

**CODE-SWITCHING IN TWO FRESHMAN ENGLISH
CLASSROOMS IN A UNIVERSITY IN SOUTHERN
TAIWAN**

Thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
at the University of Leicester

by

Tien Ching-Yi
School of Education
University of Leicester

September 2004

UMI Number: U601360

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



UMI U601360

Published by ProQuest LLC 2013. Copyright in the Dissertation held by the Author.
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

All rights reserved. This work is protected against
unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.



ProQuest LLC
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

CODE-SWITCHING IN TWO FRESHMAN ENGLISH CLASSROOMS IN A UNIVERSITY IN SOUTHERN TAIWAN

Tien Ching-Yi

Abstract

This study examines the use of Mandarin, Taiwanese, and English in two Freshman English classrooms in a university in southern Taiwan. With a varied language history, several languages are spoken in Taiwan. Although there are monolingual speakers of either Taiwanese or Mandarin, the majority of people in Taiwan are bilingual or trilingual. Therefore, code-switching often occurs in people's daily conversation. Just as languages are used in speaker's daily communication, so it is in the classroom context. The three aims of this study are firstly to explore the nature of classroom talk, focusing specially on how teachers and learners use more than one language to talk around monolingual textbooks in order to accomplish lessons, and secondly to investigate the attitudes of teachers and learners towards the use of more than one language in the classroom (code-switching in the classroom). Thirdly, the study considers the implications of the way language is used in the classroom and the teachers' and learners' attitudes to code-switching. A mixed research method, a combination of quantitative and qualitative perspectives, was utilized in the study, which is based on three major data sources: interviews with two teachers and two groups of students, questionnaires answered by the students, and in-class observations, together with field notes and audio recordings. The study has found that code-switching was used both by the teachers and students in the classrooms. The teachers switched codes, mainly between English and Mandarin, to unlock the meanings from the monolingual English textbooks, for classroom management and to form and maintain solidarity in the classrooms. The students were allowed to use Mandarin and Taiwanese in classrooms. Attitudes towards the usefulness of code-switching in the classrooms were found to be positive amongst the participants.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the two teachers and 107 students who participated in the fieldwork for the present study. I would also like to express my greatest gratitude to my supervisor, Dr Peter W Martin, for his enormous help and guidance throughout the writing of this thesis. I am grateful to Rory Nolan Waterman for his patience and help in proofreading the thesis. A special mention should be made to Professor Ying-Huei Chen for encouraging me to peruse a higher degree. Thanks also to my dear friends both in Taiwan and England for their support and encouragement. I also wish to say thank you to my aunt Sofia and her husband Tony for their financial support during my final year of study. Last, but not least, I am indebted to my family for their endless love and support. Here, I would like to say a few words to them in Mandarin: 我最親愛的爸、媽及家人，謝謝你們對我的支持、鼓勵與信心。

MAP OF TAIWAN LANGUAGES



MAP OF TAIWAN'S INDIGENOUS LANGUAGES

Distribution of Regional Dialects



Adapted from An Excursion into the Dialects of Taiwan by Ang Uyn, 1999, Vanguard Taipei.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
MAP OF TAIWAN	iii
MAP OF TAIWAN'S INDIGENOUS LANGUAGES	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY	1
1.2 GENESIS OF AND JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY	2
1.3 RESEARCH AIMS AND QUESTIONS	3
1.4 RESEARCH METHODS	4
1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY	5
CHAPTER 2: HISTORY, EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE IN TAIWAN: THE CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND	6
2.1 INTRODUCTION	6
2.2 SOCIO-HISTORICAL CONTEXT	7
2.2.1 Ethnic Groups, Population and Language Use	7
2.2.2 Taiwan's Colonial History	9
2.2.3 The KMT Government and the Subsequent Political Changes	11
2.3 LANGUAGE POLICY	13
2.3.1 Language Policy in the Japanese Colonial Period	13
2.3.2 Language Policy Under the KMT Government	15
2.3.3 Language Policy in 2001	18
2.4 EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE PLANNING	18
2.4.1 Elementary Education	20
2.4.2 High School Education	22
2.4.3 Higher Education	23
2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY	24
CHAPTER 3: CODE-SWITCHING IN CLASSROOM DISCOURSE: THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS	25

3.1 INTRODUCTION	25
3.2. DEFINITIONS OF MAJOR TERMINOLOGY	26
3.2.1 Code-alternation	26
3.2.2 Code-switching	27
3.2.3 Code-mixing	28
3.2.4 Borrowing	28
3.2.5 Loan Words	29
3.2.6 Mother Tongues	30
3.3 CODE-SWITCHING IN COMMUNITIES	31
3.3.1 Major Contributors	31
3.3.3.1 Jan-Petter Blom and John J. Gumperz	32
3.3.3.2 Peter Auer	35
3.3.3.3 Carol Myers-Scotton	37
3.4 CODE-SWITCHING IN PEDAGOGICAL CONTEXTS	38
3.4.1 Research in Analysing Classroom Discourse	39
3.4.1.1 The IRF/IRE Pattern in Classroom Discourse	40
3.4.1.2 Safe-Talk	42
3.4.2 Recent Research in Language Use in Bilingual/ Multilingual Classrooms	43
3.4.3 Attitudes Towards Code-switching in Educational Settings	50
3.4.3.1 Attitudes Towards Using Only English in the Classroom	53
3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY	56
CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK	58
4.1 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY	58
4.1.1 Quantitative Research	59
4.1.2 Qualitative Research	61
4.1.3 Observations	65
4.1.4. Interviews	69
4.1.5 Questionnaires	71
4.2 TRIANGULATION	72
4.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	73
4.3.1 Anonymity and Confidentiality	74
CHPATER 5: DATA COLLECTION	75
5.1 THE AIMS OF THE STUDY	75

5.2 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY	76
5.2.1 The Pilot Study of the Questionnaire	77
5.2.2 Access to the Research Site	78
5.2.3 Context of the Research Site	80
5.2.4 The Textbooks	80
5.2.5 The Instructors	81
5.2.6 The Students	82
5.2.7 My Role as a Researcher	84
5.3 DATA COLLECTION, MANAGEMENT AND ANALYSIS	85
5.3.1 Observations	85
5.3.2 Interviews	87
5.3.3 Questionnaires	88
5.3.4 Data Management and Analysis	89
5.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY	90
 CHAPTER 6: THE RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY	 91
6.1 INTRODUCTION	91
6.2. SURVEY RESULTS	92
6.2.1 Background Information of the Participants	92
6.2.2 The Textbooks	96
6.2.3 Languages Used When Interacting With the Textbooks	97
6.2.4 Languages Used when Engaging in Conversational Practice	101
6.2.5 Attitudes Toward Code-switching in the Classroom	104
6.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY	114
 CHAPTER 7: LANGUAGES USE IN CLASSROOM A	 116
7.1 INTRODUCTION	116
7.2 CODE-SWITCHING FOR TALK AROUND THE TEXTBOOK	117
7.2.1 Code-switching in IRF Format	117
7.2.2 Code-switching in Chorusing	120
7.2.3 Code-switching to Explain Linguistic Forms	123
7.2.4 Code-switching to Explain Cultural Content	134
7.3 OTHER USES OF CODE-SWITCHING IN LESSONS	141
7.3.1 Code-switching for Classroom Management	141
7.3.2 Code-switching for Establishing Solidarity in the Classroom	153
7.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY	157

CHAPTER 8: LANGUAGES USE IN CLASSROOM B	158
8.1 INTRODUCTION	158
8.2 CODE-SWITCHING FOR TALK AROUND THE TEXTBOOK	158
8.2.1 Code-switching in IRF Format	159
8.2.2 Code-switching in Chorusing	162
8.2.3 Code-switching to Explain Linguistic Forms	163
8.2.4 Code-switching to Explain Cultural Content	173
8.3 OTHER USES OF CODE-SWITCHING IN LESSONS	177
8.3.1 Code-switching for Classroom Management	178
8.3.2 Code-switching for Establishing Solidarity in the Classroom	190
8.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY	195
 CHAPTER 9: DISCUSSION CONCERNING CODE-SWITCHING IN TWO TAIWANESE UNIVERSITY ENGLISH CLASSROOMS: FUNCTIONS AND ATTITUDES	 196
9.1 INTRODUCTION	196
9.2 THE USE OF LANGUAGES TO FACILITATE INTERACTION WITH MONOLINGUAL ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS	197
9.2.1 Two Patterns of Code-switching: IRF Format and Chorusing	198
9.2.2 Code-switching to Explain Linguistic Forms	201
9.2.3 Code-switching to Explain the Cultural Content of Textbooks	206
9.3 CODE-SWITCHING FOR CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	207
9.4 CODE-SWITCHING FOR SOLIDARITY	211
9.5 ATTITUDES TOWARDS CODE-SWITCHING	213
9.5.1 Teacher Attitudes: Theory and Practice	213
9.5.2 Student Attitudes: Theory and Practice	215
9.5.3 Attitudes Regarding the Use of Mandarin and Taiwanese in English Classrooms: The Unequal Status	219
9.6 POTENTIAL SYNERGY IN USING MORE THAN ONE LANGUAGE TO TEACH ENGLISH	220
9.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY	221
 CHAPTER 10: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	 223
10.1 INTRODUCTION	223
10.2 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY	223

10.2.1 Code-switching in English Classroom Discourse	224
10.2.2 Attitudes Toward the Use of Code-switching	227
10.3 IMPLICATIONS	229
10.3.1 Implications for Code-switching in Freshman English Classrooms in a Taiwanese University	229
10.3.2 Implications Concerning the Unequal Use of Mandarin and Taiwanese in English Lessons	231
10.3.3 Implications Concerning the Synergy of Using More Than One Language in English Lessons	231
10.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	232
10.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	233

TABLES

Table 2-1	Educational Tracks and the Forms of Admission	19
Table 2-2	Grade 1-9 Curriculum Learning Areas	21
Table 2-3	Hours that English is Taught in the Three Different High School Systems	22
Table 5-1	Participants' Background Information in the Pilot Study	78
Table 5-2	Students' Profiles	83
Table 6-1	Languages used in different contexts	95
Table 6-2	The difference between levels II and III when using local languages to understand the textbook	100
Table 6-3	I translate part of my textbook into written Chinese for comprehension	101
Table 6-4	The helpfulness of the teacher using Mandarin or Taiwanese in English classrooms	111

FIGURES

Figure 3-1	Ranks of classroom discourse	39
Figure 5-1	Procedures of the Present Study	76
Figure 6-1	The participants	93
Figure 6-2	Participants in different colleges	93
Figure 6-3	English levels of the participants	94
Figure 6-4	Years of learning English	94
Figure 6-5	English textbook is the best choice	96
Figure 6-6	The content of the textbook	97
Figure 6-7	Using Mandarin for comprehension	98
Figure 6-8	Using Taiwanese for comprehension	98
Figure 6-9	Using written Chinese for comprehension	99
Figure 6-10	English only in pair work	102
Figure 6-11	Mandarin only in pair work	102
Figure 6-12	Using English and Mandarin in pair work	103
Figure 6-13	The use of English and Taiwanese in pair work	104
Figure 6-14	The helpfulness of using Mandarin	105
Figure 6-15	The helpfulness of using Taiwanese	106
Figure 6-16	Teachers speaking more Taiwanese	106

Figure 6-17	Teachers using Mandarin to explain grammar	107
Figure 6-18	Teachers using Taiwanese to explain grammar	108
Figure 6-19	Teachers using Mandarin to teach vocabulary	108
Figure 6-20	Teachers using Taiwanese to teach vocabulary	109
Figure 6-21	Teachers using Mandarin to explain difficult content	109
Figure 6-22	Teachers using Taiwanese to explain difficult content	110
Figure 6-23	Teacher switching between English and Mandarin	113
Figure 6-24	Teacher switching between English and Taiwanese	113

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Transcription Conventions	234
Appendix B: Tong Yong Pin Yin	235
Appendix C-1: A Sample of the Textbook Used for English Level II	236
Appendix C-2: A Sample of the Textbook Used for English Level III	242
Appendix D-1: Questionnaire (for pilot study – English version)	249
Appendix D-2: Questionnaire (for pilot study – Mandarin version)	252
Appendix D-3: Questionnaire (for research site – English version)	254
Appendix D-4: Questionnaire (for research site – Mandarin version)	257
Appendix D-5: Questionnaire (results)	260
Appendix E: Observation Schedule	265
Appendix F: Semi-structured Questions for Teachers' Interview	266
Appendix G: Semi-structured Questions for Students' Interview	267
Appendix H-1: Transcripts (a sample of English Level II)	268
Appendix H-2: Transcripts (a sample of English Level III)	292
Appendix I: Field Notes (two samples: English Levels II and III)	320

BIBLIOGRAPHY	327
---------------------	------------

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

After working as an English teacher in Taiwan for several years, I often encountered the dilemma regarding the concept that ‘English is best taught only in English’. According to the departmental regulations at my former workplace, teachers who are teaching Freshman English courses should only use English in classrooms. In reality, many teachers (including myself) have faced difficulties when sticking rigidly to that policy in classes. Teachers felt ‘unconfident’ using the target language when explaining the more complicated content of a textbook, regarding, for example, cultural issues, state-of-the-art topics and grammatical explanations. Students were also frustrated because they did not understand or learn anything when teachers spoke a language that they were not yet fluent in. Consequently, after several debates in staff meetings, teachers agreed that in order to diminish the conflict between following the departmental policy of using a monolingual teaching method and trying to arouse students’ interests in learning English, they would try to maximize the use of the target language and minimize, not eliminate, the use of local languages in classrooms. The word ‘Chinese’ used in the questionnaire and in any part of this thesis refers to Mandarin.

1.2 GENESIS OF AND JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

Having encountered the previously-mentioned dilemma over a period of time, I began to question the English-only policy in university Freshman English lessons. Based on my own experience and the view of my colleagues, it seems that it is a policy which is suited to English language learners who are proficient speakers of English; for those who are learning at a more rudimentary level it may not be useful or helpful.

In recent years, a large number of researchers have examined the use of more than one language in EFL classrooms and code-switching in educational settings. For example, Lin (1990) has conducted research in Hong Kong to examine teaching in two languages. She particularly looked at language alternation in twenty-four junior form English lessons of four teachers from different secondary schools. In several studies, Martin (1996, 1999a, 1999b, 2003) has looked at language use in primary school classrooms in Brunei Darussalam. Some of these have particularly examined the use of languages for unpacking meaning in monolingual texts in classrooms. The findings of his research have suggested that code-switching was common in the classrooms. Lai (1996) conducted research on teacher code-switching in Senior High School classrooms in Taiwan for his Master degree. In his study he explored how, when and why English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers switched codes in English classrooms, focusing on the types and functions of code-switching.

Having considered the research on the use of languages in ESL/ EFL contexts, I find that there is little research examining code-switching in Taiwan. A study concerning code-switching in university English classrooms in Taiwan has not yet been conducted and therefore this area needs to be explored. Moreover, to find out

what languages are actually used in Freshman English classrooms and how teachers and students use languages in classroom discourse to talk around monolingual English textbooks, I began to question the effectiveness of the English-only teaching method and considered the value of using more than one language in English classrooms and the purpose of code-switching in such contexts. I also aimed to explore the issue regarding attitudes towards the use of code-switching in English classrooms.

In the process of carrying out this study, literature on code-switching both in community and classroom contexts was taken into account. Although the focus of the present study is the English classroom, research on code-switching in communities provided me with some basic knowledge of how languages are used in bilingual or multilingual communities, including speakers' attitudes toward code-switching in their daily communicational repertoire. When examining code-switching in classroom contexts, special attentions was paid to the analysis of classroom discourse, that including Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) format, the issue of safe-talk, and speakers' attitudes toward code-switching in English classrooms.

With the knowledge and insights gained from this study, I will be able to reflect on my own teaching and find ways to improve my future teaching practices. I also hope that the results of the present study can make a worthwhile contribution to the study of code-switching.

1.3 RESEARCH AIMS AND QUESTIONS

The aims of this study are: to explore the nature of classroom talk, focusing specifically on how teachers and learners use more than one language to talk around

monolingual English textbooks in lessons; to investigate the attitudes of teachers and learners towards the use of more than one language in the classroom/code-switching in the classroom; and to consider the implications of the way language is used in the classrooms and the teachers' and learners' attitudes to code-switching. The specific questions addressed are:

- (1) How is the monolingual textbook embedded in bilingual/ multilingual interaction in the classroom?
- (2) What are the teachers' and learners' attitudes towards code-switching in English classrooms?
- (3) Does the use of Mandarin/ Taiwanese in English lessons facilitate the learning of English and is there a potential synergy in using more than one language to teach a particular language?
- (4) What are the implications of using more than one language?

These questions formed the basis of this present study. It is hoped that by answering these questions, the value and the role of code-switching in university-level English classrooms in Taiwan would be answered. Moreover, I would be able to make useful suggestions with regard to the language policy in English classrooms in the researched university.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODS

To answer the research questions presented in Section 1.3, the present study has employed a mixed-method approach in its research design, making use of a questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews and observations with field notes and audio recordings. The choice of mixed-method approach was rooted in a

concern for the reliability and validity of the study. By adopting the use of triangulation and to obtain the maximum amount of data, I added depth to the present study. A detailed report of the research design and methodology is presented in Chapters 4 and 5.

1.5 THE STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

This thesis comprises ten chapters. The present chapter is introductory, and outlines the context of the research, the purpose of the study, and the aims and questions of the research. Chapter 2 provides the socio-historical background of Taiwan, including a brief history, and an overview of the education system and of language use. Chapter 3 reviews the research literature on code-switching, its definitions and theoretical considerations and examines research literature on attitudes towards code-switching in a pedagogical context. Chapter 4 provides the methodological framework of the research. Chapter 5 reports the data collection of the present study, involving the adopted research methodology. Chapter 6 presents and analyses the results of the questionnaire survey. Chapter 7 provides a detailed analysis of the discussion on the use of languages in Classroom A. Chapter 8 explores the use of languages in Classroom B. Chapter 9 discusses code-switching in two Taiwanese University English classrooms with a focus on its functions and attitudes. Chapter 10 concludes the study and points out a number of emerging implications and limitations.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORY, EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE IN TAIWAN: THE CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Taiwan, formally known as Formosa, ‘the beautiful island’, dates back to the mid-sixteenth century when the Portuguese briefly stayed on the island. Since then Taiwan has had a colonial history; in 1945, political control was finally returned to the people of the island. Taiwan has recovered from its colonial past and dramatically developed into one of the most modern countries in the world with a population of approximately of 23 million people. The current population comprises four major ethnic groups: Taiwanese or Southern Min people (70%), Mainlanders (15%), Hakka (13%), and Taiwan’s indigenous Austronesians people (2%) (Yearbook, 2003).

The early development of Taiwan has resulted in the island with a diverse culture and several native languages. Before the Europeans colonized parts of Taiwan in the 17th century, the island was inhabited by the indigenous people who are believed to belong to the Proto-Austronesian linguistic family (also known as Malay-Polynesian). When the Dutch and Spanish invaded and colonized the island in the 17th century, they attempted to turn Taiwan into a profitable economic and agricultural base. There were numerous territorial conflicts between these European countries and the Mainland Cing dynasty. The original indigenous inhabitants were severely suppressed (Tsao, 1999a, 1999b). In 1895, the island was ceded to Japan and the Taiwanese suffered another colonial period. Yet during this Japanese

colonization, various agricultural and infrastructural developments occurred and the island subsequently entered an era of modernization. However, after the Second World War, which Japan lost, control of Taiwan was ceded to China. Since 1949, when the central government of the Republic of China relocated to Taiwan, the island has remained peaceful and has become one of the fastest growing countries in the world both in terms of economy and population.

With regard to language development, the Dutch, Spanish, Japanese and immigrants from Mainland China all brought their native languages to Taiwan; thus Taiwan has a varied linguistic ecology. As a result of Taiwan prospering into one of the foremost countries for international trade, the Taiwanese government is presently putting great effort into emphasizing and promoting the importance of learning foreign languages. English language education is inevitably the primary consideration.

2.2 SOCIO-HISTORICAL CONTEXT

Archaeologists have found evidence that the earliest inhabitants of Taiwan date back 12,000 or 15,000 years. The descendants of these early settlers now comprise less than two percent of the total population. Since the 17th century, the Portuguese, Dutch, Spanish, Japanese and Mainland Chinese have arrived in Taiwan and brought their cultures and languages to the island.

2.2.1 Ethnic Groups, Population and Language Use

The earliest census for Taiwan, in 1905, put the population at 3.12 million (Yearbook 2003). Nearly a century later, Taiwan has one of the highest population

total in southern Asia with a population of nearly 23 million people, comprised of four major ethnolinguistic groups. The first group is the early settlers, which make up less than two percent of the population. Nowadays these people are known as aborigines. The evidence of earliest habitants in Taiwan dates back to between 12,000 and 15,000 years. The settlers arriving from at least two places: southern China and Austronesia. There are currently eleven major surviving indigenous groups and their languages and cultures are recognized as Malay-Polynesian (Austronesian): the Ami, Atayal, Bunun, Kavalan, Paiwan, Puyuma, Rukai, Saisiyat, Tao, Thao and Tsou. Based on the latest available figures, the total number of these eleven groups of indigenous people in Taiwan was 433,689 in 2002 (Yearbook, 2003).

The second ethnolinguistic group, comprising approximately 70 percent of Taiwan's population, is Hoklo (also called southern Min or Taiwanese) who emigrated from China's coastal provinces of Fujian in the 16th century. The southern Min language is also known as Hokkien, Tai-yu or Taiwanese. The third ethnolinguistic group is Hakka, whose ancestors emigrated from China's coastal provinces of Guandong in the 16th century. It comprises approximately 15 percent of Taiwan's population. The last ethnolinguistic group are known as 'mainlanders': those people who emigrated from Mainland China in or around 1949, now comprising approximately 13 percent of the country's population. Due to Taiwan's ethnolinguistic complexity, languages and dialects spoken on the island represent their origins in the Austronesian and Han (Hoklo, Hakka, mainlanders) lingual systems. The Ministry of Education (MOE) is outlining a language equality law that aims to preserve the fourteen major languages and dialects spoken in Taiwan: Mandarin, Taiwanese, Hakka, and eleven indigenous languages, which are collectively classified as 'Formosan' (Yearbook, 2003) (cf. Ethnologue, 2001).

2.2.2 Taiwan's Colonial History

Contact with colonial powers can be broken down into four phases. Each of these phases left some influence on the economic and linguistic climate in Taiwan. The first phase is the Portuguese, the second phase is the Dutch, the third phase is the Spanish, and the fourth phase is the Japanese. However, the most important contact with people from overseas occurred in 1949. These four phases were fundamental in shaping Taiwan's linguistic ecology.

The natural beauty of the island attracted the first European arrivals, the Portuguese, and the first sailor exclaimed *Ilha Formosa* ('the beautiful island') (Yearbook, 2003; Dreyer, 2003, p.390). Since then, Taiwan has gained worldwide attention for its distinctive location and natural resources and has been known as 'Formosa' in several western countries (Yearbook, 2003). After merely six weeks' stay on the southwest coast of the island, the Portuguese left Formosa for Macao and never returned. The Dutch colonized southern Taiwan in 1624 and commenced international trade with China, Japan and Southeast Asia. In addition to economic development, Dutch missionaries were sent to Taiwan in an attempt to convert Taiwan's inhabitants to Christianity. In 1636, the first Dutch school was built in Sinkang and literacy skills were taught to local inhabitants (Heylen, 1998).

In 1626 the Spanish came to Taiwan and established a colonial capital in the north of the island to compete against Dutch expansion. Keelung and Danshuei were built as their bases for trading and for spreading Christianity. In 1642 the Spanish were expelled from Taiwan by the Dutch.

Under Dutch colonial rule Taiwan was one of the most profitable branches of the Dutch East India Company in the Far East mainly for sugar and rice cultivation and other goods such as silk, camphor and deer hides. At the same time as the Dutch

presence in Taiwan, China was embroiled in civil war and was invaded by the Manchus, who consequently established the Qing dynasty in 1644. As a result, thousands of people, particularly from the coastal provinces of Fujian and Guangdong, migrated to Taiwan. This mass immigration transformed the character of Taiwan and resulted in confrontation with the Dutch. Unemployment amongst the Chinese settlers, new taxes for individuals and mistreatment by the Dutch rulers frustrated Chinese farmers and they subsequently revolted against the Dutch in September 1652. The Dutch fiercely oppressed the rebellions and approximately 3000 peasants were massacred (Yearbook, 2003).

Long before the Dutch suppressed the rebellion, Zheng Cheng-Gong, also known as Koxinga, defeated the Dutch and forced their departure in 1662. The Dutch colonization lasted for 38 years. Zheng Chen-Gong, son of the international trader and pirate, Zheng Jih-Long, and his Japanese wife, hoped to use Taiwan as a base to reconquer the mainland, which had been invaded by the Manchu. Koxinga and his son built the first Confucian temple in Taiwan and established Chinese-style schools to introduce Chinese culture, laws, and customs to Taiwan's inhabitants. During their rule, enormous numbers of Chinese people continued to arrive in Taiwan and settled mostly on the western coast. In 1693, the Manchus (Qing Dynasty) defeated Zheng's son and grandson and took over control of the island, ruling Taiwan for 212 years, until 1895.

Under Qing's rule, agriculture expanded to the whole island and many Chinese people left the mainland to settle in Taiwan. Rice, sugar, tea, and camphor played an important role in earning foreign exchange. Taiwan's wealth and natural resources received international attention and some countries even attempted to occupy the island. Japan occupied southern Taiwan in 1874 for a short period of time and the French attacked northern Taiwan in 1884-85. Hoping to impede the foreigner's

ambitions, the Qing made Taiwan the 22nd province of China in 1885.

In 1895, Qing's administration in Taiwan was disrupted by the Sino-Japanese War. Japan determinedly defeated its neighbours in the war between 1894-95 and Taiwan was ceded to Japan under the Treaty of Shimonoseki, signed in 1895. During 50 years of Japanese colonization in Taiwan, Japan actively developed various programmes to pave the way for converting the inhabitants of Taiwan into loyal subjects of the Japanese emperor. Japanese language and writing systems were implemented in elementary schools and onward, and the inhabitants were forced to wear Japanese clothing. Furthermore, the streets were renamed in Japanese. The Japanese colonial government eventually turned Taiwan into an industrialized country, with extensive agricultural plans and hydroelectric power. Under the Japanese transformation plans, Taiwan developed a rapidly growing economy. Yet the strong desire to retain Taiwanese culture and identity and overt resistance to Japan's assimilative policies had stirred up severe confrontations between the Japanese colonial government and the Taiwanese. In 1945, World War II ended with Japan's surrender to the Allies. Taiwan was handed over to China, governed by Chiang Kai-Shek's Kuomintang (KMT), after 50 years of Japanese occupation.

2.2.3 The KMT Government and the Subsequent Political Changes

On October 25 1945, Taiwan retroceded to the KMT Government. People on the island were delighted and thought that peace had eventually come. Unfortunately, the first KMT troops sent to take over Taiwan were poorly trained, insensitive and undisciplined, and they soon destroyed the island's infrastructure and economy. Accumulated tension between the Taiwanese residents and KMT troops burst into demonstrations following an incident in Taipei on February 28,

1947 when an elderly woman, who had been selling cigarettes without a license, resisted arrest and was beaten by KMT troops. Thousands of people were executed in the confrontation. It was one of the greatest tragedies in Taiwan's history and became known as the February 28 Incident (2-28 Incident).

The KMT Government eventually moved to Taipei in 1949 due to defeat on the mainland and brought a great number of immigrants to Taiwan, including Chiang Kai-Shek himself. Nearly two million people from various mainland regions immigrated to Taiwan and also brought in many different languages and dialects. Chiang embarked on an ambitious programme of nation-building on the island and was planning a counter-attack to regain the administrative power in the mainland.

From 1951 to 1965, under the KMT's nation-building programme with enormous economic and military assistance from the United States, Taiwan's infrastructure and agriculture developed and improved dramatically. Some Taiwanese people were sent to be educated abroad. Farmers were able to purchase land from landlords. The economic structure of the island gradually shifted from agricultural exports in the 1950s to industrial manufacturing in the 1960s and 70s. By the 1980s and 90s, Taiwan had become a leading country for technological and chemical products.

On March 18th 2000, the Democratic Progressive Party (DPP), the first major opposition party, won the direct presidential election against KMT and the Independent Party. The election ended the KMT's five-decade hold on the presidency. Soon after winning the election, the DPP government embarked on political changes including educational reform in Taiwan. The language policy was one of the major concerns in the educational reform.

2.3 LANGUAGE POLICY

Taiwan is a multicultural and multilingual country. The earlier settlers, the European invaders, and later immigrants all had a significant influence on Taiwan's linguistic ecology. However, agreeing on a language policy is never easy. Figueroa (1988) stated "[l]anguage policy is political rather than linguistic in nature. ... [L]anguage policy can only be made and enforced by those with political power" (p.296). Evidence of political influences on language policy can be found throughout Taiwanese history. However, due to the lack of written documents and evidence, it is difficult to ascertain how language policy was actually legislated in the past. Yet, one of the important language policies can be traced back from the Japanese colonial period (between 1895 and 1945) to the KMT's language policy and onward.

2.3.1 Language Policy in the Japanese Colonial Period

As mentioned in 2.2.2, when Taiwan was ceded to Japan in 1895 under the terms of the Treaty of Shimonoseki, the Japanese had actively established the transformation programme to demand the Taiwanese to be faithful to the Japanese emperor. Language policy was the one of the major concerns. In 1896, the languages spoken in Taiwan were approximately 83% southern Min, 15 % Hakka, and 2% aboriginal or other languages (Tsao, 2000). With the ambition of completing the 'Japanisation' on Taiwan, the Japanese rulers were pragmatic, realising that it would be impossible to complete the mission without implementing the Japanese language in the educational system and making people speak Japanese (c.f. Tsao, 1999a, 1999b, 2000; Dreyer, 2003). Therefore, three stages of educational language

planning were implemented with the aim of eliminating Taiwanese languages and to replacing them with the Japanese language. The first stage (1895-1919) was the conciliation of the educational system. The Japanese government reluctantly permitted Taiwanese children to attend private Taiwanese schools called Shu-Fang (the literal translation is 'book house') to study Classical Chinese through the medium of Southern Min or Hakka. However, the Japanese government overtly encouraged local children to attend the public elementary schools, where Chinese was taught as a compulsory subject and most of the lessons were taught in Japanese. The use of local languages, southern Min, Hakka, and other indigenous languages was tolerated by the Japanese government at this stage.

During the second stage, called the 'assimilation' stage (1919-1937), all private Shu-Fangs were banned and Chinese was made an optional subject; Japanese was still the main instrument in education. The last stage (1937-1945) was the stage of complete Japanisation. The Chinese language was banned not only in all private and public schools, but also in all public domains, and in the media. The Japanese language was to be recognized as the Taiwanese lingua franca; the indigenous languages were oppressed, discriminated against and regarded as vulgar languages by the Japanese government. Due to Civil War in China, the people who immigrated to Taiwan were poor. In addition, the confrontation between the Japanese government and Taiwan's indigenous people during this colonial period resulted in the majority of local people suffering from poverty. At the time, only the wealthy people could afford to attend public schools, where Japanese was the primary medium for education. Thus people who were able to speak Japanese were regarded as well-educated citizens.

After World War II, the Japanese government surrendered and Taiwan was returned to China, and the Japanese language policy ended in 1945. Four years later

the National Government (KMT) lost the defeat with the Chinese Communists and was forced to retreat from Mainland China. After the KMT government relocated in Taiwan, the new government implemented another language policy.

2.3.2 Language Policy Under the KMT Government

When Taiwan was returned to China, the people on the island were overjoyed that they could freely speak their own languages again. Shortly after KMT's arrival along with a large number of immigrants from Mainland China, the KMT Government faced the difficulty of communicating with local people. The local people were those who spoke Min (Taiwanese), Hakka, and the Austronesian languages; people in the KMT Government only spoke Mandarin. In order to demonstrate the KMT's authority and to make people obey the government, The KMT Government set out the new language policy, which stipulated Mandarin as the national language. Indeed, Mandarin was the lingua franca when mainlanders arrived in Taiwan with KMT troops (Li, 1983). These mainlanders and KMT troops came from different regions in China and spoke various languages or dialects. Most of them did not speak standard Mandarin or only had a little knowledge of Mandarin. The language situation at that time was extremely complicated and needed to be organized with a well-designed plan. With regard to the KMT Government's new language policy, the government promoted Mandarin and severely repressed all the local languages (Hsiau, 1997). Moreover, in order to eradicate the Japanese language in the public domains, the KMT Government set up the National Language Movement to promote the standard of the Mandarin language in 1946 (Tse, 1981, 1986).

