

Between Monolingual Policy and Multilingual Reality in South China: English Learners' and Teachers' Perceptions and Experience of Language Awareness, Translation and Translanguaging

Submitted by Tian Yan to the University of Exeter

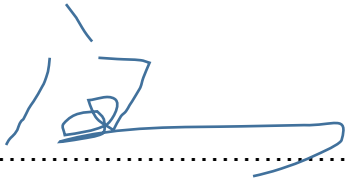
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Abstract

There are 299 living languages in China (Ethnologue, 2017) and approximately 2000 different mutually unintelligible languages and dialects spoken in China at county and municipal levels (Gao, 2012; Li, 2006; Tsao, 1999). At policy level, Mandarin Chinese has been promoted as the only nation-wide official language since 1956 (Hu, 2002; Li, 2006). In addition, at institutional level, Mandarin Chinese is also the only language which is officially used as medium of instruction in both public and private schools in Han ethnic area (Ministry of Education, 2017). When it comes to languages used in English language classes, the Chinese ministry of Education encourages English teachers to use English as much as possible at senior secondary school level to develop Chinese learner's communicative skills (Ministry of Education, 2017).

Apparently, there is a discrepancy between monolingual policy and multilingual reality in China. However, very little research has attempted to investigate multilingual situation in school contexts in China, nor teachers' and learners' perceptions of the monolingual language policy in school settings. A better understanding of the multilingual situation in school contexts could provide an insightful implication to language policy makers on national language planning as well as institutional language planning. Thus, this study aims to explore the discrepancy that might exist between largely monolingual policy and multilingual reality in a local public school in south China. Second, this study also aims to explore the English teachers' and English learners' perceptions and practices regarding language awareness, translation and translanguaging. This could develop a step towards context-sensitive bi-/multilingual pedagogy in similar contexts.

This study adopts a sequential mixed-method research design. 306 learners and 15 teachers participated in the quantitative phase and 9 learners, and 10 teachers joined the second qualitative phase. The findings show that between them the 306 learners can use 41 different languages and language varieties. The qualitative data reveals that both teachers and learners overwhelmingly agree that translation and translanguaging are perceived as efficient tools for English teaching and learning. However, my findings clearly demonstrate that they also believe translation and translanguaging are barriers to achieving standard English, which is widely accepted

as a goal. Finally, many learners reported that they adopt translanguaging techniques to support their English writing. However, teachers have a mixed opinion towards using translanguaging in English writing. The findings from this study, combined with existing literature leads to implications for research, and potentially for practice and policy.

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List of Abbreviations

ALA	Association for Language Awareness
BLA	Bi-/multilingual Learning Approach
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CLA	Critical Language Awareness
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT	Communicative Learning Teaching
ECS	English Curriculum Standards
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELF	English as a Lingual Franca
EMI	English as a Medium of Instruction
GTM	Grammar-Translation Method
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LA	Language Awareness
MOE	Ministry of Education
NCEE	National College Entrance Examination
NEST	Native English Speaking Teacher
NON-NEST	non-Native English Speaking Teacher
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

SCT	Socio-cultural Theory
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLE	Second Language Education
SLT	Situational Language Teaching
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Science
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

1. Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

There are 299 living languages in China (Ethnologue, 2017), and there are approximately 2000 individual dialects or subdialects spoken in China at the county and municipal levels (Gao, 2012; Li, 2006; Tsao, 1999). However, at policy level, according to the Constitution of the People's Republic of China, Mandarin Chinese is the only nation-wide official language (Li, 2006), the Chinese government has been promoting a Mandarin Only Policy since 1956 (Hu, 2002; Li, 2006; Mills, 1956). In addition, at the institutional level, Mandarin Chinese is also the only language which is officially used as the medium of instruction in both public and private schools in the Han ethnic area (Ministry of Education, 2017). When it comes to languages used in English-language classes, the Chinese ministry of Education encourages English teachers to use English as much as possible in senior secondary school level to develop Chinese learner's communicative skills (Ministry of Education, 2017).

Besides, in the literature, a wealth of research studies in the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), including my own MEd TESOL Dissertation data, show that most English teachers are unconfident to use English only in their English teaching (Birch, 1992; Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Ellis, 2013; Yan, 2016). In addition, the English teachers in an EFL context usually to some extent feel guilty about their perceived limited incompetence of using English only in their teaching. According to my dissertation findings (Yan, 2016), the English teacher whom I observed, used Mandarin (her first language) to offer additional cognitive support, which is similar to other findings (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003) to explain abstract content and clarify unclear information. Moreover, in terms of English teaching methods, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), a monolingual teaching approach, has been promoted by the Chinese Ministry of Education since the early 1980s (Hu, 2002). However, previous studies including my MEd TESOL Dissertation findings show that the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) is still widely adopted by most Chinese English teachers in Chia (Anderson, 1993; Chang, 2011; Hu, 2002; Rao, 2002; Yan, 2016; Yu, 2001; Zhou & Niu, 2015). GTM is a teaching method that uses plenty of translation while teaching a second language. Moreover, GTM is a bilingual teaching approach

(Meier, 2017) as GTM frequently uses translation and the learners' first language (L1) (Hu, 2002; Yan, 2016).

There seem to be gaps between the requirement of the Chinese Ministry of Education, language learning theory, the linguistic situation and the reality of English classrooms in China. In this chapter, I will introduce the rationale for this study, research aims, research questions, as well as the theories that I used to examine each research aim. Finally, I will introduce the research design and the structure of this thesis.

1.2 Rationale for the study

Firstly, the personal motivation for this study is from my frequent moving from one city to another because of my mother's work when I was a child. I gradually realised that every new city we moved to has their local dialects and learning to speak local dialects could help me to make new friends. Furthermore, my mother tongue (Xiangyang Dialect) could assist me to pick up a certain number of new dialects effectively because there are many similarities among different dialects. However, for a long time, I, like many others, adhered to a monolingual assumption when it came to English learning and teaching, based on the assumption that we should consider languages or dialects separately and try to focus on English solely – even though reality was quite different. Thus, my childhood experience about learning different dialects did not consciously contribute to my English learning.

My interest in conducting research in language education in bi-/multilingualism was inspired by an optional module I took during my Master of Education (MEd) in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) which is called Bilingual and Multilingual Perspective on Language Learning and Teaching designed by Dr Gabriela Meier. This module provided a new angle of understanding language teaching and learning in a bi-/multilingual perspective. Furthermore, it also provided me with an opportunity to reflect on my personal linguistic repertoire and its relevance to my past English learning and teaching experience. Therefore, I have developed my interest in exploring learners' and teachers' understanding of their own linguistic repertoire. In addition, there is a common misunderstanding that people would consider China to be

monolingual country. Thus, investigating learners' and teachers' perceptions of their linguistic repertoire is vital as it can describe the multilingual situation in a micro level.

Through my MEd TESOL dissertation (Yan, 2016), I became aware of literature about language awareness (LA). Inspired by García (2008) and my own childhood experience, I started to realise that raising language awareness and moving from a monolingual assumption to a multilingual assumption can open up alternative ways of understanding language learners and learning (Meier, 2017), namely moving from defining myself as a non-native user of English to a multilingual expert. This encouraged my academic interest in LA as I agree with Nathaniel Branden that awareness is the first step of change (Branden, 1999), as I experienced this for myself. LA could be the first step of switch from a monolingual assumption to a multilingual assumption (Ellis, 2012). As I mentioned in the last section, China is a multilingual country, thus, the English teachers and learners are likely to already speak at least one language or dialect when they start learning English. However, according to the curriculum, neither teachers' nor learners' linguistic repertoire are encouraged to be used as a resource in current English classes (Ministry of Education, 2017). Therefore, the awareness of noticing linguistic resources beyond English is vital in China.

In addition, I conducted a small-scale case study of teaching methods in a Chinese senior secondary school for my MEd TESOL dissertation project. The findings demonstrate that a bilingual teaching method GTM is predominantly used in the English classes in the participating school. Thus, my interest in learners' and teachers' perceptions and experience of current bi-multilingual learning/teaching has developed based on my MEd TESOL dissertation project. In the previous study, I found that translation and Mandarin are widely used in English classes despite the English Curriculum encouraging English teachers to use English as much as possible (Yan, 2016). Based on this, I developed the present study, which has the aim of providing a deeper insight into learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of the current bi-/multilingual learning approaches, namely translation and translanguaging based on a larger sample. This might develop a step towards context-sensitive bi-/multilingual pedagogy.

1.3 Research aims and research questions

This study sets out to address three main research aims. The first research aim is to explore the nature of any discrepancy that might exist between monolingual policy and multilingual reality in a local public senior secondary school in south China. First, this study aims to establish if indeed there is a monolingual policy guiding learning and teaching in a south China senior secondary school. Second, this study also sets out to explore whether the reality is multilingual and what such a multilingual reality might mean for learning according to students and teachers. A better understanding of the current linguistic situation in school settings and personal linguistic repertoires could provide an insightful implication for language policy makers on national language planning as well as institutional language planning.

The second research aim is to explore the English teachers' and English learners' perceptions and practices of language awareness (LA), translation and translanguaging. First, LA is about empowering and recognising all aspects of students' linguistic repertoires as legitimate tools for learning (Breidbach, Elsner, & Young, 2011). LA also encourages students to make connections between home languages and school languages (Hawkins, 1984). Moreover, literature about LA in the Chinese EFL context is limited which means there is a good potential for my study to explore in this field. There is a gap in the literature on raising LA in the Chinese context and there is no clear guidance for supporting teachers about raising LA in their classes. Thus, the findings of this study would develop recommendations on raising LA in English classes.

As I mentioned previously, Mandarin and a bilingual teaching method called Grammar Translation Method (GTM) are predominantly used in the English classes in Chinese English classes (Hu, 2008; Yan, 2016) despite the fact that neither teachers' nor learners' linguistic repertoires are encouraged to be used as a resource in English classes according to the curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2017). Thus, the third research aim is to develop a step towards context-sensitive bi-/multilingual pedagogy based on teachers' and learners' perceptions and experiences of language awareness, translation and translanguaging.

In order to achieve these three research aims, they will be narrowed down into one main research question and three sub-research questions as follows:

Main Research Question:

What are English learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences with regard to monolingual expectations and multilingual reality in English language education in a Chinese senior secondary school?

This question will be approached by answering the following sub-research questions:

1. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions of monolingual expectations and personal and societal bi-/multilingualism in the school? Is there a discrepancy between these?
2. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions of language awareness?
3. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions and experience of current bi-/multilingual learning approaches namely translation and translanguaging, in the Chinese context?

1.4 Research Design

In terms of research design, I will triangulate quantitative and qualitative research approaches in order to gain an in-depth understanding of my research questions. Thus, this research adopts a sequential mixed-method research design. A questionnaire survey was used as a research instrument for the first quantitative phase. I developed a student and teacher questionnaire, which included closed questions, Likert Scale items and five open-ended questions. The aim of the first phase quantitative is to establish a general understanding of the three research questions.

I was able to gain access to a public senior secondary school in Guangdong Province in China to collect the quantitative data. The sample consisted of 306 students and 15 teachers in total. The first phase questionnaire survey was conducted in June 2018. The questionnaire survey data contains both quantitative and qualitative data.

Semi-structured in-depth interviews were used as the second qualitative phase data collection instrument. The aim of the qualitative data is to help to deepen and enrich the findings from the first quantitative phase. 9 students among 306 student participants who participated in the first questionnaire survey were willing to take part in the second phase interview. 10 teacher participants also joined this second phase interview. 4 English teachers who worked in the participating school in the first phase agreed to join the second phase interview. In addition, I recruited 6 more English teachers from outside the participating school via chain-referral. Therefore, 19 participants in total, containing both learners and teachers, participated in the second phase data collection process. All interviews were conducted in spring 2019.

In terms of data analysis, as I mentioned above, I have two datasets in total (i.e. the questionnaire dataset and the interview dataset). Moreover, the questionnaire dataset contains both quantitative data and qualitative data due to the nature of the mixed-method research. Thus, both quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques have been used. Two datasets have been analysed sequentially. I first analysed the questionnaire dataset. The quantitative data was analysed by SPSS, whereas the qualitative data was analysed by the thematic analysis method. I then developed the interview schedule based on the initial findings of the questionnaire dataset. The second phase qualitative data was analysed by the thematic analysis method. The subsequent analysis of the questionnaire dataset provided an overall understanding of the research questions. The following interview dataset and their analysis deepened the result from the first phase.

1.5 Structure of the thesis

There are 6 chapters in this thesis. Following the current chapter, Chapter 2 will introduce the contextual background of this research, including an overview of linguistic situation in Mainland China, the linguistic situation in Guangdong Province where the research data has been collected and the linguistic situation in the participating school. In addition, an overview of the Chinese education system will be introduced in this chapter.

Chapter 3 is the literature review chapter. The chapter is organised into reviewing relevant literatures about the three research aims that I mentioned in section 1.3. To be specific, literatures about bilingualism, multilingualism and plurilingualism, LA and the bi-/multilingual teaching approach will be reviewed in this chapter. A conceptual framework will be drawn at the end of this chapter. The conceptual framework will be used as a theoretical guide throughout the thesis.

Chapter 4 presents the research design that was employed in this research. It justifies the different research instruments that I used in different data collection phases. I will also further discuss the ethical considerations, the pilot study, sample selection and administration of the questionnaire and interview. Finally, I will present the reliability of the data and explain how data were collected and analysed.

Chapter 5 and chapter 6 present the main findings and discussions of the findings respectively. Thus, I will report the main findings under each main theme in chapter 5, and then discuss the main findings in relation to the research questions, relevant literature, and empirical studies in chapter 6.

Chapter 7 is the conclusion chapter including implications of the research findings for policy makers, practitioners, and teacher education. Contribution of this study to the knowledge in the field of language education will be presented. The limitation of this study will be discussed and finally, recommendations for future research will be suggested.

2. Context

This chapter aims to provide the relevant background information in relation to the research questions (see section 1.3). I will establish an overview of the context in terms of the linguistic situation in China, language policy, the education system and exam-oriented context in mainland China. Regarding the linguistic situation in China, I will mainly focus on the linguistic situation in Guangdong Province located in south China because this is where the study occurred.

First, I will clarify terms that I will use throughout my thesis. Officially, the People's Republic of China normally includes Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan. However, due to different socio-political settings in Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan, the education systems in these three regions adopt different approaches (Feng, 2011). Thus, in this thesis, I will use China and Chinese to refer to mainland China and people who live in mainland China. The findings of this research will not apply to the regions of Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan due to different social-political and educational contexts.

In this chapter, first, I will provide a clear overview of the linguistic situation in China with a focus on Guangdong Province. Second, language policy, the education system, and the exam-oriented context in China will be discussed.

2.1 Linguistic Situation in China

China is a multi-national country comprised of 56 ethnic groups. The ethnic Han group constitutes a majority among all 56 ethnic groups, making up 92% of the whole population. The remaining 8% is composed of 55 ethnic minorities. The linguistic situation in China is rather complex (Dong, 2009; Hu, 2002; Li, 2006; Liu & Edwards, 2017). As mentioned in the introduction, there are 299 living languages registered under the country China on Ethnologue (2017). Chinese is the only nationwide official language which is written into the Chinese Constitution. This normally refers to the Mandarin variety of Chinese in the spoken format and known as Chinese in the written format. In 1959, Mandarin became the only standard modern spoken Chinese in China and was written into the Chinese Constitution (Gao, 2012; Hu, 2002). However, Mandarin is developed based on the Beijing dialect, and the Beijing dialect is different from the Southern dialects, and they are mutually unintelligible (Li, 2006). The Beijing

dialect was chosen as the foundation of the phonology for Mandarin as a lingua franca in China, because Beijing has been the political, economic and cultural centre of China since the Yuan dynasty (the year of 1271).

According to the Chinese National Language Work Committee, Mandarin was still not popularised in many distant and isolated rural and mountainous areas in 1996, even though the central government had made plenty of efforts to promote Mandarin since 1959 (cited in Hu, 2002). In 2001, Mandarin further strengthened its primary position. The central government published *the Law of National Commonly Used Language and Script of the People's Republic of China*. It repeatedly emphasises that Mandarin must become the mandatory language of instruction in all types of schools, and dialects were discouraged on all public occasions (cited in Gao, 2012).

Besides the official language, Cantonese, Lü, Kyrgyz, Uyghur and Tibetan Central are considered as five main regional languages that are also largely used for communication (Ethnologue, 2017). These five regional languages are not official languages in China. They are used in different and relatively smaller geographical regions and are often considered to be dialects (Tsao, 1999). Chinese is primarily used by the ethnic Han, and a significant majority of the 55 ethnic minorities have their own languages and cultures (Coblin, 2000; Gao, 2012; Hu, 2002). In addition, some research claims that there are more or less 2000 individual dialects or subdialects that are spoken in Mainland China at the county and municipal levels (Gao, 2012; Li, 2006; Tsao, 1999), often by Han groups. These dialects are normally completely different from each other in terms of speaking, so people who come from different dialect areas are usually mutually unintelligible (Hu, 2002). This suggests that most Chinese speakers could be considered at least as bilingual, as ethnic groups, including Han Chinese, speak one of the regional dialects and Mandarin, which is used as a lingua franca, as described below.

It is worth highlighting that Chinese generally refers to the official language which is used in mainland China including both spoken and written format, whereas Mandarin in China only refers to the spoken format of the Chinese language. Mandarin became the only official spoken Chinese and had been written in the Chinese Constitution in 1959 (Chen, 1999; Hu, 2002). Therefore, as will be seen in the findings chapter, Chinese will be used to refer to when my participants mentioned the language

generally, including both spoken and written formats. Mandarin will be used to refer to when my participants mentioned the language specifically in spoken formats. Moreover, the written format of Chinese is unified in China which means the word order, vocabulary and orthography are all the same for all Chinese speakers in mainland China. Simplified orthography is used in Mainland China (Hu, 2002).

In addition, as mentioned previously, there are thousands of dialects and subdialects in China, thus the term Henan dialect (the dialect of Henan Province), for instance, is not accurate enough. There might be hundreds of different dialects or subdialects in Henan province. Dong (2009) points out that in social practice, people usually associate language varieties with a certain geographical area such as Dongbei dialect (the dialect of the north-east regions), but due to increased internal migration, it can be problematic to take dialects as an indicator of origin. Therefore, as will be seen in the findings chapter of this thesis, my participants tended to use general terms such as Sichuan dialects (the dialect of Sichuan Province) to self-report their linguistic repertoire which arguably may be an over-arching category.

2.1.1 Linguistic Situation in Guangdong Province

As a context of study, I chose Guangdong Province as described in Chapter 4 mainly because of the accessibility of the research site. Geographically, Guangdong is in the south of China and is bordered by Hong Kong and Macao. Guangdong province is a coastal province, it opened for trading in the year of 1517. English was first introduced for trading at that time. In modern times, after the Chinese communist party took power in 1949, Guangdong was the first province which opened to foreign trade again following the open-door policy in 1978. Foreign trade brings openness and economic development to Guangdong. Therefore, Guangdong is considered as an advanced social and economically developed province compared to most of other provinces in China (OECD, 2016). The province has topped the total GDP rankings among all provincial levels since 1989 (Lin, 2020), and it is the largest import and export port in China (OECD, 2016).

The linguistic situation in Guangdong Province is also complicated. As is the case in Henan or Sichuan, there are hundreds of subdialects in Guangdong at county and municipal levels. The main regional dialects in Guangdong are Cantonese, Hakka and Teochew, but Cantonese is used as a regional lingua franca inside Guangdong (Dong, 2009; Gao, 2012). A significant number of migrants from outside Guangdong have settled down in Guangdong as a result of open-door policy and market-oriented principles in the 1980s. Thus, apart from indigenous dialects and subdialects, these migrants also brought their own dialects into Guangdong province.

Moreover, in accordance with the Ministry of Education (2017), Chinese should be the only medium of instruction in schools in Guangdong. Nevertheless, Cantonese remained the most influential dialect in Guangdong Province until 2010. In 2010, Mandarin was further strengthened in its dominant position in Guangdong, as the Asian Games 2010 were hosted in Guangzhou the capital city of Guangdong province, and a lingua franca was required. The municipal government wanted to provide a better sociocultural environment for domestic and international visitors for the international event. At the same time, the increasing influx of Chinese migrants from outside of Guangdong province also required using more Mandarin in Guangdong (Gao, 2012) to communicate with other nationals. This means that there is a need to use more Mandarin in Guangdong province due to socio-economic reasons.

2.1.2 Linguistic situation of the participating school

The participating school for my research is a senior secondary school located in Guangdong Province. All learners and teachers who participated in the first phase of my study (a questionnaire survey) attended this school. Mandarin is the only official medium of instruction for all teaching activities in the school, and an English only policy is encouraged in English classes. However, the majority of students and teachers also speak at least one more dialect apart from Mandarin and English. When I collected the survey data in the participating school, I discovered that Cantonese is still an observable language used in the participating school especially outside of class time.

The participating school, here referred to as New Day secondary school, is one of the key secondary schools at a provincial level which means it is one of the best secondary schools in Guangdong province. Furthermore, provincial-level key secondary schools

are usually key feeder schools for universities. Thus, it is very competitive to get an offer from such schools, and the students who enrol in key secondary schools are all top students in the province. As such, more university graduates as well as qualified teachers are attracted by Guangdong's better living standards and higher salary levels compared to other parts of China. In addition, a key secondary school also has better facilities and a more spacious class environment because it has more financial resources (Hu, 2002). The educational resource inequality is clearly between the east coast area and the rural inland areas in China. Given the above points, the participating school is a privileged school with good facilities, more competent teachers, and top students from the province. Therefore, data generated from this participating school cannot be generalised and applied nationwide. However, the findings of this study could be applied to schools with similar backgrounds, and it can provide insights into the linguistic situation of schools in Guangdong.

2.2 Chinese Education System

Generally speaking, the Chinese education system is comprised of three- or four-years' pre-school, a nine-year compulsory education which includes primary and junior secondary schooling, three-year senior secondary school and higher education. The nine-year compulsory education and the three-year senior secondary education are referred to as 12 years basic education. However, if one goes into detail about the education system in China, it is a complex system with multi-tiered administration because of the large student population and the educational resource inequality (Hu, 2003; Rong & Shi, 2001; Tsung & Cruickshank, 2009).

For the pre-school period, most children who live in urban and relatively advanced economic areas go to kindergartens at age three or four. Whereas nearly half of children who live in rural or mountainous areas stay at home until six or seven years old. This is because there are not enough kindergartens to offer pre-school education to children in rural or mountainous areas. The kindergartens' enrolment rate of children in rural areas was about 64.5% in 2012 (Yang, 2013).

After the age of six or seven, children must receive a nine-year compulsory education which is protected by the Chinese Constitution. The nine-year compulsory education is constituted by six-years at primary school and three-years at junior secondary

school. After three years at junior secondary school, students have diverse destinations to choose from depending on their academic achievement. Students who pass the examinations can proceed to general senior secondary schools, specialised secondary schools, vocational senior secondary schools, or skilled-workers training schools. Students who fail the examinations have to join the workforce at the age of 16. Joining the workforce is also an option for the students who pass the examinations if they do not intend to continue their education. The general senior secondary school is divided into three different levels: provincial-level key schools, municipal-level key schools and ordinary senior secondary schools. The top one is the provincial-level key school (the participating school for this research). Students go to different levels of senior secondary schools on the basis of their academic performance. This thesis will focus on the provincial key senior secondary school only.

As mentioned above, there are significant and widely recognised disparities between key schools and the ordinary ones. The key schools have better resources in terms of facilities, teachers and students than the ordinary schools (Yang, 2013). Additionally, the gap between urban schools and rural schools cannot be neglected either. Urban schools - even ordinary schools are - normally much better funded, equipped and staffed than rural ones. There are basically no key schools in rural areas (Yang, 2013). It is also worth pointing out that from the key schools' perspective, they are also under pressure to achieve high university access rate from parents and students. Finally, all schools mentioned in this section are public schools sponsored by the Chinese government. There are also private schools in China from pre-school level to university level which are not sponsored by the Chinese government but run by the private sector. Private schools are outside the scope of this thesis.

A majority of students who study in a general secondary school have to take the extremely competitive National College Entrance Examination (NCEE) in their final year. A minority of students choose not to take NCEE but to join the workforce after their graduation. Students who pass the NCEE will progress into universities, but those who fail the NCEE can choose to go to vocational-technical schools or join the workforce. They can be trained as skilled workers, middle-level specialists and technicians in these schools. In terms of higher education, undergraduate degrees are normally a four-year programme. Master's programmes which are usually two or three

years vary according to different disciplines. A very small number of students will make their way to doctoral-level study which normally requires a minimum of three years' study. Having described the education system more generally, I now turn to educational authority.

2.2.1 Curriculum and syllabus at senior secondary school level in China

All levels of curriculum and syllabus are designed by the Ministry of Education (MOE). The MOE is the supreme educational governmental department in China, it is the ministry responsible for macro-level management. MOE's prime duties include research and evaluation in local schools at all levels (provincial, municipal, county, township, village); drafting educational policies, regulations and guidelines; coordinating educational resources, proposing and researching policies and strategies for educational reforms and development; asking approval from the central government for any educational reforms and development; implementing relevant educational policies; regulations and guidelines approved by the central government; raising and allocating education funds; supervising curriculum and syllabus; supervising and evaluating textbooks at all levels of schools; assessing teachers; and guiding teaching and research (OECD, 2016). The central government decentralised educational administration in 1985 (Hu, 2002). The local governments have had substantial autonomy to write their own curriculums syllabuses and textbooks since 2000 (Yang, 2016).

According to the MOE (2008), senior secondary schools should offer Chinese, mathematics, foreign language (in most provinces this is English), politics, history, geography, physics, chemistry, and biology. Throughout three years of senior secondary school, Chinese, mathematics and a foreign language are core subjects. The remaining subjects are optional subjects, the requirement of optional subjects is different in different provinces. In Guangdong province, all students should take all optional subjects in their first year of senior secondary school. Then, in their second and third years, students can choose between the combination of politics, history and geography and the combination of physics, chemistry and biology. Students who plan to study a major in humanities, social sciences and liberal arts usually choose the former option, students who plan to study a major in natural science, engineering and

technology would normally choose the latter option. This format has been called the 3+X format, where 3 refers to 3 core subjects and X means the combination of optional subjects.

However, in 2019 Guangdong implemented a completely new format which is called 3+1+2. 3 means three core subjects: Chinese, mathematics and a foreign language (English in the case of the participating school); 1 refers to the fact that students can choose one subject between physics and history; 2 represents students choosing two subjects among politics, geography, chemistry and biology.

2.2.2 The importance of English learning in China

The Chinese central government carried out the open-door policy in 1978, thus, English has become a significant tool for China to open up to the world, and also a valuable means to develop economic competence in the international market (Bolton & Graddol, 2012; Hu, 2002). Teaching and learning English was also promoted by the central government and the MOE as a goal of achieving modernisation (Gil & Adamson, 2011) after the open-door policy was introduced. The trend for teaching and learning English further escalated in the new millennium as China joined the World Trade Organisation in 2001 and held the Olympics Games in 2008 (Bolton & Graddol, 2012). The outcome of commercial, technological and cultural exchange with the rest of the world has been outstanding over the past six decades or so. Therefore, the MOE realised that it was necessary to expand English-language education in China. As a result, a series of policies about English-language education were launched for improving and expanding English language education in China (Hu & McKay, 2012).

As mentioned above, English became a compulsory module in public schools in 1977 when the Chinese central government decided to resume NCEE (Hu & McKay, 2012). Students had started to learn English from the first year of junior secondary school in the period from the late 1980s to 2001 (Hu & McKay, 2012). In 2001, the MOE decided to gradually start English as a compulsory module in primary schools (Hu, 2002). At the time of writing, schools in economically advanced areas start to learn English in the first year of primary school, whereas schools in less developed areas start to learn English in the third year of primary school. Hu and McKay (2012) point out that this is a new wave of expansion of English-language education in the primary education

sector. There were 130 million primary students in China in 2001 (Hu & McKay, 2012) and 70% of primary schools operating in economically advanced areas and 30% of primary schools operating in less developed areas started teaching English as a compulsory subject at primary school level in 2004 (Hu & McKay, 2012). It means that at least 50 million primary students take English lessons at least 4 times a week.

In addition, some of the children from middle class families might have studied English since their pre-school period (i.e. kindergartens). However, the outcome of such early English education often consists of simple contents such as a small amount of basic vocabulary items, simple English songs, and short dialogues, with basic pronunciation rules taught at a kindergarten level (Hu & McKay, 2012; Hu, 2002). According to the Ministry of Education (2008), the pre-school level is not compulsory.

English proficiency is considered as one of the essential requirements for entering higher education and going to the Anglophone universities for further education. Consequently, there has been a very high demand for English teaching and learning in China since the early 1990s. Evening universities, distance learning and radio or television English courses have come up since the 1990s to satisfy learners of English who are not in the formal education system but still eager to upgrade their English proficiency (Hu, 2002). Furthermore, in 1993, the Chinese central government further relaxed its policy of studying abroad; as a result, a studying abroad trend started in the late 1990s (Hu, 2002). According to the MOE (2017), the Anglophone universities in the USA, UK, Australia and Canada are the most popular destinations for Chinese students. Since the start of the new millennium, the number of Chinese students who go to study abroad has been increasing dramatically every year. According to the latest statistics (Ministry of Education, 2017), over five million Chinese students had studied abroad by 2017. It triggered extra needs for English proficiency in taking foreign language tests such as TOEFL and IELTS exams. More private-sector English-training organisations have appeared to cater for the increasing needs of English learning.

As will be seen in the findings chapter, there are 6 teacher participants of this research who worked for private English training organisations that help students to prepare their overseas studies. Most of the learner participants in this research, started to learn English as a compulsory module from the first grade of primary school if they were

born in Guangdong. However, learners who come from outside Guangdong may have started to learn English in the third year of primary or later, as there are significant differences in English teaching in different areas in China (Hu, 2010).

2.2.3 The English Curriculum Standards for senior secondary school English teaching

In 2003, the MOE issued the first edition of English curriculum standards (ECS). The MOE updates the ECS every few years to adapt to the rapid development of science and technology and the profound changes in social life. The version in use in most senior secondary schools at the time of writing is the version revised in 2013, the participating school also uses this version as a guideline for teaching and learning English in school. Thus, I will briefly introduce this version of ECS in this section.

In contrast to the previous versions, the main aim of latest revised version is to shift from overemphasising the transmission of language knowledge (i.e. grammar and vocabulary) to developing comprehensive language competence that goes beyond linguistic knowledge. According to the new ECS (2017), comprehensive language competence includes: multi-cultural awareness, building up an open and inclusive attitude, developing a healthy aesthetic taste, deepening understanding of motherland culture, enhancing patriotism, firming up cultural confidence, establishing a correct world view, life view and values. Thus, English classes seem to have been refashioned into national and global citizenship education.

The ECS states that the syllabuses and teaching content, as far as communicative competence in English is concerned, should mainly focus on six core dimensions: topic, discourse, language knowledge, cultural knowledge, communicative competence and learning strategies. These six core elements, together with the citizenship elements described above, arguably establish a holistic view of English teaching and learning; they are not separate teaching guidelines, rather, they are interconnected and support each other. I will provide a brief overview of the six dimensions as established by the ECS:

1. Topic means all language learning and teaching should be undertaken in a specific context, and English teachers should encourage the students to use

language skills to integrate language and cultural knowledge in the process of problem solving. The new ECS is clearly against an emphasis on language knowledge without a meaningful context.

2. Discourse refers to different types of genres and registers, for example narratives, essays, reports, news, as well as spoken discourse which includes conversation, songs, audio and videos.
3. Language knowledge includes phonetics, vocabulary, grammar, discourse and pragmatic knowledge. The new ECS suggests that the purpose of learning language knowledge is to develop the ability to use language, so special attention should be paid to the expressive skills in authentic communication contexts. The new ECS also emphasises that English teachers should guide students to practise English by designing different practice activities to help students reach a standard English level in phonetics, vocabulary, grammar and writing.
4. Cultural knowledge involves understanding both Chinese and western cultural knowledge. The new ECS emphasises that this is the foundation for students to understand cultural connotations, compare cultural similarities and differences, and strengthen cultural self-confidence in language learning. It is worth highlighting that cross-intercultural awareness has been brought into the new ECS. The new ECS states that language cannot be separated from culture, thus English teachers should teach English with an English-speaking country's cultural sensitivity.
5. Communicative competence comprises the skills of listening, speaking, reading, viewing, and writing. Listening, reading and viewing are comprehensive skills, whereas speaking and writing are expressive skills. The new ECS points out that viewing means the skill of understanding graphs, tables, animation and videos as this is a vital skill in the new media era. It is worth noting that apart from these five skills, students are also encouraged to develop critical thinking skills under the new ECS. In addition, the new ECS highlights that teachers should primarily cultivate students' English skills and critical thinking skills in English. Communicative competence has been a goal of English teaching and learning for a long time since CLT was introduced to China in 1990 (Ministry of

Education, 2008). However, it has also been controversial. The new ECS seems to suggest that it is questionable that communicative competence should be the only goal of teaching and learning English as the previous CLT policy had recommended. According to the new ECS, communicative competence is only one of the six core elements in English teaching. The theoretical framework underpinning the new ECS is that language is more than a tool for communication, especially for senior secondary school students. Language is also a tool for thinking and learning, opening window to view different cultures, as well as a bridge for participation in social life.

6. The learning strategies include meta-cognitive strategy, cognitive strategy, communicative strategy, and affective strategy. According to the new ECS, the term 'meta-cognitive' refers to planning, monitoring, and reflecting on English learning. 'Cognitive strategy' means building a connection between old and new English language knowledge, learning grammar and vocabulary in context, as well as focusing on both the form and the function of the English language. The new ECS clarifies that affective strategy includes interests, motivation and confidence in English learning. The rationale behind this view is that positive affective factors could facilitate effective learning. Learning strategy aims to cultivate students' ability to control and manage their learning process by participating in language-learning activities. In addition, the new ECS urges teachers to help students to develop autonomous learning habits to improve their English-learning effectiveness and efficiency by effectively using learning strategy. The new ECS believes that learning strategy is transferable and sustainable so that students could use the learning strategies from English classes over their whole lifetime and eventually become autonomous language learners.

This enhanced understanding of what English learning entails, means that teaching methods had to be adjusted. The writing committee of the new ECS agree that there is not a single teaching method that has proven to be effective in all contexts. The new ECS therefore does not have a section on teaching methods. The new ECS draws up a list of recommending teaching methods, not surprisingly, the communicative approach and task-based language teaching (TBLT) are still on the list. In principle,

English teachers are supposed to have more freedom to teach creatively. The following is a list of recommended teaching methods in the new ECS:

- Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)
- Project-based cooperative learning
- Five steps teaching method

Step 1: Review

Step 2: Presentation

Step 3: Consolidation

Step 4: Practice

Step 5: Project

- Situational Language Teaching (SLT)
- Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

In terms of language usage, the new ECS still encourages English teachers to use English as much as possible to create an authentic environment for students to engage emotionally with English and to provide students with plenty of opportunities to use English to think, understand, express themselves and communicate. In addition, the new ECS also mentions that English teachers should focus on improving students' English thinking skills so that students pay more attention on using English for communication rather than only focusing on the form of the language. However, in the specific teaching content requirement, there is little reference made to translation for learning English. As will become clear from the literature review, as well as my findings section, translation, which has a great tradition in China based on the grammar-translation method, preceding CLT, is a crosslingual approach to language learning, which is widely used. However, as will be seen translation can be used in many different ways.

First, in regard to grammar, the new ECS states that English teachers should use translation as a teaching method to help students understand the meaning and the function of key words in an English sentence or paragraph. Second, when it comes to

teaching the content requirement of culture, English teachers should compare the differences between Chinese and western culture.

2.2.4 Exam-oriented context

As mentioned in section 2.2, Chinese basic education spans 12 years which includes primary, junior and senior secondary education. At the end of each education period, every student must take a national graduation examination. All students have to pass the examination in order to progress to the next level of education. Chinese parents tend to believe that education can change one's destiny, so obtaining a high score and progressing to the next level of education are vital for children in almost every Chinese family. As a result, helping students pass all kinds of examinations is the most important job of schoolteachers. In order to achieve a better performance in the graduation examinations, all students have to go through all different types of tests in their educational life. They include mid-term tests or end-of-term tests, as well as mock tests organised at the city or provincial level.

This thesis will only focus on the National College Entrance Examination (NCEE) also known as gaokao (高考), because all my learner participants are now in their senior secondary study and they are all studying towards the NCEE. The NCEE was first reformed in 1977 after the Cultural Revolution, and was further improved in 1985, 1999, 2001, 2009 and 2019. The NCEE is a highly centralised exam system (Suen, 2005), all students who are in their final year of senior secondary school have taken the NCEE on 7th and 8th of June every year since 2003. The dates for the NCEE were 7th 8th and 9th of July every year from 1979 to 2002. It is also the only route to progress into a Chinese university for Chinese senior secondary school graduates. As I mentioned in section 2.2.1, students in Guangdong need to pass all the core subjects they choose in order to progress into a Chinese university. There are four different levels of universities and colleges for students to be enrolled into after NCEE based on their final NCEE scores. Only top-performing students have the chance to enrol in so-called prestigious universities, which are associated with getting high-status job opportunities after their graduation from university.

However, considerable regional autonomy was gained in designing exam papers in 2004. There were 11 provinces that designed their own exam papers in 2004 instead

of taking the national exam papers. 16 provinces across the country had designed their own exam papers by 2011. In recent years, plenty of provinces have stopped designing their own exam papers. In 2019, only two provinces (Jiangsu and Zhejiang) and Beijing, Tianjin and Shanghai used individual exam papers. All the rest of the provinces and cities in China adopted three different versions of national exam papers.

The history of examinations in China is associated with tradition and can be traced back to about 1314 years ago. The national examination was called Keju (科举) in history. Keju started in the Sui Dynasty (around the year 606), Chinese emperors appointed those who were successful in the Keju as scholars. These scholars might have had the chance to serve the Chinese emperor of the day as district magistrates, prefectural governors, provincial governors, national departmental ministers or even prime ministers (Suen, 2005). Keju was the only official method to select individuals for high-power positions with privileges and advantages, as well as financial rewards. Keju as the only official national exam system lasted for more than 1000 years in Chinese history, and those who did well in it had privileges and advantages which also benefited their entire family and ancestry. However, only a few successful candidates passed all the different levels and reached the top of the pyramid which made Keju extremely competitive. Thus, the idea of ‘万般皆下品，唯有读书高’ (All pursuits are of low value; Only studying the books is high) is still deeply rooted in the mind of the Chinese (Hu & West, 2015; Kirkpatrick & Zang, 2011; Suen, 2005)

It can be discerned that it is a tradition that the Chinese Education system has been driven by centralised and highly competitive examinations. Currently, the NCEE seems to be considered as the fairest and most practical method for selecting students to go to university from a large population of secondary graduates. However, the washback influence on teaching and learning in language education is obvious. Many researchers point out that there is a negative impact of the NCEE. First, examination-oriented teaching has been prevalent in China at every level of education. Examinations are the only goal of learning all subjects (Hu, 2010). Second, single marking criteria lead students to be concerned about right or wrong answers instead of critical thinking (Kirkpatrick & Zang, 2011). Third, the authorities (i.e. the MOE) decide what students should learn and should not learn, and teachers tend to be constructed as the absolute authority of teaching and learning. Consequently, students’

independent learning abilities and creative use of knowledge are largely neglected (Hu & West, 2015; Hu, 2002; Kirkpatrick & Zang, 2011; Suen, 2005). Fourth, student aptitude is solely judged on examination scores which leads to extreme pressure for all students and teachers. Scores, therefore, define the value of every student, high scorers gain praise and appreciation, but lower scores unfortunately lead to punishment (Kirkpatrick & Zang, 2011) and reduced status.

Furthermore, in terms of language education, it is widely acknowledged that exam-oriented teaching failed to develop students' communicative competence (i.e. the ability to use the target language in an authentic context especially in speaking) to an adequate level. The reason is that communicative competence is largely ignored in English examinations (Hu, 2010), although the new ECS (Ministry of Education, 2017) emphasises that all learning and teaching should happen in authentic contexts, and with communicative competence as a learning goal. It also the main reason why most Chinese students have complained about lacking the ability to express themselves. Last but not least, highly competitive examinations and single marking criteria can cause further educational inequality especially for students living in rural areas with less well-equipped educational resources (Hu & West, 2015).

2.3 Positionality and conclusion

Growing up in China Hubei Province myself, I have experienced my environment as multilingual. However, Mandarin was the only official language used in my school from year 1993 to 2005, even during break time, I was encouraged by my teachers and the head teacher to use Mandarin to communicate with my friends and teachers. Based on my experience, dialects were mostly used in families at home, and outside school with friends.

From an English-learner perspective, English was one of the core compulsory subjects together with Chinese and mathematics when I was in the senior secondary school. I was predominantly taught by GTM as English teaching and assessment largely focused on the form of English. Thinking back, my English teachers used Mandarin a lot in their teaching to support understanding of grammar, provide translations and giving instructions. I rarely had opportunities to practice spoken English as verbal communication was not included in the examinations. On the occasion of a previous

research project (Yan, 2016), I observed that similar practices still exist, despite the fact that the MOE has emphasised communicative language teaching since the early 1980s. My experience shows that there is a tension between using Mandarin to support English learning, and sufficient opportunities to practice verbal communication in English.

To sum up, the new ECS introduced in section 2.2.3 acknowledges that English teaching and learning should not solely focus on the form of language, so it draws up six core dimensions of English teaching. However, there is no explicit guidance on how to use different languages and translation in English teaching. As will be seen in the literature review and my findings chapter, Mandarin and translation is widely used in English teaching in China, which resonates with my educational experiences. Thus, I will return to the six core dimensions in the conclusion to discuss policy implications based on my findings.

3. Literature Review

This section consists of a review of the literature and discussion on previous studies on different aspects of the theoretical framework of my thesis. These existing theories and previous research do not only provide the theoretical framework, but also provide the literature context on which the present study is based. There are five main strands of literature to help me to answer my research questions by giving definitions of important terms, as well as informing the current study in the field.

In section 3.1, I will firstly discuss the definitions of bilingualism and multilingualism, I will mainly draw on Baker (2011) who proposes that bi-/multilingualism is not as simple as the manner of one plus one, as balanced bi-/multilingualism is just an ideal concept. Secondly, the definitions of plurilingualism and the linguistic repertoire will be discussed. The notion of plurilingualism is used to describe personal multilingualism at a micro level (Council of Europe, 2001). Plurilingualism is about people's multiple language competences at different levels in different skills. Then, I will bring in the idea of the linguistic repertoire.

In section 3.2, I will review the literature and discussion on previous studies on language awareness. I will discuss the definition of language awareness from a monolingual perspective first. Then, I will introduce the multilingual tendency of understanding language awareness namely multilingual awareness. In section 3.3, I will discuss different forms of bilingual and multilingual education mainly based on Baker (2011), Hu (2008) and Garcia (2009), and main bi-/multilingual approaches in second language education. Finally, I will review bilingual education in China which is of particular relevance to my study.

There are two main focuses of section 3.4, they are translation in second language education and translanguaging as they are one of the main research topics of this study. In terms of translation in second language education, I will mainly draw on Cook (2010) and Laviosa (2014) to advocate that we should remedy the neglect of using translation in second language education. First, I will discuss the previous literature on the definition of translation in second language, as well as the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) which is a bilingual teaching method with plenty of translation. Second,

I will review the brief history of the rejection of translation. Finally, I will end this section with empirical studies on translation in second language education in different contexts.

Regarding translanguaging, I will mainly draw on García (2011), Li (2015), and Baker (2011) to discuss the definitions of translanguaging. Then, I will review the literature that mainly focuses on using translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy in different contexts. Finally, empirical studies on using translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy in different contexts will be reviewed.

3.1 Bilingualism, Multilingualism and Plurilingualism

This section sets out to review different definitions of bilingualism, multilingualism and plurilingualism. In addition, the relevant terms in this field such as domains, the linguistic repertoire, the different types of bilingual and multilingual education will also be discussed.

3.1.1 Bilingualism, Multilingualism and Plurilingualism

Generally speaking, according to Richards and Schmidt (2010), bilingualism refers to the abilities of an individual or a group of speakers who are able to use at least two languages, for example the residents of a certain region or nation. Similarly, if three or more languages are used by an individual or group of people in a certain geographic area it is called multilingualism. Baker (2011) concludes that bilingualism and multilingualism could be considered as an individual possession and as a group possession. In addition, individual bilinguals and multilinguals are normally included in groups.

There are wide ranges of definitions for bilinguals. Traditionally, according to Bloomfield (1933, p. 56), bilinguals are groups of individuals whose two languages are equally developed and 'have native-like control of two languages'. Baker (2011, p. 9) argues that this is a monolingual view of bilingualism, as people consider 'the bilingual as two monolinguals in one person.' Baker (2011) calls them balanced bilinguals. However, Baker (2011) points out that the term balanced bilinguals is often used as an ideal concept. It is difficult to be competent in two or more languages in all contexts. This narrow definition of bilinguals would exclude large numbers of people from being categorised as bilinguals because 'native-like control' is a rather challenging standard

(Butler, 2013). Also, there is no clear definition of 'native-like control' (Baker, 2011). Moreover, according to Ellis (2008, p. 313), an individual is monolingual means 'who does not have access to more than one linguistic code as a means of social communication'. However, some scholars question that does monolingual exist in an era of borderless communications and globalisation (Ellis, 2008; Gramling, 2016; Melo-Pfeifer, 2021).

Nowadays, researchers tend to use a broader definition of bilinguals which defines bilinguals as individuals whose competence in both languages is at different levels in different domains. Baker (2011) considers this broader sense of definition as a holistic view of bilingualism. From a holistic perspective, 'the bilingual is not the sum of two complete or incomplete monolinguals, but that he or she has a unique linguistic profile' (Baker, 2011, p. 26). This means that people who speak two or more languages could use different languages in their daily life in different domains. For example, a bilingual person may use one language at work and another language at home. A broader definition of bilinguals provides a dynamic view of one's language abilities and language use in different domains. The sociolinguistic term of domains is defined by Egbe (2014, pp. 56-57) as 'institutional contexts in which one language is more likely to be appreciated than another and are to be seen as constellations of other factors such as topic, location and participants'. Fishman (1972) suggests that in a multilingual society an individual multilingual would tend to use different languages in different settings. There are different domains in multilingual societies such as business occasions, social events, educational settings, cultural events, travel, writing, religion, neighbourhood, and home. The home is the 'anchor' domain (Adams, Matu, & Ongarora, 2012, p. 99). Hornberger (2002, p. 30) argues from an ecological perspective that 'multilingualism is essentially about opening up ideological and implementational space in the environment for as many languages as possible'.

Thus, I will use the terms bilingualism and multilingualism to refer to an individual or a group of people who possess more than one language. The terms bilinguals and multilinguals will be used for individual language learners or individual language teachers who are able to speak more than one language in different levels in a bilingual or multilingual context.

In terms of plurilingualism, Marshall and Moore (2013) state that the concept of plurilingualism challenges traditional notions of bilingualism and multilingualism that define the use of more than one language in a balanced competence. In contrast, plurilingualism recognises that people have multiple language competences at different levels in different skills (i.e. reading, writing, listening, speaking) and in different domains as I discussed above.

The Council of Europe (2001, p. 4) defines plurilingualism as:

'the repertoire of varieties of language which many individuals use, and ...therefore the opposite of monolingualism; it includes the ... first language and any number of other languages or varieties...Plurilingualism differs from multilingualism, which is the knowledge of a number of languages, or the coexistence of different languages in a given society Beyond this, the plurilingual approach emphasises the fact that as an individual person's experience of language in its cultural contexts expands, from the language of the home to that of society at large and then to the languages of other peoples ..., he or she does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact.'

Therefore, in light of plurilingualism, an individual plurilingual can be understood as a social agent who is developing a repertoire consisting of different languages at various levels (Marshall & Moore, 2013; Moore & Gajo, 2009). Researchers in this field all agree that an individual plurilingual does not need to master every language he or she speaks (Bernaus, Andrade, Kervran, Murkowska, & Sáez, 2007; Canagarajah, 2009; Ellis, 2013; Flores, 2013; Lin, 2013b; Marshall & Moore, 2013). As Beacco and Byram (2007, p. 38) explain:

'Being plurilingual does not mean mastering a large number of languages to a high level, but acquiring the ability to use more than one linguistic variety to degree (which are not necessarily identical) for different purposes (conversation, reading or writing, etc.). The degree of proficiency is not necessarily the same for all the varieties used and will also be different according to communicative context (a

person can read a language without being able to speak it or speak it without being able to write it well) ... The degree of proficiency in the varieties in the repertoire may change over time, as may its composition'.

From this quotation we can see that being plurilingual is a dynamic and complex process. Therefore, the aim of plurilingualism is not simultaneously learning or teaching as many languages as possible. In contrast, the goal of plurilingualism is to develop plurilingual competence so that different languages can be functioning in different domains (Flores, 2013; Marshall & Moore, 2013). According to the Council of Europe (2001),

'Plurilingual and pluricultural competence refers to the ability to use languages for the purpose of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social agent has proficiency, of varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures. This is not seen as the superposition or juxtaposition of distinct competences, but rather as the existence of a complex or even composite competence on which the user may draw'.

Thus, there are no clear boundaries between the languages of plurilinguals (Canagarajah, 2009). Cenoz and Gorter (2013) argue that a plurilingual approach is an innovative approach as it softens the boundaries between languages. Lin (2013b, p. 522) echoes that we cannot define teaching and learning a language 'as a static, monolithic entity with solid boundaries'. In line with the notion of plurilingualism, there are also related notions such as flexible bilingualism (Creese & Blackledge, 2011; García, 2009), translanguaging (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García, 2009; García & Li, 2014), and translingual teaching approaches (Canagarajah, 2012) which recognise that there are no clear boundaries between languages. Canagarajah (2012, p. 6) argues that 'communication transcends individual languages'. Languages are not at war with each other, they complement each other in communication. Language users could use all available codes as their linguistic repertoire in daily communication. Moreover, Canagarajah (2012, p. 7) indicates that 'meaning does not arise from a common grammatical system or norm, but through negotiation practice in a local situation'. It is noteworthy to mention that plurilingualism and translanguaging are sometimes similar to each other, and sometimes they end up leading to the same pedagogies (García & Otheguy, 2020). However, García and Otheguy (2020, pp. 31-

32) point out that translanguaging 'brings forth and affirms dynamic multilingual realities, it offers the potential to transform minoritized communities sense of self that the concept of plurilingualism may not allow always do'. Examining Chinese English teachers' and learning perceptions of translanguaging is one of the main research aims of this study. Therefore, I will discuss translanguaging in the later sections separately.

In addition, linguistic repertoire is an important term when understanding language education from the plurilingual perspective. The linguistic repertoire is a sociolinguistic term developed by Gumperz (1964). According to Gumperz (1964, p. 138), the linguistic repertoire 'contains all the accepted ways of formulating messages. It provides the weapons of everyday communication. Speakers choose among this arsenal in accordance with the meanings they wish to convey'. The Council of Europe (2012 p.51) defines the linguistic repertoire as 'a group of language varieties ... mastered by the same speaker, to different degrees of proficiency and for different uses'. Busch (2015, p. 344) comments that the linguistic repertoire is a holistic concept of comprising all 'languages, dialects, styles, registers, codes and routines' that plurilinguals use to interact in their daily life. Busch's holistic understanding of linguistic repertoire echoes the holistic view of bilingualism defined by Baker (2011), as I discussed in the last section.

Gumperz (1964) suggests that it is the individual plurilingual's decision about to use their linguistic resources openly and to draw from them as the situation demands, but this does not mean that the linguistic repertoire can be used randomly. Linguistic repertoires can be a precious resource to develop plurilingual competence and metalinguistic awareness. Plurilinguals can use the experience of learning other language when learning English (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013). However, Busch (2015) points out that language learners only realise that they have such a linguistic repertoire when they become aware that they are speaking another language. For example, a learner speaks a rural vernacular in an urban secondary school. Her or his repertoire only can be used in her or his home, then this learner would scarcely notice that she or he has a linguistic repertoire. I will discuss language awareness and how we could make languages visible in schools in the next session.

3.2 Language Awareness

This section aims to review literature on the development of understanding language awareness (LA) from a monolingual perspective to a multilingual perspective.

3.2.1 Understanding LA from monolingual perspectives

The notion of 'awareness of language' has been advocated since the 1960s by Eric Hawkins who is sometimes called 'the father of language awareness' (Ellis, 2012, p. 3). Hawkins (1984) proposes that the notion of 'awareness of language' could integrate different aspects of language education in the school curriculum in the UK. These different aspects of language education include English, foreign language, ethnic minority mother tongues, English as second language and Latin, and Hawkins (1984) points out that these different aspects were learnt in isolation at that time in the UK. According to Hawkins (1984), there are two main aims of bringing in awareness of language in the school curriculum. Firstly, awareness of language could stimulate pupils' curiosity about language and promote questions about language to develop linguistic understanding. Secondly, awareness of language could provide a space for pupils and teachers to discuss the diversity of language so that linguistic prejudice would be challenged. The reason is that 'the best weapon against prejudice is open discussion and greater awareness' (Hawkins, 1984, p. 4).

The notion of 'awareness of language' advocated by Hawkins is for general education, and mainly understood from a monolingual perspective. However, Hawkins (1984, p. 134) also points out three main ways that foreign language education could contribute to language awareness.

1. foreign language learning could provide positive feedback on the mother tongue and cultural stereotypes;
2. foreign language learning could encourage close attention to matching words to meanings;
3. foreign language learning could build confidence in what Halliday called the 'mathetic' function of language (i.e. using language to learn about the world).

The term language awareness (LA) has been frequently used in the language teaching field since Bolitho and Tomlinson (1980) published their book *Discover English: A*

Language Awareness Workbook in 1980. They wrote a collection of exercises for pre-service and in-service English teachers' courses in their book. The aim of the exercises is to develop English teachers' sensitivity towards English language (Bolitho & Tomlinson, 1980). Donmall (1985, p. 7) provides a similar definition of LA, stating that 'language awareness is a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of language and its role in human life'. After Bolitho and Tomlinson's publication, LA gradually developed in the language-teaching field. Generally speaking, there are now three main ways of understanding LA in language teaching (García, 2008), they are knowledge about language, knowledge of language and pedagogical practice (García, 2008; Wright, 2002; Wright & Bolitho, 1997).

First, knowledge about language refers to forms and function of language systems, knowledge about language includes explicit grammar, phonology and vocabulary study (Edge, 1988; García, 2008). Hales (1997 p. 217) echoes that this type of LA 'could be glossed as a sensitivity to grammatical, lexical or phonological features and the effect on meaning brought about by the use of different forms'. Edge (1988) suggests that this type of LA could be helpful to language teacher to improve their own command and use of English, and they could be able to become language analysts.

Second, knowledge of language includes the ability to use language appropriately in different contexts and situations, and the ability to be aware of different social and pragmatic norms (García, 2008). It means languages are not used in a fixed and unchangeable way, and language learning is a dynamic and flexible process. In addition, as Edge (1988) pointed out, this type of LA could not only facilitate language learning for learners, but could also help language teachers to make pedagogical decisions in order to develop both themselves and their learners as proficient language users. The reason is that English teachers need to raise their learners' awareness that language is normally used in different contexts by different people for different purposes in real life (Andrews, 1999; Arndt, Harvey, & Nuttall, 2000). Arndt et al. (2000) emphasises that the premise of this type of LA is that learning language is not only about language itself, but also about how language works in real life.

To sum up, the concepts of LA reviewed in this section have been mainly understood from monolingual perspectives. Hawkins (1984) coined the term LA for general education. Bolitho and Tomlinson (1989) introduced LA to language education, but

their understanding of LA is still based on monolingual assumptions as it mostly focuses on the target language which is the language the teacher was teaching in the classroom with 'little understandings of the students' language' (García, 2008, p. 386). However, Hawkins is not only interested in target language teaching itself, but also in promoting curiosity about different languages and challenging linguistic prejudices (García, 2008). Furthermore, in Hawkins' awareness of language, he also encourages learners to pay attention to the knowledge outside of target language. Some of the key aims of his book are challenging learners to ask questions such as 'how many languages are spoken in our country today? What similarities are there between different languages? Where did our language come from, how has it changed and how is it changing' (Hawkins, 1984, p. xi)? In the following section, I will review literature on understanding LA from multilingual perspectives.

3.2.3 Understanding LA from multilingual perspectives

From the multilingual perspective, the Association for Language Awareness (ALA) offers the following definitions of LA:

explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use ... it covers a wide spectrum of benefits that can be derived from developing a good knowledge about language, a conscious understanding of how languages work, of how people can learn them and use them (ALA 2012, cited in Ellis 2012 p. 2).

According to ALA, LA is relevant for all language users not only for language teachers and for learners. In terms of language learning, there are two main roles for LA. First, from a language teacher's perspective, LA could develop language teachers' sensitivity to language so that LA could be a goal of teacher education (García, 2008; Wright, 2002). Second, from the language learning perspective, LA could be a teaching method, a learning activity type. Language learners could raise their LA through working with certain type of teaching or learning activities (Wright, 2002).

3.2.3.1. Five Domains of Language awareness

James and Garret (1991) propose five domains of LA to understand LA from the multilingual perspective as it includes all learners' linguistic repertoire in different domains. The five domains are the affective domain, the social domain, the power domain, the cognitive domain, and the performance domain. As I discussed in section 3.1.1, domain here means where each language is acquired and used for different purposes (Baker, 2011; Egbe, 2014).

The affective domain encourages learners to involve their personal experiences and feelings. The affective domain 'adds up to total involvement of the learner's whole person' (Frank & Rinvoluceri, 1983, p. 8). James and Garrett (1991) indicates that the affective domain is the most central domain. Learners' feelings towards one language can be a ligament of that language (Rinvoluceri, 1984). For example, according to my teaching and learning experience, a learner could be extremely motivated to learn English because this learner is fond of a particular English-speaking singer or actor.

In addition, in the language portrait activity, some learners would indicate that their first language is their heart. The language portrait activity is a language awareness activity that asks language learners to fill in and colour a body silhouette, using symbols and accompanying written comments (see an example of language portrait in Figure 3.1). Language learners could use different colours to indicate different language usages and language learners could also colour different positions of the body to show they have different emotional affiliations to a certain language (Busch, 2006; Wolf, 2014). Language portrait activity can provide strong insights into language learners' experiences as well as their linguistic repertoires (Wolf, 2014). Donmall (1985, p. 7) summarises that the affective domain of LA is specifically in terms of 'forming attitudes, awakening and developing attention, sensitivity, curiosity, interest and aesthetic response'.

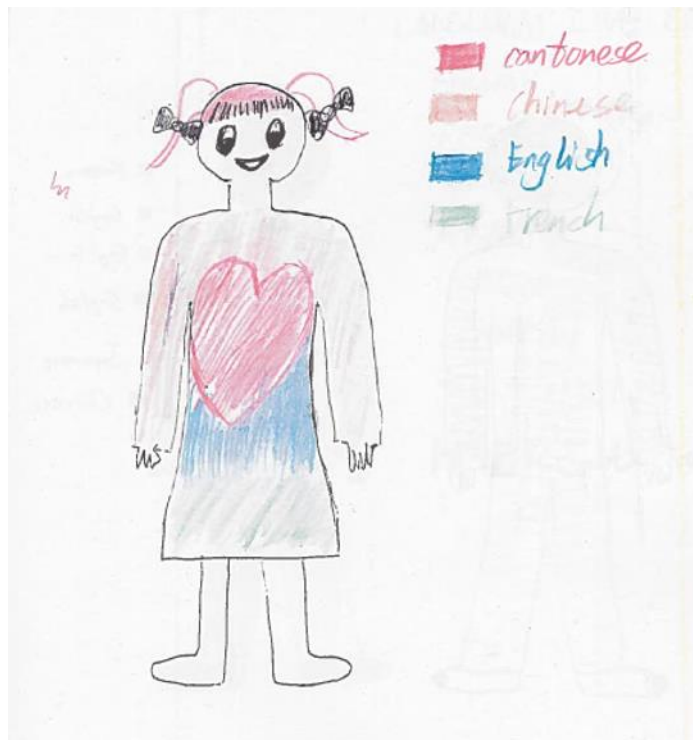


Figure 3. 1: An example of language portrait activity (source from: MEd TESOL Module: Multilingual approaches to language teaching and learning 2105)

The social domain refers to when LA can be used as an instrument for social cohesion via understanding of linguistic variety, the social domain of LA could also be a step towards linguistic tolerance (James & Garrett, 1991). Countries in Europe and North American have experienced the influence of globalisation and migrations since the 1950s. Consequently, the traditional monolingual and monoculture ideology has been challenged (Fang & Liu, 2020). However, bilingualism and multilingualism sometimes cause problems to schools and the whole society. Nevertheless, LA, according to (Donmall, 1985, p. 7), could 'foster better relations between all ethnic groups by arousing pupils' awareness of the origins and characteristics of their own language and dialect and their place in the wider map of languages and dialects used in the world beyond'.

The power domain of LA refers the raising of learners' awareness of social language attitudes, hierarchies and status, as well as political language policy made by authorities. The authorities can be governments, the Church and bureaucracies, or even individuals (James & Garrett, 1991). James and Garrett (1991, p. 14) argue that the power domain of LA could alert language learners that language can sometimes be 'used as an instrument of manipulation'. Moreover, the power domain of LA could

also foster language learners' awareness of the linguistic situation in a certain region. For example, how many languages are there in this region? What is the official language in this region? What are the dialects in this region? Which languages are encouraged to be spoken in schools?

According to Donmall (1985, p. 7), the cognitive domain includes 'developing awareness of pattern, contrast, system, units, categories, rules of language in use and the ability to reflect upon them'. The cognitive domain of LA is similar to the first understanding of LA (i.e. knowledge about language). Language learners would be made aware of the forms and function of language. However, James and Garrett (1991) remind us that it does not mean we should teach arid grammar knowledge only to our learners in a decontextualised way. Rather, the fundamental purpose of language learning and teaching should be language in use. It not only aims to focus learners' attention on language forms but also raise their awareness of how these forms work (Thornbury, 1997). It is significantly important for language learners to understand the relationship between form and function – 'between what we say what we mean' (Murray, 2016).

In addition, Svalberg (2007) argues that the cognitive domain of LA could also be understood from the second language acquisition (SLA) perspective. From the SLA perspective, the best starting point of language awareness is noticing (Schmidt, 2001). According to Schmidt (1994, p. 179), noticing is the 'registration (detection) of the occurrence of a stimulus event in conscious awareness and subsequent storage in long term memory'. Svalberg (2007) points out that noticing consists of attention and awareness. Implicit learning would not be possible without awareness (Schmidt, 2001). However, this is a strong noticing hypothesis (Svalberg, 2007). Al-Hejin (2004) agrees with Schmidt, however Al-Hejin takes a more cautious stance that awareness could cause change to a learner's behaviour and cognitive state, and awareness could facilitate learning.

Moreover, there is another notable point about the cognitive domain of LA. Some scholars argue that bi-/multilinguals are a particular group of learners when it comes to language learning strategies because they tend to apply a wide range of language learning strategies which are beyond one language (Dmitrenko, 2017; Kemp, 2007). In addition, Dmitrenko (2017) pointed out that language learning strategies in bi-

/multilingualism are usually connected with the concept of metalinguistic awareness. According to Jessner (1999, p. 205), metalinguistic awareness refers to the fact that 'the search for similarities between the languages can be seen as part of the activities related to metalinguistic thinking in the learner'. James and Garrett (1991) echoes the view that bi-/multilinguals are good at analysing the structural differences between languages and keeping them apart. This skill can be bilinguals' valuable cognitive assets.

