion

In this closing chapter, I reflect on practical implications for students in English learning as well as teachers in English pedagogy. This chapter also examines the limitations of the research, with an attempt for future researchers to improve their research. Recommendations are also offered for their future research, inspiring what they should do to greet the best effectiveness.

8.1 Implications for practice

This section focuses on implications of how my research informs pedagogical work and students' English learning. One aspect is about how my research can help English teachers in China and the other is about how my research can help Chinese students in their English learning.

As for pedagogical implications, English teachers in China should not prevent Chinese students' using Chinese language in English Learning. It is more likely that this will hinder students' learning English. Instead, teachers should encourage students to use Chinese to express meanings while using English in order to achieve the best communicative effects. When teachers are designing tasks, they should take it into account that tasks should not be too difficult for students. The reason is that the difficulty of tasks directly affects their motivation for English learning, not mention to use Chinese to learn English. If necessary, teachers may even provide the necessary scaffolding, such as bilingual rules, to enable students to learn and perform tasks in both languages.

Another implication is that English teachers in China should make full use of the functions of translanguaging to promote students' English learning initiative. They are mainly reflected in the following aspects, which can help students understand the target language information, avoid communicative interruptions, and make the members' communication effective. It can create a harmonious

atmosphere, relieve students' tension, and make them willing to actively participate in classroom teaching activities.

As for students, translanguaging changes their way of English learning as they use translanguaging for comprehensive language input, experimental expression, and meaningful language output. The reason is that students' limited language skills in the target language do not allow them to express themselves completely in English. While comprehensible language input plays an important role in language acquisition, students must receive as much comprehensible input as possible in addition to meaningful language output in order to achieve accuracy and fluency in the use of the target language. For students, English acquisition cannot only be achieved through attempts to use English. Students' output in the form of translanguaging enables them to pay attention to the language forms that express meaning, to accumulate the target language vocabulary, and to improve and expand their knowledge of grammar. With the accumulation of students' knowledge and learning ability, meaningful language output becomes richer and richer, and students' Chinese language ability will be enhanced.

At the same time, through TBL's translanguaging, students can clarify their strengths and weaknesses in the target language learning and application, whether they have deviations in vocabulary or grammar, so that they can clarify the focus and direction of their learning and conduct targeted learning. Facing weaknesses in English learning or the times when students are not aware of what they are doing, students should turn this situation into an advantage in language learning. Therefore, when working in groups, it is important to try to make the groups more effective by making the information available to all members and being able to communicate with each other. Translanguaging provides students with a space for flexibility of learning through English and Chinese and a means of extending the use of Chinese purposefully and sympathetically into the proficiency of English and the understanding of meaning.

In response to the research questions, linguistic features can be fully made use of to promote the target language learning. Language diversity needs to be aware of and students need to develop critical consciousness about this diversity. Students combine different modes of English and Chinese into a whole language as a full linguistic and semiotic repertoire to make meaning by selecting features strategically to communicate effectively and softening boundaries between languages at the cost of language diversity. Language functions such as meaning negotiation, information reconciliation, coherence and textuality, and complementary and social function can be gained for students to bridge the gap between the English and Chinese languages, and also the gap between students themselves and focused information. Translanguaging is a good way for students to seek connections where miscommunication threatens. Students' making language choices in translanguaging is a dynamic balanced process where they can make use of what they have known to know what they want to know. In this process, they should constantly adjust their linguistic resources to engage themselves in the comprehensive input.

There is a close interaction between language choice, environmental resources, and communicative convenience. The purpose of communication is a crucial criterion for language choice and an important influencing factor for environmental resources, but the ease of communication needs to be reflected and manifested through language choice and safeguarded and brought into play through environmental resources.

In conclusion, the use of translanguaging in the English context of group discussion ensures that the participants convey and receive the most adequate information to make the communication go smoothly. It plays an important role in the interactions of students as a communicative strategy for the active use of language for expression and is needed for both teaching and learning and conveying information both inside and outside classrooms.