Under the National Language Movement, the first attempt was to stipulate

Mandarin (Kuo-yu) as the national language. Children who spoke other languages (Taiwanese, Hakka, or aboriginal dialects) were physically punished, fined, or subjected to other disciplinary actions (e.g. Hsiau, 1997; Tsao, 1999a, 1999b, 2000; Dreyer, 2003). The propagation of monolingualism in Mandarin, KMT's language ideology (Hsiau, 1997), was strictly enforced in all public domains: schools, cinemas and media. Mandarin became the sole national language and gained unprecedented prestige. Other local languages, including Taiwanese, Hakka, and all the aboriginal languages, were regarded as 'dialects' (fang-yen) by the KMT Government. One of the reasons for using Mandarin as the national language was that by that time only Mandarin had the official written characters. Thus, except Mandarin, all local languages were defined as 'dialects', due to the lack of written systems of signifiers. Since that time Mandarin has been the official national language for education, government, the army, and most of the business and industrial administrations.

In 1965, it was stipulated by the KMT Government that all civil servants must speak Mandarin during office hours to reinforce that Mandarin was the sole national language. In 1962, when the first television channel started, non-Mandarin programmes were limited to less than 16% of the total broadcast time. Taiwanese television programmes, which were exceedingly popular in 1971, were suppressed under the KMT Government and rationed to less than one hour per day on each channel. Due to this oppression and a tight budget, Taiwanese programmes were made to be provincial and the roles presented in the programmes were that of low socio-economic status. Consequently, Taiwanese was marked as having 'backwardness, vulgarity, ignorance' (Hsiau, 1997, p.308).

After more than three decades of suppression by KMT's monolingual policy, the local people came to realize the importance of preserving their own language.

The Taiwanese opposition movement then rapidly developed and the Tai-yu language (Taiwanese) movement emerged in the late 1980s. The general goal of the movement was to achieve: the re-evaluation of Tai-yu linguistic quality and cultural significance based on a comparison between Tai-yu and Mandarin, the advocacy of bilingual, or even multilingual, education, and the establishment of a Tai-yu pronunciation symbol and writing system (Hsiau, 1997, p.309). Likewise, an upsurge to promote the design of a standard Tai-yu writing system was eagerly promoted by its advocates (Chen, 1996). Although Taiwanese language advocates have made great efforts to arouse the language equality, long under the influence of KMT's national language policies, Mandarin is always regarded as the distinctive and prestigious language, the high language (c.f. Berg, 1986, 1988; Tsao, 1999a). On the contrary, the local vernaculars, such as Taiwanese and Hakka, are treated as an unfavourable or 'low' language, used by the uneducated.

Since Taiwan became politically democratic in 1986, restrictions on languages used in the media were gradually removed. Tai-yu programmes on both television and radio increased greatly. The restriction on speaking local languages other than Mandarin in all public domains was relaxed. Subsequently, people in Taiwan were gradually paying more attention to ethnolinguistic issues and the Hakka language movement was promoted by its advocates. In December 1990, the Hakka Association for Public Affairs was founded to promote the Hakka language and to raise Hakka ethnic awareness. After the Tai-yu and Hakka language movements, along with the aboriginal language awareness, in April 1993, the Ministry of Education (henceforth MOE) announced that Hakka, Tai-yu, and aboriginal languages were offered as elective courses at elementary schools (Dreyer, 2003).

2.3.3 Language Policy in 2001

In recent years, people in Taiwan have become more aware of the cultural diversity and the importance of preserving the languages and dialects (Chiung, 2001; Tiu, 1999). Due to the long neglect of the using of local languages, many young generations no longer speak their mother tongues, such as indigenous language and Hakka. In order to maintain and promote the local languages, the MOE announced that from September 2001, elementary school students are required to take at least one local language course from the choices of Taiwanese (Tai-yu), Hakka, or an aboriginal language. For junior high school students, the local language courses remained as an optional subject (Yearbook, 2003).

Having promoted the maintenance of local languages, and in accordance with the Taiwanese government's international trading promotion programme, educational reform was triggered by the people's needs. Within the educational reform programme, the education system was re-examined and the language planning has paid great attention to the design of the English curriculum.

2.4 EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE PLANNING

Taiwan's rapid economic development and political changes have caused the government to pay attention to the need for educational reforms in order to meet their goals of international integration and national competitiveness in the 21st century. After many years of debate and reform, the educational system has been diversified and people can now pursue better schooling. Over the past decade, the primary focus of the MOE's educational reform has been the implementation of the

Grade 1-9 Curriculum (the combination of elementary and junior high school education) and higher education. Language planning particular to the English language is emphasized within these two levels. Table 2-1 below presents the outline of educational tracks and forms of admission in Taiwan. Educational tracks means the different educational levels (that is from kindergarten to university degree) and forms of admission indicates the system of the enrolments.

Table 2-1 Educational Tracks and the Forms of Admission
Educational Tracks and the Forms of Admission

Forms of admission	Educational tracks				
Optional enrollment	Kindergarten				
Compulsory enrollment	Elementary school (six years)				
Compulsory enrollment	Junior high school (three years)				
Registered enrollment	Senior high school (three years)	Vocational school (three years)	Junior college (five years)		
Admission by selection					
Admission by application					
Admission by application	University & college (four years)	Junior college (two years)	Technical college (four years)		
Admission through examination					
Admission by recommendation & selection			Technical college (two years) Three years working experience		
Admission through examination	Master's program (one to four years)	Three years working experience			
Admission by selection & through examination					
Admission through examination	Doctoral program (two to seven years)				
Admission by selection & through examination					

Source: <http://www.gio.gov.tw/taiwan-website/5-gp/yearbook/chpt18.htm>

The contemporary education system in Taiwan comprises five forms of enrolment: optional, compulsory, registered, admission by application, and admission through examination. Each form contains different educational tracks. These are kindergartens, elementary schools (six years) and junior high schools (three years), senior high schools (three years), vocational schools (three years), junior colleges (five years), universities and colleges (four years), junior colleges (two years), and technical colleges (four years), master programmes (one to four years), and doctoral programmes (two to seven years).

Three major forms of admission, compulsory enrolment (compulsory education/ elementary education), registered enrolment (high school education), and admission by application (university education or higher education), will be discussed in the following sections, accompanied by the report on the English curriculum for each admission.

2.4.1 Elementary Education

Before 1979, all children in Taiwan were entitled to attend at least six years of basic education. Since 1979, the National Education Law stipulated that all school-age children between the ages of six to fifteen must attend six years of elementary school education and three years of junior high school education. After many years of debates on the gap between the elementary and junior high schools' courses, the Grade 1-9 Curriculum was promulgated for the purposes of creating a cohesive syllabus, integrating the curricula of elementary schools and junior high schools. There are seven major learning areas of the new Grade 1-9 Curriculum. These are language arts, health and physical education, social studies, arts and humanities, mathematics, science and technology and integrative activities. The

structure of learning areas is listed in Table 2-2 below.

Table 2-2 Grade 1-9 Curriculum Learning Areas

Grade/ Learning Area	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	Seven	Eight	Nine
Language Arts	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin
					English	English	English	English	English
Health and Physical Education	H&PE	H&PE	H&PE	H&PE	H&PE	H&PE	H&PE	H&PE	H&PE
Social Studies	Life Curriculum		SS	SS	SS	SS	SS	SS	SS
Arts and Humanities			A&H	A&H	A&H	A&H	A&H	A&H	A&H
Science and Technology			S&T	S&T	S&T	S&T	S&T	S&T	S&T
Mathematics	Maths	Maths	Maths	Maths	Maths	Maths	Maths	Maths	Maths
Integrative Activities	IA	IA	IA	IA	IA	IA	IA	IA	IA

Remarks: Health and Physical Education = H&PE, Social Studies = SS, Arts and Humanities = A&H, Science and Technology = S&T, Mathematics = Maths, Integrative Activities = IA

Language Arts in Table 2-2 shows that Mandarin is taught from grades one to nine and English is taught from grades five to nine. According to the MOE's foreign language planning, the aim of the English course in Grade 1-9 Curriculum focuses on reinforcing the basic four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), developing basic oral communication competence, and promoting an understanding

of foreign cultures and social customs (MOE, 2004).

2.4.2 High School Education

After completing the Grade 1-9 Curriculum, students continue on to high school education. There are three major types of high school systems: senior high schools, vocational high schools and comprehensive high schools. Each type of high school provides various courses for students' intellectual development and later career interests. English is one of the compulsory subjects in every high school. The hours that English is required to be taught in each academic year among these three different types of high school vary. Table 2-3 presents the credit hours of English curriculum taught in three different high school systems.

Table 2-3 Hours that English is Taught in the Three Different High School Systems

Type of high school		Senior high school	Vocational high school	Comprehensive high school
Credit hours taught per academic year	Year 1	8	4	4
	Year 2	8	4	4
	Year 3	8	4	4
Total credit hours		24	12	12

All three different types of high school system conduct three-year programmes. English is taught in senior high school for eight credit hours per academic year, and a total of twenty-four credit hours in three years. For vocational high schools, English is taught for four credit hours per academic year, and the total of twelve credit hours in three years. For comprehensive high school, English is taught four

credit hours per academic year, and for a total of twelve credit hours in three years. The course design and teaching aims of the English Curriculum should be derived from the Grade 1-9 English Curriculum. Yet, each individual school has a right to select textbooks in order to achieve its academic goal (MOE, 2003).

2.4.3 Higher Education

Over the past decade, the government has paid a remarkable amount of attention to higher education reform. The MOE has initiated a more flexible policy for university education, so that each university is more academically and administratively independent. In Taiwan, there are two main types of universities, national universities and private universities. The former rely on the government for their total budget and the latter rely on students' tuition fees for their budget. Within these two types of universities, national and private universities, it is categorized into traditional universities and technological universities; the functions of the former emphasize research and teaching and the latter focuses on technological education and research. In the light of the MOE's regulation and educational policy, each of either the traditional or technological universities has its own features and specific functions in setting up its educational goals, course designs and student guidance systems (MOE, 2001a, 2001b).

Additionally, based on the MOE's curriculum policy, English is a compulsory subject for all first year university students; six credit hours of English lessons are required and are called 'Freshman English Courses'. Each individual university is authorized to design the Freshman English Courses differently to meet its educational goals and its students' needs.

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Taiwan's socio-historical complexities give the island a rich cultural diversity and linguistic multiplicity. The earlier indigenous inhabitants experienced the European colonization by Dutch and Spanish and the adoption of foreign religions and languages was imposed on them. During the Japanese colonial period, people on the island were forced to adopt Japanese culture, language, and loyalty to the Japanese emperor. The contact with colonial powers left some mark on the economic and linguistic climate of Taiwan. After the KMT Government relocated, initially people were overjoyed to be governed by Chinese people. However, after the Mandarin monolingual policy was launched, the oppression of the local languages led to some confrontations between the government troops and inhabitants.

Having experienced several revaluations in the past, the development of democracy has given rise of Taiwan's rapid economical and technological growth. Along with the political and economical changes, people in Taiwan increasingly paid attention to ethnolinguistic awareness and cultural identities. Likewise, the government has pragmatically realized the hopes of the local people concerning the preservation of their indigenous languages, maintaining cultural diversities and the need for educational reforms. Hence, educational reform and language planning were conducted to provide enhanced schooling. More importantly, in order to allow Taiwan to become globally competitive in international trades, the MOE has put great efforts on English curriculum planning in an attempt to increasing people's English communication skills.

CHAPTER 3

CODE-SWITCHING IN CLASSROOM DISCOURSE: THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

People in many parts of the world are often capable of speaking more than one language, and code-switching is a salient phenomenon in speakers' daily conversations. Researchers have attempted to investigate why and how people code-switch including both the socio-cultural aspects in bilingual/ multilingual communities and bilingual classroom settings. Although there are vast amount of literature concerning code-switching both in social and classroom contexts, this study reviews selected literature in these areas.

This chapter consists of three parts. The first part reviews the definitions of code-switching with some related terms such as code-alternation, code-mixing, borrowing, loan words and mother tongues. The second part discusses code-switching in social contexts. The major contributors to the research on code-switching will also be introduced. The third part reviews various perspectives of code-switching in classroom contexts, including recent research in language use in bilingual/ multilingual classrooms, the use of code-switching in classrooms and attitudes towards the use of difference languages in educational settings. The chapter ends with a brief summary.

Before I discuss code-switching any further, it is important to define the term

code-switching and the related terms code alternation, code-mixing, borrowing, loan words and mother tongues.

3.2 DEFINITIONS OF MAJOR TERMINOLOGY

Although I will use the term code-switching throughout this study, I shall start with a brief discussion of the term code-alternation because it is very often used as a cover term for the phenomenon.

3.2.1 Code-alternation

Auer (1984) defined code-alternation as “the cover term for all instances of *locally functional usage of two languages in an interactional episode*” (p.7, original emphasis). He also stated that language alternation and code-switching are used interchangeably by many researchers (Auer, 1984). In addition, in 1990, in his discussion paper on code alternation for the first conference of the European network on code-switching, Auer defined code-alternation as a cover term or “hyperonym for code-switching and transfer” (Auer, 1990, p.71). In that paper, he used the term ‘code-alternation’ to refer to code-switching. Lin (1990) used the term “language alternation (LA)” instead of code-switching to analyse actual language used by Cantonese and English speakers in four classrooms in Hong Kong.

3.2.2 Code-switching

Researchers define code-switching differently. Grosjean's (1982) succinct definition for code-switching is "the alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance or conversation" (p.145). As he illustrated, code-switching may consist of a word, a phrase, a sentence or several sentences. The switched elements of the languages are not "integrated"; there is a "total shift to the other language" (Grosjean, 1982, p.146). This study will use Grosjean's definition for its simplicity and explicit explanation to illustrate code-switching in language classrooms in a university in Taiwan.

In addition to Grosjean's definition, Myers-Scotton (1992) suggested that "[c]odeswitching involves at least two languages used in the same conversation" (p.19). Weinreich proposed that code-switching involves "bilingual switches from one language to [an] other according to appropriate changes in the speech situation (interlocutors, topics, etc.)" (Weinreich, 1953, p.133, quoted in Chen, 1996, p.271). Gal stated that "codeswitching is a conversational strategy used to establish, cross or destroy group boundaries: to create, evoke or change interpersonal relations with their rights and obligations" (Gal, 1988, p.247). Gumperz (1982) claimed that code-switching is "a discourse phenomenon in which speakers rely on the juxtaposition of grammatically distinct subsystems to generate conversational inferences" to indicate the importance of how verbal signs vary in human interaction and the role of language variation in conversation (p.97). According to the definitions above, code-switching involves more than one language and the speakers either consciously or unconsciously change codes whilst speaking.

3.2.3 Code-mixing

To define code-mixing, Holmes (2001 [1992]) stated that it occurs when a speaker “[mixes] up codes indiscriminately or perhaps because of incompetence” in an utterance (p.42). Hudson (1999 [1980]) claimed that when “a fluent bilingual talking to another fluent bilingual changes language without any change at all in the situation” this is called code-mixing (p.53). He further explained that a speaker code-mixes for the purpose of choosing a suitable word in order to avoid ambiguity. Martin-Jones (1990) called code-mixing “[r]apid intra-sentential switching” (p.91). She also suggested another phenomenon that would involve code-mixing: a speaker uses a third language alongside two others (e.g. Maschler, 1998, p.125). Spolsky (2001 [1998]) indicated another type of code-mixing: bilingual immigrants mixing new words into their old language. He also claimed that the “history of English shows many such mixed codes” (p.49). A different view suggested by Pfaff is that code-mixing can be used as a cover term for code-switching and borrowing (Pfaff, 1979, cited in Koll-Stobbe, 1994). Distinguishing between code-switching and code-mixing sometimes causes controversy. Some scholars and researchers tend to think that code-switching and code-mixing are the same. For example, Kwan-Terry (1992) defined intra-sentential code-switching as code-mixing. However, the basic distinction here is that code-switching relates to switching intersententially and code-mixing relates to using two or more languages intrasententially. As noted on pages 26 and 27, I use the term ‘code-switching’ for the study.

3.2.4 Borrowing

Gumperz (1982) suggested that it is important to separate code-switching from

borrowings and loan word usage in order to avoid vague interpretations and presuppositions. Gumperz (1982) pointed out that “[b]orrowing can be defined as the introduction of single words or short, frozen, idiomatic phrases from one variety into the other” (p.66), which means the word or phrase that is borrowed is not necessary grammatically collaborated into the borrowed language. Borrowing is usually treated as part of lexical or morphological usage into another syntactic structure. Elsewhere, Gumperz pointed out that it could sometimes be complicated to differentiate borrowing from code-switching (c.f. Sankoff *et al.*, 1991) if one relies merely on “purely linguistic criteria” (Gumperz, 1982, p.66). Similarly, Myers-Scotton (1988, 1992, 1993b) indicated that it is problematic to distinguish between code-switching and borrowing. In her book, *Duelling Languages*, Myers-Scotton (1993b) argued that there are both similarities and distinctions between the two terms. Grosjean (1982) also stated that “language borrowing is complex and still poorly understood” (p.333).

3.2.5 Loan Words

Gumperz (1982) stated that linguists who have tried to identify loan words primarily based their findings on “etymological origin” (p.66). Scholars who are dissatisfied with this strict criterion suggest that loan words have a salient ‘non-native characteristic,’ and therefore they are often seen as ‘foreign’. For example, Sankoff *et al.* (1991) provided some examples of French loan words in English, such as “council, judge, larceny, armor, prince” (p.182). In Taiwan, the noun ‘bus’ is pronounced ‘ba shih’ which imitates the literal pronunciation from English (this is known as phonological adaptation). People in Taiwan label this kind of noun phrase as a loan word and name it ‘wai lai yu’, which means ‘foreign

word’.

3.2.6 Mother Tongues

As the term ‘mother tongue’ is used in this thesis, I now provide a brief definition. This term is often used interchangeably with the term ‘first language (L1)’ or ‘native language’ among a number of researchers, particularly those who are interested in bilingual/ multilingual studies (e.g. Atkinson, 1987; Hopkins, 1989; Cole, 1998). Three criteria to define ‘mother tongues’ suggested by Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) are: “the language one thinks in; the language one dreams in; the language one counts in” (p.14). She further proposed other definitions of a mother tongue under the headings of:

1. origin: the language which the mother speaks/ the language a child learns first;
 2. competence: the language a person/ child knows best;
 3. function: the language a [person] uses most;
 4. attitudes: the language one identifies with
- (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1981, pp.14-5).

Having discussed the terms mentioned above, it seems that making explicit boundaries between those terms is difficult and is not the main focus of this thesis. I will instead use the term ‘code-switching’ (based on Grosjean’s definition) throughout my thesis for its simplicity and suitability to my research aims, as it succinctly describes the phenomenon of a speaker switching from one language to another, or of more than one language being used in conversation.

Having discussed issues to do with terminology, the following sections provide a discussion of research on code-switching in communities alongside the major contributors in this areas.

3.3 CODE-SWITCHING IN COMMUNITIES

Since the 1970s, several scholars have examined code-switching in social situations. Some have investigated code-switching from a sociolinguistic perspective and focused on the influence of social and cultural values toward code-switching, for example Blom and Gumperz (1972), Auer (1984, 1988, 1990, 1998), Milroy & Li Wei (1995), Li Wei (1995, 1998), and Clyne (2003). Others have paid special attention to grammatical theories and tried to analyse code-switching in daily communication repertoires, such as Myers-Scotton (1993a, 1993b); Poplack and Meechan (1995), and Muysken (2000). More recent research focuses on the analysis of code-switching in classroom settings.

3.3.1 Major Contributors

Several scholars have provided important contributions to our understanding of code-switching. Among them are Blom and Gumperz, Myers-Scotton and Auer. Blom and Gumperz's notion of situational and metaphorical code-switching is acknowledged in many studies. Auer's important contributions regarding the analysis of bilingual language phenomena provide other researchers with different views concerning how bilingual people make code choices. Myers-Scotton's 'Markedness Model' and 'Matrix Language Frame Model' have had a great influence on those who are particularly interested in structural linguistics. In the following section, I discuss each of them in detail as this work has helped to formulate the theoretical framework of my research.

3.3.1.1 Jan-Petter Blom and John J. Gumperz

Perhaps the most influential research over the past three decades was carried out by Blom and Gumperz in 1972. Their study concerns language use in Hemnesberget, Norway, of the two local varieties, *Ranamål* and *Bokmål*, showing how speakers employ different languages to convey meanings and to define social situations. Blom and Gumperz proposed the notion of ‘situational’ and ‘metaphorical’ code-switching. According to their definition, situational switching occurs when participants interact in different social settings, situations or with different interlocutors, (such as at home, school, work, formal meetings, special events, with family members, or with acquaintances or strangers). Metaphorical switching is used when people wish to “communicate metaphoric information about how they intend their words to be understood” by others (Gumperz, 1982, p.61). In other words, people switch languages in order to convey implicit meanings.

The concept of situational and metaphorical switching has become well-known, for example in the work of Myers-Scotton (1995). However, Auer (1984) and Myers-Scotton (1995) have argued that Gumperz did not clearly define or explore situational and metaphorical code-switching. Auer (1988) argued that metaphorical function and code-switching do not necessarily relate to each other. Code-switching, often only occurs in the organization of discourse. Nonetheless, due to the dissatisfaction with Blom and Gumperz’ differentiation between situational and metaphorical switching, Myers-Scotton (1995) suggested that code-switching is better exploited by ‘marked’ and ‘unmarked’ code choice. I will discuss this issue in some detail later, in Section 3.3.1.3.

In Blom and Gumperz’s 1972 study, it was also pointed out that people use the “we code” (e.g. local languages) when they communicate with close friends or

relatives to show solidarity, and use the “they code” (e.g. the official/ national language) in formal discourse or with outsiders to express social distance (Gumperz, 1982, p.66). Numerous researchers have followed Gumperz’s ‘we code’ (in-group) and ‘they code’ (out-group) dichotomy to show how people use those two codes in social interchanges. These researchers have drawn the conclusion that most speakers use the ‘we code to express solidarity and power and the ‘they code’ to differentiate social status or linguistic background (i.e. Wardhaugh, 2002; Martin-Jones, 1995; Auerbach, 1993; Legenhausen, 1991; Adendorff, 1993; Li Wei, 1995; Gumperz, 1982; Chen, 1996). Nevertheless, these studies have suggested that when people switch codes either consciously or subconsciously, they express shared life experiences, knowledge of a shared socio-cultural or educational background, or their equal status. People might also switch codes to express social distance, unequal status or to differentiate role-relationships. (Martin-Jones, 1995; Lin, 1990, 1999b; Chen, 1996). For example, in Taiwan people normally use Taiwanese as ‘we code’ to show solidarity in a group or between interlocutors, and use Mandarin as ‘they code’ to distant from each other or to show the social status.

In addition to Blom and Gumperz’s work, Gumperz’s contextualisation cues theory, which is one of his essential works, should not be overlooked. It is now discussed below.

Contextualisation Cues

The notion of contextualisation cues is important in any discussion of code-switching. Gumperz (1982) defined “Contextualisation cues” as “constellations of surface features of message form [...] by which speakers signal and listeners interpret what the activity is, how semantic content is to be understood

and *how* each sentence relates to what precedes or follows” (Gumperz, 1982, p.131, original emphasis). It is suggested that the cues carry information and meanings as part of the communicative process. Contextualization cues are “habitually used and perceived but rarely consciously noted and almost never talked about directly” (*ibid.*). The meanings of contextualization cues are “implicit”; the message is conveyed by the speakers’ “tacit awareness of their meaningfulness” (Gumperz, 1982, pp.131-2). When participants understand the cue from others’ messages, then a cue has fulfilled its function. However, if they misinterpret the cue, then misunderstanding may occur. As Gumperz pointed out, contextualization cues constitute one of the available resources for people to use when they wish to convey their message whilst switching codes. Yet, it is also agreed that contextualization cues not only play a crucial role in a social context, but also in a classroom context as teachers and learners interact.

A study focusing on contextualization cues in the classroom conducted by Dorr-Bremme in 1990 reveals some of the salient features in classroom contexts. As Dorr-Bremme pointed out in that study, under certain circumstances teachers were unconsciously using the cues to indicate their power, maintaining the regulation of classroom discourse and the manner of directives. Interestingly, students tacitly recognize or become familiar with the cues the teacher uses in classrooms. Cues employed by the teacher functioned as “framing words and paralinguistic shifts” and fulfilled some of the classroom functions (Dorr-Bremme, 1990, p.398). It can be said that when teachers employ contextualization cues, they might not be aware of their implicit intentions.

3.3.1.2 Peter Auer

Auer's salient contribution is the work on code-alternation in bilingual communities. Auer suggested it is useful to employ a conversational analytic approach when dealing with the issue of code-alternation. In order to emphasize the importance of the conversational analytic approach, in 1984 he wrote an introductory chapter concerning code-switching in bilingual conversation and explicitly elaborated his theory. Moreover, in 1988 he conducted a study using a conversational analytic approach to code-alternation and transfer among migrant Italian children in Constance, West Germany. To explicate the term 'code-alternation', Auer (1984) stressed the conspicuous features of language alternation in bilingual communication. He has attempted to arouse awareness of language alternation and investigated code-alternation from different viewpoints.

Additionally, Auer (1984) defined the notion of "transfer" as "non-contiguous stretches of talk" which means that a speaker uses language A at the beginning of the conversation and then uses language B at the end of the conversation (p.72). He further suggested, "the criterion of juxtaposition implies that gradual transitions from one code into the other cannot be classified as code-alternation" (Auer, 1984, p.72).

In the same study, Auer argued that language alternation was often neglected or looked down upon by speakers or linguists. To support his argument, he examined three linguistic contexts based on "grammatical perspective, interactional, and sociolinguistic" perspectives and focused on language alternation to analyse how code-alternation was negatively received by speakers (Auer, 1984, p.1).

Although Auer claimed the importance of the study of grammatical and sociolinguistic perspectives on code-alternation, he suggested "the analysis of the

meaning of individual instances of language alternation seems to be the most basic and also the most unresolved question” (Auer, 1984, p.1). To analyse code-alternation between interlocutors meaningfully and precisely, Auer suggested that it is important to pay attention to speakers’ “subsequent language choices” (Auer, 1984, p.5). In his 1995 paper, Auer emphasized the importance of the sequential approach in code alternation and insisted that the sequentially embedded nature of code-switching in conversation should be taken into account, and not only used as a meaningful semiotic resource, but also considered more closely with regard to its functions or its contexts, as these may vary in different communities.

In addition to his contribution to this important research among bilinguals, Auer (1995) has summarized the common functions of code-switching based on examining other researchers’ works in social settings. These functions are: “(i) reported speech, (ii) change of participant constellation, (iii) parentheses or side-comments, (iv) reiterations, (v) change of activity type, (vi) topic shift, (vii) puns, language play, shift of ‘key,’ (viii) topicalisation, topic/ comment structure” (Auer, 1995, p.120). Although Auer stated that these eight functions are useful, he pointed out some problems that exist with them. Firstly, the functions of the conversational categories are often ill-defined. Secondly, confusion is created by conversational structures, linguistic forms and functions of code-alternation. Emphasis, for example, could be a function of code-alternation; reiteration may or may not emphasise the speech. Thirdly, the eight functions mentioned above may provide an initial cue and yet there is hardly ever a closed one as code-switching is multi-functional. Lastly, the eight functions may also imply that code-switching suggests the same conversational status of both languages from language X to language Y or vice versa. Although Auer pointed out the eight common functions of code-switching, he did not explicitly elaborate how these functions take part in the

conversational analytic approach.

It is suggested that the way people talk in social settings may mirror language classroom contexts (e.g. Martin-Jones, 1995). It would be beneficial to consider Auer's sequential approach in the current study in order to explore and analyse reciprocal conversations between a teacher and learners during the lessons. In conducting observations in this study, special attention is therefore paid to subsequent language choices in classroom conversation in order to mitigate misinterpretations that may occur based on my own perception.

3.3.1.3 Carol Myers-Scotton

Myers-Scotton has looked at code-switching mostly from the socio-psychological perspective and linguistic constraints or rules (grammatical, lexical, phonological, or morphological) based on her data from multilingual African contexts (e.g. Myers-Scotton, 1988, 1992, 1993a, 1993b, 1995, 2000).

As mentioned previously, Myers-Scotton (1993a) has argued that Gumperz did not provide a clear explanation of the similarities between situational and metaphorical switching. In her view situational code-switching is an 'unmarked' choice, whilst metaphorical code-switching tends to be a 'marked' choice. She stated that an 'unmarked choice' is used in the in-group because it indexes the "expected" medium for an exchange between interlocutors and also carries the social norms (e.g. the topic, the setting, the speakers, and the addressee) (Myers-Scotton, 1995, p.75). In contrast, the 'marked choice' has the characteristics of being used in out-group or public interactions because such a code is based on a particular relationship with others and carries marked or unexpected linguistic codes.

The Markedness Model proposed by Myers-Scotton (1993b, 1995, 2000) emphasizes the way speakers make linguistic choices. Her argument for the Markedness Model is that “members of bilingual communities know that codeswitching (CS) is a strategy which is followed when speakers perceive that their own costs-rewards balance will be more favourable for the conversation at hand through engaging in CS than through using a single code” (Myers-Scotton, 1995, p.152). However, Myers-Scotton has suggested that the Matrix Language Frame Model, which focuses specifically on analysing grammatical structure of code-switching, could help to analyse the switch between languages from different perspectives.

The work of these three scholars provides some evidence of why and how people switch languages in bilingual/ multilingual societies. Having considered the major theoretical discussions on code-switching, I will now turn to a more recent field of research, and the topic of this thesis: code-switching in the classroom.

3.4 CODE-SWITCHING IN PEDAGOGICAL CONTEXTS

The first and second parts of this chapter provide some theoretical introduction to code-switching, but this section (3.4) helps to formulate how I analyse the data. However, before looking at this literature in detail, it is necessary to take a step back and consider classroom discourse. Classroom discourse is a vast area, and space only permits a discussion of aspects of it that are pertinent to this study.

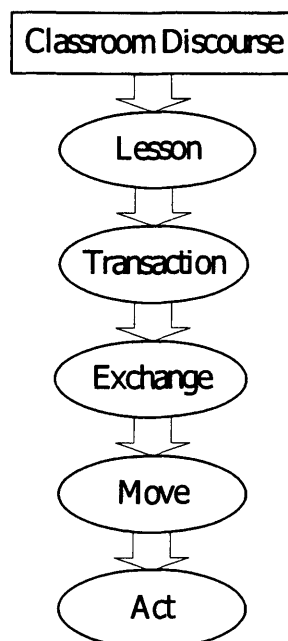
Classroom-centred research has attracted many teacher trainers and researchers since the 1950s (e.g. Allwright and Bailey, 1991). Some have suggested that classroom research should make use of different perspectives. For example,

Allwright and Bailey (1991) suggested that classroom research should not merely focus on the “*inputs*” and the “*outputs*” in the classroom; instead, it should essentially try “to investigate what actually happens inside the classroom” (p.2, original emphasis). Research began to focus on discourse in classroom settings. In the next section, an analytic approach to discourse is discussed.

3.4.1 Research in Analysing Classroom Discourse

The discourse analytic approach has been employed frequently when conducting classroom research. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), two influential scholars in this field, have published several significant works regarding the analyses of teachers’ and pupils’ discourse. In their book, *Towards and Analysis of Discourse: The English used by Teachers and Pupils*, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) examined classroom discourse in detail. They categorized classroom discourse under five headings (the hierarchical system from top to the bottom): lesson, transaction, exchange, move and act (Figure 3-1).

3-1 Ranks of Classroom Discourse



Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) stated that on the top of the hierarchical classroom discourse are lessons. They are made up of transactions. Transactions normally initiate with exchanges and these exchanges are looked at by “Initiation (I), Response (R) and Feedback (F)” sequence (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975, p.50). Exchanges consist of moves, and moves are made up of function units of acts. Based on their observations, Sinclair and Coulthard suggested that when analysing classroom discourse, it is better to start off with the lowest rank of discourse, ‘acts’. I have concerned their suggestion to be useful for analysing classroom discourse. However, due to the nature of the present study, I have focused on ‘exchanges’ (IRF sequence) when examining the languages use in the language classrooms.