The performance domain is the most controversial and the most significant issue in LA (James & Garrett, 1991). The reason is that the performance domain is closely related to the relationship between knowing about language and improving learners' performance or command of the language (Chik & Melo-Pfeifer, 2020). Donmall (1985), who has positive attitudes towards this issue, claims that the development of LA in language learners could have a positive effect on language learners' language competence. However, James and Garrett (1991, p. 19) suggest that 'language learners only make progress in their skills when they notice (or become aware of) the fact that their own utterances do not match those of utterances which serve as their models'. They call this a deficit view of LA. Furthermore, James and Garrett (1991) argue that in a deficit view of LA, monolinguals also have the cognitive advantage of being receptive to feedback and guidance like bilinguals do as I mentioned in the cognitive domain of LA.

In conclusion, these five domains all understand LA beyond only one language, and they are not isolated from each other. For example, the affective domain could motivate language learners to achieve a better language performance (James & Garrett, 1991). Besides, as I discussed above, the cognitive domain and the performance domain closely link to each other as well. Finally, I use the five domains model of LA proposed by James and Garrett (1991) as one of the main conceptual approaches in my thesis, especially the four domains which are highly relevant to my study, namely the affective domain, the social domain, the power domain and the cognitive domain. However, the performance domain is not relevant to my study because I focus on examining learners' and teachers' perceptions of LA rather than assessing learners' command of language.

3.2.3.2 Multilingual awareness

García (2008) developed LA further in the context of multilingual schools which she calls multilingual awareness (MLA). She argues that MLA must always build an extra understanding of LA, that is 'the understanding of the social, political and economic struggles surrounding the use of the two languages', and it has been informed by critical language awareness (Fairclough, 1999; cited in Garcia, 2008). The concept of critical language awareness (CLA) is developed by Fairclough (1992), it aims to raise awareness of the relationship between language and social power structures, as well as the role teachers have in shaping these relationships (Fairclough, 1992; Svalberg, 2007; Wiese et al., 2017).

García (2008) points out that there are large numbers of students who speak many different languages in schools all over the world in the twenty-first century. In some cases, students speak a different language from their teachers in the class. Teachers normally teach in languages which the school system calls the 'standard language' rather than the language students speak at home. These teachers are not only language teachers, also include content teachers. Language practice in multilingual schools is significantly different from the situation in so-called standard nation-state schools (Cummins, 2007; García, 2008). Schools especially in Europe and North America usually ignored the multilingualism of their allochthonous and indigenous students. However, these different language practices normally accompany social, political, and economics struggles (García, 2008).

To be specific, MLA invites all teachers, first, to appreciate both learners' and their own linguistic repertoires (Ellis, 2012; García, 2008; Wiese et al., 2017) as well as showing interest in other languages (Murray, 2016). As Baker (2011) proposed, language can be 'a personal, community and regional resource.' According to Baker (2011) bilingualism can be an intellectual resource, a cultural resource, an economic resource, a social resource, a communication resource and a citizenship resource (Lo Bianco, 2001). Second, teachers need to have the knowledge of bilingualism itself, as two languages spoken by teachers and learners are not isolated (García, 2008). Moreover, García (2008) also points out that developing teachers' knowledge of bilingual teaching methods building on learners' bilingualism would be significantly important in areas such as translanguaging (Baker, 2011) and translation (Cook, 2010).

In conclusion, as I discussed in section 2.1.1, the linguistic situation in schools in Guangdong Province is complex. Additionally, a significant number of migrants from outside Guangdong has settled down in Guangdong since the 1980s because of social and economic factors. Thus, these migrants also brought their own dialects into Guangdong province. The situation in Guangdong Province is similar to what García (2008) discussed in Europe and North America. Therefore, LA can provide a new angle to understand English education in Guangdong Province. First, non-native English-speaking teachers (non-NESTs) can be bilingual role models rather than deficit language learners (Cook, 1999; Cook & Singleton, 2014; Meier, 2017). Second, Meier (2017, p. 156) reminds us that LA does not 'advocate a laissez-faire attitude' towards language usage in teaching practice. Rather, LA encourages students, teachers, teacher educators and researchers to reflect critically on their own learning and teaching contexts to engage in making a judicious, sensitive and conscious linguistic practice to understand this increasingly multilingual world better (Meier, 2017). Finally, as I mentioned in the introduction, until recently, there was little rigorous empirical research about LA that had been conducted in China. Thus, I will use the literature I reviewed in section 3.2, especially the four domains of LA, to examine both teachers' and learners' perceptions of LA in a public senior secondary school in south China.

3.3 Bilingual and Multilingual Education

Generally speaking, bilingual and multilingual education refers to education in more than one language or more than two languages (Baker, 2011). Specifically in language education, bilingual and multilingual education encompasses the use of more than one or two languages in language or content teaching and learning in formal educational contexts (Meier, 2014c). The idea is that more than one or two languages could be used in the instructional material and could be used by teachers and learners (Brisk, 2005; García, 2009). Again, Baker (2011, p. 4) points out that bilingual and multilingual education do not mean one language plus a second language equals two languages, as 'the ownership of two languages is not as simple as having two wheels or two eyes', so bilingual and multilingual education is only an umbrella term to cover a variety of practices in language education.

3.3.1 Strong and weak forms of bilingual education

According to Baker (2011), there are three types of strong forms of bilingual education, they are heritage language bilingual education, dual language/ two-way immersion and immersion bilingual education.

The heritage language bilingual education is also called maintenance bilingual education (Baker, 2011; Hu, 2008). The minority children's heritage or native languages are used at least half the time as a medium of instruction in heritage language bilingual education programmes (Baker, 2011; Hu, 2008). At the same time, these heritage or native languages of minority children are also studied as a subject (Brisk, 2005). In addition, the majority language is also involved in the curriculum as an instructional language in varying proportions from 10% to 50% (Dicker, 2003). The aims of heritage language bilingual education include cultivation of pride in and respect for heritage languages and cultures (Hu, 2008), and developing understanding and tolerance towards different languages and cultures (Brisk, 2005; Cummins, 2007), as well as fostering appreciation for human equality and diversity (García, 2009). These aims are especially relevant for the education of refugees, immigrants, and indigenous people all over the world, for example tribal people in India, ethnic minorities in China, as well as autochthonous minorities in Africa and Asia (García, 2009).

Dual language/two-way immersion can be defined as approximately equal mixing and usage of two languages for learners in the same classroom who share a majority and a minority language respectively as mediums of instruction in one language programme (Baker, 2011; Hu, 2008; Meier, 2014b). There are different proportions of using languages in class in different contexts. For instance, a 50:50 model is predominately used in Europe, whereas other proportions are also common in the USA (Meier, 2014b). The two languages are used independently as mediums of instruction (Hu, 2008), and the language boundaries are established according to curriculum content (Baker, 2011). Meier (2014b) points out that two-way immersion is an effective way of learning two languages from each other and making both groups linguistic experts in language lessons. Moreover, the learners' home language could be a valuable asset in a two-way immersion programme.

Immersion bilingual education is different from heritage language education or two-way immersion. It aims to teach majority language learners a high-status second language. For instance, in Canada, immersion bilingual education programmes usually use English as Medium of Instruction (EMI) in French-speaking schools (Baker, 2011; Hu, 2008). The proportion of immersion can vary from 100% to 50% according to the learners' age, language level and curriculum time (Baker, 2011). In addition, a second language may be taught as a subject too in immersion bilingual education (Hu, 2008). Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) programmes are a product of promoting foreign language learning in schools in European countries (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010). Immersion bilingual education could develop intercultural understandings and biliteracy (Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2015).

There are also weak forms of bilingual education such as second language instruction for mainstream students and transitional bilingual education (Baker, 2011; Hu, 2008). The aims of weak forms of bilingual education are either to develop limited bilingualism among mainstream students, or to assimilate minority language learners into the mainstream education system (Baker, 2011; Hu, 2008). Hu (2008, p. 200) points out that transitional bilingual education tends to have 'a strong assimilationist orientation'. The fundamental objective of transitional bilingual education is to assimilate minority language learners into the mainstream education system in terms of cultures, identities, values, and beliefs. In addition, the outcome of learning is monolingualism or subtractive bilingualism rather than bilingualism.

3.3.2 Main approaches of bi-/multilingual education

This section discusses the main approaches of bi-/multilingual education that includes all learners' linguistic repertoires for learning.

CLIL and immersion

One definition of CLIL provided by Marsh (2002, p. 15) is that 'an umbrella term which refers to a dual-focused educational context in which an additional language, thus not usually the first foreign language of the learners involved, is used as a medium in the teaching and learning of non-language content'. Mehisto, Marsh, and Frigols (2008) further indicate that that CLIL involves using a students' second language (L2) as a medium of instruction and learning for primary, secondary and even professional level

subjects such as mathematics, history or business. It means that a second language is used to teach a certain subject in the curriculum rather than language lessons themselves (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010).

According to Mehisto et al. (2008, p. 11), CLIL has three foundation elements. Firstly, 'language learning is included in content class' such as mathematics, social science, natural science, and history. Thus, different types of scaffolding are required in a CLIL lesson to help students understand the content knowledge. Secondly, 'content from subjects is used in language-learning class'. The language teacher works with other subject teachers cooperatively in terms of vocabulary, terminology and texts from a certain subject to arouse students' desire to learn the language. Furthermore, Mehisto et al. (2008, p. 11) argue that there is a third function of CLIL approach: 'the development of learning skills supports the achievement of content language goals'.

Therefore, the ultimate purpose of CLIL is to improve students' understanding of subject content through the CLIL language, improve language skills in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing in the CLIL language, as well as improve cognitive and social skills through the CLIL approach (Mehisto et al., 2008). As Cummins and Swain (1986) presented in their model, students' language proficiency could be improved from Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) with range of contextual support to Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) with context-reduced communication (Cummins & Swain, 1986).

As I mentioned above, scaffolding plays a significant role in the CLIL lesson; it can come from the teacher, a student's peers and other resources (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010). For example, teachers could use pictures, diagrams, charts, experiments and gestures to visualise the content knowledge for better comprehension. Besides, interactions between peers in a CLIL lesson such as pair work and small group work could also be considered as scaffolding. Moreover, Lin (2015) argues that the L1 usage is another significant scaffolding in CLIL class. There are three main benefits of using the L1 in the CLIL lesson. First of all, L1 usage motivates students to engage in the class task by encouraging students to ask questions in L1 (Lin, 2015; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). Second, teachers can use L1 to confirm that students understand the class task, allowing students to concentrate on language items and new content especially in complicated tasks (Lin, 2015). Third, from the perspective of

Socio-cultural Theory (SCT), L1 usage could also facilitate in students' interaction especially for low-proficiency students (Moore, 2013).

Immersion is usually considered as the precursor of CLIL, however, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) argue that immersion and CLIL are interchangeable terms. They point out that there are both similarities and differences between them. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) summarise five major similarities between immersion and CLIL. First, the vital goal of the immersion programme is that students become proficient in both their L1 and the L2, simultaneously, they are also learning academic knowledge. Second, the students are taught in a new language to them. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) point out that it resembles the process of L1 acquisition. Third, the reason that parents choose immersion programmes is because they believe that immersion programmes are the best way of learning L2. Fourth, the teachers of immersion programmes must be bilinguals so that all teaching activities can be carried out in smoothly L2. Finally, the communicative approach is the fundamental teaching approach to all immersion programmes(Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010).

In terms of differences between immersion and CLIL, there are five main points (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010). First of all, the language used in the CLIL lesson is usually not the language spoken locally. The languages of instruction for CLIL are usually foreign languages and the great majority of students only use the language in formal instruction contexts. The case in immersion programmes is different because there are ample opportunities for immersion students to speak the local language in both formal contexts and in home-based, or community settings. Second, with regard to teachers, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) point out that the majority of teaching staff in immersion programmes consist of native speakers who have a high level in the language of instruction. However, in CLIL programmes, teachers are not normally native speakers of the language of instruction. Third, the normal starting age is different between immersion programmes and CLIL programmes. Most immersion programmes tend to be the early immersion type, whereas CLIL programmes tend to be late immersion programmes. For example, CLIL programmes are usually implemented in secondary education in Canada. In addition, in terms of teaching materials, the teaching materials adopted in immersion programmes aim to produce native-speaker level competence, while CLIL teachers usually use abridged materials.

Similar to the teaching materials, the objective of immersion programmes is to achieve a native-speaker level, whereas, CLIL programmes usually do not have such a far-reaching objective. Finally, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) point out that migrant students normally enrolled in immersion programmes in Spanish bilingual autonomous communities, but they seldom participate in CLIL programmes.

There is another type of immersion namely English as a medium of instruction (EMI) which is similar to CLIL. EMI normally is defined as 'the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English' (Macaro, 2018, p. 1). Again, there are similarities and differences between these two. In terms of similarities, both CLIL and EMI aim to create authentic learning contexts by using English as the medium of instruction, and these all need to focus on specific vocabulary and terminology (Coelho, 2013). Regarding the differences, many scholars point out that CLIL tends to provide extra language scaffolding to support students to understand linguistic knowledge and subject knowledge (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 2002; Mehisto et al., 2008), whereas EMI is more a subject content-oriented approach (Fernández, 2009).

Intercomprehension and third-language education

Doyé (2004, p. 60) defines intercomprehension as 'a form of communication in which each person uses her or his own language and understands that of the other. It works on the basis of the receptive competences of the communicators – partial competences in the sense of the Council of Europe – and does not presuppose the ability to use the other language'. Intercomprehension is based on an idea that learners can draw on their linguistic knowledge and previous language learning experience (Meier, 2014c). Bonvino, Fiorenza, and Cortés Velásquez (2018) argue that intercomprehension promotes plurilingualism and preserves multilingualism, and it is an approach that is useful in multilingual contexts and is suitable for minority languages.

Third-language education generally refers to learners who add a third language chronologically to their first and the second language, and the second language is usually English (Cenoz, 2013; Meier, 2014c). Likewise, third-language education is

also based on the idea that language learners can use their linguistic knowledge and previous language learning experience (Jessner, 2008; Meier, 2014c). Cenoz (2013) argues that third-language learners are more experienced language learners because they have gone through the process of learning a second language. They perhaps have developed certain skills and strategies for the third language learning. Therefore, third-language education resonates with both multilingualism and plurilingualism, because it pays attention to learners' linguistic repertoires and language learning experience.

Besides the main approaches that I discussed above, translanguaging and translation in language teaching are also significant approaches which has been increasingly used and developed in recent years in different multilingual contexts. Both translanguaging and translation in language teaching are the main focus of this thesis, so I will discuss them, as well as bilingual education in China, in separate later sections.

3.3.3 Bi-/multilingual education in China

Bilingual education is mainly for the ethnic groups in China, who compose about 8% of the total population in Mainland China (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2011). 'The rights of the minority nationalities to use, and be educated in, their native languages are protected by the Chinese National Constitution' (Lee & Li, 2013, p. 815). Liu and Edwards (2017) point out that bilingual education for minority populations mainly involves the teaching of Mandarin Chinese and an ethnic minority language. Lee and Li (2013) indicate that bilingual education for minority nationality students is mainly transitional bilingual education, which is a weak form of bilingual education, and the objective is monolingualism or subtractive bilingualism as I mentioned in section 3.1.3.1. Chinese minority nationality students are expected to develop bilingual competence to include mainstream Mandarin Chinese through transitional bilingual education (Hu, 2008).

For the largest ethnic group, the Han, who compose the remaining 92% of the population, Hu (2008) and Feng (2005) point out that bilingual education has become a popular ideology in China since the early 2000s. Hu (2008) summaries that there

are four types of bilingual instruction in China. The first type is that English teachers use Chinese exclusively to teach curriculum content, and use English complementarily to translate sentences, vocabulary and definitions. In the second type, English teachers use more English than in the first type for providing descriptions, more detailed explanations and illustrations, though Chinese is still the major language used.

The third type is the reverse of the second type: English is used more frequently while Chinese is used for clarification and explanation of complex and abstract content. The fourth type is using English almost exclusively as the medium of instruction. Currently in China, the first type and the second type are used in a great majority of Chinese English classes, because of the education resource inequality. The third and fourth types are provided by small number of well-resourced private schools in economically developed areas in China (Hu, 2008). Additionally, the Chinese Ministry of Education has promoted EMI as a key teaching approach in tertiary education since 2000s (Hu & Li, 2017; Pan, 2007), because the Chinese ministry of education believes that EMI is an effective way of achieving both disciplinary learning and English proficiency in the same classroom (Hu, 2019). As I discussed in the last section, EMI is the fourth type of bilingual education according to Hu's (2008) category.

It is worth mentioning that dialects have equally important position in bilingual education in China. From a linguistic perspective, dialect is a neutral term to describe a variation of a certain language (García, 2009). The definition of dialect offered by Romaine (1994) is that of 'a subordinate variety of a language,' and dialects could be associated with a geographic area, social class and ethnolinguistic groups (García, 2009). However, dialects have always been socially stigmatised as many people think that dialects are used in informal contexts with families and friends, whereas languages are systems of communication consisting of sounds, words and grammar which are used in formal contexts such as schools and is accepted by a country's government (Cambridge University Press, n.d.). García (2009) indicates that the significant difference between a language and a dialect is often not linguistic but social reasons, and it is speakers who empower languages. For example, Mandarin was originally a dialect in Hebei Province in China before it became the official language in 1956. Thus, I will use the term multilingual education to refer to the use of more than one or two languages and dialects in EFL in China in the following chapters of my

thesis. In addition, dialects are considered as language varieties in this thesis, as part of a learner's linguistic repertoire.

According to both my previous learning and teaching experience, as well as the findings of my own research (Yan, 2016), two languages are often used in EFL classrooms in China. Mandarin Chinese is usually used as scaffolding. In some areas of China a dialect, for example Cantonese and Hakka, would also be used as scaffolding or as a social interaction tool between the English teacher and students. Moreover, translation is used as the main tool in EFL classes in China, as the Grammar-Translation Method is still the predominant teaching method in the Chinese EFL class. I will discuss about the use of translation and Grammar-Translation Method more specifically in the section 3.4.3. The use of translanguaging will be also further discussed in the section 3.4.7.

3.4 Bi-/multilingual Approaches

As I reviewed in section 3.3.2, there are different bi-/multilingual approaches including immersion, CLIL, intercomprehension, third-language education, translation in second language teaching and translanguaging. I will focus on the translation in language teaching and translanguaging in this section as they are two of my main research topics.

3.4.1 Translation in second language education

In this section, first, I will provide a definition of translation in second language education and in the Grammar-Translation Method. Then, a brief history of the rejection of translation will be reviewed. Finally, recent research studies on using translation in second language education will be reviewed and discussed. By second language education I mean English language education in most of the cases in my literature review.

The teaching of translation as a professional skill, is not the same as language teaching through translation. In terms of translation as a professional skill, the most ordinary definition of translation is the 'process or result of transferring a text from one language into a text in another language' (Tymoczko, 2007, p. 54). Cook (2010, p. 55) also considers that a prevalent definition of translation is that 'it involves a transfer of

meaning from one language to another, and this is reflected in its Latin root *translatum*, a form of the verb *transferre* which means to carry across and is also the origin of the English word 'transfer'. It means that if we believe language is a communicative system made up of linguistic units which is bound by grammatical rules, the definition of translation could simply be transferring meaning between two languages. However, Tymoczko (2007) indicates that the definition of translation could be controversial depending on how language is defined. Cook (2010) agrees that the definition of translation is not straightforward and not easy to define. Translation is like other important terms usually used without a definition. 'Its meaning is slippery, but needs to be grasped' (Cook, 2010, p. 54).

Translation has also been used as a tool for language teaching and learning in second language education since the 18th century (Kim, 2008; Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Zhou & Niu, 2015). Cook (2010, p. xx) defines translation in language education as "the use of translation as an integral part of the teaching and learning process as a whole and as part of the general revival of bilingual teaching". González-Davies (2014, p. 11) defines translation in language education as 'an informed change of linguistic or cultural code applied consciously to an explicit primary source text, whether verbal or non-verbal'. Using translation in language education is different from code-switching and use of learners' L1(s) (González-Davies, 2020).

Cook (2010) argues that we should implement translation according to different teaching contexts. He suggests that 'the type, quantity, and function of translation activity must vary with the stage which learners have reached, with their ages, and with their own preferences, learning styles, and experiences' (Cook, 2010, p. 129). Cook (2010) advises that translation could be mainly used for enhancing explanation and resolve difficulties for adult beginners. For intermediate learners, translation may be predominantly used for developing translation skills and explaining linguistic knowledge. Translation should be used as a skill in its own right for advanced learners; translation could also help advanced learners to understand culture-specific meanings and problematic language forms as well as deepen their understanding of the differences and similarities between their own language and the new language. González-Davies (2017) suggests incorporating translation-based activities into plurilingual classrooms which can foster learners' language awareness and develop their plurilingual language skills.

3.4.2 A brief history of the rejection of translation

As mentioned above, using translation in second language education can be dated back to the 18th century. However, there were increased opportunities for communication among Europeans towards the mid-nineteenth century, so translation in the second language education was questioned and rejected as oral proficiency in second language was demanded from that period on (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). There is some agreement that the predominant reason for abandoning translation was the ideas of the Reform Movement formulated by a group of phoneticians and linguists at the end of the 19th century (Cook, 2010; Howatt, 1984; Richards & Rodgers, 2014), which I will turn to next.

Reform Movement

There were at least three main principles agreed and advocated by reformers at the time (Howatt, 1984; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Firstly, spoken language was considered the primary form of language (Cook, 2010; Howatt, 1984; Richards & Rodgers, 2014), and language teachers should be familiar with the principles of phonetics and apply them in their teaching. Moreover, based on this, an oral teaching methodology ought to have unconditional priority in language classes (Howatt, 1984). Cook (2010) indicates that this idea drew upon the new science of phonetics at the time which called for 'primacy of speech'. Second, words should be learnt in sentences, and sentences should be learnt in meaningful contexts (Cook, 2010; Howatt, 1984; Richards & Rodgers, 2014), grammar rules should be taught in contexts as well which means grammar should be taught implicitly (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). This idea came from a psychological perspective called 'associationism' at the time (Cook, 2010). Third, according to these reformers, translation should be avoided in language classes, only a minimum of L1 could be used for explaining new words and checking understanding (Howatt, 1984; Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Richards and Rodgers (2014) conclude that the Reform Movement provided both theoretical and practical advice on how applied linguistic principles could best be linked to practice at the end of the 19th century. Additionally, the Reform Movement developed principles of language teaching beyond naturalistic principles of language teaching and learning. Moreover, the Reform Movement led to two new ways of

teaching languages: natural methods and Direct Methods. Therefore, the Reform Movement was also the starting point when translation could be considered as outlawed. Cook (2010) states that the Reform Movement led to a radical change in language teaching practice. The reason is that the Reform Movement abandons the idea of emphasising written language but gives absolute priority to spoken language, and teaches words, sentences and grammar rules deductively within artificial invented contexts, as well as teaching largely relying on the medium of the language being taught.

The Direct Method

A new market of adult language learners emerged while the Reform Movement was being advocated. These adult language learners were immigrants to the USA, traders, and tourists in Europe, and they were not in regular education systems. They studied a second language for surviving in their new motherland, or doing business and dealing with communication in daily life while travelling (Cook, 2010). Therefore, many private language schools appeared to cater for this new market. The most famous school among them were called the Berlitz Schools. As was the case in the Reform Movement, translation was rejected in these schools and teaching concentrated on spoken language rather than written language. Furthermore, teachers were all native speakers of the language they were teaching (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1997; Cook, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Cook (2010) points out that, although they appeared at the same time, Berlitz schools and the Reform Movement developed separately and for different purposes. The former emerged out of market demands, the latter out of academic and pedagogical concerns and development. However, the combination of commercial and academic ideas provided the foundation for what became known as the Direct Method (Cook, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Cook (2010) states that there are four assumptions behind the Direct Method, they are monolingualism, naturalism, native-speakerism and absolutism. He calls these the four pillars of the Direct Method. The first assumption is about language use in language classes. The Direct Method assumes that language should be taught exclusively in the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Cook (2010) indicates that this is predominantly based on monolingualism. The second assumption is about language learning. Language can be taught without L1 and translation and only

through immersion in a context or through demonstration and action (Cook, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Moreover, language can be learnt via reproducing the process of an infant who acquires his or her first language (Celce-Murcia et al., 1997; Cook, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). This assumption is also called the Natural Method (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The third assumption is about the purpose of language learning (Cook, 2010). According to the Direct Method, a native-speaker provides the best teacher and model for language learners, and imitating native-speaker pronunciation is the best route for language learners (Cook, 2010; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2013). The final assumption is that the Direct Method is the best method to lead learners to success, and it is assumed that learners would definitely prefer the Direct Method to bilingual approaches (Cook, 2010). However, Cook (2010) argues that there is no substantial evidence for this assumption, at least in some circumstances it is less effective or no more effective than translation, and some students would prefer bilingual approaches to it. In addition, Cook (2010) categorises the Direct method as an intralingual teaching method or a monolingual teaching method.

Communicative Language Teaching

As discussed in the previous two sections, there was a movement away from using students' first language and translation in order to teach everything through the medium of the language being learnt. Cook (2010) calls this is the first revolution in language teaching history. The second revolution was the movement away from focusing on form to focusing on meaning in the late 20th century. Cook (2010) points out that this movement was inspired by second language acquisition (SLA) theory and sociolinguist Dell Hymes' theory of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972). The early SLA theory suggests that a focus on meaning could trigger subconscious cognitive language acquisition processes when stimulated by 'comprehensible input' (Krashen, 1982, p. 2). Hymes (1972) proposes that the primary goal of language learning should be successful communication rather than formal accuracy.

CLT is based on the idea of communicative competence coined by Hymes (1972). Hymes (1972) indicates that communicative competence means the ability to use the target language appropriately in a real-life communicative context. Hymes (1996) argues that communicative competence includes language skill, social language skill,

textual competence and strategic competence. Dos Santos (2020, p. 105) adds that the core principle of CLT is 'to learn in the language and to learn to use the language'. CLT is less focused on the form of the target language (Hiep, 2007). Instead, the learning process puts more emphasis on meaningful communication (Griffiths, 2011). CLT believes that learners should be exposed to the target languages as much as possible for communicative purposes (Hu, 2002). Consequently, pair work, group work, role play and group presentations are popular in CLT classrooms to promote interpersonal interaction and language fluency (Dos Santos, 2020; Griffiths, 2011). These methods also provide an authentic context for learners to learn vocabulary and grammar implicitly (Griffiths, 2011). In addition, Kumaravadivelu (2006) and Dos Santos (2020) argue that CLT tends to be a learner-centred method. Learner-centred methods focus on providing opportunities for learners to practise the target language through meaning-focused activities. It aims at developing language learning through social interaction and presenting linguistic structures in communicative contexts (Dos Santos, 2020).

Third, CLT is based on the native-speaker model (Cook, 2010) which believes that achieving native-speaker like competence is the ultimate goal of learning English. This notion is based on native-speakerism. Native-speakerism advocates the idea that Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs) are the role models for English learners, and that they are superior to non-Native English Speaking Teachers (non-NESTs) in teaching (Lee, 2016). Finally, a learner's first language is discouraged in CLT classrooms (Dos Santos, 2020). CLT could be considered as a monolingual teaching approach. Kumaravadivelu (2006, p. 188) points out that CLT 'prohibits the use of L1 in the L2 class, emphasising the importance of teaching a foreign language only through the medium of the foreign language'.

CLT has been promoted by the Chinese Ministry of Education for the past two decades (Hu, 2002). However, according to recent studies (Chang, 2011; Hu, 2002, 2010; Rao, 2002; Zhou & Niu, 2015), as well as my own research (Yan, 2016), the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) is still widely adopted by most Chinese English teachers' in China. Hu (2010) points out that Chinese English teacher's lesser proficiency in spoken English is the most obvious obstacle to promote CLT in Chinese English classes.

In sum, the literature reviewed above showed that translation was rejected as a tool for language learning by some branches of linguistics. Cook (2007) argues that this rejection of translation needs to be remedied. I will hence discuss how translation could be used in second language education in the next section.

3.4.3 Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) is one of the distinctive teaching methods which uses plenty of translation while teaching a second language. There is agreement among researchers that GTM was originally used for teaching the classical languages such as Latin and Greek, so it was also called the classical method. Then, it was developed in Germany in 18th and 19th centuries (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Cook, 2010; Kim, 2008; Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Zhou & Niu, 2015). Chang (2011) adds that the main purpose of GTM was to help learners to read and understand foreign language literature in the 18th century. Plenty of translation from the second language into the learner's first language or vice versa is the typical exercise of GTM (Celce-Murcia, 2001).

There are some significant features of GTM. First, GTM focuses on translation, the rules of grammar and the vocabulary of the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Second, GTM tends to use learners' L1 as the medium of instruction. Their L1 is usually used to explain abstract grammar rules and to compare learners' L1 and L2 (Brown, 2014; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Mart (2013) argues that it is an efficient way of facilitating learners to recognise the features of two languages. Finally, GTM could be categorised as a crosslingual teaching approach (Meier, 2017; Stern, 1992) as GTM frequently uses crosslingual comparison and translation (Hu, 2002). According to Stern (1992, p. 279) 'crosslingual describes the group of techniques which use L1 or another language as points of comparison or reference'. Translation is a major method of the crosslingual approach. Kumaravadivelu (2006, p. 187) adds that the crosslingual approach consists of compound bilingualism, where the L2 is acquired and known through the use of L1.

Kim (2008) considers that GTM is an ancient and traditional teaching method. This method predominantly focuses on teaching reading and translating texts from the new language to the learner's L1. Wilson and González-Davies (2017) point out that language teachers are reluctant to use GTM nowadays as GTM stands for boring language classes. Moreover, language teachers also show their concerns regarding insufficient target language exposure mainly for spoken language. However, GTM is still popular in many parts of the world today (Cook, 2010) for example China (Hu, 2010; Rao, 2002; Zhou & Niu, 2015), Poland (Wilson & González-Davies, 2017), Taiwan (Ke & Lin, 2017), and Japan (Cunningham, 2000).

3.4.3.1 An example of application of the Grammar-translation Method

I will offer a concrete example of the application of GTM in EFL classes in China in this section based on my previous English learning and teaching experience and the findings of my own research (Yan, 2016) and Hu (2002).

Normally, students will be asked to prepare for the new reading text in their textbooks by reading the text at least once before their English class. The English teacher also needs to do a large amount of preparation before the class to identify all possible language points in the reading text which might appear in the English exam. In class, the teacher translates the reading text sentence by sentence, and reads the reading text aloud herself. The teacher also analyses the whole text grammatically and semantically. Moreover, in the process of analysis of the reading text, the teacher explains language points she prepared in exhaustive detail in her L1. In addition, the teacher translates the key words and word collocations in the reading text, and uses her L1 to explain the meaning of the key words and word collocations. She also gives example sentences to show how these words should be used. There is limited interaction between the teacher and students, and nearly no interaction among students. The teacher occasionally stops to ask and check students' understanding. The pace of the English class is rather fast. At the end of the class, students are assigned to finish the written exercise of translation, blank-filling, and a small writing task in their textbook as homework to strengthen the language points and new vocabulary which have been learnt in that class.

3.4.4 Translation in second language education in a Chinese Context

According to my teaching and learning experience, as well as the findings of my own research (Yan, 2016), plenty of translation seems to be used in English language classes all the way from public primary school to university in China. GTM is the dominant teaching method in most of Chinese English classes (Hu, 2002; Tan, 2016). However, according to the English Curriculum Standards (Ministry of Education, 2017), English teachers at high school level should use communicative language teaching in their English teaching to improve students' communicative skills.

GTM is widely criticised by Chinese academic researchers because GTM tends to focus largely on accuracy of forms and sentence structure (Zhou & Niu, 2015). This causes three main problems. First, GTM over-emphasises accuracy of forms, while communicative skills are sometimes neglected in Chinese English classrooms (Zhou & Niu, 2015). Brown (2014) echoes this view that GTM is not helpful for developing learners' communicative skills as GTM fails to expose learners to a communicative context, and it usually results in learners not being confident to speak English (Chang, 2011). Second, GTM encourages a word-for-word translation between Chinese and English which can cause a flawed and inauthentic English production (Lado, 1964). Finally, the learners tend to seek correction of wrong answers during the learning process, whereas teachers tend to follow a single right or wrong standard to judge learners' performance. This could demotivate the learners and discourage their curiosity in relation to language (Chang, 2011).

There are many reasons why GTM is still the predominant teaching method in China although the Chinese Ministry of Education has been working hard to promote CLT since the 1970s. In 2016, I conducted a qualitative case study about one English teacher's perception of GTM and CLT in a high school in Guangdong Province in China. According to this research, first, the English teacher was aware of that some Chinese education researchers criticise Chinese English learners for being 'dumb' English learners, and she also acknowledges that GTM is not good at developing students' communicative ability. The phrase 'dumb' English learners means that Chinese learners seem less proficient at speaking and communication skills. However,

the English teacher still considers GTM to be the most effective teaching method in her class as accuracy of form and sentence structure are the main focus of the national college entrance examinations (Yan, 2016). Rao (2002) also suggests that both students and English teachers in China still pay more attention to grammar than to communicative competence because all the English tests are grammar-based in China. There is only little emphasis placed on communicative English skills in Chinese English assessment (Anderson, 1993; Hu, 2002). Therefore, the most important purpose of learning English, especially for high school students, is to pass the national examination to enter university.

Second, my findings also indicate that the English teacher lacks motivation to develop her students' communicative competence because of a high workload (Yan, 2016). In addition, Chang (2011) points out that Chinese English teachers find it difficult to improve students' communicative competence because of class sizes, grammar-based examinations and lack of opportunities to use English outside the classroom. Third, my findings also suggest that the English teacher feels less confident teaching exclusively in English in her class (Yan, 2016). Hu (2010) states that many Chinese English teachers think of CLT as highly threatening as this teaching method requires a high level of English proficiency.

GTM is mostly criticised for an over-emphasis on grammatical accuracy and neglect of spoken language and communicative skills (Cook, 2010). Cook (2010, p. 9) indicates that in most language teachers' view, GTM is 'the villain' in second language education. However, Cook (2010, p. 15) also argues that 'to use criticism of Grammar Translation as an argument against any and all use of translation is a logical sleight of hand'. Wilson and González-Davies (2017) add that English teachers are reluctant to use translation in their classes because English teachers have concerns about GTM's reputation as a decontextualised and text-centred teaching method. GTM is not the only way of using translation in second language education. Therefore, in the next section, I will elaborate that using translation in second language learning is not necessarily equivalent to GTM, and that translation can be used as scaffolding if we use it wisely and judiciously.

3.4.5 Translation understood as scaffolding

Translation is often considered as a negative influence especially in the English classes where a communicative approach is the primary method (Brown, 2014; Chang, 2011). However, from a bi-/multilingual perspective, some researchers (Duff, 1989; Stern, 1992; Widdowson, 2003) argue that translation can be a useful pedagogical tool, and in some circumstances translation may provide effective means of learning. Widdowson (2003) points out that when language teachers try to keep the two language apart, learners tend to keep the two in contact in their minds. Stern (1992) suggests that it is an indisputable fact that new language is learnt on the basis of our L1. Based on Stern, we can use our L1 as a reference system for L2. The procedure of translation can help learners to study a second language text closely, it is helpful for learners to explore the different usage of linguistic expressions in comparison with L1. Similarly, Duff (1989) argues that translation can enable students to obtain a deep understanding of the target language, as well as helping them to understand the influence between two languages.

More specifically, first, from a learner's perspective, translation integrates L1 and L2 in teaching activities. The use of L1 provides a safe and enjoyable environment (Laviosa, 2014) thus reducing the sense of threat (Canagarajah, 1999b) particularly for beginners. L1 could also boost learners' confidence (Cook, 2010). All these affective elements could accelerate learning progress (Laviosa, 2014). Furthermore, translation could enable learners to learn vocabulary in a clearer way (Laviosa, 2014) by using L1 as a reference system (Stern, 1992). In the same way, translation could also help learners understand grammar better by comparing with their L1's grammar (Laviosa, 2014). Secondly, from the teacher's viewpoint, translation could be used as a strategy to explain linguistic knowledge (Cook, 2010). Laviosa (2014) adds that teachers could use L1 as resources to free themselves from a rigid monolingual instruction and to make their classes more diverse, creative and effective. Cook (2010) contends that translation should be rehabilitated as a 'major aim and means of language learning, and a major measure of success' particularly in single-language classes taught by bilingual teachers.

I will conclude my argument with Henry Sweet's moderate statements in his book called *The Practical Study of Languages*, first published in 1899. Henry Sweet is the

only reformist who advocated judicious use of translation in his book during the Reform Movement period.

We translate the foreign words and phrases into our language simply because this is the most convenient and at the same time the most efficient guide to their meaning. (Sweet, 1964, p. 201)

In the next section, I will review empirical studies on teachers' and learners' perceptions of using translation in their English teaching and learning.

3.4.6 Empirical research studies on translation

There has been a steady increase in research examining the use of translation in language teaching and learning. I will discuss these empirical research studies in this section.

As pointed out previously, many language teachers seem to misunderstand the use of translation in their classrooms. There are a few studies concerning using translation judiciously and communicatively in language classrooms. Carreres and Noriega-Sanchez (2011) conducted research on using translation communicatively, and the results showed that incorporating contrastive analysis and translation activities into a text-based communicative lesson made a significant difference in learning new vocabulary.

One recent piece of research conducted by Wilson and González-Davies (2017) focused on a Spanish secondary school in Barcelona. Students were asked to complete a three-stage translation project collaboratively with their peers. All students can speak Spanish and Catalan while they are also learning English. The three-stage translation project includes introducing translation skills and strategies to the students and communicative group activities such as translating a Harry Potter video trailer into Catalan or Spanish, and then adding English subtitles for it.

Semi-structured interviews were carried out after all of these three stages were completed. According to Wilson and González-Davies (2017), this translation project motivated students to learn grammar in a more authentic way. The reason is that students needed to take grammar into account when they added subtitles for their

videos, but the process was dynamic and entertaining compared to working with their textbook. In addition, the participants claimed that both their vocabulary and grammar improved during this project. Finally, a majority of the participants agreed that working in teams was motivating. Wilson and González-Davies (2017) suggest that students' communicative skills have been improved as well during this translation project.

These empirical studies provide insights into using translation in communicative contexts in the language classrooms. Wilson and González-Davies (2017) argue that it is time to redefine what using translation in a language class as a pedagogical tool can or could involve. Deller and Rinvoluceri (2002) present a few examples of using translation communicatively in their teacher resource book. Deller and Rinvoluceri (2002) believe that using translation communicatively in language classes could develop learners' language awareness of how English and their first language work in different aspects of language use such as lexis, sentence structure and grammar.

Regarding the issue of teachers and learners who do not share the same L1 (a situation which is usually common in immigrant contexts). Cummins (2007) suggests that teachers could still participate by utilising the bi-/multilingual resources of students in their classrooms when they do not share the same L1 with their students. Deller and Rinvoluceri (2002) indicates that teachers could ask students for help in translating their peers' words if teachers have no knowledge about students' L1 in bi-/multilingual contexts. This could motivate even the most limited English-speaking students to participate in the translation activities (Cummins, 2007).

Based on the empirical studies I reviewed above, I would say in summary that there are three main aspects to using translation judiciously. First, using translation in interesting activities including oral pair and group works and class discussion with varied texts, rather than only focusing on written translation in isolation (Duff, 1989). Second, all languages should be valid even if language teachers do not share same L1 as their learners, a situation that mainly happens in migrant contexts. Third, translation activity should focus both on form and meaning as form and meaning are not alternatives, they are equally important (Cook, 2000; Cook, 2010; Widdowson, 2003; Wilson & González-Davies, 2017).

In terms of teachers' and learner's perceptions of using translation in their language teaching and learning, Kelly and Bruen (2015) conducted a qualitative case study in

one Irish Higher Education Institution to examine lecturers' and students' attitudes towards using translation as a pedagogical tool in the foreign language classroom. Their findings showed that the majority of lecturers involved in their study overwhelmingly agree that translation as a pedagogical tool in the classroom is very helpful. Additionally, students acknowledged that translation is one of the key facilitators of their language learning process especially in new vocabulary building, and the 'students feel that it is an enjoyable way to approach the target language' (Kelly & Bruen, 2015, p. 165). Carreres and Noriega-Sanchez' s (2011) results also showed that students reported that translation is conducive to language learning particularly in acquiring new vocabulary.

Overall, the empirical studies discussed above all indicate positive findings when translation is used appropriately in language classrooms. However, there has not been much work carried out in Chinese EFL senior secondary school contexts. Therefore, one of main aims of this study is to investigate teachers' and learners' perceptions and experiences of using translation in their English teaching and learning in an EFL senior secondary school context in south China. The findings of this study might provide useful data which are able to fill the gap in this field and might be able to provide implications for policy makers and for further studies.

3.4.7 Translanguaging

This section will discuss different definitions as to how translanguaging has been understood so far in different perspectives. First, I will introduce the definitions of translanguaging as a teaching approach, and the differences between translanguaging and code-switching as there are misconceptions with regard to these two different notions. Second, I will illustrate the relationships between translanguaging, bilingualism, multilingualism, and the linguistic repertoire. Third, I will recognise that translanguaging is also to be understood as a social phenomenon, although this is not the focus of my thesis. Finally, I will discuss the connections between translation and translanguaging.

The term translanguaging was coined by Cen Williams (cited in Baker, 2011). Translanguaging is defined for learning by Baker (2011, p. 418) as

'The process of making meaning, shaping experiences, understandings and knowledge through the use of two languages. Both languages are used in an

integrated and coherent way to organise and mediate mental processes in learning...the term translanguaging for the planned and systematic use of two language inside the same lesson’.

Cen Williams found that these strategies work well in high schools in Wales as both the Welsh and the English language are used in this educational context. Moreover, Cen Williams suggests that translanguaging could develop both language proficiency and content learning. Baker (2011) adds that different languages are used for input and output in translanguaging, and usage of languages is ‘systematically varied’. For example, one could imagine a situation in which a Chinese-English bilingual learner is assigned a piece of geography homework. The bilingual learner could do the relevant geography reading in Chinese first, then discuss the homework with peers in English and switch to Chinese again to check particular geographical terms. Finally, students could prepare an oral presentation in English. In the next class, the roles of languages could be different.

García (2009, p. 45) extends the definition of translanguaging as ‘multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds’. She argues that translanguaging is neither merely one language plus another language nor just code-switching. Code-switching is defined as bilinguals use more than one language intrasententially or intersententially (Cook, 2001) in their conversations (Baker & Jones, 1998) normally it contains speakers’ mother tongue and L2. According to García, notion of code-switching assumes that bilinguals use two languages separately as two individual monolingual codes and have no connection with each other. However, languages are used simultaneously in translanguaging, and languages could be used as references for each other. García (2011, p. 1) argues that ‘translanguaging posits that bilinguals have one linguistic repertoire from which they select features strategically to communicate effectively’. Therefore, translanguaging goes beyond code-switching and the focus of translanguaging is not only on ‘languages but on the observable communicative practice of bilinguals’ (García, 2011). Baker (2011) also echoes the view that translanguaging does not equal code-switching. Moreover, the dynamic process of using different languages simultaneously in communication helps learners to be aware of the interrelationship between languages, so translanguaging is more than one language plus another language in an additive manner (Baker, 2011).

In terms of different types of bilingualism, code-switching tends to be based on the notion of separate bilingualism. According to Creese and Blackledge (2011), separate bilingualism considers languages as discrete, therefore, languages are used separately in language teaching and learning. Heller (1999, p. 271) calls it 'parallel monolingualism' as no connection is made between languages. Therefore, based on the literature I reviewed, translanguaging and code-switching are not the same thing. Code-switching can be part of translanguaging. However, they are fundamentally different.

3.4.8 Translanguaging and bi-/multilingualism

MacSwan (2017) argues that the notion of translanguaging promotes a positive view of bilingualism. Cenoz and Gorter (2015) view translanguaging as an example of holistic bilingualism as translanguaging allowing bilinguals to rely on their linguistic repertoires as they do at home and in their local communities. In addition, translanguaging also reflects that fact that every single bilingual language user has a unique language using experience. Creese and Blackledge (2011) use the term flexible bilingualism to refer to translanguaging. They argue that flexible bilingualism considers languages as a social resource, and there are no clear boundaries between languages. Languages are used simultaneously to make effective communication. (Baker, 2011; Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Creese & Blackledge, 2011).

Translanguaging relates to linguistic repertoires as well. As García (2011) argued translanguaging encourages bilinguals to access their full linguistic repertoires for effective communication. There is a more recent redefine definition of translanguaging provided by Otheguy, Garcia, and Reid (2015, p. 283) who see it as 'the deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages'. Furthermore, translanguaging also encourages students and teachers to use their linguistic repertoires to break down boundaries between languages. Thus, translanguaging further challenges monolingual norms (MacSwan, 2017) and encourages language educators to rethink about the goal of achieving native-like proficiency in the target language (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013).

3.4.9 Translanguaging understood as a social phenomenon

Translanguaging could also be understood as a social phenomenon because translanguaging provides a way for individual multilinguals to make sense of the world in their daily life. Li (2015) uses the term of translanguaging from a psycholinguistic perspective. He indicates that translanguaging not only includes linguistic structures that transcend languages but also goes beyond them. From his point of view, translanguaging also contains multilingual language users' values, identities, and their relationship with communities. Li (2015) points out that the process of translanguaging is transformative in nature, and translanguaging allows multilingual language users to use different dimensional resources. It includes the background knowledge of multilingual language users' and their experience of the social world, their linguistic, cognitive and social skills, and their beliefs and attitudes. All these elements create a new way of understanding identity for the multilingual language users. García (2011) argues that bilingualism, the way she understands it, is a more dynamic and hybrid concept from a 21st-century view. Therefore, a multilingual person is not three or more monolinguals in one, with each language linked to separate areas of linguistic knowledge and culture. Translanguaging provides opportunities for multilingual learners to develop multiple identities that are different from those constructed in monolingual contexts (García, 2011).

Therefore, translanguaging is not only a meaningful and creative pedagogical approach, but also provides a space to connect the classroom to different facets of social practice outside the classroom (Low & Sarkar, 2013). In addition, translanguaging offers a way of linking different level of language proficiency, as well as affiliations and the heritages of minority languages in multiple communities outside the classroom (Leung, Harris, & Rampton, 1999). Translanguaging understood as a social phenomenon is not the focus of my thesis though.

3.4.10 First language (L1) in translanguaging

Translanguaging as a teaching or learning strategy inevitably includes using both teachers and learners' L1 in the process (Li, 2018; Wang, 2019). Thus, in this section, I will review literature about understanding L1 both as a problem and as scaffolding from a translanguaging perspective. The concept of scaffolding will also be discussed based on Socio-cultural theory (SCT).

L1 Understood as a Problem

As mentioned previously, as a result of globalisation and the movement of people, schools in European countries in this developing and changing world have to face the different L1 their multilingual learners bring in to schools (García, 2008). However, there are two widely accepted beliefs that the L1 would negatively interfere with L2 learning and teaching. In addition, language learners should have the maximum exposure to their L2 to achieve a better learning outcome. The L1 would then be considered as a problem in language classes. According to Young's (2014) empirical study in French schools, a majority of head teachers showed their concerns of students' L1 in their interviews. Some head teachers thought those migrant students should learn their national language as a priority, which is French in this case. These head teachers showed their concerns about the national language being threatened by the presence of other languages. In addition, they were also concerned that coping with more than one language at the same time would cause confusion to migrant students. Moreover, they also believed that the use of migrant students' L1 would make them learn the language of instruction less successfully. Baker (2011) also refers to concern about bilingual education causing cognitive problems related to operating in more than one language. Young (2014) argues that these are merely unfounded fears and beliefs which are deeply rooted in monolingual ideology. In contrast, there are many researchers who contend that L1 could be a useful scaffolding for learners to learn a second language. I will discuss this further in the next section.

Additionally, Baker (2011) also illustrates that people might think that language would cause political and social issues as well. From the language-as-problem point of view, 'language diversity may cause less integration, less cohesiveness, more antagonism and more conflict in society' (Baker, 2011, p. 376). However, Baker (2011) argues that the underlying issues of conflict are more likely to be economic, religious and political in nature. Language is more often only the symptom of the conflict but not the fundamental issue.

In Chinese academic discourse, the majority of researchers and English educators tend to view the use of L1 (which is Mandarin Chinese in this case) in English teaching and learning as being a problem. Li (2005) suggests that English learners would

largely rely on their L1 if English teachers allowed them to use it in English classes. Consequently, English learners would learn English less proficiently especially for developing English learners' speaking skills. Therefore, the Chinese Ministry of Education encourages English teachers to use English as much as possible at secondary school level to develop Chinese learner's communicative skills (Ministry of Education, 2017).

L1 Understood as Scaffolding

As I discussed previously, there are still large numbers of language teachers and head teachers in European countries who believe that migrant students' L1 would make it more difficult for those students to learn the language of instruction. In addition, in China, the Chinese Ministry of Education also tends to believe that the Chinese students' L1 is the significant barrier for developing Chinese students' communicative skills. However, recent research shows that the L1 could be one of the tools used as scaffolding during the process of second language (L2) learning (Cook, 2001; Kayi-Aydar, 2013; Lin, 2015; Moore, 2013; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003).

The term scaffolding was coined by Vygotsky (1962). Lev Vygotsky was a Russian psychologist and an influential theorist in Socio-cultural theory (SCT). Vygotsky (1978) argues that from a SCT point of view, learning is social interaction, and learning develops principally in social environments rather than in the individual. Lantolf (2000) and Swain et al. (2015) develop SCT specifically in the field of second language learning. Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976, p. 90) define scaffolding as 'a kind of process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task, or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts'. Vygotsky (1962) argues that learning happens when a child's current level of understanding is progressed to a further level that is within the child's capability. Thus, scaffolding is a process of supportive dialogue among language learners or between the teacher and learners. This process could support language learners to be aware of the key features of the environment, as well as help them to move to a further level. The term scaffolding in this study refers to using L1 as a helpful and supportive tool for English learning.

There are five main arguments for the L1 providing useful scaffolding for bilingual language learners. First, the L1 could be a valuable prior fund of knowledge (Young,

2014) and 'the most formidable cognitive resource' (Swain & Lapkin, 2005, p. 181) to bilingual learners. Ellis (2013) suggests that bilingual learners' L1 is a significant part of their experience that they could bring to language classes. As Corder (1992, p. 25) pointed out, 'they already know something of what a language is for, what its communicative function and potentials are'. Young (2014) also believes that prior knowledge is the foundation of all learning. Therefore, it would be unreasonable to ask bilingual learners to leave their L1 at the school gate. Bilingual learners could draw on their experience of learning other languages when learning English or other instructional languages in their schools (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013).

Second, bilingual learners tend to use their L1 to develop collective scaffolding (Donato & McCormick, 1994). The L1 usage could facilitate L2 production and allow bilingual learners to interact with each other, students could explain to and negotiate with one another using their shared L1. The L1 used as a scaffolding allows peer support systems to work in the classroom so that scaffolding occurs among peers who share the same L1 (Baker, 2011).

Third, L1 is a significant part of bilingual learners' identity (Norton & Toohy, 2011). For both migrant students in European countries and the Chinese students in China, they all continue to use the L1 throughout their daily life. Cook (1999) points out that when a bilingual is using one language, the other language is not deactivated. As I discussed in section 3.1.1, from a plurilingual point of view, there are no clear boundaries between languages (Canagarajah, 2012). Cook (1999, p. 202) argues that all language teaching activities are translingual, 'the difference among activities is whether the L1 is visible or invisible, not whether it is present or altogether absent'.

Furthermore, Baker (2011) argues that the L1 used as scaffolding can be like other scaffolding tools that lead bilingual learners from guidance to independence. From a SCT perspective, it could lead bilingual learners from other-regulation to self-regulation. Regulation refers to 'monitoring, controlling, or evaluating' according to Swain et al. (2015, p. 74). There are three types of regulation: object-regulation, other-regulation and self-regulation (Lantolf, 2000; Ortega, 2013; Swain et al., 2015). When learners are less capable of controlling their world and themselves in the context of implementing a given activity, they are object-regulated (Ortega, 2013). Later in the learners' development, they are able to understand what their caregivers' model tells

them is do-able and not do-able, this is called other-regulation (Swain et al., 2015). At the highest level of regulation, learners are able to control their own mind activity, and that is referred to self-regulation (Ortega, 2013). The mature and skilled learner is capable of carrying out an activity mainly independently. Self-regulation is ultimate purpose of scaffolding. In a similar way, the L1 as scaffolding can be removed when bilingual learners are using the language of instruction more confidently, and as a result, becoming autonomous language learners.

Finally, in the EFL context, there is research-based evidence including my own MEd TESOL Dissertation data shows that most English teachers are unconfident in using only English in their own teaching (Birch, 1992; Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Ellis, 2013; Yan, 2016). In addition, they usually feel guilty to some extent that they are not confident enough to use an English only approach in their teaching. This feeling of guilt is deeply rooted in a monolingual ideology. In addition, according to the data of my dissertation (Yan, 2016), the English teacher whom I observed, used her L1 to offer additional cognitive support (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003) when explaining abstract content, clarifying vague information (Medgyes, 1992), asking questions, and maintaining discipline (Ma, 2012), for example by using her L1 to ask students to follow her instructions, reminding them to take notes, to pay attention to important grammar points.

3.4.11 Translation and Translanguaging

In recent research on translanguaging, some researchers suggest that there are intersections between translation and translanguaging (Creese & Blackledge, 2011; Garrity, Aquino-Sterling, & Day, 2015; Jones & Lewis, 2014; Kultti & Pramling, 2017; Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012). Garrity et al. (2015) argue that the concept of translanguaging includes a set of practices with code-switching, translation, and revoicing. However, Lewis et al. (2012, p. 660) suggest that 'translation may occur during translanguaging activities', but there may be differences between translation and translanguaging as well. I will illustrate the differences between these two terms in the following paragraphs.

First of all, the objective of using translanguaging and translation can be different in different contexts. In EFL contexts, translanguaging can be used for providing

opportunities for learners to use English both in and outside English classes (Ke & Lin, 2017). Whereas, translation normally is used for understanding a text in English in detail in English classes, as well as teaching English grammar explicitly (Kim, 2008).

Recent research shows that in the UK and Welsh contexts, the combination of translation and translanguaging are utilised for scaffolding learners' understanding of content (Creese & Blackledge, 2011; Jones & Lewis, 2014; Kultti & Pramling, 2017; Lewis et al., 2012). In Jones and Lewis's (2014) five-year research study, they indicate that translation was used by the teacher to explain the subject content to the whole class by switching from Welsh (L1) to English (L2). Secondly, the teacher used translation to explain content knowledge to those students whose L1 is different from the language of instruction. In addition, the teacher in their research also used translation as scaffolding to help students to complete a class task.

Although a combination of translation and translanguaging is used in the above contexts, Lewis et al. (2012) point out that translation tends to separate two languages, and rely more on students' stronger language to scaffold the temporarily weaker language. On the contrary, translanguaging tends to use two language simultaneously, and consolidate both languages (Kultti & Pramling, 2017; Lasagabaster & García, 2014).

3.4.12 Empirical research studies on translanguaging

This section will start to review how empirical research studies on translanguaging have been used as a pedagogical strategy. I will mainly focus on the opportunities and challenges that translanguaging might have as a pedagogical tool, as well as teachers' and learners' perceptions of using translanguaging. Translanguaging has been used as pedagogical strategy in different teaching contexts and these will be reviewed.

As discussed above, researchers have reached an agreement that translanguaging can be used as a meaningful and creative pedagogy in language teaching and learning. There are some potential advantages of translanguaging. First of all, translanguaging could help to promote a deeper and fuller comprehension of content learning. In their article, Lasagabaster and García (2014) agree that implementing bilingual translanguaging skilfully could support content learning. Creese and Blackledge (2010)

did a case study in a Chinese community school. They found that the Chinese teacher who speaks both English and Mandarin uses her translanguaging strategy to get her students involved and to make the Chinese folk story understood by her students. The teacher speaks Mandarin for story narration, and she explains the story in English. In addition, the teacher also allows her students to interrupt her in whatever languages they are willing to use. Therefore, the interaction between teacher and students is bilingual. For example, a student could ask a question in Mandarin while the teacher is speaking in English, and the teacher uses this pedagogical strategy to help her students to engage. Therefore, Creese and Blackledge (2010) argue that first, the teacher uses translanguaging and allows students to use their linguistic repertoires for the story narration. Second, using languages separately is not sufficient to convey the full message of the Chinese folk story, both languages (Mandarin and English) are needed for the story to be understood. Creese and Blackledge (2010, p. 111) point out that there are very interesting field notes taken by one of the non-Mandarin speaking researchers who says that 'Children seem to have got the point of the story, which I have failed to'.

Baker (2011) indicates that the above class interaction fits into a sociocultural theory of learning. Learning occurs in social interaction from a sociocultural perspective, and sociocultural theory considers learning not only in the context, but also looks widely at the resources that learners bring in the context (Swain et al., 2015). Baker (2011) argues that her or his first language is the best resource that a learner has to ask questions or to complete a classroom task. Moreover, their first language is also the best resource learners could turn to when they have difficulties dealing with content in their second or third language (Baker, 2011). Therefore, first language could provide scaffolding for learners to be cognitively successful.

The second potential advantage of translanguaging pointed out by Baker (2011) is that translanguaging could help the development of the weaker language. Lasagabaster and García (2014) provide us with a concrete example of how translanguaging could help with developing a learner's weaker language. They conducted research in a bilingual setting high school in New York City. The distinctive character of this high school is that it only accepts students from Latino backgrounds whose first language is Spanish. One of the major difficulties for new students in this school is that they tend to be weaker in academic English. According to Lasagabaster

and García (2014), their findings show that in a lesson about the key factors of earthquakes, the teacher used translanguaging to teach the main content of the lesson. The teacher explained content in Spanish, students read and repeated in English, and the teacher made sure that the content was comprehended in Spanish. Lasagabaster and García (2014) point out that Spanish is used as scaffolding in this lesson, and in the meanwhile specialised vocabulary and expressions in English are learnt by students. Consequently, their academic language in English is improved. Both languages are mutually strengthened.

There is another example of translanguaging used in teaching practice in a junior high school in Taiwan (Ke & Lin, 2017). Students and teachers both use Mandarin and Minnan as part of their linguistic repertoire. This case study is different from the one just analysed because it happens in an EFL context where students do not need to speak English outside the English classroom for daily life. In addition, the Grammar-translation method is used predominantly in this school according to Ke and Lin (2017). The teacher in this case study encouraged her students to use all their possible linguistic repertoires to interact with her in her class. According to Ke and Lin (2017), the teacher's aim of using translanguaging is to develop English as part of their linguistic repertoires. The teacher hoped to make her students aware that even simple English could be very helpful for communication.

Ke and Lin (2017) point out that it is very interesting to see that the teacher in their case study used a translanguaging strategy to encourage her students to use English as part of their linguistic repertoires and encouraged her students to practise their oral English using a translanguaging strategy. The reason is that in EFL contexts such as Taiwan and China, most English learners do not have ample opportunities to use English both in and outside English classrooms (Hu, 2002). We learn from this case study in Taiwan that the aim of using translanguaging can be vary according to different contexts. In ELF (English as a Lingual Franca) contexts, teachers tend to use translanguaging to involve students' L1 to as a resource to scaffold learners as they study English. Whereas, in EFL contexts, for example China and Taiwan, teachers tend to use translanguaging to provide opportunities for learners to use English both in and outside English classes. Ke and Lin (2017) argue that translanguaging in EFL contexts could boost learners' interest and confidence in learning English, as learners'

linguistic repertoires become meaningful in English classes, so they are no longer reluctant speakers but 'translanguagers'.

Moreover, according to Ke and Lin's (2017) research, plenty of translation is used in the teacher's classes as well. The teacher asks her students to translate English vocabulary, sentences, or idioms and encourages the students to try as many translations as possible. In this case study, translation is not used traditionally only for memorising new vocabulary, but more for focusing on understanding. The teacher tends to emphasise the fluidity in the meaning of an expression rather than the fixed meaning of a certain vocabulary. In this way, learners' Mandarin can also be reinforced. As Lasagabaster and García (2014) argued, Ke and Lin (2017) also indicate that all languages (Mandarin, Min-nan and English) are consolidated by using translanguaging.

There are also challenges highlighted by researchers. Baker (2011) points out that translanguaging might be less valuable among children who are in the early stages of language learning. However, Lasagabaster and García (2014) argue that translanguaging could be suitable for bilingual learners at any stages. The reason is that Lasagabaster and García (2014) consider that bilingual learners all tend to have different proficiency levels, and the process of bilingual learners developing their bilingualism is dynamic (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015). In addition, according to Ke and Lin (2017), translanguaging could motivate early-stage bilingual learners (8th grade of junior high school in Taiwan) to develop their English which is the weaker language among their two or three languages (Mandarin, Min-nan and English).

Translanguaging is also criticised because it may have negative pedagogical impacts on learners' understanding of the structure and grammar of English. Furthermore, learners' L1 may have negative influences on their way of using English appropriately (García, 2011; Ke & Lin, 2017; Li, 2015). However, Li (2015) conducted series of sociolinguistic ethnographic studies of several Chinese complementary schools in different cities in England. His participants have English, Mandarin and Cantonese as their linguistic repertoires. According to Li (2015, p. 196), his participants have 'acute awareness of what they can do and what they can't do with the linguistics resources they have, and are able to utilize all the resources appropriately and effectively.' Another example is from García and Kano (2014), they conducted research with ten

Japanese bilingual learners studying in the US in using translinguaging in essay writing. According to their findings, these ten Japanese bilingual learners all demonstrated that they have autonomy and the ability to control different languages to finish their essay-writing task. Therefore, according to Li's (2015) research translinguaging could foster a bilingual learner's reflective, critical and creative thinking, translinguaging could also raise a bilingual learner's metalinguistic awareness. Furthermore, translinguaging allows learners to make full use of their entire linguistic repertoires (García & Kano, 2014; Lasagabaster & García, 2014).

Lasagabaster and García (2014) point out that the real challenge of translinguaging is that most language teachers still believe that languages should be separated all the time as they have been trained in this belief. This belief causes some difficulties for language teachers, as they tend to consider bilingualism to be a problem rather than a resource. Moreover, there is only limited teacher guidance on how to use translinguaging skilfully and pedagogically (Adamson & Coulson, 2015; Baker, 2011; Ke & Lin, 2017). Lasagabaster and García (2014) and Canagarajah (2011a) invite both education practitioners and policy makers to acknowledge the potential benefits of translinguaging as a new bilingual teaching approach by incorporating it into curricula design and teacher training programmes.

In addition, there is a realistic challenge for all language teachers due to the growing language diversity in today's classrooms (Lasagabaster & García, 2014). Do language teachers need to master every language spoken by their students especially in ELF contexts? García and Kano (2014) indicate that some parents would prefer a Japanese teacher able to master both languages spoken by her or his students. In their research of looking at the use of translinguaging in an essay-writing task for Japanese bilingual learners', they say that parents wanted a Japanese teacher, who was able to understand the gaps between the two languages and the differences between the two cultures. The reason is that these parents believe that only a teacher who capable of understanding the differences between two languages and cultures would be able to help bilingual learners negotiate these two languages and cultures. However, in the meantime, this challenge could be an opportunity for language teachers to be a role model for learning a new language from their students that they do not speak (Lasagabaster & García, 2014; Meier, 2017). This could also motivate

the learners to begin to use their weaker language in the language class (Cummins, 2007; Lasagabaster & García, 2014).

Assessment of translanguaging would also be a challenge for educators as standard assessments are usually given by using a single language (Lasagabaster & García, 2014). Ke and Lin (2017) raise the problem that translanguaging is not acceptable in any exams taken by pupils in schools in Taiwan. Canagarajah (2011a) argues that we have to consider how the effectiveness of translanguaging could be assessed if we aim to develop translanguaging as a teachable strategy. He also raises the question as to whether translanguaging can ever be wrong. Do we assume that translanguaging texts or talks are always perfect? If so, there would not be a concept of developmental translanguaging.