8.2 Limitations of the research

Although the study was designed to be as robust as possible, limitations were inevitable. The reliability of this study depended on the honesty and memory of the respondents in providing the requested information. During the data collection, some respondents may have been reluctant to provide relevant information that may have been needed, and some may have been biased or provided inaccurate information. It is also possible that participants failed to answer all of the questions, which may have been intentional misstatements or unintentional ones. In addition, this study had a small number of participants and a small scope, and it resulted in a study with a specific sample size. In other words, the results of this study should not be generalized as a whole because it only included a small number of students, and the results of this study may be unique to this particular sample. Based on the nature of the interviews in this study, the results may not be substitutable or generalizable because different sociocultural backgrounds may have led to different analyses or results. For example, students from different grade levels and different regions may hold different ideas about which language to apply in discussions about communication. Time and cost constraints were also factors of this study. For example, researchers may face problems in organizing discussions due to the pandemic that was prevalent. Group discussions are often facilitated with pre-determined questions, making them more like an in-group survey than an interactive discussion. It is now common for discussions to have more questions, thus, reducing the time available for participants to respond, and for facilitators to feel rushed and unable to carefully detect nuanced responses. Thus, respondents may not be representative, and analysis of the results may be subjective and shallow.

At present, scholars have paid little attention to the phenomenon of translanguaging and language choice in English contexts, which is in its infancy, coupled with the difficulty of collecting the data. For one thing, the data in this

study were recorded in audio, and there were inevitably omissions or errors in the recordings. Secondly, although this study collected the relevant data from many sources, the scope was still not extensive and comprehensive, so a lot of collection and research work still needs to be done. Thirdly, since Chinese as a language contains rich and complex grammatical components, I believe that it was not easy to study its semantic structure in-depth, especially when considering pragmatics. In addition, some of the ideas presented in the study were more mature, while some were less so, and need to be further argued or tested in teaching practice. For example, whether the reasons for the phenomenon of code-switching and language choice in ELT contexts are clear and comprehensive need to be further demonstrated through the study of the language pool. Whether the conclusions presented in this thesis are feasible in a broader context need to be further tested in practice. How to implement the proposed suggestions in practice and whether there are better suggestions are yet to be considered. Finally, although the study used more data, helpful to a certain extent, this method still needs to be improved. In conclusion, I believe that these issues need to be further explored and hope to receive corrections and support from friends, colleagues, or supervisors in the academic community. Another aspect worthy of consideration is that the theories used in this thesis were derived from previous research results, and many of them introduced from abroad, some even from foreign literature, and these materials may bring some new inspirations and insights. In brief, I believe that these issues need to be further explored through debate in the academic community and through testing in practice.

8.3 Suggestions for future research

In terms of researchers' attention to translanguaging, its history is short, and its research scope is very limited. Although previous studies have laid a good foundation to study issues related to translanguaging, most of them are still limited to the exploration of translanguaging and its related concepts, as well as

its manifestation in linguistic communication. From the perspective of research, most of these studies have been conducted from the educational aspect, while few have been conducted from the perspective of language application. Although research on translanguaging has grown exponentially in recent years, there is still a large gap relative to language learning and internationalization. As society develops further, the proportion of people who are bilingual will continue to expand. This development trend has prompted the need to pay more attention to the phenomenon of bilingual acquisition and translanguaging.

At the same time, from this study's exploration of the linguistic features, discourse functions, and language choices of translanguaging, future research can further investigate the following aspects:

First, the study used the theoretical concepts of translation linguistics and group discussions and conducted a qualitative analysis without using actual phenomena such as the English real pedagogy or natural classrooms to analyze. Therefore, this solid theoretical framework was not perfect and should be improved. This is because a large number of studies use sociocultural theory, sociolinguistic fields, interdisciplinary interactions in linguistics, sociolinguistics, educational linguistics, and neurolinguistics to analyze the language of translation in a raw form. Scholars tend to analyze the practice of translanguaging from a sociocultural and ecological perspective as a perceptual tool. Thus, perspectives and approaches from different disciplines and theories can provide abundant elements or inspiring insights for future research, which include anthropology, psychology, sociology, and ecology. Theoretical and analytical frameworks can, thus, be improved by extending and consolidating research theories.

Second, the sample size selected for the panel discussion was small. Future projects should select more classes and grades from public schools or schools in ethnic areas to see if the data show similar patterns. In public schools, the majority of high school students from ethnic areas should be considered. High English proficiency should be considered, as most of the study participants

came from regular classes with low English proficiency. Longitudinal studies and observations can better determine student language use and development if students' language shift practices during a given semester are extensively documented.

Third, the sample can be selected to study students from different socio-cultural backgrounds and expand the scope of use. Few of the previous research studies on the relationship between L2 acquisition and translanguaging literature have addressed sociocultural factors.