This IRF exchange is often found in traditional classrooms, where the teacher initiates a question and students respond (often the answer is restricted by the closed nature of question); the teacher then gives feedback at the end of the exchange. As van Lier (1996) suggested, the IRF sequence is a salient feature of classroom interaction and should be looked at carefully in terms of its rationale and pedagogical value. It is now discussed in the next sub-section.

3.4.1.1 The IRF/IRE Pattern in Classroom Discourse

Bellack *et al.* coined the term ‘IRF exchange’ in 1966 in their classroom research. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) elaborated it in some detail in their book, *Towards an Analysis of Discourse*. Mehan (1979) noted from the classroom activities he had observed in the past and suggested that learning lesson activities between teachers and participants can be seen as a pattern of “initiation, reply, and evaluation” (p.37). Cazden (1988) examined Mehan’s concept and pointed out that the most common sequence for teacher-led classroom discourse is the “three-part

sequence of teacher initiation, students response, teacher evaluation (IRE)”, in which teachers manage the classroom interactions both by developing a topic and deciding who gets the chance to talk (p.29). van Lier (1996) examined IRF teaching exchange in detail and summarized some major features of IRF, as follows:

- (a) It is three turns long.
- (b) The first and the third turns are produced by a teacher, the second one by a student.
- (c) The exchange is started and ended by the teacher.
- (d) As a result of (b) and (c) the student’s turn is sandwiched between two teacher’s turns.
- (e) The first teacher’s turn is designed to elicit some kind of verbal response from a student. The teacher often already knows the answer (is the “primary knower”), or at least has a specific idea “in mind” of what will count as a proper answer.
- (f) The second teacher’s turn (the third turn in the exchange) is some kind of comment on the second turn, or on the “fit” between the second and the first. Here the student finds out if the answer corresponds with whatever the teacher has “in mind”.
- (g) It is often clear from the third turn whether or not the teacher was interested in the information contained in the response, or merely in the form of the answer, or in seeing if the student knew the answer or not.
- (h) If the exchange is part of a series, as is often the case, there is behind the series a plan and a direction determined by the teacher. The teacher “leads”, the students “follow”. (van Lier, 1996, p.150)

Although, as van Lier claimed, IRE/IRF is used most frequently in teacher-dominated classroom discourse, he further suggested that there are some advantages and disadvantages that must be taken into a consideration. According to van Lier (1996), three advantages of IRF exchange are: firstly, when it functions as “scaffolding interaction” and also promotes “*handover*,” thus students can take one step further with IRF and practice the authentic conversation (p.152, original

emphasis). Secondly, teachers can elicit an answer from students by IRF exchange in a guided direction, and students can know whether the answer was correct or incorrect immediately. Lastly, teachers can fully control or maintain the dialogue as he/ she planned by adopting the IRF technique. IRF exchange nevertheless has some disadvantages.

A few disadvantages of IRF pointed out by van Lier (1996) are, for instance, the answer (the third turn) closes the exchange; the exploration of students' response is thus disallowed. The flexibility of question and answer drill practice is limited. Some vocal and eager students may be disappointed by the limited opportunity to practise the dialogue because it either allows one student to perform the response at one time, or if several students answer the question at the same time it creates noise or makes the answer unintelligible. After commenting on the advantages and disadvantages of IRF, van Lier (1996) further suggested four functions of IRF: "repetition, recitation, cognition, and expression" (pp.153-4). Students can construct, reproduce, and output what they formerly have learned more clearly and precisely based on their learning through the IRF format. The use of the IRF format in classrooms might be "beneficial in securing students' engagement" (van Lier, 1996, p.156). Hence, it might be one of the reasons why teachers conduct the IRF format particularly in language lessons in order to provide students with a niche for a 'safe-talk'.

3.4.1.2 Safe-Talk

The notion of safe-talk initially coined by Chick (1996) seems to be a common teacher-centred style of classroom interaction in many parts of the world (c.f. Lin, 1990; Martin 1999a, 1999b). As Chick (1996) pointed out in his research, the use of

“safe-talk” both by teachers and students is for the purpose of hiding their linguistic incompetence and avoiding a “loss of face” (p.29). One of the techniques used in safe-talk in classroom situations is ‘chorusing’. By adopting synchronized chorusing, the teacher can ensure students do not risk undue embarrassment. Chick further suggested that teachers consider such practices to “help students to avoid loss of face associated with being wrong in a public situation, and provide them with a sense of purpose and accomplishment” (p.30).

Having discussed several issues related to classroom discourse, I will discuss some recent classroom research regarding code-switching to illustrate the points that are relevant to this study. I will refer to recent research in language use in bilingual/ multilingual classrooms noted by practitioners and research concerning the use of a mother tongue in ESL/ EFL classrooms. In the last section, I will go on to discuss attitudes towards code-switching in educational contexts, including the discussion of attitudes on English-only teaching policies.

3.4.2 Recent Research in Language Use in Bilingual/ Multilingual Classrooms

Numerous studies focusing on code-switching have paid attention to research on the use of languages in bilingual and multilingual contexts since the 1970s. Some of this research is detailed below. As Martin-Jones (1995) points out, the earliest studies in bilingual education programmes were carried out in the United States for linguistic minority children. Since then, studies in this particular context have been an international topic and have gained a great amount of attention. The development of classroom-based research regarding bilingual or multilingual settings has been undertaken in Canada, South America, Africa, South-East Asia and Europe.

Before further discussion on literature concerning code-switching in classroom settings, I would like to take a step back and point out a particular paper written by Martin-Jones in 1995 regarding recent research methodology development in language classrooms. As Martin-Jones (1995) summarised in her article, “Code-Switching in the Classroom: Two Decades of Research”, the methodologies employed in conducting classroom discourse analysis in bilingual/ multilingual settings have initially started off with quantitative research (e.g. Milk, 1981; Guthrie, 1984) and then moved onto a qualitative approach (e.g. Zentella, 1981; Lin, 1988, 1990). Recent research tends to be in favour of utilizing ethnographic observation (e.g. Mehan, 1981) or micro-ethnographic observation (e.g. Enright, 1984). A detailed discussion of research methodology is provided in Chapter 4.

Back to the bilingual/ multilingual classroom discourse research, recent research has paid more attention to the linguistic education programmes for ESL/ EFL and adult language learners. Several studies on bilingual or ESL/ EFL programmes have been undertaken to examine the implemented language education policy. Studies have suggested that language choice in bilingual or multilingual classrooms is complex, and more in-depth research should be conducted.

To show how much has been done in a wide variety of contexts, chapter space doesn't not permit a full discussion of all these studies; hence, I will discuss a number of selected literature that helps to formulate the theoretical consideration of the present study. These studies focus particularly on code-switching in classrooms: Atkinson (1987) in the use of mother tongues in the classroom; Giauque and Ely (1989) in French university classrooms; Faltis (1989) in a Texan bilingual school; Lin (1990, 1996, 1999a, 1999b) in Hong Kong secondary classrooms; Merritt *et al.* (1992) in Kenyan primary classrooms; Adendorff (1993) in KwaZulu boarding school; Auerbach (1993) in re-examining English-only movements in ESL

classrooms in the USA; Pease-Alvarez and Winsler (1994) in Oakside School in the USA; Ernst (1994) in an ESL classroom in Florida, USA; Canagarajah (1995) in ESL classrooms in Jaffna, Sri Lanka; Arthur (1996) in Botswanan primary schools; Chen (1996) in a Taiwanese Teachers' College; Lai (1996) in Taiwanese Senior High School Classrooms; Eldridge (1996) in a Turkish secondary school; Martin (1996, 1999a, 1999b, 2003a, 2003b) in Brunei primary classrooms; Kuo (1999) on the use of mother tongue in EFL classrooms; Ncoko *et al.* (2000) in South African primary schools; Goldstein (2002) on the teaching and learning in Cantonese and English in Multilingual classrooms; Jaffe (2003) in a Corsican bilingual classroom; Probyn (forthcoming) in South African Schools. Ferguson (2003) reviewing the studies on classroom functions of code-switching in post-colonial contexts. This list cites only a few examples. In the following paragraphs, I will discuss in more detail several of the above studies that are related to the specific focus of my research. I will focus on code-switching in ESL/EFL language programmes, code-switching in bilingual/ multilingual educational contexts, and the attitudes towards language choice which are related to my research.

Lin (1990, 1996, 1999a, 1999b) investigated code-switching (Cantonese and English) in different Hong Kong schools with students from diverse social backgrounds. She claimed that code-switching in classrooms is “the teachers’ and students’ local pragmatic response to the symbolic domination of English in Hong Kong, where many students with limited English capital struggle to acquire an English-medium education because of its socioeconomic value” (Lin, 1996, p.49). She also suggested that the value of code-switching should be recognized and teachers should not feel embarrassed to use their first language in second or foreign language classrooms (Lin, 1990).

Another study carried out in Jaffna (Sri Lanka) by Canagarajah (1995)

analysed code-switching in the ESL classes of 24 secondary school teachers. The study shows that whilst most teachers were unconsciously using Tamil, they felt that the use of Tamil should be avoided, regarding it as an inappropriate language in their ESL classrooms. The majority of teachers in the study, who were in favour of English-only teaching methods, eventually accepted that Tamil is useful in facilitating teaching and learning. Code-switching in this study proved useful for “classroom management and transmission of lesson content” (Canagarajah, 1995, p.173). In classroom management, Tamil (the native language in Jaffna) functions: in the opening of the class, negotiation, direction, the requesting of help, managing discipline, encouragement, compliments, commands, admonitions, mitigation, pleading, and unofficial interactions. Moreover, teachers switched to Tamil to review, give definitions, explain, for negotiating cultural relevance, parallel translations and unofficial student collaboration.

Martin (1996, 1999a, 1999b, 2003a, 2003b) examined the new bilingual language education policy in multilingual Brunei. He focused on how teachers skilfully adopt code-switching to unpack meanings from monolingual textbooks. In his studies, Martin stated that there are some commonalities and differences in code-switching in classroom practices. He further suggested “the synchronised chorusing behaviour, and other features of classroom interaction, such as bilingual labelling and code-switching, also constitute a form of safe language for the classroom in the Brunei context” (Martin, 1999b, p.54). Either teachers or learners intend to avoid embarrassment concerning their language performances by using chorusing performances in language classrooms (the discussion of ‘safe-talk’ is provided in 3.4.1.2).

Adendorff (1993) conducted a study exploring code-switching behaviour (from English into Zulu) in three different classes (English, Biology and Geography) and

the code-switching behaviour of the school principal in a KwaZulu boarding school. The study suggests that code-switching is “highly functional” and “mostly sub-conscious” (p.142). For instance, Adendorff described the functions of code-switching in an English lesson, in which the teacher was trying to unlock the meaning of the poem ‘Death Be Not Proud’. The teacher switched codes to help students understand what she meant, to gain credibility from students, to fulfil the academic functions, to encourage and to fulfil the social function. Adendorff concluded, “the Zulu codeswitches facilitate the teacher’s accomplishment of his academic and social agendas by enabling him, implicitly, to clarify information, encourage, provoke and involve his pupils” (Adendorff, 1993, p.147).

In another study, Legenhausen (1991) pointed out the different functions of code-switching in a learners’ discourse. He claimed that code-switching is a “psycholinguistic phenomenon”. That is, speakers code-switch when they encounter word-finding problems or when the intended meaning can be understood better in another language. Furthermore, he saw it as a “discourse strategy”: Speakers code-switch for certain specific purposes to achieve particular conversational goals. Further, it is a “register in its own right”: It is suggested that there maybe more than two languages in the bilingual communities; the third language variety may be used when the speaker feels that it might be the only “appropriate mode of speech” for an informal situation (Legenhausen, 1991, pp.61-62).

Chen (1996) adapted Hymes’ (1962) five functional categories (expressive, directive, metalinguistic, poetic and referential) to look at code-switching as a verbal strategy among some Taiwanese staff on a university campus in Taiwan. The aim of her study was to examine the way speakers switched codes. The result of her study shows that code-switching functions as: a linguistic strategy for different situations, expressing innate emotion or group solidarity, and as a “social-identity

maker” that indicates the status of the speakers (Chen, 1996, p.278) (discussion on ‘we code’ and ‘they code’ is provided in section 3.3.1.1).

Another study concerning the use of languages in classroom is that of Guthrie’s in 1984. He conducted a study in bilingual (English and Chinese) classrooms and claimed that the bilingual teacher uses Chinese for five distinct purposes: “(1) for translation, (2) as a we code, (3) for procedures and directions, (4) for clarification, (5) to check understanding” (p.45).

Another study carried out by Lin (1990) focused on the language alternation between Cantonese and English in classrooms in Hong Kong. Lin (1990) divided code-alternation into two aspects, with subcategories for each. The first is language alternation in discourse structuring, frame marking and teacher-student negotiation. Teachers switched to Cantonese in an English language lesson in order to make a “(a) change in the discourse topic, (b) shift in the role-relationship between the teacher and students, and (c) modification of the participation framework” (pp.113-117). The second aspect concerns language alternation in the format of grammar and vocabulary teaching. Teachers used more Cantonese than English in grammar and vocabulary teaching because teachers tended to believe that it is sufficient to explain grammatical points in Cantonese.

According to my personal observations and teaching experience, and the views of a number of English teachers in Taiwan, all the functions stated above, especially in Lin’s study, could be found in many English classrooms in Taiwan. The evidence and discussions of the functions of code-switching that are related to the present study are provided in Chapters 7, 8, 9 and 10.

In addition to code-switching, several studies in language classroom research used the term ‘the use of mother tongue’ to describe speakers switching from a target language to their first language instead of the term ‘code-switching’. However,

to avoid confusion, I regard the switch to a mother tongue as code-switching in the present study.

Based on some of the literature cited previously, people have suggested the importance of employing the mother tongue in adult English education or in the early stages of EFL/ESL learning. A study carried out by Kharma and Hajjaj in 1989 found some positive insights to support the use of a mother tongue in English teaching among some Arabic-speaking teachers and students. In the study, most teachers (93%) and students (95%) code-switched for various classroom purposes. For instance, the majority of teachers used their mother tongue to explain “difficult items,” “grammatical points,” and “difficult questions” (p.228) (c.f. Polio and Duff, 1994; Hopkins, 1989).

The majority of teachers and students in that study agreed that their mother tongue actually facilitates second language learning. Moreover, 81% of students were delighted that they were allowed to use their mother tongue when they were unable to express their ideas in English. The teachers who were interviewed in the study mentioned that the use of a mother tongue saved time (c.f. Polio and Duff, 1994; Hopkins, 1989) and helped when explaining socio-cultural life and values (c.f. Hopkins, 1989).

Nevertheless, disadvantages regarding the use of a mother tongue should also be considered. In Hopkins’ (1989) study, a small number of teachers said that employing the mother tongue in the classroom might cause students to expect teachers to use their mother tongue more and more frequently. It “hinders fluency, destroys motivation, and distracts students” (Hopkins, 1989, p.230). Hopkins suggested that “avoiding *overuse* of the mother tongue would make its use more relevant and beneficial” in second language teaching and learning (Hopkins, 1989, p.230, emphasis added). The question concerning what constitutes ‘overuse’ cannot

be determined easily as students and instructors were all deeply influenced by the environment in which they resided.

Having discussed the recent research in language use in bilingual/ multilingual classrooms, in the next section attitudes towards code-switching in educational settings will be illustrated in line with one of the aims of this study.

3.4.3 Attitudes Towards Code-switching in Educational Settings

Studies concerning attitudes towards the use of different languages in classrooms have been carried out by educational practitioners. Issues and discussions in these studies have involved the use of code-switching (including the use of a mother tongue) and English-only teaching in ESL/ EFL classrooms.

In association with the second research question of the present study, topics related to teachers' and learners' attitudes toward the use of different languages in language classrooms will be discussed as follows. However, before looking at speakers' attitudes towards code-switching in an educational context, it is necessary to review the literature concerning speaker's attitudes towards code-switching in social contexts in order to obtain a fundamental understanding of how code-switching is received by bilingual/ multilingual speakers in their daily lexis.

Ambivalent attitudes towards code-switching both in social and pedagogical contexts are found in some studies. Although it is believed to be a useful communication tool (e.g. Grosjean, 1982), evidence has shown that monolingual speakers have negative attitudes towards code-switching (Grosjean, 1982). People who oppose code-switching think it is an ungrammatical mixture of two languages which insults both of the 'pure' languages. Surprisingly, not only monolingual people have negative attitudes toward code-switching, but also bilinguals. Some

bilinguals claimed “[s]witching is done mostly out of laziness. ... It is embarrassing. ... It might be dangerous if it becomes too common. ... Code-switching is not very pure” (Grosjean, 1982, p.147).

In Bentahila’s (1989) study of Moroccan bilinguals’ opinions regarding the habit of mixing languages, 75.22% of 109 respondents expressed a disapproval of code-switching. Some stated that the use of code-switching is a “disgrace”, “a bad habit which should be corrected”, “ridiculous” and “worthless” (p.37). Besides expressing their negative attitudes, the respondents further indicated that code-switching is a sign of “ignorance”, revealing an inadequate knowledge of both languages and poor education (Bentahila, 1989, p.37). An interesting phenomenon pointed out by Bentahila is that a small number of respondents felt that people who mix languages have “psychological problems of some kind”, such as a lack of confidence, or have no “sense of identity” (Bentahila, 1989, p.38). In view of the above, Bentahila stated that most Moroccan bilinguals regard code-switching negatively. Apart from the negative attitudes revealed in the study, in the same book Bentahila cited one of his previous studies, carried out in 1981, in which he found that there was frequent code-switching amongst highly-educated people.

In educational contexts, some qualitative evidence has been reported to indicate negative attitudes towards code-switching or the use of the mother tongue in classrooms. For example, in Hong Kong students found code-switching irritating (Gibbons, 1989). Lawson and Sachdev (2000) conducted three studies in Tunisia on the attitudinal and behavioural dimensions of code-switching. The result of the first study reveals that the attitude to code-switching among university students differed depending on the gender of the speaker. Female speakers tended to favour the use of French as the more prestigious language, whilst male speakers favoured Tunisian Arabic to demonstrate the status and solidarity of their particular group.

Code-switching was the less favoured language phenomenon for both male and female students. In the study, some students expressed negative attitudes towards code-switching. Findings of the second and the third studies revealed a higher frequency of the use of code-switching among students, especially in informal in-group encounters. The three studies suggest that code-switching might be viewed negatively by some users; yet amongst in-groups it might be used to show prestige.

Koll-Stobbe (1994) argued in one of the contexts in her study which concerns teaching English as a foreign language in German schools. She stated that code-switching indicates “imperfect knowledge of the lexical or idiomatic system in question, and functions as a compensatory strategy in contact situation of language learning” (Koll-Stobbe, 1994, p.206). People who are objective about code-switching seem to regard it negatively, believing that it may damage the purity of a language.

Despite all the negative attitudes to the use of code-switching, several researchers, teachers, and learners consistently reported positive attitudes towards adopting their mother tongue in language lessons and recognized its benefits in the ESL classroom. For example, Rivera asserted the benefits of using a mother tongue at the lower levels of the ESL program (cited in Auerbach, 1993). The use of a mother tongue can enable learners to enhance their own knowledge of a target language. Moreover, Auerbach (1993) pointed out that the use of a first language reduces resistance or learners’ anxiety and fosters rapid progress in language learning (cf. Lin, 1990; Canagarajah, 1995).

In addition, Pease-Alvarez and Winsler (1994) suggested that most young learners were positive about their bilingual classroom language practices. From the literature examined above, it seems that there are ambivalent attitudes both from teachers and students toward the use of a mother tongue in second or foreign

language learning (e.g. Hopkins, 1989). Further research on this issue is needed as it might provide more significant insights on teachers' and students' attitudes in language classrooms.

In addition to attitudes towards code-switching, one common attitude is that English only should be used in the language classrooms. This issue is discussed below.

3.4.3.1 Attitudes Towards Using Only English in the Classroom

Another issue related to code-switching in bilingual/ multilingual classrooms is the English-only movement. It has had a great influence on TESOL worldwide. Many people believe that it is the only reliable method for learning English. As Phillipson (1992) pointed out in his book, *Linguistic Imperialism*, several tenets from a conference in Uganda in 1961 have become cornerstones for the worldwide dominance of English. The two that relate to my thesis are: English is best taught monolingually; and if other languages are used too much, standards of English will drop (Phillipson, 1992, p.185). However, Phillipson (1992) argued that the recent global assumptions regarding English language teaching (including the concept of English-only teaching) could be traced back to British neo-colonial policies. Phillipson claimed that following a vast influx of funding to support the development of ELT in the late 1950s and 1960s, English became the main instrument for the spread of British neo-colonial control. Hong Kong can be seen as an example of this. Hong Kong was a British colony between 1842 and 1997. Due to its historical background, mastering English has been regarded as an important issue by various institutions and governments in Hong Kong.

The rationale for such assumptions (concerning the belief that English is best

taught monolingually and the concept of English imperialism) is often expressed in pedagogical terms. Auerbach (1993) called them “taken-for-granted practices” (p.14), which means people in general firmly believe that the more students are exposed to the English language environment, the more they will learn. As they hear, listen, see and use English, they will internalise it and begin to think in English. Due to these widespread beliefs, many educators disapprove of adopting the mother tongue in pedagogical situations. Negative attitudes regarding code-switching are found in some research (e.g. Bentahila, 1989; Giauque & Ely, 1989; Gibbon, 1989; Lin, 1990; Legenhausen, 1991; Adendorff, 1993; Lawson and Sachdev, 2000). Another issue that emerged from these studies is that many teachers perceive the use of a first language in English teaching as revealing a lack of English competence/proficiency, or a case for guilt.

In view of this, several researchers have investigated the attitudes towards the use of English in classrooms in order to testify the teachers’ and learners’ attitudes concerning English-only teaching. For example, Lin (1990, 1996, 1999) claimed that some of the students in her study have expressed a dislike of English, but ironically they also admitted that it is difficult to obtain their preferred career without good English language skills. Some teachers interviewed in the study expressed positive and enthusiastic attitudes towards English teaching but were frustrated because they themselves felt that they did not have competent English.

Nowadays, the assumption that English should be the only acceptable medium in ESL/ EFL classrooms is still questioned. Some practitioners argue and try to provide evidence against the English-only movement. Auerbach (1993) argued in her article that the use of a first language in English teaching should be regarded differently when teaching children and adults. For adults, allowing the use of a first language in the early ESL learning stage will facilitate later success. A number of

studies Auerbach discussed in her article prove that by using their first language, adult learners made great progress in second language learning. Therefore, she suggested, the use of a mother tongue may be an effective teaching tool and should be promoted in adult English education or EFL/ESL courses. Auerbach (1993) also found that some advanced learners in her study tended to believe the use of a first language might impede their English learning.

Another study, carried out by Hopkins (1989), shows that students at a college of further education did not favour using their first language in the classroom. Even so, the majority of students believed that employing the first language was helpful for learning English. Hopkins, however, speculated that students' English levels or academic proficiency might affect their attitudes toward the use of a first language.

In addition to the discussion on using English only in language classrooms, the issue of 'Whole Language Teaching' needs to be mentioned, as it is sometimes misinterpreted when considered alongside the concept 'English-only' (Freeman and Freeman, 1991; Shapiro, 1991; Moats, 2000; Edelsky, 2002). Kenneth Goodman of the University of Arizona coined the term 'whole language' in the early 1980s (Education, 1997). Froese (1991) suggested three essential concepts concerning whole language teaching:

First, it is agreed that language is a *naturally developing human activity*, and as a result it is a *social phenomenon* used for *communication purposes*. Second, it is generally accepted that language learning and teaching must be *personalized* in order to respect the *uniqueness and interest of the learner*. Third, language learning is considered to be a *part of making sense of the world*; language need not be learned separately first. Language is learned *holistically in context* rather than in bits and pieces in isolation (p.2, original emphasis).

Research has shown the effectiveness and benefits of adopting whole language

teaching not only in the United States, but also in second language and bilingual classrooms (c.f. Freeman and Freeman, 1991; Shapiro, 1991). Unfortunately, the concept ‘whole language’ is misinterpreted or misrepresented by some practitioners (e.g. Moats, 2000; Edelsky, 2002). For example, in Taiwan, people (including a number of teachers) often regard the concept of ‘Whole Language Teaching’ as the concept of ‘English-only’ (as will be shown in chapter 9). Many private language institutes often emphasise on their advertisements that their English teaching method is ‘Whole Language Teaching’, which is merely based on the ‘English-only’ approach.

Having examined attitudes towards the use of language in some research, it is apparent that both positive and negative attitudes towards code-switching are used for various reasons in educational settings.

3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The attention on the use of code-switching has developed over the last three decades and has adding a new focus specifically from socio-cultural contexts to language classroom settings. At the beginning of the chapter, definitions of code-switching, code-alternation, code-mixing, borrowing, loan words and mother tongues were provided and the boundaries between those terms were examined. I have stated that Grosjean’s definition of code-switching is used to illustrate code-switching in language classrooms in a university in Taiwan. The major contributors to the study of code-switching were discussed along with their work, building up a basic understanding in this field.

The second part of the chapter considered code-switching in pedagogical

contexts. Recent research on the use of languages in classrooms is discussed.

Studies on code-switching in classroom settings along with the use of a mother tongue is presented. Research regarding the use of code-switching seems to reveal that using more than one language in educational settings, especially in ESL/ EFL contexts, is prevalent and inevitable when another language can deliver a message more coherently.

Attitudes towards the use of languages in educational settings, especially the use of code-switching and a mother tongue, were also illustrated. From the literature that was reviewed, it seems that people hold both positive and negative attitudes towards code-switching and the use of a mother tongue in educational contexts. Additionally, the English-only movement is discussed. Although English-only teaching was encouraged in the past in the TESOL field, it is suggested that the use of other languages in language classrooms would facilitate the learning of a target language and should be taken into consideration.

Having reviewed the relevant literature for the present study, in the next chapter I will review the literature concerning research methodologies that are related to the present study.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter illustrates the methodological framework of the present study. Starting with the ontological and epistemological assumptions, the methodological considerations are subsequently reported. Research techniques employed for the study, such as observations, interviews, and questionnaires, are evaluated. The significance of triangulation is rigorously considered, as are ethical concerns.

4.1 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Educational research has highlighted the debate over quantitative and qualitative methods of disciplined investigation over the past decades (Hathaway, 1995). The decision over which method should be used (qualitative, quantitative or the mixed-method approach) is determined by the most appropriate framework for addressing the research questions in the study. Quantitative research tends to be illustrated by the “social survey and by experimental investigations”; qualitative research is more likely to be connected with “participant observation and unstructured, in-depth interviews” (Bryman, 1988, p.1). The mixed-method research makes use of both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2003). The distinction between qualitative and quantitative methods can be described by adopting the concept of “paradigms”, which was labelled by Guba (1990) as a net that “contains the researcher’s epistemological, ontological, and methodological premises” (cited in Denzin and Lincoln, 1998, p.26). On the ontological level, a researcher searches

for “[w]hat kind of being is the human being? What is the nature of reality?” On the epistemological level, a researcher asks “[w]hat is the relationship between the inquirer and the known?” On the methodological level, a researcher asks “[h]ow do we know the world, or gain knowledge of it?” (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998, p.26).

Researchers interact with the researched and the data of the study is analysed inductively. In any quantitative research, the results are objective, whereas in qualitative research, the results are more subjective. A researcher is independent from what is being researched and the data of the study is examined deductively (e.g. Creswell, 1994). Researchers search for differences between quantitative, qualitative and mixed-method approaches to discern which is the most appropriate to meet their research aims.

Having looked at Martin-Jones’ (1995) theoretical consideration of the methodology of classroom discourse in the previous chapter, in the following sub-sections the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method research will be discussed in detail, in order to determine the most suitable method for the present study.

4.1.1 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research consists of various approaches of data collection that are mainly related with the process of enumerative induction and the data is analysed statistically. It is favoured among social science practitioners, and the social survey tends to be one of the major designs of data collection. The survey is associated with “generating quantifiable data on a large number of people who are known to be representative of a wider population in order to test theories or hypotheses” (Bryman, 1988, p.11). Representatives (samplings) selected for a study tend to be

greater than in qualitative studies. The issue of generalization via sampling is significant. In addition to the survey, quantitative research is also connected to experiments. In an experiment, a minimum of two groups, a control group and an experimental group, are allocated to test out the difference between groups. Punch (1998) suggested that the quantitative research “conceptualizes reality in terms of variables, and relationships between them” and relies on “measurement” (p.242). Quantitative research, therefore, is linked with variables, control, measurement, and experiment.

In designing a survey, the researcher embarks on defining the purpose of the survey, identifying the sample of the study, choosing the instruments, discussing the relationship between variables, formulating the research questions, stating specific items on the survey, and analysing the data (Creswell, 2003). In designing an experiment, the researcher “identifies particles in the study, the variables – the treatment conditions and the outcome variables to be used in the treatments” (Creswell, 2003, p.175). In addition to considering procedures and steps taken in a quantitative research, Bryman (1988) drew attention to five major concepts in quantitative research:

1. *Concepts and their measurement* The issues of validity and reliability of measurement should be taken into consideration.
2. *Causality* The concerns of how causal relationships relate to variables is high preoccupation of practitioners.
3. *Generalization* The quantitative researchers opt to establish the results of a particular piece of research that can be generalized beyond the restrained research site.
4. *Replication* The findings are seen as a means that is applicable to other contexts.
5. *Individualism* The individuality is treated as a focus for empirical scrutiny. (pp.21-40)

Some qualitative researchers distrust statistical and other quantitative methods, believing them to yield “shallow or completely misleading information” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998a, p.28). They believe that the culture values and social behaviours need to be investigated by intensive qualitative methods in order to realistically understand human nature. Other disagreements concerning the adoption of quantitative research method lie in the debate of dissatisfied objectivity and the low degree of applicability (e.g. Flick, 2002).

Despite the debate of objectivity and applicability, Patton (1987) illuminated the strength of quantitative research, which “measures the reactions of a great many people to a limited set of questions, thus facilitating comparison and statistical aggregation of the data” (p.9). The rigorously designed measurement encompasses diverse responses from respondents in predetermined categories and offers an extensive and organizable set of findings.

Having considered the strengths and weaknesses of the quantitative paradigm, the quantitative approach was adopted for the present study in the hope of obtaining broader responses from the participants by administering questionnaires to two groups of student subjects. Additionally, with an intention to obtain holistic evaluative data, the decision to utilize qualitative methods is evaluated in the next section.

4.1.2 Qualitative Research

In contrast to quantitative research, qualitative research incorporates a plethora of multiple methodologies and research practices. Researchers define the characteristics of qualitative research in similar ways. For example, Bryman (1988)

suggested that the chief characteristics of qualitative research involve “seeing through the eyes of ..., description, contextualism, process, flexibility and lack of structure, theory, and concepts” (pp.61-9). Maykut (1994) suggested that the characteristics of qualitative paradigms as important tenets to be considered before conducting a study. Yet, Bogdan and Biklen (1992) noted that there are five recurring features of qualitative research:

1. Qualitative research has the natural setting as the direct source of data and the researcher is the key instrument.
 2. Qualitative research is descriptive.
 3. Qualitative researchers are concerned with processes rather than simply with outcomes or problems.
 4. Qualitative researchers tend to analyse their data inductively.
 5. “Meaning” is of essential concern to the qualitative approach.
- (pp.29-32)

Patton (1987) claimed that the advantage of the qualitative paradigm is “[q]ualitative data provide depth and detail through direct quotation and careful description of program situations, events, people, interactions, and observed behaviours” (p.9). The findings of this method cannot be quantified; instead, it offers detailed descriptions of how the study was carried out and how the information was gathered. Indeed, there are a few disadvantages to adopt the qualitative paradigm. As Denscombe (1998) argued, there are four disadvantages to qualitative analysis:

1. The data may be less representative.
 2. Interpretation is bound up with the ‘self’ of the researcher.
 3. There is a possibility of decontextualizing the meaning.
 4. There is the danger of oversimplifying the explanation.
- (pp.221-222)

In addition to the four premises mentioned previously, the major criticisms of qualitative research also concern issues of objectivity, reliability and validity. Objectivity of qualitative research “can never be captured” (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998, p.4). In a quantitative paradigm the reliability and validity can be solely dependent on quantified statistics. In a qualitative paradigm, the reliability and validity of qualitative data relies on a “nonmathematical process of interpretation, carried out for the purpose of discovering concepts and relationships in raw data” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998a, p.11), such as systematic and rigorous observations, skilful interviews, and considerable content analysis.