In terms of teachers' and learners' perceptions of using translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy in language learning and teaching, Fang and Liu (2020) conducted a mix-methods research study at a Chinese university. Their results showed that both teachers and students used translanguaging spontaneously for concept/language point explanation, comprehension check, content knowledge localisation, instruction reinforcement and creation of rapport in the classes. However, the teachers had mixed attitudes towards translanguaging, while the students had a slightly positive attitude towards it. Likewise, Wang (2019) conducted a mixed-methods research study with teachers and students of Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language programmes at university level. The students of such programmes are students who are learning Chinese as a foreign or additional language. The students speak several different L1s. Wang's (2019) findings showed that both students and teachers agreed that translanguaging is a useful scaffolding technique that could help with classroom communication and teacher-student relationships although students spoke different L1s. In addition, Wang's (2019) results indicated that translanguaging largely contributed to enabling and empowering the students.

In conclusion, bi-/multilingual teaching approaches such as translanguaging and translation in new ways have been gaining momentum and positive comments have frequently been heard from both second language teachers and learners over recent decades (Wilson & González-Davies, 2017). However, the empirical studies I reviewed above suggest that translanguaging as a new concept in the language

education field is still controversial. Research also indicates that there are opportunities to use translanguaging as a useful pedagogical strategy. Thus, the third research aim of this study is to examine teachers and learners' perceptions and experiences of using translanguaging in their language teaching and learning in a senior secondary school in south China. The findings of the study might be able to provide evidence of the legitimacy of translanguaging and raise awareness of implementing translanguaging in language classes (Wang, 2019).

3.5 Summary of Literature Review

This chapter provides an overview of bi-/multilingualism, plurilingualism, language awareness, as well as bi-/multilingual learning approaches, namely translation and translanguaging. I reviewed definitions of these terms and discussed them in different contexts. I summarised all the operational definitions of these key terms that I use in my thesis in Table 3.1 and provided examples if necessary to clarify what I mean by these definitions.

Key terms	Definitions	Examples
Bilingualism	The abilities of an individual or a group of speakers who are able to use at least two languages, for example the residents of a certain region or nation (Richards & Schmidt, 2010).	As I mentioned in section 2.1.2, Mandarin and English are both used in the participating school of this study. The phenomena that there are two languages coexist in the participating school is bilingualism.
Multilingualism	If three or more languages are used by an individual or group of people in a certain geographic area it is called multilingualism (Richards & Schmidt, 2010).	Similarly, as mentioned in section 2.1.2, the students and teachers in the participating school use Mandarin and English for learning and teaching inside the school. However, most students and teachers also speak at least one dialect outside school. The phenomena that there are more than two languages coexist in the participating school is multilingualism.
Plurilingualism	'the repertoire of varieties of language which many individuals use,	For example, as I mentioned in section 2.1.2, students and teachers in the participating school might speak different

	and ...therefore the opposite of monolingualism; it includes the ... first language and any number of other languages or varieties...(Council of Europe, 2001, p.4)	dialects at home, but they all use Mandarin and English for learning and teaching. Many of them might also learning a new foreign language in their spare time.
Monolingual	An individual is monolingual means 'who does not have access to more than one linguistic code as a means of social communication' (Ellis, 2008, p.313).	A person who only use one language in their life in any contexts.
Language Awareness	'A person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of language and its role in human life' (Donmall, 1985, p.7).	In English, we greeting people as hello, how are you? But in Mandarin Chinese, we say '吃了吗?' (have you eaten?), it doesn't mean the Chinese friend invites you to dinner. This is the Chinese way to greet friends. This is the language awareness of the knowledge of language.
Translation in second language education	'The use of translation as an integral part of the teaching and learning process as a whole and as part of the general revival of bilingual teaching' (Cook, 2010, p.xx). 'An informed change of linguistic or cultural code applied consciously to an explicit primary source text, whether verbal or non-verbal' (González-Davies, 2014, p.11).	Using translation in the process of language teaching and learning. It can be GTM in Chinese context as I discussed in section 3.4.4. In European contexts, translation has been used in a more communicative and collaborative way in recent years. As shown in Wilson and González-Davies' (2017) study, students have been assigned into groups and complete translation activities collaboratively such as translating a Harry Potter video trailer into their L1, and then adding English subtitles for it.
Grammar-Translation Method (GTM)	GTM focuses on translation, the rules of grammar and the vocabulary of the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Moreover, GTM tends to use learners' L1 as the medium of instruction. Their L1 is usually used to explain abstract grammar rules and to compare learners' L1 and L2 (Brown, 2014; Richards & Rodgers, 2014).	In English classes, the English teacher translates a reading text sentence by sentence, and reads the reading text aloud herself. The teacher also analyses the whole text grammatically and semantically. Moreover, in the process of analysis of the reading text, the teacher explains language points she prepared in exhaustive detail

		in her L1. The English teacher also translates the key words and word collocations in the reading text, and uses her L1 to explain the meaning of the key words and word collocations (Hu, 2002; Yan, 2016).
Translanguaging	<p>'The process of making meaning, shaping experiences, understandings and knowledge through the use of two languages. Both languages are used in an integrated and coherent way to organise and mediate mental processes in learning...the term translanguaging for the planned and systematic use of two languages inside the same lesson' (Baker, 2011, p.418).</p> <p>Bilinguals use languages from their linguistic repertoire and transcends the language boundaries to make sense of their bilingual worlds (García, 2009; García and Kano, 2014),</p> <p>Translanguaging is also 'multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds' (García, 2009, p. 45).</p>	For example, one could imagine a situation in which a Chinese-English bilingual learner is assigned a piece of geography homework. The bilingual learner could do the relevant geography reading in Chinese first, then discuss the homework with peers in English and switch to Chinese again to check particular geographical terms. Finally, students could prepare an oral presentation in English.
Use of L1	Using of L1 is inevitably included in the process of translation and translanguaging (Cook 2010; Li, 2018; Wang, 2019).	An example from my own MEd dissertation findings (Yan, 2016), the English teacher whom I observed, used her L1 (Mandarin) to explain abstract content, ask questions, give instructions, and maintain discipline.
Code-switching	Bilinguals use more than one language intrasententially or intersententially (Cook 2001) in their conversations (Baker and Jones, 1998), normally it contains speakers' mother tongue and L2.	An example from Kavak and Gül (2020, p. 9), a student start saying a sentence in English then continues in Turkish by switching among sentences: 'I don't know. But for my birthday, I have birthday benim doğum günüm çok yaklaştı.'

Language	Languages are systems of communication consisting of sounds, words and grammar which are used in formal contexts such as schools and is accepted by a country's government (Cambridge University Press, n.d.)	For example, Chinese Mandarin is the only official language in China according to Chinese Constitution.
Dialect	'A subordinate variety of a language' (Romaine, 1994), and dialects could be associated with a geographic area, social class and ethnolinguistic groups (García, 2009).	For example, Cantonese, Lü, Kyrgyz, Uyghur and Tibetan Central are five main dialects in China (Ethnologue, 2017) as I discussed in section 2.1.1.

Table 3. 1 Definitions of key terms

As can be seen from Table 3.1, I use Richards and Schmidt's definitions of bilingualism and multilingualism to refer to a group of speakers who are able to use more than one language, thus in this thesis, bi-/multilingualism refers to collective bi-multilingualism at a macro level, whereas plurilingualism tends to describe personal multilingualism at a micro level (Council of Europe, 2020). Moreover, Ellis (2008) points out that monolingual refers to individuals who only access one linguistic code for social communication. However, monolingual might hardly exist in the current globalisation era (Ellis, 2008; Gramling, 2016; Melo-Pfeifer, 2021). I use the term bi-/multilingualism to examine and describe teachers' and learners' perceptions of their linguistic situation in their school. I use the term plurilingualism to examine and describe teachers' and learners' perceptions of their individual linguistic repertoire, thus describing the individual language resources each participant brings to a context.

Furthermore, I use language awareness (LA), a term coined by Eric Hawkins, and the five domains of LA developed by James and Garrett (1991) to explore both teachers' and learners' perceptions of LA. The five domains of LA are the affective domain, the social domain, the power domain, the cognitive domain and the performance domain (James & Garrett, 1991). I use the five domains of LA to examine teachers' and learners' perceptions, especially the affective domain, the social domain, the power domain and the cognitive domain which are highly relevant to my study. The performance domain is not relevant to my study as I focus on examining learners' and teachers' perceptions of LA rather than assessing learners' command of language.

In terms of bi-/multilingual learning approach, this thesis will focus on translation and translanguaging in language teaching and learning. I use Cook (2010) and González-Davies' (2014) definitions to define using translation in language teaching and learning. It includes using translation as an EFL pedagogy in any formats such as GTM or integrating translation in activities. Thus, I use the term using translation in language teaching and learning to examine both teachers' and learners' perceptions and experiences of using translation as an EFL pedagogy.

Moreover, I use Baker (2011), García (2009) and García and Kano's (2014) definitions of translanguaging to define it. Baker (2011) defines translanguaging for learning. García (2009, p.45) extends the use of translanguaging beyond the classroom, she believes translanguaging is multilingual speakers' 'multiple discursive practices' in their daily life. As I mentioned in section 3.4.9, Li (2015) understands translanguaging from a psycholinguistic perspective. He indicates that translanguaging also contains multilingual speakers' values, identities, and their relationships with communities. Li (2015) points out that the process of translanguaging is transformative in nature, and translanguaging allows multilingual speakers to use different dimensional resources. It includes multilingual language users' background knowledge and their experience of the social world, their linguistic, cognitive and social skills, and their beliefs and attitudes. Despite slight differences in understanding translanguaging, scholars agree that translanguaging softens boundaries among languages (Canagarajah, 2011b; García, 2009) and it allows multilingual speakers to access their full linguistic repertoire for natural use (Cenoz, 2019; García & Li, 2014). My study mainly focuses on using translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy. In addition, code-switching is part of the process of translanguaging and both translation and translanguaging inevitably include using multilingual speakers' L1 (Cook, 2010) for additional cognitive support (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). I use the term translanguaging to explore learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of using translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy.

Finally, language refers to communication systems that are accepted by a country's government (Cambridge University Press, n.d.) and being used nationwide in China, whereas dialect means a subordinate variety of a language and being used with a certain geographic area (García, 2009) in China in this thesis.

I will use the definitions reviewed in this chapter as the conceptual framework (see section 3.6) to examine both teachers' and learners' perceptions of multilingual reality and language awareness in a senior secondary school in south China, as well as their perceptions and experiences of bi-/multilingual learning approaches in their teaching and learning.

3.6 Conceptual Framework

In the literature review chapter, I reviewed key language teaching and learning approaches that are most relevant to my research questions. They are bi-/multilingualism, plurilingualism, language awareness (LA) and the bi-/multilingual learning approach. According to Richards and Schmidt (2010, p. 30), the term approach refers to 'the theory, philosophy and principles underlying a particular set of teaching practices'. Based on the literature that I reviewed, these three key approaches are three separate approaches, but they also overlap each other Figure 3.1.

In terms of differences among these three approaches, first, they are different types of approaches. Bi-/multilingualism, plurilingualism and LA approaches are theoretical approaches, but the bi-/multilingual learning approach is a pedagogical approach.

Second, these three approaches are established in different contexts. Bi-/multilingualism and plurilingualism are terms that were established in the European context. Bi-/multilingualism and plurilingualism are terms to describe a widespread social phenomenon in European countries that more than one language exists in European society due to migration and globalisation (Baker, 2011; Edwards, 2009; García, 2009; McNamara, 2011). Bi-/multilingualism tends to describe collective bi-/multilingualism, whereas plurilingualism focuses more on personal multilingualism (Council of Europe, 2001). LA emerged when British practitioner Eric Harkins thought language learning should not only pay attention to language itself, but should also raise the awareness of knowledge about language and its role in human life (Donmall, 1985; García, 2008). In addition, LA also includes the awareness of outside of target

language because the school population is becoming increasingly multilingual (García, 2008; Hawkins, 1984). Thus, LA has become established in the UK as the immigrant population has been continuously increasing. According to my literature review, the bi-/multilingual learning approach includes translation as an EFL pedagogy, and translanguaging. Translation as an EFL pedagogy was originally used for ancient language teaching and learning (such as Latin and Greek) in a foreign language teaching and learning context (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Cook, 2010; Kim, 2008; Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Zhou & Niu, 2015). The term translanguaging was coined by Cen Williams in Welsh high schools in relation to content learning, and translanguaging inevitably involves using teachers' and students' L1 as a pedagogical strategy (Fang & Liu, 2020).

Thirdly, these three approaches have different functions in my literature review. I used Baker (2011), Bloomfield (1933), Richards and Schmidt (2010) and the Council of Europe (2001) to define bi-/multilingualism and plurilingualism. I use bi-/multilingualism and plurilingualism as umbrella terms for my thesis, as they provide a different perspective to understand the whole society, individuals as well as language teaching and learning from the monolingual perspective. Bi-/multilingualism and plurilingualism provide the theoretical foundation and premise of the other two approaches, whereas, LA and the bi-/multilingual learning approach concretise the bi-/multilingualism and plurilingualism perspectives. Thus, I put the overlapping circles of bi-/multilingualism and plurilingualism on the top of the Venn diagram (Figure 3.1).

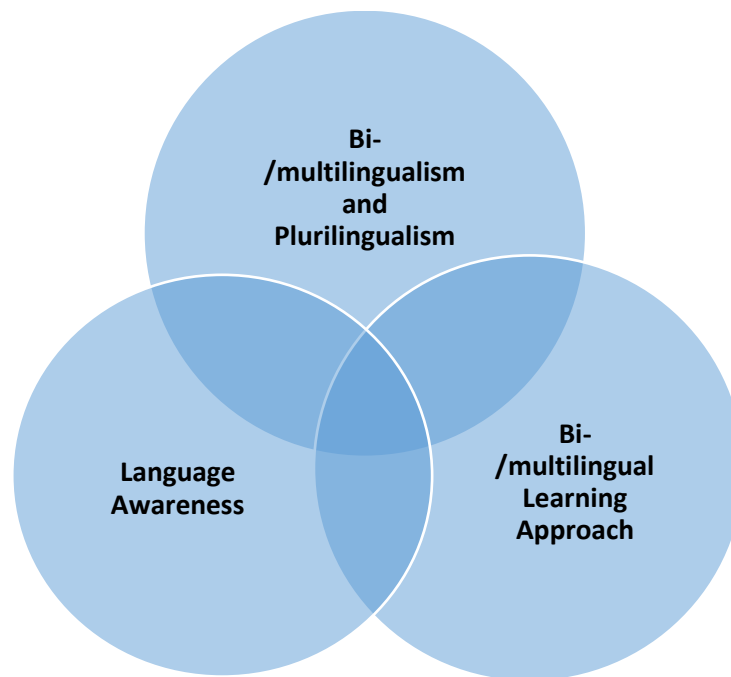


Figure 3. 2 Overlaps among three approaches

Finally, as can be seen in the conceptual framework (Table 3.2), there are five columns in this table, the first column consists of the three main approaches that I have reviewed in the literature review chapter. The second column contains the major entities that will be analysed in my research, namely units of analysis. The third column includes all the main themes that I extracted from my literature review chapter. The fourth and fifth columns contain sub-research questions and data collection instruments respectively.

These three approaches provide me with different angles to understand a bi-/multilingual society and teaching contexts. The units of analysis for bi-/multilingual and plurilingual approaches would be teachers' and learners' perceptions, and it contains institutional language policy and linguistic repertoire two subcategories. The term perception here refers to teachers' and learners' 'recognition and understanding' (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 427) of institutional language policy and their own linguistic repertoire. Thus, bi-/multilingualism describes the macro context in one multilingual society, and plurilingualism describes teachers and learners' individual linguistic repertoire.

Furthermore, the units of analysis for the LA approach are also teachers' and learners' perceptions. I use the four domains of LA (James & Garrett, 1991; Murray, 2016;

Svalberg, 2007) as the framework to investigate teachers' and learners' perception of their own LA. Thus, I broke down teachers' and learners' perceptions into four dimensions which are the four domains of LA that highly relevant to my study as I discussed in section 3.2.3.1.

Similarly, the units of analysis for the bi-/multilingual learning approach are teachers and learners, but it does not only focus on teachers' and learners' perceptions but also includes teachers' and learners' experience. The bi-/multilingual learning approach is divided into translation as an EFL pedagogy, and translanguaging in its two subcategories. I broke these two subcategories down into different dimensions respectively. First, I divided translation in second language education into translation understood as scaffoldings based on Cook (2010) and Laviosa (2014) and translation understood as problems based on Chang (2011) and Brown (2014). Second, there are two dimensions of translanguaging, they are translanguaging understood as a social phenomenon which is based on Li (2015), and translanguaging understood as a learning/teaching strategy which is based on Creese and Blackledge (2010); Ke and Lin (2017); Lasagabaster and García (2014). However, as the first dimension is not the focus of my research, I will only focus on translanguaging used as a learning/teaching strategy in my research. In addition, these two subcategories overlap each other. Learners' L1 would be used in both translation and translanguaging, and translation can be one translanguaging technique. The bi-/multilingual learning approach provides concrete methods of teaching language in classrooms.

In terms of overlaps among these three approaches, as I mentioned above, I use bi-/multilingualism and plurilingualism as the theoretical foundation to examine LA and the bi-/multilingual learning approach. The bi-/multilingual learning approach offers specific learning methods to raise LA, and LA could be one of the learning outcomes from using the bi-/multilingual learning approach.

Three Main Approaches	Unit of Analysis	Main themes from LR	
Bi-/multilingualism Plurilingualism	Teachers' and learners' perception	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Institutional language policy • Linguistic repertoire 	
Language Awareness (LA)	Teacher's and Learners' perception	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Power Domain • Social Domain • Affective Domain • Cognitive Domain 	
Bi-/multilingual Learning Approach	Teachers' and Learners' perception and experience	Translation as an EFL pedagogy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Translation understood as scaffolding • Translation understood as a problem
		Translanguaging	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understood as a social phenomenon • Understood as a learning/teaching strategy

Table 3. 2: Multilingual learning approach framework for research in Chinese context

In conclusion, this literature review established a new approach to examine Chinese teaching practice. Firstly, as I mentioned above, I use these three approaches to examine Chinese teaching practice from a multilingual perspective. I consider China as a multilingual country. Secondly, according to the Chinese Ministry of Education, Mandarin Chinese has a dominant status in all educational settings. In English classes, teachers and learners are encouraged to use English only. GTM is considered as an out-of-date teaching method by the Chinese Ministry of Education and its use is therefore not encouraged. However, GTM is still the most widely used teaching method in the Chinese public sectors (Hu, 2002, 2010; Yan, 2016). Thus, I use these three approaches to examine school practice in China in a constructive way and aim to develop a step towards context-sensitive bi-/multilingual pedagogy. Finally, this literature review informed my research instruments too, I will elaborate this in sections 4.4.3 and 4.4.4 in the next chapter.

4. Methodology

This chapter presents the research design of this study. Firstly, I will present and explain the research questions that drive my research. Secondly, I will present and discuss the philosophical assumptions behind my study. Thirdly, I will lay out the data collection instruments that I used to collect different datasets. In addition, I will also present a detailed data analysis process in this chapter. Finally, I will also examine the ethical concerns and trustworthiness of my research.

4.1 Research Questions

As I mentioned in section 1.3, this research aims to answer the following research questions.

Main Research Question:

What are English learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences with regard to monolingual expectation and multilingual reality in English language education in a Chinese senior secondary school?

This question will be approached by answering the following sub-research questions (Sub-RQs):

1. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions of monolingual expectation and personal and societal bi-/multilingualism in the school? Is there a discrepancy between these?
2. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions of language awareness (LA)?
3. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions and experiences of current bi-/multilingual learning approaches namely translation and translanguaging, in a Chinese context?

Sub-RQ 1 aims to examine both teachers' and learners' understandings of linguistic situations when they are teaching or studying. In addition, sub-RQ 1 also investigates both teachers' and learners' understanding of their individual linguistic repertoires. Their understanding of the linguistic context and individual linguistic repertoires will

provide insights into the current linguistic situation in a Chinese high school context in Guangdong Province at both the macro and the micro level.

Sub-RQ 2 was designed to uncover both teachers' and learners' perceptions of LA. Teachers' and learners' perceptions of LA will be investigated based on the definitions of LA and the four domains of LA which highly relevant to my study as I established in the literature review.

Both teachers' and learners' perceptions and experiences of current bi-/multilingual teaching/learning approaches will be uncovered in response to sub-RQ 3. The answers to this question are expected to shed light on current English teaching and learning from a bi-/multilingual perspective in a senior secondary school context in China. The table below is an overview of the data collection methods and data analysis related to each of the research questions.

Sub-RQs	Data collection instruments	Data analysis
1. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions of monolingual expectation and personal and societal bi-/multilingualism in the school? Is there a discrepancy between these?	Questionnaire Survey	SPSS Thematic analysis
2. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions of LA?	Questionnaire Survey	SPSS Thematic analysis
3. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions	Questionnaire Survey	Thematic analysis

<p>and experiences of current bi-/multilingual learning approaches (translation and translanguaging) in a Chinese context?</p>	<p>Semi-structured Interview</p>	
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Table 4. 1: an overview of research questions, data collection instruments and data analysis

4.2 Philosophical Framework

A philosophical framework helps to understand a researcher’s wide world view which includes major assumptions about epistemology, ontology (Crotty, 1998), and it leads to a choice of methodology (Creswell, 2013). Therefore, in this section I will clarify the philosophical assumptions underlying my research.

4.2.1 Ontology and Epistemology

Ontology refers to beliefs about reality. Realism refers to the view that reality can be discovered using objective measurements and can be generalised (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). On the contrary, relativism implies that reality is subjective and can be shaped by context, and that multiple realities therefore exist (Guba & Lincoln, 1988). A combination of ontological assumptions have been adopted in this research project as it is aimed at understanding the current bi-/multilingual phenomenon in a senior secondary school setting through individuals’ perceptions and experience relating to my research topics.

Firstly, the term reality in this research project refers to my participants’ perceptions of monolingual expectation and multilingual reality in the school, their individual linguistic repertoire, LA and their perceptions and experiences of translation and translanguaging. Thus, reality in this research project can be measured by using numerical measurements. On the other hand, the ontological assumption in this research is that the participants’ perceptions and experiences are multiple and subjective. As I mentioned earlier, this thesis aims to investigate multiple realities including different perceptions of my research topic from different individuals. The

reality of my participants' perceptions of monolingual expectation and multilingual reality in the school are socially constructed (Guba & Lincoln, 1988) based on their daily observation and experience. Their perceptions of individual linguistic repertoires are constructed every day based on their ethnic family and education background. The perceptions of LA arise from their language education experience. Finally, teachers' and learners' perceptions and experiences of translation and translanguaging are influenced by their individual previous experiences. To be specific, teachers' perceptions and experiences are mainly based on their former learning experiences, teacher training education, and their teaching experience. Whereas students' perceptions and experiences are mainly influenced by their former education experience and family atmosphere. Pring (2000) suggests that people's perceptions of reality are often 'multiple realities' as they are subjective. As a result, the reality of this study is diversity as the reality is a focus upon teachers' and learners' individual life experiences.

In terms of epistemology, it refers to the relationship between the researcher and the research, and how we get knowledge (Crotty, 1998). Informed by the ontological assumption I discussed above, reality is multiple and subjective, thus, interacting with people to investigate what reality means to them is needed (Creswell, 2013). Interaction with participants is important to gain in-depth understanding of the research questions, although understanding also gained through numerical measurement in this research.

4.2.2 Post-positivism and Constructivism

My research has been informed by a combination of a post-positivism and constructivism. Post-positivism has evolved from the positivism paradigm (Ryan, 2006). Positivism developed based on the philosophical ideas of the French Philosopher, Auguste Comte. Based on Comte's belief, positivism believes that 'only those things can be the objects of sensory experience are considered valid' (Mittwede, 2012, p. 25). Positivists believe that reality is objective and completely apprehensible (Ponterotto, 2005). On the other hand, post-positivists consider that reality is objective but that 'not everything is completely knowable' (Krauss, 2005, p. 759). This notion is based on the fact that people's intellectual mechanisms are flawed and life phenomena are rather complicated, therefore we can never entirely capture a true

reality (Ponterotto, 2005). Lincoln and Guba (2000, p. 107) point out that the key difference between positivist and post-positivist paradigms is that the positivists emphasise 'theory verification' whereas the post-positivists stress 'theory falsification'. Theory falsification claims that 'scientific theories can never be proven true' (Ernest, 1994, p. 22). Therefore, from a post-positivist perspective, knowledge can only be tentatively accepted even when all attempts to refute it fail (Scotland, 2012). In addition, constructivism asserts that reality is social constructed (Guba & Lincoln, 1988), and that the best means to understand it are construction, interaction and experience in a wider social context (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Guba & Lincoln, 1988; Maxwell, 2006).

As a result, post-positivism and constructivism lead to different methodological approaches. Post-positivist research tends to seek to understand causal relationships (Scotland, 2012), thus experimental designs are often used (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). However, 'hypotheses are not proved but simply not rejected' (Creswell, 2009, p. 7) because knowledge is tentative. Constructivism, on the other hand, tends to use a qualitative approach which allows researchers to get close to their research field and participants to observe and interact (Creswell, 2013). Thus, the post-positivism element allows me to measure my participants' perceptions of the monolingual expectation and the multilingual reality of their school, their individual linguistic repertoires, LA, as well as their perceptions and experiences of using translation and translanguaging in their teaching and learning. The constructivism element, on the other hand, allows me to understand all these three main research topics in an in-depth way by interacting with my participants. Therefore, guided by a post-positivist and constructivist paradigm, this research adopts a mixed methodology.

4.3 Methodology

This research adopts a mixed methodology. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) define mixed methodology as ‘the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches concepts, or language into a single study’. Yin (2006), Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007) and Morse (2015) later add that the definition of mixed methodology should not be restricted to the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods but should also include mixed types of data, approaches to analysis, and inference techniques.

There are normally two major types of mixed-method designs, they are simultaneous and sequential mixed-method designs (Bowen, Rose, & Pilkington, 2017; Morse, 2015). This study undertakes the sequential mixed-method design. It is broken into two separate phases. The first phase of this study is a quantitative phase, and the second phase is a qualitative phase. The aim of the first quantitative phase is to contextualise the second phase qualitative data, and the following qualitative phase can also enrich the first phase data (Bowen et al., 2017). My study aims to incorporate the strengths of quantitative and qualitative approaches. This design brings quantitative data and qualitative data together in one study which could provide new insight and add new knowledge to the research field (Bowen et al., 2017; Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006). In addition, the first phase is mostly quantitative, but also collects some open-format qualitative data to help construct understanding. I will elaborate this point further in section 4.4.3.

In terms of the nature of the research design, it adopts a mixed-methods sequential explanatory design as my study aims to produce understanding of the three research aims (see section 1.3). Creswell, Clark, Gutmann, and Hanson (2003) suggest that this type of mixed-methods design has two distinctive phases, and normally, the quantitative phase is followed by the qualitative phase. The aim of this design is to address research topic in depth (Ponce & Pagan, 2016a). To achieve this purpose, it uses a quantitative phase to measure the attributes of the research topic, followed by a qualitative phase to deepen the understandings of the quantitative phase data (Bowen et al., 2017; Ponce & Pagan, 2016a). Specifically, for my research, the first quantitative data has been collected and analysed first to provide a general understanding of monolingual expectation and multilingual reality in the participating

school, as well as both teacher and learner participants' perceptions of their individual linguistic repertoire, LA and their perceptions and experiences of translation and translanguaging. Subsequently, the second qualitative phase builds on the first quantitative phase. The first, quantitative data phase is used as a basis from which the second, qualitative phase is developed. Thus, these two phases are connected in my study. In addition, the second qualitative phase mainly focuses on both teacher and learner participants' perceptions and experiences of translation and translanguaging in their teaching and learning. The qualitative data have been collected and analysed to explain and elaborate on the quantitative data in more depth (Creswell et al., 2003; Ponce & Pagan, 2016a).

4.3.1 The quantitative phase

Ponce and Pagan (2016c) suggest that one of the main purposes of using a quantitative research approach is to measure and describe a certain phenomenon numerically in educational research. Thus, in my study, a questionnaire survey was used as research instrument for the first quantitative phase. A survey is a research method which can effectively collect standardised data from a large number of participants (Muijs, 2007). There are three reasons that I chose to use a survey for the first quantitative phase. Firstly, the survey aims to describe and measure in a numerical way both teachers' and learners' linguistic repertoires, language awareness and use of translation and translanguaging. Secondly, the survey also reveals the linguistic situation in a Chinese senior secondary school context in a numerical way. Thirdly, this survey could provide practical implications for Chinese bi-/multilingual language education because the results of survey research are easier to generalise to wider educational settings (Buckingham & Saunders, 2004; Muijs, 2010). The survey research might not be able to provide a deeper understanding of my three research topics, but the second qualitative phase can help here.

4.3.2 The qualitative phase

Qualitative research is a prominent approach in educational research to investigate participants' feelings, experiences and opinions in their individual context (Dörnyei, 2007; Scott, 2015). Willig (2008) adds that qualitative research is essential in educational research as it could generate new knowledge about the social world and

help us to understand how others make sense of this world. Therefore, the second phase of my research aims to provide a platform for my participants to express and explain their personal perceptions and experiences of translation and translanguaging in their language teaching and learning. Moreover, a detailed and rich amount of data can be generated from qualitative data (Braun & Clark, 2008). This could help to deepen and enrich the findings from the first quantitative phase of research.

4.4 Participants and Research sites

Multiple sampling strategies have been adopted in my research due to the nature of the mixed-methods design. Thus, in this section, I will present the sampling strategies used, brief information about the participating school and participants in both research phases respectively.

4.4.1 Sampling, participating school and participants for the first phase survey

There are two main sampling methods: probability and non-probability (Muijs, 2007; Ponce & Pagan, 2016c). Muijs (2007) suggests that the method of probability sampling strategies is the best way of ensuring that the sample could subsequently be generalised to a wider population. I used two different sampling methods in this study. A non-probability convenience sampling strategy was adopted for selecting the participating school due the issue of accessibility. Convenience sampling is probably the most common sampling method in educational research because easy access to research sites (Cohen et al., 2011; Muijs, 2007). However, it has been criticised for being biased because the research sites are chosen because of cost and convenience so might not be representative for the population (Muijs, 2010). As I mentioned in section 2.1.2, the participating school is a provincial-level key secondary school in Guangdong Province. There are 319 senior secondary schools but only 16 provincial-level key senior secondary schools in total across the province (Ministry of Education, 2020) . As a result, the selected non-probability sample cannot represent the wider population, but the chosen sample may still provide instances in a similar population (Cohen et al., 2011).

In addition, I used a probability simple random sampling strategy to select which classes in the school participated in the survey. Six classes within Grade 11 cohort were selected by using random number generators. Muijs (2007) claims that this is the most unbiased method of sampling because everyone in the population has absolutely the same opportunity to be chosen in the sample.

Participating school

The participating school is called New Day secondary school. It is a state comprehensive senior secondary school located in Guangdong Province. It was built in 1934 and was identified as being among the first tier of provincial-level key schools in 1994. The school has more than 6300 students and 523 teachers. There are 93 classes in total in the school. As I mentioned earlier (see section 2.1.2), the participating school is one of the best secondary schools in Guangdong Province with good facilities, a spacious environment, more competent teachers, and some of the top students in the province. 55% of teachers have a master's degree. Moreover, the enrolment rate into universities has remained at 99% since 2005. In addition, according to the school's student code of conduct, all students must be polite and speak Mandarin in school (For more detail about the linguistic situation and institutional-level language policy, see section 2.1.2.). Finally, as already explained in section 2.2.3, the school implements the national English Curriculum Standards (ECS) as their teaching guidance.

As I mentioned previously, I chose this school because of its accessibility. I collected my dissertation data in this same school in 2016. I collected video-recording data and interview data with one of the English teachers and her class. The English teacher is my former colleague. We worked together in the private English teaching sector in Shanghai from 2012 to 2014. I visited the school again in June 2017 for a fact-finding mission. No data was collected in this fact-finding mission, but I had opportunities to audit three English classes and managed to talk to some students and teachers. As a result of this rapport building up gradually over the years, the headteacher accepted my request to access the school again in June 2018 for the first phase data collection.

Participants

I gained permission from the head teacher to collect my survey data from the Grade 11 cohort. As I mentioned in section 4.4.1, a simple random sampling method was adopted to select which classes in the school were to participate in the research. There are 31 classes in total within the Grade 11 cohort. The total population of Grade 11 is about 1650 students and 17 English teachers. Six classes participated in the first phase survey, meaning 306 students in total. The English teachers who teach these six classes participated in this survey too. The age of participating students is from 17 to 18. Moreover, 9 more English teachers from the participating school emailed me to express their interest in filling in the questionnaire as they heard from their colleagues about my study after I left the school. I emailed my questionnaire to them separately. All 9 English teachers responded to the questionnaire and sent it back to me via email. Therefore, 15 English teachers participated in this survey in total.

4.4.2 Sampling and participants for the second phase

Non-probability has been selected as the second qualitative phase sampling strategy. The richness and depth of the data and variation data are important for qualitative sampling strategies (Ponce & Pagan, 2016b; Punch & Oancea, 2014). The purpose of the second phase is to investigate learners and teachers' perceptions and experiences of current bi-/multilingual learning approaches. Therefore, it is impossible to generalise their perceptions and experiences.

Self-selected sampling and snowball sampling were integrated for the second qualitative phase. Self-select sampling was used for student participants' recruitment. There were 9 students among the 306 student participants who left their contact details at the end of their questionnaires without solicitation. Thus, I took this as a sign that those 9 students would be willing to have contact with me, and I asked them if they would like to participate in the second phase data collection. All 9 students responded that they would be interested in participating in the second phase interview. One of the benefits of this is that it saved a large amount of time in terms of searching for appropriate candidates (Sharma, 2017). However, I acknowledge that self-selected sampling may not necessarily represent a good spread of differences (Ponce & Pagan, 2016b; Sharma, 2017) in terms of students' linguistic repertoires and their English

levels. As a result, the original plan was that I should recruit again among the original 306 student participants if results from these 9 students ended up not representing good variations. However, the second-round recruitment did not need to happen as the interview data from these 9 student participants represent the population well.

In terms of teacher participants, snowball sampling has been adopted. Firstly, I recruited again among the 15 English teachers who participated in the first phase survey. 4 English teachers agreed to participate in the second phase interview, and one of the English teachers suggested a friend of hers as a potential candidate. As a result, I recruited 6 more English teachers from outside of the participating school via chain-referral. The 6 teacher participants with different background provide diversity and different possibilities to gain a deeper and richer understanding of using translation and translanguaging in language education.

Participants

As mentioned in the previous section, all 9 learner participants were recruited among the 306 students who participated in the first phase survey. In terms of teacher participants, I successfully recruited 10 teachers to participate in the second phase interview. They were invited through two means: firstly, I recruited again in the participating school among the English teachers who participated in the first phase survey. However, only 4 teachers Taylor, Terri, Treena and Tracy agreed to join the second phase interview. Therefore, I asked teachers who had agreed to participate in the interview to invite their friends and former colleagues who are English teachers to participate, and to contact me if anyone was interested. The rest of the 6 teacher participants were all recruited this way. Tina, Toya and Tom were introduced by Tracy, then Toya introduced Theseus and Tinsley to me. Finally, Tom enabled me to connect with his ex-classmate Todd. The rest of 6 teacher participants worked in the private schools. I acknowledge that including teacher participants who were not from the participating school might cause inconsistency in findings. However, it might provide more possibilities for me to understand teachers' perceptions and experiences of using bi-/multilingual learning approaches in private sector contexts. One thing to note is that Taylor is the only participant who considers English as her first language as she comes from the United States. I invited all teacher participants to choose a pseudonym starting with the letter T, and all learner participants to choose a pseudonym starting

with the letter L. Basic demographic information about the interview participants is summarised below in Table 4.2.

Learner participants		Teacher participants		
Participants	Gender	Participants	Gender	Type of school
Lesley	Female	Taylor	Female	State (participating school)
Laura	Female	Tina	Female	Private
LP	Female	Terri	Female	State (participating school)
Leo	Male	Tom	Male	Private
Li	Male	Toya	Female	Private
Liang	Male	Tinsley	Female	Private
Larry	Female	Theseus	Male	Private
Lin	Female	Treena	Female	State (participating school)
Luyu	Female	Todd	Male	Private
		Tracy	Female	State (participating school)

Table 4. 2 : Basic demographic information for the interview participants

4.4.3 Research instrument used in the first phase

The study adopts a sequential mixed-methods design. Data was collected through multiple methods. A questionnaire survey was used for the first phase of the sequential mixed-methods design. The questionnaires for teachers and for students are slightly different considering the different roles that teachers and students have in English learning. Pen-and-paper questionnaires were used for both teacher participants and student participants. The questionnaires for teachers and students were designed bilingually in both English and their first language (Chinese).

There are three reasons that I chose a questionnaire as a survey instrument. First, the questionnaire allowed me to collect a large amount of information to answer my

research questions in an effective way. This questionnaire aims to reveal students' and teachers' perceptions of monolingual expectation and their individual linguistic repertoire (sub-RQ1), their LA (sub-RQ2), as well as their perceptions and experiences of using translation and translanguaging (sub- RQ3) in China. Second, the data can be analysed relatively quickly by using SPSS. Finally, respondent anonymity is one of the significant benefits of a questionnaire compared with face-to-face individual interviews (Nulty, 2008).

I designed the questionnaire according to the conceptual framework developed in the literature review. Both teacher and student questionnaires consist of four sections. The first section is the demographic background information section. The second section is the linguistic repertoire section. I adapted the language domain model (Tonnar, 2010) to examine which languages my participants speak, hear read and write in different domains. In this section, all participants were expected to list the languages that they use in different domains. They were also invited to write a few sentences to explain why they use different languages in different domains. The linguistic repertoire section is in line with the bi/multilingualism and plurilingualism approach indicated in the conceptual framework and aims to answer sub- RQ1 (what are teachers' and learners' perceptions of monolingual expectation and personal and societal bi-/multilingualism in the school? Is there a discrepancy between these?)

The third section consists of 8 Likert Scale statements in the student questionnaire and 9 Likert scale statements in the teacher questionnaire, all Likert Scale statements are with the answers ranging from 1 – 'strongly disagree' to 5 'strongly agree' (see Appendices 1 and 2 for student and teacher questionnaire items). Items 3a to 3c cover the power domain, the social domain, and the affective domain of LA respectively in the students' questionnaire, whereas items 3a to 3d cover the power domain, the social domain, and the affective domain of LA respectively in the teachers' questionnaire. In the student questionnaire, items 3d and 3e refer to the cognitive domain of LA in terms of learning approaches, whereas items 3e and 3f refer to the cognitive domain of LA in relation to learning approaches in the teacher questionnaire. Items 3f to 3h refer to the cognitive domain of LA in terms of form and function in the student questionnaire. In the teacher questionnaire, items 3g to 3i refer to the cognitive domain of LA in terms of form and function.

These Likert Scale statements in both teacher and student questionnaires were developed based on the LA approach of the conceptual framework and aim to answer the sub- RQ2 (what are teachers' and learners' perceptions of LA?). These Likert Scale statements are inspired by empirical research about multilingual awareness (Haukås, 2016; Otwinowska, 2017). I adapted Otwinowska's (2017) questionnaire items as I aim to cover the four domains of LA which are relevant to my study.

The fourth section comprises eight Likert Scale statements in the student questionnaire and seven Likert Scale statements in the teacher questionnaire, as well as two open-ended questions in both questionnaires. Again, all Likert Scale statements are with the answers ranging from 1 – 'strongly disagree' to 5 'strongly agree' (see Appendices 1 and 2 for student and teacher questionnaire items). Items 4a to 4c refer to translation in English learning and teaching, L1 usage and dialect usage respectively in both teachers' and students' questionnaires. Items 4d to 4g in the teachers' questionnaire refer to translanguaging as a teaching pedagogy, whereas items 4d to 4h in the students' questionnaire refer to translanguaging as a learning strategy. The two open-ended questions in both questionnaires provide more space for the participants to write down their comments on translation and translanguaging in English learning and teaching. I explained the meaning of translanguaging in a note in both the teacher and learner questionnaires in both English and Chinese. These Likert scale statements in both teacher and student questionnaire were developed based on the multilingual teaching approach of the conceptual framework and aims to answer sub- RQ3 (What are teachers' and learners' perceptions and experiences of current monolingual and bi-/multilingual learning approaches, namely translation and translanguaging, in a Chinese context?). These Likert Scale statements were inspired by Ke and Lin's (2017) empirical research about translanguaging conducted in Taiwan. However, in Ke and Lin's (2017) empirical research, they used classroom observation as a research instrument. I developed these Likert Scale statements according to their research findings.

4.4.4 Research instrument used in the second phase

Semi-structured in-depth interview were used as the second phase data collection instrument. Both teachers and learners were involved in the second phase data collection. The in-depth interviews allowed me to explore in-depth understanding, opinions and experiences of my participants (Ponce & Pagan, 2016b). According to Gillham (2005, p. 72), a semi-structured interview ‘facilitates a strong element of discovery, while its structured focus allows an analysis in terms of commonalities’. Specifically, a semi-structured interview is flexible (Coleman, 2015), thus allowing me to use my judgment to decide whether to probe for more details which might contain unexpected elements but would still be relevant to my study (Cohen et al., 2011). Moreover, the flexibility of semi-structured interviews also entitles the interviewees to develop their thought and articulate the complexities of their situated understanding.

At the same time, the structured elements entailed me to follow the same themes with all the participants in the interviews. Thus, the same main themes were covered in all interviews (I will elaborate on this further in the following paragraph). In addition, all participants were interviewed for an approximately similar amount of time (about 45 minutes). Finally, Ponce and Pagan (2016b) suggest that there are no right and wrong answers as the interview involves the participants’ own understanding, values, attitudes and experiences. This enables me to understand my study from my participants’ perspectives.

Classroom observation could provide direct information (Dörnyei, 2007) of teachers’ experiences of using current bi-/multilingual learning approaches namely translation and translanguaging. Thus, classroom observation data can be used to compare the teacher participants’ perceptions with their actual pedagogical practices. However, I was not able to go back to China for the second phase data collection due to time and budget restrictions. Therefore, classroom observation was not used for this study.

The first phase survey data fully answered students’ and teachers’ perceptions of monolingual expectation and multilingual reality (sub-RQ1), their individual linguistic repertoire (sub-RQ1), their LA (sub-RQ2). However, students’ and teachers’ perceptions and experiences of the current bi-/multilingual teaching approach namely translation and translanguaging (sub- RQ3) has only partially answered. Thus, the

second phase interviews mainly focus on the current bi-/multilingual teaching/learning approaches which are translation and translanguaging in this thesis.

Similarly, the design of the interview questions was based on the theoretical framework and interview questions for teachers and learners were slightly different considering the different roles that teachers and students have in English learning (See Appendices 3 and 4 for student and teacher interview questions). There are three main parts of the interview questions. The first part contains demographic information questions. The second part is about the benefit and problems of using translation as a pedagogical tool in learning and teaching. Moreover, as discussed in section 3.4.7, translanguaging can be defined as the process of using two languages to make meaning, shape experiences and to understand meanings (Baker, 2011; García, 2009). Therefore, I broke up translanguaging into switching between Chinese and English for English teaching and learning. The third part of the interview questions are about the benefits and problems of using translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy. I will explain the meaning of translanguaging in plain language to my participants when it comes to this question. These interview questions were inspired by an empirical study about teacher's attitudes towards and uses of translanguaging in an English language classroom in Iowa (Nambisan, 2014). I adapted the open-ended questions at the end of her survey. Moreover, I also discussed the opportunities and challenges for translanguaging in my literature section 3.4.12.

4.4.5 Research procedure for the first phase survey

Pilot and reliability

I piloted the questionnaire on the school open day on 19 June 2018. 15 learner questionnaires were answered by visiting students. In addition, 10 teacher questionnaires were piloted by English teachers I encountered on that day. Issues were found after the pilot, although for the most part the questionnaire was easy to understand. However, a majority of participants could not understand questionnaire item 2a. This questionnaire item was adapted from the language portrait model in order to examine participants' linguistic repertoire. I then added an example answer to item 2a in the questionnaire to ensure the participants would understand how to respond to this question. I was told by the headteacher that I could only have 15

minutes maximum to collect the survey data in each class. Therefore, I may not have had enough time to explain my questionnaire to the class in detail.

In addition, I used SPSS to check the reliability of the Likert Scale items in both teacher and learner questionnaires. Field (2009) suggests that it is important to ensure that the Likert Scales are reliable. Cronbach Alpha is the most common indicators to demonstrate if each individual Likert Scales has internal consistency (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2016). Ideally, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of a questionnaire construct should be above 0.7 (Pallant, 2016). As suggested by (Field, 2009), I reversed all negative items before proceeding with the pilot data for both teacher and learner questionnaires.

The 16 Likert Scales consist of three different constructs: a LA construct, an English learning strategy construct and a translinguaging construct in the learner questionnaire. Therefore, the reliabilities of these three constructs were tested separately (see Table 4.3).

	Number of responses	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on standardised Items	Mean of inter-item correlations	No. of Items
LA Construct	15	0.607	0.693	0.244	8
Learning Strategy Construct	15	0.703	0.732	0.476	3
Translinguaging Construct	15	0.625	0.544	0.230	5

Table 4. 3: Reliability of learner questionnaire

As can be seen in Table 4.3, the Cronbach Alpha values of the learner question are above 0.7 or near it. Pallant (2016) points out that Cronbach Alpha values are very sensitive to the number of items within one construct. It is common to find quite low Cronbach Alpha values in short constructs with less than ten items (e.g. 0.5). She suggests that it would be helpful to report the mean of inter-item correlation for the constructs, and an ideal range of the mean of inter-item correlation is from 0.15 to 0.50 (Trochim & Donnelly, 2001). The mean of inter-item correlations of each construct is 0.244,0.476 and 0.230 respectively according to Table 4.3.

Likewise, the 16 Likert Scales in the teacher questionnaire contain three constructs too, they are a LA construct, a teaching strategy construct and a translanguaging construct. The reliabilities of these three constructs were tested separately as shown in Table 4.4.

	Number of responses	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on standardised Items	Mean of inter-item correlations	No. of Items
LA Construct	10	0.766	0.749	0.249	9
Teaching Strategy Construct	10	0.768	0.772	0.530	3
Translanguaging Construct	10	0.673	0.672	0.406	4

Table 4. 4: Reliability of teacher questionnaire

As can be seen in Table 4.4, the first two constructs have good internal consistencies, with a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.766 and 0.768. The final construct has a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.673, but the inter-item correlation is 0.403 which is in the optimal range of 0.15 to 0.50. This indicates the items are well correlated (Trochim & Donnelly, 2001).

The first phase survey

The actual first phase survey was carried out from 21 June 2018 to 26 June 2018. The headteacher informed the six English teachers about my role and my research before the actual survey took place. In addition, the information sheets and consent forms had been distributed to all students on 20 June 2018 by their English teachers. I collected 95 learner questionnaires and 2 teacher questionnaires from 2 classes on 21 June 2018. 101 learner questionnaires and 2 teacher questionnaires had been collected from 2 classes on 22 June 2018. I managed to visit only one class on 25 June 2018, I collected 55 learner questionnaires and 1 teacher questionnaire. 55 learner questionnaires and 1 teacher questionnaire were collected on the last day. In

addition, as I mentioned previously, 9 more teachers responded to my questionnaire after I had left the school. Therefore, 306 learner questionnaires and 15 teacher questionnaires were collected in total (see Table 4.5). I used Mandarin to explain the survey and talk to teachers and students throughout the data collection process.

Date	Class time	No. of student	No. of teacher	Notes
21.06.2018	9:00 – 9:45	50	1	I was introduced by the English teacher. The English teacher kindly allowed me to use the first 15 minutes of her English class. So I briefly explained my questionnaire to the class. Students and teacher finished my questionnaires in about 15 minutes.
21.06.2018	11:00 – 11:45	45	1	Similar experience as above.
22.06.2018	9:00 – 9:45	46	1	I did not have time to introduce my questionnaire as I only had less than 10 minutes to get all the data collection done at the end of the English class. All students still tried to finish my questionnaire during their break time although I told them to feel free to take a break.
22.06.2018	2:30 – 3:15	55	1	Again, I did not have time to explain my questionnaire to the class due to limited time. Some students filled in my questionnaires during their breaktime although I told them to feel free to take a break.
25.06.2018	11:00 – 11:45	55	1	This whole class was upset because they had their English exams results released on this day, and their English teacher was not happy about their results.
26.06.2018	9:00 – 9:45	55	1	A student told me she was happy to see there were questions about languages other than English in my questionnaire.

Table 4. 5: Questionnaire collection

4.4.6 Research procedure for the second phase interview

I piloted the learner interview with a former English teacher with 2 years of teaching experience, and piloted the teacher interview with a former English teacher with 9 years of teaching experience. Both of them are Chinese and PhD colleagues of mine. They were to answer the questions based on the retrospection of their English learning and teaching experiences respectively. Both participants in the pilot study commented that the questions were clear and easy to understand. However, they both confessed that most of time they had to make up answers because they could not remember

details in their teaching/learning experience especially with the participants who piloted the learner interview. One of the participants in the piloting commented that questions about details helped her to recall more details (e.g. how do you translate when are you reading? What language do you use for writing an outline?). Therefore, I used the skill of asking details in order to probe in the actual interview.

A total of 19 interviews with both learner and teacher participants took place in April 2019. All interview dates are listed below in Table 4.6.

Learner participants		Teacher participants	
Lesley	01.04.2019	Taylor	02.04.2019
Laura	01.04.2019	Tina	02.04.2019
LP	02.04.2019	Terri	03.04.2019
Leo	03.04.2019	Tom	04.04.2019
Li	12.04.2019	Toya	07.04.2019
Liang	15.04.2019	Tinsley	10.04.2019
Larry	16.04.2019	Theseus	14.04.2019
Lin	21.04.2019	Treena	16.04.2019
Luyu	22.04.2019	Todd	19.04.2019
		Tracy	25.04.2019

Table 4. 6: Interview dates

All interviews took place via Wechat because all participants were in China but I was in Exeter. Information sheets and consent forms for teachers had been sent via email to all participants before their interviews. Information sheets and consent forms for learner participants had been sent to the head teacher, she then helped me to print them out and distribute to each learner participant. All learner participants were interviewed in a quiet and private study space in their school library. Teacher participants were interviewed in different locations including their offices and their homes. Personally, I conducted all interviews in the private study space of the University of Exeter library. Each interview lasted approximately 40 minutes and was audio-recorded and saved securely in my university-provided desktop which is protected by passwords and only can be accessed by myself.

In terms of interview language, Cortazzi, Pilcher, and Jin (2011) argue that language choice is complex in interviews. The differences are not only about accurate expression or additional information when participants are interviewed in their first language, but also about cultural elements and identities related to the language they use in their interviews. For my interviews, both myself and the majority of the interviewees had access to at least three languages (Mandarin, English and Cantonese); Taylor speaks English only. I let my interviewees choose the interview

language mainly due to ethical concerns. I believe it would have been unethical to specify a certain language they should use. It would also not have been fair to assume that they would be more competent being interviewed in a particular language.

4.5 Ethics

Ethical consideration is essential in educational research to make sure the research is carried out in a respectful manner (Busher & James, 2015). Specifically, in my study, I was granted two ethical clearances for the first and the second phase of my research respectively. Two ethical application forms had been approved by the Graduate School of Education Ethics Committee of the University of Exeter (See appendices 3 and 8). I will elaborate in detail in terms of informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality in this section.

4.5.1 Informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality

As I mentioned in earlier sections, the headteacher and all teacher participants in the first phase data collection were informed about my research in a face-to-face meeting and a detailed information sheet and a consent form (see appendix 5). All learner participants in the first phase of my study were informed by their English teachers and a detailed information sheet as well as a consent form (see appendix 4). In terms of the second phase, I contacted the 9 learner participants who showed their willingness to participate in the second phase data collection via Wechat. They were informed by information sheets and consent forms (see appendix 9) after they granted their initial agreement. Similarly, teacher participants of the second phase study were informed by information sheets and consent forms (see appendix 10) after showing their initial willingness to participate my study.

All information sheets and consent forms were written in reader-friendly language to explain the study in Chinese, the participants' first language. Both information sheets for the first and second phase include details on how the research data would be used. Secondly, all participants were notified clearly about participants' rights, including autonomy, confidentiality, voluntary participation, the right to withdraw at any stage. Finally, I reassured all participants that I would respect their privacy and confidentiality,

and that they would always have the right to withdraw from my research at any time from the beginning of my data collection.

Anonymity and confidentiality are essential ethical requirements of research (Creswell, 2013). All participants' names and the participating school in the first phase study were anonymous and all participants in the second phase study were assigned pseudonyms. Regarding the second phase, as I mentioned in section 4.4.2, I invited all teacher participants to choose a pseudonym starting with T, and all learner participants to choose a pseudonym starting with L. Allen and Wiles (2016) argue that allocating pseudonyms is not only a technical procedure to confer anonymity and protect confidentiality but has psychological meaning to both the participants and the process of the research. Therefore, they suggest that researchers should encourage their participants to be involved in how they want to be named and represented. All my participants showed a strong interest in choosing their own pseudonyms. For example, Theseus is a fan of Greek philosophy, so he chose the name of the Greek demi-god who is known for intelligence and wisdom. Treena was chosen because she is a delightful character in the movie *Me before you*.

4.6 Data Analysis

This section presents how the different sets of data were analysed. Overall, I have four datasets – a learner questionnaire dataset and a teacher questionnaire dataset, a learner interview dataset and a teacher interview dataset. However, the questionnaire data set contains both quantitative data and qualitative data due to the nature of mixed-method research. Johnson et al. (2007) suggest different data analysis methods should be used to respond to research questions in mixed-method research. Thus, in this study, quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques have been used. I used SPSS to analyse quantitative data and I used Field (2009) and Pallant (2016) as the statistical literature guidance. In terms of qualitative data, the thematic data analysis method has been adopted. Quantitative data in this research provides general baseline information of the overall linguistic situation in the participating school and also 'facilitates the assessment of generalisability of the qualitative data' (Johnson et al., 2007, p. 115) on all participants' perceptions of the three main research topics. On the other hand, the qualitative thematic analysis allows fuller and richer data to be generated (Ivankova et al., 2006).

4.6.1 Quantitative data

Data types

As mentioned above, the questionnaire data contains both quantitative and qualitative elements. The quantitative data includes interval data, nominal data, dichotomous data and ordinal data. Interval data refers to continuous data for which the intervals between two points is standardised and equal (Field, 2009). In this study, only the length of learning/teaching English (item 1a) is interval data. A few pieces of nominal data were collected by the questionnaire. Nominal data is normally used for naming or labelling variables, each variable having no quantitative value (Field, 2009). In this study, item 1b1 (what dialects do you speak), item 1c (which language do you consider as your mother tongue), and items 2a1 to 2a6 (languages and dialects use in different contexts) all provide nominal data. In addition, the questionnaire item in relating to whether the participant speaks any dialects (item 1b) is dichotomous data with only two possible responses (Yes or No) (Griffith, 2010). Finally, there are 16 Likert Scale items (3a to 4h) in the questionnaire, and they all provide ordinal data. Ordinal data is categorical data which normally contains two or more natural and ordered categories and the distances between the categories is unknown (Agresti, 2013). The qualitative data collected by the questionnaires are five open-ended questions (2b,4i, 4j, 4k and 4l). These data were analysed using the thematic analysis method; I will elaborate further in section 4.6.2. The present section focuses on quantitative data analysis only.

Statistical Package for Social Science Software version 26 (SPSS) was used for the quantitative data analysis. All questionnaires were checked before entering the data into SPSS for descriptive data analysis. Descriptive statistics are normally used for describing so that researchers can analyses and interpret the meaning of descriptions (Cohen et al., 2011). Thus, in my research descriptive statistics are useful to describe participants' perceptions of monolingual expectation, multilingual reality, and LA as well as translation and translanguaging in frequency and percentage.

4.6.2 Qualitative Data

Qualitative data in my study includes the open-ended questions in the questionnaire and interview data. Thus, this section reports how all qualitative data were analysed. All qualitative data were analysed using the thematic analysis method. In the following sections, I will outline how different qualitative datasets were analysed sequentially.

Transcription

Both open-ended question data and interview data were gathered and fully transcribed as the first step of data analysis as suggested by Richard (2003, p. 112) 'the first step to any adequate analysis of interview data must be transcription, as it allows the sort of focused attention on the minutiae of talk that promotes insights into technique and content'. I fully transcribed both open-ended question data from the questionnaire survey and the interview data, as full transcriptions provide a picture of how meanings are co-constructed (Braun & Clark, 2008).

Open-ended question data in questionnaire

All open-ended question data was gathered, transcribed and analysed using the thematic analysis method. Thematic analysis is 'a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data' (Braun & Clark, 2008). The three main themes in my study which are extracted from the conceptual framework are bi-/multilingualism and plurilingualism, LA, and bi-/multilingual learning approaches. Moreover, the data analysis process was driven by the conceptual framework I designed in section 3.6. Thus, the data analysis process is mainly deductive. However, as a researcher, I believe there is always a combination of deductive and inductive elements in a research project as new themes can be foregrounded from the raw data. Therefore, the data analysis process was predominantly deductive but also included codes and themes derived inductively from the data.

How codes and themes were developed

All open-ended question data was gathered, transcribed and entered in NVIVO for coding. As I mentioned in the previous section, my data analysis is a predominantly deductive approach. Thus, the data analysis process started with the conceptual framework that I developed in section 3.6 as guidance for initial coding. As stated in the conceptual framework section, bi-/multilingualism and plurilingualism, LA and bi-/multilingual learning approaches are the three main themes from the literature review. Each main theme has different sub-themes which were also extracted from the literature review. For example, four domains of LA are four sub-themes of LA the main theme. Saldana (2016) suggests that the criteria for codes and themes need to be set before coding. The criteria help to determine the direction and focus of exploration and could also provide a start point. In my research, the conceptual framework is the criteria for the deductive coding process. In addition, it is worth highlighting that most of the data from the open-ended question dataset is in Chinese. The dataset was coded in Chinese to avoid double interpretation and maintain authenticity of the participants' responses. I will present two examples of how sub-themes and codes have been developed in this section. The examples I present in this section are based on the analysis process of the first phase learner survey results. The following table is an example to show how different codes were developed under the main theme of language awareness. Translation is in italics in Table 4.7 and 4.8, LQ is the abbreviation of the identification numbers for each quote from the learner questionnaires in Table 4.7 and 4.8.

Table 4. 7: Example 1 How sub themes and codes about LA were developed

Main Theme	Sub themes	Example Quotes	Codes	References
Language Awareness	Power domain	我在学校上课用普通话，上英语课用普通话和英文。 <i>I use Mandarin in school, and I use Mandarin and English in English classes</i> (LQ13).	Class rules	57
		We must speak Mandarin and English in school (LQ70).	School policy	51
		I was born in a teacher's family, my parents have encouraged me to speak Mandarin since I could speak. But my mother, an English professor, also teaches me to speak English at home (LQ45).	Family rule	18
		普通话是中国官方语言。 <i>Mandarin is the official language in China</i> (LQ120).	Official language	187
		在学校与同学沟通用普通话，有时用英文沟通来锻炼口语。在微博与微信上用普通话，英文，广东话进行沟通	Flexible language use depending on social purposes	33

	Social domain	<p>通与社交。有空出门时与朋友讲普通话与广东话，外出旅游时用英文来沟通。 <i>I use Mandarin to communicate with my peers in school, and sometimes speak English with them to practise my oral English. I use Mandarin, English and Cantonese to communicate with my friends via Wechat. I speak Mandarin and Cantonese to my friends when we go shopping together. I use English if I travel abroad (LQ 209).</i></p>		
		<p>我不是广东人，但是我下班会跟同学讲广东话（我想融入他们？）当然是被嘲笑不标准啦 <i>I am not a Cantonese, but I speak Cantonese with my classmates (I want to fit in?) They of course laugh at me that my Cantonese is not standard (LQ3).</i></p>	Using non-standard dialects to make friends	16
		<p>And I speak Mandarin at school because my schoolmates are from different parts of China and they have their own dialect. In order to make our communication easy, Mandarin is chosen to be the one we use in our school life (LQ79).</p>	Awareness of languages used in society	29

		And I speak Mandarin at school because my schoolmates are from different parts of China and they have their own dialect. In order to make our communication easy, Mandarin is chosen to be the one we use in our school life (LQ79).	Flexible language use for communication	48
		在学校说普通是因为这是标准用语，且有些同学不会说广东话。 <i>I speak Mandarin in my school because it is the standard language, and some of my peers do not speak Cantonese</i> (LQ07).	Flexible language use	13
	Affective domain	我小时候跟外公外婆一长大，我跟他们说安徽话.长大回到父母身边说广东话和普通话，我感觉安徽话是我和外公外婆的童年回忆。 <i>I lived with my maternal grandparents when I was little, I spoke the Anhui dialect with them. I went back to my parents and spoke Cantonese and Mandarin with them when I grew older. I feel the Anhui dialect is my childhood memory with my maternal grandparents</i> (LQ36).	Family bonding	161
		我喜欢日本漫画和英剧美剧，也喜欢探索日本和英美	Interest	140

		文化，所以我也自学日语，我也喜欢英语。 <i>I love manga, English and American films. I am also interested in Japanese, English and American culture. So I teach myself Japanese, I also love English</i> (LQ09).		
		在家用普通话和粤语，因为我是广东人，更是中国人。 <i>I use Mandarin and Cantonese at home because I am a Cantonese and a Chinese</i> (LQ298).	Identity	21
	Cognitive domain	由于我也是一个日语学习者，我也会用日语和它比较：我注意到的一个地方是语序的不同，日语句子的语序一般是主宾谓，这与中文和英语的主谓宾是不一样的。 <i>I also study Japanese, I notice that the syntax of Japanese is very different from Chinese and English. For example, the syntax of Japanese is that of subject, object and predicate. While the syntax of English and Chinese is that of subject, predicate and object</i> (LQ 116).	Awareness of differences between languages in terms of form	13
		我注意到在英语国家的学校，学生可以直接喊老师的名字，而在中国这样是很不	Awareness of differences between languages in terms of culture	10

		礼貌的,所以我在学校跟老师打招呼的时候,不知道该如何用英语称呼老师。 <i>I notice that in English speaking countries, students could call their teachers' first names, but in China this is impolite. So I don't know how to greet my teachers in English (LQ156).</i>		
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As can be seen in Table 4.7, codes were predominantly developed from the conceptual framework, while only one code (i.e. identity under the affective domain) was developed inductively. As I mentioned in section 4.4.5, I provided an example answer in the questionnaire survey in relation to the question about why participants might use different languages in different places, and the learner participants tended to follow the example. Thus, responses from the learner participants tend to repeat each other, so I give the reference number in Table 4.7. It means the number of extracts could be assigned to one code. For example, there were 57 references assigned to the code class rules.

Table 4.8 is another example of how codes were developed under the bi-/multilingual learning approaches. There are two main sub-themes under this approach: translation as an EFL pedagogy and translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy. As can be seen in Table 4.8, the two sub-themes were developed from the conceptual framework. However, all the codes were identified inductively.