Fourth, this study has addressed the phenomena presented by the students in the discussion, and future research directions could explore the characteristics of the students under one-on-one interviews and how they differ from each other. This may be more oriented towards the influence of environmental resources on the phenomenon of student translanguaging.

The research related to translanguaging, from another perspective, is also a preparation for the continuous development of language theory. With the continuous development of humanities and social sciences in China, there will be more and more relevant research on translanguaging and code-switching, which will contribute to the development of language theory and language teaching or learning in China.

8.4 Conclusion

My research began with local concerns over how willingly and successfully Chinese students learn the target language and then I reflected on the role of mother tongue in English learning. These dialogical episodes have wider significance in bridging two languages, resonating with any possibility to make meaning, and contributing also to the rise of Chinese students' initiative in English learning.

It has been noticed that the boundary between Chinese and English language modes or English-Chinese switching itself prevents the fluidity of knowledge conveyed in students' interactions. Through translanguaging in the

authenticity of learning contexts, the associations between the Chinese and English languages are becoming more and more flexible and borderless, which rightly places a premium on my personal understanding students' integrative perceptions of what their language choices mean for them, and how their translanguaging relates to meaning-understanding and target language learning.

Translanguaging linguistic features, pragmatic functions, and linguistic choice phenomena are widely present in the English oral communication environment and profoundly affect the communication among students. Based on this, this study has examined and analyzed some features of translanguaging in the context of spoken English in a group discussion setting after in-depth consideration. First, the structural and inductive analyses applied categorized the performance of linguistic features. In addition, the pragmatic functions of translanguaging were identified based on the linguistic features. Language choice was related to both linguistic features and pragmatic functions (Verschueren, 2000). The skill and willingness of speakers were also significant. The wider the personal language pool, the more linguistic decisions must be made before the language may be used.

This thesis has argued that the reasons for students' translanguaging were to reduce the difficulty of communication and the constraints of contextual resources. The most fundamental reason for students and teachers to make language choices was found to be their ability to conform to the members' language abilities. Second, from further observations of the phenomenon and further consideration of the reasons, the study analyzed the language choices of the group members. Finally, on the basis of the above research and combined with some of my own practical experiences, the study has offered insights into spoken English from the cognitive level and the operable level respectively.

In summary, translanguaging helps increase the target language use based on TBL more or less. Students perceived that translanguaging improves their understanding, communication, or the target language, by expanding word

choices, preceding dialogues, and bringing ideas. I hope that this research can provide a further understanding of the phenomenon of language features, language functions, and language choice under translanguaging, and, at the same time, can give insights in the development of translanguaging theory.

It is well concluded that the research presents ways in which Chinese students are promoting flexible languaging and language power, going beyond traditional cognition of separate language modes, as well as creating a unique ideology to liberate students' language use from neither monolingual nor bilingual constraints, entrusting Chinese students with local integration and flexible meaning transformation of English language learning.

Based on task-driven dialogue and interaction, the research offers some important insights into any possibilities for generative knowledge growth brought into "one coordinated and meaningful performance" through "translanguaging space" (Li Wei, 2011, p. 1223). The study also undertook a deep analysis of a dynamic process of performing bilingually in Chinese students' dialogical trajectory to explore how they generate understandings in their socially engaging learning, drawing on their entire linguistic repertoire.

My thesis also concludes that actually, translanguaging as my concern is also the thread that binds together values and practices of both languages in making cross-linguistic connections and references to aid English learning. Working as a way of enhancing learning, translanguaging plays a strategic and cognitive part in the employment of students' language resources to make links to knowledge and challenge the boundary between English and Chinese language modes in order to maximize communicative potential.

Therefore, the integration of the English and Chinese languages works as a driving force to promote and encourage the learning of English in response to contextual needs and dialogical conditions without the deliberate avoidance of the use of the Chinese language, which exposes the future researchers to students' striving for meaning-making in order to see whether they learn

another language more successfully when they are cognitively engaged in tasks with both languages intertwined.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Content of the observations

1. Personal language level

- (1) Relevant background knowledge
- (2) Language learning difficulty
- (3) Propensity to use language
- (4) Motivation of language learning

2. Topic familiarity and interest

- (1) Students' familiarity with the topic
- (2) Students' interest
- (3) Students' approach to communication problems

3. Language learning objective

- (1) Students' learning objectives
- (2) Students' use of translanguaging
- (3) Students' learning through translanguaging

Appendix 2 Cases of students' task application

Case 1

Task specification:

Students are asked to read the text from the optional 7 Unit 2 Robots' Reading Satisfaction Guaranteed. and ask questions about the topic "Satisfaction Guaranteed" to judge if Claire's satisfaction is guaranteed.