A qualitative inquiry stresses the nature of reality and allows the researcher to explore personal experiences, values and beliefs. The interpretation of qualitative research is “sought for understanding the actions of individual or collective actors being studied” (Struss and Corbin, 1998b, p.160). A qualitative research method was chosen and played the major part in the researching of the present study. The main focus of the study is to investigate the natural use of more than one language in EFL classrooms in a university in Taiwan.

When the existence of two distinct research methods (the quantitative and qualitative) does not meet a researcher’s practice, the mixed-method approach (a combination of both) is often adopted. The mixed-method approach requires the researcher to collect diverse types of data that is best suited to solving the research problem and to meeting the research aims and objectives. While conducting a mixed-method approach, considerations should be made regarding how one should combine methods that supplement and complement one another. Bryman (1988) acknowledged eleven approaches to integrating quantitative and qualitative research. Four of them are: (1) [t]he logic of ‘triangulation’; (2) [q]ualitative research

facilitates quantitative research; (3) [q]uantitative research facilitates qualitative research; (4) [q]uantitative and qualitative research can be combined in order to provide a general picture (pp.131-140).

With respect to the implementation of a mixed-method research, the researcher seeks to maximize the strengths of the two approaches and to compensate for the weakness of each approach. The mixed-method approach is best suited to the context and practical circumstances of this particular study.

For the present study, the mixed-method approach is employed as the most appropriate framework for addressing the research questions. As stated in Chapter 1, the aim of the present study is to explore the nature of classroom talk, focusing specially on how teachers and learners use more than one language to talk around monolingual textbooks in order to accomplish lessons and to investigate the attitudes of teachers and learners towards the use of more than one language in the classroom (code-switching in the classroom). A quantitative inquiry is best suited to obtaining substantial data from all the participants' views to ensure that the important issues on the researcher's scheme are covered. It allows the researcher to generate a large amount of data, whereas a qualitative method cannot. On the other hand, a qualitative inquiry is preferable when addressing procedures in their natural setting. It allows the researcher to see what is actually there in the research site: to see what and how languages are used in the classrooms. Moreover, it offers a channel for the research participants' viewpoints to be heard, reflecting both the teachers' and students' attitudes toward code-switching in English classrooms. The combination of quantitative and qualitative methods is thus chosen for it is most likely to facilitate authenticity and to show the multiplicities of the research contexts.

Having examined the methodological stance of the study, I will then turn to discuss the particular methods employed to generate the data; these are observations, in addition to the use of field notes and audio recordings, interviews and questionnaires.

4.1.3. Observations

Observational methods are favoured among practitioners, especially those who endeavour in educational research. Researchers regard it as a “powerful tool for gaining insight into situations” (Cohen *et al.*, 2000, p.315). Observational data provides a researcher the opportunity to obtain authentic data from real life situations and take part in the “act of watching” (Tilstone, 1998b, p.5) in which an observer seeks naturally occurring events and situations in order to offer rich descriptions of human interactions and processes in the research site. Observations are thus comprised of impressions of the surrounding world through all relevant human physical involvement to witness the phenomena that one is studying in a real, not artificially generated, context (Tilstone, 1998b).

Another issue involving observations is the choice of different observational methods, quantitative or qualitative. The former focus on “significant statistics” and the latter “encourage[s] observers to detach themselves from the familiar and to probe into events to interpret and explain their significance” (King, 2000, p.19). Unlike qualitative observations, quantitative observations are conducted under artificially designed conditions to assure “standardization and control”; qualitative observations are practically “naturalistic in essence” (Adler & Adler, 1994, p.378). Quantitative observations tend to focus on a small field of study and the data can be analysed into minute segments. Structured observation, which facilitates the

collection of quantitative data, is often adopted among researchers who favour the quantitative observation methods. Qualitative observations, on the other hand, allow the researcher to 'enter' a participant's complex world. Wragg (1994) pointed out those qualitative methods of observation and an understanding of human interaction and behaviour can be "translated successfully into the study of classrooms" (p.9). In practice, qualitative observations are utilized greatly by educational research. Whilst conducting a qualitative observation, the degree of participation should be taken into consideration: whether to adopt participant or non-participant observation.

In participant observation, a researcher takes part in the researched scene; in non-participant observation, an observer plays no significant role at all in the research site (Atkinson and Hammersley, 1998). The former shows characteristics of high detachment from the research subject and has a degree of subjectivity and sympathy. The latter has less or no direct involvement with the participants, and has a higher degree of objectivity.

Patton (1987) identified six advantages to employing observational method in the fieldwork. These are:

1. The evaluator understands the context of occurring activities better by direct observation.
2. The evaluator can adopt an inductive approach by direct first hand experience.
3. The experienced evaluator sees things that participants may not be consciously aware of.
4. The observer may gain information that participants were not willing to share in interviews.
5. The evaluator could present more comprehensive perceptions of others.
6. The evaluator has access to personal knowledge and has direct experience to interpret the activity being studied. (pp.73-4)

Despite the advantages of using observations in research, Guba and Lincoln

(1981) argued against adopting observational techniques: the method may lean profoundly on personal interpretation, and the direct involvement will lead the observer to take meanings for granted (Guba and Lincoln, 1981, p.193). Criticisms of the observations focus upon its objectivity, subjectivity, bias, and lack of precise quantifiable measurement. As a researcher, the considerations for deciding the degree of involvement with the research subjects and the issue of being faithful and truthful to the study should not be underestimated.

For the present study, in order to obtain rich and authentic data on the languages used in classrooms, a qualitative observational method was utilized as the primary tool for data collection, as it allows the researcher to gather the holistic perspectives of the research context underlining the study. In particular, a non-participant observational technique was employed to refrain from participating in the observed activities in order to maintain the objectivity and to minimize detachment from the participants. The ethical considerations, in particular that of not invading the privacy of the research subjects and their private spaces, were kept in mind by the researcher.

It is suggested that to make the observation method more reliable, the data should be “comprehensive enough to enable the reader to reproduce the analysis that was performed” (Cohen *et al.*, 2000, p.313). In light of observations including the collection of both oral and visual data, it is recommended that field notes and a powerful recording device should be used whilst engaging in observations.

Descriptive field notes record the basic information of the research scene and the dates, permitting the observer to review the observed settings and events during subsequent analysis. Guba and Lincoln (1981) claimed that field notes are probably the most common technique to retain non-participant observational data. Field notes were taken during the present study as they provide a detailed description of the

observed scenes. It allows the researcher to delineate the physical setting of the research site, the people in the situation, the specific actions that participants are carrying out and the languages that participants are using. These descriptive notes can be used to facilitate analysis of audio recordings.

Audio recordings can “overcome the partialness of the observer’s view” (Cohen *et al.*, 2000, p.313) and the recorded data can be retrieved for later detailed analysis. However, it requires a “wide range of skills to interpret the evidence” (Tilstone, 1998a, p.49) of recorded audio data. The advantages of employing audio recordings are that they can be “analysed at leisure”, “listened to repeatedly in case of doubt about interpretation”, and provide “bases for the reliability and validity studies” (Guba and Lincoln, 1981, p.203). However, the disadvantage of using the audio recordings is that the participants might feel uncomfortable about being recorded. Good clear audio recordings and detailed field notes of observations should provide useful insights into what goes on in the research site.

Audio recording was employed for the present study as it enables the researcher to analyse the data, the languages that are used in the classroom. As stated in Chapter 1, the focus of the study is to explore the nature of classroom talk; the video recording should be best to meet the research need. However, as the teacher did not grant me permission to use video equipment, audio equipment was used to record the verbal data. It can be analysed at any time.

Having discussed the strengths and weakness of observations and the two techniques (field notes and audio recordings), the next section will explore the interview method, which is adopted in many mixed-method studies, including this one.

4.1.4. Interviews

In order to complement the objectivity of the data collected through observations for the present study, the interview technique was employed to probe participants' viewpoints and to lessen the subjectivity of the researcher. The use of an observational technique allows the researcher to see what is happening and the use of an interview technique allows the participants to offer their views.

Adopting an interviewing technique in educational research permits the researcher to explore interviewees' attitudes, beliefs, feelings, behaviour and interpretations of the meanings of the questions that are posed to them (e.g. Dushku, 2000). Researchers categorize interviews in a number of different ways. Guba and Lincoln (1981) suggested two types of interview, structured (also called focused) and unstructured (also known as elite interviews). Patton (1987) illustrated the informal conversational interview, the general interview guide approach, and the standardized open-ended interview. Fontana and Frey (1994) discussed three major types of interview: the structured interview, unstructured interview, and the group interview.

As Denzin and Lincoln (1996) stated, group interviews were initially associated with marketing research by use of the term of "focus group", coined by Merton *et al.* in 1956 (p.364). Nowadays, the term 'group interviews' is used interchangeably with the term 'focus group interviews' in some social sciences and in educational research. The strengths of group interviews are that they are "inexpensive, data rich, flexible, simultaneously to respondents, recall aiding, and cumulative and elaborative, over and above individual responses" (Denzin and Lincoln, 1996, p.365). The concerns regarding group interviews that must be taken into account are that "the group may be dominated by one person, the group format

makes it difficult to research sensitive topics” (ibid, p.365) and that “the numbers of questions that can be asked are limited” (Patton, 1987, p.134).

In addition to three different types of interviews suggested by Fontana and Frey (1994), the semi-structured interview is often seen in research. The semi-structured interview allows more freedom for both the interviewer and the interviewees to articulate the wording of the questions or to clarify the unclear terms. The interviewer can have greater control over the interview sequence or the questions that are asked. Additionally, this technique usually results in a higher response rate than the questionnaires and the interviewer can probe further into interviewees’ background information or some of the spontaneous reactions of the respondents. The semi-structured interview has the advantage of “flexibility, control of the interview situation, high response rate, and collection of supplementary information” (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996, pp.237- 8).

The ethical considerations regarding interviews should not be neglected. Issues such as informed consent (informing and receiving agreement from the interviewees) and the right to privacy (protecting the identity of the interviewees) need to be handled with care.

To obtain a variety of interviewees’ perceptions, a semi-structured group interview was adopted for the present study. The rationale for adopting this method is that it offers significant issues to address the research question of the teachers’ and learners’ attitudes toward code-switching in English classrooms. The semi-structured interview provides a room for interviewees to speak for themselves.

Having evaluated the strengths and weaknesses of the interview techniques, the next section further discusses the questionnaire survey technique, which was also adopted in the present study.

4.1.5 Questionnaires

A questionnaire survey “provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population” (Creswell, 2003, p.153). It allows a researcher to broaden the population based on the sample results. Cohen *et al.* (2000) listed three types of questionnaire: structured, semi-structured, and unstructured questionnaires. Furthermore, they acknowledged four types of question: dichotomous questions, multiple choice questions, rating scales, and open-ended questions (pp.247-8). Different types of questionnaire encompass these question items in distinct combinations in order to meet the purposes of individual research.

Ethical issues regarding administering questionnaires should be considered beforehand. A questionnaire will always intrude on the respondents’ life to some extent, thus in order to respect a respondent’s privacy, when designing a questionnaire, the sensitivity of the questions need to be taken into account. Guarantees of harmlessness, confidentiality, anonymity and non-traceability to the respondent should be stated to the respondent in advance (Cohen *et al.*, 2000), and subsequently upheld.

For the present study, in order to utilize the SPSS software and obtain accurate statistical figures for the results, the structured questionnaire consisted of multiple-choice questions, and rating scales were adopted. Multiple-choice questions were used to obtain background information about the respondents, and the rating scale items were designed in order to make it simpler for respondents to complete, and so that they allow simple computer analysis. The questionnaire was used to provide more data from the student participants in order to enhance the validity of the study. Before distributing the questionnaire, the purpose of the study

was explained to the respondents.

In practice, observations, interviews, and questionnaires were utilized and conducted in order to allow the researcher to address the research questions of the present study. In the next section, the issue of triangulation will be discussed.

4.2 TRIANGULATION

It is speculated that combining quantitative and qualitative paradigms within a single piece of research would answer the inquiry of the research framework of epistemology and theory (Brannen, 1992). The decision over which method to use in a piece of research highlights the importance of selecting an appropriate approach that is best suited to addressing research questions and theory, and which is most suitable for analysing the data. Thus, researchers seek alternative ways of selecting the most suitable methods to meet their research aims. “Triangulation is not a tool or a strategy of validation, but an alternative to validation” (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). It is the theory supported by evidence obtained from different methods, from different participants, or in different situations. This present study primarily uses qualitative methods (observations and interviews) and a quantitative one (questionnaires). Three types of data, non-participant observation along with field notes and audio transcripts, interview transcripts, and questionnaires, were collected and analysed to examine the use of code-switching and attitudes towards code-switching in two EFL classrooms in a university in Taiwan. The researcher made use of quantified data to conceptualise and supplement the descriptive qualitative data that emerged from the study.

4.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

It is claimed that ethical issues concerning research in educational settings can be extremely multifaceted and delicate. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) stressed that “[e]thical issues arise from the kinds of problems social scientists investigate and the methods used to obtain valid and reliable data” (p.77). Bassey (1999) suggested three headings when discussing research ethics: “[r]espect for democracy” (researchers should assured of freedoms to investigate and to receive information from the researched); “[r]espect for truth” (researchers should be truthful in conducting the research); and “[r]espect for person” (researchers should recognize and acknowledge the participants’ preliminary ownership of the data) (pp.73-4). Rigorous considerations are essential in order to avoid ethical problems, particularly not to take matters for granted in any piece of research. The agreement between the researcher and the participants should be taken into account.

Informed consent, which is defined by Diener and Crandall as “the procedure in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decisions” (Diener and Crandall, 1978, cited in Cohen *et al.*, 2000, p.51), is of utmost importance in educational research (c.f. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996; de Vaus, 2001). The subjects’ rights and benefits should be particularly considered and informed by the researcher at a preliminary stage of the research. For the present study, the purpose, basic procedure and relevant information of the study were explicitly explained to the participants and permission was granted beforehand.

Besides informed consent, it is agreed that because of the nature of the study, the findings should be presented to the university department and the two teachers who participated in the study. Hence, the study has the potential to benefit the

department and the teachers. However, the issues of anonymity and confidentiality should also be regarded, and they are discussed in the next section.

4.3.1 Anonymity and Confidentiality

As Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias stated “[t]he obligation to protect the anonymity of research participants and to keep research data confidential is all inclusive” (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996, p.88). The participants’ rights and privacies should be protected and their identities cannot be revealed under any circumstances (e.g. Bailey, 1996). Assurances of anonymity and confidentiality are vital to subjects, and a failure to retain promises may be harmful to participants.

In my first contact with the participants, I explicitly explained my research intentions, procedures, and the co-operation needed from them. The agreement to safeguard the anonymity and confidentiality of subjects was also made before the study commenced. All the names that will appear in this thesis or any form of publication will be pseudonyms. The content of interviews and questionnaires have not been discussed with anyone in the research site. Names appearing in this thesis have been changed for the purposes of protecting subjects’ factual identities.

After outlining the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions and the considerations of the present study, the procedures of data collection for this study will be reported in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

DATA COLLECTION

This Chapter comprises four major sections that detail the context and procedures of the study. The first section begins with a statement of the aims of the study. The second details the procedures of the study, including the pilot study, gaining of access to the research site, the context of the research site, the textbooks, the instructors, the students, and my role as a researcher. The third details the data collection, illustrating the observations, interviews, questionnaires, and data management and analysis. The fourth presents a brief summary of the chapter.

5.1 THE AIMS OF THE STUDY

As reported in Chapter 1, the current study was conducted in two Freshman English classes in a university in southern Taiwan between September 2002 and January 2003. The research aims and objectives of this study are to explore the nature of classroom talk, focusing specifically on how teachers and learners use more than one language to talk around monolingual English textbooks in order to accomplish lessons; to investigate the attitudes of teachers and learners towards code-switching in the classroom; to consider the implications of the way language is used in the classrooms and the teachers' and learners' attitudes to code-switching. The research questions addressed are: how is the monolingual textbook embedded in bilingual/ multilingual interaction in the classroom; and what are the teachers' and learners' attitudes towards code-switching in English classrooms? Furthermore,

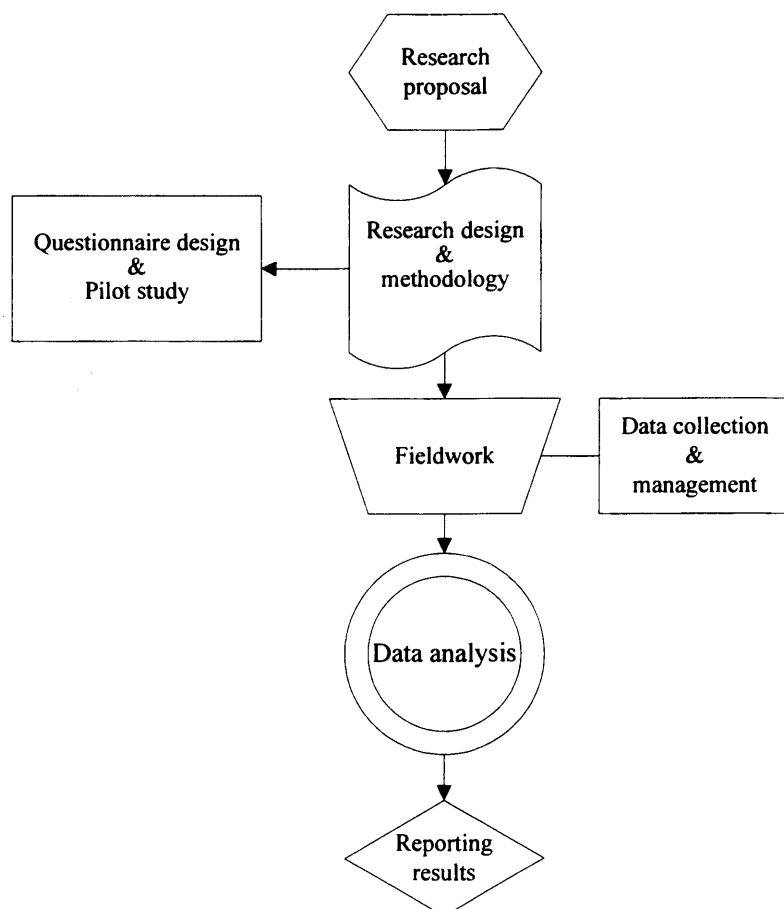
does the use of Mandarin/ Taiwanese in English lessons facilitate the learning of English and is there a potential synergy in using more than one language to teach a particular language? What are the implications of using more than one language?

In order to examine and answer these research questions, the procedures of the study, the pilot study, and the context of the research site are presented in detail in the following sections.

5.2 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

It is essential to discuss the procedures of the present study before providing further details of the data collection process (Figure 5-1).

Figure 5-1 Procedures of the Present Study



As shown in figure 5-1, after the research proposal was accepted, the subsequent overall research design, methodological considerations, and the conduction of a pilot study were commenced. In late June 2002, I went to Taiwan to embark on the fieldwork, involving data collection and management. The details of the research are reported in the following sub-sections.

5.2.1 The Pilot Study of the Questionnaire

At the preliminary stage of the study, how to make the best use of my limited time for conducting fieldwork and fulfil my teaching duty at the same time were the main issues for me. After reviewing the literature in Chapters 3 and 4, the mixed research methodologies along with convenient sampling for making an in-depth exploratory inquiry within the sufficient time were adopted.

In order to be fully prepared before embarking on the fieldwork overseas, the first step I took was to conduct a pilot study by administering a questionnaire survey. The purpose of the questionnaire survey for the present study is to address the research question of the learners' beliefs and attitudes toward code-switching in the classroom. The purposes for conducting a pilot study of the questionnaire are twofold: to examine the intelligibility of the statements in the questionnaire and to explore the relevant issues that will be encountered at the research site. The questionnaire that is used in the pilot study comprises 19 multiple-choice questions and one open-ended question. It was translated into Chinese and subsequently administered to thirteen Chinese students, who were studying at the University of Leicester in May 2002. Respondents were from diverse educational backgrounds and the length of time they had been studying English were varied (Table 5-1).

Table 5-1 Participants' Background Information in the Pilot Study

COLLEGES	Years of learning English				Total
	6 years	7-8 years	9-10 years	11 years and more	
Management	1	1	0	2	4
Social Science	0	1	2	5	8
Information	0	0	0	1	1
Total	1	2	2	8	13

This table displays the background information for the years of English learning experiences and the academic departments that the participants in the pilot study belonged to. As shown in the table, the majority of the participants in the pilot study have learnt English for eleven years or more and studied on a Social Science course.

According to the results obtained from the piloting, a few amendments, mainly to ambiguous statements, were made and the open-ended question was formulated into multiple-choice questions. The finalized questionnaire comprises two major parts. Part A seeks participants' background information, whilst Part B elicits responses relating to the use of languages (English, Mandarin, and Taiwanese) in English lessons. A detailed discussion on the process of conducting of the questionnaire at the research site is provided in section 5.3.3, and sample questionnaires (both for the pilot study and the research site) are provided in Appendices D-1 to D-5.

5.2.2 Access to the Research Site

In August 2002, before the school term started, I paid a visit to the dean of the college and the coordinator of the English module at the university in southern

Taiwan, where I have worked for seven years, and expressed my interest in conducting the research there. Both the Dean and Coordinator claimed that if the teachers, from whom I would request permission, agreed for me to be present in their classes, I would be permitted to conduct my research in the school. Fortunately, there was an induction programme for English teachers at the beginning of September 2002 and I thought I could take this opportunity to seek participants for the study. After the orientation, I tried to express my research intention to several teachers with whom I was most familiar and request their permission to conduct the research in their classes. Most of them refused my request. They stated that they were not fully confident in their teaching and the target language. I was dispirited after receiving five or six refusals from teachers. Finally, two teachers (Mr Kim and Miss Lee, both pseudonyms) agreed to participate in my research project. However, they also stated that they were not fully confident in their teaching and the target language and suggested that I should not be disappointed when I participated in their classes.

I explained my interest about how language is used in the classroom to Mr Kim and Miss Lee and asked permission to video record their classes. Both declined to allow this but stated that audio recordings would be acceptable. I also explained to them that I would not interfere in their teaching or any in-class activities and promised that I would use pseudonyms for all names in my subsequent units. After my explanation, they seemed more interested in my research project and agreed to give me full support when it was needed. On the following day, I emailed them the proposed schedule for observing the classes, conducting interviews, and administering the questionnaire that we had previously negotiated.

5.2.3 Context of the Research Site

The university that the participants attend has only been established for eight years. It is a private university located in Kaohsiung county, southern Taiwan. This newly established technological university consists of five colleges, the College of Management, the College of Social Science, the College of Design, the College of Information, and the College of Liberal Education. The College of Liberal Education operates the Freshman English Course.

The Freshman English course is a compulsory subject (stipulated by MOE) for every university student in Taiwan and students generally take the course in their first year. This university expects more from students who take the Freshman English Course than many other Taiwanese universities. For example, students in this university must take a placement test before the semester commences. After the placement test, students are placed into one of four different levels (level I, II, III, IV) based on their test scores. English level I is the lowest level, and level IV is the highest. Students who are studying in this university must succeed at level IV in order to meet the school requirements. In addition, the new policy for English courses announced in the year 2000 states that students must take a check-point test, which is an English proficiency test, after they have completed the English level IV course and before they graduate from this university. The structure of the check-point test is akin to that of the TOFEL test.

5.2.4 The Textbooks

There are many textbooks available in Taiwan for the teaching of university-level English. However, there are two major types of textbook available

for each university to choose from, the imported monolingual English textbook (which has no Mandarin content) and the domestic English textbook that contains Mandarin translations.

Textbooks used in the present study are *Side by Side 2* (Molinsky & Bliss, 2001) and *American Headway 2* (Soars & Soars, 2001). These two English textbooks are the imported monolingual English textbook that designed for adults and adolescents who intent to learn American English. The textbook *Side by Side 2* is used in English level II classrooms. It is a full-colour printed textbook and primarily aims to facilitate dynamic conversational practices. The textbook comprises thirteen lessons. Each lesson contains three major sections: section one is the vocabulary previews; section two is the pronunciation and listening activities; section three is the reading article. The sample of the textbook is provided in Appendix C-1.

The textbook *American Headway 2* is used for English level III. It is also a full-colour printed textbook and it primarily focuses on the integrated skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The textbook includes fourteen lessons, each of which has seven major sections: grammar, vocabulary, everyday English, reading, speaking, listening, and writing. A sample of the textbook is offered in Appendix C-2. Although English levels I and IV are not included in the present study, the textbook used for English level I is *Side by Side 1* (Molinsky & Bliss, 2001). *American Headway 3* (Soars & Soars, 2001) is used for English level IV.

5.2.5 The Instructors

The instructors participating in this study were Mr Kim and Miss Lee. Mr Kim holds a Masters degree in Interpreting and Translation from the University of Bath and a Bachelors degree in British and American Literature from the National

Central University in Taiwan. He has been teaching English in two universities for two years. The courses he offered at this university were mainly Freshman English courses. He also taught English Composition and English Literature courses in another university. Mr Kim did not seem to be enjoying his teaching that semester. In some informal conversations, he expressed that his students were too passive in learning and he occasionally felt frustrated during lectures.

Miss Lee holds a Masters degree in TESOL from Long Island University, New York and a Bachelors degree in English from Christ's College, Taiwan. She had taught children English for five years before she pursued her Masters degree. Having obtained a Masters degree, she has been teaching English in several universities for the past three years. The courses she offered were mainly Freshman English courses at five different universities, at which she was teaching part-time that semester. Miss Lee also expressed disappointment with her students when we had a short conversation during the class break. She was not satisfied with students' performance with regard to responding to her requests or engaging in pair/ group conversational practices. Apart from her disappointment, she was always fully prepared for the classes and often brought some visual aids or designed various in-class activities for students to engage in.

5.2.6 The Students

As mentioned in Section 5.2.2, the participants in the study were selected for convenience and accessibility. All the participants in this study came from various educational backgrounds and specialized in different subjects. As mentioned in 5.2.3, students in this university are placed into four different English levels, levels I, II, III and IV. I initially wanted to opt for English levels I and IV in order to seek

differences between two extreme levels. Yet, as I have stated in 5.2.2, I found this to be problematic after I had consulted with some teachers. As a result, English levels II and III were chosen. English level II, a day class, comprised fifty students and most of the participants were in their early twenties. They had just graduated from vocational high school before entering this university. It is worth noting that students from vocational high schools do not speak English so proficiently as students who are from ordinary high schools. The participants in this class were from two different colleges, the College of Information Management and the College of Design. The length of time they had been studying English varied (see Table 5-2). In English level III, an evening class, there were fifty-seven students and most of them were in their mid twenties or older. The majority of students in that class worked during the day and came to school at night. Some background information concerning the participants is shown in Table 5-2.

Table 5-2 Students' Profiles

Years of learning English	Colleges	Level II Day class	Level III Evening class	Numbers of students
6 years	Social Science	0	1	1
	Information Management	3	9	12
	Design	15	7	22
7-8 years	Information Management	6	12	18
	Design	20	11	31
9-10 years	Social Science	0	2	2
	Information Management	0	4	4
	Design	4	3	7
11 years and above	Social Science	0	3	3
	Information Management	0	3	3
	Design	2	2	4
Total number of students		50	57	107

This table displays the background information for participants, showing their years of English learning experience, the colleges they attended, and the programmes they were studying. As mentioned in 5.2.3, participants in this study are in their first year of university study, and the majority of them have studied English for six to eight years (which is the normal situation in Taiwan). It should be noted that 64 out of the 107 participants were in the College of Design. According to the results of the placement test they had taken, students who were studying in that college were placed in lower English levels (mostly in English level II and a few in English level III) than many other students from different colleges in this university.

5.2.7 My Role as a Researcher

In any piece of research, a researcher has to consciously decide on their degree of participation. In this study, I defined my role as a ‘complete observer’ than a participant when I observed the classes. There were three reasons: Firstly, I refrained from intruding into the classroom routines as I had promised both teachers. Secondly, I was trying to diminish the artificial classroom situation created by both the teacher and students. To explore the nature of classroom talk, I was acutely concerned that my presence may affect the naturalistic classroom situation. Hence, I requested that the two teachers, Mr Kim and Miss Lee, introduced me to the classes as a visitor. Indeed, at my first visit to both classes, students had viewed me as a stranger in the classroom. However, from the second visit it seemed that they had begun to ignore my presence. I consulted both teachers after the lessons, and asked them whether the students had queried them about my presence in the classrooms, but was informed that they had not. Thirdly, I tried to avoid any conversation or

interaction with participants during my observations in order to maintain a non-judgmental stance.

In short, I have tried to maintain a balance between objectivity and subjectivity when I was conducting observations in these classrooms. During the observation, my intention was to concentrate on taking notes with regard to what was happening in the classroom and to pay special attention to how the teachers and learners used more than one language to talk around the textbook.

5.3 DATA COLLECTION, MANAGEMENT AND ANALYSIS

As I have stated previously in 5.2.1, the preliminary step of the present study was the pilot study of the questionnaire. Subsequently the fieldwork was conducted. The procedure and methods of data collection (observations, interviews, and questionnaires) are discussed in detail in following sub-sections, where the issue of data management is also addressed.

5.3.1 Observations

The primary research method adopted for the present study was observations. These observations were made monthly, as negotiated with both teachers prior to the commencement of research. Initially, I planned to schedule twelve observations for both classes. However, both instructors stated that they would prefer me to make just one observation per month. Due to the departmental meeting, I could not observe the English level II on 9th January 2003. Thus nine observations rather than ten (four for English level II and five for English level III) were actually conducted.

In practice, nine sets of field notes were taken whilst I was engaged in observations. Additionally, as mentioned in 5.2.7, I defined my role as a complete observer; the main task for me when observing the classes was to observe, listen and take field notes with the focus on all the participants' verbal and non-verbal interaction.

Besides taking notes, audio recordings were also made. As a result of technical difficulties, it was unfeasible to record individual conversations. To solve this problem, I had requested the instructors to carry a digital recorder with them and tried to record the voices naturally. In order to grasp as much authentic vocal data as possible and refrain from interfering with the classroom activities, a miniature digital audio recording machine was used and recordings were made by the instructors. The instructors placed the recording equipment in their pockets, and thus the students were not aware that they were being recorded. I noticed that Miss Lee switched off the recording machine whilst she was conversing with students during my first observation in her class. Soon after that class, I expressed concern to her and asked if it was possible for her not to switch off the recorder whilst she was interacting with students, and she agreed. Having encountered these problems in this first observation, I consulted Mr Kim before the second observation took place in his class.

The recordings were transcribed verbatim soon after each observation. Unfortunately as mentioned earlier, it was not possible to record the whole in-class scenario, as some voices from the recording were inaudible. Where possible I was able to reconstruct some sequences with reference to the field notes. The observational data was analysed based on the concept of conversational analysis.

At the end of the term, the questionnaire was administered to two groups of students, and subsequently student interviews were also conducted. The schedule of the types of data collection and dates are shown in Appendix E.

5.3.2 Interviews

The interviews adopted in the study were designed to investigate the instructors' and learners' beliefs and attitudes towards code-switching in their classrooms. Three interviews, one with two instructors and two with two different groups of students, were conducted at the end of the semester. Two interview schedules, one for the teacher interview and the other for student interviews, were formulated in semi-structured patterns, which expanded on the issues raised in observations, and were based on the research questions of the present study. The samples of the interviews, both for the teachers and students, are provided in Appendices F and G. The interview with two instructors was conducted outside of the campus. This was done in order to create a relaxed atmosphere for interviewees, who were given the option to use English, Mandarin or Taiwanese. They suggested that Mandarin was the best choice, and therefore the interview was conducted in Mandarin. The interviewees were very informative and willing to share their perceptions during the interview. Another interview with the group from English level III was conducted subsequent to my last observation in their class. With the instructor's permission, I asked for some volunteers to participate in the interview. Five students, two male and three female, agreed to participate. The interview was conducted in my office with some refreshments provided. The interviewees were given the option to use English, Mandarin or Taiwanese. They suggested that Mandarin was the best choice, and therefore the interview was conducted in Mandarin. The interviewees did not know who I was and what I was doing in their class prior to the interview. Thus, before commencing the interview, I briefly introduced myself and explained my research project to them. I had the feeling that they did not fully understand my explanation and purpose; however, they were

willing to answer my questions and share their opinions. It is noticed that when conducting the group interview, I carefully avoided allowing one interviewee to dominate the whole discussion. Instead, I deliberately attempted to prompt responses from each interviewee.

Another interview with English level II students was also conducted at the end of the last observation of that class, and was also conducted in Mandarin.