Table 4. 8: Example 2 How sub themes and codes about translation as an FEL pedagogy are developed

Main Theme	Sub Themes	Example Quotes	Codes	References
Translation as an EFL pedagogy	Translation understood as scaffolding	I think translation is a good way to learn English. Because you can change English which you are not familiar with to Chinese which you are very familiar with so that I can understand the grammar rules (LQ19).	Translation is helpful in learning English grammar	148
		通过将英文转换为另一种我所熟悉的语言，可以让我更直接的了解它们之间的不同点与相同点，从而在英语学习中更好地转换思维习惯。 <i>I could better understand the difference and similarities between English and Chinese through switching English into a language which I am more familiar with. It also helps me to better transform my thinking habits in my English learning</i> (LQ165).	Switching between languages helps learning English	49
		So good. Because when you have trouble in understanding something in English, it can help you understand it and get known more to it (LQ105).	Translation is helpful in establishing meaning	123
		我同意用翻译，因为可以通过翻译多学点词汇。 <i>I agree to use translation because I can learn more vocabulary through translation</i> (LQ300).	Translation is helpful in learning vocabulary	116

	Translation understood as a problem	<p>I may not subscribe to it, because if every time before I speak English I use Chinese to help me express what I think, I won't be able to form a [an] English thinking mode for translating slows me down (LQ265).</p>	Translation hinders English thinking	29
		<p>我认为这不算一种特别好的策略，但鄙人不知有更好的方法，所以英文一直不好。因为中英文的差异不仅是形式上的不同，人们的生活习惯，文化等方面也有很大不同，直接翻译就很不标准。<i>I don't think this is a good strategy, but I don't know anything better than translation, so my English has been bad. I think there are big differences between English and Chinese including, culture, people's living habits and other aspects, so translation is not standard</i> (LQ26).</p>	Translation hinders standard English use	2
		<p>不同意。把英文翻译成中文去理解会导致语言失真失味，难以真正地表达传递原文的意思。<i>Disagree, Translating English into Chinese sometimes will cause English to lose its original meaning and taste, and it is difficult to truly express the meaning of the original text</i> (LQ249).</p>	Translation causes inaccuracy	19
		<p>不太支持。这种方法对母语依赖性太强。<i>Not a fan of using translation. This method causes us to depend on the mother tongue too much</i> (LQ08).</p>	Translation leads to dependency on Chinese	19

Interview Data

As I mentioned previously, the interview data was gathered and fully transcribed. Similarly, the interview data was coded in Chinese to avoid double interpretation except the interview with Taylor as English is Taylor's first language. In addition, as mentioned in section 4.4.4, the second phase interview mainly focuses on the third main theme -- current bi-/multilingual learning approaches, namely translation and translanguaging. Thus, this is the main deductive theme used to code the interview data, and similar to the open-ended question dataset, the sub-themes under this main theme are translation as an EFL pedagogy and translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy. The sub-theme English only is an inductive sub-theme which emerged from the data. Table 4.9 and table 4.10 below present the coding structure that I used for data analysis of learner and teacher interviews.

Table 4. 9: Learner interview code table

Main theme: bi-/multilingual learning approaches
Sub-theme: learners' perceptions of translation understood as scaffolding
<p>Codes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Translation is helpful to establish meaning • Translation is helpful in learning English grammar • Translation is helpful in understanding checking • Translation is helpful in reading
Sub-theme: learners' perceptions of translation understood as problem
<p>Codes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Translation causes inaccuracy • Translation hinders English thinking • Translation leads to dependency on Chinese • Translation hinders standard English use
Sub-theme: learners' perceptions of translanguaging understood as scaffolding
<p>Codes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Translanguaging is helpful in English writing • Translanguaging is helpful in brainstorming

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Translanguaging is helpful in group communication • Use Mandarin to ask questions
Sub-theme: learners' perceptions of translanguaging understood as problem
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mandarin accents hinder good pronunciation • translanguaging hinders English thinking • Chinese interferes with English learning – forms • Chinese interferes with English learning – culture
Sub-theme: Learners' perceptions of English only approach
Codes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English only is challenging • English only provides authentic learning environment • English only does not fit in exam-oriented context

Table 4. 10: Teacher interview code table

Sub-theme: Teachers' perceptions of translation understood as scaffolding
Codes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Translation is helpful in learning grammar • Translation is helpful in learning vocabulary • Translation is helpful to establish meaning • Translation is helpful in improving Chinese • Translation is helpful in understanding checking • Translation saves time in classes
Sub-theme: Teachers' perceptions of translation understood as problem
Codes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Translation hinders practising oral English • Translation hinders English thinking • Translation hinders standard English use
Sub-theme: teachers' perceptions of translanguaging understood as scaffolding

Codes:

- Translanguaging is helpful in English writing
- Translanguaging is helpful in explaining English grammar
- Use Mandarin to give instruction
- Translanguaging can motivate students
- Translanguaging can speed up classes

Sub-theme: teachers' perceptions of translanguaging understood as problem

- Translanguaging hinders English writing
- Translanguaging hinders students practising oral English
- Translanguaging hinders English thinking
- Chinese interferes with English teaching – forms
- Chinese interferes with English teaching – culture

Sub-theme: teachers' perceptions of English only approach

Codes:

- English only is challenging
- English only is demotivated
- English only does not fit in exam-oriented context
- English only is the best way of teaching English

4.7 Summary

This chapter has presented the research design adopted by my research. This research adopted a sequential mixed methodology including two phases. The first phase was a quantitative phase designed to measure my research questions in a numerical way. The second phase was a qualitative phase which would provide a more detailed and richer amount of data to answer my research questions. This chapter has also explained the design of research instruments, sampling, research procedures, and data collection processes for each of the two research phases. Participants and research sites for two research phases were also presented in this chapter. Moreover, reliability and ethical issues have been discussed as well. Finally, detailed data analysis processes have been demonstrated sequentially for the two research phases. In the next chapter, I will present the main findings of the data generated from this sequential mixed-method study.

5. Findings

This chapter sets out the results of two phases of my sequential research with the aim of developing answers to my research questions (see section 4.1). Firstly, the first phase questionnaire survey includes both learner and teacher datasets. The second phase semi-structured in-depth interview includes both learner and teacher datasets too. The learner and teacher datasets in the first phase questionnaire survey aim to fully answer sub-RQ1 and 2, as well as partially addressing sub-RQ3. In addition, the learner and teacher datasets in the second phase semi-structured in-depth interview provide further information to help answer sub-RQ3.

Secondly, as I explained in section 3.6, I have developed three main themes from the literature review which are bi-/multilingualism, language awareness and bi-/multilingual learning approaches to analyse the qualitative data thematically in both the first and second phase. Each main theme has different sub-themes deductively informed by the literature review (see Table 5.1 below). The themes were developed based on qualitative data from the teacher and learner surveys, as well as from the teacher and learner interviews. I will report on these themes one by one to develop and understanding of learners' and teachers' perceptions. The themes are related to my research questions, so these three main themes will address sub-RQs 1, 2 and 3 respectively.

Main Themes	Bi-/multilingualism, plurilingualism	Language Awareness	Bi-/multilingual learning approach
Sub-themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners' linguistic repertoire • Teachers' linguistic repertoire 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affective domain • Power domain • Social domain • Cognitive domain 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • L1 understood as scaffolding • L1 understood as a problem • Translation as an EFL pedagogy understood as scaffolding • Translation as an EFL pedagogy understood as a problem

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy understood as scaffolding • Translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy understood as a problem • English only approach
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Table 5. 1: Themes and sub-themes of the findings

In this chapter, I will first describe the different datasets that are included in my mixed-method sequential design in section 5.1. Sections 5.2 and 5.3 mainly include demographic findings for all participants and their linguistic repertoire results based on the first phase survey results. These two sections are in response to sub-RQ1.

In section 5.4, I will present the findings of learners' and teachers' perceptions of language awareness which are based on the quantitative Likert Scales in the first phase survey results. This section addresses sub-RQ 2 from the quantitative perspective.

The findings I present in section 5.5 are also based on the first phase survey results, this section is primarily about how learners and teachers understand and use their linguistic repertoires in different domains, as well as how their linguistic repertoires can be associated with their LA. This section addresses sub-RQ1 and 2, related to perceptions about the multilingual reality, individual linguistic repertoire and language awareness.

In section 5.6 I will present the findings in relation to learners' and teachers' perceptions of bi-/multilingual learning approaches, namely translation and translanguaging which are based on the quantitative Likert Scales in the first phase survey results. This section answers sub-RQ3 from a quantitative perspective.

Section 5.7 is based on the two open-ended questions in the first phase survey and the second phase semi-structured in-depth interview with both learners and teachers. I will start this section with learners' and teachers' portraits to provide the basic

information which is relevant to this study of each participant who participated in the semi-structured in-depth interview. I will present both learners' and teachers' perceptions and their experiences of the current bi-/multilingual learning approaches namely translation and translanguaging. This section aims to address sub-RQ 3, related to both learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of current bi-/multilingual approaches in south China. Moreover, this section presents both qualitative findings from the first phase survey (open-ended questions) as well as the findings from second phase interview. The findings from the first phase survey offers a general picture of both learners' and teachers' perceptions of and their experiences of the current bi-/multilingual learning approaches, and the findings from the second phase interview are used to deepen and illustrate the learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of current bi-/multilingual approaches in the participating school.

In addition, in terms of format, as I mentioned in section 4.6, most of the learner and teacher participants in the first phase survey answered the open-ended questions in their questionnaires in Chinese. Therefore, in section 5.7, I report the original responses in Chinese to the first phase open-ended question results with the English translation in italics. However, a small number of learner and teacher participants opted to answer the open-ended questions in English. Thus, as will be seen, some of the responses quoted in the first phase survey in this chapter are in uncorrected English. The second phase interview data will be reported in English translation only due to the word limits, and the English translation will be in italics too. The interview with Taylor was conducted in English, thus the findings related to her will be presented in her original English. Furthermore, LQ and TQ are the abbreviations of the identification numbers for each quotation from the learner and teacher questionnaires respectively in all the tables in this chapter.

Finally, it is worth highlighting again that, in English, the term 'Chinese' generally refers to the official language used in mainland China, including both spoken and written formats. In China, however, the term 'Mandarin' only refers to the spoken format of the Chinese language. Thus, in my findings chapter, I will use the term 'Chinese' to refer to both spoken and written formats of the Chinese language, whereas the term 'Mandarin' only refers to the spoken format of the Chinese language.

5.1 Four datasets

The findings of my research contain four different datasets which are a learner questionnaire dataset, a teacher questionnaire dataset, a learner interview dataset and a teacher interview dataset.

The first phase findings contain a learner questionnaire dataset and a teacher questionnaire dataset based on surveys conducted in June 2018. Both learner and teacher datasets were collected in the New Day secondary school in south China in June 2018, as described in section 4.4.5. In addition, both datasets contain quantitative data and qualitative data. Quantitative data includes demographic data, linguistic repertoire data, and all participants' perceptions of their linguistic repertoire, as well as 16 Likert Scales items on learners' and teachers' perceptions of their language awareness and the bi-/multilingual learning or teaching approach they have been using. Qualitative data comes from four open-ended questions in the questionnaire. It consists of learners' and teachers' perceptions of these three main approaches as well, but in a deeper and more specific way of revealing them. These two questionnaire datasets fully address sub-RQ1 and 2, and partially sub-RQ3.

The second phase findings include both a learner interview dataset and a teacher interview dataset based on 19 semi-structured interviews conducted from April to June in 2019. The second phase qualitative findings mainly focus on teachers' and learners' perceptions and experiences of current bi-/multilingual learning approaches, namely translation and translanguaging. These two interview datasets address sub-RQ3 and help to deepen and enrich the findings from the two questionnaire datasets.

5.2 Description of learner sample and teacher sample

The learner and teacher sample in this section are based on the first phase survey. Regarding the learner sample, 306 learner participants completed the survey. The learner sample consisted of 132 girls and 174 boys. As I mentioned in the Methodology Chapter (section 4.4.1), all 306 learner participants are year 11 students from New Day secondary school, and their ages range from 15 to 17 years old. Their English learning background ranges from 4 years (n=1) to 16 years (n=2). Most of the learner participants (n=163) have been learning English for 10 years.

In terms of the teacher sample, 15 teacher participants completed the survey, and all 15 teacher participants are English teachers at New Day secondary school. Their teaching experiences ranged from half a year (n=2) to 25 years (n=1). The mean of length their teaching experiences is 8.33 years. Regarding their gender, 7 teachers are female, and 8 teachers are male.

5.3 Learners' and teachers' linguistic repertoire

This section aims to set out the linguistic repertoire of both learner and teacher participants. These findings are based on the first phase survey, and the findings aim to address the first sub-RQ – what are learners' and teachers' perception of their individual linguistic repertoire from a numerical perspective.

When participants were asked 'do you speak any dialects, 306 learner participants (0 missing) answered. 87.9% of learner participants (n=269) indicated that they speak at least one dialect in their daily life, and 12.1% of learner participants (n=37) reported they do not speak any dialects in their daily life. Regarding teachers' responses, 80% of teachers (n=12) reported that they speak a dialect in their daily life, and 20% of teachers (n=3) indicated that they do not speak any dialects in their daily life

For the question 'what dialects do you speak' (see Figure 5.1), 306 learner participants (0 missing) responded. 48% of learner participants (n= 147) reported that they speak Cantonese. 2.3% of learner participants (n=7) responded that they speak another Guangdong dialect, and 9.8% of learner participants (n= 30) stated that they speak a

regional dialect used outside Guangdong province. Remarkably, 27.8% of learner participants say they (n=85) speak Cantonese and one or more regional dialects. It indicates that 27.8% of my learner participants speak at least two dialects plus standard language (Mandarin) in their daily life. The results for teachers were markedly different: only one teacher (6.7% of the sample) responded that he speaks Cantonese and one other regional dialect, and 20% of teachers (n=3) said they did not speak any dialects in their daily life. The majority of teachers (73.3% n=11) reported that they speak a regional dialect outside Guangdong, and no one reported speaking any Cantonese and regional dialects inside Guangdong. As I discussed in chapter 2, Guangdong is a socially and economically developed province in China (OECD, 2016), so qualified teachers tend to find teaching positions in Guangdong because of the better living standards and higher salary. My findings are consistent with this social phenomenon.

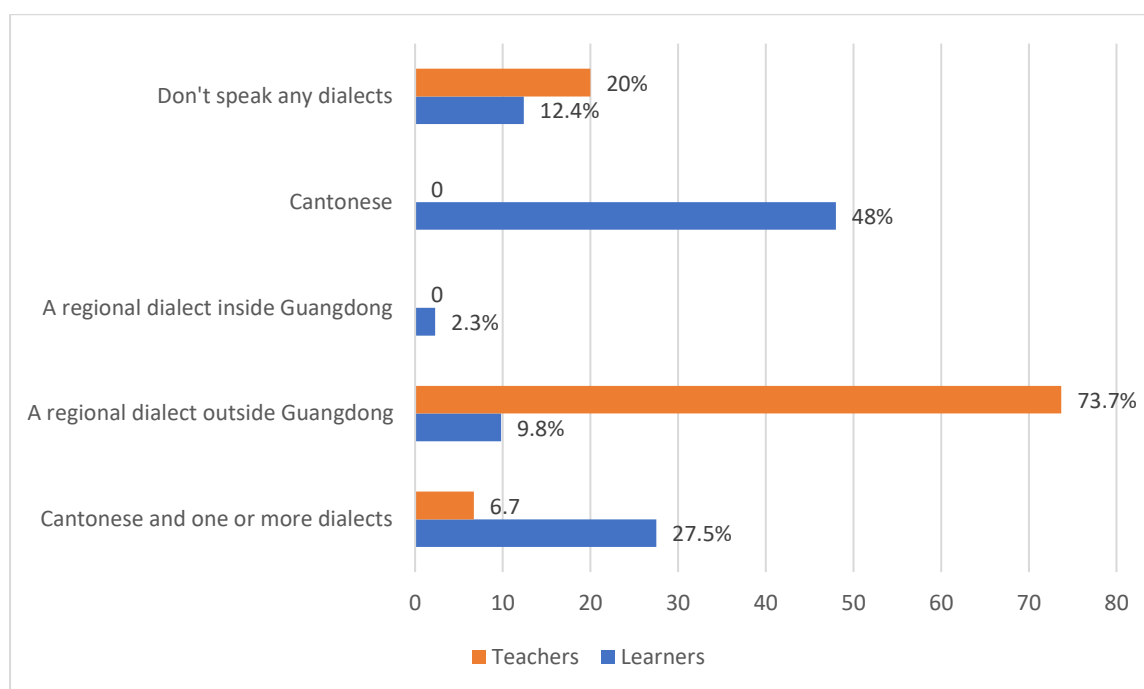


Figure 5. 1: Dialects spoken by learners and teachers

In terms of the participants' mother tongue, both learners and teachers overwhelmingly considered Mandarin as their mother tongue (see Figure 5.2). 303 learners (3 missing) and 15 teachers (0 missing) responded to this questionnaire item. 78.8% of learner participants (n=241) considered Mandarin as their mother tongue, whereas 20.3% learner participants (n=62) considered a regional dialect as their mother tongue.

Likewise, 93.3% (n=14) of teachers believed that Mandarin was their mother tongue whereas only one teacher (6.7%) believed the Hubei dialect to be her mother tongue. As I mentioned in chapter 2, Chinese government has been promoting a Mandarin Only Policy since 1956 (Hu, 2002; Li, 2006; Mills, 1956). My findings indicate that Mandarin seems to occupy an important place in the lives of the majority of my participants.

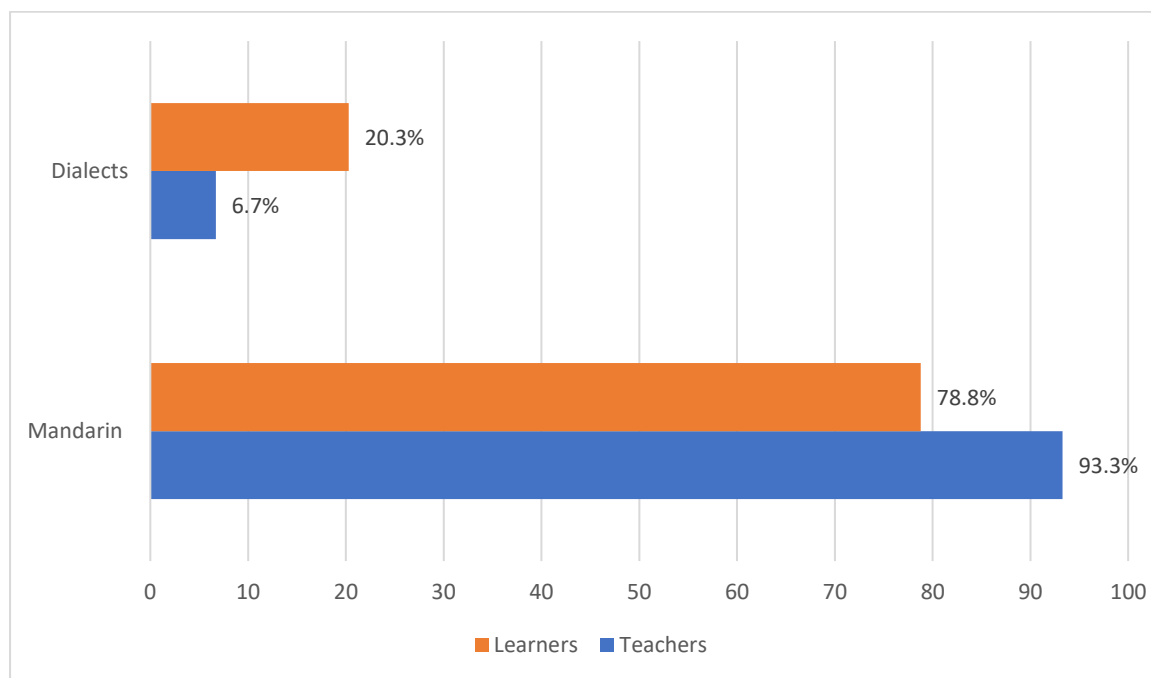


Figure 5. 2: Which language do you consider as your mother tongue

In terms of participants' linguistic repertoire in different contexts (see questionnaire item 2a in Appendices 1 and 2), 299 learner participants (7 missing) responded 'family context', 290 learner participants (16 missing) answered 'school context', 303 learner participants (3 missing) replied 'social context'. 302 learner participants (4 missing) responded both 'hobby' and 'publication contexts'. Finally, 301 learner participants (5 missing) answered entertainment context (see Table 5.2). In addition, there was no missing data from teachers' responses (see Table 5.3).

Contexts	Languages used	Dialects used	Number responded (n)	missing
Family	Mandarin, English	Cantonese Xin Hui Dialect Wen Zhou Dialect Yang Jiang Dialect Minnan	299	7

		Long Du Dialect Shi Qi Dialect Gu Zhen Dialect Hakka Hunan Dialect Shao Guan Dialect Si Chuan Dialect Zhuang Languages Hu Bei Dialect Wu Chinese Teochew Henan Dialect Jiang Xi Dialect Xiao Lan Dialect		
School	Mandarin English Japanese	Cantonese Xin Hui Dialect Xiao Lan Dialect	290	16
Social Media	Mandarin English Japanese Korean German French	Cantonese Xin Hui Dialect English Dong Bei Dialect Si Chuan Dialect Minnan	303	3
Hobby	Mandarin English Korean Japanese German French Spanish	Cantonese Xin Hui Dialect Teochew Jiang Xi Dialect	302	4
Publication (reading of printed products)	Chinese English Japanese French	Cantonese Minnan	302	4
Entertainment (use of audio-visual products)	Mandarin English Korean Japanese French Italian German Norwegian Thai Hindi	Cantonese Minnan	301	5

Table 5. 2: Languages used in different contexts (Learner)

Domains	Languages used	Dialects used	Number responded (n)	Missing
Family	Mandarin English	Gan Su dialect Hu Bei dialect Cantonese Minnan	15	0
Work/School	Mandarin English	Cantonese	15	0
Social Media	Mandarin English		15	0

	Korean			
Hobby	Mandarin		15	0
	English			
	Korean			
Publication (reading of printed products)	Mandarin		15	0
	English			
Entertainment (use of audio-visual products)	Mandarin	Cantonese	15	0
	English			
	French			
	Korean			
	Japanese			

Table 5. 3: Languages used in different domains (Teacher)

Surprisingly, as can be seen in Table 5.2, there are 41 language varieties covered among 306 learner participants. These languages include Mandarin (the official language in China), 10 foreign languages and 30 regional dialects. It shows that my learner participants could be described as a super multilingual group. In addition, most of the learner participants are enthusiastic about foreign languages, as will also be seen in the following section. Likewise, there are 10 language varieties among 15 teacher participants which include Mandarin as the official language, 4 foreign languages and 4 regional dialects. It indicates that my teacher participants are at least bilinguals who use at least two languages (Mandarin and English) in their life in different contexts, and some of them also use a third foreign language or a dialect in their life in different contexts.

5.4 Learners' and teachers' perceptions of their language awareness

This section presents findings relating to learners' and teachers' perceptions of their language awareness (LA) based on the Likert Scale items (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree) in the first phase survey. The present findings aim to address the second sub-RQ – what are teachers' and learners' perceptions of LA from a quantitative perspective?

The following two tables (Table 5.4 and 5.5) present relative frequency distribution, mean and standard deviation for each Likert Scale items from the learner and teacher dataset, respectively. As can be seen from table 5.4 below, a majority of the learners either strongly agreed (69.3%) or agreed (27.1%) that there is a language requirement in the school setting, with a mean of 4.63 and standard deviation of 0.64. It indicates that most of my learner participants are aware of the monolingual expectation that Mandarin only is encouraged in school. This was echoed by teachers' responses, with more than half of the teachers agreeing (26.7% strongly agree and 26.7% agree) that they speak Mandarin only at their work, with a mean of 3.13 and standard deviation of 1.59. However, less than half the teachers agreed (13.3% strongly agree and 13.3% agree) that they tend to encourage their students to speak Mandarin only at school, with a mean of 2.60 and standard deviation of 1.35.

Interestingly, in relation to the next statement, the students clearly agreed (37.3% strongly agree and 46.7% agree) that they hear different languages and dialects spoken at their school, with a mean of 4.10 and standard deviation of 0.93. Similarly, the teachers largely agreed (13.3% strongly agree and 73.3% agree) with this statement too, with a mean of 3.87 and standard deviation of 0.92. The survey findings show that more than half of my participants realised that there is a multilingual reality in their school.

Next, more than half of the students (52.3%) strongly agreed and 28.8% of the students agree that they are glad if they find friends who share the same dialects with them at school, with a mean of 4.25 and standard deviation of 0.96. There is a similar picture from the teachers' responses: a majority of teachers (26.7% strongly agree and 46.7% agree) agreed with this statement as well, with a mean of 3.80 and standard

deviation of 1.15. These findings suggest that a majority of my participants might be aware that languages can involve their personal experiences and feelings (James & Garrett, 1991).

Moreover, both students (61.8% strongly agree and 22.9% agree, $M=4.42$, $SD=0.88$) and teachers (53.3% strongly agree and 40% agree, $M=4.47$, $SD=0.64$) overwhelmingly agreed that awareness of differences between languages can help them to learn English better. Complementing this finding, a high number of students disagreed (47.7% strongly disagree and 37.9% disagree, $M=1.78$, $SD=0.98$) that the best approach is to shut out all languages and focus on English only. This was echoed by the teachers' responses, with all the teachers disagreed (40% strongly disagree and 60% disagree, $M=1.60$, $SD=0.51$) that an English only approach is the best way to learn English.

Finally, it is worth taking a closer look at the last three rows of table 5.4 and 5.5, which show Likert Scales in relation to the cognitive domain of LA of form and function. First, a great majority of students agreed (59.3% strongly agree and 35.3% agree) that they are aware that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of grammar ($M=4.51$, $SD=0.72$). Similarly, most of the students agreed (58.5% strongly agree and 37.6% agree) that they noticed there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of vocabulary ($M=4.53$, $SD=0.63$). In terms of the function of language, a great number of students agreed (52.6% strongly agree and 35.0% agree) that they are aware of differences between English and Chinese in terms of greetings ($M=4.35$, $SD=0.85$). In terms of the teachers' responses, most teachers agreed (60.0% strongly agree and 26.7 agree) that they would remind their students there are difference between English and Chinese in terms of grammar ($M=4.40$, $SD=0.91$). Moreover, a large number of teachers reported (46.7% strongly agree and 40.0% agree) that they would reminder their students there are differences between Chinese and English in terms of vocabulary too ($M=4.27$, $SD=0.88$). Last, majority of teachers agreed that (53.3% strongly agree and 26.7% agree) they would remind their students there are differences between Chinese and English in terms of greetings ($M=4.13$, $SD=1.19$). These findings indicate that my participants might have awareness of forms and function of English in the cognitive domain (Donmall, 1985).

Statement	Relative Frequency Distribution					Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	Missing
	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree			
I am encouraged to speak Mandarin only at my school.	69.3%	27.1%	2.0%	1.0%	0.7%	4.63	0.64	0
I hear different languages and dialects are spoken by my classmates and teachers at my school.	37.3%	46.7%	6.9%	7.8%	1.3%	4.10	0.93	0
I am glad if I find friends who share the same dialect with me at my school.	52.3%	28.8%	12.4%	4.9%	1.6%	4.25	0.96	0
I think that awareness of differences between languages can help me to learn English better.	61.8%	22.9%	9.8%	4.2%	0.7%	4.42	0.88	0.7%
I think the best approach is to shut out all languages and focus on English only.	2.3%	6.5%	5.6%	37.9%	47.4%	1.78	0.98	0.3%
I am aware that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of grammar.	59.3%	35.3%	2.6%	1.6%	1.0%	4.51	0.72	0
I am aware that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of vocabulary.	58.5%	37.6%	2.6%	1.0%	0.3%	4.53	0.63	0
I am aware that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of greetings.	52.6%	35.0%	7.8%	3.6%	1.0%	4.35	0.85	0

Table 5. 4: Learners' perceptions of language awareness

	Relative Frequency Distribution			
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Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	Missing (n)
I speak Mandarin only at work.	26.7%	26.7%	0	26.7%	20%	3.13	1.59	0
I encourage my students to speak Mandarin.	13.3%	13.3%	13.3%	40%	20%	2.60	1.35	0
I hear different languages and dialects are spoken by my colleagues and students at school.	13.3%	73.3%	6.7%	0	6.7%	3.87	0.92	0
I am glad if I find colleagues who share the same dialect with me at my school.	26.7%	46.7%	13.3%	6.7%	6.7%	3.80	1.15	0
I think that awareness of differences between languages can help my students to learn English better.	53.3%	40%	6.7%	0	0	4.47	0.64	0
I think the best approach is to shut out all languages and focus on English only.	0	0	0	60%	40%	1.60	0.51	0
I remind my students that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of grammar.	60%	26.7%	6.7%	6.7%	0	4.40	0.91	0
I remind my students that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of vocabulary.	46.7%	40%	6.7%	6.7%	0	4.27	0.88	0
I remind my students that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of greetings.	53.3%	26.7%	0	20%	0	4.13	1.19	0

Table 5. 5: Teachers' perceptions of language awareness

In this section, I have presented the findings based on the Likert Scales in relation to language awareness in the first phase survey. In the following section, I will present the qualitative data in relation to language awareness based on the qualitative data in the first phase survey.

5.5 Learners' and teachers' perceptions of their linguistic repertoire and language awareness

In the last two sections (section 5.3 and 5.4), I have presented learners' and teachers' linguistic repertoire in different contexts and their perceptions of language awareness (LA) based on the quantitative data in the first phase survey. This section aims to examine the data gathered on both learners' and teachers' perceptions of their linguistic repertoire and LA based on the qualitative data in the first phase survey. The findings I present in this section are mainly based on the analysis of questionnaire item 2b (Appendices 1 and 2): 'Could you please write a few sentences about why you use different languages in different contexts?' 237 out of the 306 learner participants responded explaining why they use different languages in different contexts, and all 15 teacher participants responded to the same questionnaire item. Besides, in the cognitive domain, the findings I present are based on the analysis of questionnaire item 4i (learner questionnaire) and 4h (teacher questionnaire): 'Do you compare English to other languages? If yes, please specify what language you compare English to' (Appendices 1 and 2). 300 out of 306 students answered this questionnaire item, and all 15 teachers responded to the same questionnaire item.

These findings aim to address the first two sub-RQs (learners' and teachers' perceptions of their individual linguistic repertoire and language awareness) from the qualitative perspective. I will present the findings of both learners' and teachers' perceptions of their individual linguistic repertoire and LA in four different domains (affective, power, social and cognitive as established in the literature review in section 3.2.3), based on the qualitative data from the first phase survey. I will present student findings in the first four sections, and teacher findings will be presented separately in the final section. It is also worth remembering that four domains of LA are the sub-themes of the main theme LA that I presented in section 4.6.2.

5.5.1 Learners' linguistic repertoire and the affective domain

In this section, based on an analysis of the first phase survey results, I will begin by presenting learners' main perceptions of their individual linguistic repertoire and LA in the affective domain in the table below (Table 5.6). LA in the affective domain refers to the fact that language learners attach their personal experiences, feelings and interests to certain languages (Wolf, 2014) as I discussed in the literature review chapter.

There are a number of reasons why these responses have been chosen as the main perceptions. First, they covered different languages in their responses. Second, they responded directly to the affective domain. Thirdly, they gave specific reasons in their responses. Fourth, they have been mentioned repeatedly in either learners' or teachers' responses. Finally, I will report the strong emotions that I perceived as a researcher from their responses. The first column of the table refers to the learners' and teachers' linguistic repertoires that I presented in section 5.3 but, in this section, I categorise them in different LA domains as I established in the literature review chapter.

Languages that play a role in relation to the affective domain	Main perceptions (typical examples from Questionnaire)	Codes	References
Mandarin English Korean Japanese German French Spanish Italian Norwegian Thai Hindi Cantonese Xin Hui Dialect Wen Zhou Dialect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 跟爸爸及父方的亲人，亲戚说广东话，妈妈及母方的亲人，亲戚说新会话。 <i>I speak Cantonese with relatives on my father's side, but speak Xin Hui Dialect with relatives on my mother's side (LQ10).</i> 我家人都讲客家话，我当然跟家人讲客家话啦。 <i>All my family speaks Hakka, of course, I speak Hakka with my family (LQ108).</i> I speak Cantonese with my family, it makes me more close to my family. 不同的人际交流，家人其他人不同。在家里用家乡话（客家话）有在家的感觉。 <i>I use different languages with different interlocutors. Families are different from other people. I use Hakka at home because Hakka makes me feel at home (LQ97).</i> 我在家用阳江话跟亲人交流，感觉普通话太一本正经了。 <i>I speak Yangjiang Dialect with my family, I feel Mandarin is too official at home (LQ72).</i> 我小时候跟外公外婆一长大，我跟他们说安徽话.长大回到父母身边说广东话和普通话，我感觉安徽话是我和外公外婆的童年回忆。 <i>I lived with my maternal grandparents when I was little, I spoke Anhui dialect with them. I went back to my parents and spoke Cantonese and Mandarin with them when I grew older. I feel Anhui dialect is my childhood memory with my maternal grandparents. (LQ36)</i> 我家是从湖南搬到广东的，所以我从小都在家跟父母说湖南话，怎么说呢，感觉是家庭语言吧。 <i>I moved to Guangdong with my parents from Hu Nan when I was little, so I always speak Hu Nan Dialect with my parents at home. How can I put it, I feel Hu Nan Dialect is a family language (LQ259).</i> 	Family Bonding	161

Yang Jiang Dialect			
Minnan			
Long Du Dialect			
Shi Qi Dialect			
Gu Zhen Dialect			
Hakka			
Hunan Dialect			
Shao Guan Dialect			
Si Chuan Dialect			
Zhuang Languages			
Hu Bei Dialect			
Wu Chinese			
Teochew			
Henan Dialect			
Jiang Xi Dialect			
Xiao Lan Dialect			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I like listening English songs (LQ99). • 我喜欢日本漫画和英剧美剧，也喜欢探索日本和英美文化，所以我也自学日语，我也喜欢英语。<i>I love manga, English and American movie. I am also interested in Japanese, English and American culture. So I teach myself Japanese, I also love English.</i> (LQ09) • 喜欢英语和中文电影，也很喜欢韩剧，与韩国和中国的综艺，也超爱听韩语，英语，中文和粤语歌。所以顺便也学了几句韩语。<i>I like watching English and Chinese Movie and also like watching Korean soap opera and Chinese variety show. I love listening to Korean, English, Mandarin and Cantonese songs. So I learnt some Korean (LQ35).</i> • 我喜欢探求其他国家的语言文化兴趣浓厚，任何语言的电影电视剧我都喜欢。<i>I like exploring different languages and culture, I like films and TV series in any languages</i> (LQ169). • 我看中文和英文书籍，我会看中文，韩文，英文，日文，粤语综艺，还看英剧，美剧，韩剧，日漫，泰国广告，印度电影，法国电影。<i>I read books in Chinese and English. I watch variety shows in Chinese, Korean, English, Japanese, and Cantonese. I also watch films, TV series in English, Korean, Japanese, Thai, Hindi and French (LQ204).</i> • I interested in Japanese culture. I read some magazines in Japanese and saw many dramas and movies from Japan. Finally, I picked up Japanese (LQ302). • I love watching movies and a series of TV show which the characters speak in Cantonese and English. And I love listening to songs sung in Mandarin English and I love the ones that sung in Cantonese. Sometimes, I will watch some Korean TV shows (LQ258). • Since I am interested in Japanese cartoon, I also get to know about Japanese (LQ175). 	Interests	140

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 在家用普通话和粤语，因为我是广东人，更是中国人。<i>I use Mandarin and Cantonese at home because I am a Cantonese and a Chinese. (LQ298)</i> • 我是广东人，我要振兴粤语。<i>I am Cantonese, so I want to revitalise Cantonese (LQ293).</i> • 我是客家人，在家里和家人都说客家话,客家文化和广东文化很不同的，我想保留。<i>I am Hakka, I speak Hakka with my family at home. Hakka culture is very different from Cantonese Culture. I want to reserve it (LQ59).</i> • 我是土生土长的广东人，所以讲广东话。<i>I am a Cantonese by birth, so I speak Cantonese (LQ243).</i> • 在家说石岐话，从小便习惯了，或许这也是对自身文化的传承，一门语言也象征着一个文化。<i>I speak Shi Qi Dialect at home, I got used to it, perhaps this is also the inheritance of my own culture. A language also symbolises a culture (LQ170).</i> • I found that many children in Guangdong can only speak Mandarin and not Cantonese. I am worried. I don't want Cantonese to disappear. I hope that Cantonese can be passed down (LQ48). 	Identity	21
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Table 5. 6: The main perceptions of learner participants use different languages in the affective domain

It can be seen from Table 5.6 that learner participants had a variety of perceptions of their own individual linguistic repertoire in the affective domain. First of all, some learner participants would use different dialects with different family members (e.g. relatives on the mother's or the father's side). Furthermore, 19 different dialects were covered in the affective domain. According to learner participants' responses, dialects were widely and frequently used at home and in other non-school settings, but less frequently used in school. Dialects were described as 'family language' and 'memory with maternal grandparents' by some of the learner participants. Dialects were also perceived as less formal languages compared to Mandarin by the learner participants. Some of the responses mentioned that 'Cantonese makes me feel at home'. 'Mandarin is too official to speak at home'.

There were also several foreign languages included in Table 5.6. As I mentioned in section 5.3, most of the learner participants show strong enthusiasm for exploring foreign languages in their spare time. 83% of students (n= 251) mentioned an activity that involves at least one foreign language (including English) which they enjoy in their spare time. These 251 learner participants have indicated an open attitude towards foreign languages especially in the entertainment domain. Moreover, 214 out of 251 students had contact with multiple foreign languages which suggested strong interests in exploring foreign languages. 17 students commented that it is possible now to watch films and TV series in different languages because of the development of technology and globalisation. They like watching films and TV series in different languages with subtitles. The following quote comes from a learner participant who has a relatively wide variety of linguistic repertoire.

'...speak Mandarin and Cantonese with friends, watch basketball game in English. Like listening English and Cantonese songs. I study French and German outside of school time. I like movie in English and in Norwegian. I have collection of magazines in different languages. I also collection short videos in French and German...'(LQ81)

There is one more noticeable finding, namely that a large number of learner participants had a passion for Japanese and Japanese culture. My finding demonstrates that the younger generation tends to be open-minded towards Japanese and Japanese culture.

'I have a hobby, which is speaking Japanese. I join Japanese society in my school. And I speak Japanese in society. Most of my books and pieces of music I love is Japanese' (LQ25).

This quotation is not an isolation case. Actually, 102 out of 301 learner participants had Japanese as a foreign language included in their individual linguistic repertoire. As to why many learner participants showed great interests in Japanese and Japanese culture, they commented that they loved a lot of things about Japan, so they spent plenty of time on it and finally they picked up some Japanese. In addition, 36 students mentioned that they join in Japanese Society in school and spoke Japanese with each other in the Japanese Society.

A strong sense of identity was also identified in my findings. First, some minority groups such as Hakka speakers had a stronger sense of community than the majority groups (i.e. Cantonese speakers and Mandarin speakers). Hakka is a branch of the ethnic Han, but the Hakka have their own language and culture. According to the sixth national census in China, the majority of Hakka (about 60%) who lives in Guangdong (National Bureau of Statistics, 2013). 28 out of 306 learner participants reported that Hakka is part of their individual linguistic repertoire, while 18 out of 28 expressed their desire to keep Hakka as part of their identity. Moreover, learner participants from outside of Guangdong also indicated that they want to have their own inherited dialects by insisting on speaking them at home. In terms of the majority group, there were strong voices as well. '我是广东人，我要振兴粤语。 *I am Cantonese, so I want to revitalise Cantonese*' (LQ150). Moreover, I talked to a few parents informally when I was visiting the participating school. However, the parents have a mixed opinion towards dialects and Mandarin. Some of the parents told me they hope their children could learn Mandarin well because they believed Mandarin to be the sign of being well educated. On the other hand, other parents complained that their children were losing their home dialects because the school teaches in Mandarin only.

5.5.2 Learners' linguistic repertoire and the power domain

Following the affective domain findings, presented above, in this section, I will present learners' perceptions of their individual linguistic repertoire and LA in the power domain which also based on the analysis of the first phase survey results. LA in the power domain means the awareness of social language attitudes, hierarchies and status, as well as any political language policy made by the authorities (James & Garrett, 1991) as I discussed in the literature review chapter.

I will again present all key findings from the raw data in a table (Table 5.7). I will then report how I interpreted those findings as a researcher.

Languages that play a role in relation to the power domain	Main perceptions (typical examples from questionnaire)	Codes	References
Mandarin English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 因为普通话是中国官方语言 <i>because Mandarin is the official language in China.</i> • 学校要求讲普通话, 而且普通话在全国通用 <i>It is school policy and Mandarin is used nationwide (LQ148).</i> • 在学校或正规场合用普通话, 因为这是标准用语 <i>We should use Mandarin in school or any formal occasion, because Mandarin is the standard language (LQ69).</i> 	Official language	187
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 我爸爸妈妈要我在家说普通话, 有的时候英文, 因为他们都是老师所以怕方言会影响我学习普通话和英文, 我小时候本来会说家乡方言的, 但是现在已经完全忘记了。 <i>My parents ask me to speak Mandarin, and English sometimes at home. They are both teachers, so they believe dialect would have a negative influence on my learning Mandarin and English. I used to speak the dialect of my hometown when I was young, but I have completely forgotten it by now (LQ09).</i> • 我只会讲普通话=) (其实是会听方言不会讲。。。因为我爸妈怕我被方言带坏说话有口音, 所以不让我说方言)。 <i>I only speak Mandarin =) (In fact, I can understand dialect</i> 	Family rule	18

	<p><i>but I can't speak it, because my parents don't allow me to speak my dialect as they worry that the dialect would influence my accent in a negative way.)(LQ14)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> I was born in a teacher's family, my parents have encouraged me to speak Mandarin since I could speak. But my mother, an English professor, also teaches me to speak English at home (LQ45). 		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 学校都推广普通话,普通话是校园语言。<i>School promotes Mandarin, Mandarin is the school language (LQ187).</i> We must speak Mandarin in school (LQ70). 学校校规要讲普通话<i>It is a school rule to speak Mandarin (LQ201).</i> 	School policy	51
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 在学校上课用普通话和英文<i>I use Mandarin and English for my class (LQ25).</i> 上课就用普通话,英语课用英语和普通话,因为老师要求。下课和朋友用广东话聊天,但是如果老师或校长听到会不高兴。<i>I use Mandarin in my class, English and Mandarin for English classes (LQ38).</i> 	Class rule	57

Table 5. 7: The main perceptions of learner participants use different languages in the power domain

As can be seen from the table above (Table 5.7), language varieties dramatically dropped to 2 different languages in the power domain. In addition, all dialects fade out from the power domain. It indicates that Mandarin and English have dominant status in school settings according to my learner participants. Over half of the learner participants (n=187) responded directly in their questionnaire survey that Mandarin is the official language of the country and Mandarin and English are instruction languages in their class, with English being exclusively for English classes. It does not mean there are not any other dialects in the school context, but in terms of the power domain, 35% of learner participants (n=108) indicated that Mandarin and English have to be used in their school and class, and they also agreed that they should use Mandarin for formal occasions such as school. 16% of learner participants (n=48) still use Cantonese and other dialects in school outside of class for social purposes, I will elaborate on this point further in the social domain section.

It is worth mentioning that there is a code called 'family rule' that I identified in the survey data. About 5% of learner participants (n=18) mentioned in their questionnaire

that their parents encourage them to speak Mandarin at home (see Table 5.7). In addition, 2 learner participants stated that they are encouraged to speak Mandarin and English at home as both of their parents are teachers. One of the students also pointed out that the reason is that her parents worried that the dialect would have a negative influence on learning Mandarin and English, and the students therefore lost her dialect (see Table 5.7). It can be seen that the parents expect their children to speak Mandarin well. This finding resonates with my own experience of when I was in school, as I was also discouraged from using dialect at home by my family members.

This finding also suggests that there is an accepted discourse among many of the parents that Mandarin is better than dialects. As I mentioned in the affective domain, some parents believe that Mandarin is a sign of being well educated. In addition, parents also tend to believe that young people cannot be proficient users of Mandarin if they also speak a dialect; this is adhering to a monolingual understanding. However, the younger generation seems to be less concerned about this issue, and they might be aware that they can use both languages flexibly depending on their social situation. I will elaborate this point further in the social domain section. Moreover, my findings indicate that Mandarin has a higher social and educational status in both learners and parents' perceptions.

5.5.3 Learners' linguistic repertoire and the social domain

As I discussed in the literature chapter, the social domain refers to awareness of linguistic variety and linguistic tolerance, as well as using languages flexibly to achieve social cohesion (James & Garrett, 1991). Based on the analysis of the first phase survey results, flexible language use and awareness of languages used in society (James & Garrett, 1991) are the codes identified deductively based on literature. The rest of the codes under the social domain emerged inductively from the data, and involve using non-standard dialects to make friends, flexible language use depending on social purposes and flexible language use for communication. Once again, I will present all the main findings based on the analysis of learners' survey data in a table (Table 5.8).

Languages that play a role in relation to the social domain	Main perceptions (typical examples from questionnaire)	Codes	References
Mandarin English Japanese Korean Deutsch French Cantonese Hu Nan Dialect Xin Hui Dialect Dong Bei Dialect Si Chuan Dialect Minnan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 在外与陌生人沟通多用普通话，因为也许他不讲广东话，与朋友聊天多用广东话，偶尔会穿插其他语言，如普通话，英语，日语，韩语等。 <i>I mostly use Mandarin if I need to talk to a stranger as probably he/she doesn't speak Cantonese. I speak Cantonese with my friends, occasionally some other languages too such as Mandarin, English, Japanese, Korean etc (LQ19).</i> And I speak Mandarin at school because my schoolmates are from different parts of China and they have their own dialect (LQ80). 不是每个人都能听懂广东话呀，除了和家人我都讲普通话了现在。 <i>Not everybody understands Cantonese, I use Cantonese except talking to my family (LQ06).</i> 	Flexible language use	13
Xiao Lan Dialect Yang Jiang Dialect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 我不是广东人，但是我下课会跟同学讲广东话（我想融入他们？）当然是被嘲笑不标准啦 <i>I am not a Cantonese, but I speak Cantonese with my classmates (I want to fit in?) They of course laugh at me because my Cantonese is not standard (LQ03).</i> 我是外省人，但是我想学广东话，因为可以交到更多朋友。 <i>I am a migrant, but I want to learn Cantonese to make more friends (LQ63).</i> 下课我会跟朋友讲广东话或者新会话，我最好的朋友也是新会人。 <i>I speak</i> 	Using non-standard dialects to make friends	16

	<p>Cantonese or Xin Hui Dialect with my friends outside of class, my best friend comes from Xin Hui too (LQ73).</p>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 跟朋友讲广东话，我在社交网络上用普通话，英文和广东话交流，现在在广东，会听到全国各地方言 <i>I speak Cantonese to my friends, I use Chinese, English and Cantonese when I use social media. Now in Guangdong province, I can hear dialects from all over the country (LQ40).</i> 我有很多同学说别的方言，而且现在中国外国人也很多，有人说韩语和日语，还有人说法语。<i>Lots of my friends speak a different dialect, and there are lots of foreigners in China too, some of them speak Korean or Japanese, and some of them speak French (LQ230).</i> 现在生活中就有很多不同的方言和语言，很平常。电视节目都有英语，韩语，日语，好多。游戏也有很多不同语言的呀。<i>There are many different dialects and languages in our life now. There are English, Korean and Japanese TV shows, so many. Games are in different languages too. (LQ145).</i> 	<p>Awareness of languages used in society</p>	<p>29</p>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 在社交网络都是用普通话交流，到外面若是广东，香港等地用广东话，国内的话用普通话，出国则英文。<i>I use Mandarin for social media. I use Cantonese if I travel inside Guangdong province or to Hong Kong, but use Mandarin if I travel to other places in Mainland China. I use English if I go abroad (LQ154).</i> 在学校与朋友聊天用普通话，偶尔用广东话。在微信上，我用中文与朋友聊天，偶尔夹杂方言。旅行时用中文，去外国用英文或简单的当地的语言。<i>I speak</i> 	<p>Flexible language use depending on social purposes</p>	<p>33</p>

	<p>Mandarin to my friends at school, I occasionally speak Cantonese at school too. I use Chinese to chat with my friends via WeChat, sometimes mixing with other dialects. If I travel abroad, I would use English or learn some simple local language (LQ214).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 在学校与同学沟通用普通话，有时用英文沟通来锻炼口语。在微博与微信上用普通话，英文，广东话进行沟通与社交。有空出门时与朋友讲普通话与广东话，外出旅游时用英文来沟通。 I use Mandarin at school, sometimes I talk to my friends in English to practise my spoken English. I use Mandarin, English, and Cantonese on social media for social purposes. I use Mandarin and Cantonese when I go shopping with my friends. I use English when I go abroad. (LQ209) 		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • And I speak Mandarin at school because my schoolmates are from different parts of China and they have their own dialect. In order to make our communication easy, Mandarin is chosen to be the one we use in our school life (LQ79). • I communicate with other people in Mandarin or Cantonese usually at home and at school. Because I am good at these two languages (LQ02). • I use Chinese most of time, sometimes English for communication when I play games, study and search information (LQ305). • 语言就是为了用来沟通嘛，像我是广东人，我生活中当然以讲广东话为主咯。我爷爷奶奶讲小榄话，我跟他们就讲小榄话。但是有些人不懂广东话，我也可以讲普通话呀，碰到老外也是可以勉强说两句 	Flexible language use for communication	48

	<p>英文啦。 <i>Language is for communication.</i></p> <p><i>For example, I am Cantonese, so of course I mainly speak Cantonese. My grandparents speak Xiao Lan Dialect, so we communicate in Xiao Lan Dialect.</i></p> <p><i>But some people don't understand Cantonese, I can also speak Mandarin.</i></p> <p><i>If I met foreigners, I can also try to speak English to them (LQ269).</i></p>		
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Table 5. 8: The main perceptions of learner participants use different languages in the social domain

It can be seen from Table 5.8 that 14 language varieties play a role in the social domain. 9% of learner participants (n=29) stated that the main reason they use different languages in their life is because they are aware that Cantonese is not the only language that exists in Guangdong province. This indicates that they were aware that there are a number of linguistic varieties in Guangdong province. Not only dialects but also foreign languages such as French, Japanese and Korean were mentioned in their responses. As I mentioned in section 5.3, the learner participants can be described as a super multilingual group. The findings in the social domain further demonstrates that they are also aware that they are living in a multilingual context and that many use their languages and language varieties flexibly to make friends, and to communicate depending on the social context and purpose.

13 learner participants responded that most of the time in their life they chose to use Mandarin especially in a school context. The reason, according to the student survey, is that they realised that not everyone speaks Cantonese. James and Garrett (1991) suggest that the awareness of linguistic varieties, which a small proportion of students in my sample demonstrate, is a step towards linguistic tolerance. As I discussed in the context chapter, more and more migrants are moving to Guangdong because it is a well-developed province.

In addition, as Table 5.8 shows, 16 learner participants expressed their desire to learn Cantonese to make friends.

讲粤语就很酷啊，我今年的新年目标是学粤语然后交几个本地的朋友。‘*It’s so cool to speak Cantonese, to learn Cantonese and make local friends is my new year’s goal*’ (LQ192).

The younger generation may have a different interpretation in terms of dialects or languages especially for those who come from a migrant family. Some show they are eager to learn the local dialect (Cantonese in this case) in order to fit in. As I mentioned in the sections on the affective and the power domains, most parents I informally talked to tend to discourage their children from using/learning dialects because they believe Mandarin has higher status. Whereas, because making friends is equally important in youngsters' lives, they believe that learning the local dialect could help them fit in with the local society. This finding also indicates that the awareness of linguistic variety is a two-way phenomenon among my learner participants. 9% of learner participants indicated in their responses that they realised that migrants bring different dialects and languages into Guangdong province. On the other hand, 5% of learner participants suggested in the survey that Cantonese is the local dialect and that it can be a medium to make friends. The learner participants show their openness and willingness towards dialects and languages.

Moreover, 11% of learner participants (n=33) reported that they choose to use different languages or dialects in different contexts. 16% of learner participants (n=48) demonstrated in the survey that they are able to use languages flexibly for communication. It is apparent from Table 5.8 that those learner participants can switch spontaneously from one language to another in different contexts. Different dialects are mainly used in mainland China and Hong Kong, and English is mostly used as a travelling language. A learner participant stated in her survey that ‘我发现我可以用简单的英文交流在国外旅游的时候，我觉得很开心也很自豪’。‘*I feel happy and proud when I realised that I could use English for some simple communication when I travelled abroad*’ (LQ.213). The ability of switching dialects and languages seems to boost learners' confidence.

5.5.4 Learners' linguistic repertoire and the cognitive domain

As I discussed in the literature review chapter, the cognitive domain tends to focus on the 'awareness of pattern, contrast, system, units, categories, rules of language in use and the ability to reflect upon them' (Donmall, 1985, p. 7). In this section, based on the analysis of the first phase survey results, I will present learners' perceptions of their individual linguistic repertoire and LA in the cognitive domain. When the students were asked: 'Do you compare English to other languages when learning English? If yes, please specify what languages do you compare English to and give examples'. 68.3% of the learner participants (n=209) responded that they would do so, whereas 29.7% (n=91) stated that they would not do so, and 2% of them (n=6) did not respond. 36 out of 209 students offered qualitative comments by providing examples of comparing English to at least one other language in their survey responses. A majority (n=264, 6 missing) did not provide examples. It might be because there was not enough time for them to provide examples during the process of finishing their questionnaires. Or it might be because the rest of the group are less able to analyse languages. I will present the main findings provided by these 36 students based on the analysis of the learners' survey data in Table 5.9.

Languages that play a role in relation to the cognitive domain	Main perceptions (typical examples from questionnaire)	Codes	References
Chinese Cantonese French English Korean Japanese	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 由于我也是一个日语学习者，我也会用日语和它比较：我注意到的一个地方是语序的不同，日语句子的语序一般是主宾谓，这与中文和英语的主谓宾是不一样的。<i>I also study Japanese, I notice that the syntax of Japanese is very different from Chinese and English. For example, the syntax of Japanese is that of subject, object and predicate. While the syntax of English and Chinese is that of subject, predicate and object (LQ116).</i> 英文里面的 he/she/it 有发音的区别，但是中文他/她/它没有发音区别。广东话也没有区别。<i>In English, he/she/it are different in pronunciation, but in Chinese, he/she/it have no difference in pronunciation. Neither does Cantonese (LQ08).</i> 	Awareness of differences between languages in terms of form	13
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 我注意到在英语国家的学校，学生可以直接喊老师的名字，而在中国这样是很不礼貌的。<i>I notice that in English</i> 	Awareness of differences between	23

	<p><i>speaking countries, students could call their teacher's first name, but in China this is impolite (LQ156).</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 在中文里，当称呼长辈的时候要用您，我觉得是因为儒家文化。韩语里面也有很严格的敬语称呼的要求，应国也是因为儒家文化。<i>In Chinese, we use a different 'you' when the interlocutor is older than you. I reckon this is because of Confucian culture. Also, strict courtesy is important in Korean as well, I reckon also because of Confucian culture (LQ203).</i> 	languages in terms of culture	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 我有写日记的习惯，中文或者英文，为了提高写作能力。<i>I have the habit of writing diary, in Chinese or English to improve my writing ability (LQ48).</i> 我会读中文和英文书籍，因为可以提高中文和英文水平。<i>I read in both Chinese and English to improve them both (LQ279).</i> 	Consciously developing writing or reading skills	43

Table 5. 9: The main perceptions of learner participants use of different languages in the cognitive domain

As can be seen in Table 5.9, there were 6 language varieties covered in the cognitive domain: Chinese, Cantonese, French, English, Korean and Japanese. The only dialect mentioned in the cognitive domain was Cantonese. These 36 students are mainly aware of differences among languages in terms of forms and culture. 13 students reported that they are aware that there are differences among different languages in grammar and pronunciation. These 13 students demonstrated that they consciously have knowledge about language crossing different languages, as stated in previous literature (Edge, 1988; García, 2008).

In addition, 23 students stated that they notice cultural differences between languages too. A small proportion of students in my student sample demonstrated that they have knowledge of language (García, 2008) in different languages. This finding shows that this small proportion of students in my sample have consciously noticed that different languages have different social and pragmatic norms (García, 2008). Furthermore, this finding also indicates that they have been aware that culture can be embedded in language. A notable cultural feature in East Asian countries is that of respect for elders. This cultural tradition has been shared among Chinese, Korean and Japanese people for many generations (Sung, 2000). The tradition is based on the Confucian teaching that children should respect their elders by recognising and returning the care they received from them (Yu, 1966). This finding reveals that awareness of the cultural aspect can be seen as a part of LA as well. Carter (1994, p. 5) also argues that a broad

way of defining LA need to involve the awareness of 'the embedding of language within culture. Learning a language is learning about the cultural properties of the language.'

Finally, it is interesting to see that 43 students reported in their responses that they consciously use a learning strategy involving more than one language to improve their writing or reading ability in both Chinese and English. This finding shows that these 43 bilingual students consciously decided to use two languages in their daily life to improve their language abilities in an independent student-led way. This finding provides additional evidence that bi-/multilinguals tend to engage in conscious practice (Dmitrenko, 2017; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1996) to improve their language skills.

Moreover, it is worth mentioning that two learner participants (no. 29 and no.53) showed their understanding of the relationship between form and function in their examples comparing languages. Learner participant no. 29 opted to write her responses in English, and the quotation below is the uncorrected version:

'I have pen pal. In one letter, she told me her daughter broken her wrist and had an operation. Then, I replied when her daughter's operation. She told me, her daughter had it at the weekend. I found I was wrong, she said 'had' in her letter, it happened already. I found how to use past tense in English. Because not past tense in Chinese, so when my English teacher taught me how to use past tense, she said use past tense to show something happened in past, I can't understand. But in her letter, I found the had's real meaning, and I know how to use past tense' (LQ29).

Similarly, learner participant no. 53 shared how she learnt plural nouns in English in authentic language use.

‘我有时候会用 Facebook。偶尔，Facebook 会告诉你，你的附近有一些活动。它会说 We found concerts and events happening near you. 然后当你点开看的时候，你会看到一系列的活动。我渐渐注意到活动和演唱会都是名词的复数形式，所以它是说有不只一个活动。但是中文里面我们的名词没有复数形式，所以我总是记不住要在复数名词后面加 s。但是当我注意到 s 在 Facebook 提醒里面的意思

以后，我就觉得更容易去记住要在复数名词后面加 s 了。我觉得好神奇，一个 s 可以在英语里面让意思有这么大的不同。’

‘I sometimes use Facebook. Occasionally, Facebook reminds you something is happening near you. It says We found concerts and events happening near you. And once you click on this notification, you see a series of events there. I gradually realised that concerts and events are all in the plural, so it means there are more than one concert and event. But in Chinese, we don’t have plural forms of nouns. So it is difficult for me to remember to add an ‘s’ to nouns to mean plurality. After I found out what this ‘s’ means in Facebook notifications, it is much easier for me to remember to add an ‘s’ to plural nouns. It is amazing, a simple ‘s’ can make different meanings in English’ (LQ53).

Example 2 and 3 reveal that those two learner participants have acquired explicit knowledge of English (past tense and plural noun forms) via being aware of differences between English and Chinese in terms of grammar. Ellis (2004, p. 244) argues that explicit knowledge includes ‘the phonological, lexical, grammatical, pragmatic and socio-critical features of an L2’. It is also worth pointing out that both of these learner participants have acquired explicit knowledge of English in a real communication context. Krashen (1981) argues that learning and acquisition are completely separate processes. He claims that acquisition only takes place when the learner focuses on ‘conveying meaning’. The examples above show that explicit knowledge of English made sense to these two learner participants after they used it in meaning making.

Finally, it is interesting to note that learner participant no. 60 compared the different counting systems between Chinese, English and French.

‘中文：我们用十进制 二十，三十，二十万，三十万，然后我们写的时候是 20,000 英文：超过千以后都是三位数往前进 比如 twenty thousand, two hundred, thousand 英文是写 200,000。法语：要一直算 比如 $17 = 10 + 7$, dix-sept $18 = 10 + 8$, dix-huit $19 = 10 + 9$, dix-neuf 学了不同语言我才发现，不同国家的人数数的方式不一样’。

Chinese: we use the decimal system, twenty in Chinese is two tens, and thirty is three tens. Two hundred thousand is twenty ten thousand in Chinese, and three hundred thousand is thirty ten thousand, in writing is like 20,0000. English: anything beyond one thousand is three-digit numbers, for example twenty thousand, two hundred thousand, in writing is like 200,000. French: we need to use some simple maths, for example: 17 = 10 + 7, dix-sept 18 = 10 + 8, dix-huit 19 = 10 + 9, dix-neuf. I discovered that people count in different ways in different languages, after I learnt different languages. (LQ60).

All the examples I presented in this section demonstrate that a small proportion of my student sample has metalinguistic awareness (Jessner, 1999) in the cognitive domain. Moreover, these students only talk about comparisons outside the classroom which indicates they have learner autonomy (Benson, 1997). They show the potential of unsupervised learning. However, 36 learner participants is only a small proportion from my student sample, and they cannot represent the rest of learner participants. The rest of the students might need to be taught such learning strategies. According to my own learning and teaching experience, there is only limited time for English teachers in their class due to a compressed curriculum. Comparing English with other languages might not be the priority in English classes.

5.5.5 Teachers' linguistic repertoire and LA in the four domains

Following the student findings presented above, in this section, I will present the teacher findings in relation to linguistic repertoire and LA in the four domains. All findings presented in this section are based on an analysis of the 15 teachers from the first phase survey results. I will first present the main perceptions in relation to the four domains in Table 5.10.

Domains	Languages that play a role in relation to the domains	Main perceptions (typical examples from questionnaire)	Codes	References
	Mandarin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 在家和父母交流广东话比较亲切。I speak Cantonese with my parents at home because Cantonese makes me feel closer to them (TQ12). 因为我家人都说湖北方言，所以我在家跟他们说家乡话。My family all 	Family bonding	5

Affective	Cantonese	speaks Hu Bei Dialect , so I speak our dialect with them at home (TQ02).		
	Minan			
	Gan Su Dialect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 我对日漫充满兴趣, 所以自学了一些日语。 I like Japanese manga a lot, so I taught myself some Japanese (TQ09). I am a big fan of KPOP. I love the songs of Girls' Generation, MAMAMOO and f(x). Actually I learnt Korean myself, whose vocabulary (especially pronunciation) are really to begin with, but I haven't learnt anything about grammar yet. Thus, I sometimes listen to songs in Korean, watch movies and varieties in Korean (TQ13). 	Interests	3
	Hu Bei Dialect			
	Korean			
Japanese				
Power	Mandarin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 在国内大家都用普通话, 因为是官方语言。 In China, everybody speaks Mandarin, because this is the official language (TQ01). 	Official language	2
	English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I am a school teacher, so I have to use Mandarin and English during the work (TQ04). 因为学校要求要用普通话和英文。 The school requires us to use Mandarin and English (TQ09). 	School policy	13
Social		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The use of different languages at different occasions for communication (TQ02). I use different languages in my life because I would be able to communicate with people easily (TQ05). 	Flexible language use for communication	7
	Mandarin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Well, I am a teacher in English-teaching institution, so I have to use English during the work occasionally. I have been abroad studying and travelling, then I have to use English (lingua franca I suppose) to ask directions or something like ordering meals. I use Cantonese to speak with my family and close friends who also speak Cantonese. I speak Mandarin to my colleagues at school and my students (TQ13). 看社交场合, 和父母当然是广东话方便些, 工作中就需要普通话和英文教学。 It depends on social contexts, of course I speak Cantonese with my parents at home as this is most convenient, but I use Mandarin and English for my teaching at school (TQ07). 	Flexible language use depending on social purposes	3
	English			
Cantonese				
	Chinese	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 会跟中文作比较, 首先是中文里有一些英文来的外来词, 其次会提醒学生中文和英文的语法不一样, 在 		

Cognitive	English	中文里面是正确的但是英文就不是，不同语言有不同的语法体系。I would compare English with Chinese . First, there are a lot of loanwords in Chinese which have come from English. Second, I would remind my students that Chinese and English grammar are different, so it is correct in Chinese but is not always correct in English . Different languages have different grammar systems (TQ15).	Awareness of differences between languages in terms of form	2
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Table 5. 10: The main perceptions of Teacher participants' use of different languages in the four domains

The first thing to note from Table 5.10, is that the highest number of language varieties occurs in relation to the affective domain. 5 out of 15 teachers indicated that dialects are the family language to speak with parents. 3 out of 15 teachers reported that they like Japanese manga or Korean pop stars so that they picked up the language by themselves. These findings echo the student findings: dialects are mainly identified as family languages, Japanese and Korean are popular in Chinese society. Second, similar to the student findings, only Mandarin and English were identified in the power domain and all dialects faded out from this domain. Teachers (n=13) overwhelmingly agreed that they have to use Mandarin and English at school according to school policy. 2 out of 15 mentioned that Mandarin is the official language in China, so they choose to use Mandarin most of the time in their life. This finding shows that most of the teachers are very clear about language policy at school. Moreover, it also indicates that Mandarin and English have a dominant status in school settings.