Mission objectives:

Get students to think more deeply about the writer's intention.

Case 2

Task specification:

- (1) Discuss wildlife protection.
- (2) Write a report about how to protect wildlife.

Mission objectives:

By talking about endangered species, make the students aware of the importance of wildlife protection.

Case 3

Task specification:

Identifying animals who help humans to hunt.

Mission objectives:

By talking about anecdotes, students are encouraged to reflect on the relationship between humans and animals.

Case 4

Task specification:

- (1) Would you like to go to a school like the one described in the letter? Give reasons.
- (2) Why do you think Jo became a volunteer in PNG? Give as many possible

reasons as you can. Would you like to work as a volunteer in a poor area? Why?

Mission objectives:

By talking about Jo's experiences as a volunteer teacher and her visit to a student's village in Papua New Guinea, students learn to reflect on the meaning of sharing and fulfil personal value.

Case 5

Task specification:

Discuss the pros and cons of going abroad to study.

Mission objectives:

Students are encouraged to raise their national consciousness and international awareness.

Case 6

Task specification:

Discussion about multiculturalism in California and China.

Mission objectives:

Guide students to raise their awareness of multiculturalism.

Case 7

Task specification:

Discuss the impact and future of cloning.

Mission objectives:

Students are motivated to express their opinions about the possibilities of development of this technology as well as its impact on human beings.

Appendix 3 Thematic codes

Themes
(mapping
interview
questions)

Categories

Sub-categories

Codes

Intra-Sentential
Switching

S3: CharacterER-er是什么 [what does this word refer to] ?

S1: 性格 [character].

S3: So, I think Tony give Claire, em, Tony give Claire 什么个? 温...温暖的...那个精神... 精神和? 怎么说? [WE-Well, what? Wa... Warm... The spirit... spirit and? HO-How do you SA-say].

S4: 那个 SL-slogan 是吗 [The slogan, right]?

S1: 我们先可以给点关键的词, 比如说[WE-We can start with some key words, foRE-r example] EN-endangered, plants and animals. And we can also write some...some...比如说, 有什么动物灭绝了和即将灭绝。然后, 写点我们之前讲述的...然后写点我们之前讲述的, 然后写一篇作文。把讲义(模板)拿出来, 一起来读 [For example, what animals are extinct and going extinct. Then, write about what we talked about...Then write about what we talked about before, and then write a composition. Take out your notes (templates) and read them together].

S2: We can alSO-so...减少对栖息的地使用农药(农药)也会导致对栖息地的破坏[Reducing the use of pesticides (pesticides) on habitats can also lead to habitat destruction].

S1: Firstly, we should.....

S3: Make some laws?

S1: Set up soME-me ...

S4: 不应该是向政府提出一些建议, 他们来制定法律吗? [Shouldn't they make recommendations to the government, and make the laws?] WE-We should write a letter to the government to give some suggestions about wild life protection.

S3: In my opinion, may be a new environment can make some beneficial for you. On the one hand, you can learn a new language and improve you communicate skills. On the other hand, you can express yourself, such as making foreign friends and communicate with foreign students, 你可以在跟他们的交流中学到一些外国的文化 [YO-You can learn some foreign

Linguistic
Feature

Code Switching

Inter-Sentential
Switching

cultures by communicating with them].

S1: 我们先可以给点关键词, 比如说[We can start with some key words, for example] endangered, plants and animals. And we can also write some...some...比如说, 有什么动物灭绝了和即将灭绝。然后, 写点我们之前讲述的...然后写点我们之前讲述的, 然后写一篇作文。把讲义模板)拿出来, 一起来读 [For example, what animals are extinct and going extinct. Then, write about what we talked about...Then write about what we talked about before, and then write a composition. Take out your notes (templates) and read them together].

S4: I think cloning technology have many advantage in our daily lives. For example, **IN- in** 农业方面可以帮助我们人类培育非常多的抗旱和抗病虫害的优势高产品种[In agriculture, (it) can help us to breed a lot of superior high-yield varieties of drought resistance and resistance to diseases and pests].