Unfortunately, as I have mentioned in section 5.3.1, I had to attend the departmental meeting, and thus, I could not observe that lesson, and Miss Lee helped me with the audio recordings. Fortunately, I arrived at the class before students had been dismissed from the classroom. With the instructor's permission, I asked for some volunteers to participate in the interview. Seven students, three male and four female, agreed to be interviewed. Similar procedures were followed for English level III students as those followed for level II students, as in both I started with a brief self-introduction and an explanation of the research project.

Despite the length of the interviews with both groups of students, merely thirty minutes for each group, some valuable data emerged from the interviews. In short, all three interviews were audio recorded and conducted in Mandarin and then translated into English. Due to the length of the thesis, it is not possible to attach the whole interview data in the appendix. However, I have incorporated several critical discussions of the interview data in Chapter 9.

5.3.3 Questionnaires

The purpose of administering the questionnaire was to approach all the student participants in the present study in order to provide more feedback from them. The initially designed questionnaire was formulated with nineteen 4-point Likert-type

scale questions and one open-ended question and was originally designed in English and subsequently translated into Mandarin. The reason for administering the questionnaire in Mandarin was based on the concern for the respondents' English proficiency level. Some amendments were made due to the results of the pilot study. Mainly I focused on words that had been shown to have ambiguous meanings for the respondents, and some questions were expended for the sake of clarity. Furthermore, the open-ended question was reformulated into 4-point Likert-type scale questions.

The questionnaire was administrated to two groups of participants, a total of 107 students, on the scheduled date. Participants were asked to provide rated responses to each item on the questionnaire. The questionnaire data was examined via SPSS 11.0 version. The results of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix D-5.

5.3.4 Data Management and Analysis

In this study, all the audio- recorded data (ten classroom recordings and three interviews) were transcribed into both English and Mandarin. A list of the transcription conventions adopted in this study is provided in Appendix A. Extra effort was required when transcribing in-class recordings due to the unclear nature of some sounds. Field notes were used for reference during the process of transcribing the audio data. Data concerning the questionnaire was examined with SPSS 11.0 vision with a focus on how frequently statements were made. The detailed data analysis and findings are reported in Chapters 6, 7, and 8.

5.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter illustrates the context of the present study. A report on the procedures of data collection started with the pilot study, which was conducted in England, and followed up by the subsequent fieldwork, which took place in Taiwan. Whilst conducting the fieldwork, gaining access to the research site, the context of the research site (the location of the university), the course design, the English language policy, and problems encountered were illustrated. Background information of the two instructors, two groups of student participants and my own role as a researcher were provided. The data collection, which incorporates observations, interviews, and questionnaires, was stressed. Data management and analysis were also briefly described. The detailed data analysis, and the results and findings of the present study will be discussed in detail in the following chapters.

CHAPTER 6

THE RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The questionnaire survey was designed and administered to 107 student participants in the present study. It is designed to attempt to elicit responses from respondents to 33 Likert-type statements for the purpose of the examination of respondents' attitudes to and perceptions of the use of English, Mandarin and Taiwanese in English classrooms. These were looked at in four major categories, relating to the research aims and research questions of the present study. The questionnaire survey was translated into Mandarin, as that was the language that the participants felt most comfortable with. The Mandarin translation of the questionnaire was scrutinized by two Taiwanese postgraduate students, fluent in both Mandarin and English. A pilot study of the questionnaire was conducted prior to the commencement of the main research (the detail of the pilot study is reported in 5.2.1).

In the following sections, some background information of the 107 participants is reported, and the results and findings that emerged from the descriptive statistical data are presented both through percentages and mean scores. The chapter concludes with a brief summary.

6.2. SURVEY RESULTS

Participants from both groups, English levels II and III, were asked to complete the questionnaire survey under the supervision of their instructors prior to the end of the semester. The questionnaire comprised three major sections. Section One sought to elicit background information about the respondents. Section Two was aimed at acquiring students' responses on the use of languages (English, Mandarin, Taiwanese) when interacting with their textbooks. Section Three stressed the actual use of languages in classrooms. The results of the survey are reported in following sub-sections.

6.2.1 Background Information of the Participants

The participants, 107 students, were selected from two different classes, one from English level II and another from level III. English level II is the lower level and English level III is the higher level (Chapter 1 provides the details of the English language policy and the curriculum of the university). Both groups of participants were in their first year of university study. Details concerning the background information of participants is illustrated below.

A total number of 107 participants, 37 males and 70 females, responded to the questionnaire from three different colleges in the university: the College of Social Science, the College of Information and the College of Design. Most of the participants had studied English for at least six years due to the English educational policy in Taiwan (Chapter 2 provides the information regarding MOE's language policy). The data reveals that all the respondents say they are fluent speakers of

Mandarin and more than half of them speak Taiwanese. Figures 6-1 to 6-4 show the basic background information of the respondents.

Figure 6-1 The participants

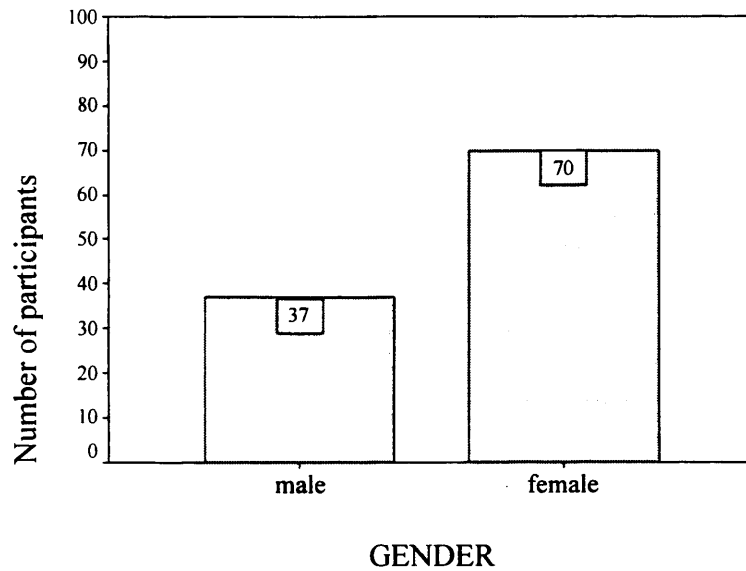


Figure 6-2 Participants in different colleges

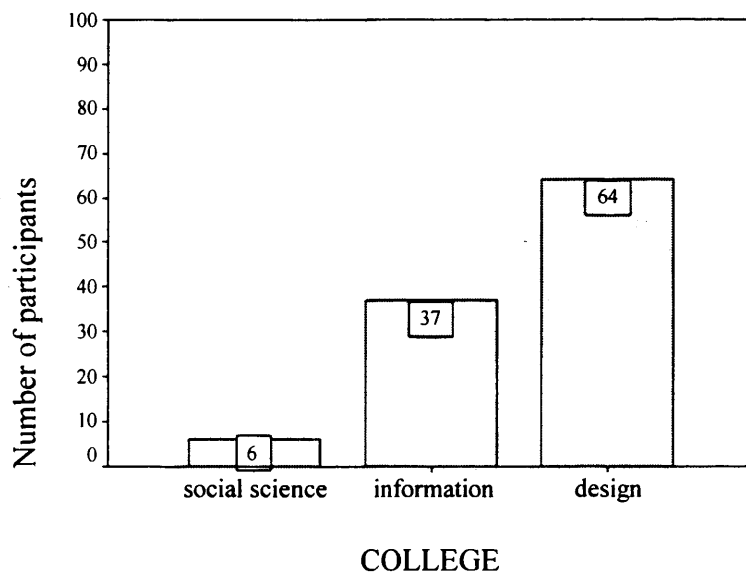


Figure 6-2 shows that 6 students were from the College of Social Science, 37 students were from the College of Information, and 64 students were from the

Figure 6-3 English levels of the participants

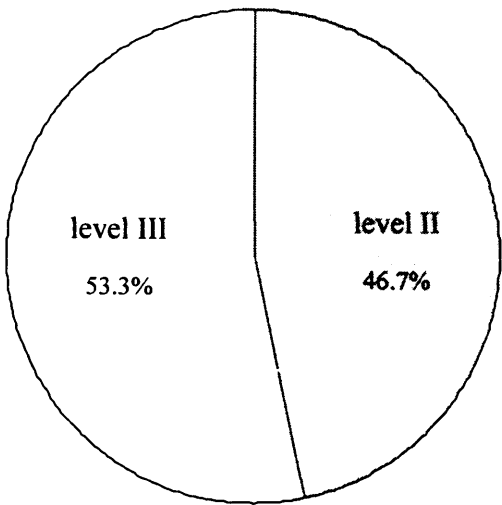


Figure 6-3 shows that 46.7% of participants were from level II and 53.3% were from level III. English level II is the day class and English level III is the evening class. Each belonging to a different system: students in ‘day class’ can only attend classes that are offered during the day; students in ‘evening class’ are only allowed to attend evening classes.

Figure 6-4 Years of learning English

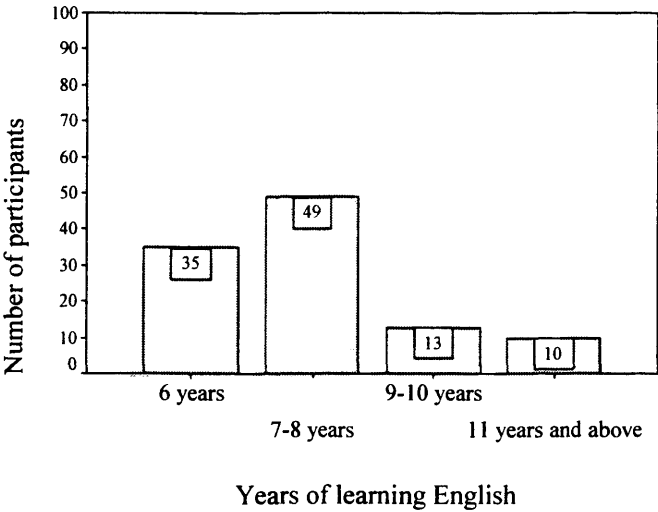


Figure 6-4 shows the number of years that the participants had spent learning English. The majority of participants had learnt English for 7 or 8 years. According to the Taiwan MOE's English educational policy, students start to learn English from junior high school. Hence when students embark on university education, they should have learned English for a minimum of six years.

Three questions regarding languages that participants used in different situations are shown in Table 6-1 (The complete questionnaire is provided in Appendix D-5). The numbers before each statement correspond with the original question numbers in the questionnaire. In these three questions, a respondent could tick more than one box to indicate the languages they use in three different contexts. The results indicate that most of the respondents (104) are fluent in Mandarin and more than half of them (69) are fluent in Taiwanese. Mandarin is commonly the dominant language spoken both at home and in school. It is interesting to note that a high percentage of respondents used Taiwanese when answering Questions 7 and 8.

Table 6-1 Languages used in different contexts

6. What languages can you speak fluently?	
Mandarin (104), Taiwanese (69), Hakka (4), English (1)	
Other (1) <u>not fluent in any of these languages</u>	
7. What languages do you usually speak at home?	
Mandarin (81), Taiwanese (75), Hakka (4), English (0)	
Other (0) _____	
8. What languages do you usually speak in school with your friends?	
Mandarin (106), Taiwanese (59), Hakka (0), English (4)	
Other (1) <u>sign language</u>	

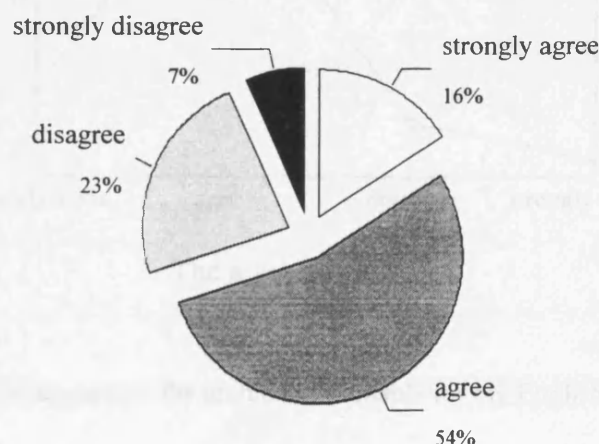
Having reported the background information of the participants, the results concerning textbooks, languages used when interacting with the textbooks, and attitudes towards the use of more than one language in the classroom are explored in

the following sub-sections. Due to the limitation of the SPSS software, it is not possible to show the original statement asked in the questionnaire as the title of each figure; instead, these statements are presented under each figure inside square brackets.

6.2.2 The Textbooks

To find out students' perceptions concerning the acceptability of the English textbook used in their classrooms, the first statement asked whether 'the English only textbook is the best choice for this course.' The result shows that more than 54% of respondents ticked 'agree' and 16 % ticked 'strongly agree'.

Figure 6-5 English textbook is the best choice

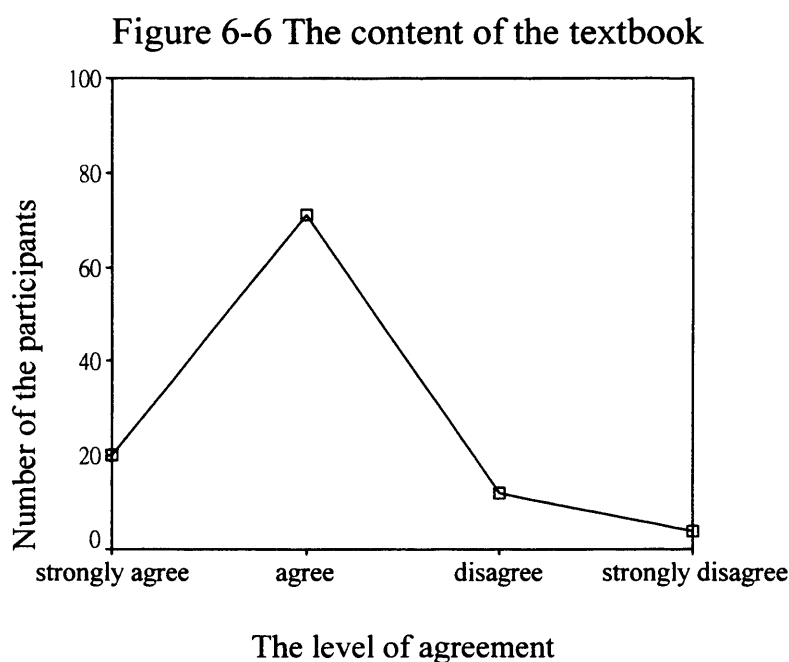


[Q1. The English only textbook is the best choice for this course.]

According to the number of informants, the result shown in Figure 6-5 indicates that 70 percent of respondents agreed the imported monolingual English textbook, which contains no Mandarin translations, is easier to comprehend. As I have stated in Chapter 5, the two textbooks used by these respondents were *Side by Side 2*, which is structured around conversation and drill exercises, for English level

II and *American Headway 2*, which emphasized four skills practices, for English level III. Samples of these two textbooks are provided in Appendices C-1 and C-2.

In order to examine the appropriateness of the content of the textbook to the students' level, the statement used in the questionnaire was 'the content of the textbook is suitable for my English level'. The result shows that about 20 respondents ticked 'strongly agree', 71 ticked 'agree', 12 ticked 'disagree', and 4 ticked 'strongly disagree' (Figure 6-6).



[Q2. The content of the textbook is suitable for my English level.]

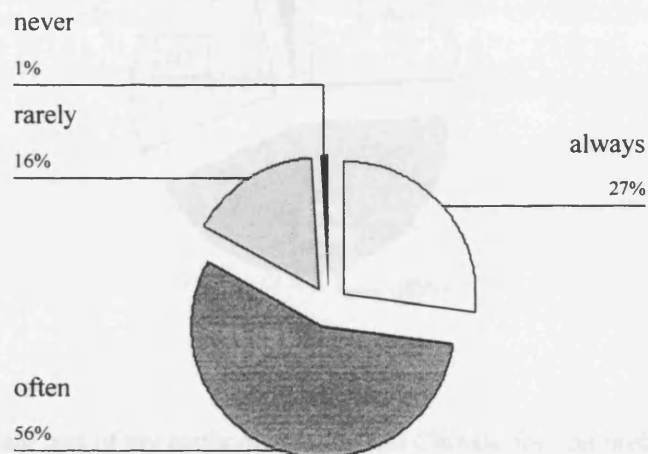
The result shown in Figure 6-6 indicates that most of the respondents agreed that the textbooks they used were appropriate for their level.

6.2.3 Languages Used When Interacting With the Textbooks

With regard to the language used to explain the meanings in the textbook, a great proportion of respondents indicated that they found it useful to use Mandarin

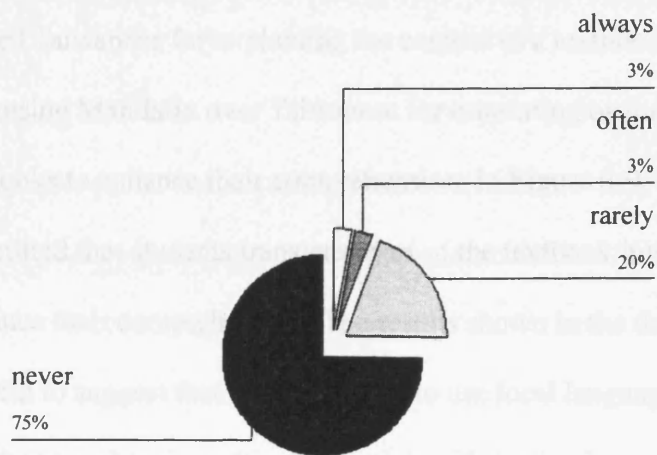
for translation, but not Taiwanese (Figures 6-7, 6-8 and 6-9).

Figure 6-7 Using Mandarin for comprehension



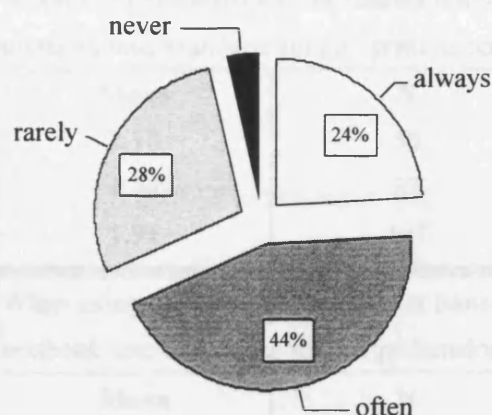
[Q23 When using the textbook, the teacher translates part of the textbook into Mandarin for comprehension.]

Figure 6-8 Using Taiwanese for comprehension



[Q24. When using the textbook, the teacher translates part of the textbook into Taiwanese for comprehension.]

Figure 6-9 Using written Chinese for comprehension



[Q25. I translate part of my textbook into written Chinese for comprehension.]

As Figure 6-7 shows, more than 80% of respondents stated that teachers translated English textbook into Mandarin in order to try to make the text comprehensible. In contrast, in Figure 6-8 less than 6% of the respondents indicated that teachers used Taiwanese for explaining the content of a textbook. It is clear that teachers favour using Mandarin over Taiwanese for translating or for annotating the content of textbooks to enhance their comprehension. In Figure 6-9, 68% of student respondents admitted that students translated part of the textbook into written Chinese to enhance their comprehension. The results shown in the three figures above would seem to suggest that there is a need to use local languages, in this case Mandarin, to aid comprehension when interacting with textbooks.

In order to investigate whether there are statistically significant differences between these two English levels, means and standard deviations were used (Table 6-2).

Table 6-2 The difference between Levels II and III when using local languages to understand the textbook

Statement 1	When using the textbook, the teacher translates part of the textbook into Mandarin for comprehension.		
Levels	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Level II	2.10	50	.68
Level III	1.74	57	.64
Total	1.91	107	.68

Statement 2	When using the textbook, the teacher translates part of the textbook into Taiwanese for comprehension.		
Levels	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Level II	3.46	50	.86
Level III	3.84	57	.37
Total	3.66	107	.67

Statement 3	I translate part of my textbook into written Chinese for comprehension.		
Levels	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Level II	2.22	50	.79
Level III	2.02	57	.83
Total	2.11	107	.82

All responses were computed on the basis that 'Always=1', 'Often=2', 'Rarely=3', 'Never=4'.

As Table 6-2 shows, for statement 1, 'when using the textbook, the teacher translates part of the textbook into Mandarin for comprehension', the mean score is 1.74 ('Always=1', 'Often=2', 'Rarely=3', 'Never=4'). This seems to suggest that participants of level III indicated that their teacher often translated parts of the textbooks into Mandarin. The teacher of level II translated less of the textbook into Mandarin, and the mean score is 2.10. Statement 2, 'when using the textbook, the teacher translates part of the textbook into Taiwanese for comprehension', appears to signify that respondents from two different levels both agreed that their teachers rarely translated part of the textbook into Taiwanese; the mean score for level III is

3.84 and for level II it is 3.46. As statement 3, 'I translate part of my textbook into written Chinese for comprehension', shows that respondents in level II translated part of their textbooks into written Chinese more than respondents in level III, the result for which is $2.22 > 2.02$.

Having examined the level difference as one of the factors which affects the frequency of using Mandarin or Taiwanese to unlock the meanings of the textbook, the length of respondents' English learning experience was examined. The responses were computed as mean scores and the results are presented in Table 6-3.

Table 6-3 I translate part of my textbook into written Chinese for comprehension

Year learned	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
6 years	2.03	35	.822
7-8 years	2.06	49	.747
9-10 years	2.31	13	1.032
11 years and above	2.40	10	.843
Total	2.11	107	.816

All responses were computed on the basis that 'Always=1', 'Often=2', 'Rarely=3', 'Never=4'.

Table 6-3 illustrates that respondents who have fewer years of English learning experience tend to translate more Chinese into written form in a textbook: the mean score is 2.03 on the basis that 'Always=1', 'Often=2', 'Rarely=3' and 'Never=4'.

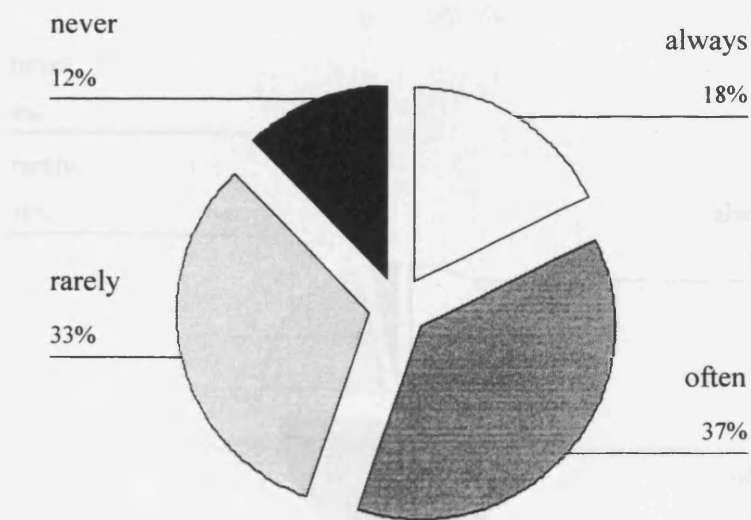
Increasingly, participants who have the most years of English learning experience translated less of the textbook into Chinese, and the mean score is 2.40.

6.2.4 Languages Used when Engaging in Conversational Practice

The results of the statements regarding languages used in pair/ group

discussions have shown that not only English, but also Mandarin and sometimes Taiwanese are used (see Figures 6-10 to 6-13). It should be noted that pair/ group discussion relates to students engaging in conversational practices.

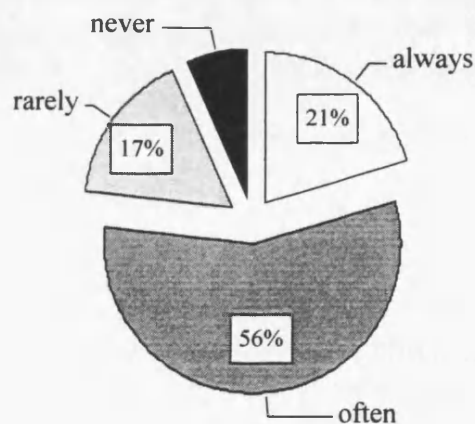
Figure 6-10 English only in pair work



[Q28. I speak only English in pair/ group discussion.]

Figure 6-10 shows that 18% of respondents indicated that they always speak only English in pair/group discussions and 37% often do so.

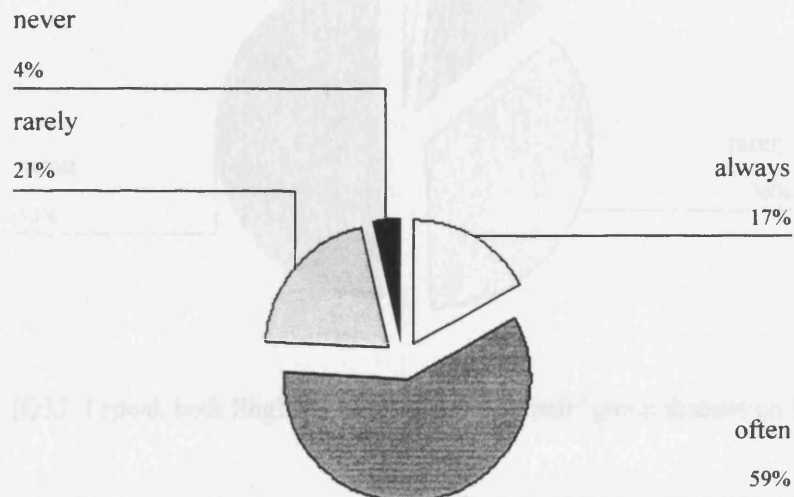
Figure 6-11 Mandarin only in pair work



[Q29. I speak only Mandarin in pair/ group discussion.]

Figure 6-11 reveals that 21% of respondents claimed that Mandarin was always used in their pair work and 56% often do so.

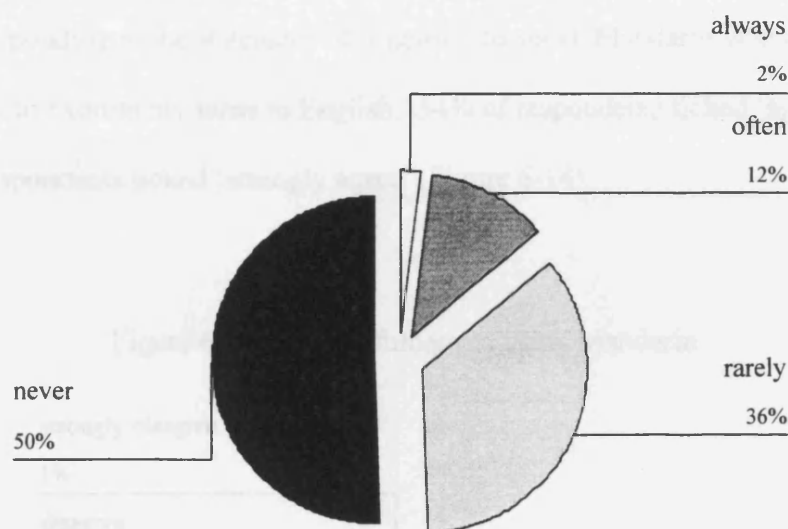
Figure 6-12 Use English and Mandarin in pair work



[Q31. I speak both English and Mandarin in pair/ group discussion.]

Figure 6-12 indicates that 17% of respondents spoke both English and Mandarin in the pair/ group discussions and 59% often do so.

Figure 6-13 The use of English and Taiwanese in pair work



[Q32. I speak both English and Taiwanese in pair/ group discussion.]

Figure 6-13 shows that a very small percentage of respondents, 2%, always speak both English and Taiwanese in pair/ group discussions, 12% do so often, 36% rarely, and 50% never.

The data displayed in the four charts above suggest that three languages, English, Mandarin, and Taiwanese, are employed when students are engaging in pair/ group discussions or conversational practices. The significant finding displayed in these figures is that students predominantly use Mandarin for their in class discussions.

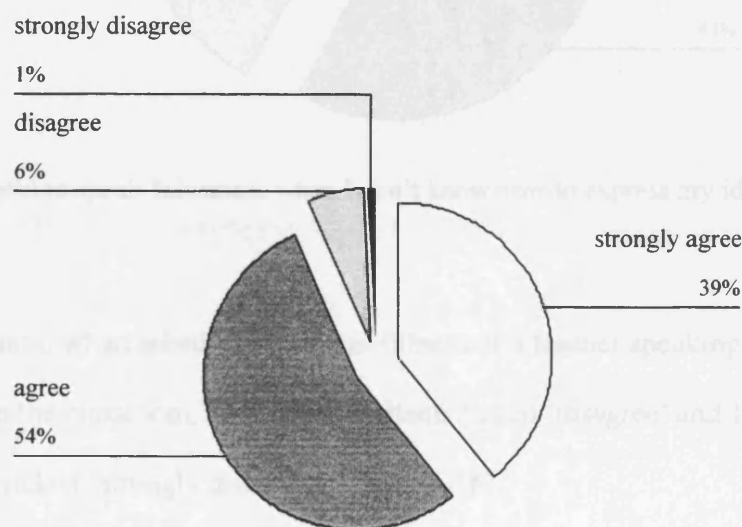
6.2.5 Attitudes Toward Code-switching in the Classroom

Students' attitudes toward code-switching in the classroom are examined with the concerns of the usefulness of Mandarin/ Taiwanese and the students' attitudes on

teachers switching between codes in classrooms. The discussion is in the following paragraphs.

In responding to the statement ‘it is helpful to speak Mandarin when I don’t know how to express my ideas in English,’ 54% of respondents ticked ‘agree’ and 39% of respondents ticked ‘strongly agree’ (Figure 6-14).

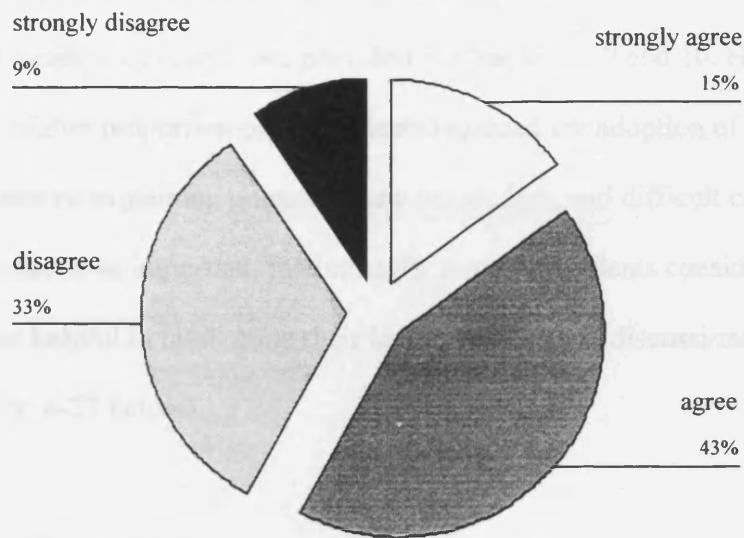
Figure 6-14 The helpfulness of using Mandarin



[Q4. It is helpful to speak Mandarin when I don’t know how to express my idea in English.]

In answering the similar statement, ‘it is helpful to speak Taiwanese when I don’t know how to express my ideas in English,’ 43% of respondents ticked ‘agree’ and 15% of respondents ticked ‘strongly agree’ (Figure 6-15).

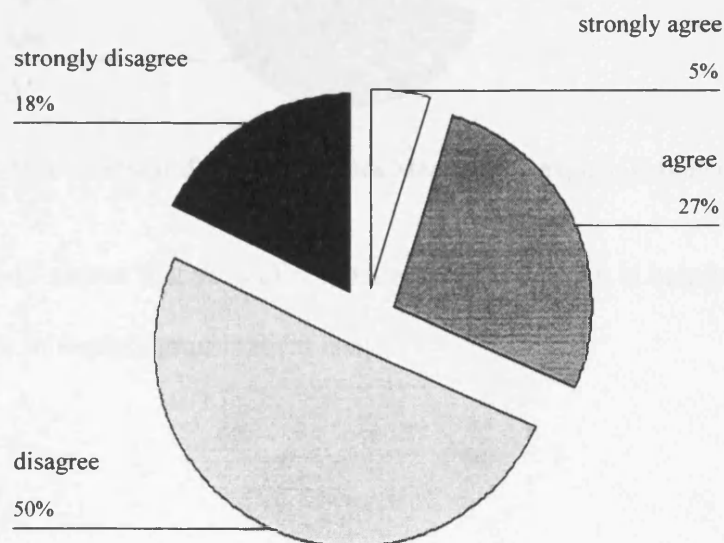
Figure 6-15 The helpfulness of using Taiwanese



[Q5. It is helpful to speak Taiwanese when I don't know how to express my idea in English.]