Next, three language varieties were identified in the social domain: again, the teacher findings are consistent with the student findings. Nearly half of the teachers (n=7) stated that they use different languages for communication, and three teachers reported that they tend to switch to different languages to serve different social occasions. These findings demonstrate that my teacher participants are also aware that they are living in a multilingual context and that many use their language varieties flexibly to accommodate different social contexts and purposes.

In terms of the cognitive domain, only 2 teachers reported that they would normally compare English to Chinese. Only one of them mentioned that he would remind his students in his teaching that grammar in English and Chinese are different. As I mentioned in section 5.5.4, a small number of learner participants reported that they

would compare English with other languages outside the classrooms. The teacher findings supplement the student findings since most of my teacher participants do not compare English with other languages in their classes. However, my findings could not explain the reason behind this.

5.6 Learners' and teachers' perceptions of bi-/multilingual learning approaches

After presenting learners' and teachers' perceptions of linguistic repertoire and LA in the four domains, I will move onto learners' and teachers' perceptions and their experiences of current bi-/multilingual learning approaches, namely translation and translanguaging. The findings aim to fill the gap addressed in the literature review chapter by examining learners' perceptions and their experiences of current bi-/multilingual learning approaches (BLA) in a Chinese senior secondary school context in south China.

This section presents findings of learners' and teachers' perceptions of the current BLA based on the Likert Scale items (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree) in the first phase survey. The present findings address part of the third sub-RQ – what are teachers' and learners' perceptions of current bi-/multilingual learning approaches namely translation and translanguaging? The remaining part of the third sub-RQ will be addressed by the qualitative data from both first and second phase of my research which I will present subsequent sections.

The following two tables (Table 5.11 and 5.12) present relative frequency distribution, mean and standard deviation for each Likert Scale items from the learner and teacher questionnaire, respectively.

As can be seen from Table 5.11 and 5.12, the students overwhelmingly agreed (34.3% strongly agree and 51.6% agree) that they use translation in their learning, with an average rating of 4.10 on a 5-Likert scale and a standard deviation of 0.88. Likewise, the teachers overwhelmingly agreed (33.3% strongly agree and 60.0% agree) that they use translation in their teaching too, with a mean of 4.20 and standard deviation of 0.77. The findings suggest that translation is extensively used in English learning or teaching by both students and teachers in the participating school.

In terms of language use, the majority of students agreed (36.3% strongly agree and 47.7% agree) that they use Chinese in their English learning, with an average of 4.10 on the scale and a standard deviation 0.91. This was echoed by teachers' responses, with the majority of teachers agreeing (20% strongly agree and 60% agree) that they use Mandarin in their teaching, with a mean of 3.80 and a standard deviation of 1.08. The findings indicate that Chinese and Mandarin as my participants' L1 are widely used in their English learning and teaching. However, in relation to dialects, it was noticeable that a majority of students (45.4% disagree and 29.4% strongly disagree) claimed that they do not use their dialects in English learning, with an average of 2.19 on 5-Likert scale and a standard deviation of 1.16. Similarly, teachers overwhelmingly disagreed (60.0% disagree and 33.0% strongly disagree) that they use their dialects in the English teaching, with a mean of 1.73 and a standard deviation of 0.59. These findings show that the dialects are not acknowledged in formal teaching and learning contexts by my participants. The findings also resonate with what I presented in section 5.5.2, namely that dialects fade out in school settings.

Regarding translanguaging, the findings in the tables below suggest that both students and teachers tend to have mixed perceptions of this practice. First, nearly all the students agreed (59.2% strongly agree and 36.6% agree) that they take notes in mixed English and Chinese in English classes, with a mean of 4.53 and a standard deviation of 0.65. Equally, over half of the students agreed (31.0% strongly agree and 35.0% agree) that they tend to translate English into Chinese when they read for the purpose of understanding, with a mean of 3.68 and a standard deviation of 1.24. These findings suggest that translanguaging is a natural practice for bilingual language learners (Fang & Liu, 2020). Moreover, these findings also indicate that language learners could access their full linguistic repertoire (García & Li, 2014) while using translanguaging as a learning strategy. Similarly, over half of the teachers agreed (26.7 strongly agree and 33.3% agree) that they encourage their students to do their preparations in Chinese and English, with a mean of 3.60 and a standard deviation of 1.18. This finding shows that most of the teacher participants recognised that translanguaging is a helpful learning strategy for bilingual language learners.

However, both the students and teachers showed negative perceptions of using translanguaging in speaking and writing. Most of the students disagreed (47.1%

disagree and 17.3 strongly disagree) that they mix Mandarin and English when they practise saying things in English, with a mean of 2.43 and a standard deviation of 1.14. Likewise, most of the teachers disagreed (46.7% disagree and 20% strongly disagree) that they encourage their students to mix Mandarin and English when they practise saying things in English, with a mean of 2.47 and a standard deviation of 1.25. Furthermore, a relatively high proportion of students disagreed (38.9% disagree and 20.9% strongly disagree) that they use Chinese to write an outline first before writing an essay in English, with a mean of 2.61 and a standard deviation of 1.30. A similar picture emerges from the teachers' response, with over half of the teachers disagreeing (60.0% disagree and 6.7% strongly disagree) that they would encourage their students to use Chinese to write an outline first before writing an essay in English, with a mean of 2.64 and a standard deviation of 1.28. These findings show that translanguaging seems to be less acceptable in terms of speaking and writing among my participants. I will further discuss the reasons for this in later sections based on the interview data.

Finally, the students have different perceptions of whether their English teachers allow them to use translanguaging to interact with their English teachers in English classes. 42.6% of the students agreed (14.1% strongly agree and 27.5% agree) with this statement, but 35.9% of students disagreed (25.8% disagree and 10.1% strongly disagree) with a mean of 3.09 and a standard deviation of 1.22. The findings might mean that the students have different rules in terms of translanguaging from their English teachers. The findings from the teachers' response resonate with the student findings. 53.4% of the teachers agreed (6.7% strongly agree and 46.7% agree) that they allow their students to use translanguaging to interact with them in their English classes. However, 40.0% of the teachers responded negatively (33.3% disagree and 6.7% strongly disagree) to this statement, with a mean of 3.13 and a standard deviation of 1.19. The findings from the students and teachers suggest that using translanguaging in classroom interaction might still be controversial among my participants. I will return to this question about using translanguaging in English classes in the following sections based on the interview data.

Statement In my English learning	Relative Frequency Distribution					Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	Missing (n)
	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree			
I use translation.	34.3%	51.6%	4.9%	8.5%	0.7%	4.10	0.88	0
I use Chinese.	36.3%	47.7%	5.6%	9.8%	0.3%	4.10	0.91	1
I use my dialect(s).	7.2%	8.8%	8.8%	45.4%	29.4%	2.19	1.16	1
I use a mixture of English and Chinese to take notes in an English class.	59.2%	36.6%	1.0%	2.6%	0	4.53	0.65	2
In my head I translate English into Chinese when I read to help me understand.	31.0%	35.0%	10.5%	17.3%	5.9%	3.68	1.24	1
I mix Mandarin and English when I practice saying things in English.	5.6%	15.0%	14.1%	47.1%	17.3%	2.43	1.14	3
I use Chinese to write an outline first before I write an essay in English.	10.5%	20.6%	9.2%	38.9%	20.9%	2.61	1.30	0
My English teacher allows me to mix Mandarin and English to interact with him/her in English class.	14.1%	27.5%	22.5%	25.8%	10.1%	3.09	1.22	0

Table 5. 11: Learners' perceptions of a multilingual learning approach

Statement In my English teaching	Relative Frequency Distribution					Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	Missing (n)
	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree			
I use translation.	33.3%	60%	0	6.7%	0	4.20	0.77	0
I use Mandarin.	20%	60%	6.7%	6.7%	6.7%	3.80	1.08	0
I use my dialect(s).	0	0	6.7%	60%	33%	1.73	0.59	0
I encourage my students to do their preparations in Chinese and English.	26.7%	33.3%	13.3%	26.7%	0	3.60	1.18	0
I encourage my students to use Chinese to write an outline before they write an essay in English.	13.3%	13.3%	0	60%	6.7%	2.64	1.28	1
I encourage my students to mix Mandarin and English when they practice saying things in English.	6.7%	20%	6.7%	46.7%	20%	2.47	1.25	0
I accept my students to mix Mandarin and English when they interact with me in my English class.	6.7%	46.7%	6.7%	33.3%	6.7%	3.13	1.19	0

Table 5. 12: Teachers' perceptions of a multilingual learning approach

In this section, I have presented both learners and teachers' perceptions of BLA based on the quantitative data from the first phase survey results. In the following section, I will present the qualitative data in relation to learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of BLA based on the qualitative data from the first phase survey, as well as the qualitative data from the second phase interview.

5.7 Learners' and Teachers' Perceptions and Experiences of Bi-/multilingual Learning Approaches

The findings present in this section are based on both the qualitative data in the first phase survey and the interview data in the second phase. The qualitative data in the first phase survey is based on the analysis of the open-ended questions 4j, 4k and 4l in the learner questionnaire and 4i, 4j and 4k in the teacher questionnaire (see Appendices 1 and 2). The interview data in the second phase is based on the analysis of the semi-structured in-depth interviews with both teachers and learners. These findings address the third sub-RQs (learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of current bi-/multilingual learning approaches) from the qualitative perspective.

As I mentioned in section 4.6.2, bi-/multilingual learning approaches are one of the main themes of my study. Sub-themes related to this theme have been organised into two strands: translation as an EFL pedagogy and translanguaging. Both of these sub-themes are from the conceptual framework. Thus, this section will be divided into two main sub-sections, namely learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of translation as an EFL pedagogy and translanguaging. Before presenting any findings, I will give a brief introduction to each learner and teacher participants from the second phase interview in order to provide a context for understanding the findings generated from their interviews.

5.7.1 Learner portraits

I will briefly introduce each learner participant in terms of their hometown, linguistic repertoire and their English learning experiences. As I mentioned in section 4.4.2, I invited all learner participants to choose a pseudonym starting with the letter L. It is worth pointing out that there are elite classes and regular classes in the participating school. All students will be assigned to either elite classes or regular classes according to their school entrance examination results. All top students will go to elite classes, and the rest of the students will go to regular classes.

Lesley

Lesley was born and raised locally in Guangdong Province. Based on her response, Lesley likes reading in English. Her favourite writer is Jane Austen. She also likes watching TV programmes and films in English, Korean and Thai. She speaks Cantonese with her family and friends but considers Mandarin as her mother tongue as Mandarin is the first language she learnt to speak. Also, she reports that she can only express herself precisely in Mandarin. Lesley participated a summer camp in London when she was 15 years old. She felt that she made great progress in her spoken English, and she started to have an awareness of cultural differences between English and Chinese. Lesley shared with me in her interview that despite being in one of the elite classes, she still has no confidence in learning English. In her interview, she shared her struggles with her Chinglish. She is working very hard to avoid using translation in her English learning, but she also admits that she cannot learn English without translation, according to her translation is a very important method in her English learning process.

Laura

Laura is a local Cantonese. Laura started her English learning from kindergarten. Based on her response, she speaks Lei Zhou Dialect and Cantonese with her friends and Mandarin with her family. She thinks Mandarin is her mother tongue. The reason is that her parents taught her to speak Mandarin only at home although they are Cantonese. She learnt Cantonese and Lei Zhou Dialect (a dialect from the south west of Guangdong) from her friends after she went to primary school. She likes Pop songs in English, Mandarin and Cantonese. She shared in her interview that she 'does not

watch many TV programmes and films in her spare time'. She and her best friend have a personal language policy which is that they only speak English to each other at school to practise their oral English. Laura is in an elite class too, she thinks English only is a good idea in English classes. In her interview, she said that she seized every opportunity she could to practise her spoken English as China is not a good environment for English learners.

LP

LP is from a migrant family. Her parents came to Guangdong Province from Anhui Province in the 1980s, but she was born in Guangdong Province. In her interview, she said she does not speak any dialects, she speaks Mandarin only in her daily life. Her parents insist on speaking Mandarin to her because they worry that dialect would cause an accent in her Mandarin. Based on her interview, LP likes watching Korean soap opera and Japanese manga. She is studying Korean as her third language because she is a big fan of a Korean group – MAMAMOO. LP shared with me that she had some unpleasant experience of learning English, she failed to be chosen for the elite class because she did not do well in her English examination, so much so that she lost her confidence in learning English. She expressed her struggles with memorising vocabulary and understanding grammar. She thinks grammar is the major challenge in her English learning.

Leo

Leo is a local Cantonese. He shared in his interview that he speaks Cantonese with his parents and speaks Teochew (a dialect from the east of Guangdong) with his parental grandparents. He mainly speaks Mandarin at school. He considers Mandarin as his mother tongue, since Mandarin is most frequently used in his life, and he expresses himself most confidently in Mandarin. He feels it is easy for him to pick up some English vocabulary via playing English video games, but it is difficult for him to memorise English vocabulary in his English textbook which his English teacher asks him to memorise. Leo believes L1 and translation is important for him to learn English. He does not think English only in English classes is a good idea.

Li

Li was born and raised in Guangdong Province. Based on his interview, Li is passionate about language. He thinks Cantonese is his mother tongue at home, whereas Mandarin is his mother tongue at school. He is studying French as his third language, apart from studying English as his second language at school. He mentioned in his interview that he likes English and French literature. He also likes TV crime series in English; he is proud that he knows a lot of English vocabulary in law and forensic science. However, the vocabulary he learnt from TV crime series is hardly useful in his English examinations. Li reckons himself a good language learner, and he states he is good at using Mandarin and French to help himself to learn English. However, he still cannot do well in his English examinations which certainly frustrates him.

Liang

Liang was born and raised in Guangdong Province. He said he grew up in a Cantonese environment, so he considers Cantonese as his mother tongue. He is a top student from an elite class. He mostly speaks Mandarin at school but occasionally also speaks Cantonese. He reads a lot of English newspapers to improve his reading ability. He also watches many TV series in English to improve his listening skills. He travelled to Seattle when he was 16 years old. He realised that he could communicate with people in very simple English. At the same time, he also realised that he 'speaks like a book'; English native-speakers do not speak like that. He claims he uses a lot of L1 and translation in his English learning. However, he reckons this probably would be one of the reasons why he 'speaks like a book'.

Lin

Lin was born in Hong Kong, she moved to Guangdong Province with her parents when she was 6 years old. She went to a bilingual kindergarten in Hong Kong where she was taught in Cantonese and English. Lin's father is a professor in English literature, so she speaks Cantonese and English with her parents at home. Lin considers Mandarin as her mother tongue because in her understanding 'mother tongue' means the official language of the country where she lives. In Lin's spare time, her father arranges plenty of activities for her to practise her English such as joining an English

club and an English reading group. In her interview, she expressed her reluctance to go to those activities, and she does not watch any TV shows or films in English.

Larry

Larry is from a migrant family and was born in Gui Gang in Guangxi Province. Her family moved to Guangdong Province when she was 12. In Larry's understanding, her mother tongue is Gui Gang Dialect (a dialect from southwest China in Guangxi Province) because she grew up there and she speaks Gui Gang Dialect at home with her family. Larry has a keen interest in foreign language films. She likes films in English, Japanese, Korean and German. She also likes novels in English. She has insisted on reading at least one English novel per year for the past 3 years. Larry had unpleasant experiences of using English only in her English classes. She expressed in her interview that she could not be able to react quickly enough when she was in English only classes. Thus, she felt panicky and helpless. She suggests that English teacher should give extra time for students to understand in their first language.

Luyu

Luyu was born in Sichuan Province, and moved to Guangdong Province when he was 10 years old. He shared in his interview that he was able to speak Sichuan Dialect when he lived in Sichuan. He gradually lost it after his family settled in Guangdong. His parents only speak Mandarin to him at home now. He thinks Mandarin is definitely his mother tongue because this is the only language he could speak fluently. He said he picks up a bit of Cantonese from his classmates but cannot speak it properly. He mentioned in his interview that he subscribes to the English version of the *China Daily* newspaper as he believes this is a good thing to read to improve his English in reading. Based on his response, he watches films and TV series in English, Japanese, French and Spanish. In his opinion, English and Chinese are equally important in his English learning because languages do not exist separately.

5.7.2 Teacher portraits

In this section, I will briefly introduce each teacher participant in terms of their linguistic repertoire, teaching experiences as well as their English learning experiences. As mentioned in section 4.4.2, I invited all teacher participants to choose a pseudonym starting with the letter T.

Taylor

Taylor works in the participating school. Taylor is the only English native-speaker among all the interview participants. She is from the United States, and she has been teaching English in a Chinese high school for 5 years. English is her mother tongue, and she is now learning Chinese. 'Mother tongue' to her means the first language she speaks. Also, it is the language she is fluent in and the one she grew up speaking all the time. In her interview, she shared that she likes watching Chinese soaps with English subtitles. She also mentioned that her understandings about language use in English class changed after she taught English in China. She was a teacher who used to speak English only, but she does not think that English only is the way to go anymore. She feels sometimes the English only policy leaves her students in the dark.

Tina

Tina is an experienced English teacher. She has 15 years English teaching experience and 3 years' study abroad experience. Based on her response, she speaks Henan Dialect (a dialect from north China in Henan Province), but she considers Mandarin as her mother tongue because she believes Mandarin is sign of being well-educated and Mandarin is the official language. Tina believes an English only policy in English classes is a good idea because it is important for learners to have an English-speaking environment. As a result, she also 'tries not to use translation too much' in her English teaching. However, she also admits that an English only policy might be too challenging for most Chinese teachers of English.

Terri

Terri is a novice English teacher with just 1.5 years teaching experience. She also works in the participating school. She speaks Mandarin and Wu Wei Dialect (a dialect from northwest China in Gansu Province) in her daily life. She considers Wu Wei

Dialect as her mother tongue because Wu Wei Dialect is the language she speaks with her family and the one she grew up speaking all the time. She thinks Mandarin is her working language which she mainly speaks at work. As a migrant from outside Guangdong province, she said she does not speak Cantonese and has no intention of learning it either. She believes an English only policy is not a good idea. She thinks languages are not separate, so 'Chinese can be a tool to help' in her class. In addition, she thinks Chinese to English translation is a good way of learning English vocabulary, but not so good for learning English grammar.

Theseus

Theseus is a relatively new English teacher too: he has three years teaching experience. He teaches in a private English school. He speaks Mandarin and Ning Bo Dialect (a dialect from southeast China in Jiangsu Province), he considers Mandarin as his mother tongue as he only uses Ning Bo Dialect with his family. Based on his response, Theseus loves watching films in English. Theseus is also passionate about philosophy, so he watches a lot of films and documentaries in German too. Firstly, Theseus thinks that using one's mother tongue in English classes is a basic right. He told me in his interview that he had an English native-speaker teacher in his university, and this teacher had very a strict English only policy in class. He said it was a very unpleasant experience, and for a long time he felt very guilty about speaking Mandarin in English classes. Thus, he does not want his students to have a similar experience. Secondly, he thinks Chinese is a more effective language to use for an exam-oriented learning context. Interestingly, Theseus believes English is a more direct language compared to Chinese. So, he thinks Chinese is not helpful when he tries to explain English vocabulary to his students.

Tinsley

Tinsley has 4 years of study abroad experience and she became a full-time English teacher in 2017. She works in the private sector. Her main job is to train students who want to study abroad to pass IELTS tests. She shared in her interview that she also teaches spoken English apart from her normal teaching responsibilities because of her studying abroad experience. She is a local Cantonese, but she thinks Mandarin is her mother tongue. Her family speaks Mandarin to each other although they are a local Cantonese family. She believes L1 is very useful for motivating her students and

providing a relaxed atmosphere in her class. On the other hand, she thinks L1 can sometimes restrict the students' English thinking especially in her spoken class. She mentioned in her interview that incomplete English sentences are acceptable in her oral class as long as the students try their best to produce a sentence.

Todd

Todd has one year's experience of study abroad, and he is now teaching English in the private sector. He has 3 years' experience of teaching English. He does not speak any dialects, thus Mandarin is his mother tongue. Based on his interview, one of Todd's hobby is imitating different English accents. He said it is a good way to draw his students' attention by doing so. He said he uses over 90% or even over 95% of Mandarin in his English class. According to his teaching experience, L1 is extremely helpful in writing because when his students try to reason and construct arguments in their L1 they are able to generate better ideas. However, in his opinion, ideally, we should use English only in English teaching. He believes using English only would not be problematic for students as English teachers could use simple languages to elaborate abstract concepts. He reckons it would be a big challenge for English teachers because of large class sizes and an exam-oriented teaching context.

Tom

Tom worked in the same private school as Todd, and he also has one year's experience of studying abroad. He has 2.5 years' teaching experience. He considers Mandarin as his mother tongue as he doesn't speak any dialects. He is only able to understand his local dialect of Shan Xi (a dialect from northwest China in Shan Xi Province), but he is not able to speak it. Based on his response, Tom is passionate about foreign languages. He likes watching Japanese manga and he learnt plenty of Japanese vocabulary from it. He would also like to share his foreign language learning experience with his students. He supports the idea of English only in English classes. However, he told me that he has had complaints from his students several times because they could not understand his English only classes. He reflected in his interview that Mandarin is still needed in English classes but should not be overused. He stated that ground rules should be set up in terms of language usage in English teaching and learning.

Toya

Based on her interview, Toya is an enthusiastic language learner. She is now learning Spanish, Korean and Japanese. From an English learner's perspective, she believes her English helps a lot when she is learning Korean, Japanese and Spanish. Toya is a relatively new English teacher too, as she only has 13 months teaching experience. She has had one year of study-abroad experience. She does not speak any dialects because her parents have different dialects as their mother tongue. Thus, they all speak Mandarin at home. Toya mentioned in her interview that one thing she has learnt from her one-year study abroad is that language is for communication, accents are not a problem but indicate special identities of different people. Based on her interview, she has a neutral point of view on the use of different languages in English classes. She considers languages to be connected with each other, and that it would be better not separate them in the language learning and teaching process.

Treena

Treena teaches in the participating school. She has 3 years' teaching experience and has one year of study-abroad experience. She is a local Cantonese, and she thinks Cantonese is her mother tongue. In her interview she told me that she likes reading in English and watching Korean and Japanese soap operas. She expresses concern that there is only limited English input for her students in an EFL context like China. Thus, she tries her best to use English only in her teaching. However, she acknowledges that she still needs to use some Mandarin to explain things. She mentioned in her interview that she once audited an English only English class. She thinks it was a disaster because none of the students could follow the teacher. She started to reflect after that session. She thinks that for the students in a public school, it is important for them to have enough English input to improve their English in speaking and listening. However, she also believes that Mandarin could still be used when necessary, especially when students are not capable of understanding everything in English.

Tracy

Tracy is the head teacher at the participating school. At the same time, she is also an English teacher. She has 21 years of English teaching experience. She thinks both her dialect (Hu Bei Dialect, a dialect from central China) and Mandarin are her mother

tongue. Dialect is mainly used with family and Mandarin is her working language. As a head teacher, she claimed that there is not a Mandarin-only policy in her school. She believes that the students choose to use Mandarin in school because 'there are too many migrants who are from outside Guangdong province', so Mandarin is the best option for communication. As an English teacher, she stated that there is also no language requirement for English classes. The only thing the school cares about is high scores in exams. In terms of the idea of English only for English classes, she shared frankly with me that English only is challenging for her. She is not confident enough in her spoken English. In addition, as a head teacher of a top high school in Guangdong, one of her responsibilities is to guarantee that at least a certain percentage of students progress to universities. With this in mind, she does not think English only is an option for the school.

5.7.3 Learners' and Teachers' Perceptions and Experiences of Translation used as an EFL pedagogy

This section presents both learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of translation used as an EFL pedagogy in their learning and teaching based on the qualitative data in both the first phase survey and the second phase interview. The findings I present in this section are partly based on the analysis of the open-ended question 4j and 4i (Appendices 1 and 2) in the learner and teacher questionnaire respectively (what is your opinion on translation as a learning/teaching strategy for English learning? Why do you think so?). In addition, the findings that I present in this section are also based on the analysis of the second phase interview with both learners and teachers in relation to translation used as an EFL pedagogy.

In this section, I will present both learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of translation as an EFL pedagogy in terms of translation understood as scaffolding and as a problem as I established in the conceptual framework. I will first present the main findings of learners' and teachers' perceptions of translation as an EFL pedagogy based on the qualitative data in the first phase survey. I will then present the interview findings of the learner and teacher participants in the second phase which show their understandings, their learning/teaching experiences, and their own reflections upon using translation as an EFL pedagogy.

5.7.3.1 Translation as an EFL pedagogy understood as scaffolding

Based on the analysis of the first phase survey results, 296 out of the 306 students gave their opinion about using translation as an EFL pedagogy in their English learning, and all 15 teacher participants responded to the same questionnaire item. A majority of the students (65.4%, n=200) agreed that translation is a useful learning tool. The finding was echoed by the teachers, most of whom (86.7%, n=13) agreed that translation is a useful teaching tool. Next, I will present learners' and teachers' main perceptions of translation understood as scaffolding based on an analysis of the open-ended question results in Table 5.13 and 5.14.

Codes	Examples	References
Translation is helpful in learning English grammar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I think translation is a good way to learn English grammar. Because you can change English which you are not familiar with to Chinese which you are very familiar with so that I can understand the grammar rules (LQ19). • 我认为翻译是一种很好的学习策略。初学英语时，没有掌握太多的词汇所以对老师讲解的语法不理解，需英语翻译帮助理解且理解语法结构；进一步学英语。<i>I think translations is a good learning method. When I first started to learn English, I didn't know too much vocabulary, so I didn't understand the grammar rules that the teacher taught me, so I needed translation to help me to understand the grammar rules, and learn English better</i> (LQ94). • 原因：翻译能够让我运用英语语法，从而更好的理解英语语法。<i>Translation would enable me to put English grammar into practice so that I could understand English grammar better</i> (LQ206). 	148
Switching between languages helps learning English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 通过将英文转换为另一种我所熟悉的语言，可以让我更直接的了解到它们之间的不同点与相同点，从而在英语学习中更好地转换思维习惯。<i>I could better understand the difference and similarities between English and Chinese through switching English into a language which I am more familiar with. It also helps me to change my thinking habits in my English learning in positive ways</i> (LQ165). • 翻译可强化语言之间相互的转化与联系，能好地理解英语的逻辑与中文的区别。<i>Translation can reinforce the switching and connection between languages so that we can better understand the logic difference between English and Chinese</i> (LQ06). 	49
Translation is helpful in learning vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 我同意用翻译，因为可以通过翻译多学点词汇。<i>I agree with using translation because I can learn more vocabulary through translation</i> (LQ300). • 翻译可以帮助我学习词汇更快，扩充我的词汇量。<i>[Translation can help me to learn vocabulary quicker, expand my vocabulary.]</i> • 翻译可以帮我更好学习词汇，因为单词在不同的语境中可能有不同的意思。<i>Translation can help us learn vocabulary better, because a word can mean different things in different contexts</i> (LQ59). 	116

Translation is helpful to establish meaning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • So good. Because when you have trouble in understanding something in English, it can help you understand it and get known more to it (LQ105). • Because you can't force a person to completely understand the meaning of a new language which he never heard it before. He/she should use translation to feel the language (LQ13). • I think it's an easy way to understand the meaning and usage (LQ204). • Understand English further. Sometimes, translation makes the English words more interesting and clearly (LQ44). 	123
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Table 5. 13: Learners main perceptions of translation understood as scaffolding

Codes	Examples	References
Translation is helpful in learning English grammar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 翻译可以有效的帮助学生学语法 <i>Translation could help students to learn grammar effectively</i> (TQ09). • 有利于学生学习语法和正确使用。 <i>Translation is good for students learning grammar and using it correctly</i> (TQ04). 	9
Translation is helpful in learning vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 翻译帮助学生积累词汇。 <i>Translation can help students to accumulate vocabulary</i> (TQ13). • It helps students better understand the usage of vocabulary (TQ08). 	9
Switching between languages helps learning English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 翻译是两种语言在头脑中进行转换，所以可以有效的帮助学生辨识英文和中文之间的相同和不同，从而更好的学习英文。 <i>Translation is switching two languages in your mind, so it can effectively help students to know the similarities and differences between English and Chinese. This can help students to learn English better</i> (TQ11). 	4
Translation is helpful to establish meaning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When you a beginner, translation can help you to understand quickly (TQ05). • It helps students better understand my classes (TQ13). • 理解长难句子，或者读一篇文章时，翻译能让我们快速理解。 <i>It helps students to understand long and complicated English sentences. Or, when reading an article, translation can help us to understand quickly</i> (TQ10). 	13

Table 5. 14: Teachers' main perceptions of translation understood as scaffolding

As can be seen from Table 5.13, according to the first phase survey results, a significant number of students mentioned in their answers that they think translation is helpful in learning English grammar (148 out of 296) and in learning vocabulary (116 out of 296). Similarly, as can be seen from Table 5.14, a majority of the teachers agreed that translation is helpful in terms of learning grammar (9 out of 15) and vocabulary (9 out of 15). Firstly, these findings echo many of the arguments that I put forward in the Literature Review section 3.4.5, such as Stern (1992), Laviosa (2014), and (Cook, 2010). Similarly, my findings indicate that translation is a useful tool for

many of my participants for learning the forms of the language. Its value lies in assisting students to understand abstract grammatical structures and expand their vocabulary. Moreover, these findings could be viewed as evidence of using GTM as focusing on the form of the language is one of the features of GTM (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Secondly, many students (123 out of 296) and nearly all teachers (13 out of 15) mentioned in their responses that translation is helpful in establishing meaning. These findings suggest that translation provides a useful scaffolding for many of my participants for ensuring comprehension during English teaching and learning.

Finally, it was noticeable that a small number of students (49 out of 296) and teachers (4 out of 15) mentioned that translation involves switching between two languages which enable them to understand similarities and differences between English and Chinese better. This finding is consistent with Widdowson (2003) and Duff (1989) that translation is a useful tool for learners to explore between two languages which can help learners to develop language awareness in terms of contrastive stylistics (Snell-Hornby, 1985). It is also in line with what Cook (2010) argued in his book that translation could bring a unique insight for students to understand how the new language works and how it resembles or differs from their own language.

In terms of interview findings, based on the analysis of the second phase interview, it was apparent that learners and teachers held various perceptions of translation as scaffolding in their learning or teaching. 4 students and 6 teachers agreed in their interviews that translation is helpful for establishing meaning. LP and Luyu considered translation as a vital instrument for them to make sense of the meaning in English:

I use translation a lot in my English learning mostly for understanding. If I can translate a sentence, I can understand it too. If I can't translate then I can only guess (LP, 2019, translated).

Translation is understanding. From my own experience, I know that I initially misunderstood many English sentences, especially in reading, but when I translated them into Chinese, I could understand better (Luyu, 2019, translated).

These findings reveal that translation is a frequently used learning method for meaning making for my student participants. Theseus and Todd added from the teachers' perspective that translation is an effective teaching method to use for establishing meaning:

I would see my students' reaction. For example, in my class, if I said a sentence in English, but my students were not responding, it might mean they didn't quite understand. Then I would probably translate some collocations in this sentence that I just said, only for their understanding (Theseus, 2019, translated).

Translation is an effective tool for me to use in my teaching. For most of my students, their English is not good enough to understand English. So I need to use translation to help them to understand (Todd, 2019, translated).

The findings from these two teachers highlight that translation is perceived as an efficient teaching method for my teacher participants to impart their knowledge explicitly. Furthermore, using translation as a learning strategy for establish meaning is largely agreed by both learner and teacher participants in the first phase survey too.

3 students and 5 teachers also mentioned in their interviews that the merits of translation include understanding checking. Lesley and Larry stated that translation is an inevitable learning method that they use to ensure their understanding:

For example, my teacher would usually give us her translation so that I can check whether my translation or understanding is correct (Lesley, 2019, translated).

Translation is a very important learning method for me. I always use it in my learning. In most circumstances, I use it to make sure I understood everything correctly (Larry, 2019, translated).

Tinsley, Toya and Treena also emphasised in their interviews that ensuring their students' understanding through using translation is essential in their classes. Moreover, Toya's quote might suggest that she used GTM to test her students' understanding:

Making sure my students understand my teaching is very important, and I have some students in my class whose English is limited. So, checking their understanding is crucial for both them and me. I would use translation in this case (Tinsley, 2019, translated).

I ask my students to translate English sentences into Chinese to make sure they understand the sentences (Toya, 2019, translated).

I just want to see if they can understand the complicated sentence structure or a key phrase in the text (Treena, 2019, translated).

Furthermore, 2 students also mentioned in their interviews that they sometimes use translation when reading an English article primarily for checking understanding. These findings show that transmitting meaning clearly and making sure of comprehension is key in many of my participants' English learning and teaching. As I addressed in section 2.2.4, accuracy and correctness is important in the exam-oriented context in China, so establishing meaning explicitly and guaranteeing understanding is crucial in English learning and teaching. Translation, according to many of my participants, is an effective method to achieve these two goals.

In addition, as I presented in Table 5.13 and 5.14, the students and the teachers who participated in the first phase survey largely agreed that translation is helpful in learning grammar, 5 students and 3 teachers also agreed in their interviews that translation is particularly helpful in learning grammar. According to the student's interviews, grammar plays a considerable role in their English learning. Lin pointed out in her interview that translation helped her to practise the grammar she had learnt:

We must learn grammar well because it is a very important part of English learning. Translation forces me to practise the grammar I have learnt. I memorised the grammar, but it doesn't mean I understand it and know how to use it. But translation makes me think and understand, and know how to use, and practise to use it in a context. I think translation is helpful in my English learning (Lin, 2019, translated).

As can be seen from Lin's quotation, translation is valuable in assisting her in developing an understanding of grammatical knowledge in a particular context. Larry added that translation helps her to understand abstract grammar better:

Translation helps me to understand some difficult grammar better such as attributive clauses and adverbial clauses etc. My English teacher teaches us how to break these complicated sentences into small pieces during translation (Larry, 2019, translated).

Larry's example shows that translation is a successful learning strategy that she has learnt from her English teacher to assist her English grammar learning on her own. It indicates that translation as a learning strategy is deemed beneficial for developing learner autonomy. Treena and Tracy echoed in their interviews that translation is a useful pedagogical tool in teaching grammar, and Treena's quote could be viewed as an example of using GTM to teach grammar:

I read the sentence in English first and then translate it into Chinese for my students, and then explain the grammar point for them (Treena, 2019, translated).

I would ask my students to translate sentences in the textbook from English to Chinese, and I would then teach all the grammar points in the sentences. (Tracy, 2019, translated).

These findings further reveal that translation is a valued method for English learning and teaching in the exam-oriented Chinese context where grammar plays a substantial role in English lessons and assessment. Treena also emphasised the fact that using translation as a pedagogical tool to teach grammar is very effective in terms of achieving high scores in exams:

I learnt this from one of my colleagues who translates every single sentence in the textbook to teach grammar to his students. And guess what? I mean his students are all at the top of the rankings every term. (Treena, 2019, translated).

Tracy also claimed in her interview that using translation as a pedagogical tool 'is the most effective way to teach grammar according to my 21 years teaching experience' (Tracy, 2019, translated).

Apart from learning grammar, 2 teachers also stressed the usefulness of translation as a pedagogical tool in teaching vocabulary in their interviews.

I often ask my students to use a new vocabulary to make a sentence in English for me. Also, to see if they know how to use the new word. All these methods help students to accurately memorise English, because the environment for learning English is not good in China (Tracy, 2019, translated).

I think translation is actually a good tool. It is like a bridge between Chinese and English. For example, if I have taught a new vocabulary item like 'figure out', they know how to pronounce it, they know the meaning, but I would still ask them to translate a Chinese sentence into English and use this new word. I think this is a good opportunity for them to feel this new vocabulary item, I think it is really important (Tinsley, 2019, translated).

Tracy and Tinsley recognized the efficacy of using translation as a pedagogical tool in aiding the students to acquire new vocabulary. According to Tracy and Tinsley, translation as a pedagogical tool can assist their students to contextualise when using certain new words and phrases in their learning in an EFL context. This finding conforms to Ur (1996), Harmer (1991) and Kelly and Bruen (2015) whose studies also acknowledged that translation is valuable in aiding the acquisition of new vocabulary, as well as being helpful for contextualising the new vocabulary in use. In addition, these findings are also consistent with my first phase survey findings as I presented in table 5.13 and 5.14.

In addition, 2 teachers pointed out in their interviews that translation is a very good pedagogical tool for managing a large class in a time-efficient way.

Translation can speed up my classes, especially when you have about 50 students in your class. It might be too difficult for students to understand. I send my teaching slides to my students after every session, so they can review it on their own. But in my classes, my point is to make them understand everything quickly (Todd, 2019, translated).

Translation saves me a lot of time in the classes. I have no choice because our syllabuses are compressed. It is impossible for me to finish everything in time, I have no time, I can't wait for them to understand by themselves. I send my slides to them after my classes so that they can digest outside classes (Toya, 2019, translated).

As Cook (2010) argued in his book, translation in language teaching is one of the few methods that can be implemented in large classes due to its structured and predictable nature. My findings above conform to Cook's argument.

Finally, it is interesting to highlight that Theseus, Treena and Tracy agreed that the skill of translation is closely related to students' level in Chinese. They believed that translation could help their students improve their Chinese too. Treena explained this point further in her interview:

I always tell my students that if you want to learn English well you must learn Chinese well first. In a similar way, learning English well can help you to learn Chinese well. There are connections between these two languages, Chinese can deepen your English understanding (Treena Interview, Translated, 2019).

Theseus, Treena and Tracy's view is derived from a multilingual understanding of languages based on the premise that languages do not exist separately (Meier, 2014a).

5.7.3.2 Translation as an EFL pedagogy understood as a problem

In terms of translation as an EFL pedagogy understood as a problem, based on the analysis of the first phase survey results, even though (as reported in the previous section) participants largely agreed that translation is a helpful EFL pedagogical tool, there was a small number of students and teachers who had a different opinion. 9.8% of the students (n=30) and 13.3% of the teachers (n=2) had a negative perception of using translation in their learning and teaching. Next, I will present learners' and teachers' main perceptions of translation understood as a problem based on an analysis of the open-ended question results in Table 5.15 and 5.16.

Codes	Examples	References
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Translation hinders standard English use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 我认为这不算一种特别好的策略，但鄙人不知有更好的方法，所以英文一直不好。因为中英文的差异不仅是形式上的不同，人们的生活习惯，文化等方面也有很大不同，直接翻译就很不标准。<i>I don't think this is a good strategy, but I don't know anything better than translation, so my English has been bad. I think there are big differences between English and Chinese including, culture, people's living habits and other aspects, so translation is not standard (LQ26).</i> 	2
Translation hinders English thinking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 我认为翻译是不好的英语学习方法，因为翻译不能让我们建立英语的国家的人的思维，翻译会让你迅速地将英文转换，但真正地精通是像英国或美国人那样说英语。<i>I think translation is not a good learning method, because translation can't help us to build up an English way of thinking, translation can help you to switch from English into Chinese, but real proficiency in English means native-like speaking (LQ279).</i> I am strongly against translation. We should learn English by using English, rather than translation, and try out best to expose ourselves to the English environment and to cultivate English thinking (LQ126). I may not subscribe to it, because if every time before I speak English I use Chinese to help me express what I think, I won't be able to form an English thinking mode (LQ265). 	29
Translation causes inaccuracy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 我不同意翻译作为一种英语学习策略。有时候翻译并不能准确表达意思。<i>I don't agree with using translation as a learning strategy. Sometimes translation cannot express meaning accurately (LQ36).</i> 不同意。把英文翻译成中文去理解会导致语言失真失味，难以真正地表达传递原文的意思。<i>Disagree, Translating English into Chinese will sometimes cause loss of meaning and flavour compared to the original, and it is difficult to truly express the meaning of the original text (LQ249).</i> 	19
Translation leads to dependency on Chinese	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 不太支持。这种方法对母语依赖性太强。<i>Not a fan of using translation. This method causes us to depend on the mother tongue too much (LQ08).</i> I worry we will gradually depend on Chinese too much and lose the ability to study English by English (LQ11). We shouldn't use it so often because we will rely on Chinese if we use it help us once we meet some difficulties. As a result, we couldn't solve the problems by ourselves (LQ273). 	19

Table 5. 15: Learners' perceptions of translation understood as problems

Codes	Examples	References
Translation hinders students practising spoken English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 翻译对于阅读和写作可能有帮助，对于练习口语没有办法很大的提高。<i>Translation might be helpful for reading and writing, but it's not helpful in improving spoken English (TQ07).</i> 翻译影响口语，我们的学生大部分口语不行，就是因为用太多翻译。<i>Translation affects spoken English. Most of our students are not good at spoken English because we use translation too much (TQ02).</i> 	2
Translation hinders English thinking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 长远来说翻译肯定是不好，对于建立英语思维体系不利。<i>In the long run, translation is definitely not good, it's not good for building up a way of thinking in English (TQ12).</i> 我们都知道翻译肯定对英语思维是没有帮助的。<i>We all know that translation is not helpful in English thinking (TQ 06).</i> 	4

Table 5. 16: Teachers' perceptions of translation understood as problem

As can be seen from Table 5.15 and 5.16, small numbers of students and teachers had a negative view of using translation as an EFL pedagogy. 2 out of 296 students believe that translation leads to a non-standard English use. 29 out of 296 students

think that translation prevents them from developing English thinking skills, and thus prevents them from achieving a native-like level. 4 out of 15 teachers agreed with this concern too. In addition, 19 out of 296 students expressed a concern that translation causes inaccuracy. Moreover, 19 out of 296 students consider that translation leads to dependency on Chinese. Finally, 2 out of 15 teachers added that translation is not good for students to practise spoken English.

Similar codes were identified in the interview findings too. First, as I mentioned above, according to the first phase survey results, the idea that translation hinders English thinking was particularly pointed out as a problem by 29 students and 4 teachers. In terms of the second phase interview data, 7 teachers also further stressed this problem. Theseus explained in his interview:

I am aware that in most cases my students translate everything in their heads first, they try to understand everything in Chinese. But I don't think it is good. I still encourage them to take notes in English for example. Because, translation is not good for English thinking. I expect them to get into a habit of gradually thinking in English. I try to avoid using translation in my teaching because we use translation too much in the whole teaching system. As a result, our students are all thinking in Chinese, and their translation is Chinglish not English. Their sentences are translated word for word, very weird (Theseus, 2019, translated).

In her interview, Toya provided an example of why English thinking is important:

In English we say I like this very much, but my students always go I very like this, no matter how many times I have corrected them, because this is how we Chinese speaks. This is a mindset, and it is one of the obstacles of using translation (Toya, 2019, translated).

These findings indicate that small proportions of student and teacher participants from the first phase survey and 7 teacher participants from the second phase interview believed that using translation as an EFL pedagogy failed to develop English thinking skills and idiomatic use of English. One of the major reasons why translation in language teaching was rejected, as listed by Cook (2010), is that learners appeared to be strongly affected by their L1, Chinese in this case.

Second, the same code, which suggests that translation hinders standard English use was also identified in the interview data. 2 students and 5 teachers shared their concerns about translation as potentially causing non-standard English. It was interesting to see that in their interviews they all described this as resulting in 'Chinglish', without me mentioning or suggesting this.

Todd explained his concern with an example:

I can see plenty of inappropriate English expressions in my students' writing. For example, in their writing, they sometimes use phrase like 'liberal thoughts' or 'liberal education', but they use them in the wrong contexts, or they do not even understand what these words mean. It is very funny to see them use these words randomly (Todd, translated, 2019).

Treena indicated the same concern in her interview too, but she addressed this issue with a positive tone:

I can see Chinglish in my students' writing assignments, I also hear Chinglish in my students' speaking. But most of the time, I still encourage them to express themselves, because I can see they are trying to express themselves in English although there are some inappropriate sentences (Treena, 2019, translated).

Reflecting on his own teaching experience, Todd adds a critical comment about translation hindering standard English use:

We focus too much on the language itself in our English teaching and learning from primary school to university. We don't teach very much about the culture or thought system behind the language, so our students think it is ok to only focus on language itself even in translation. The examples I just gave you are actually ok, they are not grammatically wrong, but they use the vocabulary in the wrong contexts...so I don't think Chinglish is caused by using translation in our teaching, there are some deeper reasons, or the whole education system leads us here (Todd, translated, 2019).

Treena echoed Todd in her interview about this matter with an example, she pointed out that her teaching method has been influenced by the exam-oriented context in China:

Currently, the writing part in the formal English exams, it is a translation task, to be honest. All the main points of the writing task are listed in the instructions in Chinese, and then the students are asked to cover in their writing all the main points in the instructions. They don't need to add any of their own points. So, from the exam-oriented perspective, I teach my students to translate all the points in the instructions, and not to add any more points because the points added might be wrong. To a greater or lesser extent, I think the exam-oriented system has influenced our teaching strategies (Treena Interview, Translated, 2019).

Liang also feels that translation hinders standard English usage, but he brought in a different insight from a learner's perspective:

Translation definitely causes Chinglish, but I don't think Chinglish would be a problem in the short term. I mainly use English for exams or in my English classes, so it is not a problem at the moment because the people I use English with are all Chinese. I went to Seattle for a summer camp when I was 16 and I feel my host family couldn't understand my English because I spoke Chinglish, this was a problem (Liang, translated, 2019).

These findings show that some of my participants considered that using translation as an EFL pedagogical tool has a negative influence on achieving idiomatically correct English. From these findings, it is difficult to determine what way translation has been used but GTM is still largely used in Chinese English classes (Hu, 2002; Tan, 2016; Yan, 2016) as I discussed in the literature review (section 3.4.4). Therefore, I might be able to speculate that large part of translation is based on GTM in these findings. As I discussed in section 3.4.4, some scholars argue that using GTM as a pedagogical tool encourages word-for-word translation between students' L1 and L2 and that this has a detrimental effect on achieving the goal of standard English (Lado, 1964; Schjoldager, 2003) and being able to use English for communication in authentic contexts (Brown, 2014). However, as Todd and Treena reflected in their interviews, the use of translation may not be the only problem here: an exam-oriented context or

the education system in general may be key reasons behind the problem of using non-standard English.

Apart from translation hindering standard English use, as I presented in Table 5.15, 19 students in the first phase survey believed that translation could cause inaccuracy, 5 students in the second phase interview also raised this concern. Leo and Li further explained in their interviews that:

Translation can only help me to understand a brief summary sometimes. There are differences between English and Chinese, so sometimes my translation is less accurate (Leo, 2019, translated).

Translation is not accurate enough. There are too many synonyms both in Chinese and in English. It is impossible to translate precisely and sometimes a lot of meaning goes missing during translation (Li, 2019, translated).

A small number of my student participants stated that using translation as a pedagogical tool causes inaccuracy in meaning transference during their English learning. As I discussed in section 3.4.1, translation involves transfer of meaning from one language to another (Cook, 2010; Tymoczko, 2007). Cook (2010) argues that loss is inevitable due to the aim of translation being to communicate between languages.

Furthermore, 2 teachers in the first phase survey and 6 teachers in the second phase interview mentioned that they believe using translation as a pedagogical tool hinders their students from practising spoken English. Terri pointed out:

I think we all are learning English as a foreign language, and we are lacking an authentic environment, which is I think the biggest barrier we have, especially for the students' spoken English. Translation only makes things worse. So, translation is not good for teaching spoken English. (Terri, 2019, translated).

Tina added that she thinks translation slows her students down and causes confusion when they try to speak in English:

Translation is a disturbance and not a good way of teaching spoken English. Using translation means you push your students to switch from one track to another

when they try to speak English, it is not good because it definitely slows them down. That is why I think translation is a disturbance in this case. We'd do better to immerse them in an English environment because shifting thinking is too difficult for students and can cause confusion. (Tina, translated, 2019).

These findings show that some of my teacher participants believed that using translation as an EFL pedagogical tool is not an effective way to teach spoken English. These findings are confirmed by Newson (1998) and Zhou and Niu (2015) that using translation as a teaching tool prevent students from developing fluency in spoken language.

In addition, 19 students in the first phase survey and 3 students in the second phase interview mentioned that they think using translation as a pedagogical tool would lead to dependency on Chinese. Lesley shared her experience with me in her interview:

I panic if I can't understand a word in English classes. I mean if I fail to translate a word, I am like 'oh no I don't understand a thing'. And I translate sentence by sentence in English exams and it is absolutely too slow. I might depend on Chinese or translation too much. This is not good (Lesley, 2019, translated).

Larry had a similar experience that she shared in her interview:

Translation is a good tool, but sometimes it makes me rely on Chinese too much. For example, if I couldn't understand a word or a sentence in Chinese in an exam, I would panic a lot. I think this is not good, but I don't know another better way than translation. But, in the end, we should understand things in English directly (Larry, 2019, translated).

Lesley and Larry's quotations indicate that using translation in their learning creates a crutch for them, but they worry that they will over depend on this crutch and not be able to understand English independently without the help of Chinese. Also, Larry revealed that she thinks the ultimate goal of learning English is to understand English solely in English. It is undeniable that translation might provide useful scaffolding at the beginning of English learning, but any scaffolding should be removed gradually as students gain competence and confidence.

To sum up, in section 5.7.3, I presented both learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of using translation as an EFL pedagogy. The majority of students and teachers in both the first phase survey and the second phase interview believed that using translation can be an effective scaffolding strategy in their learning and teaching specially to establish meaning, check understanding, and acquire grammar and vocabulary. Moreover, according to the findings I presented in this section, it is impossible to judge how exactly translation was used but some evidence shows that both learners and teachers describe GTM in their interviews. On the other hand, a small proportion of students and teachers in both the first phase survey and the second phase interview considered using translation as a pedagogical tool that can cause problems including non-standard English use, inaccuracy, dependency on Chinese and hindering English thinking.

5.7.4 Translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy

This section presents both learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of translanguaging used as a learning/teaching strategy in their learning and teaching based on the qualitative data in both the first phase survey and the second phase interview. The findings I present in this section are partly based on the analysis of the open-ended questions 4k and 4j (Appendices 1 and 2) in the learner and teacher questionnaires respectively (What is your opinion on translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy for English learning? Why do you think so?). In addition, the findings that I present in this section are also based on the analysis of the second phase interview with both learners and teachers in relation to translanguaging used as a learning/teaching strategy.

In this section, I will present both learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy in terms of it being understood as scaffolding or as a problem. I will first present the main findings of learners' and teachers' perceptions of translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy based on the qualitative data in the first phase survey. I will also present both learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy based on the second phase interview.

5.7.4.1 Translanguaging as a Learning/teaching Strategy Understood as Scaffolding

Based on the analysis of the first phase survey results, 303 out of the 306 students gave their opinion about translanguaging as a learning strategy, and all 15 teachers responded to the same questionnaire item. As I mentioned in section 4.4.3, I explained the meaning of translanguaging in a note in both learner and teacher questionnaire in both English and Chinese. About half of the students (49.0%, n=150) believed that translanguaging is an effective learning strategy. Over half of the teachers (60.0%, n=9) agreed that translanguaging is a useful teaching strategy too. Next, I will present learners' and teachers' main perceptions of translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy understood as scaffolding based on an analysis of the open-ended question results in Table 5.17 and 5.18.

Codes	Examples	References
Translanguaging is helpful for communication in English classes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 帮助我跟同学老师们沟通。 <i>Translanguaging helps me to communicate with my classmates and teachers</i> (LQ 102). • 我需要和同学们沟通的时候，我还是会第一反应还是转换用普通话，因为是我的母语。 <i>When I need to communicate with my classmates in classes, I switch to Mandarin, because it is my mother tongue</i> (LQ73). • 普通话对我来说最简单，所以沟通时会转成普通话。 <i>Mandarin is the easiest for me, so I switch to Mandarin for communication</i> (LQ09). 	139
Use Mandarin to ask questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 我都用普通话请教我的老师和同学不懂的地方。 <i>I use Mandarin to ask questions about things I am unsure about</i>(LQ27). • 我需要问问题的时候，我都还是用普通话的。 <i>I usually use Mandarin when I need to ask questions</i> (LQ302). • 普通话是母语啊，所以不用想就可以说，像问问题我都还是用普通话，用英文问问题太难了。 <i>Mandarin is my mother tongue, so I don't need to think before I speak. I use Mandarin to ask questions. It's too difficult to ask questions in English</i> (LQ277). 	113
Chinese as a reference to learn English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 普通话在英语学习中起到一种参照物的作用。 <i>Mandarin plays a role as a reference in English learning</i> (LQ143). • 普通话作为一种媒介与英文对照是学习的介质。 <i>Mandarin is the medium of English learning</i> (LQ109). • 英语又不是母语，当然需要中文来作为一个参照物啊。 <i>English is not my mother tongue, of course I need Chinese to be my reference</i> (LQ297). 	123

Affective role of Chinese	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 常用语（中文），它们可以给予英语学习更多乐趣和方便。 <i>As the language (Chinese) I use every day, Chinese offers a lot of fun in English learning (LQ158).</i> • 用普通话在英语学习里才好玩有意思啊。 <i>It is fun to use Mandarin in English learning (LQ147).</i> 	58
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Table 5. 17: Learners' perceptions of translanguaging as a learning strategy understood as scaffoldings

Codes	Examples	References
Translanguaging is helpful in classroom management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 我在管理课堂的时候会英文和中文转换 <i>I switch from English to Chinese when I manage my classes (TQ04).</i> 	2
Use translanguaging to explain grammar concepts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 又可以解释一些抽象的概念，比如各种时态各种语法的概念。确保我的学生们明白这些语法概念是很重要的。 <i>I use some Mandarin to explain certain abstract grammar concepts, for example, tenses or attributive clauses. Making sure my students understand all these grammar concepts is very important (TQ11).</i> • 但必要的解释和研究有时还是要通过中文，帮助理解的东西，脱离母语的学习环境可能会对学生带来很大的压力。 <i>But the necessary explanation of concepts is sometimes through Chinese because it helps in understanding. Absolutely no mother tongue in the learning environment would put great pressure on students (TQ08).</i> 	9
Translanguaging is helpful in giving instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 给予学生更清楚的课堂 instruction <i>It provides clearer class instruction for students (TQ10).</i> 	2
Translanguaging can help motivate students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 而且当其语言水平有限的时候学生在英语表达中混有中文可帮助他们建立表达的欲望 <i>A mixture of English and Chinese can motive students to express themselves when their English proficiency is limited (TQ15).</i> 	3

Table 5. 18: Teachers' perceptions of translanguaging as a teaching strategy understood as scaffoldings

As can be seen from Table 5.17, large numbers of learner participants (139 out of 303) mentioned in their answers that they would switch to Mandarin for communication. More than a third of the students (113 out of 303) stated in their responses that they would use Mandarin to ask questions, as well as using L1 as a reference to learn English (n=123). It indicates that translanguaging as a learning strategy is considered as an important scaffolding by many students in terms of communication and expressing themselves. Additionally, 123 out of 303 students explained in their survey that translanguaging as a learning strategy provides vital scaffolding for them because translanguaging enables them to use Chinese as a reference to learn English. This finding provides further evidence that translanguaging allows language learners to access prior linguistic knowledge for processing new information, as was also noted

by Cenoz (2019). It is also interesting to see that 58 out of 303 students believed that Chinese as their first language adds 'fun' to their English learning. A small proportion of these students indicated that translanguaging motivates them to learn English in a pleasant way.

Moreover, from the teachers' perspective, as can be seen in Table 5.18, over half of the teachers considered translanguaging as a useful teaching strategy for various reasons. Firstly, 2 out of 15 teachers mentioned that translanguaging is an effective tool for classroom management. These findings echo studies by Gené Gil, Juan-Garau, and Salazar Noguera (2012) and Littlewood and Yu (2011) in that L1 often has been used for classroom management and disciplinary matters in EFL contexts. Secondly, a majority of the teachers (9 out of 15) agreed that translanguaging is particularly helpful in explaining complicated grammar concepts to their students. This finding indicates that these 9 teachers recognised translanguaging as a teaching strategy which could facilitate teaching and learning. Thirdly, 2 out of 15 teachers stated in their survey that they believed translanguaging to be a good teaching strategy for highlighting their instructions and capturing their students' attention. Finally, 3 out of 15 teachers believed translanguaging to be a teaching strategy that could motivate their students to express themselves, especially for those whose English is less proficient.

In terms of interview data, I asked the students and teachers in which situations they thought translanguaging is helpful. Firstly, 2 students Lesley and Larry indicated in their interviews that they tend to use Mandarin to ask questions in the English classes. This finding reflects by the survey data too. Lesley stated: '*I always ask questions in Mandarin; I don't know why. It is my instinctive reaction, I think*' (Lesley, 2019, translated). Gené Gil et al. (2012) suggest that there is a place for students' L1 in translanguaging for generally communicative functions such as asking questions and seeking further clarifications.

Secondly, all 9 students firmly agreed in their interviews that translanguaging helps greatly in understanding as they feel they need Chinese as a reference for understanding to facilitate learning. This is reflected in both survey data and interview data. Liang and Lin further explained in their interviews:

Chinese is really important for me to understand things in English. I feel understand things in Chinese and that helps me to learn English faster (Liang, 2019, translated).

Chinese helps me to understand English, because English is not my first language to learn, so I need Chinese to understand it...My English teacher speaks a lot of Chinese to help us to understand too (Lin, 2019, translated).

LP added that she needs to understand a word in Chinese before she can memorise an English word:

I need Chinese to solve my understanding problem. For example, I usually use a bilingual dictionary, I know a [monolingual] dictionary like the Oxford Dictionary is great, it has English interpretation. But I am not an English native speaker, so I can't instinctively understand it, so I would definitely translate it into Chinese to understand, then I would be able to memorise this English word (LP, 2019, translated).

These findings demonstrate that translanguaging is perceived as a natural learning practice among many of my learner participants as it allows them to access their L1 to enhance their English learning through translation.

Thirdly, 2 learner participants emphasised in their interviews that translanguaging as a learning strategy is particularly helpful in brainstorming. LP claimed that '*my brain is more active when I am brainstorming in Chinese, I can come up with more good ideas*' (LP, 2019, translated). Leo shared his experience in his interview that:

I need Chinese for brainstorming, and sometimes Cantonese, I don't know why, especially in group work. Otherwise, my brain goes completely blank, and I can only remain in silent during our group discussion. But I don't like this, I want to contribute to the group too (Leo, 2019, translated).

Thinking internally in Chinese or Cantonese allows LP and Leo to think more actively. In Leo's case, it also helps him to better engage to group discussion. These two examples reflect that translanguaging seems to assist them to utilise not only

Mandarin but all their linguistic repertoires for deep thinking and for better engagement with group work in Leo's case.

Moreover, Laura and Li believed that translanguaging is an effective learning strategy in group discussion too:

We have some group assignments, like group presentations. We normally search some resources online first, in Chinese. We also speak Mandarin in group discussion. I mean I probably could be able to read English materials, but I am not sure about my group members. Also, if it's English only, we can't communicate in our group either. Mandarin is used for communication and understanding in our group discussion, as well as brain storming (Laura, 2019, translated).

We use Mandarin in group discussion, I don't like it, but I have no choices because my group members might need to use Mandarin for communication, and we all take notes in Chinese I think (Li, 2019, translated).

When asked if the final products of the group discussion are in English, Laura and Li both confirmed that they would normally either make an oral presentation or submit a piece of writing in English at the end of their group discussion. Responses from Laura and Li show that the students tend to shuttle between Chinese and English in order to enhance their understanding of English texts (Probyn, 2015) and to negotiate meaning (Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2021) in order to complete the group project. Second, Laura and Li's examples also demonstrate their bilingual abilities in using two languages seamlessly to participate in group work.

Fourthly, it is worth noting that translanguaging as a learning strategy was frequently mentioned by my learner participants in terms of their English writing: 6 of them mentioned in their interviews that they use translanguaging in their English writing. The learner participants use translanguaging primarily for two reasons in their writing. Larry, Liang and Luyu reported in their interview that they make an outline in Chinese first in preparation for their writing.

When I write an article in English, I will firstly make an outline in Chinese in my head, I mean I will have a gist in Chinese first, and then I will translate it roughly

into English as a draft. My English teacher suggests that we'd find it better to make a clear outline first before writing. For me it is easier and clearer to have an outline in Chinese and then write in English (Larry, 2019, translated).

I use Chinese in writing, for example, I read in Chinese first, and I often write outlines in Chinese too (Liang, 2019, translated).

I am used to writing Chinese outlines first and then writing in English. It is helpful at least for now. Also, I search and read in Chinese, sometimes, the writing topics can be abstract, so I need to understand them first (Luyu, 2019, translated).

Leo, Lin and LP also agreed that they tend to read in Chinese first to make sure they understand the writing topic:

I will for search some Chinese resources before I write something. I need to understand the topic first. I think it is helpful because writing requires a lot of knowledge about the topic. Also, English resources are less accessible in China (Leo, 2019, translated).

I would read in Chinese first if the writing topic is too abstract for me. I want to make sure I understand the topic I'm writing about (Lin, 2019, translated).

I read some Chinese materials before writing and translate them into English. I think it is a great way of writing. I feel at least the topic and the main points of content wouldn't be wrong (LP, 2019, translated).

These students' comments further confirmed the fact that translanguaging as a learning strategy plays a significant role in the bilingual students' writing process, as García and Kano (2014) have shown. Larry, Liang and Luyu considered Chinese as a beneficial resource for planning writing, similar to results from Dalton-Puffer's (2007) study, whereas, Luyu, Leo, Lin, and LP used Chinese to ensure their comprehension of the writing topic, and this finding echoes with García and Kano's (2014) study on Japanese English learners. Furthermore, these learners also demonstrated their learning autonomy in choosing languages they consider useful to complete their writing tasks. Finally, their examples indicate that Chinese to English translation is viewed as part of the translanguaging process in writing (Adamson & Coulson, 2015).

From the teachers' perspective, 3 teachers had a neutral attitude towards using translanguaging as a learning strategy in their students' English writing. Terri expressed her understanding about her students' needing to use Chinese or translation for writing:

I am not against my students using Chinese or translation for writing. They are high school students, so I don't expect them to read everything in English or only find English materials online (Terri, 2019, translated).

Tom showed his understanding too, and shared that he uses translanguaging in his daily life too:

I use translanguaging in my daily life too, I mean in my experience I think in Chinese first, if the topic is unfamiliar to me, then I speak in English. But if it is a familiar topic or daily conversation, I would speak in English directly without thinking in Chinese first. I have no idea how my students do it, personally, I am not against them using Chinese Material before writing, or writing an outline in Chinese (Tom, 2019, translated).

Toya explained in her interview that her neutral attitude towards translanguaging is because her teaching goal is exam-driven:

I don't care what languages they use to finish their writing and oral assignments. After all, my teaching is exam-oriented, so I want to save time. As long as they give me an English product, I don't care what languages they use during the process (Toya, 2019, translated).