S1: So, my question is why do you think Jo become a volunteer in PNG, give reasons. And would you like to get the volunteer in the poor area? Why?

S4: I think Jo is so responsible. And for me, I think I would like to have a volunteer work in a poor area. Because I think the people in poor area need 更多的知识 [more knowledge]。

I-I think 教育应该在世界得到普及 [Education should be universal in the world]。

S4: No, I disagree with you. **SE-See** this sentence. "But she began to trust him." She... em... gave her belief to the robot. That means she likes robot. And then the robo...the woman kissed the robot and(S3: Kiss ...) hugged (misread) her.

Tag Switching

S2: **LO-Look** this sentence. "He held her firmly in his arms when she felt the warmth of his body. She screamed, pushed him away and ran to her room for the rest of the day." So I don't think she would accept robot.

S1: 我们先可以给点关键词, 比如说 [We can start with some key words, for example] endangered, plants and animals. And we can also write some...some...比如说, 有什么动物灭绝了和即将灭绝。然后, 写点我们之前讲述的...然后写点我们之前讲述的, 然后写一篇作文。把讲义模板)拿出来, 一起来读 [For example, what animals are **EX-extinct** and going extinct. Then, write about what we talked about...Then, write about what we talked about before, and then write a composition. Take out your notes (templates) and read them together].

Linguistic
Function Meaning
Negotiation

Borrowing

S1: So, my question is why do you think Jo become a volunteer in PNG, give reasons. And would you like to get the volunteer in the poor area? Why?

S4: I think Jo is so responsible. And for me, **I-I** think I would like to have a volunteer work in a poor area. Because I think the people in poor area need 更多的知识 [more knowledge].I think 教育应该在世界得到普及[Education should be universal in the world].

S4: To my problem, I have stomach disease, I will miss Chinese food, there is an old Chinese saying in China “天大地大吃饭最大 [NO-nothing is more important than EA-eating]” and I will miss my homeland food, and I can `t be familiar with foreign food.

S4: According to your opinions. Qian Yuru think studying abroad can 促进东西文化交流 [promote CU-cultural EX-exchanges between the East and the West] and Lou Jiayu think studying abroad 能够提高语言能力和对国外文化的理解 [can improve language skills and understanding of FO-foreign CU-cultures], and Du Zheyin think studying abroad can make her more independent. To me, the phenomenon of Chinese students going abroad may cause 人才流失 [brain DR-drain]. As a Chinese, we miss the problem of 人才流失[brain DR-drain]. Nowadays, China needs more 高尖端人才 [TO-top talent], and it’s a great problem to China.

S3: Character 是什么 [WH-what does this word RE-refer to]?

S1: 性格[character]。

S1: Having read the article, in my **OP-opinion**, I **TH-think** her satisfaction is not guaranteed. Because I think her mental problem is not solved.

S3: I **DO-don't** **AG-agree** with you. **BE-Because**, em, after Tony, em, arrived her home...em... Claire felt warm and her many problems were solved by Tony. Tony showed more like a human than a machine, who gave her, em, what she really wanted.

S1: **NO-No**. No. let’s see this sentence, the article **SA-says**, “When she first saw the robot, she felt alarmed.” So, I think the robot, maybe, a potential(misread) danger to him. He fears a lot with the robot.

Information
Reconciliation

O-events

AB-events

S4: **NO-No**, I **DI-dis**agree with you. See this sentence. "But she began to trust him." She... em... gave her belief to the robot. That means she likes robot. And then the robo...the woman kissed the robot and(S3: Kiss ...) hugged(misread) her.

S3: 不是，机器人亲那个女的[**NO-No**, the robot kissed the woman]。

S4: 不是抱了吗[**DI-Didn't** the robot hug the woman]?

S2, S3: 机器人主动（亲）的[The robot actively kissed the woman]。

S2, S3: 机器人主动（亲）的[The robot actively kissed the woman]。

S4: 哦，等会儿。等会儿，我知道怎么说了，就这样，我知道怎么拍了[Oh, wait a minute. Wait a minute. I **KN-know** what to say. That's it. I know how to shoot it]。

S4: 哪个？重.....重.....[**WH-which?** Again....., again.....]。

S4: The robot kissed the woman and they are fall in love (grammatical mistake).

S1: Firstly, we should.....

S3: Make some laws?

S1: Set up some ...