In addition, when asked about the usefulness of a teacher speaking more Taiwanese in the classroom, 50% of respondents ticked 'disagree' and 18% of respondents ticked 'strongly disagree' (Figure 6-16).

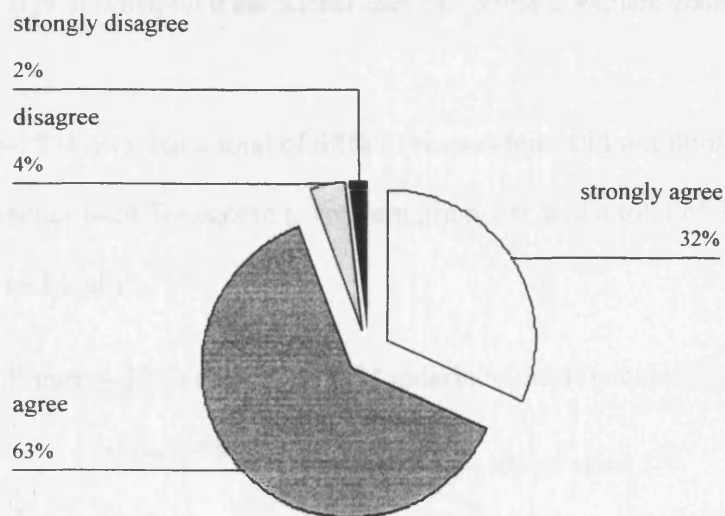
Figure 6-16 Teachers speaking more Taiwanese



[Q7. It is helpful if the teacher speaks more Taiwanese in the class.]

Significantly, based on the discussions outlined above it seems that Mandarin plays an important role in these two classrooms. Discussions of the lack of use of Taiwanese in academic contexts are provided in Chapters 2, 9 and 10. However, a considerably higher proportion of respondents regarded the adoption of Mandarin for the purposes of explaining grammar, new vocabulary, and difficult contexts within the textbook as important. Interestingly, most respondents considered Taiwanese not helpful in facilitating their language learning (discussions and Figures 6-17 to 6-22 below).

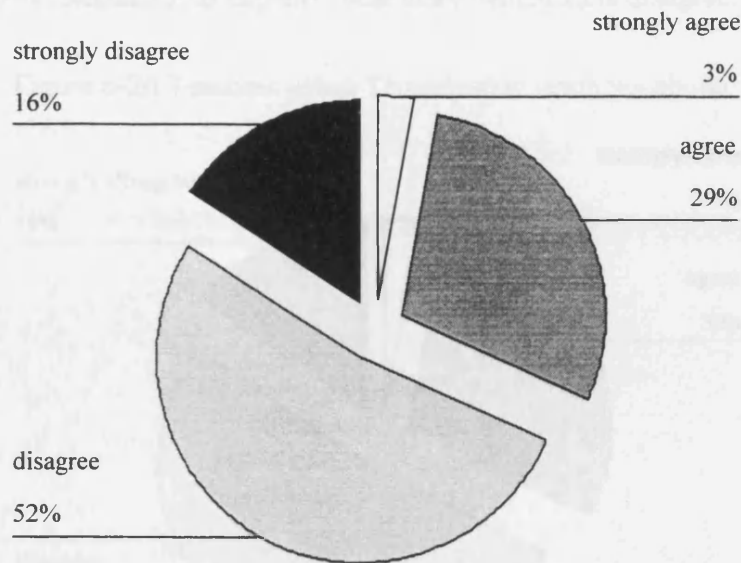
Figure 6-17 Teachers using Mandarin to explain grammar



[Q8. It is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to explain grammar.]

Figure 6-17 shows that 95% of respondents agreed that it is helpful if a teacher uses Mandarin to explain grammatical issues.

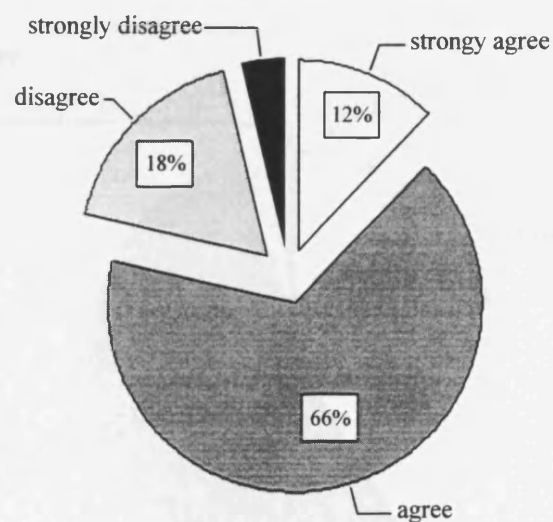
Figure 6-18 Teachers using Taiwanese to explain grammar



[Q9. It is helpful if the teacher uses Taiwanese to explain grammar.]

Figure 6-18 shows that a total of 68% of respondents did not think it would be helpful if a teacher used Taiwanese to explain grammar, and a total of 32% did think that it would be helpful.

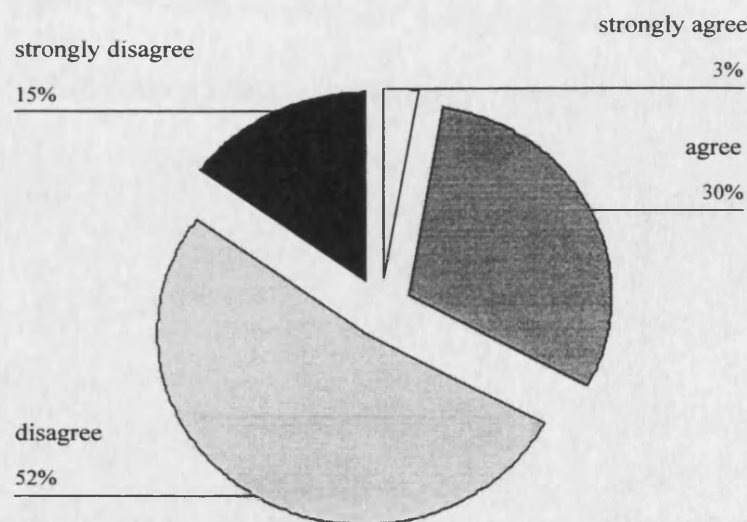
Figure 6-19 Teachers using Mandarin to teach vocabulary



[Q10. It is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to teach new vocabulary.]

Figure 6-19 illustrates that 78% of respondents agreed that it is helpful if a teacher employs Mandarin to explain vocabulary, whilst 22% disagree.

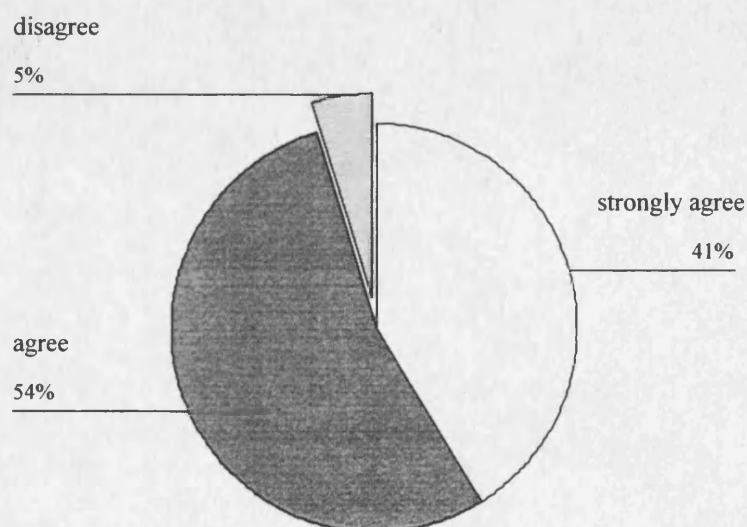
Figure 6-20 Teachers using Taiwanese to teach vocabulary



[Q11. It is helpful if the teacher uses Taiwanese to teach new vocabulary.]

Figure 6-20 indicates that 67% of respondents disagreed that a teacher adopting Taiwanese for explaining vocabulary is helpful, whilst 33% agreed that it is.

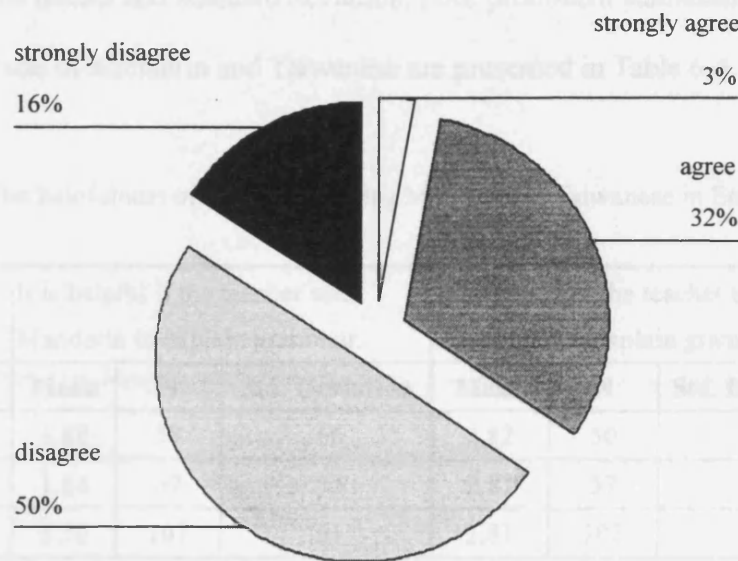
Figure 6-21 Teachers using Mandarin to explain difficult content



[Q12. It is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to explain difficult content in the textbook.]

Figure 6-21 shows that 41% of respondents strongly agreed that it is helpful if a teacher uses Mandarin to explain the more difficult content of the textbook, 54% agreed and 5% disagreed.

Figure 6-22 Teachers using Taiwanese to explain difficult content



[Q13. It is helpful if the teacher uses Taiwanese to explain difficult content in the textbook.]

Figure 6-22 indicates that 66% of respondents disagreed that it is helpful if a teacher uses Mandarin to explain difficult content in the textbook, whilst 35% agreed.

A major finding in the study is that Mandarin is used as the main instrument to facilitate the teaching and learning of English in English lessons in academic contexts, not Taiwanese (more discussion on this issue in Chapters 9 and 10). One of the main reasons derives from Taiwan's language history. According to Taiwanese language history and policy, Mandarin has been the official language since 1949 when KMT Government moved from Mainland China to Taiwan. Since then, people have been taught to use Mandarin in formal or official situations, and

thus in schools. Consequently, people habitually became speakers of Mandarin in formal or academic situations (a detailed discussion is provided in Chapter 2).

In order to find out whether there is statistical significance between these two different levels of respondents on the preference of teachers for using Mandarin over Taiwanese in English classrooms, the responses were re-examined by comparing the means and standard deviation. Four prominent statistical differences between the use of Mandarin and Taiwanese are presented in Table 6-4.

Table 6-4 The helpfulness of the teacher using Mandarin or Taiwanese in English classrooms

Statement 1	It is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to explain grammar.			It is helpful if the teacher uses Taiwanese to explain grammar.		
Levels	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Level II	1.88	50	.66	2.82	50	.77
Level III	1.64	57	.55	2.81	57	.69
Total	1.76	107	.61	2.81	107	.73
Statement 2	It is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to explain difficult content in the textbook.			It is helpful if the teacher uses Taiwanese to explain difficult content in the textbook.		
Levels	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Level II	1.70	50	.58	2.82	50	.75
Level III	1.58	57	.57	2.75	57	.74
Total	1.64	107	.57	2.79	107	.74
Statement 3	It is helpful if the teacher switches between English and Mandarin in his/ her teaching.			It is helpful if the teacher switches between English and Taiwanese in his/ her teaching.		
Levels	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Level II	1.56	50	.50	2.72	50	.78
Level III	1.46	57	.54	2.67	57	.76
Total	1.50	107	.52	2.69	107	.77

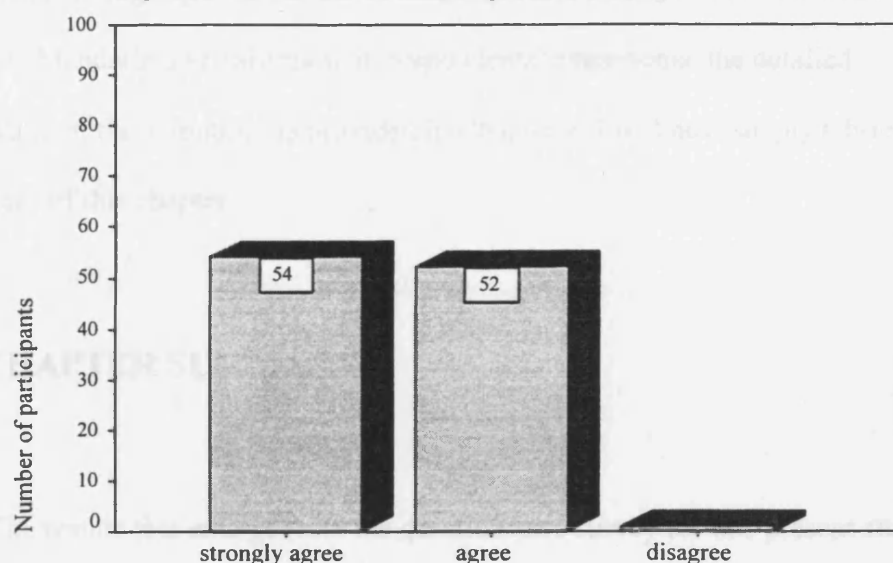
Statement 4	I understand the lesson better when the teacher switches to Mandarin to explain his or her prior English comments.			I understand the lesson better when the teacher switches to Taiwanese to explain his or her prior English comments.		
Levels	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Level II	1.56	50	.54	2.66	50	.80
Level III	1.42	57	.50	2.67	57	.83
Total	1.49	107	.52	2.66	107	.81

All responses were computed on the basis that 'Strongly agree=1', 'Agree=2', 'Disagree=3', and 'Strongly disagree=4'.

Table 6-4 seems to suggest that there is a strong preference amongst students for teachers to use Mandarin rather than Taiwanese in facilitating teaching of English. Another significant finding is that students in level III have a stronger tendency to rely on Mandarin when encountering difficulties in understanding English than students in level II. The findings also seem to suggest that students tend to hold positive views on the use of Mandarin for the purposes such as explaining grammar, vocabulary and difficult content in the textbook.

The statement regarding 'the helpfulness of the teacher switching between English and Mandarin in teaching,' a total number of 106 out of 107 respondents answered positively (Figure 6-23).

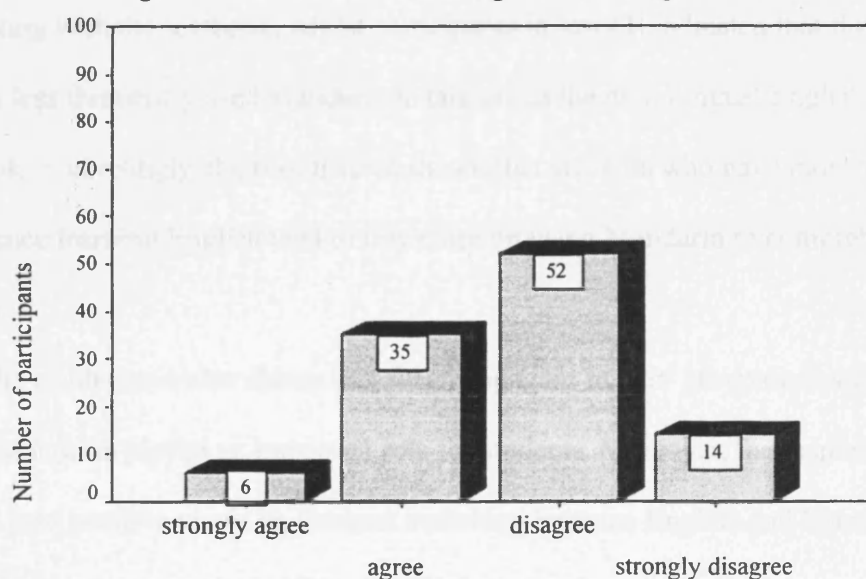
Figure 6-23 Teachers switching between English and Mandarin



[Q14. It is helpful if the teacher switches between English and Mandarin in his/ her teaching.]

On the other hand, a total of 66 out of the 107 participants (71%) held negative views about switching between English and Taiwanese (Figure 6-24).

Figure 6-24 Teachers switching between English and Taiwanese



[Q15. It is helpful if the teacher switches between English and Taiwanese in his/ her teaching.]

After having explored the use of languages and attitudes toward the use of English, Mandarin and Taiwanese in respondents' classrooms, the detailed discussion of these findings is provided in Chapter 9. I will now supply a brief summary of this chapter.

6.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The results that emerge from the questionnaire survey for this present study indicate the usefulness of adopting Mandarin in these two English classrooms. Mandarin is preferred and employed by both teachers and students to explain English lexical items, rules of grammar and difficult contents. Written Chinese (Mandarin) is employed by students when they switch to translate part of a textbook to enhance their comprehension. Interestingly, comparing English level II and level III, participants of level III agreed that their teacher often used Mandarin when interacting with the textbook, whilst participants in level II indicated that their teacher less frequently used Mandarin to talk about the monolingual English textbook. Surprisingly, the results have shown that students who have more years' experience learning English tend to rely more on using Mandarin to comprehend English.

The results have also shown that when engaging in pair/ group discussions, the use of Mandarin played an important role for students. Moreover, the respondents tend to hold positive views on teachers switching between English and Mandarin. However, the data reveals that Mandarin is far more commonly spoken or written than Taiwanese in these two English classrooms.

Having discussed the results of the questionnaire survey, I will now explore the

findings of the observations in the next two chapters.

CHAPTER 7

LANGUAGES USE IN CLASSROOM A

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to explore the nature of classroom talk and the languages used to accomplish English lessons in Classroom A, five lessons were audio recorded and were transcribed. The list of transcription conventions is provided in Appendix A. Several important characteristics of this class emerged from the data. The transcripts and field notes show that English is the dominant language in teacher-student interaction, particularly when is talk centred around the textbook. Significantly, Mandarin plays an important role in linguistic form explanation, assigning textbook related tasks such as pair/ group discussions or conversational practice and classroom management. The term ‘linguistic forms’ here and elsewhere in the study refers to the lexical and grammatical characteristics of linguistic units, such as lexemes, nouns, sentences and grammar. It is noticed that two salient language patterns, the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) format and teacher guided chorus reading performance (practice), were used in every lesson. It is also found that the teacher preferred to employ English when opening a class and introducing the textbook contents. When the English lexical items, phrases or sentences seemed to be problematic to students, the teacher switched to Mandarin for clarification and elaboration. To end the lesson, Mandarin was often used by the teacher for assigning homework or to remind students about the next lesson.

I recognise problems in the categorisation, but I believe a strict formulation of functions is not necessarily possible as a particular instance of code-switching may

be multi-functional. However, two main themes focused on the transcript data, code-switching for talk around the textbook and other uses of code-switching in lessons, are reported in detail in the following sections.

7.2 CODE-SWITCHING FOR TALK AROUND THE TEXTBOOK

In Classroom A, languages used in the classroom to accomplish the English lessons are English (the legitimate classroom language) and Mandarin. To meet the aims of the present study and to answer the research questions (stated in Chapters 1 and 5), when and how the teacher and students switch codes, particularly when interacting with the English textbook, is closely examined. It is found that the textbook plays an integral role in lessons as a ‘prop’ and as a “participant in instruction” (Berbhardt, 1987, p.32). The teacher and students switched codes more often when interacting with the textbook. The language used, then, is analysed by four prominent features: code-switching in IRF format, code-switching in chorusing, code-switching to explain linguistic forms, and code-switching to explain cultural content.

7.2.1 Code-switching in IRF Format

In order to enable a clear understanding of how the languages are actually used when interacting with the textbook, the first step is to scrutinize the language patterns used in the IRF format. Based on the transcripts, the IRF format found in this class can be categorised into four major types. The first type presented in Excerpt 1 is I (English), R (English), F (English). The teacher initiated the dialogue in English,

students replied in English and the teacher gave feedback in English. This type of IRF format is found mostly when introducing lexical items.

Excerpt 1 (II-9-26-01, lines 1-6)

1. T: Sixty minutes equal one hour. So twenty-four hours equal one day. So,
2. seven days equal a week, one week. OK. So, four weeks equal a month.
3. Twelve months equal a year, yeah right! OK^. So, do you know seven days?
4. What day is today? What day is today?
5. Ss: Thursday.
6. T: {Today is Thursday.

The second recurrent type of IRF format found in the study is I (English), R (Mandarin), F (English). The teacher started off the conversation in English, students responded in Mandarin, and the teacher continued in English. This type of pattern is also found when lexical items are introduced or when replies can easily be made with one or two short English words. An example is provided in Excerpt 2.

Excerpt 2 (II-12-19, lines 491-3)

- 491 T: What's sports car?
- 492 Ss: 跑車 (pao che) <sports car>
- 493 T: Yeah. Do you want sports car? Next one, fancy.

There is a critical difference between Excerpts 1 and 2. In Excerpt 1, the teacher is asking for content, a label the students know. In Excerpt 2, the teacher provides the label in English and is expecting a response in Mandarin.

The third type of IRF format found is that the teacher initiated in English, then switched to Mandarin, and then reverted back to English. Students responded in Mandarin and the teacher gave feedback in Mandarin and repeated the key lexical item in English. An example is shown in Excerpt 3: I (English/ Mandarin/ English,

lines 266-9), R (Mandarin, line 270), F (Mandarin/ English, lines 271-2). This type of format is found when the teacher has to use Mandarin for instruction.

Excerpt 3 (II-01-09, lines 266-72)

266 T: {Bright, how many syllables? 幾個音節? (**ji ge yin jie**) <How many
267 syllables?> BRIGHT, 嘴巴動幾下? (**zuei ba dong ji sia**) <How many times
268 did you move your mouth?> 自己動。(**zih ji dong**) <Move by yourself.>
269 BRIGHT, 幾下? (**ji sia**) <How many times?> How many?
270 Ss: 兩下 (**liang sia**) <Two times>.
271 T: 有兩下哦, (**you liang sia oh**) <Two times?> 你們自己再摸一下。(**ni men**
272 **zih ji zai muo yi sia**) <You touch it again by yourself.> BRIGHT.

The fourth type of IRF format found in the study is I (Mandarin/ English/ Mandarin), R (English), F (English/ Mandarin/ English). The teacher initiated the utterance in Mandarin and switched to English for the key word, then reverted to Mandarin to give the following instruction. Students replied in English (usually with one or two English key words). The teacher confirmed the students' answer in English and then switched to Mandarin to explain or annotate the English message. An example is offered in Excerpt 4.

Excerpt 4 (II-01-09, lines 275-80)

275 T: 好, (**hao**) <OK> one. 所以幾個音節? (**suo yi ji ge yin jie**) <So how
276 many syllables?>
277 Ss: One.
278 T: {One. 所以前面, (**suo yi cian mian**) <So in the front> 後面要記得加
279 EST, (**hou mian yao ji de jia EST**) <In the end, remember to add est> hoh,
280 來, 唸。(**lai nian**) <OK read> The brightest.

The findings of the transcripts seem to suggest that the IRF format is one of the most important teacher-student interactive patterns, used extensively in this

classroom, to facilitate the teaching of English. Additionally, there is evidence showing the use of code-switching in these IRF formats. However, there is another recurrent phenomenon found in this classroom: chorusing. The teacher consistently invited students to join in with choral readings after lexical items or sentences had been taught.

7.2.2 Code-switching in Chorusing

Chorusing, which is one of the teaching and learning strategies that is often used in language classrooms, plays an important role for students who are practicing the pronunciation of lexical items or sentences in this classroom. It is also a strategy a teacher might use to assist students who are not willing to speak English individually in the classroom. Interestingly, on occasion the teacher switched codes to invite students to join in with choral reading practice. Excerpt 5 demonstrates the fundamental pattern of chorusing in this classroom.

Excerpt 5 (II-9-26, lines 16-21)

16 T: Sunday
17 Ss: Sunday.
18 T: Monday.
19 Ss: Monday.
20 T: Tuesday.
21 Ss: Tuesday.

Excerpt 5 shows one of the chorusing formats, which was used customarily after the lexical items were taught. The teacher uttered one English word and students repeated it afterwards (repetitive drilling). Excerpt 6 (below) presents another typical chorus in Classroom A. After the sentences were taught, the teacher would request

students to repeat them after her from the textbook.

Excerpt 6 (II-9-26, lines 206-11)

206 T: {Study 對. (**duei**) <*Right*> OK! So repeat after me. “He likes to swim.”

207 Ss: “He likes to swim.”

208 T: “She likes to play.”

209 Ss: “She likes to play.”

210 T: “She likes to cook.”

211 Ss: “She likes to cook.”

When asking students to take part in a choral reading practice, the teacher would sometimes switch to Mandarin for instruction. An example is shown in Excerpt 7.

Excerpt 7 (II-11-28, lines 284-88)

284 T: 我們唸一次, (**wuo men nian yi ci**) <*Let's say it again.*> Child Detection
285 Agency.

286 Ss: Child Detection Agency.

287 T: De..來, (**lai**) <*Come on*> 唸。(**nian**) <*Say*> De-

288 Ss: De.

It is found in the data that the teacher consistently used Mandarin ‘我們唸一次, (**wuo men nian yi ci**) <*Let's say it again.*>’ to invite students to repeat a word or phrase after her (i.e. for instruction). Unsurprisingly, students would follow the teacher’s command in Mandarin and perform the joint choral reading performance. Another example is presented below in Excerpt 8.

Excerpt 8 (II-01-09, lines 220-7)

220 T: 這複數的, (jhe fu shu de) <This is plural.> 兩個的 cousin, (liang ge de
 221 cousin) <Two cousins> 所以要用(suo yi yao yong) <So use> THEY ARE.
 222 “They are the MOST talented person.” PERSONS. Hoh, 兩個以上 (liang
 223 ge yi shang) <More than two> person 要加 S. (person yao jia s) <Add s for
 224 person> .. 來, (lai) <OK> Number four. “Our English teacher.”
 225 Ss: [no responses]
 226 T: 來唸啦 (lai nian la) <Come on, read it.> “Our English teacher.”
 227 Ss: “Our English teacher.”

In the excerpt above, from line 220 to 224, the teacher was explaining the grammatical rule concerning most English plurals. In line 224, after a pause of a few seconds, the teacher signalled and invited students to read a sentence. As there was no response from students, the teacher then said in Mandarin, 來唸啦 (lai nian la) <Come on, read it.>.

The transcripts show that when conducting the chorusing, the teacher not only used English or Mandarin to invite students to take part, but also adopted a particular teaching strategy (i.e. using a raised voice tone) as an invitation to join choral reading practice. For example, in Excerpt 9, the teacher used the prosodic raising tone to prompt the students' response. In line 627, the teacher said 'I^, I^,' to imply that she expected students' collaboration in repeating after her. The prosodic raising tone is signified by the symbol [^]. Subsequently, in line 627 she switched to Mandarin and commanded '來, 唸一次。(lai, nian yi ci) <Come on, say it.>'. Students then followed and repeated 'I'll'.

Excerpt 9 (II-11-28, lines 626-31)

626 T: 如果 (ru guo) <If> 縮寫怎麼唸啊? (suo xie zen me nian ah?) <How do
 627 you read the abbreviation?> I^, I^, 來, 唸一次。(lai, nian yi ci) <Come on,
 628 say it.> I'll.
 629 Ss: I'll.
 630 T: I'll.

Having examined the code-switching in the IRF format and chorusing in the classroom, I will analyse the use of code-switching for teaching linguistic forms (the lexical items, phrases and grammar) in the next section.

7.2.3 Code-switching to Explain Linguistic Forms

It is interesting to note that the most frequent code-switching emerging from the data in Classroom A occurs when new lexical items are introduced. The teacher accentuated the key lexical items and wrote them on the board. The teacher then used Mandarin to translate, elaborate and review the key words. An example of this is presented below in Excerpt 10.

Excerpt 10 (II-10-31, lines 34-53)

- 34 T: OK, today we are talking about ... about [Teacher is writing 'container' on the
35 board.] about the CONTAINER and .. SHAPE. OK, and weight, and size, and
36 (??). OK, so .. a can, a can of soup, OK, is called CONTAINER. ...A jar of
37 jam is called CONTAINER, a box of cereal is called CONTAINER. A bag of
38 flour is called a CONTAINER. And a bottle of Ketchup is also a container.
39 What's CONTAINER? 是指它那個容器 (**shih jhih ta na ge rong ci**) <It
40 means a container.> 知道 hoh? (**jhih dao**) <Got it?> 計量它的一個容器
41 (**ji liang ta de yi ge ruong ci**) <A container is used to for measuring.> ..再來
42 (**zai lai**) <Next> .. For SHAPE, KETCHUP, [Teacher's writing 'shape' on the
43 board.] They can be square, triangle, circle, they are shapes. So, a bunch of
44 carrots, two loafs of bread, and a head of lettuce. A bunch of grapes, a bag of
45 flour, and two loaves of bread, hoh, a head of lettuce, a bunch of carrots, a
46 bunch of bananas, a loaf of bread, hoh, they are all shape. 是指形狀的 (**shih
47 jhih sing jhuang de**) <All about shapes> , hoh^? Next one. WEIGHT and
48 SIZE. ... [Teacher is writing 'weight and size' on the board.] Like a quart of
49 orange juice. A pound of meat. .. A pint of ice cream. A gallon of milk. A

50 pound of cheese, hoh. They are weight and size, hoh. 可以分三種 (**ke yi fan**
 51 **san jhong**) <Can be categorized into three different kinds. > yeah, three kinds
 52 of. 來 (**lai**) <Come on> container 再唸一次來 (**zai nian yi ci lai**) <Repeat
 53 again> CONTAINER.
 54 Ss: {Container.

In Excerpt 10, from line 34, the teacher initiated the topic, introducing four new words: ‘container’, ‘shape’, ‘weight’ and ‘size’. She also wrote the word ‘container’ on the board to indicate that it is a key item of vocabulary that students should learn. After giving a few English examples, the teacher asked the class ‘what’s container?’ Without waiting for the students’ reply, the teacher switched to Mandarin, 是指它那個容器 (**shih jhih ta na ge rong ci**) <It means a container.>, to explain what ‘container’ is (line 39). In line 41, the teacher said ‘再來 (**zai lai**) <Next>’ to signal that she will continue to bring in more lexical items. After demonstrating with a few English sentences that embody some of the key words in line 46, the teacher switched to Mandarin to show the equivalent Mandarin meanings.

As well as the teacher providing Mandarin translations, the teacher also asked students to offer explicit Mandarin meanings for particular English words, another strategy for the teaching of new lexical items (Excerpt 11 below).

Excerpt 11 (II-01-09, lines 208-14)

208 T: ---- children, right^? ... 來, (**lai**) <OK> talented. What does TALENTED
 209 mean? .. It means you have the special nature or learning ability, maybe oh,
 210 you can DANCE, you can SING A SONG, you can play the piano, you can
 211 swim, and you CAN, .. speak very, speak English very well. OK, so, you are
 212 very talented. What does TALENTED mean?
 213 Ss: 有才氣 (**you cai ci**) <Talented>.
 214 T: Yes, 有才氣, (**you cai ci**) <Talented> 有才氣。 (**you cai ci**) <Talented>

In Excerpt 11, the teacher used English to explain the word ‘talented’, and provided some example sentences. To ensure students understood, the teacher then

asked ‘what does talented mean’ in English and accentuated the key word ‘talent’ in line 212. Students then gave its meaning in Mandarin, 有才氣 (**you cai ci**) <Talented>, in chorus. The teacher confirmed with English ‘yes’ and switched to Mandarin to reiterate the students’ answers. Another similar example is provided in Excerpt 12. Excerpts 2 and 12 are of the same pattern. However, the purpose of Excerpt 2 is to illustrate the discourse in the IRF format, and Excerpt 12 demonstrates the use of code-switching in the explanation of linguistic forms.

Excerpt 12 (II-10-31, lines 541-3)

- 541 T: {Uncountable. What’s SUGAR?
 542 Ss: 糖 ◦ (**tang**) <Sugar>
 543 T: Yeah. Good. Great. “How much does a bag of sugar cost?”
 544 Ss: “A dollar ninety-five.”

There are occasions in the data where it was not possible to provide one-to-one translations for an English lexical item. If there are no equivalent meanings for English and Mandarin, the original English lexical item or phrase is often utilized.