Terri, Tom and Toya's comments indicate they did not consciously teach or encourage their students to use translanguaging as a learning strategy for English writing, but they are not against translanguaging as a learning strategy if their students use it autonomously.

Treena and Theseus were the only two who showed an explicitly positive attitude towards students using translanguaging as a learning strategy in English writing. Treena pointed out that making an outline in Chinese is a good idea for English writing

as it makes your logic clearer. As she used this method too when she was a student abroad. She encourages her students to do the same:

I think it's a good idea to use Chinese in English writing. I used to write Chinese outlines too when I was a student in the UK. So I think it is ok, Chinese could help you to make your logic clearer, it is a good way actually. Reading in Chinese is the same, I mean a helpful way of learning. Understanding is vital for my students, especially when it comes to writing. My students don't like writing because they believe writing is difficult. So, if you tell them, it is ok to use Chinese to help, it is definitely good news for my students (Treena, 2019, translated).

Theseus in his interview mentioned that he believes Chinese can help his students to access their funds of knowledge more effectively:

'Chinese helps in reasoning and constructing an argument in writing. Students can give me something better in Chinese from their current knowledge. I think it is helpful'. (Theseus, 2019, translated).

Treena and Theseus' comments echo those of Larry, Liang and Luyu presented above. They all believe that constructing and organising their ideas in Chinese then writing in English is an effective writing strategy.

In addition, it is worth pointing out that these findings seem to contradict the survey findings about using translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy in English writing. As I presented in section 5.6, according to the Likert Scale findings, over half of learner and teacher participants disagreed that they use Chinese to write an outline first before writing an essay in English.

Second, apart from Taylor, 9 teachers overwhelmingly acknowledged that translanguaging is frequently used to by teachers to explain abstract grammar concepts. This finding is reflected in the survey data too, as I presented in Table 5.18. Terri and Treena further stressed in their interviews that grammar occupies a large proportion of English teaching in China. Thus, translanguaging primarily aids in explaining and clarifying complicated and abstract grammar points because

translanguaging enables both teachers and learners to use full linguistic and knowledge resource.

80% of my teaching content is about grammar. I would definitely switch to Mandarin because sometimes you use English to explain grammar, but the students can't get your point. Grammar is hard enough in a language, So I think Mandarin would be really good to help here. I sometimes try to explain grammar in English, but the students just get so confused (Terri, 2019, translated).

I switch to Mandarin when I teach grammar. I think grammar is difficult for my students to understand and I need to use their first language to explain a bit. Also, I think there are some similarities in the syntax of Chinese and English. So, I like to compare English and Chinese syntax in my class, and I think it is helpful for my students to memorise English grammar (Treena, 2019, translated).

Terri and Treena's quotations illustrate that grammar can be challenging for students, thus, a certain proportion of Mandarin use by teachers for explaining and clarification can assist learning (Adamson & Coulson, 2015; Fang & Liu, 2020). Furthermore, Treena has pointed out that she believes there are grammatical similarities between Chinese and English. Therefore, she deliberately links her students' previous Chinese learning experiences with her students' current knowledge.

In addition, it is worth highlighting that, as I mentioned in section 4.4.2, Taylor is the only English native-speaker participant. Thus, as she is not fluent in Mandarin, she did not mention anything about translanguaging being helpful for explaining grammar as she does not share the same L1 with her students. However, when I interviewed Taylor, she shared that her perceptions of using L1 have shifted:

If you asked me this question a few years ago, I would say no, using L1 is not a good idea. Because I was a teacher who always said English only, English only, don't speak Chinese, don't speak Chinese. But now, to be honest, I have been teaching in China for a while, and sometimes I was thinking probably it is important that the students can use L1, even if just for basic giving instructions or even trying to learn new vocabulary, because as a teacher, as a native speaking teacher, I try to tell them ok don't use your Chinese letter yet, let's just try to explain the word

to you. But sometimes I realised by explaining it, I have made it even more confusing for the students because maybe my answer isn't clear enough. That's where I started thinking it's probably more handy and it should be ok if one student who speaks better English translates my instruction or definition for me to the rest of the class. So now I am more open for the idea of using my students' L1 in my class (Taylor, 2019).

When Taylor was asked why her opinion had shifted, she shared that:

when I was trying to learn Chinese then I get it. When you are trying to learn another language, and you don't understand it or... it is not easier ... look, I can see it, as a student and trying to learn Chinese and I don't understand something, I just want to go back to speak English because I get frustrated. So I think it is important to use L1 at some point, and it is ok to use your L1 to help each other (Taylor Interview, 2019).

In Taylor's interview, she also suggested that setting ground rules for L1 use in classes is important too. She is also the only participant who mentioned setting ground rules for using L1 in English classes.

I think you have to set ground rules in the class to say ok the use of L1 is good when we are going to give instructions, erm...in translation if you don't understand vocabulary or if you don't understand you know the assignment. And then I think the teacher then needs to say however, I don't want you to use L1 when you are brain storming, use your [monolingual] dictionary, and just set ground rules. So the students are aware of when they should use their L1 (Taylor Interview, 2019).

It is interesting to see Taylor's change while she was teaching in China. In addition, she seemed to develop a dual identity when she started to learn Chinese, as a language learner and a teacher. Thus, she was able to understand her students from a learner perspective. Taylor's example indicates that L1 is likely to be a key scaffolding tool in English learning and teaching in a Chinese EFL context. Moreover, teachers' learning a second language themselves might help to create awareness of the value of L1 as a resource and thus shake their previous monolingual understandings.

Third, 4 teachers shared in their interviews that translanguaging as a teaching strategy is particularly helpful in giving instructions. Todd mentioned in his interview that he would switch to Mandarin or repeat his utterance in Mandarin to capture his students' attention when giving instructions:

Mandarin is very useful for giving instructions, especially when I really want them to pay attention, I would go 'I will give you three minutes to finish this', 给你们三分钟啊 (Todd, 2019, translated).

Toya believed giving instructions in Mandarin can ensure her students' understanding. *'I normally give instructions in Mandarin. I want to make sure they all understand' (Toya, 2019, translated).* This finding is consistent with what Fang and Liu (2020) found in an EFL Chinese university context. Chinese English teachers in Fang and Liu's research also tend to use translanguaging as a teaching strategy when giving instructions in order to highlight these instructions and to capture their students' attention.

Fourth, 3 teachers perceived translanguaging as an appropriate teaching strategy because they believe it can speed up their classes:

Our schedule is very tight. Mandarin can help me to speed up because I don't need to stop to check their understanding (Toya, 2019, translated).

Our teaching schedule is very tight. Every term we don't have enough time to cover everything. Mandarin makes everything keep going smoothly in my class. If I speak English, I need to allow some time for students to react to what I just said. It is good for their listening, but it also slows things down. I don't have time for this (Terri, 2019, translated).

I want to make my class keep going, our schedule is very tight. If you want to make sure your students understand you. Explaining things in English creates problems for you as a teacher. It is impossible to finish class on time (Tracy, 2019, translated).

As I discussed in section 5.7.3.1, 2 teachers pointed out that they considered translation as an EFL pedagogy to be a time-efficient way of managing a large class.

Likewise, Toya, Terri and Tracy believed translanguaging as a teaching strategy can help in the same way in their squashed teaching curriculum.

Finally, it is worth highlighting that Todd and Tinsley further stressed in their interviews that translanguaging as a teaching strategy can motivate their students:

Like I just said, I have some students whose English is not so good. I think Mandarin can motivate them to improve their English. If I only use English, they wouldn't understand a word. They would probably give up (Todd, 2019, translated).

As I mentioned in section 5.7.2, Tinsley also teaches spoken English classes apart from her normal teaching responsibility. Tinsley shared in her interview that Mandarin can help her to motivate her students to talk more in her oral classes.

There is another function of Mandarin for when I want to motivate my students to talk more. You know our syllabus doesn't focus on speaking too much, so our students, don't speak much, and they are shy and unconfident when you need them to speak. So, I will use Mandarin to tell a joke or use Mandarin to talk about something my students are familiar with first. I think they can learn how to express themselves better in English in this way (Tinsley Interview, Translated, 2019).

When the teachers were asked about translanguaging in their interviews, Tinsley was also the only teacher who considered translanguaging in speaking as acceptable in her oral classes. She believed this to be an inspiring way of encouraging her students to speak out loud, especially when the students' English is limited.

It is totally acceptable if my students' utterance is partly in English and partly in Mandarin. I have a large group of students whose English is limited. So if their English is limited, I need to encourage them to speak up. Even if they can only say something partly in English and partly in Mandarin, it is absolutely fine because I want to encourage them to speak up. If they are not able to say a completed English sentence, but with the assistance of Mandarin are able to express themselves, I think this is a very good start (Tinsley Interview, Translated, 2019).

Tinsley's comment reveals that she acknowledged translanguaging as a teaching strategy can encourage her students to use a combination of English and Mandarin to try to express themselves in her classes.

5.7.4.2 Translanguaging as understood as a problematic learning/teaching strategy

As I presented in the last section, based on the analysis of the first phase survey results, both students and teachers had a mixed opinion towards translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy, with some understanding it as a problem. Another half of the students (49.0%, n=153) had a negative attitude towards translanguaging as a learning strategy. Also, 40% of the teachers (n=6) considered translanguaging to be a problematic teaching strategy. Next, I will present learners' and teachers' main perceptions of translanguaging as a problematic learning/teaching strategy based on an analysis of the open-ended question results in Table 5.19 and 5.20.

Codes	Examples	References
translanguaging hinders English thinking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 其实会影响到我们说英语时的思维，比如，自侃说的是中式英语。 <i>Actually, L1 would affect our thinking when we speak English for example, I would say my English is Chinglish</i> (LQ169). • 用自己的语言学习英语，会形成习惯思维 但不同语言的语法是不一样的。 <i>Learning English in our own language can't help us to build up an English thinking system, different languages have different grammars</i> (LQ142). • 用中文在英语学习的话，就没办法练习英语思维啊，但有些英语问题是靠英语思维来解决的。 <i>We can't practice our English thinking if we use Chinese in English learning, but sometimes we need English thinking to solve some English questions</i> (LQ137). 	110
Mandarin accents hinder good pronunciation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I think they play bad roles in English studying. Because it will make us have accent, speaking English with a strong Chinese accent. It also will change our intonation (LQ12). • 普通话有口音阻碍正确发音。 <i>Mandarin accents prevents correct pronunciation</i> (LQ134). • 普通话会阻碍英语学习，因为口音太重。 <i>Mandarin hinders English learning because it causes strong accents</i> (LQ155). 	86

Chinese interferes in English learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 形成干扰 不自觉的依赖母语 语法不同易混乱 <i>Chinese would interfere with English learning, we could depend on our mother tongue unconsciously, and the grammar systems are different which would cause confusion too</i> (LQ104). • 起阻碍。因为中西方文化不同，在思维上会有差异。 <i>L1 would hinder English learning, because Chinese culture and western culture are different, so we think differently</i> (LQ182). • 弊：有时候普通话和方言反而会影响人对英语的把握，归根到底是文化差异造成的。 <i>Disadvantages: Sometimes Mandarin and dialects could affect people's feelings about English. In the final analysis, it is caused by cultural differences</i> (LQ167). 	135
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Table 5. 19: Learners' perceptions of translanguaging understood as a problem

Codes	Examples	References
No authentic language surroundings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 用太多普通话确实没办法给学生们提供好的语言环境，这也是没办法。 <i>We can't provide our students with a good language learning environment if we use too much Mandarin, but I don't know a better way</i> (TQ14). • 中国没有一个很好的语言环境让学生们使用语言，所以我觉得在教学中用太多普通话不好。 <i>There is not a good language environment for students to use their language in China, so I think it's not good to use too much Mandarin in our teaching</i> (TQ02). 	3
Mandarin accents hinder good pronunciation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 我们的学生挺多都口音很重的，我觉得这和我们用太多普通话有关。 <i>A lot of Chinese students have a strong accent, I think this is because we use too much Mandarin</i> (TQ01). • 中英文发音太不一样了，来回转换太多，很容易造成口音的问题吧。 <i>The pronunciation of Mandarin and English is so different, that if we shuttle between these two languages, it might cause accent problems</i> (TQ06). 	4

Table 5. 20: Teachers' perceptions of translanguaging understood as a problem

As can be seen from table 5.19, when learner participants expressed their concerns about using translanguaging in English learning, their perceptions revolved around three major codes. Firstly, 110 out of 303 students believed that using translanguaging prevents them practicing their English thinking skills. A similar finding was reported in section 5.7.3.2 too, where 29 students considered that translation would cause the same problem. Secondly, 86 out of 303 students believed that Mandarin causes accents in spoken English. In addition, according to Table 5.20, 4 out of 15 teachers had the same concern too. Thirdly, nearly half of the students (n=135) had a negative attitude towards translanguaging because they were concerned about Chinese interfering in their English learning. Finally, as shown by Table 5.20, 3 out of 15

teachers were concerned that using translanguaging fails to provide an authentic language environment for their students.

Both learner and teacher participants expressed their concerns about using translanguaging as a problematic learning/teaching strategy in their interviews too. First, based on the analysis of the second phase interview results, 7 students believed that translanguaging interferes with English learning in terms of forms and culture. This finding was reflected in both the survey data and the interview data. With regard to forms, Leo, Li, Lin and LP shared their view that using translanguaging is not helpful in learning English vocabulary. All four students I mentioned above agreed that an English word can have a number of different meanings in Chinese, and this makes them feel confused. LP provided an example in her interview:

Chinese is helpful when I need to check my understanding, but sometimes is not so helpful. For example, the word 'boot'. Most of the time, it means a type of footwear, right? But 'boot' also means a storage space in a car. It is so confusing and hard to remember, I mean if I see the word 'boot' in a sentence, I would definitely go for the footwear meaning. I feel frustrated because I can't remember all those words in Chinese, and my English is not good enough to remember words in English. And I think this is one of the reasons why I can't get high scores in my English exams (LP, 2019, translated).

Leo added in his interview that Chinese interferes with his English grammar learning too:

Chinese grammar may sometimes be very different from English. The first grammar structure that comes to my mind is usually the Chinese one, but most of the time it is the wrong grammar in English. So, I think that in terms of learning English grammar, Chinese is not so helpful (Leo, 2019, translated).

Terri, Theseus, Treena echoed that using translanguaging as a teaching strategy can be problematic under certain circumstances. The interview with Treena shed light on their concerns:

As I told you earlier, I compare English grammar and Chinese grammar in my class. But I think it could have negative influence on my students too, as the comparison makes them feel confused. For example, it should be 'I like this book very much', right? But no matter how many times I teach them, they always go 'I very like this book'. This is because the syntax of Chinese and English are different. Also, in Cantonese we have 等我喝口茶先 (let me take a sip of tea first), right? Their Cantonese affects their Mandarin and then Mandarin affects English. All three languages interfere with each other (Treena Interview, Translated, 2019).

LP, Leo and Treena's examples indicate that they recognised that Chinese and Cantonese can be helpful in terms of vocabulary and grammar but can also cause issues and confusions for learning too.

In her interview, Tina's attitude was strongly against using translanguaging as a teaching strategy and she further emphasised that Chinese interferes with English learning:

It is not ok to use Chinese in English learning because as English teachers, we should provide our students with an authentic environment, and Chinese is definitely a turbulence, it causes confusion to students, so we'd better exposing them to as much English as possible (Tina, 2019, translated).

Tina's comment suggests that she appeared to believe that her students cannot cope well with more than one language at a time. This finding resonates with the arguments I put forward in the literature review section 3.4.10, such as Young (2014) and Baker (2011), that some teachers would have concerns about operating in more than one language because it can cause cognitive problems. Young (2014) argues that this concern reflects a monolingual perspective of understanding language learning.

3 students also believed that cultural difference was another element that making translanguaging an obstacle in their learning. Li shared his struggles with me in his interview that he did not know how to translate the word 人民 (people) into English. The word 'people' in Chinese contains different cultural connotation and is hard to express accurately in English.

Our culture is so different, I don't think Mandarin and Cantonese can help here at all, because if you want to understand English culture, you have to think in their way. For example, the word 人民 (people). I don't know how to translate this word into English. There is too much deep meaning behind it. I feel this is due to cultural difference (Li, 2019, translated).

Teacher participants also mentioned cultural issues in their interviews. Terri, Theseus, Tom and Toya agreed about the difficulty of explaining an English word in Chinese. Theseus explained this point with an example:

Actually, Chinese is not direct enough. To be honest, our modern society is affected by Western culture. So sometimes when you teach students an English word, Chinese can't express it accurately. But English can provide an image directly and so might be easier to understand for students. For example, when I teach the word 'schedule', in Chinese this is 日程。 But this is an abstract concept for students, because we Chinese don't do this. We wouldn't have a to-do list and cross off one item after another, so I don't know how I can make it clear to my students (Theseus Interview, translated, 2019).

Theseus demonstrated his struggles with explaining an English word clearly to his students because of a cultural issue. Lesley echoed Theseus' view with an example from a learner's perspective in her interview:

To be honest, we are now learning English, but we are far away from English culture. We only learn this language mechanically. I joined a summer camp in London when I was 15 years old. I finally realised when I was in London, the English I learnt can't be called English. English carries a rich culture too. You only realised it when you talk to the natives. Oh, this is what this means. We use it completely wrong. But I can't blame my English teachers, because I don't think they understand English culture either. So it would be hard for them to explain all these cultural things in Chinese (Lesley Interview, translated, 2019).

Li, Theseus and Lesley's examples revealed that intercultural elements might be lost while using translanguaging. Also, this finding also indicates that intercultural communication is a missing element in the Chinese exam-oriented curriculum.

Second in their interviews, Larry, Liang and LP raised the issue that using translanguaging hinders English thinking:

Chinese thinking always bothers me. For example, when I try to understand a paragraph in English, I unconsciously plug the Chinese meanings into the paragraph, but it turns out it is wrong. So, I think my Chinese does not help in these situations but makes it more difficult to learn English (Liang, 2019, translated).

If I rely too much on Chinese, it restricts my English thinking. For example, when I read an English article, if I failed to understand it in English, in most cases I would misunderstand the whole article (LP, 2019, translated).

Liang and LP's comments show that they tended to believe that there are two different thinking systems behind English and Chinese, and these two different thinking systems seem to conflict with each other and are less helpful in their English learning.

Tinsley, Tom, Treena and Tracy from the teacher side agreed with this view. Reflecting on her own teaching, Tinsley commented:

Chinese hinders students' thinking, I think. For example, critical thinking in English is necessary, especially for speaking and writing in IELTS tests. Critical thinking means logic and thinking in many different ways. But in fact, in our schools, I mean our normal schools, I mean the whole Chinese education system, we rarely teach our students this way. So, how can I put it...Chinese thinking means in most cases that your teacher told you this is good, so the students memorise that this is good and won't think about it independently. But in English it is a different thing. So, when my students try to give a presentation or write a short essay, I wouldn't encourage them to think in Chinese. My students would probably go 'Oh, Chinese thinking is what the teacher said and memorise it', or 'Oh, the correct answer is this, so we need to write it down'. So, I think Chinese hinders thinking (Tinsley, 2019, translated).

Tinsley further elaborate why she thinks Chinese and English thinking is different. As I mentioned in section 5.7.2, Tinsley works in the private sector, training students who

want to study abroad to pass their IELTS tests. According to her experience, speaking and writing part in IELTS tests tend to encourage students' critical thinking, whereas the Chinese exam-oriented teaching system is inclined to discourage students from thinking independently, following rather what they have been taught by their teachers.

Tracy offered a different view in her interview:

when you think about something, you should have an image in your head and an English word should come out to correspond to this image not Chinese words. Only when you have English thinking can you understand the differences between Chinese and English. But it is very difficult to cultivate English thinking. If we fail to cultivate this kind of thinking, there are many English words that are difficult to understand (Tracy, 2019, translated).

Tinsley and Tracy's comments reveal that they believe that translanguaging as a teaching/learning strategy involves two different thinking systems in the process of switching between two languages, and they consider that switching between two different thinking systems can be a barrier to English learning. Their beliefs are rooted in a monolingual understanding of language learning as it supports the belief that languages should be separated.

Third, as I presented in the last section, 6 students mentioned in their interviews that translanguaging as a learning strategy was frequently used in their English writing, and 3 teachers had a neutral attitude towards it. However, in their interviews, Tina, Taylor and Todd were clearly against using translanguaging as a learning strategy in English writing. Todd believed that using translanguaging as a learning strategy in English writing needs translation which would produce non-standard English.

I am aware that some of my students do this [use translanguaging as a learning strategy in English writing]. But I don't encourage them to do so. I teach them to write outlines before writing, but I encourage them to try to write English outlines. I think it is ok to find or read Chinese materials before writing, but finding or reading English materials is the best, if they are able to. I also teach them how to find English materials, because Chinese materials and translation causes Chinglish (Todd, 2019, translated).

Taylor added in her interviews that overusing translanguaging as a learning strategy in English writing does not facilitate English learning:

I think when they are doing too much research in their L1, it doesn't help them. I think as they research it in their L1 and then they try to translate it, it doesn't make sense. So that's why I really need to monitor and to say try not to use your L1 because you are not learning. I know this is contradict what I just said, but it is more about...how to say this. It is one little thing where translation is good, it is helpful. But when you are doing brainstorming stuff like that, I don't think it gonna help you when you are just using translation because you are relying so much on it so I feel that you are not really try to learn any English vocabulary. I think to use it to understand the topic, I think it is ok. But then I would like them to try to use a little bit more English (Taylor, 2019).

Tina echoed Taylor in her interview too:

I don't think it [using translanguaging as a learning strategy in English writing] is ok. First of all, English material is more authentic, it is very important. Chinese is only helpful for understanding, but not helpful at all for language learning. The best way of learning is English input and then English output. I don't like them [the students] to use Chinese in group discussion either, like I just said, it is very weird when they are reading in English but discussing in Mandarin. So, it still should be English input and then English output (Tina, 2019, translated).

Todd, Taylor and Tina's comments indicate that they appeared to believe that Chinese detracts from English learning especially in English writing, thus the students should use English as much as possible.

Fourth, 86 students in the first phase survey and 4 students in the second phase interview mentioned that they think Mandarin accents hinder good pronunciation. This finding is consistent with the Likert Scale findings (see section 5.6) that the majority of students and teachers disagreed that they mix Mandarin and English when they practise saying things in English. Lesley explained in her interview:

I think my pronunciation is not good enough because of Mandarin and Cantonese. I have a strong accent. I don't like my accents. When I was in London [attending the summer camp], I wished I could speak like the natives. So, I don't think using Mandarin can help me to practise my spoken English. How can I put this...I try to forget Mandarin and Cantonese when I speak English, because I really don't think they can help in terms of speaking (Lesley, 2019, translated).

Liang shared a similar experience in his interview:

Mandarin and Cantonese give me a strong accent which I don't like. I want to speak like the natives. When I was in Seattle, I felt unconfident speaking because of my accent. So, Mandarin and Cantonese are not good for practicing my spoken English (Liang, 2019, translated).

Lesley and Liang's comments reveal that they consider that using translanguaging prevent them from achieving a native-like goal in terms of their English pronunciation.

Likewise, 4 teachers also pointed out that translanguaging as a teaching strategy is not helpful in teaching spoken English. Tina clearly believed that using translanguaging as a teaching strategy for spoken English is problematic:

It is definitely a problem for teaching spoken English. If you keep switching between English and Chinese, then they [the students] don't have any chances to have an English only environment, and the switching certainly causes confusion (Tina, 2019, translated).

Todd echoed in his interview that using translanguaging in spoken English causes accents and non-standard English:

When it comes to speaking, I think we should help our students to speak like the natives, right? So, I don't want them to use Mandarin to practise their spoken English, because Mandarin causes accents and Chinglish (Todd, 2019, translated).

As can be seen from the words of students and teachers presented above, both appeared to think that languages exist in isolation when it comes to spoken English.

They tended to believe that only English should be used, and that access to full linguistic repertoires and prior language knowledge causes problems. However, it may also reflect a concern that the students need to practice their spoken English as much as they can, and translanguaging does not help them to develop automaticity in the four English language skills, especially in speaking.

To sum up, in section 5.7.4, I presented both learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of using translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy. The students and teachers had a mix of perceptions and experiences of translanguaging. When the students and the teachers shared their opinions about translanguaging in their interviews, all 9 students and 9 teachers except Tina who believed there were both advantages and disadvantages of using translanguaging in their learning or teaching. Tina is the only one who only saw the problematic side of using translanguaging. The advantage of using translanguaging as a learning strategy includes it can provide effective scaffolding in asking questions, brainstorming, group discussions and English writing because translanguaging allows them to access their full linguistic repertoire and funds of knowledge. Whereas the teachers believed that using translanguaging as a teaching strategy is particularly helpful in explaining English grammar, giving instructions, and motivating students. These findings strongly resonate with Moore (2013), Cook (2001), Young (2014), and Storch and Wigglesworth (2003), who argue that L1 can be scaffolding in the second language learning. By way of contrast, the students' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of using translanguaging as a problematic learning/teaching strategy include translanguaging interferes with English learning, causes strong accents, and hinders English thinking.

5.7.5 English only approach

This section presents both learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of a current monolingual learning approach namely, using English only in English teaching and learning. Based on the second phase interview, I will present the main findings of both learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of using English exclusively. The sub-theme 'English only approach' emerges from the second phase interview inductively. It may not answer any RQs directly, but it provides an opportunity to my

participants to express their opinion if they do not think that the bi-/multilingual learning approaches are good ideas in their learning or teaching practice.

According to the second phase interview results, the students and teachers had various perceptions and experiences of using an English only approach in their English learning. First, 5 students believed that an English only approach is a good idea because it would be able to provide them with an authentic learning environment.

LP shared her opinion in her interview:

It is absolutely a good idea because there are many people who have this experience, for example if you study abroad for a year, then your English will improve a lot. You can learn vocabulary better and gain a better sense of the language. You know how to use the appropriate word in the right context. You are in the right environment, not like us, we only have one 40-minute English class per day, but half of the time is spent using Chinese. So, I can't learn English well (LP, 2019, translated).

Lesley shared similar views in her interview:

I like this idea because it provides us with a good language environment. English teachers have authority, so they can force us to speak English with them. I joined a summer camp in London one summer and my spoken English made huge progress. I was in a native-speaker environment, so I had no choice but to speak English. This experience helped me to make progress (Lesley, 2019, translated).

LP and Lesley's comments suggest that they believe using English only in English classes could provide them with a better environment to use English to improve their communication skills, especially in an EFL context like China.

Tina is the only teacher who agreed with these 5 students that using English only in English classes is a good idea. She claimed in her interview that she tries her best to use English only in her classes:

I prefer to use English only in English classes, I try my best to use English only in my English classes. As I said, it is very important to create an English environment

for our students. We can use body language or exaggerating facial expression to communicate with our students (Tina, translated, 2019).

When Tina was asked how she check her students' understanding, she said:

Elaboration is the most important thing in our teaching because sometimes it is impossible for students to comprehend some abstract concepts. But through elaboration they should be able to understand, and this is a very important process for them too (Tina, translated, 2019).

Tina's view is mainly influenced by the monolingual view of language teaching, which argues that only one language should be used in language teaching (Grosjean, 2010).

Second, 4 of the students interviewed expressed a lack of confidence about using English only in English classes. Leo shared his concerns in his interview that:

My English is not good enough, so I might be completely lost in English only classes and I don't think I can learn grammar or vocabulary without the help of Chinese (Leo, 2019, translated).

Larry escalated this point further as she worried about missing important content in English only English classes and that this would lead to her failure in English exams:

I don't think it [using English only in English classes] is a good idea, it is a big challenge for me, because I haven't experienced it before. I don't think my English teacher wants to slow down because she has to catch up with her teaching progress. So, I would be concerned that I might be lost in English classes. I would also worry about my understanding; I probably would not understand any of the grammar points. If I couldn't follow my teacher then I would miss the whole class. So, I don't think it is a good idea because I have to pass the exams. After all, our English learning is all about passing exams (Larry, 2019, translated).

Larry and Leo's comments further reveal that Chinese is considered as a principal form of scaffolding for understanding by many of the learner participants. Moreover, this finding also indicates that using English only in English classes is not beneficial for learning the forms of the language. The finding is consistent with what I presented

in section 5.7.3.1, namely that many learner participants believed translation is an effective learning strategy for aiding understanding and learning grammar and vocabulary.

The majority of teachers are much more cautious about the idea of using English only in English classes. In their interviews, all teachers apart from Tina overwhelmingly questioned the idea of using English only in English classes. As was the case with the students, the most worrying thing for teachers was that students would struggle with understanding English only English classes. The last thing they want is for their students to end up confused. Looking back on her teaching experience, Toya shared an analogy in her interview:

Personally, I don't think it is a good idea, and I don't think it can be adopted successfully on a national scale. It would be like pushing your students into deep water and telling them they have to survive. So, you [the students] have to force yourself to think in English, you [the students] have to deal with everything in English. But this is very difficult, so we can't push our students into the deep water. We can only lead them to the deep water, but if they say no this is too deep, I am afraid, then we need to give them some help (Toya, 2019, translated).

Tinsley shared a similar view in her interview:

I think it [using English only in English classes] is a challenge for most of my students. I mean some students might lose their confidence in English only classes. I think we need to use everything such as Mandarin, translation, pictures, PPT slides, you name it, to support our students rather than leaving them in a helpless situation. This is against my professional principles. (Tinsley, 2019, translated).

Toya and Tinsley believed that using English only in English classes might leave their students in a difficult situation, and that it does not make any educational sense to keep teachers' and students' prior knowledge away from the classroom (Young, 2014).

Moreover, three teachers also mentioned in their interviews that the idea of using English only would be a great challenge for many English teachers due to various reasons. Treena pointed out using English only in English classes challenges English teachers' spoken English ability as well as the squashed curriculum:

It is good news for the students who study in state schools because they can have more English input. But I think it is a challenge for state school English teachers because our curriculum is very tight. I believe if I take my time and speak slowly in simple English, my students would be able to understand in English. The problem is that I don't have that much time to be able to do so, I only have 40 mins for every teaching session, and I have to finish listening and speaking practice, grammar, reading and writing practice as well as vocabulary within 5 or 6 teaching sessions over the course of a week. I don't have time and Chinese can help me to speed up my teaching. In addition, teaching in English only also tests English teachers' abilities, because the teachers' English is also an important input for students. In my opinion, some of the English teachers in state schools, they are not able to speak English fluently and appropriately (Treena, 2019, translated).

Tracy echoed Treena's point and shared honestly with me in her interview:

I am a very experienced English teacher, but I think teaching in English only is too difficult for me, I am not confident enough to teach in English only. I can do instructions in English, but when it comes to abstract content, I would switch to Chinese spontaneously because I want to carry on my teaching. Our school has many experienced English teachers who are like me, they are all excellent English teachers, but I don't think they would be confident enough to teach in an English only approach. It would be like taking our crutches away, if we weren't allowed to use translation or Chinese in our teaching (Tracy, 2019, translated).

As I mentioned in section 5.7.2, Tracy is the head teacher at the participating school, and she has more than 20 years' teaching experience. Treena and Tracy's comments further reveal that English teachers tends to use translation and translanguaging as a pedagogical tool for different purposes as I presented in section 5.7.3.1 and section 5.7.4.1. The findings also provide further evidence that an English only approach might not be the most suitable teaching approach at senior secondary school level due to

Chinese students' and teachers' inadequate English proficiency (Jiang, Zhang, & May, 2019). As I mentioned section 2.1.2, the participating school is one of the provincial-level key schools in Guangdong which means they have the top students and the best equipped English teachers, but they still believe that the idea of using English only in English classes might be beyond their ability of teaching and learning English.

Third, 3 teachers raised the concern that using English only in their teaching would demotivate students. Reflecting on her own teaching experience, Taylor commented in her interview as follows:

I would say five years ago, I would say yes, English only is the way to do it. However, now that I have been teaching 5 years in China, I don't think that English only is the way to go. Because I think it just frustrates the students, if you're constantly saying English only, English only, please speak English, stop speaking in Chinese. You know I think after a while, in a way you just discourage the students because if they don't know the words, and they can't use translator and are not allowed to speak it, I think that kind of making them may be not interested anymore because they figured like I don't understand it so why bother? So, I would say my opinion is definitely changed, I don't think the English only is the way to go anymore. I really don't (Taylor, 2019).

Todd also shared his experience in his interview:

I used to use English only in my classes when I was a novice teacher. But I saw many of my students were doing their assignments in other subjects instead of following me and responding to me. Some students might shut themselves out because it is too difficult to them, and don't want to engage with the classes anymore (Todd, 2019, translated).

Fourth, 4 teachers believed that it is unrealistic to implement an English only policy in an exam-oriented context. Terri and Tracy, who teach in the participating school, both agreed that it is particularly difficult to make any big changes because as a provincial-level key school the main goal is to guarantee a certain percentage of students progressing to university. They were sceptical that parents would be happy to see any changes either. Terri and Tracy explained their opinions in their respective interviews:

I don't think English only is a good way of teaching. For example, as I said just now, when I teach grammar, it is definitely more effective and clearer in Chinese than in English. And it is difficult for key schools like our school to make any big changes. We are very conservative because we must guarantee a certain number of students to progress to universities. It is so risky to make changes, and the parents would not like to see any changes either (Terri, 2019, translated).

I don't think we can teach in English only and still guarantee the numbers of students to progress to university. For key schools like ours, it is more difficult to teach English only in English classes. Why do I say that? The parents trust us, they send their children to us because we have a very high percentage of students who progress to universities every single year. Our main task is to maintain this high rate. So, we don't want to change and take a risk. Lastly, if we make a change, but the exam system is still the same, we might disadvantage our students (Tracy, 2019, translated).

Furthermore, Theseus pointed out that an English only approach does not match with the exam-oriented context. He explained in his interview that:

It [the English only approach in English classes] is definitely a good method, but we have to take a lot of things into consideration. More specifically, for example, it is good for teaching some specific topics, let's say AI (Artificial Intelligence), where students may have more chances to engage in the classes, in the format of discussion, interaction or debates. This is good for students. But this is what we need for our students in China, we only want to improve students' scores in exams. Then, we probably exaggerate the benefits of using English only in English classes, especially with the exam-oriented background (Theseus, 2019, translated).

3 students also agreed that an English only approach does not fit with the exam-oriented learning context in China. The interview with Liang provides a further elaboration of this point:

In the Chinese system, for me, English is only a subject to learn and not a skill, so I have to understand vocabulary or grammar that might be included in the exams.

Then, Chinese and translation are helpful here because they help me to understand so that I can get a high score in my exams (Liang, 2019, translated).

LP echoed Liang's view in slightly different words:

English learning is all about exams, so my English teacher spends a lot of time on grammar and vocabulary because these are included in our exams. If we want to achieve high scores, using English only in English classes is meaningless, because spoken English is not tested (LP, 2019, translated).

These teachers' and students' perceptions indicate that the main purpose of teaching or learning English is to achieve high scores in English exams, so grasping the language knowledge necessary for in the exams is the priority for them in English teaching and learning. Thus, according to my participants, an English only approach is not compatible with the Chinese exam-oriented context.

Finally, it is worth noting that Theseus also stressed that using students' first language in English learning is everyone's right and a strict English only policy might impose a negative learning experience. He claimed in his interview:

Using one's mother tongue in English classes is a basic right. We as teachers can't force students to leave their mother tongues outside our classrooms. Technically, it's not realistic either, because their languages are just part of them. I had a very unpleasant experience with an English teacher who had a strict English only policy. Even now, I still feel guilty to use my mother tongues in my English learning or teaching. But one should not feel guilty about using their own languages (Theseus, 2019, translated).

Theseus recognises that language is part of his students' identity; his comment also reveals his empathetic understanding of his students' learning experience.

In summary, students and teachers had a mixed attitude on adopting an English only approach in their English learning and teaching. First, 5 students and 1 teacher (Tina) believed that using an English only approach in their English classes is a good idea because it can provide an authentic environment for students' English learning. However, the majority of teachers had a cautious attitude towards an English only

approach as they believed it can be a challenge for both students and English teachers. 4 students also agreed that they are not confident enough to learn English in English only classes. Moreover, 3 teachers considered that an English only approach might demotivate their students especially whose English is less proficient. Finally, 4 teachers and 3 students pointed out that English only approach does not fit in the exam-oriented context in China.

5.8 Summary

In this chapter, I have presented the main findings of my study to address the three research questions. First, in relation to the sub-RQ1 (what are teachers' and learners' perceptions of monolingual expectation and personal and societal bi-/multilingualism in the school? Is there a discrepancy between these?), based on the first phase survey results, 41 language varieties were identified among 306 learner participants, and 10 language varieties among 15 teacher participants. Thus, my participants could be described as a super multilingual group. In addition, according to the first phase survey results, a majority of the learners and teachers agreed that they were encouraged to speak Mandarin in the school. Therefore, the findings indicate that both learner and teacher participants were aware of the monolingual expectation of Mandarin only being encouraged in their school. Moreover, the findings also suggest there is a discrepancy between the monolingual expectation and the multilingual reality.

Second, to address the sub-RQ2 (What are teachers' and learners' perceptions of language awareness?), based on the first phase survey results, 30 language varieties were identified among the learner participants, and 7 language varieties were identified among the teacher participants in the affective domain. In terms of the main learner perceptions of language awareness in the affective domain, the data firstly showed that dialects were widely used at home with family members and were described as 'family language'. Secondly, the learner participants showed strong enthusiasm for exploring or learning foreign languages in their spare time. Finally, the learner participants also demonstrated a strong sense of identity in relation to their dialects. The findings from my analysis of teachers' perceptions of language awareness in the affective domain also demonstrated the idea of associating dialects with family language and revealed a strong interest in learning foreign languages.

With regard to the power domain, according to the first phase survey results, only Mandarin and English were identified in this domain among both learner and teacher participants. Both learners and teachers overwhelmingly agreed that Mandarin has a higher social and educational status in their school. In terms of the social domain, according to the first phase survey results, 14 language varieties were identified among the learner participants, and 3 language varieties were identified among the teacher participants. Most of the learners and teachers agreed that they heard different languages and dialects spoken in their school. Moreover, a small proportion of students demonstrated their ability to use language flexibly for communication and social purposes. Finally, in relation to the cognitive domain, 6 language varieties and 2 language varieties were identified among the learner and teacher participants respectively. In addition, a small proportion of the learner sample demonstrated that they have metalinguistic awareness in the cognitive domain.

Third, to answer the sub-RQ3 (What are teachers' and learners' perceptions and experiences of current bi-/multilingual learning approaches namely translation and translanguaging in a Chinese context?), based on the analysis of both the first phase survey and the second phase interview results, both learner and teacher participants strongly agreed that translation as an EFL pedagogy is helpful in their learning and teaching, especially to establish meaning, check understanding, and acquire grammar and vocabulary. However, a small number of learner and teacher participants considered that using translation as an EFL pedagogy caused problems including non-standard English use, inaccuracy, dependency on Chinese and hindering English thinking.

Finally, based on the analysis of both the first phase survey and the second phase interview results, the teachers and learners had mixed perceptions and experiences of using translanguaging as a teaching/learning strategy. About half of the students believed that translanguaging as a learning strategy is helpful in brainstorming, group discussion and English writing. Whereas, over half of the teachers thought that translanguaging as a teaching strategy is helpful in explaining English grammar, giving instructions, and motivating students. On the other hand, the other half of the students and less than half of the teachers considered using translanguaging to be

problematic because it interferes with English learning, causes strong accents, and hinders English thinking.

In the next chapter, I will discuss the key findings, comparing these with the wider literature and current research studies, as well as discussing these in relation to the context I presented in chapter 2.

6. Discussion

In this chapter, the key findings about the three research questions will be discussed with reference to the relevant literature and current research studies. I will discuss the key findings in terms of both teachers' and learners' perceptions of monolingual expectations and the multilingual reality in their school, their perceptions of their personal linguistic repertoire, their perceptions of language awareness in the four domains as I presented in the last chapter, as well as their perceptions and experiences of the current bi-/multilingual learning approaches namely translation and translanguaging.

In terms of the structure of this chapter, I will discuss both learners' and teachers' perceptions of monolingual expectations and the multilingual reality in their school in section 6.1. Their perceptions of language awareness in the four domains will be discussed in section 6.2. These two sections fully answer sub-RQ1 and 2, and partially answer sub-RQ3. In section 6.3, I will discuss both learners' and teachers' their perceptions and experiences of using translation as an EFL pedagogy and using translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy. This section is a supplement to sub-RQ3. In addition, as I mentioned in section 5.1, the first phase survey findings fully address sub-RQ1 and 2, and partially sub-RQ3, whereas the second phase interview findings address sub-RQ3 in a deeper and richer way to complement the findings from the first phase survey. Therefore, the discussions in section 6.1 and 6.2 are mostly based on the findings of the first phase survey, whereas the discussions in section 6.3 are based on the findings of both phases.

6.1 Multilingual Reality and Monolingual expectation

Richards and Schmidt (2010, p. 238) define multilingualism as 'the use of three or more languages by an individual... or by a group of speakers such as the inhabitants of a particular region or a nation'. According to the first phase survey results, 41 language varieties were identified among 306 learner participants, and 10 language varieties among 15 teacher participants. Therefore, my findings demonstrate that there is a multilingual reality in the participating school. However, as I discussed in the context chapter, the central government has been promoting Mandarin as the official language since 1959 (Gao, 2012; Hu, 2002). Furthermore, Mandarin further

strengthened its primary position in 2001 nationwide (Hu, 2002), and in 2010 specifically in Guangdong Province (Gao, 2012). Also, according to the findings, I presented in section 5.5.2, Mandarin and English have a superior status in the participating school despite 60.1% of students and 73.3% of teachers reporting that they know at least one dialect apart from Mandarin in their linguistic repertoires. Clearly, there is a discrepancy between the multilingual reality and the monolingual expectation in the participating school.

6.2 Multilingual Reality and Language Awareness

Based on the first phase survey results, both the learner and the teacher participants had various perceptions of language awareness. In this section, I will discuss their perceptions of language awareness in terms of the four domains.

6.2.1 Language and identity

First, in the affective domain, according to the qualitative comments in the first phase survey, 17 different dialects were described as ‘family language’ by 68% of learner participants and 30% of teacher participants in the affective domain. This finding illustrates that for some students and teachers in China dialects can be a medium for sustaining family bonds and declaring individual identities. However, 32% of learner and 70% of teacher participants did not make this connection explicitly. This finding strongly resonates with Young (2014), who suggests that language is a crucial part of an individual’s identity, thus the home language can generate bonding among close family members, but not all may be aware of this, or may want to mention this. My finding further elaborates Young’s (2014) conclusion that dialects can also be active bonding languages among close family members in more than half of the learner participants. This finding also echoes a more general trend among the younger generation in south China, as observed by Lai (2011) and Wang and Ladegaard (2008), which demonstrates that young people’s loyalty to their diverse regional dialects seems to continue to be of importance, at least among my sample. As I could not locate any studies that examined whether this phenomenon can also be observed in other parts of China, I cannot say that this is specific to south China.

Second, as I reported in section 5.5.1, based on the first phase survey results, a strong identification with Cantonese and Hakka has been revealed among a small number of

the learner participants in my findings. Pennycook (2003) suggests that identity is performed by using different languages. As I presented in section 5.5.1, Hakka is one of the ethnic minorities in China with its own language and culture, and about 60% of Hakka people lives in Guangdong (National Bureau of Statistics, 2013). In my learner participants' sample, about 10% of students reported that they are Hakka people who live in Guangdong, and Hakka appeared as part of their linguistic repertoires in their survey responses. In their survey comments, more than half of the Hakka students expressed their desire to maintain a Hakka identity. This finding strongly resonates with Liu and Edwards' (2017) results that Yi students in a trilingual education programme in China demonstrated a strong sense of ethnic identity. The Yi are also one of the ethnic minorities in China with their own language and culture, but most Yi live in the west of China (Liu & Edwards, 2017). However, a large proportion of the learner participants in my study did not seem to associate their dialects with the affective domain. Thus, we need to look to the qualitative part to illuminate this finding.

Moreover, as regards the majority group, according to the first phase survey results, a small proportion of the learner participants expressed the view that they wanted to revitalise Cantonese because they themselves are Cantonese. It is clear that, for some, language is an emotive subject in the Chinese context, as a series of demonstrations organised by the 'Protecting Cantonese Movement' took place in Guangzhou in July 2010 (Gao, 2012). This 'movement' was a response to a proposal submitted by the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference to the local Guangzhou government. It proposed switching Cantonese to Mandarin on local media (including television channels and radios). The aim of the proposal was to improve the sociocultural environment for both domestic and international visitors to the Asian Games, a major international sports event that took place in 2010 (Gao, 2012). For the campaigners, the 'Protecting Cantonese Movement' might be a significant point of the Cantonese fear of losing their local dialects as a regional lingua franca inside Guangdong province (Gao, 2012). As can be seen from the findings I presented in section 5.5.1, the qualitative findings showed that learner participant no. 150 was in favour of 'revitalising Cantonese'. However, although this voice seems to exemplify the wish to increase the use of the local dialect in south China, it should be remembered that this was the only explicit comment regarding this in my sample. Others may be happy to use their dialects for private purposes only and may not see

the need for making Cantonese a language for public and/or official use. Based on my study and existing research we cannot draw firm conclusions in this regard.

There may be a fear that Cantonese is losing ground, as, when I informally talked to parents in the participating school, some of them lamented that their children were losing the ability to speak Cantonese. The schools and the local government have been discouraging the use of Cantonese since 2010 (Gao, 2012). Thus, it seems that some children have stopped making the effort to use Cantonese because they think it is useless for their daily life.

Along the same lines, some of the parents who I informally talked to in the participating school supported their children learning to speak standard Mandarin well as this is a sign of being well educated. Interestingly, none of the learner participants mentioned that Mandarin is a sign of being well educated. As is becoming clear, Mandarin promotion has been a controversial issue in Guangdong province for the last 50 years or so since the central government decided to promote Mandarin nationwide. I can also see the conflict between prioritising Cantonese or Mandarin in my findings. As mentioned above, some of the learner participants would believe Cantonese is part of their identity, as they show a strong desire to protect their own identity for which Cantonese is fundamental. On the other hand, some of the learner participants considered Mandarin as the official language which they should use in a formal context like school. However, this is not necessarily a contradiction, as in theory the two can exist side by side. Finally, learner participants who speak any other dialects did not explicitly express that they wanted to preserve their local dialects or otherwise in my findings. However, while the Hakka group and the Cantonese group demonstrate an awareness of the need to use (and to some extent also to protect) their languages, many accept Mandarin as a language for education and professional opportunities and as a lingua franca for communication in China more widely. I will discuss this in section 6.2.3.

6.2.2 Learners' interests in Japanese language and culture

The most noteworthy finding emerging from the affective domain is that a significant amount of learner participants are passionate about foreign languages in their time outside school. According to the first phase survey results, 59% of learner participants expressed their enthusiasm for exploring foreign languages in their spare time. The qualitative comments in the first phase survey indicate that French, Spanish, Japanese and Korean are very popular among my student sample.

In addition, it is interesting to see that, according to the qualitative comments in the first phase survey, Japanese pop music, Manga, and TV dramas were enthusiastically followed by 41% of learner participants, echoing the findings of a recent research in Gao and Lv (2018). However, over half of the learner participants did not mention Japanese in their survey. Perhaps we need to see this finding in the Chinese context. After the Second Sino-Japanese war, the diplomatic relationships between China and Japan were normalised in 1972, and this led to a long period of rapprochement until the 1980s. Unfortunately, the rapprochement was interrupted by historical issues and island disputes in the 1990s (Gao & Lv, 2018; Reilly, 2014). In the new millennium, diplomatic tensions between China and Japan were rising due to more conflicts between these two countries, such as the Japanese government leaders' visit to the Yasukuni Shrine and the disputed islands in the East China Sea. As a result, there were a succession of anti-Japanese protests in 24 different cities in China in 2005 (Gao & Lv, 2018; Reilly, 2014). Moreover, what some might refer to as anti-Japanese propaganda has been promoted in China by the media and social media. More than 150 series about the Sino-Japanese War were produced and released between 1949 and 2005, with 20 being produced in 2005 alone (Lin, 2013a). At the government level, China has been advocating patriotic education since 1989, and in this patriotic education, Sino-Japanese conflicts are emphasised to cultivate Chinese patriotism (Gao & Lv, 2018; Tang & Darr, 2012; Zhao, 1998).

However, on the other hand, after the Chinese government introduced the market-oriented policy into the economy in the 1980s, many Japanese films, TV dramas, and Manga, as well as much Japanese pop music were introduced in China and were enthusiastically received by millions of Chinese (Gao & Lv, 2018). These Japanese pop music and Manga were important part of the collective memory of my own

generation. My findings indicate that some of the learner participants are less affected by anti-Japanese propaganda and patriotic education. They also have fewer stereotypes in relation to Japanese people and culture. Humphreys and Miyazoe-Wong (2007) also suggest that Japanese language learners in Hong Kong were very interested in Japanese popular culture and the political issues between two countries had no obvious impact on their affection for Japanese language and culture.

This is a positive characteristic among the younger generation and could perhaps help promote a better understanding of intercultural awareness and provide a basis for cultivating a friendlier relationship between Japan and China in the future. Research suggests that learning a foreign language can develop a foundation of mutual intercultural understanding, as well as an appreciation of the target language speakers' community (Gao & Lv, 2018; Holmes, 2014; Humphreys & Miyazoe-Wong, 2007). Gao and Lv (2018) interviewed 38 Chinese university students who are studying Japanese as a foreign language. In their research, the participants demonstrated that they gained new insight and new understanding, as well as a new window being opened for them by learning Japanese. All of this enabled them to adjust their perspectives on Japanese culture and on Japan as a nation.

The reasons why the younger generation is less affected by the patriotic education and anti-Japanese propaganda is beyond my research scope. However, Yan (2010) argues that the pursuit of individual happiness and taking individual decisions are crucial for the younger generation. Individualism has been outweighing collectivism since the Chinese government introduced market-oriented principles for the purpose of developing the economy in the 1980s. My findings echo the idea that the younger generation has been encouraged to pursue their own interests. Further research on the motivation for learning Japanese as a foreign language is needed; such research will be vital for developing a sustainable and peaceful relationship between the two countries.

6.2.3 Mandarin is our mother tongue

Tan (2014) defines the concept of 'mother tongue' as the language that represents one's heritage or culture and one's self. As I discussed in section 6.2.1, a small number of students expressed their wish to increase the use of local dialects (e.g. Cantonese and Hakka) in south China. However, according to the first phase survey results, my finding indicates that the national policy of popularising the Beijing variety of Mandarin as a lingua franca has to some extent achieved its aims among both the learner and teacher participants in my study. Surprisingly, 78.8% of learner participants and 93.3% of teacher participants overwhelmingly considered Mandarin as their mother tongue. This might suggest that Mandarin will indeed gradually become the dominant language for younger generation although it should be remembered that the Chinese Constitution still emphasises that other language varieties and the languages and customs of ethnic minorities have equal status with Mandarin (Gong, Chow, & Ahlstrom, 2011; Iredale, Bilik, Su, Guo, & Hoy, 2001).

My finding resonates with Gao's study in that the status of Mandarin has been further reinforced as it is promoted and taught as the only official language in school settings (Gao, 2012; Gao, Leung, & Trent, 2010). Schools can be the key agents that help promote Mandarin in practice (Gao, 2015). The finding also shows that not all learners accept this uncritically. It also raises the concern that the current promotion of Mandarin as a national language policy might undermine language diversity and cultural heritage for further generations. This demonstrates that language policy is ideologically fraught, as people may have different opinions on whether a single language is necessary to unite a nation, or whether respecting linguistic diversity, or a combination of both may be conducive to bring about unity.

Gong et al. (2011) reported that dialects are still spoken by many Chinese as their first language, especially on the street, with families and in factories. Dialects are also used as trading languages in East Asia, especially in the southern coastal regions of China, such as Guangdong. However, my findings suggest that in the Guangdong school examined, Mandarin is widely recognised and used as an official language among young people in south China, and that there is a large consensus that Mandarin is also a formal language in education settings (in both schools and classes). Gao (2012) suggests that netizens in Guangdong province contended Cantonese is not a dialect

but a language, and that Cantonese is the mother tongue of people in Guangdong province as well as its neighbouring province (adjoining areas of Guangxi Province). However, my findings seem to suggest otherwise, as the learner participants largely believe Cantonese to be a dialect rather than a language. It is worth pointing out that my finding is based on self-reported data, and my study was conducted in a school context unlike Gao's study that included adult internet users. Thus, my findings show that debates about whether a language variety is deemed a language or dialect is contextual and political, and as in other contexts, related to power struggles between language policy makers and different groups who use the language, as will be seen in the following.

Moreover, my finding in the power domain also demonstrates that state policy has an influential impact on the language use of individuals (Gao, 2009; Gao, 2012; Murakawa, 2018; Trudell, 2010). Bourdieu (1991) argues that language can also be symbolic of power. The government policy plays an important role in promoting the dominant language as an official language and suppressing other language varieties to a subordinate status (Gao, 2009; Gao, 2012; Gong et al., 2011; Trudell, 2010). As I mentioned in the context chapter, Mandarin has developed based on the Beijing dialect because Beijing has been the political, economic, and cultural centre of China since the Yuan dynasty (the year of 1271). For more than 700 years, Beijing has been empowered with a special political status (Li, 2006).

It is understandable that the Chinese central government promotes Mandarin nationally to enable people to communicate with each other from different regions. As mentioned in my introduction, there are 299 language varieties in China (Ethnologue, 2017). Most of these dialects are different enough from one other to be mutually unintelligible. Therefore, a national official language is perceived to be needed for communication in China. Moreover, according to my survey findings, school is a place where Mandarin can be promoted in practice. Similarly, a standard language (which is Mandarin) in this case can also make communication among students/teachers with different language backgrounds easier in this smaller community. According to the Treatise on the Han Standard Language (论汉族标准语) (Wang, 2000), a standardised national language is a significant symbol of national unity, and it is also important for the younger Chinese generation to cultivate a shared sense of national cultural values.

The question that arises is whether a national lingua franca, with all its merits, can exist besides other languages, such as English as a global lingua franca, and regional dialects, and what role schools ought to play in promoting individual linguistic repertoires. In this respect parents in my study seem to have a clear answer.

Most of the parents I informally talked to in the participating school, overwhelmingly believed that Mandarin is not only a sign of the being well-educated, but they also seemed to believe that young people cannot be proficient users of Mandarin if they also speak a dialect, thus adhering to a monolingual understanding in some way. A monolingual understanding tends to believe that one language should be learnt exclusively as two languages can negatively influence each other, and learners need to expose themselves as much as possible to the official language in order to achieve a high proficiency in that language (Lasagabaster & García, 2014). However, the younger generation seems to be aware that they can use both Mandarin and their dialects flexibly depending on the social situation, and this suggests an underlying multilingual understanding of language learning (Li & Zhu, 2013). While these latter two publications looked at migrants in the USA and in the UK, it is interesting to note that many learner participants in my study indicate that it is possible to juggle dialects and the national lingua franca, while they develop English as a global lingua franca at the same time. I will discuss this point further in section 6.2.5.

6.2.4 Diversity and multilingualism

Based on the first phase survey results, I can see that Chinese language policy emphasises the importance of Mandarin and English in educational contexts, and there is no doubt that existing language policy has a significant influence on every single student. This policy seems to suggest that English is not a threat to achieving high-level Mandarin. Thus, there are a few points I will discuss here regarding to language policy, diversity and multilingualism.

First, based on my findings in relation to language awareness in the power domain, Mandarin and English are viewed as superior to other language varieties in school settings by 79% of the learner participants. Other language varieties seem not to stand on an equal footing under current language policy, and this is reflected in popular beliefs, in schools which leads to China often being misunderstood as a monolingual

country; clearly this depends on how 'a monolingual country' is defined. Second, based on the qualitative comments from the students in first phase, other language varieties, such as local dialects, are not normally used as resources for learning in schools either. It undoubtedly indicates that the existing language policy in Chinese school settings involves adhering to a monolingual understanding, as suggested by Hu and McKay (2014). This is based on a hierarchy among languages and either one single language or certain languages have been given high status (Murakawa, 2018). Blommaert, Collins, and Slembrouck (2005, p. 213) argue that 'Multilingualism is not what individuals have or lack, but what the environment, as structured determination and interactional emergence, enables and disables them to deploy'. The findings from my study demonstrate that the participating school does not provide students with an environment where they can use their linguistic repertoire as resources for learning and teaching purposes. In addition, the findings from my study also indicate that current language policy and the language education system in China do not encourage students and parents to invest extra effort in learning languages apart from Mandarin and English. The language varieties which students are passionate about are not taken into consideration in current language policy or in the education system. As shown in section 5.3 and section 5.7.1, some learners manifested highly complex and diverse language learning behaviour, however, language skills beyond Mandarin and English are neither recognised nor celebrated in the participating school.

Last but not least, Chinese policymakers argue that strengthening the importance of Mandarin as a national lingua franca does not intend to 'wipe out all dialects artificially' but to 'reduce the scope of dialect use progressively' (Guo, 2004, p. 46). Some authors interpret this as the central government having no intention to eliminate dialects (Guo, 2004). However, my findings reveal that some learners in the participating school are afraid that dialects and other language varieties might disappear in school contexts when only certain languages have been recognised by those in authority. Moreover, my findings also make visible the controversies around languages and national unity, and how dialects may be seen as an obstacle to acquiring a high-level in Mandarin, whereas English is not seen as such an obstacle. There is a need and challenge for policymakers to acknowledge linguistic variety and make use of it in practice.

6.2.5 Flexible language usage for social purposes

After discussing the key findings in the affective and the power domains, in this section, I will discuss the key findings in the social domain of language awareness. According to the quantitative findings that I presented in section 5.4, the majority of students (81.1%) agreed that they are glad if they find friends who share the same dialects with them at school. Moreover, as I presented in section 5.5.3, the first phase qualitative comments show that Cantonese and other regional dialects are particularly important in young people's social lives. Many learner participants tended to use their dialects in various contexts via multiple social platforms. It seems that dialects play an important role for building up social relationships among young people in my study. First, about one-third of the learner participants reported in their survey that they can use their linguistic repertoire flexibly depending on different contexts and different social purposes. In addition, a small percentage of students were aware that Cantonese is not the only language that exists in the school context. Finally, a small number of learner participants expressed their desire to learn Cantonese to make local friends. I will discuss these three points in this section.

First, my finding in the social domain provides an insight into language usage in young people's social lives. Based on the first phase survey results, it is worth highlighting that one-third of the learner participants demonstrated their ability to use language flexibly in their social life for different social purposes and in different contexts. Moving spontaneously between their dialects, Mandarin and English seems natural for about a third of the learner participants in my student sample. However, most of the learner participants did not relate their linguistic repertoire to their social life explicitly in their survey comments. This finding echoes Li and Zhu's (2013) research on Chinese students who study in the UK and who also demonstrate flexible and clear control over their linguistic repertoire, but Li and Zhu's (2013) study tends to understand this phenomenon from a translanguaging perspective. However, the ability to use languages flexibly is neither recognised nor encouraged in the participating school.

Second, 13 learner participants reported in the survey that they chose to use Mandarin as a lingua franca to communicate with everyone in the school as they realised the linguistic diversity in the participating school. This finding reveals that a few of my

learner participants have an awareness of linguistic variety and show their linguistic tolerance. Fleming (2019) argues that linguistic tolerance is a great asset for social integration.

Finally, it is noteworthy that 16 learner participants who come from migrant families clearly expressed their desire in the survey of learning Cantonese to fit in with local students despite their Cantonese not being standard. Gao, Lai, and Halse (2019) argue that identity and a sense of belonging are equally important to young people. My finding echo the results of Gao et al. (2019) that the youth tend to put their sense of belonging and social participation as a top priority to achieve social cohesion. Furthermore, this finding also reveals that these 16 learner participants in the survey who are from immigrant families are eager to merge into the local mainstream society by learning the hosts' language. It was British sociologist David Lockwood who first coined the term social integration to describe the strength of relationship between individuals in a society (Lockwood, 1964). Archer (1996) points out that social integration can contain both harmony and conflict despite the use of the word integration in the term. The finding based on 306 learner participants' surveys does not indicate any obvious elements of conflict in relation to social integration within the community under consideration.

This finding also underlines how this small proportion of students in my sample from minority immigrant groups switch their language usage for as part of their effort to integrate into mainstream society and gain a sense of belonging within the local community. This may reflect general attitudes towards migrant groups, as immigrant groups in every Chinese province tend to be automatically labelled as 'outsiders' (Dong, 2009; Gao, 2012; Gong et al., 2011). My finding further reveals that these 16 learner participants felt that the dialects and culture they bring into the participating school are being neglected. It seems that it has been taken for granted that immigrant students should not bring their unique language varieties and culture to school, and integration means immigrant students imitating local students so that they will fit in better at school. Pastor (2009) refers to this as 'assimilation', a concept that considers different language varieties and culture as problems. As I mentioned in the context chapter, from the late 1990s Guangdong province became the most popular

destination to move to within China (Lin, 2020). Thus, great numbers of families migrate to Guangdong province with their children from other parts of China.

For a small number of the students in my study there seems to be a tension between the monolingual Mandarin school policy, the general attitude of societies to see immigrants as 'outsiders' and the desire of immigrant young people to belong to the local Cantonese-speaking community and their feeling that their linguistic repertoires are not recognised. On the other hand, the majority of the students did not indicate any link between their linguistic repertoires and the social domain of language awareness. They might be from the local Cantonese families, so the conflicts mentioned above may not play a big role in their life as they speak Cantonese and Mandarin and are learning English at school. They are likely to have a sense of belonging to the local community and the school community. Thus, one of the main implications of my findings is that the relevant authorities in Guangdong should take this opportunity to reconsider the value of different languages as a resource for enriching language policy and the education system. I will return to this point in my conclusion (section 7.3). Social integration should not be only about individual efforts and would never happen in a vacuum (Gao et al., 2019). Finally, immigration or globalisation in a wider global context not only has an influential impact on mainstream society but also influences minority communities, however, such influence has usually been neglected by researchers and policy makers (Li & Martin, 2009; McNamara, 2011).

6.2.6 Language learning strategies of bi-/multilingual learners

Kemp (2007) and Dmitrenko (2017) argue that bi-/multilingual learners are more likely to apply learning strategies that go beyond one language, based on metalinguistic awareness (Jessner, 1999). As I presented in section 5.4, according to the quantitative findings in the first phase survey, most of the learner and teacher participants agreed that they were aware of the differences between English and Chinese in terms of the forms and the functions of these two languages. In addition, most of the teachers agreed that they would remind their students of these differences in their teaching. Moreover, based on the first phase survey qualitative comments, a small number of students demonstrated that they have metalinguistic awareness and that they consciously use a learning strategy involving more than one language to improve their writing or reading skills in both Chinese and English – results that tally with the findings of Dmitrenko (2017).

However, the majority of the student sample in my study did not explicitly show their language awareness in relation to language learning strategies in their survey comments. As I mentioned in section 5.5.4, based on my own learning and teaching experience, English teachers are often too busy to teach learning strategies in the tightly packed curriculum. Interestingly, as I mentioned in section 2.2.3, the new ECS (English Curriculum Standards) has guidance on teaching learning strategies. The learning strategies advocated by the new ECS seem to be based on a monolingual ideology which focuses solely on English. Thus, any learning strategy involving more than one language might not be taught or encouraged in the participating school and in the regions where the new ECS applies. However, as my quantitative findings show, there is a potential that the bi-/multilingual learners could spontaneously notice the similarities and the differences between different languages. My study was not specifically about strategy development or instruction, nevertheless language learning and multilingual strategies from part of language awareness. I will return to this in section 6.3.1 in which I discuss translation as a language learning strategy.