S4: 不应该是向政府提出一些建议，他们来制定法律吗？[Shouldn't they make recommendations to the **GO-government**, and make the laws?] **WE-We** should write a letter to the government to give some suggestions about wild life protection.

S1: 我们先可以给点关键的词，比如说 [We can start with some key words, for example] endangered, plants and animals. And we can also write some...some...比如说，有什么动物灭绝了和即将灭绝。然后，写点我们之前讲述的...然后写点我们之前讲述的，然后写一篇作文。把讲义模板)拿出来，一起来读 [For example, what animals are extinct and going extinct. Then, write about what we talked about...Then. write about what we talked about **BE-before**, and then write a composition. Take out **YO-your** notes (templates) and read them together].

S1: **NO-Not** only the government, and I **TH-think** **WE-we** can do a lot of things, such as we can avoid buying clothes made of fur.

S2: We can also...减少对栖息的地使用农药（农药）也会导致对栖息地的破坏 [Reducing the use of

		pesticides (pesticides) on habitats can also lead to habitat destruction]。
		S3: 都讲完了吗? (that's AL-all?)
		S3: So, I think Tony give Claire, em, Tony give Claire 什么个? 温...温暖的...那个精神... 精神和怎么说? [Well, WH-what? Wa... Warm... The spirit... spirit and? HO-How do you say]。
		S4: 那个 slogan 是吗[The slogan, RI-right]?
		S1: WE-We'd better advise people some protective measures.
		S3: SU-Suggestions?
		S1: 就是呼吁人们去做一些保护措施, 就是我上面讲的 [It's an appeal to people to do something about it, and that's WH-what I-I said]。
		S1: If everyone has the sense of protecting wildlife,
		S4: The world will be more beautiful.
		S4: 我觉得[and I think].....
		S3: 她物质上的没说[SH-She DI-didn't talk about material things]。
		S1: Physical?
		S3: 我要反驳你, 反驳你[I want to RE-refute YO-you, refute you]。
		S3: 倾尽全力怎么说[HO-How to express "try my best" in English]?
		S1: DE-decrease ...decrease the ...怎样说“对栖息地的破坏” [HO-How to say "habitat destruction"]? The loss of the protection...哦, 不对。栖息地怎么说 [Oh, NO-no. HO-How do you say "habitat"]. habitat?
		S4: 不应该是向政府提出一些建议, 他们来制定法律吗? [SH-Shouldn't TH-they make recommendations to the government, and make the laws?] WE-We should write a letter to the government to give some suggestions about wild life protection.
		S4: Someone think the school is so poor, SO-so they can.. they can't get enough knowledge at school. And ..and the school is far from their house, SO-so they may be dangerous in the way. The class is so 陈旧的[old]. AN-And the school was short of the computers and textbooks. EM-Em...it's all.
Coherence and Textuality	-	
Supplement and Social Function	-	S2: OK. My question is Jo felt it was a privilege to have spent a day with Tombe's family, if you were Jo, how do you think you will feel. Give my reasons.

			<p>S4: I think it will very 抵触 [CO-contradictive]. 因为 [BE-because]...because the people maybe 没有很好的卫生意识[not having a good sense of hygiene].Their house was so poor, so dangerous.</p> <p>S3: I think I would feel like to. Because I can have a special experience, and all the villages are 热情 [passionate].And...em... em...</p>
		Unknown Words	<p>S4: For example, the killer dogs and the killer Eagles and luci 鸬鹚 [CO-cormorants]. The killer dogs and the killer Eagles, maybe 更多的是帮助 [It's more about helping]help the people to check 猎物 [prey], 但是 cihu 鸬鹚、鱼鹰这种就直接 [But cormorants, osprey this kind is directly].....</p>
		Organize language	<p>S1: 我们先可以给点关键的词, 比如说 [We can start with some key words, for example] endangered, plants and animals. And we can also write some...SO-some...比如说, 有什么动物灭绝了和即将灭绝。然后, 写点我们之前讲述的...然后写点我们之前讲述的, 然后写一篇作文。把讲义 (模板) 拿出来, 一起来读 [For example, what animals are extinct and going extinct. Then, write about what we talked about...Then, write about what we talked about before, and then write a composition. Take out your notes (templates) and read them together].</p>
Linguistic Choices	Ease of Communication	Express meaning	<p>S2: Em...I think I may be not, too. Em..It is too far for me get to a such remote school, and if it rains on the way, could be danger, dangerous. I think, second, I think the classroom was so..so..很陈旧 [OL-old]. Em..The the roof is made of grass. I think it is dangerous.</p> <p>S3: SU-Suggestions?</p>
		Simplicity	<p>S1: 就是呼吁人们去做一些保护措施, 就是我上面讲的 [It's an appeal to people to do something about it, and that's what I said].</p> <p>S1: If everyone has the sense of protecting wildlife,</p> <p>S4: The world will be more beautiful.</p>
	Contextual Resources	Other Participants	<p>S1: OK, if we are different. We are different opinions. Let's just talk about it, her CH-character.</p> <p>S3: Character 是什么[what does this word refer to] ?</p>