Excerpt 13 (II-10-31, lines 669-80)

- 669 T: Yeah. A bunch of carrots.
 670 S35: {A bunch of carrots. Ah, 這個也是 a bunch ◦ (**jhe ge yie shih** a bunch)
 671 <This is also a bunch.>
 672 T: Yeah. “A bunch of bread.”
 673 S35: {“A bunch of bread.”
 674 T: 一串 (**yi chuan**) <A string> 就是(**jiou shih**) <is > a bunch.
 675 S35: Hoh. Ah, 這個要寫 (**jhe ge yao sie**) <We should write > two.
 676 T: No, just one. One. Six, picture six. “A loaf of bread.”
 677 S35: 這兩個有什麼差別嗎? (**jhe liang ge you she me cha bie ma**) <What
 678 are the differences between these two?>
 679 T: 一袋, 這兩袋啊(**yi dai, jhe liang dai ah**) <One bag. These are two bags.>
 680 S35: Hoh.

In Excerpt 13, line 670, Student 35 was not sure that the phrase ‘a bunch’ could be used as an explanation for many carrots. Thus, he confirmed with the teacher by saying ‘這個也是 a bunch。’ (**jhe ge yie shih a bunch**) <*This is also a bunch.*>.’ The teacher did not explicitly elaborate the term ‘a bunch’. Instead, she gave some examples in which ‘a bunch’ was embedded. In line 674, the teacher adopted the closest Mandarin translation, ‘一串’ (**yi chuan**) <*A string*>, to sketch the picture of ‘a bunch’. In fact, during the teacher interview, the teacher stated that when she was introducing the phrase ‘a bunch’, she could not find an equivalent Chinese meaning for it, and as a result, she had to draw pictures to explain the concept. In line 676, the teacher read a sentence from the textbook, ‘a loaf of bread’, and the student became confused. They asked a question in Mandarin in line 677. The phrase ‘一串’ (**yi chuan**)’ has many different meanings in Mandarin and its English literal translation is ‘a string’. However, one of the meanings can be explained as ‘a bunch’ in English. Due to the several meanings of the term ‘一串’ (**yi chuan**), Student 5 was not sure how to differentiate the usage of ‘a bunch’ when the teacher gave the Mandarin meaning of ‘一串’ (**yi chuan**) to indicate the meaning of ‘a bunch’. In line 679, the teacher explained in Mandarin. Actually, the meaning of ‘a bag’ is different from ‘a bunch’ in Mandarin measurement, but the student seemed to take the teacher’s explanation for granted and replied ‘hoh’ (which means ‘I understand now’). The teacher then continued to talk about other lexical items.

Apart from the difficulty of finding equivalent meanings for two different languages, there are some English lexical items (i.e. conversation, party) that Taiwanese people commonly embed in daily conversation in their first language. Excerpt 14 shows one example.

Excerpt 14 (II-12-19, lines 312-6)

312 T: How do you change it into comparative? 比較級怎麼變? (**bi jiao ji zen me**
313 **bian**) <How do you change it into comparative?> SOFTER. 加(**jia**) <add>
314 ER, OK, 來我們再到 conversation 裡面來, (**lai wuo men zai dao**
315 **conversation li mian lai**) <OK. Let's practise it from the conversation
316 section.> I am A, you are B. OK^. "I think you'll like my new bicycle."

In Excerpt 14, the teacher used English and Mandarin to explain the grammatical rule to students. In line 314, the teacher used the word 'conversation' and inserted it in her Mandarin utterances. Furthermore, the teacher also adopted the word 'conversation' in her Mandarin utterances in the teacher interview. At the end of the dialogue, she reverted to English to read a sentence from the textbook (line 316).

In addition to embedding an English lexical item in Mandarin, on occasion the teacher inserted Mandarin noun phrases into her English utterances. In Excerpt 15 line 13 (below), the teacher employed '大野貓 (**da ye mao**) <big wild cat>' to annotate the English term 'big cats'.

Excerpt 15 (II-11-28, lines 13-4)

13 T: Big cats. OK? I know. Because Chinese say 大野貓(**da ye mao**) <big wild
14 **cat**> Big cats.

Another distinct feature of using Mandarin to annotate English lexical items is provided below in Excerpt 16.

Excerpt 16 (II-01-09, lines 328-39)

328 T: Downstairs. [Teacher writes 'downstairs' on the board.] ... Because you

329 live on the third floor, right? Huh, 因為你住在第三層樓, (yin wuei ni jhu
 330 zai di san ceng lou) <Because you live on the third floor,> 所以住在四和五
 331 的都是 upstairs. (suo yi jhu zai sih han wu de dou shih) <people who live
 332 on the fourth or fifth floors are upstairs.> Second or first is downstairs. Eh,
 333 我們看 number eight (wuo men kan number eight) <Let's look at number
 334 eight> 第八個 (di ba ge) <number eight> 來 (lai) <OK> “Your upstairs
 335 neighbour.” 還有(hai you) <And> noisy. 來 (lai) <OK> NOISY. How
 336 many syllables? Noisy 字尾是 Y 對不對? (noisy zih wuei shih Y duei bu
 337 duei) <Noisy, the ending is y, right?> The ending is y, 所以要怎麼樣? (suo
 338 yi yao zen me yang) <So what do we do?>
 339 Ss: Put away y.

For explaining the meanings of ‘downstairs’, ‘upstairs’ and ‘noisy’, Mandarin and English are used interchangeably, along with the writing of English words on the board. In line 328, the teacher started with the key word ‘downstairs’ and also wrote it on the board. Subsequently, she gave an example sentence ‘because you live on the third floor, right’, and switched to Mandarin to rephrase that sentence. In line 330, the teacher switched to Mandarin to illuminate her comments. She told the students that people who live on the fourth or fifth floors are above the third floor: They live ‘upstairs’. In line 332, English is used for further explanation. Thus, either English or Mandarin is not used to translate the meaning, but to teach a particular word and the concepts related to it. Similarly, from line 330 to 338, Mandarin and English are employed to accompany each other to introduce the word ‘noisy’ and explain its pronunciation. Students then responded ‘put away y.’ in line 339.

To replace a Mandarin interrogative phrase in an English sentence sometimes played as a cue or request for students to ‘fill the gaps’ in the conversation. The teacher uttered in Mandarin, 什麼 (she me) <What>, as a prompt for students to utter the key words from the textbook. Two examples are in Excerpts 17 and 18 below.

Excerpt 17 (II-01-09, lines 799-801)

799 T: ---- “Linda is the most 什麼 (she me) <What> person I know?” ... Most
800 polite or smart?
801 Ss: Most polite.

In Excerpt 18, the teacher uttered in Mandarin, 什麼什麼 (she me she me) <what what>, to request an answer from students.

Excerpt 18 (II-01-09, lines 808-10)

808 T: ---- Number two. “She is the most 什麼什麼 (she me she me) <what
809 what> girl in the neighbourhood?”
810 Ss: Talented.

In addition to switching codes to explain the lexical items, the teacher frequently switched from English to Mandarin to explain a particular grammatical concept when she considered it important to do so.

Excerpt 19 (II-9-16, lines 337- 355)

337 T: {Am. Is, are, am are BE verbs, right? OK, now, yesterday, play, played,
338 playED. We put -ed. So, she played the piano yesterday. So, we put ED or
339 irregular verbs. 過去式有兩種動詞,一種是規則的, 加ed的, right? (guo
340 ciyu shih you liang jhong dong cih, yi jhong shih jia ed de, right?) <There
341 are two types of verbs for past tense, one is regular, use -ed.>. 另外一種, 就
342 是不規則變化動詞 (ling wai yi jhong, jiou shih bu guei ze bian hua dong
343 cih) <The other one is irregular.> (??) 假如是 play的過去式動詞, 就是
344 played, 對不對, 早早就有講。 (jia ru shih play de guo ciyu shih dong cih,
345 jiou shih played, duei bu duei, zao zao jiou you jiang) <The past tense of
346 play would be played, right, which has already been mentioned.> 再來 (zai
347 lai) <Next>, tomorrow, tomorrow.. playing.. playing ...tomorrow, 要怎麼用?
348 (yao ze me yong) <How do we use it?> BE going to do. 代表將要什麼什
349 麼 (dai biao jiang yao shih me shih me) <It means something is going to
350 happen>, right? So, “Kelly.. is..going.. to.. play.. the piano .. tomorrow.” ...
351 OK 沒問題 (mei wen ti) <No problem> OK, now, 來, (lai) <OK> page
352 one, 你們告訴我 (ni me gao su wuo) <You guys tell me>, 來 (lai) <Come
353 on>, Mark, “Mark likes to play basketball”, right? OK, so how about

- 354 every day? Mark likes to do what?
355 Ss: “Mark likes to play basketball every day.”

In Excerpt 19, line 339, Mandarin is used to clarify particular English sentences related to two types of past tense verbs, regular and irregular. The teacher gave the word ‘play’ as an example demonstrating its past tense, but she did not discuss irregular verbs further. In the same excerpt, line 344, the teacher said ‘對不對，早早就有講 (**dueli bu duei, zao zao jiou you jiang**) < *which had already been mentioned*>’ to confirm that she had discussed that grammatical rule before. From line 346, the teacher began to introduce the future tense and used Mandarin, 再來 (**zai lai**) < *Next*>, to indicate that she will subsequently discuss further on that topic. Subsequently, she initiated dialogue by using the English lexical items ‘tomorrow’ and ‘playing’, and followed this with the Mandarin request, 要怎麼用? (**yao ze me yong**) < *How do we use it?*>. Interestingly, she did not wait for students’ responses; but instead elaborated the grammatical rule by using both English and Mandarin (line 348). Afterwards, she read a sentence from the textbook, presuming that students had understood that grammar section. In order to emphasize the verb ‘be’, the teacher accentuated that word in lines 334 and 348. The switch to Mandarin in line 348 seems to fulfil the teacher’s intention of ‘saving time’ (using a little Mandarin annotation instead of employing a lot of English) when teaching grammatical rules. This intention was later confirmed in the teacher interview. In line 352, the teacher employed Mandarin to ask students to respond to her questions by reading one sentence from the textbook, ‘Mark likes to play basketball’. Subsequently, the teacher initiated the question in English in an attempt to elicit English feedback from students. Students corresponded by reading a sentence from the textbook in unison to show their comprehension (line 355).

Another example of the use of code-switching to explain grammatical rule may be found in Excerpt 20. In line 166, the teacher asked students ‘What is the third person of the present simple?’ Without waiting for the students’ response, the teacher switched to Mandarin to explain the grammatical rule. Subsequently, she reverted back to English to continue the lesson and to request students to offer some boys’ names. When the students replied to the teacher in English, the teacher repeated the students’ answers and followed with the Mandarin term, 對 (**duei**) <Right>, to confirm that the students had answered correctly. It was found from the data that the teacher habitually used ‘對 (**duei**) <Right>’ instead of the English word ‘right’ to indicate the agreement with students’ correct responses.

Excerpt 20 (II-9-26, lines 165-183)

165 T: Like. Oh...HOW, how can you use LIKE? It’s already like, right? [Teacher
 166 writes on the board] What is the third person of the present simple? 第三人
 167 稱單數才用likes. (**di san ren cheng dan shu cai yong likes**) <Use
 168 *likes when it is the third person singular*> OK ! Likes. He OR She OR It.
 169 OK! Use likes, OK^? OK. But always adult doesn’t learn something, right?
 170 You can usually say like. OK. (??) So, he maybe you can say, give me boys’
 171 names, maybe Bill, Peter, maybe Michael? OK, Do you know any boys’
 172 names? Boys’ names. Give me some boys’ names.
 173 S: John.
 174 T: John, 對 (**duei**) <Right>. What else^?
 175 S: Tom.
 176 T: {Tom, 對 (**duei**) <Right>. What else^? Huh^?..
 177 Ss: Peter.
 178 T: Huh^? {Peter, 對 (**duei**) <Right>. OK! He say, OK, use HE, and have you
 179 to write, OK? Understand^? And SHE maybe girls’ names. Maybe Mary,
 180 Ann. What else^?
 181 S: Karen
 182 T: Huh? {Karen. What else^? Jasmine. 對對對 (**duei duei duei**) <Right, right,
 183 *right*> She is for likes, Jasmine. OK, what else^?

In one lesson, the teacher introduced the grammatical rule concerning comparatives. During the discussion, the teacher code switched between English and Mandarin to unlock the grammatical meanings.

Excerpt 21 (II-12-19, lines 44-65)

44 T: {"Ann is better than Mary." Great. So, we can say dadada. OK. [Teacher is
45 writing 'Ann is better than Mary' on the board.] So. Comparative. 比較級
46 哦! (bi jiao ji oh) <Comparative> 好, (hao) <OK> 那我們就看形容詞有
47 幾個規則啊, (na wuo men jiou kan cing ruong cih you ji ge guei zeh ah)
48 <Let's see how many rules do adjectives have?> 形容詞再比較。(sing rong
49 cih zai bi jiao) <Adjective is for comparison.> 爲什麼有時候它上面會都加
50 一個 t? (wuei she me you shih hou ta shang mian huei dou jia yi ge t)
51 <Why would t appear at the ending of adjectives?> Why is double t? 爲什
52 麼兩個 t 啊? (wuei she me liang ge t ah) <Why are there two ts?> 啊, (ah)
53 <Ah> 這個又不用, (jhe ge you bu yong) <This is not needed.> why? 來,
54 (lai) <OK> 再告訴你, (zai gao su ni) <I'll tell you> the rules. 來, (lai)
55 <OK> Number one. 第一個 (di yi ge) <The first> rule. 正常都是 blablabla
56 加 er 對不對? (jheng chang dou shih blablabla jia er duei bu duei)
57 <Normally adjectives are words with er, right?> 單音節的, (dan yin jie de)
58 <One syllable> 加 er, (jia) <add> one syllable. [Teacher is writing '單音節
59 er, 字尾 e + r, 短母音, 重複字尾加 er' on the board.] 你們知道什麼是
60 syllable 嗎? (ni men jhih dao she me shih syllable ma) <Do you know what
61 syllable is?> 你知道怎麼分音節, (ne men jhih dao zen me fen yin jie) <Do
62 you know how to divide the syllables?> 音節知道怎麼分? (yin jie jhih dao
63 zen me fen) <Do you know how to divide syllables?> 知不知道啊? (jhih bu
64 jhih dao ah) <Do you know it or not?> Yes or no?
65 Ss: Yes.

In Excerpt 21 above, after reading out a sentence from the textbook (line 44), the teacher initiated the term 'comparative' (lines 45) and then switched to Mandarin to introduce the comparative grammatical rule. She also wrote the Mandarin explanation on the board to aid the students' comprehension (lines 58-9). After giving a long explanation in Mandarin, the teacher then asked students whether they

could differentiate the syllables or not. Having queried in Mandarin (lines 61-2), the teacher then asked students to reply with ‘yes or no’ to confirm that they understood her query. All of the students responded ‘yes’ (line 65). The teacher then gave further instructions in Mandarin on how to differentiate between consonants and vowels.

On occasion when the teacher guided the students to read sentences aloud from the textbook. She replaced the key word in a sentence so that students could practise a particular grammatical function. An example is provided in Excerpt 22.

Excerpt 22 (II-01-09, lines 767-74)

767 T: {有 hoh[^]. (you) <Yes> 所以啦, (suo yi la) <So> 我當 A, 你們當 B hoh.
768 (wuo dang A ni men dang B) <I am A, you are B.> 我說, (wuo shuo) <I
769 say> “I think Linda is very nice.” 你要說, (ni yao shuo) <You have to say>
770 “I agree. She is the nicest girl in the neighbourhood.” 那我會換 (na wuo
771 huei huan) <Then I will change> I will change the adjective, 我會換那個形
772 容詞, (wuo huei huan na ge sing rong ci) <I will change the adjectives.
773 這樣可以 hoh? (jhe yang ke yi) <Is it OK?> .. “I think Linda is very polite.”
774 Ss: “I agree. She is the polite ~.”

The teacher switched between Mandarin and English to instruct students on how to take part in conversation with her. In line 767, the teacher assigned roles to students in Mandarin. The teacher told students that when she said ‘I think Linda is very nice’, they must reply ‘I agree. She is the nicest girl in the neighbourhood.’ The teacher then switched to Mandarin to illustrate that she would change the adjective and rephrased that command in English, and repeated it in Mandarin (lines 770 to 772). After she gave confirmation in Mandarin, 這樣可以 hoh? (jhe yang ke yi) <Is it OK?>, the teacher started to initiate the first conversation and students replied by following the teacher’s instructions.

Having discussed switching codes to explain linguistic forms, the next section

will look at how the teacher used code-switching to unlock the meaning of cultural issues in the textbook.

7.2.4 Code-switching to Explain Cultural Content

As stated in Chapter 5, the textbooks used for Freshman English classes in this university were monolingual English textbooks that had been imported from an English-speaking country. These books are written with the aim of teaching those who are interested in learning American English. Any American or other cultural issues are introduced in each chapter of the textbooks as part of literacy learning. It is found from that data that when students encountered cultural issues, the teacher always switched to Mandarin to supplement the text and aid the students' understanding. The first example is provided in Excerpt 23.

Excerpt 23 (II-10-31, lines 853-72)

- 853 T: Today is an American Holiday. Do you know what day is today?
854 HallowEEN, HallowEEN. So, do you know Halloween? What's Halloween?
855 [Teacher writes 'Halloween' on the board.] OK, so, Halloween. Do you know
856 any activity in HallowEEN? 有沒有知道是有關萬聖節的活動? (**you mei**
857 **you jhih dao shih you guan wuan sheng jie de huo dong**) <Anyone knows
858 some activities of Halloween?> 都沒有? (**dou mei you**) <No-one?> 有沒
859 有小朋友知道去哪裡? (**you mei you siao peng you jhih dao ciyu na li**
860 **de**) <Where do children go on that day?>
861 Ss: 要糖 (**yao tang**) <ask for candies>.
862 T: Right. 去要 money or candy. (**ciyu yao money or candy**) <Asking for
863 money or candy.> 這個叫 (**jhe ge jiao**) <This is called> trick-or-treat.
864 [Teacher writes 'trick-or-treat' on the board.] 來, (**lai**) <OK> Please read.
865 Trick-or-treat.
866 Ss: {Trick-or-treat.
867 T: Trick-or-treat.
868 Ss: {Trick-or-treat.

869 T: 不給糖就搗蛋, (**bu gei tang jiou dao dan**) <*Trick-or-treat*> 這是
 870 Halloween 的活動, (**jhe shih Halloween de huo dong**) <*This is one of the*
 871 *activities on Halloween*> 不給糖就搗蛋。(**bu gei tang jiou dao dan**)
 872 <*Trick-or-treat*>

Cultural events, such as Halloween and Christmas, are popular topics that most teachers would introduce to English language learners, especially when the holidays are approaching. Excerpt 23, for example, shows how the teacher tried to associate Halloween as a topic with the language skills that students should be taught in one of the lessons. From line 853, after repeating the word ‘Halloween’ four times, the teacher then wrote the word ‘Halloween’ on the board and queried whether students had understood the meaning of the word. Having no response from the students, the teacher then switched to Mandarin and asked ‘有沒有知道是有關萬聖節的活動?’ (**you mei you jhih dao shih you guan wuan sheng jie de huo dong**) <*Anyone knows some activities of Halloween?*> Having difficulty obtaining any responses, the teacher articulated in Mandarin in an attempt to elicit replies from the students by saying in Mandarin in lines 858-9. Students then replied ‘要糖 (**yao tang**) <*ask for candies*>’ in line 861. The teacher subsequently evaluated ‘Right. 去要 money or candy (**ciyu yao money or candy**) <*Asking for money or candy*>.’ It is interesting to notice that nowadays the English words ‘money’ and ‘candy’ are frequently used in people’s daily conversation in Taiwan.

In the same excerpt, after repeating ‘trick-or-treat’ twice, the teacher then gave a Mandarin translation, ‘不給糖就搗蛋, (**bu gei tang jiou dao dan**) <*Trick-or-treat*>’, and emphasized that it is a Halloween activity. For explaining the meaning of ‘Halloween’, the teacher used a lot of Mandarin to explain what Americans do on that day and what kind of food and activities people normally participate in. As an English teacher myself, and through discussion with other English teachers, we all

think that it is better to supply the English terms (such as Halloween, trick-or-treat and Christmas) in classrooms when discussing cultural issues.

Another example related to cultural issues that can be found in the transcripts is the introduction of the American currency. When discussing the American dollar, the teacher switched to Mandarin to talk around the concept. An example is provided in Excerpt 24.

Excerpt 24 (II-10-31, lines 436-445)

436 T: Two dollars and seventy-five cents. .. OK, two dollars and seventy-five
437 cents. 你們只要在上面寫這樣，(ni men jhih yao zai shang mian sie jhe
438 yiang) <If you write like this> 這樣就代表二點七五元。(jhe yiang jiou dai
439 biao er dian ci wu yuan) <Then, it means \$2.75.> OK. 懂不懂意思?(dong
440 bu dong yi sih) <OK, you got it?> OK, that's for this one. OK. OK^ 除非我
441 說 seventy-five cents 就是這樣，(chu fei wuo shuo seventy-five cents jiou
442 shih jhe yiang) <Unless I said 75 cents and that is it.> OK^ 來 (lai)
443 <Come on> , next one. 下一個，(di san ge) <Next one> 輪過就從頭輪。
444 (luen guo jiou cueng tou luen) <Start from the first one if you have finished
445 a round.>

To ensure that students had understood how to express American dollars in English as the teacher had explained and written on the board, the teacher asked students to take turns to write down the amounts of the money that she had mentioned on the blackboard. To make the message much clearer for the students, the teacher switched to Mandarin (lines 437-9) to give further explanation. Judging from what the students had written on the board, it seemed to be problematic for them to understand American currency and numbers in English. The currency systems used in Taiwan and America is completely different. The smallest unit of Taiwanese currency is a dollar, but for American currency, the smallest unit is a cent, and the students often became confused.

Another example regarding the introduction of American cultural issues was the teaching of the term ‘mall’ in one lesson. In order to make students understand the concept of ‘a mall’, the teacher had to name a shopping arcade in Taiwan to aid the students’ comprehension. The example is in Excerpt 25.

Excerpt 25 (II-9-26, lines 236-258)

236 T: “He likes to go to the mall.”

237 Ss: “He likes to go to the mall.”

238 T: So what does mall mean?.. MALL? What’s mall? Mall! M-A-L-L What

239 does mall mean? ..What does mall mean? ..The mall is an area of boutique

240 and you can walk around layers and walk around shops. You can walk around

241 shop. Do you know the Chinese of the mall? What does mall mean in

242 Chinese?

243 Ss: [Students look puzzled.]

244 T: You [The teacher is pointing at one student.] Look at picture one. Yeah!

245 What does mall mean in Chinese?

246 Ss: [No responses.]

247 T: Do you know? If you don’t know, then it is the one that I know! 遠企購物

248 中心 (**yuan chi guo wu jhong sin**) <Far Eastern Shopping Centre.> OK.

249 MALL. Do you know any mall^ in Taiwan? Do you, Do you know any mall^

250 in Taiwan?

251 Ss: [No responses.]

252 T: In Taipei. They have the 遠企購物中心 (**yuan chi guo wu jhong sin**) <Far

253 Eastern Shopping Centre> right^. You can shop. You can go shopping

254 in the mall. There are lots of shops ok? And you can buy lots of things. Ok?

255 Understand? 懂嗎^? (**dong ma^**) <Understand> ... 再來 (**zai lai**)

256 <Then> Picture One. I am A; you are B. OK. “What do Mr. and Mrs.

257 Johnson want to do on the weekend?” Picture 1. “What do Mr. and Mrs.

258 Johnson want to do on the weekend?”

In Excerpt 25, having guided choral practice, the teacher asked the students ‘what does mall mean?’ After four attempts, she failed to obtain any response from the students, and so explained in English ‘the mall is an area of many boutiques and

you can walk around the layers and walk around shops.’ Unable to obtain any feedback from students again, the teacher then asked ‘what does mall mean in Chinese.’ In a frustrated attempt to make students understand the meaning of ‘mall’, the teacher employed the equivalent Mandarin, 購物中心 (**gou wu jhong sin**) <Mall> (in line 247), to translate the term and to extend the textbook content by offering the name of a mall in Taiwan. Without gaining any responses from students again, the teacher offered one example in Mandarin in line 252, for clarification and followed up by English elaboration that ‘you can shop, you can go shopping in the mall.’ The teacher then initiated with ‘再來 (**zai lai**) <Then>’ (line 255) and reverted to English to continue the lesson.

In one particular lesson, the teacher spent a great amount of time introducing the word ‘Senator’. Due to the difference in Taiwanese and American governmental systems, the teacher had to use a lot of Mandarin to talk around that topic. The example is provided in Excerpt 26 below.

Excerpt 26 (II-01-09, lines 374-422)

374 T: 來, (**lai**) <OK> Number ten. S-E-N-A-T-O-R, underline. Underline. ...
 375 SENATOR, 來 (**lai**) <OK> SENATOR, underline. Underline 就叫你劃線。
 376 (**jiou jiao ni hua sian**) <It means underline.> {Teacher’s laughter.} Senator
 377 要劃線哦, (**yao hua sian oh**) <Underline it> 快點。(**kuai dian**) <Hurry>
 378 OK, Senator, it means a member of Senate. Senate 就是參議院。(**Senate jiou**
 379 **shih can yi yuan**) <It means Senate.> 參議院。(**can yi yuan**) <Senate> In
 380 the United States, .. Australia, Canada, 他們有, (**ta men you**) <They have>
 381 they have 參議院, (**can yi yuan**) <Senate> 有沒有? (**you mei you**)
 382 <Right?> SENATE 有沒有? (**you mei you**) <Right?> 我們叫參議院
 383 吧? ! (**wuo men jiao can yi yuan ba**) <We call it senate right?> .. 你們知
 384 道那個參議院吧? (**ni men jiah dao na ge can yi yuan ba**) <Do you know
 385 the senate?> 美國的國會那個參議院有沒有? (**mei guo de guo hui na ge**
 386 **can yi yuan you mei you**) <The Senate in the U.S Congress, right?> 那個,
 387 (**na ge**) <That> 這個 (**jhe ge**) <This> SENATOR 就是參議員 (**jiou shih**

388 **can yi yuan**) <That's Senator.> ...會寫 hoh? (**huei sie**) <Can you write it?>
 389 Eh 有點反應啦! (**you dian fan ying la**) <Say something> 會不會寫?
 390 (**huei bu huei sie**) <Can you write it?>

[==]

414 T: Have you seen the movie, 有沒有常看電影啊? (**you mei you chang kan**
 415 **dian ying ah**) <Do you see the movies often?> 如果那個片有關那個什麼，
 416 (**ru guo na ge pian you guan na ge she me**) <If the movie has something
 417 about that> 像，(**siang**) <Like> 那個什麼...政治的，(**na ge she me zheng**
 418 **jhih de**) <Like politics> 這種院會的啊，(**jhe jhong yuan huei de ah**)
 419 <The congress> 都可以常看到，(**dou ke yi chang kan dao**) <You can see
 420 that very often.> 那個參議員怎麼樣怎麼樣，(**na ge can yi yuan zen me**
 421 **yang zen me yang**) <The senator blablabla> Senator. .. 這字很常用，
 422 (**jhe zih hen chang yong**) <This word is used very frequently.>

To introduce the word and concept 'Senator', the teacher offered prolonged contextual information on the term. After uttering 'Senator' three times, the teacher then asked students both in English and Mandarin to underline the word (line 375). In line 378, the teacher gave an English sentence to explain the meaning of Senator. Subsequently from lines 379 to 388, the teacher used Mandarin to broaden the topic and to confirm that the students had understood the concept of the American Senate. In lines 391 to 413, the teacher then extended the topic and introduced the pronunciation and grammatical rules related to the word 'Senator'. After extensive elaboration, the teacher asked again in line 414 'have you seen the movie, 有沒有常看電影啊? (**you mei you chang kan dian ying ah**) <Do you see the movies often>' and followed this in Mandarin to point out that the word 'Senator' often appears in American political films. As the teacher stated later in the interview, when giving extra textbook-related information or when encountering cultural issues, the use of Mandarin is necessary and useful in order to make the lesson easier for students to comprehend.

In addition to using more than one language to talk around the monolingual

English textbook, the teacher consistently wrote the English key words, phrases or sentences on the board and sometimes supplied Mandarin scripts. Two examples are provided in Excerpts 27 and 28.

Excerpt 27 (II-11-28, lines 74-8)

- 74 T: 來，記起來。(lai, ji ci lai) <OK, write it down.> Commercial time. [The
75 teacher writes ‘commercial time 商業廣告’ on the board.] 電影上有講，
76 (dian yin shang you jiang) <It appeared in the movie.> 來，記起來。(lai, ji
77 ci lai) <OK, write it down.> Commercial time.
78 Ss: Commercial time.

In this classroom, the teacher often wrote the key words, phrases, or sentences both in English and Mandarin on the board for students to copy into their textbooks. In Excerpt 27, the teacher asked the students in Mandarin ‘來，記起來。(lai, ji ci lai) <OK, write it down.>’ to write the phrase ‘commercial time 商業廣告’ in their textbooks (line 75).

Excerpt 28 (II-01-09, lines 237-43)

- 237 T: So, nephew, what is NEPHEW? .. NEPHEW is your brother or your sister’s
238 SON. Your brother or your sister’s son. So, what does NEPHEW mean?
239 Ss: 姪子 (jihih zih) <Brother’s son.>
240 T: Yes. 姪子或者是外甥 (jihih zih huo jhe shih wuai sheng) <Is it your
241 brother’s son, or your brother-in-law’s son?> .. Did you write it down? 把它
242 寫下來。(ba ta sie sia lai) <Write it down> Did you write it down? 趕快寫。
243 (gan kuai sie) <Quickly write it down.>

In Excerpt 28, after having explained the meaning of ‘nephew’ in English, the teacher then asked ‘what does nephew mean’ in English. Students replied in Mandarin, 姪子 (jihih zih) <Brother’s son>. The teacher confirmed in English ‘yes’ and queried in Mandarin, 姪子或者是外甥 (jihih zih huo jhe shih wuai sheng) <Is

it your brother's son, or your brother-in-law's son?>. Having waited for a few seconds without gaining any responses from students, the teacher then asked whether they had written down the Mandarin meaning in the textbook or not and asked them to write it down (lines 241-3). The teacher not only used Mandarin orally but also in the written form.

In the next section, I will examine other uses of code-switching in lessons.

7.3 OTHER USES OF CODE-SWITCHING IN LESSONS

Having attended several TEOSL conferences in the past, I find that teachers believe that language classrooms should be multifunctional (not only teaching language skills, but also cultural issues) and colourful (not merely focusing the teaching and learning on the textbook, but making practical use of the language). In this classroom, it seemed that in addition to talk around the textbook, there were certain activities in every lesson: the teachers gave instructions and managed their classes. Particularly, the teacher would request students to participate in pair or group conversational practice or discussion in order to reinforce the language skills they had just learnt. Languages play different functions in these activities. In the following sub-sections, code-switching for classroom management and solidarity in the classroom will be discussed.

7.3.1 Code-Switching for Classroom Management

The data reveals that when managing classrooms and giving instructions, the teacher often switched to Mandarin to inform students about how to follow the lesson.

For example, in Excerpt 29 the teacher switched to Mandarin to make a textbook signal.

Excerpt 29 (II-01-09, lines 761-6)

761 T: Great. OK. So, I say, “Linda is very nice”. And you must say, “I agree. She is
762 the nicest girl in the neighbourhood”. 來, (lai) <OK> turn to page 53. 五十
763 三頁的 Q&A, (wu shih san yie de Q & A) <The Q&A on page 53.> 有沒有
764 看到? (you mei you kan dao) <Do you see that?> Q&A, 有沒有看到那一
765 大題? (you mei you kan dao na yi da ti) <Do you see that part?>
766 Ss: 有。 (you) <Yes>

In Excerpt 29, when discussing the ‘question and answer’ section from a reading section of the textbook, the teacher employed both English and Mandarin to signal the page number (line 762). Mandarin was also used by the teacher to confirm that the students had followed her instructions (lines 763-5). Students then replied, 有。 (you) <Yes>.

In one instance, the teacher mimed to demonstrate how to pronounce the various syllables of lexical items. An example is presented in Excerpt 30.