6.3 Learners' and Teachers' Perceptions and Experiences of Current Bi-/multilingual Learning Approaches

Having discussed the key findings of both learners' and teachers' perceptions of their linguistic repertoires and language awareness in the last section. In this section, I will discuss the key findings of both learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of the current bi-/multilingual learning approaches, namely translation and translanguaging.

6.3.1 Translation as an EFL pedagogy understood as scaffolding

Based on the first phase survey and the second phase interview findings, several key findings emerged about the learners' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of using translation as an EFL pedagogy. First of all, my findings show that translation is perceived as a predominant EFL pedagogy by the majority of my learner and teacher participants. This finding is in line with Hu (2002), Zhou and Niu (2015) and Anderson (1993). To be specific, my findings elicited from the learners' perspective echo the findings of Carreres and Noriega-Sanchez (2011) and Kelly and Bruen (2015) that translation is considered as one of the important learning methods that facilitate English learning. Furthermore, previous studies of translation used as an EFL pedagogy have indicated that language learners at different levels might learn grammar from sentence level or word level translation (Korosec, 2013; Lee, Schallert, & Kim, 2015; Malloy, 2001; Marlein, 2009). My findings support this view too: more than half of the learner participants in my study indicated that they benefited from translation in understanding complex grammar structures because they believed that translation helped them to understand grammar in context. Indeed, teachers believed translation between Chinese and English is a reliable method of building up students' English vocabulary. This finding is consistent with those of Kelly and Bruen (2015) in an Irish higher education institution. Furthermore, my findings support the argument that translation can be used as an explicit language learning and teaching strategy as suggested by González-Davies (2017), a strategy which learners and teachers seemed to use unconsciously as I discussed in section 6.2.6.

Apart from grammar and vocabulary, the findings from learner participants also generally agree that translation aids in reading. My finding is consistent with Kern

(1994) and Lee et al. (2015) that translation is inevitably used inside language learners' mind as scaffolding for understanding texts in the target language. Kern (1994) deems that translation used for reading purposes is particularly helpful for learners at beginner level. My findings add to Kern's study that translation facilitates learning in higher level language learners too. Moreover, both students and teachers overwhelmingly considered that translation is particularly helpful in establishing meaning and in checking understanding, as translation enables them to access Chinese as a reference.

To sum up, according to both the learner and the teacher participants, translation as an EFL pedagogy is also considered effective in the exam-oriented context of China, as grammar knowledge, vocabulary and reading are the three most important elements in the senior secondary level English exams (Li & Baldauf, 2011).

6.3.2 Translation as an EFL Pedagogy Understood as a Problem

There are also some key problems with using translation as a pedagogical tool that emerged in my findings from both learners' and teachers' perspectives. Based on the first phase survey and the second phase interview findings, both students and teachers considered that using translation as an EFL pedagogy causes non-standard English. Every single learner and teacher participant referred to this non-standard English as 'Chinglish' in their interviews. As Treena pointed out in her interview, Chinese and English can be very different in terms of syntax. Students often produce some un-idiomatic English sentences by translating directly from Chinese. This finding is supported by Schjoldager's (2003) study that translation might lead to more errors in L2 learning. Likewise, Lado (1964) believes that using translation in language learning encourages a word level translation from L1 to L2 which results in an imperfect and un-idiomatic L2 sentence. Translation used as an EFL pedagogical tool has been accused for decades of causing language learners to be heavily influenced by their L1 in the process of translation (Kelly & Bruen, 2015). However, recent developments have demonstrated a renewed interest in the use of translation as a language learning tool (González-Davies, 2017; González-Davies, 2020; Wilson & González-Davies, 2017).

Of course, it is important to develop English skills that are understandable in an international context. As I mentioned in section 2.2.3, the new ECS in China suggests that English teachers should guide students to practise their English in terms of phonetics, vocabulary, grammar and writing to achieve a standard English level. However, the concept of 'a standard English level' is a blanket term, and the ECS does not clarify how they define this term.

With the growth of ELF (English as Lingua Franca), rather than standard or native English varieties as a goal in English education, English has become reconceptualised as the major language of international communication (Kirkpatrick, 2006). As a result, it is widely agreed nowadays that there are more second language speakers of English than native speakers of English (Cook, 2010; Crystal, 2018; Hu & McKay, 2014). Many scholars argue that there are varieties of English used all over the world (Kirkpatrick, 2006; Lee & Lee, 2019; McKay, 2002) sometimes referred to as World Englishes (Jenkins, 2006). All varieties of English should be equally qualified as Standard English as they are all completely systematic and organised by a set of rules (McKay, 2002). Thus, I am not alone in questioning the general concept of standard English. I would argue that English education in China needs to consider the development of the current English as Lingua Franca tendency and start to ask why Chinese learners of English should aim for a standard English goal.

Furthermore, some teachers expressed the concern that using translation as a pedagogical tool prevents students from developing fluency in spoken English. Cook (2010) points out that many scholars condemn translation as an EFL pedagogical tool as it is assumed to lead to too much interference from students' L1, thus preventing students from developing fluency in the target language. Spoken English is about using the language, whereas learning vocabulary and grammar is about learning the language. These are different things. As I discussed in the last section, most of the students and teachers in my study believed that translation is helpful in *learning* the language but is not helpful in *using* the language. However, as Todd and Treena reflected on their own teaching experience in their interviews, they raised the possibility that the exam-oriented context might have influenced the teaching methods they used. Spoken English accounts for a very small proportion of the NCEE (National College Entrance Examination): it only makes up 1% of the whole English examination

in Guangdong. Vocabulary and grammar are still the most important elements in the NCEE although the new ECS claims that language knowledge is only one dimension of the six core dimensions of the teaching syllabuses (see section 2.2.3). Therefore, the assumption that 'Chinglish' is the result of too much translation may be spurious, as there is a possibility that limited opportunity to develop communicative skills may be equally responsible, at least in the schools that prepare learners to take the NCEE.

There appears to be a gap between curriculum goals and what is tested in the NCEE. As a result, making room for the development of spoken English is currently a struggle in the tight teaching schedule and packed curriculum. An exam-oriented education system tends to focus more on the ability to take examinations rather than practical abilities such as spoken communication skills. Chinese senior secondary school teachers tend primarily to try and help their students reach a higher testing score, often at the cost of ignoring other abilities (Kirkpatrick & Zang, 2011). Therefore, I would argue that it might be worth rethinking the examination system. At least, the examinations should contain a larger proportion of spoken communicative skills and application of knowledge instead of merely focusing on linguistic knowledge.

6.3.3 Translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy understood as scaffolding

The findings in the first phase survey and the second phase interview brought rich insights about teachers' and students' perceptions of using translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy in a senior secondary school context. Half of the students in the first phase survey and most of the students considered translanguaging to be a helpful learning strategy, and over half of the teachers in the first phase survey and most of the teachers in the second phase interview echoed this view. First, most of the learners and teachers overwhelmingly agreed that using translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy can provide extra cognitive support as it allows both students and teachers to access their full linguistic repertoires for the purposes of understanding. Moreover, both students and teachers emphasised in their interviews that Mandarin as their L1 is particularly helpful in understanding and clarification.

My findings further revealed that Mandarin, as my student and teacher participants' shared L1, could provide additional cognitive support (Canagarajah, 1999a; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). This is a much-favoured function of L1 in English classes (Cheng, 2013; Cook, 2001; Medgyes, 1992; Yavuz, 2012). That is to say, my findings do not deviate from the general literature, insofar as L1, at least as perceived by learners and teachers in the participating school, can facilitate teachers' explanations of grammar or vocabulary at a higher level more directly and more successfully than when English is used alone. However, what also needs to be noted is that some teachers may choose to teach in English only in order to maximise opportunities for students' practice (e.g. Tina). My findings indicate that the use of Mandarin in the participating school's English classes is extremely common and also useful.

In addition, according to my learner and teacher participants in the second phase interview, Mandarin is also the most efficient tool that teachers and students can both rely on in China's exam-oriented education context. As I presented in section 5.7.5, most of the students and teachers believed that the English only approach is a good idea, but they also expressed concern about missing important content that would consequently cause them to fail their English exams. My findings reveal that Mandarin is widely used by teachers and students for achieving high scores in exams, as a clear understanding of grammar and vocabulary is important in an exam-oriented school culture, where detailed exam training is provided. As a result, the most frequent function of Mandarin during English classes was keeping English classes going and ensuring that the teacher's messages were received by students. Moreover, in this way, Mandarin may also accelerate English teaching in English classes. My findings indicated that time is a significant concern due to the tight schedule and squashed curriculum in exam-oriented context in China.

Second, from the students' perspective, through interviews, LP and Leo mentioned that translanguaging is an effective learning strategy for brainstorming as it allows them to think in Chinese or Cantonese. LP and Leo both agreed that thinking internally in Chinese or Cantonese enables them to engage in more active and deeper thinking. This finding echoes an early study conducted by Tomlinson (2001) who stressed that L2 learners tend to use of an L1 inner voice for thinking. Furthermore, Laura and Li believed that translanguaging is useful in group discussion for communication

purposes. According to Laura and Li, the reason is that translanguaging allows them to switch between Chinese and English to communicate more freely with their group members so that they can complete the group project collaboratively. This finding is in line with Mibirimi-Hungwe's (2021) study conducted in South Africa that communication problems were often solved when students used translanguaging in the group discussion. In addition, like most of the research about the use of L1 in L2 education (Cheng, 2013; Lin, 2015; Moore, 2013; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Yavuz, 2012), my finding suggested that L1 was being used routinely by the students for classroom interaction and communication.

Third, the findings also point out that Mandarin can be used for building up a rapport between students and teachers so that the students feel less isolated and have greater confidence to ask questions in Mandarin. As Tinsley suggested in her interview, she will switch to Mandarin to tell a joke or use Mandarin to talk about something her students are familiar with when she noticed that her students were demotivated. This finding is consistent with what Lin (2015), Medgyes (1992), Shuchi and Islam (2016) and Fang and Liu (2020) all found: that L1 can build up a rapport between students and teachers, as well as creating a relaxed atmosphere for motivating students. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that Tinsley also believed that translanguaging in speaking can encourage her students to express themselves especially when the student's English is limited. This finding is in line with the research of Wang (2019) and Ke and Lin (2017) that translanguaging contributed to encouraging students to express themselves in English either in peer interactions or in teacher and student interactions, and, as a result, that students would gradually consider English as part of their linguistic repertoire (Ke & Lin, 2017). Moreover, translanguaging is a way of recognising students' effort and it is especially important to encourage lower level students (Wang, 2019).

Last but not least, it is notable that most of the students mentioned in their interviews that they use translanguaging as a learning strategy in the process of English writing. My finding revealed that translanguaging is an effective learning strategy among my learner participants for negotiating the complexities of creating a written text in English. This finding also provides further evidence that translanguaging as a learning strategy enables students to shuttle between their full linguistic repertoire for understanding the

writing topic in different languages, for planning and for reviewing drafts. This tallies with the work of Adamson and Coulson (2015), Hanson (2013) and García and Kano (2014). In addition, the students demonstrated much autonomy when using translanguaging in their English writing tasks. Most of the teachers showed neutral attitudes towards their students using translanguaging in English writing; many teachers said they did not deliberately encourage their students to do so.

6.3.4 Translanguaging understood as a problematic learning/teaching strategy

When it comes to the problems of using translanguaging in teaching and learning, based on the findings of the first phase survey, about half of the students believed that translanguaging interferes with English learning. 7 students echoed this view in their interviews too and they specifically pointed out that they think translanguaging interferes with English learning in terms of forms and culture. Interestingly, these students and teachers are reluctant to consider Mandarin as a useful resource even though they also admitted that Mandarin is important in their learning and teaching. This may be related to the deep-seated idea associated with CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) that monolingual foreign language immersion is the best.

Also, both teacher and learner participants in the interviews pointed out that in their view Chinese interferes in the teaching and learning of English culture. While it is unclear what they understand by 'English culture', it is encouraging to see that high school students have a degree of cultural awareness in that they recognise that differences exist in different countries and societies. I believe that this provides an excellent opportunity to teach about and to learn to respect different cultures, including their own, within a context of diversity. However, nobody can know all cultural references, so students might need to be aware that sometimes misunderstanding can occur because of limited cultural awareness, and not only because of linguistic failure.

Second, it is notable that about half of the students in the first phase survey and a few students and teachers in the second phase interview raised the issue of translanguaging hindering English thinking. The students did not specify what they

mean by 'English thinking', but they suggested that English thinking is a completely different thinking system from Chinese thinking. Two teachers offered their understanding of English thinking in their interviews. Tinsley believed English thinking means critical thinking, whereas Tracy considered English thinking means thinking in English exclusively. Moreover, a small number of students and teachers in the first phase survey and over half of the teachers in the second phase interview also stressed that using translation as an EFL pedagogy hinders English thinking.

As I mentioned in section 2.2.3, the new ECS encourages English teachers to use English as much as possible to create an authentic environment for students to fully engage with English to think, understand and communicate. The new ECS also mentions that English teachers should improve students' English thinking skills so that they can use English for real communication purposes. Again, the new ECS does not clarify what is meant by the term 'English thinking'. My participants' belief of developing English thinking might come from the new ECS guidance. My findings reveal that many participants in my study tend to have a monolingual mind-set related to learning and teaching English. The monolingual mind-set is popularly accepted, wide-spread and hard to shift (Meier, 2018). This might be one way of understanding the conflict I identified above, namely that nearly all learners and teachers use Mandarin or dialects in English classes, but some of them seem to believe that they should not be doing this. Related to this monolingual mind-set is the belief that native-speaker competence is a measure of competence and a goal to be achieved by language learners.

Third, the quantitative and the qualitative findings in both phases suggested that translanguaging is less acceptable when it comes to speaking English. Through the qualitative comments in the first phase survey and the second phase interviews, many students explained that this is because they believe a Mandarin accent hinders good English pronunciation. It is unquestionable that both teachers' and learners' shared knowledge of Mandarin is a valuable and accessible resource for English teaching and learning, but we must not forget that learners also need to be exposed to English and practise their communicative English competences, especially in speaking. As Taylor suggested in her interview, ground rules are essential when using Mandarin in English classes. Thus, I would argue that Mandarin can be a resource if it is used in a well-planned manner and with careful management in English classes (Atkinson, 1987; Lin,

2015; Shuchi & Islam, 2016; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). As shown in my findings, senior secondary students are cognitively mature enough to learn English based on their L1 as a fund of knowledge (Lin, 2015; Moore, 2013), as long as they have sufficient opportunities to practise their English.

In conclusion, my findings shed light on students' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of translanguaging. My findings show that translanguaging can empower students when they use it consciously and purposefully. In addition, translanguaging helps to build up a positive learner identity by viewing languages in an additive manner. Besides, as I presented in section 5.7.5, many teachers mentioned in their interviews that they are not confident enough to teach in English only. Thus, perhaps Chinese English teachers should embrace L1 as a source of teacher confidence, thus offering better bilingual role models as successful English learners (Clark & Paran, 2007; Meier, 2017; Seidlhofer, 1999), rather than feeling challenged by an English only teaching approach from a monolingual perspective. They can be proud bilinguals who flexibly and judiciously use their languages to support learning.

6.4 Summary

The key findings have been discussed in this chapter. To summarise, the findings of this study suggest that the participating school might be described as a super multilingual school. Both the learner and teacher participants held various perceptions of their personal linguistic repertoires and their language awareness. My findings add to the current literature about learners' and teachers' perceptions of their personal linguistic repertoires and language awareness in a senior secondary school in south China. In terms of the current bi-/multilingual learning approaches, similar to the conclusion presented in most of the existing literature, translation and translanguaging were perceived as effective learning/teaching tools to facilitate English learning and were felt to be beneficial to the learners in various ways especially for the purposes of comprehension. On the other hand, many students and teachers were also concerned that using translation and translanguaging in English learning might set up barriers to achieving standard English and to building up English thinking

7. Conclusion

The aim of this study was to explore the nature of any discrepancy that might exist between monolingual expectation and multilingual reality in a local public senior school in Guangdong. This study has examined both teachers' and learners' perceptions of institutional language policy, their own linguistic repertoire, language awareness and their experiences and perceptions of the current bi-/multilingual learning approaches, namely translation and translanguaging. Firstly, this study has revealed that senior secondary schools in Guangdong can be a super multilingual context, both teachers and learners bringing at least one language other than English to their teaching and learning. However, my findings show that these languages have largely not been considered as resources in the school context, but some students are aware of their value in this respect. Secondly, the language policy and English curriculum are predominantly influenced by a monolingual assumption. Thirdly, my findings show that translation as an EFL pedagogy and translanguaging as a teaching/learning strategy are widely used in English teaching and learning. However, teachers expressed their concerns about using these methods in their teaching because a monolingual teaching approach is encouraged in the English curriculum.

Thus, in this chapter, I will begin by highlighting the implications for English classes, policy makers and teacher education in terms of the issues I addressed above. I will then go on to discuss the contribution this study makes to knowledge. Finally, I will discuss the limitations of this study as well as recommendations for future research.

7.1 Implications and Recommendations for English classes

In this section, I will use the implications of my findings to make recommendations for English classes based on my findings in terms of learners' and teachers' perceptions of their individual linguistic repertoires, language awareness, and their perceptions and experiences of translation and translanguaging.

7.1.1 Implications and recommendations for language awareness

Based on my findings, 87.9% of students from the participating school speak at least one dialect in their daily life, and 80% of teachers reported that they speak a dialect in their daily life too. However, my findings also showed that neither students' nor teachers' dialects were recognised in English classes. Moreover, the first phase survey results showed that dialects are important for the learner participants as the dialects are perceived as their family languages that play a significant role in establishing their identities. Finally, Guangdong is a popular immigration destination (Lin, 2020), and the first phase survey results also indicated that many students who come from an immigrant background family expressed their desire to fit in with the local community. Based on my findings, it is clear that multilingualism in Guangdong classrooms is already a reality. Multilingualism in schools, it is increasingly argued, is too precious a resource to be neglected in the learning process. I would suggest that schools in Guangdong, and perhaps also in other regions where the local dialects differ from Mandarin, could introduce language awareness activities to their English classes. I will list a few examples of language awareness activities in the following paragraph.

First, at the beginning of each new terms, both English teachers and the students could introduce themselves to the class, including where they come from and what languages or dialects they speak at home. Alternatively, students could take turns to introduce one of the specialties from their hometown and teach the rest of the class to greet one another in their dialects, one student a time at the beginning of each English class. Finally, English teachers could use language portrait activity (see section 3.2.2)

and discuss what each language means to them in groups. This could help increase students' awareness of their linguistic repertoire at the start of each new term.

Teachers and students could get to know each other better through these activities, and they could help build a tolerant atmosphere towards other languages (Meier, 2018). In addition, it would make both teachers' and students' linguistic repertoires visible in their English classrooms. This could create funds of knowledge that could be used in their English teaching and learning. Students might feel more confident and motivated in learning once they realise that they can be an expert in their own language and culture (McKay, 2002). Moreover, as I mentioned in section 2.2.3, the new ECS (English Curriculum Standards) points out that building up an open and inclusive attitude and deepening understanding of the motherland culture are two core aspects of comprehensive language competence. Thus, this would also provide an excellent way to cultivate students' interest in learning about and understanding the diversity of Chinese dialects and cultures. Finally, English teachers would no longer be the only authorities for knowledge in this scenario. Teachers could also ask students for help in explaining and translating if the teacher has zero knowledge about students' dialects and culture. This could motivate every single student to participate in the activities because everybody in the classroom would be equal and able to learn new things from each other.

7.1.2 Implications and recommendations for translation activities

As my findings suggested, translation as an EFL pedagogy is intensively used in the participating school by both English teachers and learners for comprehension purposes. The second phase interview findings showed that translation as an EFL pedagogy works well in the exam-oriented context and so neither teachers nor students seek any changes. However, many students also shared their concerns in their interviews that they believe using translation as an EFL pedagogy fails to achieve standard English or to build up English thinking. Some teachers also added in their interviews that they think using translation as an EFL pedagogy hinders students from practising their spoken English as translation provide less opportunities for students to be exposed to an English-speaking environment.

Regarding my participants' concerns, Wilson and González-Davies (2017) argue that translation as an EFL pedagogy can also be used in a communicative and cooperative way in bi-/multilingual classrooms. Thus, based on my findings, I would suggest that participatory translation activities also could be designed for English classes in Guangdong. In the following paragraphs, I will make three specific recommendations on participatory translation activities based on the models of Deller and Rinvoluciri (2002) and Wilson and González-Davies (2017).

My findings suggest that both students and teachers agreed that using translation as an EFL pedagogy is helpful in learning grammar and vocabulary. Deller and Rinvoluciri (2002) suggest that grammar and vocabulary can be learnt via translation activities in a communicative way too. For translation activities to lead to the desired learning outcomes, it is important to scaffold students with translation skills and strategies prior to the translation activities (Wilson & González-Davies, 2017). Adapting Deller and Rinvoluciri's (2002) ideas for an intermediate English class in China, such scaffolding for a communicative translation activity could be structured as follows:

Put the students into pairs

1. Ask each student to write a one-page letter in Chinese to their partner on whatever topic they are interested in.
2. Ask the pairs to exchange their letters. They should then translate the letter they received into English and write a reply in English.
3. Teacher asks students to make notes of the phrases or sentences that were difficult to translate into English and then discuss them in groups.

Firstly, asking students to write in Chinese ensures that everyone would be able to express themselves fully (Cook, 2001; Deller & Rinvoluciri, 2002). In addition, it is also a way to make students feel it is legitimate to use their L1 in English learning. Furthermore, this activity can also develop students' language awareness as they work closely with the texts in both Chinese and English, so they might be aware of the differences and similarities between these two languages in terms of vocabulary, sentence structure and grammar. Finally, English teachers and students could discuss the difficult points together communicatively. Such activities offer students an opportunity to notice, understand, use and manage 'different aspects of the

language(s)' as suggested by González-Davies (2017, p. 126). Moreover, such activities also combine GTM and task-based translation which might be more acceptable in an exam-oriented context as they focus on both meaning and form.

English teachers and learners in my study both shared the view that using translation and Chinese hinders authentic English learning; both groups also believed that culture is a missing element in their English classes. This is another contested area in academic circles, as 'culture' is a contested term (Tang, 2006). However, there may be ways to enhance intercultural awareness through translation activities (González-Davies, 2017). Such activities can focus on raising awareness of cultural similarities and differences through translation and on developing mediation competence (González-Davies, 2020), a competence also referred to in the new Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) companion volume (Council of Europe, 2020). Textbooks used in English education in China could be reviewed and adapted to take advantage of such insights. Thus, inspired by González-Davies (2020), intercultural awareness can be raised via translation activities as follows:

Put the students into pairs

1. Ask the two students in pairs to write a short paragraph about one type of tree in China and one type of tree in the UK respectively
2. Translate each other's short paragraph

The topic of the activity above can be changed to different topics that involve cultural elements (e.g. food, clothes, festivals) in different English-speaking countries, which makes visible that there is not just one way of doing this, and that there is not just one 'English' culture. This translation activity provides an opportunity for students to learn about different cultures in an autonomous way.

Finally, my findings demonstrate that the young people in my study have a strong interest in films and TV series in different languages. In this respect, Wilson and González-Davies (2017) offer further inspiration to embed, this natural interest in films and TV series into translation activities too. They suggest the following:

1. Invite the students to choose one movie or TV series trailer in any language in small groups.
2. Dub their trailer and add English/Chinese subtitles for it.

This translation activity is likely to motivate students to learn vocabulary and grammar in a more authentic way as they need to take vocabulary and grammar into account when they add subtitles for their videos, but the process would be dynamic and entertaining, as well as student-centred, compared to working with more conventional translation tasks that would typically be found in Chinese textbooks.

All three translation activities I suggested above can raise students' language awareness by working with at least two languages together. They are also more motivating methods to use translation in English learning by working in small groups or pairs (Gao & Lv, 2018; Lin, 2015; Wilson & González-Davies, 2017). Furthermore, such activities offer opportunities to develop intercultural and mediation competences (González-Davies, 2017; González-Davies, 2020). Finally, such approaches also envisage translation as a more communicative way of English learning and teaching compared to what would typically be expected in a conventional grammar-translation lesson.

Nevertheless, I recognise that large classes sizes and packed schedules, alongside assumptions held by learners and teachers, are big challenges for English teachers to adopt these translation activities in Chinese schools. The second phase interview results also suggested that there is a gap between the new ECS and the exam system. The new ECS encourages English teachers not to focus solely on teaching the forms of language but to develop students' comprehensive language competence which goes beyond linguistic knowledge. However, according to my participants, the English exams still predominantly test students' linguistic knowledge. As a result, the shift did not happen in the participating school, and the goal of teaching and learning remained oriented towards exams. Thus, I invite Chinese English learners and teachers, as well as policy makers, to consider how to use translation as a communicative EFL pedagogy, while taking into account the exam-oriented context in China. In addition, if we want to develop students' language competence beyond linguistic knowledge, we might also need to offer a compatible exam system (Hu, 2003; Li & Baldauf, 2011).

7.1.3 Implications and recommendations for translanguaging

My findings from both phases revealed that half of the students and teachers hold a neutral-to-positive attitude towards using translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy. On the other hand, my findings showed that some students and teachers hesitated to use translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy mainly because of monolingual ideology and concerns that translanguaging interferes with English learning and hinders English thinking. However, the interview findings also indicated that most students and teachers are not confident enough to learn/teach English with a monolingual approach. This finding also complements studies by Cook (2010) and Fang and Liu (2020). Therefore, I suggest that policy makers should give English teachers absolution for using Chinese in their teaching by developing clear and judicious guidance. Executable teaching guidance on translanguaging would enable English teachers to use translanguaging as a teaching strategy with fewer struggles and uncertainties (Wang, 2019). In addition, for their students' sake, English teachers should develop their own rules for using Chinese in their classes. I will make several recommendations in relation to such guidance based on my findings for both teachers and learners.

First, English teachers can use Mandarin for establishing meaning in English classes which includes explaining abstract vocabulary, complicated sentence structure and abstract grammar. Using L1 for delivering complex linguistic knowledge is a natural way of teaching especially in an EFL context and it is a more effective way for students' comprehension (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Wang, 2019).

Second, English teachers can use Mandarin to give instructions. The students need to understand what they are asked to do, so the purpose of using Mandarin to give instructions is about more effective learning (Fang & Liu, 2020), especially when a packed curriculum is a major challenge in Chinese English classes.

Third, English teachers can use Mandarin for activities that involve maintaining personal contact with their students such as giving feedback. It is important to make

sure that the students understand their feedback. In addition, according to my findings, it is a more natural way to build a rapport with students.

Fourth, English teachers can use Mandarin for motivating students and answering questions from students. My findings suggested that Mandarin is also helpful in easing students' emotional stress and can prevent the students whose English is limited from completely shutting down.

Fifth, English teachers should set clear rules on language usage in their classes to inform students about boundaries in relation to language choices.

The foregoing recommendations all relate to teachers. In terms of students, firstly, students should be allowed to use Mandarin to ask questions and seek clarifications from teachers. My findings showed that it is an instinctive way to ask questions for students. Similarly, students should be allowed to ask questions and clarifications from their peers in Mandarin.

Secondly, students should be allowed to use Chinese/Mandarin to facilitate their English learning for example completing English homework, memorising English vocabulary and reviewing English grammar. My findings suggested that it is a spontaneous way of learning a language when bi-/multilingual learners have at least two languages that co-exist in their minds.

Thirdly, students should be allowed to access their full linguistic repertoires to discuss and communicate in groups. My findings revealed that the students tend to think in a more active and deeper way when thinking in Chinese or Cantonese. Furthermore, my findings also indicated that Mandarin plays an important role in student group discussions, as it assists the students to complete the group project as a team cooperatively and productively. Consequently, every group member can contribute to the group, and it fits well with the rationale of group work.

Fourthly, students should be allowed to use Chinese for their English writing tasks. As my findings have shown, translanguaging is widely used by students in their English writing processes.

To sum up, my findings revealed that translanguaging as a teaching/learning strategy serves well in the exam-oriented context in Guangdong. Thus, I invite Chinese English students and teachers, as well as policy makers, to reconsider the current monolingual ideology, as translanguaging facilitates many different aspects of English teaching and learning. Translanguaging also fosters an attitude of English as Lingua Franca for communication (Ke & Lin, 2017) and helps in developing a positive learner identity enabling students increasingly see themselves as legitimate English users (Fang & Liu, 2020; Ke & Lin, 2017).

7.2 Implications for Policy Makers

Population mobility and urbanization in China have significantly increased over recent decades (Gong et al., 2011). Large number of migrants moved to Guangdong province and brought in their own languages/dialects, cultures, and identities (Lin, 2020). My findings suggested that Mandarin and English have higher status in the participating school, but local dialects and dialects brought in by the migrant students from outside Guangdong are not encouraged in the participating school. However, the first phase survey results showed that dialects are important in many students' life in terms of family bonding and their own identities. Therefore, I invite policy makers to rethink language planning and policy in school settings in Guangdong, as well as in other regions where the local dialects differ from Mandarin.

First, it is important for policy makers not to consider languages as being isolated from each other. My findings suggested that most of teacher and learner participants appreciated the importance of speaking Mandarin because of linguistic diversity in China. I would argue that the promotion of Mandarin does not conflict with using other Chinese language varieties in school settings.

In terms of English classes, my findings suggested that many teachers and students are concerned that bi-/multilingual learning approaches such as translation and translanguaging might hinder achieving standard English. I invite policy makers to reconsider the idea that other languages prevent learners from learning English successfully. Instead, policy makers might consider that the home language and cultural knowledge of both teachers and students can constitute classroom resources. In addition, as my findings have shown, young people are enthusiastic about a wide

range of foreign languages. Thus, my findings combined with Gao and Lv (2018) suggest that language planning policy makers and curricula designers may also need to take into account young people's personal motivations for learning foreign languages. This could be an opportunity to raise language awareness in school contexts. It is also an exceptional opportunity to eliminate stereotypes and to learn to respect diversity, while finding unity through Mandarin as a national lingua franca. Therefore, I urge policy makers to develop a curriculum oriented towards a language-as-resource model (Pastor, 2009; Ruiz, 1984), that is, one which values linguistic resources teachers and students bring to their classes.

In terms of curricula, as I outlined in section 2.2.3, the new ECS proposed a more comprehensive view of English teaching and learning, rather than focusing solely on teaching language knowledge. However, my findings revealed that language knowledge remains the top priority for teaching because the exam system has not changed. In addition, raising multi-cultural awareness and gaining cultural knowledge are two important learning goals in the new ECS. However, my findings suggested that cultural knowledge is inadequate in English learning and teaching. I will make three recommendations regarding this issue.

First, to bridge the gap between curriculum and teaching in practice, policy makers need to break these goals into more specific learning objectives. Policy makers ought to simplify the teaching and learning goal statements by narrowing them down into teaching and learning objectives that are specific, precise, and achievable. For example, regarding raising multi-cultural awareness, policy makers need, as a priority, to provide their definitions this concept. In addition, reader-friendly teaching guidelines are needed with a full explanation of what is meant by raising multi-cultural awareness, as this would provide teachers with helpful clarity in practice. Finally, compatible teaching materials need to be provided to teachers.

Second, policy makers ought to acknowledge that China is an EFL context and that English is now widely used as a lingua franca in the world. Therefore, I invite policy makers to rethink the goal of English learning in China. Cook (2001) argues that there are internal and external goals of teaching English. Internal goal refers to linguistic knowledge such as grammar knowledge and memorising vocabulary. External goal includes the ability to use the language effectively outside classrooms for authentic

communication(Cook, 1999). My findings demonstrated that English teaching in China largely emphasises internal goals at the moment, because it is challenging for teachers to teach anything beyond linguistic knowledge in compressed teaching schedules, especially when English exams mostly assess grammar and vocabulary. Nevertheless, the new ECS focuses more on external goals, so policy makers should clearly communicate their message to both teachers and examination setters that linguistic knowledge is not the only thing that matters in English teaching and learning.

Third, most of the teachers in my findings point out that they are not confident enough to teach in English only in their classes. Some of teachers in this study show their confidence in teaching in English only, but a packed curriculum and an exam-oriented context have demotivated them from doing so. Therefore, clear and feasible teacher guidance on language usage is needed in English classes.

7.3 Implications for Teacher Education

We can infer from this study that the bulk of teachers' perceptions of English teaching and learning are based on a monolingual assumption. Standard English as their ultimate goal is ingrained in their perceptions. Therefore, I would call for teacher training in the field of pluri-/multilingualism. This should involve teacher training for both pre-service teachers and in-service teachers. Teachers can play a key role (Young, 2014) in the revolution of language education in China to shake the monolingual bias. As the new ECS stated, Chinese schools aim to teach students who are able to adapt to global development. Thus, we should update our teachers' knowledge of language education with a new pluri-/multilingual lens when pluri-/multilingualism is a new norm globally.

To be specific, the teacher development programme needs to cover these three principles. Firstly, my findings underscored the need for teacher training to develop a training programme which adopts a multilingual awareness (MLA) approach (García, 2008) in relation to the Chinese educational context. An MLA approach would not only foster English teachers' curiosity about their own and their students' linguistic repertoire but would also expand their horizons beyond their classrooms. They may

be made more aware of the languages used in the local society. In addition, an MLA approach would also enable English teachers to become more independent practitioners by critically uncovering the concept of language education. Finally, an MLA approach would empower English teachers with knowledge and pedagogical strategies so that they could play a crucial role in the revolution of the multilingual classroom (Young, 2014)

Secondly, as I discussed in section 6.2.5, it would be beneficial to introduce the language-as-resource (Pastor, 2009; Ruiz, 1984) oriented ideology in teacher training. My findings further uncovered that linguistic resource in schools is very diverse due to urbanisation in China. Both local and immigrant students have brought abundant linguistic resources into schools. My findings also suggested that many immigrant students in my study are eager to learn Cantonese to fit into the local society and but are simultaneously struggling to maintain their own dialects and cultures. Thus, it is crucial to accept and recognise that these language varieties that all students speak are valuable and provide a useful resource (Pastor, 2009) in school settings. This will be the first step to shake the stereotype that immigrant students are 'outsiders' who need to make an effort to fit into the local society. Moreover, a language-as-resource oriented ideology requires teachers to seek to understand their students' ethnic and linguistic background (Pastor, 2009). The funds of knowledge would bridge the linguistic gap between home and classrooms, and English teachers could be the agents for creating multilingual classrooms (García, 2009; Young, 2014).

Thirdly, my findings showed that translation as an EFL pedagogy is widely used by both learners and teachers in Guangdong. Thus, English teacher education courses should consider both including translation as a powerful teaching method and also training English teachers to use translation in their teaching judiciously and communicatively.

Last but not least, I urge teacher training programmes to challenge the deep-rooted traditional Chinese perceptions of the nature and process of teaching, as well as the perception of the teacher being the sole authority in classrooms. In multilingual classrooms, we would recognise that it is impossible for teachers to know all languages or dialects used by students. Rather, teachers would be expected to develop a transformative role for co-teaching or co-learning (Wang, 2019). This would

require the teacher training unit to reform the traditional education ideology currently used in China. Teacher training programmes need to empower teachers to challenge current hierarchical education ideology by creating a classroom atmosphere where students' voices are encouraged and where inputs is sought from all available linguistic resources (García, 2009; Wang, 2019).

7.4 Contribution to Knowledge

It is a common assumption that China is a monolingual country where the whole population speaks 'Chinese', but this assumption is an oversimplification of the linguistic situation in China (Liu & Edwards, 2017). Previous research established that China has a rather complex linguistic situation (Dong, 2009; Hu, 2002; Li, 2006; Liu & Edwards, 2017). However, there are limited studies that have examined the multilingual reality and students' and teachers' perceptions of this multilingual reality and their individual linguistic repertoires. This study provides an in-depth picture of the multilingual reality in a senior secondary school in south China with 30 regional dialects identified among 306 students. My findings also uncovered the fact that dialects are important to the young people in terms of family bonding, identity and social life. The findings of this research study could provide recommendations for Chinese policy makers in relation to the development of language policy, planning and curricula for senior secondary education in Guangdong, as well as other regions where the local dialects are different from Mandarin.

The findings regarding learners' and teachers' perceptions of language awareness in four domains based on James and Garret's (1991) model contribute to knowledge in the field of language education. There is limited empirical research focusing on Chinese learners' and teachers' perceptions of language awareness in schools. My findings provide a deep and rich understanding of both learners' and teachers' perceptions of their own linguistic repertoires and their perceptions of noticing and using different languages in different domains of their life. The findings could bring insights to policy makers and curriculum designers for adapting language awareness activities in schools in Guangdong as I suggested in section 7.1.1.

Finally, at the methodological level, the use of the sequential mixed-methods approach combining questionnaire survey and semi-structured interview provides a close and

detailed investigation of learners' and teachers' perceptions of monolingual expectations, individual linguistic repertoires, language awareness, as well as their perceptions and experiences of current bi-/multilingual learning approaches. The findings generated from the first phase questionnaire provided a macro understanding of these three research questions. Subsequently, the second phase qualitative findings built on the first phase findings and gained a deeper understanding of personal views, perceptions, and experiences of each individual participant (Scott, 2015). The findings of this study could provide implications and recommendations for Chinese English practitioners, policy makers and curriculum designers to develop a step towards context-sensitive bi-/multilingual pedagogy.

7.5 Limitations of This Study

There are two main limitations of this study. First, the first phase of this sequential mixed-method study was conducted in only one senior secondary school in one region. As I mentioned in the context chapter, the linguist situation in China is rather complex (Dong, 2009; Hu, 2002; Li, 2006; Liu & Edwards, 2017). It would be worth investigating students' and teachers' perceptions of language policy and their own linguistic repertoires in different regions. Furthermore, there is clearly an educational resource inequality between the east coast area and the rural inland areas in China. Thus, findings from this study cannot be generalised and applied nationwide, although the findings could be applied to schools with a similar background.

Second, another limitation of this study was the time and accessibility factor. I had a relatively short window to access the participating school before the students and the teachers needed to fully concentrate on the end-of-term exams. Moreover, I was told by the headteacher that I could only have 15 minutes maximum to collect the survey data in each class, so I did not have time to explain my questionnaire to the class in detail. Moreover, I was unable to conduct face-to-face interviews; rather, I had online interviews with my participants for the second phase data collection due to budget and time reasons. Face-to-face would have allowed more in-depth comprehensive understanding of the data as social cues such as facial expression, body language,

pauses and tones would have been better identified and understood (Barratt, 2012; Opdenakker, 2006).

7.6 Recommendations for Future Research

In terms of recommendations for future research, I invite researchers in pluri-/multilingualism to focus their attention on six research areas. First of all, learners and teachers' perceptions of multilingualism, linguistic repertoire, language awareness, and bi-/multilingual learning approaches need to be investigated at different educational levels (e.g. primary schools), in different educational sectors (e.g. private English training organisations), and in less economically developed areas of China. As I discussed in section 2.1.2, the data generated from this research project cannot represent the whole picture of China. Thus, research among wider population could better inform policy makers about the changes they need to make in relation to language policy.

Second, population mobility is now a new tendency in China because of urbanisation and modernisation (Gong et al., 2011), so immigrant students are an integral part of schools especially in popular destinations (e.g. Guangdong Province, Zhejiang Province, Beijing and Shanghai). Therefore, more research about immigrant students' identity and regional culture adaptation (Gong et al., 2011) is needed. This would bring an insight into how immigrant students can construct a positive sense of belonging to better adapt to their new environment. In addition, such research could also advise policy makers and teachers on updating current curricula to better satisfy the fast-developing diverse needs.

Third, it is surprisingly and interesting to see that young people in my research demonstrate an enthusiasm for Japanese language and culture, and for Japan as a nation, despite anti-Japanese propaganda being popular in China over past three decades. Therefore, I would suggest that further research would be worthwhile into the reasons why the young Chinese generation are motivated to know and learn Japanese. Gao and Lv (2018) carried out similar research among university students. It would be worth investigating among a wider population in order to help us

understand better how to motivate young people in language learning. Also, such research could bridge the gap between Chinese and Japanese and help to sustain a peaceful relationship between the two countries.

Fourth, my findings suggested that a small number of students in my study consciously use learning strategies involving more than one language to improve their writing or reading skills in both Chinese and English. Thus, it would be interesting to do a study similar to the one Dmitrenko (2017) did in different Chinese regions. This might help improve understanding in relation to multilingual strategy development and the need for instruction in groups with different linguistic repertoires. In this way my study opens new avenues for research in the Chinese context.

Fifth, some research shows that translanguaging is largely used by teachers and students for negotiating meaning at different levels (Creese & Blackledge, 2011; Ke & Lin, 2017; Li & Wu, 2009; Wang, 2019). My finding suggested that many students and teachers agreed that translanguaging as a learning/teaching strategy is helpful in improving understanding and English writing. Therefore, I invite more research about how students use translanguaging in the writing domain, and how translanguaging provides cognitive support to students. Furthermore, my findings highlight the need for teacher guidance in relation to translanguaging in EFL contexts like China. Thus, it would also be worthwhile to investigate and develop more localised theoretical guidance and practical teaching strategies with respect to translanguaging.

Sixth, the pluri-/multilingual view of language education might be in conflict with traditional Chinese ideology in the field of education, since it challenges that ideology in many ways (e.g. monoglossic language ideology, monolingual assumptions in the area of language education, teacher-centred teaching methods). Thus, I suggest that more attention needs to be placed on investigating how teachers and students respond to this new view of understanding language education to better understand possible concerns and obstacles. Research in this area might help to develop a new theoretical framework for integrating the pluri-/multilingual view of language education into current Chinese teaching practice without threatening the long-established education system.

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Family 家庭: Cantonese, Chechow, 广东话, 潮汕话

School 学校: Mandarin, Cantonese, English 普通话 广东话, 英文

Social media 社交网络: Mandarin, Cantonese, English, 普通话, 广东话, 英文

Hobbies: Cantonese English 广东话 英文

Publications: Chinese, English 中文, 英文

Entertainment: Mandarin, Cantonese, English, Korean Japanese 普通话, 广东话, 英文, 韩语, 日语

Family 家庭:

School 学校:

Social media 社交网络 (Weibo 微博, Wechat 微信 etc.等):

Hobbies 兴趣爱好 (Sports 运动, Travelling 旅行 etc.等):

Publications 出版物 (Books 书籍, Magazines 杂志 etc.等):

Entertainment 娱乐 (Movies 电影, TV shows 综艺节目, Music 音乐 etc.等):

Other 其他 :

2b Could you please write a few sentences about why you use different languages in different contexts?

2b 请你写出若干理由关于你为什么在上图中不同地点用上述这些不同的语言。

Here is an example for your reference:

这里有一个例子供你参考:

我在家跟爷爷奶奶讲潮汕话, 跟爸爸妈妈讲潮汕话和广东话。在学校上课用普通话和英文, 跟朋友聊天用广东话。我在微信上跟朋友用广东话, 普通话和英文聊天。我闲暇时会去逛街会讲广东话和普通话。我也有用英文写日记的习惯。我阅读中文和英文的书籍和杂志。我娱乐时会观看普通话, 广东话或者韩语的综艺节目。我还会看韩剧或者日剧。

Section Three: Language Awareness

第三部分: 语言意识

Please tick the appropriate response to each statement below, indicating if you strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, or strongly disagree. 请在下列相应空格内打勾。

In my role as a student 作为一名学生	Strongly agree 非常同意	Agree 同意	Not Sure 不知道	Disagree 不同意	Strongly disagree 非常不同意
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3a	I am encouraged to speak Mandarin only at my school. 在学校我被鼓励讲普通话。					
3b	I hear different languages and dialects are spoken by my classmates and teachers at my school. 在学校我听到我的老师们和同学们会讲不同的语言或者方言。					
3c	I am glad if I find friends who share the same dialect with me at my school. 如果我如果我在我就读的学校找到和我说一样方言的朋友我会很高兴。					
	In my role as an English learner 作为一名英语学生	Strongly agree 非常同意	Agree 同意	Not Sure 不知道	Disagree 不同意	Strongly disagree 非常不同意
3d	I think that awareness of differences between languages can help me to learn English better. 我认为知道语言之间的不同可以帮助我更好的学习英文。					
3e	I think the best approach is to shut out all languages and focus on English only. 我认为最好的英语学习方法就是屏蔽其他一切语言只关注英语。					
3f	I am aware that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of grammar (e.g. There are different forms of verbs in English, but there is only one form of verb in Chinese). 我注意到英文和中文的语法有区别 (例如英文有动词的不同形式, 而中文中动词只有一种形式)。					
3g	I am aware that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of vocabulary (e.g. There is no article 'the' in Chinese). 我注意到英文和中文的词汇有区别 (例如中文中没有冠词 the)。					
3h	I am aware that there are different English and Chinese in terms of greetings (e.g. Nice to meet you in English, I am honoured to meet you please bear with me in Chinese.). 我注意到用英文和用中文打招呼					

	的方式不同 (例如英文是很高兴见到你, 而中文是幸会幸会, 请多多包涵)。					
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Section Four: Multilingual Learning Approach

第四部分: 多语言学习法

Please tick the appropriate response to each statement below, indicating if you strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, or strongly disagree. 请在下列相应空格内打勾。

	In my English learning 在我的英语学习中	Strongly Agree 非常同意	Agree 同意	Not Sure 不知道	Disagree 不同意	Strongly Disagree 非常不同意
4a	I use translation. 我使用翻译。					
4b	I use Chinese. 我使用中文。					
4c	I use my dialect(s). 我使用我的方言。					
4d	I use a mixture of English and Chinese to take notes in an English class. 在英语课堂上, 我会混合英文和中文来记笔记。					
4e	In my head I translate English into Chinese when I read to help me understand. 当我阅读英文的时候, 我会先翻译成中文来帮助我理解。					
4f	I mix Mandarin and English when I practice saying things in English. 我会使用中英文混合的句子来练习我的英文口语。					
4g	My English teacher allows me to mix Mandarin and English to interact with him/her in English class. 在英语课堂上, 我的英语老师允许我用中英文混合的句子和他/她沟通。					

4h	I use Chinese to write an outline first before I write an essay in English. 当我需要写英文作文的时候，我会先用中文写提纲。					
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4i. Do you compare English to other languages? If yes, please specify what languages you compare English to.

4i. 你会拿英文和其他语言做比较吗？如果会，请你列出你用哪些语言和英文做比较。

4j. What is your opinion on translation as a learning strategy for learning English? Why do you think so?

4j. 你对于翻译作为一种英语学习策略有何看法？你为什么如此认为？

4k. What is your opinion on translanguaging as a learning strategy in English learning? Why do you think so? Note: Translanguaging means the language practice of switching between Chinese and English through using your linguistic resources.

4k. 你对于跨语言实践作为一种学习策略有何看法？你为什么如此认为？注：跨语言实践是一种利用你的语言资源在实现在中文和英文之间的切换的一种语言实践。

4I. Have you got any comments relating to the use of different languages and/or dialects in your English classroom?

4I. 对于使用不同语言或者方言在英文课堂上你还有什么想法要补充吗?

Entertainment 娱乐 (Movies 电影, TV shows 综艺节目, Music 音乐 etc.等):

Other 其他 :

2b. Could you please write a few sentences about why would you use above different languages in different contexts?

请您写出若干理由关于您为什么在这些不同地点用上述这些不同的语言。

Section 3: Language Awareness

第三部分：语言意识

Please tick the appropriate response to each statement below, indicating if you strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, or strongly disagree. 请在下列相应空格内打勾。

	In my role as a teacher 作为一名老师	Strongly agree 非常同意	Agree 同意	Not Sure 不知道	Disagree 不同意	Strongly disagree 非常不同意
3a	I speak Mandarin only at work. 在工作场合我只讲普通话。					
3b	I encourage my students to speak Mandarin only at school. 我鼓励我的学生只讲普通话。					
3c	I hear different languages and dialects are spoken by my colleagues and students at school.					

	在学校我听到我的同事们和我的学生们会讲不同的语言或者方言。					
3d	I am glad if I find colleagues who share the same dialect with me at my school. 如果我在我就职的学校找到和我说一样方言的同事我会很高兴。					
	In my English teaching 在我的英语教学中	Strongly agree 非常同意	Agree 同意	Not Sure 不知道	Disagree 不同意	Strongly disagree 非常不同意
3e	I think that awareness of differences between languages can help my students to learn English better. 我认为知道语言之间的不同可以帮助我的学生更好的学习英语。					
3f	I think the best approach is to shut out all languages and focus on English only. 我认为最好的英语学习方法就是屏蔽其他一切语言只关注英语。					
3g	I remind my students that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of grammar (e.g. There are different forms of verbs in English, but there is only one form of verb in Chinese.). 在英语教学中，我会提醒我的学生注意英文和中文在语法上有不同 (例如英文有动词的不同形式，而中文中动词只有一种形式。)。					
3h	I remind my students that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of vocabulary (e.g. There is no article 'the' in Chinese.). 在英语教学中，我会提醒我的学生注意英文和中文的词汇有区别 (例如中文中没有冠词 the。)。					
3i	I remind my students that there are differences between English and Chinese in terms of greetings (e.g. Nice to meet you					

	<p>in English, I am honoured to meet you please bear with me in Chinese.).</p> <p>在英语教学中，我会提醒我的学生注意用英文和用中文打招呼的方式不同 (例如英文是很高兴见到你，而中文是幸会幸会，请多多包涵。)</p>					
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Section Four: Multilingual Teaching Approach

第四部分：多语言教学法

Please tick the appropriate response to each statement below, indicating if you strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, or strongly disagree. 请在下列相应空格内打勾。

	<p>In my English teaching</p> <p>在我的英语教学中</p>	<p>Strongly Agree</p> <p>非常同意</p>	<p>Agree</p> <p>同意</p>	<p>Not Sure</p> <p>不知道</p>	<p>Disagree</p> <p>不同意</p>	<p>Strongly Disagree</p> <p>非常不同意</p>
4a	I use translation. 我使用翻译。					
4b	I use Mandarin. 我使用普通话。					
4c	I use my dialect(s). 我使用我的方言。					
4d	<p>I encourage my students to do their preparations in Chinese and English.</p> <p>我鼓励我的学生用中文和英文做课前准备。</p>					
4e	<p>I encourage my students to use Chinese to write an outline before they write an essay in English.</p> <p>我鼓励我的学生在写英文作文以前先用中文写提纲。</p>					
4f	I encourage my students to mix Mandarin and English when they practice saying things in English.					

	我鼓励我的学生用中英混合的句子来练习他们的英语口语。					
4g	I accept my students to mix Mandarin and English when they interact with me in my English class. 在我的英语课堂上，我接受我的学生用中英文混合的句子来跟我沟通。					

4h. Do you compare English to other languages? If yes, please specify what languages you compare English to.

4h. 您会拿英文和其他语言做比较吗？如果会，请您列出您用哪些语言和英文做比较。

4i. What is your opinions on translation as a teaching method in English teaching? Why do you think so?

4i. 您对于翻译作为一种英语教学策略有何看法？您为什么如此认为？

4j. What is your opinion on translanguaging as a teaching strategy in English teaching? Why do you think so? Note: Translanguaging means the language practice of switching between Chinese and English through using your linguistic resources.

4j. 你对于跨语言实践作为一种教学策略有何看法？你为什么如此认为？注：跨语言实践是一种利用你的语言资源在实现中文和英文之间的切换的一种语言实践。

4k. Have you got any comments relating to the use of different languages and/or dialects in your English classroom?

4k. 对于使用不同语言或者方言在英文课堂上您还有什么想法要补充吗？

Appendix 3 Ethical approval of phase 1 questionnaire survey



Ref (for office use only)

D/17/18/49

COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

When completing this form please remember that the purpose of the document is to clearly explain the ethical considerations of the research being undertaken. As a generic form it has been constructed to cover a wide-range of different projects so some sections may not seem relevant to you. Please include the information which addresses any ethical considerations for your particular project which will be needed by the SSIS Ethics Committee to approve your proposal. In completing this form please make full use of the guidance and resources available at <http://intranet.exeter.ac.uk/socialsciences/ethics/>

All staff and students within SSIS should use this form to apply for ethical approval and then send it to one of the following email addresses:

ssis-ethics@exeter.ac.uk This email should be used by staff and students in Egenis, the Institute for Arab and Islamic Studies, Law, Politics, the Strategy & Security Institute, and Sociology, Philosophy, Anthropology.

ssis-gseethics@exeter.ac.uk This email should be used by staff and students in the Graduate School of Education.

Applicant details	
Name	Tian Yan
Department	Graduate School of Education
UoE email address	ty246@exeter.ac.uk

Duration for which permission is required		
You should request approval for the entire period of your research activity. <u>The start date should be at least one month from the date that you submit this form.</u> Students should use the anticipated date of completion of their course as the end date of their work. Please note that <u>retrospective ethical approval will never be given.</u>		
Start date:30/06/2018	End date:30/10/2019	Date submitted:06/06/2018

Students only	
All students must discuss their research intentions with their supervisor/tutor prior to submitting an application for ethical approval. The discussion may be face to face or via email.	
Prior to submitting your application in its final form to the SSIS Ethics Committee it should be approved by your first and second supervisor / dissertation supervisor/tutor. You should submit evidence of their approval with your application, e.g. a copy of their email approval.	
Student number	650055951
Programme of study	Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) <i>If you selected 'other' from the list above please name your programme here</i>
Name of Supervisor(s)/tutors or Dissertation Tutor	Dr Gabriela Meier Professor Dongbo Zhang
Have you attended any ethics training that is available to students?	Yes, I have taken part in ethics training at the University of Exeter For example: i) the Research Integrity Ethics and Governance workshop:

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	<p>http://as.exeter.ac.uk/rdp/postgraduateresearchers</p> <p>ii) Ethics training received on Masters courses</p> <p>If yes, please specify and give the date of the training: Yes, I have taken part in ethics training at the University of Exeter when I did my Master in MEd TESOL in 2016. 27/01/2016</p>
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Certification for all submissions

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given in this application and that I undertake in my research to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research. I confirm that if my research plans change I will contact the Committee before research takes place and submit a request for amendment or, if necessary, complete a further ethics proposal form. I confirm that any that document translations have been done by a competent person with no significant changes to the original meaning.

Tian Yan

Double click this box to confirm certification

Submission of this ethics proposal form confirms your acceptance of the above.

TITLE OF YOUR PROJECT

An Investigation of the overlaps among Bi-/multilingualism, Language Awareness and Bi-/multilingual teaching approach in China

ETHICAL REVIEW BY AN EXTERNAL COMMITTEE

No, my research is not funded by, or doesn't use data from, either the NHS or Ministry of Defence.

If you selected yes from the list above you should apply for ethics approval from the appropriate organisation (the NHS Health Research Authority or the Ministry of Defence Research Ethics Committee). You do not need to complete this form, but you must inform the [Ethics Secretary](#) of your project and your submission to an external committee.

MENTAL CAPACITY ACT 2005

No, my project does not involve participants aged 16 or over who are unable to give informed consent (e.g. people with learning disabilities)

If you selected yes from the list above you should apply for ethics approval from the NHS Health Research Authority. You do not need to complete this form, but you must inform the [Ethics Secretary](#) of your project and your submission to an external committee.

SYNOPSIS OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

Maximum of 750 words.

Rationale

There are 299 living languages in China (Ethnologue, 2017). Thus, China is a multilingual country. However, Chinese government has been promoting Mandarin Only Policy since 1956 (Zhang, 2014). According to Constitution of the People's Republic of China (2004), Mandarin Chinese is the only nationwide official language. Moreover, Mandarin Chinese is also the only language which is officially used as medium of instruction in both public and private schools in Han ethnic area (Ministry of Education, 2011). In terms of languages used in English language classes, the Chinese Ministry of Education encourages English teachers to use English as much as possible in

the high school level to develop Chinese learner's communicative skills (Ministry of Education, 2011).

In the EFL context, there is research-based evidence including my own MEd TESOL Dissertation data shows that most English teachers are unconfident to use English only in their English teaching (Birch, 1992; Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Ellis, 2013; Yan, 2016). In addition, the English teachers in English as Foreign Language (EFL) context usually to some extent feel guilty about their incompetence of using English only in their teaching. However, according to the data of my dissertation (Yan, 2016), the English teacher whom I observed, used her first language (L1) to offer additional cognitive support (Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003) by explaining abstract content and clarifying vague information. Moreover, in terms of English teaching methods, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), a monolingual teaching approach, has been promoted by Chinese Ministry of Education for the recent two decades (Hu, 2002). However, according to previous studies (Anderson, 1993; Chang, 2011; Hu, 2002; Rao, 2002; Yan, 2016; Yu, 2001; Zhou & Niu, 2015), the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) is still widely adopted by most Chinese English teachers in China. GTM is a teaching methods that uses plenty of translation while teaching a second language. In addition, GTM is a bilingual teaching approach (Meier, 2017) as GTM frequently uses translation and learners' L1 (Hu, 2002; Yan, 2016).

Apparently, there is a gap between the requirements of the Chinese Ministry of Education and the reality of English classrooms in China. Thus, this research will focus on a public high school in China where learners are learning English in an EFL context, and investigate English learners' and English teachers' perceptions of 1) institutional language policy and their individual linguistic repertoire; 2) language awareness (LA); 3) English learners' and English teachers' perceptions and experiences of the current bi-/multilingual teaching approach in Chinese context.

Research Methods

The study adopts a sequential mixed methods design. Data will be collected through multiple methods. A questionnaire survey will be the first phase of the sequential mixed methods design, involving 300 students and 6 English teachers studying and teaching at a public high school in China. Group interviews (focus groups) with Chinese English teachers who have at least 3 years teaching experiences will be the second phase of the sequential mixed methods design. I will recruit approximately 8 Chinese English teachers who are now studying in the UK and have at least 3 years teaching experiences in China. These English teachers will not be the same teachers who have participated in the survey. I will discuss the preliminary data generated from the questionnaires with these Chinese English teachers in the group interviews. **This ethics application only apply for the first phase of my sequential design, that is, the questionnaire survey on students and teachers.**

Research Questions:

The main research question is:

- In what way does the understanding of the overlap among bi-/multilingualism, plurilingualism, LA and bi-multilingual teaching approach help develop a new direction for bi-/multilingual teaching approach in Chinese context?

This question will be approached by answering the following sub-research questions:

1. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions of institutional language policy and their individual linguistic repertoire?
2. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions of LA?

3. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions and experiences of current multilingual teaching approach in Chinese context?

INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH

This research will take place in a Chinese public high school. According to the local ethics procedure, I will contact the head of school by emails to ask the consent of accessing to the participate school. I will then set up a meeting with the head teacher to brief about my research. The meeting will be held in Chinese. After I obtain the consent from the head teacher, I will set up a meeting with English teachers who show their interest in participating in my research to brief them about my research and inform them what they are expected to do. The meeting will also be held in Chinese. All questionnaires will be in English and Chinese.

The following sections require an assessment of possible ethical consideration in your research project. If particular sections do not seem relevant to your project please indicate this and clarify why.

RESEARCH METHODS

The source of data pertaining to this application or for the first phase of the sequential design will be a questionnaire survey. The questionnaire survey is designed to reveal both teachers' and students' perceptions of the school's language policy, their own linguistic repertoire, their own LA, as well as both teachers' and students' perceptions and experiences of current bi-/multilingual teaching approach in the school.

Pen-and-paper questionnaires will be used for both teacher participants and student participants. The questionnaires for teachers and students are designed in both English and their first language (Chinese). The classrooms of those teachers who have indicated an interest in the present study at my initial meeting with them will be visited. I will distribute in person the questionnaires to each teacher participant and his or her classes of student participants in the beginning of an English class with a brief introduction of the questionnaires. Information sheets and consent forms in Chinese will be attached to all questionnaires which are distributed to the teacher and student participants. The participants will need to first sign the consent form before they work on the questionnaire. Students uninterested in participating will be arranged through their teacher to work on some exercises related to their lesson. The questionnaires for teachers and for students are slightly different considering the different roles that teachers and students have in English learning. Participants will be asked questions about their basic information, their individual linguistic repertoire, their perceptions of school language policy and their own LA, as well as their perceptions and experiences of the current bi-/multilingual teaching approach. It will take about 15-20 minutes for the students and the teacher to finish their respective questionnaire.

In terms of data analysis, according to Bryman (2008), the first step in quantitative data analysis is to identify the levels or scales of measurement as nominal, ordinal, interval or ratio. This is an important first step because it will help the researcher to determine how best to organise the data. I will enter all my raw data in SPSS and code them which will begin to give meaning to the data. The second step for quantitative data analysis will be use descriptive statistics to summarise and describe the data (Bryman, 2008). Commonly used descriptive statistics are frequencies, percentages, mean, median, mode, minimum and maximum values (Bryman, 2008). I will use percentages to describe my quantitative data. The reason is that the

quantitative data of my research will be used to express a set of values as a percentage of the whole picture of the teacher participants 'and the student participants' perceptions of language policy, their individual linguistic repertoire, their LA, as well as their perceptions and experiences of current bi-/multilingual teaching approach in China.

The findings from this survey will be included in my thesis and may be published in articles, book chapters and presented in academic conferences in the future. This is indicated in both teacher and student information sheets.

PARTICIPANTS

This research will happen in a Chinese public high school. There are 31 classes taught by 17 English teachers in total within the Grade 2 cohort of the participating school. The total population of Grade 2 is about 1650 students. A simple random sampling strategy will be used in this survey. Six classes within the Grade 2 cohort (about 300 students) will be invited to participate in this questionnaire survey. The English teachers who teach these six classes – six in total - will be invited to participate in this questionnaire survey too.

The age of students is from 17 to 18. All students are over age 16, which is over the legal age in China for a person to give his/her own consent to participate in study. Both teacher participants and student participants will be involved in a questionnaire survey.

I have been told by the head teacher of the school that all teachers and students in this school do not have special needs or learning difficulties. No financial or other inducements will be offered in this research.

THE VOLUNTARY NATURE OF PARTICIPATION

All participation will be voluntary. I will seek the head teacher's permission first. I will then meet teachers who are potentially interested in participating as a group and carefully check that they voluntarily want to participate before I visit their classrooms to approach student participants.

I will administer two versions of an information sheet for teacher participants and student participants respectively. All information sheets introduce the aims of the study and the method it uses. Two versions of consent forms will also be provided for both teacher participants and student participants respectively, which clarify the participants' rights, including autonomy, confidentiality, voluntary participation, the right to withdraw at any stage, and to be protected from harm. The information sheets and consent forms will be administered in Chinese, the participants' first language.

All information to be collected about all participants through this questionnaire survey will be held in confidence. All questionnaires will not be shared with people outside myself and my supervisors in any way. All participants are anonymous and names will be changed to pseudonyms in my thesis. All correspondence is done through my university email address to preserve confidentiality and to distinguish my professional and academic roles.

SPECIAL ARRANGEMENTS

As indicated above, there are no special needs participants or participants with learning difficulties in this research.

THE INFORMED NATURE OF PARTICIPATION

Both teacher participants and student participants will be informed by information sheets. The information sheets includes the purpose of the study, what participation will be involved, confidentiality, anonymity and voluntary nature of the participation. I will use plain language to explain my research to my participants. The information sheets both for students and teachers are in their first language (Chinese).

Both teacher participants and student participants will be asked to sign a consent form administered in Chinese before they fill in the questionnaires.

ASSESSMENT OF POSSIBLE HARM

I will ensure that this project follow the do not harm principle which includes ensuring both teacher participants and student participants' confidentiality and anonymity. No educational intervention will be involved in this questionnaire survey. There will be no administration of test or assessment in this survey. This survey does not involve any activities which goes beyond normal classroom teaching. There are no potential vulnerable adults involved in this study, and the student participants who will involve this survey are all over age of 16. There are no potentially illegal activities involved in this survey and my relationship with the adult teacher participants is strictly within school boundaries.

I will not involve any sensitive topics in both teachers' and students' questionnaires. There will be no pain or discomfort, harm or negative consequences, and need for prolonged or repetitive testing in this research.