English Text	<p>S1: 性格[character].</p> <p>S1: Let's find some sentences to prove her CH-character.</p> <p>S4: 哦, 等会儿。等会儿, 我知道怎么说了, 就这样, 我知道怎么拍了 [Oh, wait a minute. Wait a minute. I know what to say. That's it. I know how to shoot it].</p> <p>S4: 哪个? 重.....重.....[which? Again....., again.....].</p> <p>S4: The robot KI-kissed the woman and they are FA-fall in love (grammatical mistake).</p> <p>S2: But why she was run, pushing him away when the robots save her from the ladder?</p> <p>S3: TH-Then Tony try his best to help, em, Claire. Em, Tony worked steadily on the improvements, and..., and when... when Clair fell off a ladder, and even though Tony was in the next room, he managed to catch her in time. This time, em, Claire, em, must feel very, em, sa... sa...safe and feel, em, feel the warm from Tony. So, I think Tony give Claire, em, Tony give Claire 什么个? 温...温暖的...那个精神... 精神和? 怎么说? [Well, what? Wa... Warm... The spirit... spirit and? How do you say].</p>
Discussion Format	<p>S1: 我们先可以给点关键词, 比如说 [We can start with some key words, for example] endangered, plants and animals. And we can also write some...some...比如说, 有什么动物灭绝了和即将灭绝。然后, 写点我们之前讲述的...然后写点我们之前讲述的, 然后写一篇作文。把讲义模板) 拿出来, 一起来读 [For example, what animals are extinct and going extinct. Then, write about what we talked about...Then, write about what we talked about before, and then write a composition. Take out your notes (templates) and read them together].</p>
Personal Choice	<p>In today's class, we have discussed the reasons why the number of some _____ plants and animals has already _____ and some animals have already _____.</p> <p>S3: Die out?</p> <p>S2: DE-decrease, 因为前面是 [Be-Because the front is] the number of, then die out.</p>

Appendix 4 Content of the interviews

Please list and mark all the places where you use translanguaging in the conversation. *Note: Please answer the following questions according to specific examples.*

1. From English to Chinese translanguaging

- (1) When do you use these Chinese words in communicative interactions?
- (2) Under what circumstances will you choose these Chinese words? For what communicative purpose do you choose these Chinese words in interactions?
- (3) What are the reasons for your Chinese word choices?
- (4) Do these uses of these Chinese words help your understanding? To what extent?

2. From Chinese to English translanguaging

- (1) When do you use English again after Chinese input in communicative interactions?
- (2) For what communicative purpose(s) do you choose English again in interactions?
- (3) What are the reasons for your English choices after using Chinese?
- (4) Do these changes help your understanding? To what extent?

3. Chinese-English interspersed translanguaging

- (1) Can you think of times when you used a mixture of Chinese and English in carrying out tasks? Can you give some examples?
- (2) Do you have the phenomena about Chinglish and pinyin (the pronunciation system of Chinese) in your communication, or the phenomenon that the same meaning is expressed in both Chinese and English? What are the features there?
- (3) For what communicative purpose(s) do you choose to use Chinese-English interspersed translanguaging in interactions?
- (4) What are the reasons for your choice to use both languages simultaneously or alternately?
- (5) Does this translanguaging make a difference to your understanding? And

how?

4. Translanguaging in English-immersion interactions

(1) Do you think translanguaging exists in an English-immersion environment, and if so, what is it?

(2) When do you only use English in interactions? For what communicative purpose(s) do you choose English-immersion interactions? What are the reasons for your choice?

(3) What are the barriers preventing your understanding in English-immersion interactions?

(4) Do these English-immersion interactions help your understanding? To what extent?