This research will be conducted outside of the UK. I have completed the fieldwork risk assessment form and international travel form provided by University of Exeter for my own safety.

DATA PROTECTION AND STORAGE

The questionnaire data will be gathered and handled in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation. It will be specifically for the purposes of this research, including for use in any dissemination, but will not be made available to anyone else other than myself and my supervisors. All questionnaire data and results are confidential and will not be disclosed to third parties, with the exception of myself and my supervisors.

The data (both teacher participants' and student participants' names as well as the school's name) will be anonymised through pseudonyms to make sure the participants are untraceable. I will keep a separate list of both teachers and students' names linked to raw data by a numerical key (such as student participant 1, student participant 2, teacher participant 1, teacher participant 2).

All hard copy questionnaires and signed consent forms will be securely stored in a locked locker in my office located at University of Exeter St Luke's Campus. No audio and video data will be

involved at this stage of my research. Digital files of the data will be stored in my personal password-protected computer that is only accessible to myself.

At the end of the research, all hard copy questionnaires will be destroyed. The anonymised raw data in digital form will be retained for further use for a period that is no more than necessary. This is indicated in both teacher and student information sheets.

The findings from this survey will be included in my thesis and may be published in articles, book chapters and presented in academic conferences in the future. This is indicated in both teacher and student information sheets as well.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

No commercial motives will interfere with this research as this is a self-funded research. All data to be collected will be used for research purposes only. As indicated above, The findings from this survey may be published in articles, book chapters and presented in academic conferences in the future. This is indicated in both teacher and student information sheets.

USER ENGAGEMENT AND FEEDBACK

Both teacher participants and student participants will not be invited to give reflection or feedback on their questionnaires.

I would like to share the results with both teacher participants and student participants if they are interested. I will ask my participants to write down their contact information for me in their information sheets if they would like to know the research results.

INFORMATION SHEET

This ethics application form is submitted with an information sheet for teacher participants and an information sheet for student participants. The information sheets are presented in both English and the participants' first language (Chinese); only the Chinese version will be administered.

CONSENT FORM

This ethics application form is submitted with a consent form for teacher participants and a consent form for student participants. The consent forms are presented in both English and the participants' first language (Chinese); only the Chinese version will be administered.

SUBMISSION PROCEDURE

Staff and students should follow the procedure below.

Post Graduate Taught Students (Graduate School of Education): Please submit your completed application to your first supervisor. Please see the submission flowchart for further information on the process.

All other students should discuss their application with their supervisor(s) / dissertation tutor / tutor and gain their approval prior to submission. Students should submit evidence of approval with their application, e.g. a copy of the supervisors email approval.

All staff should submit their application to the appropriate email address below.

This application form and examples of your consent form, information sheet and translations of any documents which are not written in English should be submitted by email to the SSIS Ethics Secretary via one of the following email addresses:

ssis-ethics@exeter.ac.uk This email should be used by staff and students in Egenis, the Institute for Arab and Islamic Studies, Law, Politics, the Strategy & Security Institute, and Sociology, Philosophy, Anthropology.

ssis-gseethics@exeter.ac.uk This email should be used by staff and students in the Graduate School of Education.

Please note that applicants will be required to submit a new application if ethics approval has not been granted within 1 year of first submission.

CERTIFICATE OF ETHICAL APPROVAL

Title of Project: An Investigation of the overlaps among Bi-/multilingualism, Language Awareness and Bi-/multilingual teaching approach in China

Researcher(s) name: Tian YAN


Supervisor(s): Dr Gabriela Meier
Professor Dongbo Zhang

This project has been approved for the period

From: 30/06/2018

To: 30/10/2019

Ethics Committee approval reference: D/17/18/49

Signature:  Date: 14 June 2018
(Professor Justin Dillon, Professor of Science and Environmental Education, Ethics Officer)

Appendix 4 Consent form and information sheet for learners (Phase 1)

Student Information sheet

Dear Students,

I would like to invite you to take part in this questionnaire survey. Before you decide you need to understand why the survey is being done and what it would involve for you. Please take time to read the following information carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or would like more information.

Thank you for reading this and I would greatly appreciate it if you would like to be engaged in this project.

Title of Research Project

An Investigation of the overlaps among Bi-/multilingualism, Language Awareness and Bi-/multilingual teaching approach in China

What is the purpose of the study?

This project is to seek an understanding about how you as an English learner 1) understand the multilingual environment where you are studying; 2) use different languages (including dialects) in your studying and your daily life; and 3) have experienced different bi-/multilingual teaching and learning approaches in your English studying.

Who is conducting this research?

I am a PhD student at the University of Exeter and this research is supervised by Dr Gabriela Meier and Professor Dongbo Zhang in the Graduate School of Education at the University of Exeter.

What will participation involve?

You will be invited to complete a pen-and-paper questionnaire survey. This questionnaire survey will take you 15-20 minutes to complete.

Will my information be kept confidential and anonymous?

Yes! All information to be collected about you from this questionnaire survey will be kept strictly confidential. They will not be used other than for the purpose described above and third parties will not be allowed access to them. However, if you request it, you will be supplied with a copy of the findings emerged from this questionnaire survey. All your data will be held in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation. All the data will be remained on an anonymous basis, with no mention of your name. The results of this survey will be published in anonymised form.

Do I have to take part?

I would highly appreciate your participation, but your participation is voluntary.

Who Can I contact?

For further information about this questionnaire survey, please contact:

Name: Tian Yan

Postal address: University of Exeter

St Luke's Campus

Heavitree Road

Exeter
United Kingdom EX1 2LU
Telephone: 00 44 (0) 7592325275
Email: ty246@exeter.ac.uk

If you have concerns/questions about the research you would like to discuss with someone else at the University, please contact: Dr Gabriela Meier Email: G.S.Meier@exeter.ac.uk

Consent

I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project. I understand that:

- there is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may withdraw at any stage;
- I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me;
- any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications or academic conference or seminar presentations;
- If applicable, the information, which I give, may be shared between any of the other researcher(s) participating in this project in an anonymised form;
- all information I give will be treated as confidential;
- the researcher(s) will make every effort to preserve my anonymity.

.....

(Signature of participant)

.....

(Date)

.....

(Printed name of participant)

.....

(Email address of participant if they have requested to view a copy of the questionnaire finding.)

.....

(Signature of researcher)

.....

(Printed name of researcher)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s).

Your contact details are kept separately from your interview data.

Chinese version:

亲爱的同学们：你们好！

我邀请您参与一份问卷调查。在您决定参与之前，请您认真阅读这封给你们的通知信函，这里面包含了所有您需要知道的关于此次调查问卷的信息。如果您对此封信函有任何疑问，我将耐心为您解答。

研究题目

对双语/多种语言，语言意识和双语/多语教学方法在中国的情况进行调查

这个研究的目的是什么？

这个研究项目是为了对以下这些情况有一个初步的了解：1) 您学习的多语言环境 2) 您在您的英语学习和日常生活中所使用的不同语言（包括方言）3) 您在英语学习中所经历的不同的双语/多语教学法。

实施这次问卷调查的是谁？

我是就读于埃克塞特大学的博士生。我的两位导师是埃克塞特大学教育学院的 Dr Gabriela Meier 和 Professor Dongbo Zhang.

参与这次的问卷调查会涉及哪些内容呢？

你将会被邀请参加填写一份纸质的问卷调查。这份问卷调查可能需要您 15-20 分钟。

我在问卷中提供的信息会被保密和匿名吗？

会的！所有从这份问卷调查中收集到的信息都将严格保密。它们不会被用于我的博士研究之外，并且第三方将不被允许访问它们。但是，如果您提出要求，您将获得本调查问卷调查结果的副本。您的所有数据将根据“通用数据保护条例”进行保存。所有数据将保持匿名，不会提及您的名字。本调查结果将以匿名形式发布。

我必须得参加吗？

您的参与是自愿的。如果您对这份问卷调查感兴趣，我将非常感谢您的参与。

如果我有疑问我可以联系谁呢？

有关此问卷调查的更多信息，请联系：

姓名：阎天

通信地址： University of Exeter
St Luke's Campus

Heavitree Road
Exeter
United Kingdom
EX1 2LU

电话: 00 44 (0) 7592325275

电子邮箱地址: ty246@exeter.ac.uk

如果您有关于此次问卷调查的疑虑/问题想与大学的其他人讨论, 请联系:

Dr Gabriela Meier

Email: G.S.Meier@exeter.ac.uk

同意书

我已经充分了解这个项目的目标和宗旨。

我明白:

- 没有人强迫我参加这个研究项目, 如果我选择参加, 我可以在任何阶段退出;
- 我有权拒绝发布关于我的任何信息;
- 我提供的任何信息将仅用于本研究项目的目的;
- 我提供的任何信息将仅用于此研究项目的目的, 其中可能包括出版物或学术会议或研讨会演示文稿;
- 如果适用, 我提供的信息可能会以参加此项目的任何其他研究人员以匿名形式分享;
- 我提供的所有信息都将被视为保密信息;
- 研究人员将尽一切努力保持我的匿名性;

.....
(您的签名)

.....
(日期)

.....
(您的姓名)

.....
(如果您需要本次问卷调查结果的副本请留下您的
电子邮箱地址)

.....
(研究员签名)

.....
(研究员姓名)

I, <Tian Yan>, a native speaker of Chinese and fluent Chinese-English bilingual, have translated, to the best of my competence, the enclosed information sheet and consent form from English to Chinese. I confirm that the Chinese version is an accurate translation of the English version.

Signature: 

Date: 06-06-2018

Appendix 5: Consent form and information sheet for teachers (Phase 1)

Teacher Information sheet

Dear Teachers,

I would like to invite you to take part in this questionnaire survey. Before you decide you need to understand why the survey is being done and what it would involve for you. Please take time to read the following information carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or you would like more information.

Thank you for reading this and I would greatly appreciate it if you would like to be engaged in this project.

Title of Research Project

An Investigation of the overlaps among Bi-/multilingualism, Language Awareness and Bi-/multilingual teaching approach in China

What is the purpose of the study?

This project is to seek an understanding about how you as an English teacher 1) understand the multilingual environment where you are working; 2) use different languages (including dialects) in your teaching and your daily life; and 3) use different bi-/multilingual teaching approaches in your English teaching.

Who is conducting this research?

I am a PhD student at the University of Exeter. This research is supervised by Dr Gabriela Meier and Professor Dongbo Zhang in the Graduate School Education at the University of Exeter.

What will participation involve?

You will be invited to complete a pen-and-paper questionnaire survey. This questionnaire survey will take you 15-20 minutes to complete.

Will my information be kept confidential and anonymous?

Yes! All information to be collected about you from this questionnaire survey will be kept strictly confidential. They will not be used other than for the purpose described above and third parties will not be allowed access to them. However, if you request it, you will be supplied with a copy of the findings from this questionnaire survey. All your data will be held in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation. All the data will be remained on an anonymous basis, with no mention of your name. The results of this survey will be published in an anonymised form.

Do I have to take part?

I would highly appreciate your participation, but your participation is voluntary.

Who Can I contact?

For further information about this questionnaire survey, please contact:

Name: Tian Yan

Postal address: University of Exeter

St Luke's Campus

Heavitree Road

Exeter

United Kingdom
EX1 2LU
Telephone: 00 44 (0) 7592325275
Email: ty246@exeter.ac.uk

If you have concerns/questions about the research you would like to discuss with someone else at the University, please contact: Dr Gabriela Meier Email: G.S.Meier@exeter.ac.uk

Consent

I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.

I understand that:

- there is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may withdraw at any stage;
- I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me;
- any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications or academic conference or seminar presentations;
- If applicable, the information, which I give, may be shared between any of the other researcher(s) participating in this project in an anonymised form;
- all information I give will be treated as confidential;
- the researcher(s) will make every effort to preserve my anonymity.

.....
(Signature of participant)

.....
(Date)

.....
(Printed name of participant)

.....
(Email address of participant if they have requested to view a copy of the questionnaire finding.)

.....
(Signature of researcher)

.....
(Printed name of researcher)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s). Your contact details are kept separately from your interview data.

Chinese version:

致老师们的一封信

亲爱的老师们：你们好！

我邀请您参与一份问卷调查。在您决定参与之前，请您认真阅读这封给你们的通知信函，这里面包含了所有您需要知道的关于此次调查问卷的信息。如果您对此封信有任何疑问，我将耐心为您解答。

研究题目

对双语/多种语言，语言意识和双语/多语教学方法在中国的情况进行调查

这个研究的目的是什么？

这个研究项目是为了对以下的这些情况有一个初步的了解：1) 您工作的多语言环境 2) 您在您的英语教学和日常生活中所使用的不同语言（包括方言）3) 您在教学中所使用的不同的双语/多语教学法。

实施这次问卷调查的是谁？

我是就读于埃克塞特大学的博士生。我的两位导师是埃克塞特大学教育学院的 Dr Gabriela Meier 和 Professor Dongbo Zhang.

参与这次的问卷调查会涉及哪些内容呢？

你将会被邀请参加填写一份纸质的问卷调查。这份问卷调查可能需要您 15-20 分钟。

我在问卷中提供的信息会被保密和匿名吗？

会的！所有从这份问卷调查中收集到的信息都将严格保密。它们不会被用于我的博士研究之外，并且第三方将不被允许访问它们。但是，如果您提出要求，您将获得本调查问卷调查结果的副本。您的所有数据将根据“通用数据保护条例”进行保存。所有数据将保持匿名，不会提及您的名字。本调查结果将以匿名形式发布。

我必须得参加吗？

你的参与是自愿的。如果您对这份问卷调查感兴趣，我将非常感谢您的参与。

如果我有疑问我可以联系谁呢？

有关此问卷调查的更多信息，请联系：

姓名：阎天

通信地址： University of Exeter
St Luke's Campus
Heavitree Road

Exeter
United Kingdom
EX1 2LU

电话: 00 44 (0) 7592325275

电子邮箱地址: ty246@exeter.ac.uk

如果您有关于此次问卷调查的疑虑/问题想与大学的其他人讨论, 请联系:

Dr Gabriela Meier

电子邮箱地址: G.S.Meier@exeter.ac.uk

同意书

我已经充分了解这个项目的目标和宗旨。

我明白:

- 没有人强迫我参加这个研究项目, 如果我选择参加, 我可以在任何阶段退出;
- 我有权拒绝发布关于我的任何信息;
- 我提供的任何信息将仅用于本研究项目的目的;
- 我提供的任何信息将仅用于此研究项目的目的, 其中可能包括出版物或学术会议或研讨会演示文稿;
- 如果适用, 我提供的信息可能会以参加此项目的任何其他研究人员以匿名形式分享;
- 我提供的所有信息都将被视为保密信息;
- 研究人员将尽一切努力保持我的匿名性;

.....
(您的签名)

.....
(日期)

.....
(您的姓名)

.....
(如果您需要本次问卷调查结果的副本请留下您的电子邮箱地址)

.....
(研究员签名)

.....
(研究员姓名)

I, <Tian Yan>, a native speaker of Chinese and fluent Chinese-English bilingual, have translated, to the best of my competence, the enclosed information sheet and consent form from English to Chinese. I confirm that the Chinese version is an accurate translation of the English version.

Signature: 

Date: 06-06-2018

Appendix 6: Interview Questions (learner)

Demographic questions

- 1 how long have you been learning English?
- 2 Do you speak any other languages and dialects? If yes, what is it/ what are they?
- 3 Which language do you consider as your mother tongue? And why?
- 4 Ask students' linguistic repertoire in different domains again, family, school, social, hobbies, publication, entertainment

Translation

- 5 Do you think translation is important in your English learning? Why or why not?
- 6 Could you please describe in which situations translation is useful, and in which situations is not useful?
- 7 Could you please describe how translation has been used in your English classes (e.g. teacher translates everything for me; I translate sentences with help from my teacher, other)?
- 8 Could you please describe how you use translation when you study or use English outside English classes (on your own)? E.g. use some devices to translate terms, asking peers or teachers to translate something for me.
- 9 Are there any comments you would like to share about using translation in English learning?

Translanguaging

- 10 Could you please describe in which situations switching between English and Chinese in English classes (translanguaging) is useful, and in which situations is not useful?

11 Have you ever tried read in Chinese (e.g. in the internet), and use the knowledge to say or write something in English? If yes, do you think it is useful or not? And why?

12 Do you think Chinese is important in your English learning? Why or why not?

13 Could you please describe in which situations using Chinese is useful, and in which situations is it not useful?

14 Could you please describe in which situations using English exclusively is useful, and in which situations is not useful?

15 Do you think using English exclusively when learning English is a good idea? Why or why not?

16 Are there any comments you would like to share about switching between Chinese and English in English classes?

Appendix 7: Interview Questions (teacher)

Demographic questions

- 1 how long have you been teaching English?
- 2 Do you speak any dialects? If yes, what is it/ what are they?
- 3 Which language do you consider as your mother tongue? And why?
- 4 Ask teachers' linguistic repertoire in different domains again, family, school, social, hobbies, publication, entertainment

Translation

- 5 Do you think translation is important in your English teaching? Why or why not?
- 6 Could you please describe in which situations translation is useful, and in which situations is not useful?
- 7 Could you please describe how has translation been done in your English classes (e.g. I translate everything for my students; I ask my students to translate themselves and I would help them if needed.)?
- 8 Do you assign any translation task to your students outside your English Class? If yes, could you please give me some examples?
- 9 Are there any comments you would like to share about using translation in English teaching?

Translanguaging

- 10 Could you please describe in which situations switching between English and Chinese in English classes (translanguaging) is useful, and in which situations is not useful?

11 Have you ever tried assign a task to your students, ask them to do preparation in Chinese, and use the knowledge to say to write something in English? If yes, do you think it is useful or not? And why?

12 Would you think Chinese is important in your English teaching? Why or why not?

13 Could you please describe in which situations using Chinese is useful, and in which situations is it not useful?

14 Could you please describe in which situations using English exclusively is useful, and in which situations is not useful?

15 Do you think using English exclusively is a good idea? Why or why not?

16 Are there any comments you would like to share about switching between Chinese and English in English classes?

Appendix 8: Ethical approval of phase 2 interview



Ref (for office use only)

D1819-042

COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

All staff and students within SSIS should use this form; those in Egenis, the Institute for Arab and Islamic Studies, Law, Politics, the Strategy & Security Institute, and Sociology, Philosophy, Anthropology should return it to ssis-ethics@exeter.ac.uk. Staff and students in the Graduate School of Education should use ssis-gseethics@exeter.ac.uk.

Before completing this form please read the Guidance document which can be found at <http://intranet.exeter.ac.uk/socialsciences/ethics/>

Applicant details		
Name	Tian Yan	
Department	Graduate School of Education	
UoE email address	ty246@exeter.ac.uk	
Duration for which permission is required		
Please check the meeting dates and decision information online before completing this form; your start date should be at least one month after the Committee meeting date at which your application will be considered. You should request approval for the entire period of your research activity. Students should use the anticipated date of completion of their course as the end date of their work. Please note that <u>retrospective ethical approval will never be given.</u>		
Start date:10/04/2019	End date:31/10/2019	Date submitted:28/03/2019
Students only		
All students must discuss (face to face or via email) their research intentions with their supervisor/tutor prior to submitting an application for ethical approval. Your application <u>must</u> be approved by your first or second supervisor (or dissertation supervisor/tutor) prior to submission and you MUST submit evidence of their approval with your application, e.g. a copy of an email stating their approval.		
Student number	650055951	
Programme of study	Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) If you selected 'other' from the list above please name your programme here	
Name of Supervisor(s) or Dissertation Tutor	Dr Gabriela Meier Professor Dongbo Zhang	
Have you attended any ethics training that is available to students?	Yes, I have taken part in ethics training at the University of Exeter EG the Research Integrity Ethics and Governance: http://as.exeter.ac.uk/rdp/postgraduateresearchers OR Ethics training received on Masters courses. If yes, please specify and give the date of the training: Yes, I have taken part in ethics training at the University of Exeter when I did my Master in MED TESOL in 2016 27/01/2016	
Certification for all submissions		
I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given in this application and that I undertake in my research to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research. I confirm that if my research should change significantly I will seek advice, request approval of an amendment or complete a new ethics proposal. Any document translations used have been provided by a competent person with no significant changes to the original meaning.		
Tian Yan		

Double click this box to confirm certification

Submission of this ethics proposal form confirms your acceptance of the above.

TITLE OF YOUR PROJECT

An Investigation of a New Direction for Bi-/multilingual Teaching Approaches in English Education in a Chinese High School Context

ETHICAL REVIEW BY AN EXTERNAL COMMITTEE

No, my research is not funded by, or doesn't use data from, either the NHS or Ministry of Defence.

If you selected yes from the list above you should apply for ethics approval from the appropriate organisation (the NHS Health Research Authority or the Ministry of Defence Research Ethics Committee). You do not need to complete this form, but you must inform the [Ethics Secretary](#) of your project and your submission to an external committee.

MENTAL CAPACITY ACT 2005

No, my project does not involve participants aged 16 or over who are unable to give informed consent (e.g. people with learning disabilities)

If you selected yes from the list above you should apply for ethics approval from the NHS Health Research Authority. You do not need to complete this form, but you must inform the [Ethics Secretary](#) of your project and your submission to an external committee.

SYNOPSIS OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

Maximum of 750 words.

Rationale

There are 299 living languages in China (Ethnologue, 2017). Thus, China is a multilingual country. However, Chinese government has been promoting Mandarin Only Policy since 1956 (Zhang, 2014). According to Constitution of the People's Republic of China (2004), Mandarin Chinese is the only nationwide official language. Moreover, Mandarin Chinese is also the only language which is officially used as medium of instruction in both public and private schools in Han ethnic area (Ministry of Education, 2011). In terms of languages used in English language classes, the Chinese Ministry of Education encourages English teachers to use English as much as possible in the high school level to develop Chinese learner's communicative skills (Ministry of Education, 2003).

In the EFL context, there is research-based evidence, including my own MEd TESOL Dissertation data, which shows that most English teachers are unconfident to use English only in their English teaching (Birch, 1992; Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Ellis, 2013; Yan, 2016). In addition, the English teachers in English as Foreign Language (EFL) context usually to some extent feel guilty about their perceived limited incompetence of using English only in their teaching. However, according to my dissertation findings (Yan, 2016), the English teacher whom I observed, used Mandarin (the English teacher's first language) to offer additional cognitive support, which is similar to other findings (Clarks & Paran, 2007; Ma, 2003; Medgyes, 1992; Storch and Wigglesworth 2003) and to explain abstract content and clarify unclear information. Moreover, in terms of English teaching methods, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), a monolingual teaching approach, has been promoted by Chinese Ministry of Education for the recent two decades (Hu, 2002). However, according to previous studies (Anderson, 1993; Chang, 2011; Hu, 2002; Rao, 2002;

Yan, 2016; Yu, 2001; Zhou & Niu, 2015), the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) is still widely adopted by most Chinese English teachers in China. GTM is a teaching methods that uses plenty of translation while teaching a second language. In addition, GTM is a bilingual teaching approach (Meier, 2017) as GTM frequently uses translation and learners' L1 (Hu, 2002; Yan, 2016).

There seems to be a gap between the requirements of the Chinese Ministry of Education, language learning theory and the reality of English classrooms in China. Thus, this research will focus on a public high school in China where learners are learning English in an EFL context, and investigate English learners' and English teachers' perceptions of 1) institutional language policy and their individual linguistic repertoire; 2) language awareness (LA); 3) English learners' and English teachers' perceptions and experiences of the current bi-/multilingual teaching approach in Chinese context.

Research Methods

The study adopts a sequential mixed methods design. Data will be collected through multiple methods. There are two phases of data collection. A questionnaire survey has been done for the first phase of data collection in June 2018 (Ethics reference number: D/17/18/49). 306 students and 15 teachers studying and teaching at a public high school in China completed this survey. The second phase data collection instrument, for which I now seek ethical clearance, will be semi-structured in-depth interviews with students and English teachers. During the first phase data collection, there were 9 students among 306 student participants who left their contact details at the end of their questionnaires without any solicitation. Thus, I took this as a sign that those 9 students would like to contact with me, so I asked them if they would be willing to participate in the second phase data collection, and all these 9 students said they were interested in participating in the 2nd phase interview. I acknowledge that this is a self-selected sample. I will recruit again among those 306 learner participants if these 9 learner participants can not represent good spread of differences in terms of their linguistic repertoire and their English levels. For the teacher participants' recruitment, I will send recruitment information to teachers who participated in the first phase research, as well as to teachers who did not and who are teaching outside of the participating school to seek possibilities and variation as suggested by Punch & Oancea (2014). **Thus, this ethics application applies for the second phase data collection, that is, semi-structured in-depth interviews with students (n=9+) and teachers (n=6+). This ethics application also applies for the second round recruitment among 306 learner participants if more learner participants are needed.**

Research Questions:

The main research question is:

- In what way can student and teacher perceptions on plurilingualism, LA and bi-/multilingual teaching approaches help develop a new direction in English education in a Chinese high school context?

This question will be approached by answering the following sub-research questions:

1. What are the learners and teachers perceptions regarding the best way of learning/teaching English?
2. What are the perceptions of learners and teachers regarding the roles other languages play in English learning if at all?
3. What are the perceptions of learners and teachers regarding role they in form-focused learning or in communication-focused learning?

4. What are the perceptions of learners and teachers regarding other roles that languages play in an English lesson (affective, cognitive, social, etc.)?

INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH

As stated above, 9 students have shown their willingness to participate in the second phase research. Thus, according to the local ethics procedure, I will contact the head of school by emails to ask the consent of accessing to the school again. I will then contact those 9 students to arrange interview time once I have obtained the consent from the head teacher. In addition, I will inform the head teacher that I might need to access the school again to recruit more student participants if these 9 students cannot represent good spread of differences in terms of their linguistic repertoire and their English levels. Thus, I will ask consent of multiple access to the school from the head teacher. Part of the teacher participants will be recruited in the same Chinese school as well. After I obtain the consent from the head teacher, I will contact the teachers who participated in the first phase data collection, and ask if they would like to participate in the interview. I will also recruit teacher participants who are outside the participating school in China, as well as who now are working or studying in the UK. All teacher participants should have at least 3 years teaching experiences in Chinese public high schools.

The following sections require an assessment of possible ethical consideration in your research project. If particular sections do not seem relevant to your project please indicate this and clarify why.

RESEARCH METHODS

The source of data pertaining to this application or for the second phase of the sequential design will be semi-structured in-depth interviews. The interviews are designed to reveal both teachers' and students' perceptions, experiences and opinions regarding their linguistic practice in their English teaching or learning.

Semi-structured in-depth interview will be used for both teacher and student participants. Interviews for both teachers and students who are in China will be conducted online via Wechat. Each interview will last for approximately 45 minutes. I will suggest my participants to find a quiet and private place to connect with me via Wechat, for example, there are private study spaces in their school library. Personally, I will conduct all interviews in University of Exeter's library private study space. I will send information sheet and consent form via email to all participants before their interviews. The participants will need to read information sheet and sign the consent form and send the consent form back to me via email before their interviews. The interview questions for teachers and students are slightly different considering the different roles that teachers and students have in English learning. Participants will be asked questions about their personal background information, their perceptions and experiences of any languages (including dialects) that they are using in their English teaching or learning, and how translation has been done in and outside their English classes, as well as their perceptions and experiences of the balance between forms and communication, skill using and skill getting. All participants will be able to withdraw from interviews at any time. Interviews will be conducted in Mandarin or English. There are English-native speaker teacher in the participating school as well. Thus, English would be the first language of some of my potential teacher participants. All interviews will be audio-recorded after gaining participants' consent.

For data preparation, I will transcribe each interview first once an interview has been done. After all transcription has been completed, I will use thematic analysis methods to analyse the

second phase data. I will code the raw transcripts via NVIVO, and then collate codes into themes. Those themes will be reviewed and interpreted across the entire data set (including the first phase data set).
The findings from the interviews will be included in my thesis and may be published in articles, book chapters and presented in academic conferences in the future. This is indicated in both teacher and student information sheets.

PARTICIPANTS

All student participants come from the same participating school which participated in the first phase research. As I mentioned above, there were 9 students who left their contact detail in the end of their questionnaires after they completed the first phase survey without any solicitation, so I took it as a sign that they are willing to get contact with me. I contacted those 9 students and they all are willing to participate in the second phase data collection. This is a self-selected sample. Therefore, I will contact the head teacher by email again and ask recruiting again among those 306 students who completed the first phase survey if these 9 students cannot represent good spread of differences in terms of their linguistic repertoire and their English levels. The age of students is from 17 to 18. All students are over age 16, which is over the legal age in China for a person to give his/her own consent to participate in study. I have been told by the head teacher of the school that all teachers and students in this school do not have special needs or learning difficulties.

Part of teacher participants will come from the same school who completed the first phase survey as well. I will also recruit teacher participants who are teaching outside of the participating school to seek possibilities and variation as suggested by Punch and Oancea (2014). There are three ways of recruiting teachers who are teaching outside of the participating school. First, there is a Chinese English teacher online forum in China, I will post my recruitment on this forum to recruit English teachers who have at least three years teaching experiences in a Chinese public high school. I will summarise my research project (information sheet) to the individual teacher who respond to my recruitment first, and then ask the individual teacher's consent before arrange an interview time with them. Secondly, potential teacher participants can also be those who are now teaching or studying in the UK with at least 3 years teaching experiences in a Chinese public high school. Thus, I will contact the programme director of MEd TESOL in University of Exeter to ask access to current students who are studying this programme. Then, I will ask the programme director to forward my recruiting email to the students after I have got consent from the programme director. Finally, I have personal connection with an English teacher training organisation in the UK. I will contact the director of the organisation for consent to recruit teacher participants as well. In sum, I will recruit 6 teacher participants in total, ideally, three of them are experienced English teachers in China in their current practice, and three of them are early-career teachers currently studying in the UK.

Both teacher participants and student participants will be involved in a semi-structured in-depth interview. No financial or other inducements will be offered in this research.

THE VOLUNTARY NATURE OF PARTICIPATION

All participation will be voluntary. For students and part of the teacher participants who are from the participating school, I will seek the head teacher's permission first (see information sheet and consent form for institution, learners and teachers attached). For teacher participants

who are outside from the participating school, as I stated in participants section, I will seek permission from individual teachers, programme director and organisation director's permission first before I access to potential teacher participants.

I will also carefully check that all participants voluntarily want to participate in my interview before I arrange an interview time with them. I will administer two versions of information sheet for teacher participants and student participants respectively. All information sheets introduce the aims of the study and the method it uses. Three versions of consent forms will also be provided for the head teacher, teacher participants and student participants respectively, which clarify the participants' rights, including autonomy, confidentiality, voluntary participation, the right to withdraw at any stage, and to be protected from harm. The information sheets and consent forms will be administrated in Chinese and English. All information to be collected about all participants through this interview will be held in confidence. All interview data will not be shared with people outside myself and my supervisors in any way. All participants are anonymous and names will be changed to pseudonyms in my thesis. All correspondence is done through my university email address to preserve confidentiality and to distinguish my professional and academic roles.

SPECIAL ARRANGEMENTS

As indicated above, there are no special needs participants or participants with learning difficulties in this research.

THE INFORMED NATURE OF PARTICIPATION

The head teacher, teacher participants and student participants will be informed by information sheets. The information sheets includes the purpose of the study, what participation will be involved, confidentiality, anonymity and voluntary nature of the participation. I will use plain language to explain my research to my participants. The information sheets for head teacher, students and teachers are in Chinese and English.

Both teacher participants and student participants will be asked to sign a consent form administered in Chinese or English before the interview conducted.

ASSESSMENT OF POSSIBLE HARM

I will ensure that this project follows the 'do not harm' principle which includes ensuring both teacher participants and student participants' confidentiality and anonymity. No educational intervention will be involved in the interview. There will be no administration of test or assessment in the interview. There are no potential vulnerable adults involved in this study, and the student participants who will involve the interview are all over age of 16. There are no potentially illegal activities involved in this interview.

I will not involve any sensitive topics in both teachers' and students' interviews. There will be no pain or discomfort, harm or negative consequences, and need for prolonged or repetitive testing in this research.

I will conduct all interviews online via Wechat in the UK. I have completed the fieldwork risk assessment form and international travel form provided by University of Exeter for my own safety.

DATA PROTECTION AND STORAGE

The interview data will be gathered and handled in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation. It will be specifically for the purposes of this research, including for use in any dissemination, but will not be made available to anyone else other than myself and my supervisors. All interview data and results are confidential and will not be disclosed to third parties, with the exception of myself and my supervisors.

The data (both teacher participants' and student participants' names, the school's name, the online forum's name as well as the organisation's name) will be anonymised through pseudonyms to make sure the participants are untraceable. All signed consent forms and interview notes will be securely stored in a locked locker in my office located at University of Exeter St Luke's Campus. Electronic information (audio recordings of interview) will be downloaded from recording devices at the earliest possible opportunity, and then deleted immediately from the mobile devices. I will save interview audio recordings and interview transcripts in my university provided desktop which is protected by passwords and only can be accessed by myself. All the data will be password protected and stored on University U-Drive for back up.

At the end of the research, interview audio recordings will be deleted. The anonymised raw transcripts will be retained for possible further use. This is indicated in both teacher and student information sheets.

The findings from this interview will be included in my thesis and may be published in articles, book chapters and presented in academic conferences in the future. This is indicated in both teacher and student information sheets as well.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

No commercial motives will interfere with this research as this is a self-funded research. All data to be collected will be used for research purposes only. As indicated above, The findings from the interviews may be published in articles, book chapters and presented in academic conferences in the future. This is indicated in both teacher and student information sheets.

USER ENGAGEMENT AND FEEDBACK

Neither teacher participants nor student participants will not be invited to give reflection or feedback on their interviews.

However, I would like to share the results with both teacher participants and student participants if they are interested. I will ask my participants to write down their contact information for me in their information sheets if they would like to know the research results. An executive summary of the research in English and Chinese will be produced for this purpose.

INFORMATION SHEET

This ethics application form is submitted with an information sheet for teacher participants and an information sheet for student participants, as well as an information sheet for the head teacher of the participating school. The information sheets are presented in English and Chinese.

CONSENT FORM

This ethics application form is submitted with a consent form for teacher participants and a consent form for student participants, as well as a consent form for the head teacher of the participating school. The consent forms are presented in English and Chinese.

SUBMISSION PROCEDURE

Staff and students should follow the procedure below.

Post Graduate Taught Students (Graduate School of Education): Please submit your completed application to your first supervisor.

All other students should discuss their application with their supervisor(s) / dissertation tutor / tutor and gain their approval prior to submission. Students should submit evidence of approval with their application, e.g. a copy of the supervisors email approval.

All staff should submit their application to the appropriate email address below.

This application form and examples of your consent form, information sheet and translations of any documents which are not written in English should be submitted by email to the SSIS Ethics Secretary via one of the following email addresses:

ssis-ethics@exeter.ac.uk This email should be used by staff and students in Egenis, the Institute for Arab and Islamic Studies, Law, Politics, the Strategy & Security Institute, and Sociology, Philosophy, Anthropology.

ssis-gseethics@exeter.ac.uk This email should be used by staff and students in the Graduate School of Education.

Please note that applicants will be required to submit a new application if ethics approval has not been granted within 1 year of first submission.

CERTIFICATE OF ETHICAL APPROVAL

Title of Project: An Investigation of a New Direction for Bi-/multilingual Teaching Approaches in English Education in a Chinese High School Context


Researcher(s) name: Tian Yan

Supervisor(s): Dr Gabriela Meier
Professor Dongbo Zhang

This project has been approved for the period

From: 10/04/2019
To: 31/10/2019

Ethics Committee approval reference: D1819-042

Signature:  Date: 29/03/2019
(Professor Justin Dillon, Professor of Science and Environmental Education, Ethics Officer)

Appendix 9: Consent form and information sheet for learners (Phase 2)

Student Information sheet

Dear Students,

I would like to invite you to take part in an interview that has the aim of helping to understand what is good about English education in China and what could be improved. Clearly, I cannot find out about this without talking to students. Before you decide you need to understand why this interview is being done and what it would involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or would like more information.

Thank you for reading this and I would greatly appreciate it if you would like to be engaged in this project.

Title of Research Project

An Investigation of a New Direction for Bi-/multilingual Teaching Approaches in English Education in a Chinese High School Context

What is the purpose of the study?

This interview is to seek an understanding about 1) your opinion on using different languages (including dialects) and using English only in your English learning; 2) your opinion on using translation in your English learning; 3) your experiences of different bi-/multilingual teaching and learning approaches in your English studying.

Who is conducting this research?

I am a PhD student at the University of Exeter and this research is supervised by Dr Gabriela Meier and Professor Dongbo Zhang in the Graduate School of Education at the University of Exeter.

What will participation involve?

You will be invited to complete an online individual interview (via Wechat). This interview will last approximately 30- 45 minutes.

Will my information be kept confidential and anonymous?

Yes! All information to be collected about you from this interview will be kept strictly confidential. They will not be used other than for the purpose described above and third parties will not be allowed access to them. However, if you request it, you will be supplied with a summary of the findings emerged from the study. All your data will be held in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation. All the data will be remained on an anonymous basis, with no mention of your name. The results of this interview will be published in anonymised form.

Do I have to take part?

I would highly appreciate your participation, but your participation is voluntary.

Who Can I contact?

For further information about this questionnaire survey, please contact:

Name: Tian Yan

Postal address: University of Exeter

St Luke's Campus

Heavitree Road

Exeter
United Kingdom EX1 2LU
Telephone: 00 44 (0) 7592325275 Email: ty246@exeter.ac.uk

If you have concerns/questions about the research you would like to discuss with someone else at the University, please contact: Dr Gabriela Meier Email: G.S.Meier@exeter.ac.uk

Consent

I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.

I understand that:

- there is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may withdraw at any stage;
- I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me;
- any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications or academic conference or seminar presentations;
- If applicable, the information, which I give, may be shared between any of the other researcher(s) participating in this project in an anonymised form;
- all information I give will be treated as confidential;
- the researcher(s) will make every effort to preserve my anonymity.

.....

(Signature of participant)

.....

(Date)

.....

(Printed name of participant)

.....

(Email address of participant if they have requested to view a copy of the interview finding.)

.....

(Signature of researcher)

.....

(Printed name of researcher)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s).

Your contact details are kept separately from your interview data.

Chinese version:

致同学们的一封信

亲爱的同学们：你们好！

我邀请您参与一次采访调查，这次采访调查可以帮助我更好的了解英语教育在中国的情况。在您决定参与之前，请您认真阅读这封给你们的通知信函，这里面包含了所有您需要知道的关于此次采访调查的信息。如果您对此封信有任何疑问，我将耐心为您解答。

研究题目

中学英语教学中双语/多语教学新方向的调查

这个研究的目的是什么？

这个研究项目是为了对以下的这些情况有一个初步的了解：1) 您对于使用不同的语言（包括方言）在英语教学中的看法和使用全英教学的看法 2) 您对于使用翻译在英语教学中的看法 3) 您在英语学习中所经历的不同的双语/多语教学法。

实施这次问卷调查的是谁？

我是就读于埃克塞特大学的博士生。我的两位导师是埃克塞特大学教育学院的 Dr Gabriela Meier 和 Professor Dongbo Zhang.

参与这次的问卷调查会涉及哪些内容呢？

你将会被邀请参加一次采访调查（通过微信视频）。这个采访调查可能需要您 30-45 分钟。

我在问卷中提供的信息会被保密和匿名吗？

会的！所有从这次采访调查中收集到的信息都将严格保密。它们不会被用于我的博士研究之外，并且第三方将不被允许访问它们。但是，如果您提出要求，您将获得本次采访调查结果的副本。您的所有数据将根据“通用数据保护条例”进行保存。所有数据将保持匿名，不会提及您的名字。本调查结果将以匿名形式发布。

我必须得参加吗？

您的参与是自愿的。如果您对这次采访调查感兴趣，我将非常感谢您的参与。

如果我有疑问我可以联系谁呢？

有关此问卷调查的更多信息，请联系：

姓名：阎天

通信地址： University of Exeter

St Luke's Campus
Heavitree Road
Exeter
United Kingdom
EX1 2LU

电话: 00 44 (0) 7592325275

电子邮箱地址: ty246@exeter.ac.uk

如果您有关于此次问卷调查的疑虑/问题想与大学的其他人讨论, 请联系:

Dr Gabriela Meier

Email: G.S.Meier@exeter.ac.uk

同意书

我已经充分了解这个项目的目标和宗旨。

我明白:

- 没有人强迫我参加这个研究项目, 如果我选择参加, 我可以在任何阶段退出;
- 我有权拒绝发布关于我的任何信息;
- 我提供的任何信息将仅用于本研究项目的目的;
- 我提供的任何信息将仅用于此研究项目的目的, 其中可能包括出版物或学术会议或研讨会演示文稿;
- 如果适用, 我提供的信息可能会以参加此项目的任何其他研究人员以匿名形式分享;
- 我提供的所有信息都将被视为保密信息;
- 研究人员将尽一切努力保持我的匿名性;

.....
(您的签名)

.....
(日期)

.....
(您的姓名)

.....
(如果您需要本次采访调查结果的副本请留下您的
电子邮箱地址)

.....
(研究员签名)

.....
(研究员姓名)

I, <Tian Yan>, a native speaker of Chinese and fluent Chinese-English bilingual, have translated, to the best of my competence, the enclosed information sheet and consent form from English to Chinese. I confirm that the Chinese version is an accurate translation of the English version.

Signature: 

Date: 07-03-2019

Appendix 10: Consent form and information sheet for teachers (phase 2)

Teacher Information sheet

Dear Teachers,

I would like to invite you to take part in an interview that has the aim of helping to understand what is good about English Education in China and what could be improved. Clearly, I cannot find out about this without talking to English teachers. Before you decide you need to understand why this interview is being done and what it would involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or you would like more information.

Thank you for reading this and I would greatly appreciate it if you would like to be engaged in this project.

Title of Research Project

An Investigation of a New Direction for Bi-/multilingual Teaching Approaches in English Education in a Chinese High School Context

What is the purpose of the study?

This interview is to seek an understanding about 1) your opinion on using different languages (including dialects) and using English only in your teaching; 2) your opinion on using translation in your teaching; 3) your experiences of using different bi-/multilingual teaching and learning approaches in your English teaching.

Who is conducting this research?

I am a PhD student at the University of Exeter. This research is supervised by Dr Gabriela Meier and Professor Dongbo Zhang in the Graduate School Education at the University of Exeter.

What will participation involve?

You will be invited to complete an online individual interview (via Wechat). This interview will last approximately 30-45 minutes.

Will my information be kept confidential and anonymous?

Yes! All information to be collected about you from this interview will be kept strictly confidential. They will not be used other than for the purpose described above and third parties will not be allowed access to them. However, if you request it, you will be supplied with a summary of the findings from the study. All your data will be held in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation. All the data will be remained on an anonymous basis, with no mention of your name. The results of this interview will be published in anonymised form.

Do I have to take part?

I would highly appreciate your participation, but your participation is voluntary.

Who Can I contact?

For further information about this questionnaire survey, please contact:

Name: Tian Yan

Postal address: University of Exeter
St Luke's Campus
Heavitree Road
Exeter
United Kingdom
EX1 2LU

Telephone: 00 44 (0) 7592325275 Email: ty246@exeter.ac.uk

If you have concerns/questions about the research you would like to discuss with someone else at the University, please contact:

Dr Gabriela Meier Email: G.S.Meier@exeter.ac.uk

Consent

I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.

I understand that:

- there is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may withdraw at any stage;
- I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me;
- any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications or academic conference or seminar presentations;
- If applicable, the information, which I give, may be shared between any of the other researcher(s) participating in this project in an anonymised form;
- all information I give will be treated as confidential;
- the researcher(s) will make every effort to preserve my anonymity.

.....

(Signature of participant)

.....

(Date)

.....

(Printed name of participant)

.....

(Email address of participant if they have requested to view a copy of the interview finding.)

.....

(Signature of researcher)

.....

(Printed name of researcher)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s).

Your contact details are kept separately from your interview data.

Chinese version:

致老师们的一封信

亲爱的老师们：你们好！

我邀请您参与一次采访调查，这次采访调查可以帮助我更好的了解英语教育在中国的情况。在您决定参与之前，请您认真阅读这封给你们的通知信函，这里面包含了所有您需要知道的关于此次采访调查的信息。如果您对此封信有任何疑问，我将耐心为您解答。

研究题目

中学英语教学中双语/多语教学新方向的调查

这个研究的目的是什么？

这个研究项目是为了对以下的这些情况有一个初步的了解：1) 您对于使用不同的语言（包括方言）在英语教学中的看法和使用全英教学的看法 2) 您对于使用翻译在英语教学中的看法 3) 您在教学中所使用的不同的双语/多语教学法。

实施这次问卷调查的是谁？

我是就读于埃克塞特大学的博士生。我的两位导师是埃克塞特大学教育学院的 Dr Gabriela Meier 和 Professor Dongbo Zhang.

参与这次的问卷调查会涉及哪些内容呢？

你将会被邀请参加一次采访调查（通过微信视频）。此次采访调查可能需要您 30-45 分钟的时间。

我在问卷中提供的信息会被保密和匿名吗？

会的！所有从这次采访调查中收集到的信息都将严格保密。它们不会被用于我的博士研究之外，并且第三方将不被允许访问它们。但是，如果您提出要求，您将获得本采访调查结果的副本。您的所有数据将根据“通用数据保护条例”进行保存。所有数据将保持匿名，不会提及您的名字。本调查结果将以匿名形式发布。

我必须得参加吗？

你的参与是自愿的。如果您对这份问卷调查感兴趣，我将非常感谢您的参与。

如果我有疑问我可以联系谁呢？

有关此问卷调查的更多信息，请联系：

姓名：阎天

通信地址： University of Exeter

St Luke's Campus
Heavitree Road
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United Kingdom
EX1 2LU

电话: 00 44 (0) 7592325275

电子邮箱地址: ty246@exeter.ac.uk

如果您有关于此次问卷调查的疑虑/问题想与大学的其他人讨论, 请联系: Dr Gabriela Meier

电子邮箱地址: G.S.Meier@exeter.ac.uk

同意书

我已经充分了解这个项目的目标和宗旨。

我明白:

- 没有人强迫我参加这个研究项目, 如果我选择参加, 我可以在任何阶段退出;
- 我有权拒绝发布关于我的任何信息;
- 我提供的任何信息将仅用于本研究项目的目的;
- 我提供的任何信息将仅用于此研究项目的目的, 其中可能包括出版物或学术会议或研讨会演示文稿;
- 如果适用, 我提供的信息可能会以参加此项目的任何其他研究人员以匿名形式分享;
- 我提供的所有信息都将被视为保密信息;
- 研究人员将尽一切努力保持我的匿名性;

.....
(您的签名)

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(日期)

.....
(您的姓名)

.....
(如果您需要本次采访调查结果的副本请留下您的电子邮箱地址)

.....
(研究员签名)

.....
(研究员姓名)

I, <Tian Yan>, a native speaker of Chinese and fluent Chinese-English bilingual, have translated, to the best of my competence, the enclosed information sheet and consent form from English to Chinese. I confirm that the Chinese version is an accurate translation of the English version.

Signature: 

Date: 07-03-2019

Appendix 11: Interview Transcript Sample (Learner)

Larry Interview transcript 16 April 2019

研究人员：学习英语有多少年？ [*How long have you been learning English?*]

Larry: 从三年级，小学三年加初中三年加高中两年，有八年的时间差不多。 [*From my year three, three years in primary school, plus three years in middle school, plus two years in high school, about eight years.*]

研究人员：除了普通话会讲哪些方言吗？ [*Do you speak any other dialects except Mandarin?*]

Larry: 方言是指国内的方言吗？ [*Do you mean dialects in China?*]

研究人员:对。 [*Yes.*]

Larry: 粤语还有广西的地方话。 [*Cantonese and also dialect in Guangxi.*]

研究人员：广西的地方话是哪里的？ [*What is the dialect in Guangxi?*]

Larry: 贵港。 [*Guigang Dialect.*]

研究人员：那你觉得哪种语言是你的母语呢？ [*Which languages do you consider as your mother tongue?*]

Larry: 母语？应该是广西的吧？ [*Mother tongue? Should be the dialect in Guangxi?*]

研究人员：贵港话是吧？ [*You mean Guigang Dialect?*]

Larry: 嗯。 [*Yes.*]

研究人员：为什么呢？ [Why?]

Larry: 因为我小的时候在那长大，家庭内部沟通也是用那里的话。 [*Because I grew up there, and we all spoke Guigang dialects between our families.*]

研究人员：所以你在家，跟家人就是用贵港话沟通？ [*So, do you speak Guigang dialect with your family?*]

Larry: 对。 [Yes.]

研究人员：那你在学校除了用普通话之外，会用别的方言跟同学老师沟通吗？ [*Do you speak your dialects with your friends or teachers at school?*]

Larry: 普通话会多一点吧 [*Mostly Mandarin.*]

研究人员：那在你自己娱乐的时候，你会不会看除了中文以外的别的语言的电影或者节目？ [*Would you watch any foreign language films or TV programmes in your spare time?*]

Larry: 会呀，我看过的，英语，日语，还有韩语，我还会看英文的报纸。 [*Yes, I would. I watch English, Japanese and Korean films and TV programmes, I also read English newspapers.*]

研究人员：那你觉得中文在你的英语学习里面重要吗？ [*Do you think Chinese is important in your English learning?*]

Larry: 挺重要的，因为我有一个习惯是，很绕的英语不懂的时候，我会用中文来理解它。 [*It's very important for me, because I have a habit, when I can't understand something in English, I would try to understand it in Chinese.*]

研究人员：哦，这样子，那你觉得有帮助吗？ [*Is that so? Do you think this is helpful?*]

Larry: 很容易记下来吧，对记忆来说很容易。对理解也有帮助。 [*It's helpful in memorising, and also in understanding.*]

研究人员：你知道就是比如说我们在有我们自己第一语言存在的情况下在学第二语言，也就是英语。就是有时候，你会很自然的就在中文和英文之间来回转换嘛，就比如说，你背一个单词，你记得它的中文和英文意思。比如，读一篇英语文章，你可能就会用中文去理解它。你能理解我在说什么吗？ [*You know when we are learning a second language in this case English, you already have our first language. Maybe sometimes, you would spontaneously switch between Chinese and English. For example, when you memorise an English word, you would memorise it in both English and Chinese. Also, when you read an English article, you might understand it in Chinese. Does this make sense to you so far?*]

Larry: 你是说两种语言在脑子里面来回转换吗？ [*Did you mean switching between two languages in your brain?*]

研究人员：是的，那你觉得在什么情况下在英文和中文之间来回转换是有帮助的在什么情况下没有帮助的呢？ [*Yes, Could you please describe in which situations switching between English and Chinese in English classes (translanguaging) is useful?*]

Larry: 写作文的时候啊，我会现在脑子里面过一遍差不多的中文，再大概转化成英文写出来写在纸上（草稿）就是先用中文在脑子里面确定一下大概想写什么，然后写出来就是英文。因为老师说，怎么说，你要有那种文章的架构，要有条理性，所以等于是先用中文捋一个条理架构，先搞清楚，然后再用英文把它表达出来。 [*When I write an article in English, I will firstly make an outline in Chinese in my head, I mean I will have a gist in Chinese first, and then I will translate it roughly into English as a draft. My English teacher suggests us that we'd better to make a clear outline first before writing. For me it is easier and clearer to have an outline in Chinese and then write in English.*]

研究人员：那不好的地方呢？ [*When do you think it is not helpful?*]

Larry: 就是音不够正，还有在思维转换上面，比如说英语题的时候，有的时候做一整段文章的阅读的时候，要理解一整段的时候，就没有那么容易去把它连起来，就只能单句的去翻译，就需要很长时间。或者是没有那种，外国人的思维吧。他们的方法可能跟中文的不一样。 [*I think first, the pronunciation is not standard enough. Also, it requires you to switching your thinking too, for example when I read in English, sometimes, I need to understand a whole paragraph, it's difficult to connect them together, so I have to translate the paragraph sentence by sentence, which takes a long time. Also, it's not good for English thinking. You know, the foreigner's thinking system is different from the Chinese thinking.*]

研究人员：那你觉得总体来说，用中文在英语学习中是好还是不好呢？ [*Could you please describe in which situations using Chinese is useful, and in which situations is it not useful?*]

Larry: 我觉得还是，怎么说呢，因为你还要分阶段吧，因为比如那种比较弱的话，你肯定要引入一些中文在课堂，但是如果已经接受能力比较好，我觉得就是不妨去试一下全英。 [*I think, how to say, I think it depends your English level, if your English is not good enough, you must need some Chinese in your learning. But, if you are confident about your English, I think you can try the English only approach.*]

研究人员：什么叫接受能力好？ [*What do you mean by you are confident about your English?*]

Larry: 就是你的单词过关的情况下，你的听力过关的情况下。 [*I mean if you have enough vocabulary, and you are able to understand everything.*]

研究人员：那你觉得全英教学是一个好的方法吗？ [*Do you think using English exclusively when learning English is a good idea?*]

Larry: 可能是吧。因为那种语言环境会更好，对我学单词和提高听力都有好处。不过，我个人而言，并不觉得是好事欸，我觉得可能我会觉得很挑战我的英文，因为之前没有试过。我觉得我的英语老师也不会因为我一个人速度慢下来去解释，让我能跟上她的速度。所以我会担心我可能跟不上。我也挺担心我听不懂的，我可能会听不懂语法，我可能会跟不上老师的节奏。所以我觉得这不是好事，因为我们最终还是要考试。毕竟，我们学英语就是为了要考试嘛。 [*Probably yes. English only provides a better learning environment. It's good for me to build up my vocabulary and improve my listening skills. But, personally, I don't think it is a good idea, it is a big challenge for me, because I haven't experienced it before. I don't think my English teacher wants to slow down because she has to catch up her teaching progress. So, I would concern that I might be lost in English classes. I also worry about my understanding; I probably will not understand any of the grammar points. If I couldn't follow my teacher then I would miss the whole class. So, I don't think it is a good idea because I have to pass the exams. After all, our English learning is all about passing exams.*]

研究人员：你为什么会有这个担心呢？你上过全英的课吗？ [*Why do you worry about this? Did you have any English only classes before?*]

Larry: 口语课算吗？ [*Does spoken class count?*]

研究人员：算啊。 [*Yes.*]

Larry: 那就是有吧。但是我就完全听不大懂老师在说什么，因为语速太快。我跟不上啊，我就很紧张也很懵。 [*Then yes, but I couldn't understand my teachers' English, because he spoken very quickly. I couldn't follow him, so I felt nervous and panicky.*]

研究人员：所以希望你希望老师可以说的慢一点？ [*So, you hope your teacher can speak more slowly?*]

Larry: 嗯，我觉得他们至少得给我们一点时间反应吧，因为毕竟不是母语嘛，所以我们就还是需要用母语来理解。 [*Yeah, I think the teachers should at least give us some extra time to react, because English is not our mother tongue. We still need to understand things in our mother tongue.*]

研究人员：那在你的英语学习过程里面，你觉得翻译重要吗？你会用到很多的翻译吗？ [*Do you think translation is important in your English learning? Do you use a lot of translation in your English learning?*]

Larry: 会呀。翻译是我很重要的一个学习英语的方法，我常常用的。 [*Yes, Translation is a very important learning method for me. I always use it in my learning.*]

研究人员：一般什么情况下你会用到翻译？ [*When do you usually use translation?*]

Larry: 大部分时候，我是用翻译来看看我自己理解对了没。 [*In most circumstances, I use it to make sure I understood everything correctly.*]

研究人员：你在英语学习里面用的翻译，有什么阻碍吗？不好的地方？ [*Could you please describe in which situations translation is not useful?*]

Larry: 翻译是很好的方法啦，但是有时它又就是太依赖的话，你一下看到那个词，在考场上，可能一下子翻译不出来，会让你很着急。如果我用惯了翻译这种方法的话，然后我一时间没有办法把它翻译出来，就会有点慌。我觉得这样不好，但是我又想不到更好的方法。但是，最后，总归还是要英语理解的。 [*Translation is a good tool, but sometimes it makes me to rely on Chinese too much. For example, if I couldn't understand a word or a sentence in Chinese in exams, I would panic a lot. I think this is not good, but I don't know another better way than translation. But, in the end, we should understand things in English directly.*]

研究人员：对于使用翻译在英语学习里面你还有别的什么想说吗？ [*Are there any comments you would like to share about using translation in English learning?*]

Larry: 没有了。 [No.]

研究人员：谢谢你参与我的采访，谢谢你的时间。 [*Thanks for participating my interview, thanks for your time.*]

Appendix 12: Interview Transcript Sample (Teacher)

Terri Interview transcript 03 April 2019

研究人员：请问你教英语多久了？ [*How long have you been teaching English?*]

Terri: 一年半. [*A year and a half.*]

研究人员：除了普通话会讲哪些方言吗？ [*Do you speak any other dialects except Mandarin?*]

Terri: 基本都是普通话，只跟家人讲方言。 [*Mostly Mandarin, I only speak dialect with my family.*]

研究人员：什么方言呢？ [*What dialect?*]

Terri: 甘肃武威方言。 [*Wuwei dialect in Gansu Province.*]

研究人员：那你觉得哪种语言是你的母语呢？ [*Which languages do you consider as your mother tongue?*]

Terri: 方言，因为从小都是讲这个语言，然后跟家人也是用这个语言。普通话是工作语言。 [*My dialect is my mother tongue, because I speak this language since I was little, and I talk to my family in my dialect, and Mandarin is working language.]*

研究人员：那在你自己娱乐的时候，你会不会看除了中文以外的别的语言的电影或者节目？ [*Would you watch any foreign language films or TV programmes in your spare time?*]

Terri: 会看各种语言的剧，日韩英，等等。 [*I watch TV programmes in all kinds of language, such as Japanese, Korean and English etc.*]

研究人员：那你觉得中文在你的英语学习里面重要吗？ [*Do you think using Mandarin is important in your English teaching?*]

Terri: 普通话当然很重要啊。 [*Mandarin is of course very important in my teaching.*]

研究人员：具体来说，你觉得什么时候有用什么时候没有太大用处呢？ [*Specifically, When L1 is useful when L1 is not useful?*]

Terri: 其实我还是用中文讲课会多一些，我的课堂上都是用中文偏多。然后你知道我们是以考试为目的在学英文的，所以我课堂 80%都是在讲语法，我就会转到用中文的。因为如果你用英文讲语法，学生都听不懂。语法本身就很难，普通话这里就可以把语法点解释的更清楚，我有时候也用英文解释语法，但是学生们就搞不懂。 [*Actually, I mainly use Mandarin in my teaching. You know our teaching is exam-driven, so 80% of my teaching content are about grammar. I would definitely switch to Mandarin because sometimes you use English to explain grammar, but the students can't get your point. Grammar is hard enough in a language, So I think Mandarin would be really good to help here. I mean I sometimes I am trying to explain grammar in English, and the students just so confused.*]

研究人员：那你觉得什么时候没有用呢？ [*When do you think it's not helpful?*]

Terri: 其实我觉得有些单词用英文解释会更好，比如说，一下子想不起来，但是我就觉得解释单词的时候有时候用英文释义会更清楚。 [*I think sometimes, I mean, I think sometimes it's easier to explain an English word in English.*]

研究人员：你知道就是比如说我们在有我们自己第一语言存在的情况下在学第二语言，也就是英语。就是有时候，你会很自然的就在中文和英文之间来回转换嘛，就比如说，你背一个单词，你记得它的中文和英文意思。比如，读一篇英语文章，你可能就会用中文去理解它。你能理解我在说什么吗？ [*You know when we are learning a second language in this case English, you already have our first language. Maybe sometimes, you would spontaneously switch between Chinese and English. For example, when you memorise an English word, you would memorise it in both English and Chinese. Also, when you read an English article, you might understand it in Chinese. Does this make sense to you so far?*]

Terri: 也许吧。你是说我们总会用到两种语言？ [*Maybe. Did you mean we always two languages in language learning?*]

研究人员：对。就是中文和英文相互转换，那你觉得在什么情况下在英文和中文之间来回转换是有帮助的在什么情况下没有帮助的呢？ [*Yes, switching from Chinese and English. Could you please describe in which situations switching between English and Chinese in English classes (translanguaging) is useful?*]

Terri: 算是吧，因为感觉两种语言是相通的，在教学过程中两种语言也是可以互相帮助比较。能用英文讲清楚的地方肯定尽可能给学生一个 英文的学术环境嘛，但是中文是辅助作用比较多，因为有时候你用英文说了半天，学生听不懂你的点，语法啊，文化啊什么的。 [*Probably, because I feel the two languages are have connections. They can help each other in my teaching. For example, I will try my best to explain things in English because it provides a better English learning environment. But Chinese is for assistance when students couldn't get your points, like grammar or culture stuff.*]

研究人员：当我采访一些学生的时候，他们会和我分享说，他们习惯用中文查资料来写英文作文，你觉得这样好吗？ [*When I interview the students, some of them shared with me that they sometimes search in Chinese and also read in Chinese first before writing in English. Do you think this is a good idea?*]

Terri: 不反对，因为他们只是高中生，还做不到全部都读英文的资料或者查全英的资料。 [*I am not against my students to use Chinese or translation for writing. They are high school students, so I don't expect them to read everything in English or only find English materials online.*]

研究人员：那你觉得全英教学是一个好的方法吗？ [*Do you think using English exclusively when learning English is a good idea?*]

Terri: 全英不是，不是一个好方法。 [*No, I don't think English is a good idea.*]

研究人员：为什么呢？ [*Why not?*]

Terri: 比如说, 像我刚才说的, 讲语法的时候, 我用英文肯定没有我用普通话来的更有效更清楚。还有像我们这种重点高中, 要做出这么大的一个改变是很难的。我们很保守的, 因为我们要保证升学率嘛。所以改变的话风险很大, 家长们也不会希望我们有什么大的改变。 [*For example, as I said just now, when I teach grammar, it is definitely more effective and clearer in Chinese than in English. And it is difficult for key schools like our school to make any big changes. We are very conservative because we must guarantee a certain number of students to progress to universities. It is so risky to make change, and the parents would not like to see any changes either.*]

研究人员: 那在你的英语教学过程里面, 你觉得翻译重要吗? [*Do you think translation is important in your English learning?*]

Terri: 翻译挺重要的, 我还是用翻译比较多的。 [*Translation is very important, I use quite a lot translation in my teaching.*]

研究人员: 那你觉得翻译哪些方面对你教学比较有帮助呢? [*Could you please describe in which situations translation is useful in your teaching?*]

Terri: 我经常会让 学生翻译一些句子。比如我们这个单元学完了, 那么我就会从练习题里面挑一些句子, 来让他们练习, 我们本单元学过的词汇, 语法, 句子, 都融合进去。然后就把这个句子翻译成比较地道的英文。 [*I often ask my students to translate some sentences, for example, I will pick some sentences from the exercises book for my students to practise translation once we completed a unite. This can help them to practise the new vocabulary, grammar and sentence structures we have learnt in this unite.*]

研究人员：那你觉得翻译哪些方面对你教学比较没有帮助呢？ [*Could you please describe in which situations translation is not useful in your teaching?*]

Terri: 我觉得我们都是把英语当外语来学习吧，就是我们没有一个好的环境，这个挺不好的，尤其是学生的口语。用翻译的话就会环境更不好，翻译可能就是对学生学口语不太好吧。 [*I think we all are learning English as a foreign language, and we are lacking an authentic environment, which is I think the biggest barrier we have, especially for the students' spoken English. Translation only makes things worse. So, translation is not good for teaching oral English.*]

研究人员：对于使用翻译在英语学习里面你还有别的什么想说吗？ [*Are there any comments you would like to share about using translation in English learning?*]

Terri: 没有了。 [*No.*]

研究人员：谢谢你参与我的采访，谢谢你的时间。 [*Thanks for participating my interview, thanks for your time.*]