Excerpt 30 (II-12-19, lines 192-210)

192 T: 來, (lai) <OK> interesting, how many syllables? 有幾個母音? (you ji ge
193 mu yin) <How many vowels?> IN-TER, IN-TER, IN-TERESTING, huh^?
194 來, 嘴巴動幾下? (lai zuei ba dong ji sia) <OK, how many times did you
195 move your mouth?>
196 Ss: 三下。 (san sia) <Three times>
197 T: 真的嗎? (jhen de ma) <Really?> 摸一下來, (muo yi sia lai) <Touch it
198 again.> 唸一次來。 (nian yi cih lai) <Say it.> IN-TERES-TING. 幾下? (ji
199 sia) <How many times?>
200 Ss: [no response]
201 T: How many syllables 幾下? (ji sia) <How many times?> 這很確定的啊,
202 (jhe hen ciuei ding de ah) <It is so definite.> 有這麼奇怪嗎? (you jhe me

203 **ci guai ma**) <Is it so strange?> 來。(lai) <Come on.>
 204 Ss: IN-TERE-STING.
 205 T: {IN-TERE-STING. [Teacher says it slowly.] 嘴巴動幾下? (**zuei ba dong ji**
 206 **sia**) <How many times did you move your mouth?>
 207 Ss: 三下。(san sia) <Three times>.
 208 T: {Three. OK, 有幾個音節? (**you ji ge yin jie**) <How many syllables?> How
 209 many syllables?
 210 Ss: Three.

In the excerpt above, in addition to introducing the word ‘interesting’, the teacher explained how to differentiate syllables by using mouth movements as a facilitating tool. In line 194, the teacher used Mandarin to ask how many times students moved their mouths when pronouncing the word ‘interesting’. Students replied in Mandarin, 三下。(san sia) <Three times>. The teacher then queried in Mandarin. The phrase ‘摸一下來 (**muo yi sia lai**) <Touch it again>’ (line 197) indicated that the teacher requested students to place their hands beneath their mouths when they articulated the word. Depending on how many times the mouth moved, students would be able to identify how many syllables a particular word has.

Whilst engaging in a group activity (an extended language skill practice task from the textbook), the teacher switched to Mandarin to give instructions. An example is provided in Excerpt 31.

Excerpt 31 (II-10-31, lines 786-95)

786 T: {Yes. Now, we will have groups. 跟你的桌子併在一起, (**gen ni de jhuo**
 787 **zih bin zai yi ci**) <Put your desks together.> 跟你的桌子. (**gen ni de zuo**
 788 **zih**) <Move your desks.> 要做配合的遊戲 (**yao zuo pei he de you si**)
 789 <We’re going to do a matching game.>
 790 Ss: [Students move their desks.]
 791 T: Six people a group, 六個人一組, (**liou ge ren yi zu**) <Form a group of six.>
 792 對不對? (**duei bu duei**) <Right?> 要六個哦! (**yao liou ge oh**) <Must be
 793 six>. Six people a group, 來每一組派一個同學出來拿這個。(lai mei yi zu

794 **pai yi ge tong siue chu lai na jhe ge)** <Assigning one of your group
795 *members to get this*>.

The teacher initiated in English with ‘we will have groups’ then switched to Mandarin, 跟你的桌子併在一起, (**gen ni de jhuo zih bin zai yi ci**) <Put your desks together.> 跟你的桌子. (**gen ni de zuo zih**) <Move your desks.>, to follow this up by asking the students to move and arrange the desks. The teacher switched between English and Mandarin to give instructions, such as 六個人一組, (**liou ge ren yi zu**) <Six people a group>.

When the activity or task required physical movement, Mandarin was always employed. In Excerpt 32, after confirming that students understood the lesson aims, the teacher switched to Mandarin in line 414 to assign a task by appointing representative students from each row to come to the front of the classroom and participate in the conversational practice.

Excerpt 32 (II-10-31, lines 414-20)

414 T: Very good. OK. So, any questions for you^? No, no. OK. 來 (**lai**) <Come
415 *on*>, 你們每一排的第一個人來 (**ni men mei yi pai de di yi ge ren lai**)
416 <Each person in the first row please come out>, 出來 (**chu lai**) <Come
417 *on*>。來 (**lai**) <Come on>, 每一組不是有分組嗎? (**mei yi zu bu shih you**
418 **fen zu ma**) <Do you have your own groups?> 每一組的第一個同學。 (**mei**
419 **yi zu de di yi ge tong syue**) <The first person in each group.>... Hurry,
420 hurry, go, go, go. I will say how much and you write down on the board.

For important matters such as examinations or assignments, the teacher would always switch to Mandarin to deliver her message. An example is provided below.

Excerpt 33 (II-10-31, lines 1165-76)

1165 T: No more right? And give it to me. Thank you.... For mid-term, we will
 1166 have a mid-term test. 我們要考一到三課哦，(wuo men yao kao yi dao
 1167 san ke o) <I'll give you a test from Lesson 1 to Lesson 3.> 知道嗎？
 1168 (jhih dao ma) <Understand?> 第三課生字有的還不是很熟，(di san ke
 1169 shen zih you de hai bu shih hen sou) <Some of you are not very familiar
 1170 with the vocabulary on lesson three.> 我們下次再考。(wuo men sia cih
 1171 zai kao) <I'll give you a test next time.> 那 workbook 下一次一起檢
 1172 討，檢討一到三，(na workbook sia yi chi yi chi jian tao, jian tao yi dao
 1173 san) <I'll discuss the workbook also next time. Check the answers from
 1174 Lessons 1 to 3.> 所以你們要做一下 workbook (suo yi ni men yao zuo
 1175 yi sia workbook) <So you got to do the workbook.> 就一到三啦。(jiou yi
 1176 dao san la) <Only 1 to 3>.

In Excerpt 33, the teacher began in English to announce the coming mid-term examination and switched to Mandarin in line 1166 to emphasise the lessons would be included in the test. When the 'workbook' was mentioned, the teacher merely inserted the English term instead of the Mandarin (see line 1171). The term 'workbook' is used extensively not only in schools but also in private language centres, as I have heard people using it in many different school and language centres.

There is some evidence to suggest that students preferred using Mandarin to confirm the task given by the teacher. For example in Excerpt 34, during one of the group activities (placing the slips of the Halloween story into correct order), one student did not understand some of the messages on the slips. Thus he used Mandarin to ask the teacher '這個是什麼？(jhe ge shih she me) <What's this?>' (line 1043). In order to meet the pedagogical goal (which is using English, the legitimate classroom language, to teach English), the teacher responded to the student's query in English (line 1044). The student subsequently asked several questions in Mandarin but the teacher responded only in English.

Excerpt 34(II-10-31, lines 1033-54)

- 1033 T: 這是安全事項, (jhe shih an ciuan shih sian) <This is a safety
 1034 announcement> don't go, 什麼什麼的? (she me she me de)
 1035 <blablabla> Are you sure? ... Take out the stick. 怎麼會先放蠟燭再
 1036 (zen me huei sian fang la zu zai) <Why are you putting the candle first?>
 1037 take out the stick? 怎麼會~ (zen me huei) <Why is~> 這樣順序排錯
 1038 了。 (jhe yang shuen shu pai cuo le) <This is the wrong order> 借我過。
 1039 (jie wuo guo) <Excuse me, let me pass> OK, for this order. 要不要
 1040 弄了哦 (bu yao bu yao nong le oh) <Don't mess them up>... 這個準備
 1041 動作要在前面 (jhe ge zun bei dong zuo yao zai cian mian) <This goes
 1042 first, before that one> ...
 1043 S: 這個是什麼? (jhe ge shih she me) <What's this?>
 1044 T: Yeah. Cut a LARGE HOLE. Which one goes first? ... Yes, great. Bingo.
 1045 S: 這張嗎? (jhe jhang ma)? <Is it this one?>
 1046 T: You got it. OK. Just put it. Don't move. Yeah. ...
 1047 Yeah, good, no no problem.
 1048 S: 這個確定嗎? (jhe ge cuei ding ma) <Are you sure about this one?>
 1049 T: Great.
 1050 S: 這個好像不是。 (jhe ge hao siang bu shih) <Not this one.>
 1051 T: No.
 1052 S: 那這個呢? (na jhe ge ne) <How about this?>
 1053 T: Get down your knees. And your hands... And now you need a towel^,
 1054 OK, that's right. Don't move, don't move. Put here... OK?

The excerpt above seems to suggest that in order to make the language simpler and easier for the student to understand, the teacher replied in short sentences or with one-word answers.

In comparison to the use of Mandarin in the classroom, the use of Taiwanese is scarce. There was only one occasion in which a single Taiwanese word was uttered in reciprocal communication between the teacher and students, as shown in Excerpt 35.

Excerpt 35 (II-01-09, lines 619-21)

- 619 T: 不用啦, (bu yong la) <Not necessary> 你這邊橋 (ciao) 一下, (ni jhe
 620 bian ciao yi sia) <You here, move> 你就跟他啊。 (ni jiou gen ta ah) <You
 621 sit with him.>

During conversation practice in pairs, two students had a problem with the seating arrangement and the teacher tried to help them by suggesting an alternative arrangement of the tables. After an ongoing negotiation between the teacher and the two students, the teacher said a Taiwanese word, 橋 (**ciao**) <move> (line 619).

In matters regarding classroom management, the teacher would often switch to Mandarin to negotiate with students or to regulate the students' behaviour. For example, in Excerpt 36, the teacher had forgotten the students' break time and would like to finish the activity she was conducting. At this point, she employed Mandarin, in lines 693, 695 and 696, to tell the students that break time will be late. Interestingly, in line 698, the teacher said '好，忍耐一下。(hao, ren nai yi sia) <Please bear with me.>' to ask the students to be patient for the over-running lecture. The words '忍耐一下 (ren nai yi sia)' connoted a desire for listeners to be understanding and patient.

Excerpt 36 (II-10-31, lines 693-99)

693 T:下課了，(**sia ke le**) <Recess time> 我忘記了。(wuo wuang ji le) <I
694 Forgot.>... OK, who wants to volunteer? VOULUNTEER? I know it's time.
695 It's over, right^? 下課時間過了嘛，(**sia ke shih jian guo le ma**) <Break time
696 is over.> 對不對? (**duei bu duei**) <Right?> 十一點五十分我們再下課好
697 不好? (**shih yi dian wu shih fen wuo men zai sia ke hao bu hao**) <Let's
698 take a break at 11:50, OK?> 好，忍耐一下。(hao, ren nai yi sia) <Please
699 bear with me.>

The excerpt above indicates that the teacher tended to use Mandarin for time management in the classroom. In addition to time management, discipline is another important matter in the classroom. In the following example the teacher used English for classroom management (Excerpt 37).

Excerpt 37 (II-12-19, line 656-9)

- 656 T: Racket.
657 S14: Racket.
658 S15: 老師 (**lao shih**) <Teacher> (??)
659 T: Speak English.

On one occasion when students were supposed to be practicing English in pair, some were chatting in Mandarin and Taiwanese. When the teacher approached them, one of the students in the chatting group (Student 15) spoke in Mandarin to ask the teacher a question. Instead of responding to the student's query, the teacher instructed Student 15 to 'speak English'. Student 15 and the students with whom he was chatting then stopped talking in Mandarin and Taiwanese and switched to English for conversational practice.

On occasion the teacher lost patience with students, and she switched to Mandarin and spoke a high-pitched, loud voice to reiterate the English sentence and show her authority. The following excerpts show some examples.

Excerpt 38 (II-9-26, lines 561-570)

- 561 T: Wake up, wake up! [The teacher is waking up a student who is sleeping in
562 class.] Okay^, today your assignment, your homework is to look up the
563 dictionary and find the meaning. And remember all the B- words, become,
564 became, and Chinese meaning, you have to look up your dictionary.
565 Understand what I say? Please translate in Chinese. 翻譯成中文，我剛才說
566 什麼？ (**fan yi cheng jhong wen, wuo gang cai shuo shih me**) <What did I
567 just say? Translate it into Chinese.>
568 [The teacher is asking a particular student.]
569 S: 回去查字典，查中文意思 (**huei ciyu cha zih dian, cha jhong wen yi sih**)
570 <Go back and look in the dictionary for the Chinese meanings.>

In Excerpt 38 line 565, the teacher requested the student who was sleeping in

the class to translate her previous English statement into Chinese (As stated in Chapter 1, ‘Chinese’ in this context refers to Mandarin) and then said in a high-pitched, loud voice in Mandarin, 翻譯成中文，我剛才說什麼? (**fan yi cheng jhong wen, wuo gang cai shuo shih me**) <What did I just say? Translate it into Chinese.>. The student then replied in a low voice tone in Mandarin, 回去查字典，查中文意思 (**huei ciyu cha zih dian, cha jhong wen yi sih**) <Go back and look in the dictionary for the Chinese meanings>.

Another example is found in Excerpt 39. After some teacher-guided drill exercises on lexical items, students’ voices began to fade out in choral practice. The teacher uttered in Mandarin, 來 (lai) <Come on>, to encourage responses from the students. The Mandarin term, 來 (lai) <Come on>, has many different meanings, such as ‘next’, ‘come on’, and ‘alright’. In line 785, the teacher employed Mandarin to warn students that she was not satisfied with their performance. The Mandarin sentence ‘全部只有這一排聽得見 (**ciyuan bu jhih you jhe yi pai tian de jian**) <I can only hear this row speaking.>’ is a very common sentence for teachers to use when they are not satisfied with the students’ choral performance in Taiwanese classrooms. In line 796, the teacher used Mandarin to reprimand the students by pointing out that her voice was even louder than all of theirs combined. Subsequently, the teacher switched to English to continue the choral practice and used the word ‘louder’ to coerce the students into giving a better performance.

Excerpt 39 (II-9-26, lines 783-802)

783 T: Fourth.

784 Ss: Fourth.

785 T: 全部只有這一排聽得見 (**ciyuan bu jhih you jhe yi pai tian de jian**) <I

786 *can only hear this row speaking.*> 來 (lai) <Come on> fourth.

787 Ss: Fourth.

[==]

794 T: Tenth.

795 Ss: Tenth.

796 T: Eleventh. 我聲音都比你們大聲 (wuo sheng yin dou bi ni men da sheng)

797 <My voice is even louder than yours.> 你們幾個人啊？(ni men jig ge ren

798 ah) <How many of you are here?> 來 (lai) <Come on> , louder...

799 Thirteenth. Louder, thirteenth.

800 Ss: {Thirteenth.

801 T: Louder, thirteenth.

802 Ss: Thirteenth.

In one lesson, in which the days of the week were introduced, the teacher repeated 'louder' several times during the drill exercise. In Excerpt 40, line 31, the teacher switched to Mandarin to prompt choral responses from the students. As was confirmed later, the teacher's switch indicated that she felt a little irritated that not many students had participated in the oral drill exercise. She therefore used Mandarin to command the students' attention and participation.

Excerpt 40 (II-9-26, lines 17- 48)

17 T: Wednesday.

18 Ss: Wednesday.

19 T: Thursday.

20 Ss: Thursday.

21 T: Thursday^. Louder.

[==]

28 T: OK, this row, repeat Sunday.

29 Ss: Sunday.

30 T: Louder.

31 T: Sunday 再來是什麼？(zihai lai shih she me) <What's next?>

32 T: Monday.

33 Ss: Monday.

[==]

38 T: Thursday^.

39 S: Thursday.

40 T: Thursday Louder.

[==]

45 T: OK Saturday, Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday,
46 SATURDAY. Sunday, [Students repeat after the teacher in a unenthusiastic
47 voice tone.] Are you sleepy? OK! Now twelve months right. Ok! Do you
48 know twelve months? So what month is it?

In the excerpt above, line 47 seems to suggest that the teacher felt that students were not enthusiastic in their participation. She then said in English ‘are you sleepy’ to express her annoyance. The sentence ‘are you sleepy’ can be heard in Taiwanese classrooms if a teacher is annoyed when learners are reluctant to participate in lessons.

During one of the teacher-guided joint reading practices, the teacher swiftly switched to Mandarin, 進入狀況。(jin ru jhuang kuang) <Are you with me?>, to demand students that paid attention and engaged in the lesson (Excerpt 41).

Excerpt 41 (II-12-19, line 616)

616 T: Yeah, rug. Hey, 進入狀況。(jin ru jhuang kuang) <Are you with me?>

Another example, Excerpt 42, shows that the teacher used Mandarin to reprimand the students. Mandarin used in line 966 indicates that the teacher was dissatisfied with the reaction of the students, instructed to collect envelopes. The sentence ‘你們太不積極了(ni men tai bu ji ji le) <You guys are too passive.>’ is often used by Taiwanese teachers when they are dissatisfied with students’ performances in classrooms.

Excerpt 42 (II-10-31, lines 965-7)

965 T: Thank you...Give me your envelope. 趕快用啊，(gan kuai yong ah)
966 <Hurry Up.> 你們太不積極了(ni men tai bu ji ji le) <You guys are too

967 *passive.* > Hurry, hurry.

Excerpt 43 shows that when the teacher was involved in one of the question and answer activities, she employed both English and Mandarin to instruct the students in order to make the language easier and more entertaining to learn. For instance, in line 426 the teacher asked a question in English and followed it by asking ‘yes or no? 5,4,3,2,1’, then switched to Mandarin to add, 請作答趕快 (**cing zuo da gan kuai**) <*Hurry, answer it now*>. ‘Yes or no? 5,4,3,2,1’ is a typical quiz-like format used in several TV quiz shows. The teacher adopted this humorous and friendly approach in an attempt to elicit responses from students. However, in line 428, the teacher employed Mandarin, 後面是在幹嘛 (**hou mian shih zai gan ma**) <*What are you doing there?*>, to regulate the students’ behaviour and to maintain classroom management.

Excerpt 43 (II-9-26, lines 426-437)

426 T: Robert is cooking right now. Yes or no? 5, 4, 3, 2, 1. 請作答趕快 (**cing**
427 **zuo da gan kuai**) <*Hurry, answer it now*>, 快作答 (**kuai zuo da**) <*Answer*
428 *it now*>, 後面是在幹嘛 (**hou mian shih zai gan ma**) <*What are you doing*
429 *there*>? OK, SO, Jimmy and Peggy like to write. Jimmy and Peggy like to
430 write. That’s right. Johnson writes everyday. That’s right. OK, Johnson likes
431 to play basketball. Robert is playing the piano right now. Irene is playing the
432 piano right now. Jimmy is swimming right now. Jim, Jimmy is swimming
433 right now....請作答 (**cing zuo da**) <*please answer*>, yes or no?
434 Ss: Yes. [Students are trying to response to the teacher.]
435 T: Yes, yes... Jimmy and Peggy like to swim, right? OK, what time?
436 Ss: What about (??)?
437 T: OK. 休息一下 (**siu si yi sia**) <*Let’s take a break.*>

When students had queries about the textbook-related task or did not know to say certain words or sentences in English, they would turn to their teacher for help.

Interestingly, students often used Mandarin instead of English in such situations. In Taiwanese classrooms, students always address a teacher as ‘老師 (lao shih <teacher>’ before talking to them. In the excerpt below, students were engaging in a group activity. Group 1 finished theirs and then they called on the teacher in Mandarin indicate that they had completed the task as the students in group 2 had also done.

Excerpt 44 (II-10-31, lines 816-22)

- 816 Ss1: 老師好了。(lao shih hao le) <Teacher, we're finished.>
 817 T: OK^? [Teacher reads students' notes.]
 818 Ss2: 老師好了。(lao shih hao le) <Teacher, we're finished> 老師好了。(lao shih hao le) <Teacher, we're finished.>
 820 T: OK, great. Number one.
 821 Ss2: 這邊。(jhe bian) <Here>
 822 T: Number one is where?

After students had completed the task, they articulated in Mandarin, 老師好了。(lao shih hao le) <Teacher, we're finished>, to attract the teacher's attention. The phrase ‘老師好了’ is often used when students have completed any kind of task. The teacher complimented the students by saying ‘OK, great’. In line 821, Student Group 2 used Mandarin, 這邊。(jhe bian) <Here>, to signal their location.

7.3.2 Code-switching for Establishing Solidarity in the Classroom

Building solidarity in the classroom may break the boundary between the teacher and students, but it may also make teaching and learning easier for both parties. How such solidarity should be built depends on the way the teacher and students interact with each other through languages.

On one occasion, the teacher appointed a group of students to read aloud sentences from the textbook. The students could not read the sentences smoothly, and the teacher bantered with them in Mandarin (lines 653-56) suggesting that they were worried about not handing in their assignments. In Excerpt 45 line 657, Student 21 did not understand the teacher's message so she repeated it in Mandarin (line 658). Student 21 then confessed in Mandarin, 沒有 (**mei you**) <No>, to concede that they had not handed in the homework.

Excerpt 45 (II-01-09, lines 647-60)

- 647 S9: "I think your friend Carol is very interesting."
648 S20: "He cer~."
649 T: CERTAINLY.
650 S20: "He certainly. He is the most interesting person I know."
651 T: 好，來，(**hao lai**) <OK, come on> Picture Two. Go.
652 S19: "I think your father is very ~"
653 T: Generous. ... Hoh, 你們還沒交那個 notebook 就會開始很緊張 hoh. (**ni**
654 **men hai mei jiao na ge notebook jiou hui kai shih hen jin jhang**)
655 <You have not turned in your notebooks, is that why you are nervous
656 about it?>
657 S21: Huh?
658 T: 我說你們啊，(**wuo shuo ni men ah**) <I mean you guys> 就是交那個~
659 (**jiou shih jiao na ge**) <turning in the ~>
660 S21: 沒有。(b) (**mei you**) <No>

Another example is found in Excerpt 46. Whilst the teacher requested students to read aloud from the textbook, Student 24 offered her some sweets, implying that he had no intention of reading from the textbook. The teacher engaged in banter with him in Mandarin, 要賄賂歐 (**yao hui lu o**) <You want to buy me off?>. Student 24 then replied, 沒有阿(**mei you ah**) <No>, also in Mandarin.

Excerpt 46 (II-12-19, line 693-4)

693 T: 要賄賂歐 (yao huei luo o) <You want to buy me off?>

694 S24: 沒有啊(meí yóu āh) <No.>

On one occasion, a student asked the teacher in Mandarin (Excerpt 47, line 624) to teach him how to read a particular textbook section whilst other students were engaged in conversational practice in pairs. The teacher then replied in English and stated that he should wait for her because she was checking the other students' performances. A student would rarely make such a request in a university classroom. Normally when students do so it suggests that the students intended to attract the teacher's attention or as escape from learning.

Excerpt 47 (II-12-19, line 624-6)

624 S6: 我想要你教我 (wuo siang yao ni jiao wuo) <I want you to teach me.>

625 T: Wait a minute. Just wait. Next week.

During conversational practice in pairs, Student 8 reported to the teacher in Mandarin that his partner was not participating in the activity and was in fact sleeping through the lecture (Excerpt 48). At that time, the teacher was talking to other students and did not pay attention to him. When the teacher turned to him, she was not sure what he wanted. She then questioned him in English saying, 'why did you say that?' This seems to imply that in order to get away from practicing English conversation, Student 8 made this claim.

Excerpt 48 (II-10-31, lines 280-81)

280 S8: 老師我跟他..他想睡覺. (lao shih wuo gen ta .. ta siang shui jiao)

281 <Teacher, I am with him. He wants to sleep.>

282 T: ... Oh. Why did you say that?

Excerpt 49 outlines an occasion on which one student had arrived late to the

class and asked the teacher in Mandarin when he should hand in his homework (line 486). Instead of replying to his query, the teacher directed him in English to sit in a particular place (line 488). In line 490, the teacher demanded the student to read a particular sentence. The student stated, in Mandarin, that he just arrived and asked he should read the passage immediately (line 491). He then started attempting to read the sentence, but was unsure which one to read. The teacher asked him to start reading from Sentence Eleven (lines 493). Student 10 then stated yet again that he had just arrived in the classroom saying, 我們剛來 (**wuo men gang lai**) <*We just came here*>; and then he asked the teacher, 會話嗎? (**huei hua ma**) <*Practise conversation?*>. He asked if he should read out a sentence from the textbook. The teacher instructed him by saying ‘you are A’. Student 10 then started to read out the sentence, but stated that he could not read a particular word in Mandarin by saying, 這我不會唸耶。 (**jhe wuo bu huei nian yie**) <*I can't read it.*> (line 500). The teacher helped him by reading out ‘history professor’.

Excerpt 49 (II-01-09, lines 486-502)

- 486 S10: 老師什麼時候交啊? (**lao shih jhe she me shih hou jiao ah**)
 487 <*Teacher, when do we have to hand this in?*>
 488 T: You sit here, I think is better.
 489 S10: (??).
 490 T: 來, (**lai**) <*OK*> go.
 491 S10: 剛回來。 (**gang huei lai**) <*Just came back.*> 我們剛回來就是要 (**wuo**
 492 **men gang huei lai jiou shih yao**) <*We came back for~*> “I think your~.”
 493 T: 哦, (**oh**) <*Oh*> 那個 hoh, (**na ge**) <*That*> eleven. 從 eleven 開始。 (**cong**
 494 **eleven kai shih**) <*Start from eleven.*>
 495 S10: 我們剛來 (**wuo men gang lai**) <*We just came here*> 會話嗎? (**huei**
 496 **hua ma**) <*Practise conversation?*> [S10 does not know what he has to
 497 do now.]
 498 T: You are A.
 499 S10: “I think our~” “I think your grandfather is very ~.” “I think our” 這我不

500 會唸耶。(jhe wuo bu huei nian yie) < *I can't read it.* >

501 T: “History professor”.

502 S10: “History professor.”

Results from the data show that in matters regarding classroom instruction and management, the teacher relied heavily on Mandarin. For establishing solidarity in classrooms, both the teacher and students tended to use Mandarin as the medium for communication.

7.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

English was the legitimate classroom language for instruction and Mandarin was an important language for annotation and for elaborating on the English used in the class. Since both languages were used in the classroom, code-switching was a pervasive phenomenon, utilized for talk around the textbook and during most textbook-related activities.

When unlocking meanings from the textbook, the teacher and students switched codes in IRF format and chorusing. When there was the need to explain linguistic forms and cultural content, Mandarin was often used by the teacher. When involved in textbook-related activities, Mandarin was employed rather than English, on account of its convenience and familiarity to students. To build solidarity in the classroom, both the teacher and students, but particularly the students, would use Mandarin as a medium for communication.

Critical discussion concerning some of the issues that emerge in this chapter will be discussed in detail in Chapter 9. In the next chapter, the findings of Classroom B will be explored.

CHAPTER 8

LANGUAGES USE IN CLASSROOM B

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, examinations will be made with regard to the use of languages in Classroom B, with special attention paid to the talk around the textbook between the teacher and learners. Five lessons were audio recorded and were transcribed. The list of transcription conventions is provided in Appendix A. Findings from the transcript data show that Classroom B was teacher-dominated, and more than two-thirds of talk came from the teacher. English was the legitimate classroom language (and the target language) and Mandarin was an important language for annotation or elaboration in English. Several unique characteristics of the use of code-switching in the classroom emerged from the audio transcripts.

In the following sections, I will first discuss code-switching for talk around the textbook, including code-switching in the IRF format, chorusing, to explain linguistic forms, and to explain cultural content in the textbook. Subsequently, I will examine other uses of code-switching in lessons, comprising code-switching for management and for establishing solidarity in the classroom.

8.2 CODE-SWITCHING FOR TALK AROUND THE TEXTBOOK

The data shows that code-switching played a significant role in unlocking meanings from the textbook and the use of Mandarin in code-switching was particularly notable. A number of features on the use of languages are found in the

study concerning interaction with the monolingual English textbook. These include the two language patterns (the IRF format and choring), switching codes in order to explain linguistic forms and code-switching to explain cultural content. In the following sub-sections, I will discuss these issues in detail.

8.2.1 Code-switching in IRF Format

In Classroom B, almost infinite varieties of IRF patterns emerged from the data. Five prominent IRF sequences are found in the transcripts. They are:

- (1) I (English), R (English) and F (English)
- (2) I (English/ Mandarin), R (Mandarin) and F (Mandarin)
- (3) I (English/ Mandarin), R (English) and F (English)
- (4) I (English/ Mandarin/ English/ Mandarin/ English), R (English) and F (English)
- (5) I (Mandarin), R (Mandarin) and F (Mandarin).

The first IRF format presented above often occurred when interlocutors were practicing sentence patterns from the textbook. For example, on one occasion students were engaging in a conversational practice task, asking their partner the question, ‘what is he/ she going to do tonight?’ from the textbook. During the task, the teacher rehearsed the statement with Student 17 (Excerpt 1). The student replied in English ‘I don’t know’ (line 710) and the teacher gave feedback in English (line 711).

Excerpt 1 (III-9-24-01, lines 709-13)

709 T: What is he going to do tonight?

710 S17: I don't know.

711 T: You don't know. What is she going to do tonight?

The second IRF format found in the classroom is as follows: I (English/Mandarin), R (Mandarin) and F (Mandarin). This type of format was commonly used when unlocking meaning from the textbook, particularly for the reading sections. In Excerpt 2, prior to line 40, the teacher used English to introduce one of the characters, Carly, in the reading article. In line 40, the teacher asked the question, 'how many languages can she speak?'. In line 41, the teacher then broadened the topic and switched to Mandarin after he pronounced 'Italy', and asked '這是什麼國家? (**jhe shih she mo guo jiia**) <What country is this?>'. Students replied in Mandarin (line 43). In line 44, the teacher repeated the student's answer, and subsequently asked another question in Mandarin. It suggests that students were allowed to use Mandarin to respond to the teacher's question in this particular classroom.

Excerpt 2 (III-9-24-01, lines 40-6)

40 T: How many languages can she speak? .. Let's count. Right, she, she is reading

41 a book in Italian. Italian 這是什麼國家? (**jhe shih she mo guo jiia**) <What

42 country is this?>

43 Ss: 義大利。 (**yi da li**) <Italy>

44 T: {義大利，然後呢，義大利國家講什麼文? (**yi da li, ran hou ne? yi da li guo**

45 **jiia jiiang she mo wun**) <Italy, then? What language do they speak in

46 Italy?>

The third IRF format found in the classroom is I (English/ Mandarin), R (English), F (English). This type of format occurred when the teacher reviewed the reading article that he had just taught. After he had explained a reading article, the teacher conducted a fill-in-the-blank exercise based on that reading passage in the textbook. In Line 227, the teacher prompted a question from the textbook in English,

then rephrased it in Mandarin saying, ‘Who’s husband? 誰的誰的丈夫啊 (**shei de shei de jhang fu ah**) <Who’s husband, ah>.’ Students replied, saying, Carly’s husband. The teacher did not hear the students’ response clearly and exclaimed, ‘ha?’. He then swiftly responded by saying ‘Carly’s husband’, and wrote the sentence on the board. The teacher regularly wrote key words, phrases, and sentences on the board.

Excerpt 3 (III-9-24-01, lines 227-31)

227 T: Ha? OK, husband. Who’s husband? 誰的誰的丈夫啊 (**shei de shei de**
 228 **jhang fu ah**) <Who’s husband, ah?>
 229 Ss: Carly’s husband.
 230 T: Ha? Carly’s husband. [The teacher starts writing ‘Carly’s husband’ on the
 231 board.]

The fourth type of IRF format found was as follows: I (English/ Mandarin/ English/ Mandarin/ English), R (English) and F (English). This format was found when the teacher rehearsed ‘question and answer’ exercises from the textbook with students. For example, in Excerpt 4 the teacher initiated the utterance in English to explain a particular statement from the textbook and then switched to Mandarin to rephrase that English message (lines 193-7). Subsequently, the teacher asked another question from the textbook in English (lines 197-8). The students supplied a one-word answer in English (line 199). The teacher then confirmed and gave feedback solely in English to the students (lines 200-2).

Excerpt 4 (III-01-07-2003, lines 193-202)

193 T: {A. OK^? Because one of his boxes, OK^, 他拿了一個, (**ta nan le yi ge**)
 194 <He took one> 他拿了幾個箱子, (**ta na le ji ge xiang zih**) <He took several
 195 boxes.> 紙箱要掉下來, (**jhih xiang yao diao sia lai**) <The boxes are falling

196 *down*> so she says, "I'll pick it up for you." Hoh, 我會幫你撿起來。(wuo
 197 **huei bang ni jian ci lai**) <*I will pick them up for you.*> Number three. "She's
 198 going to travel around the world." Which picture?
 199 Ss: B.
 200 T: {B. Right. Ah, look at the picture, there is a lady, she is having, a, travelling
 201 pack, OK^, on his, on her PACK, on her back, OK^? Right. Let's look at
 202 sentence No. 4. "Oh! I'll answer it. I'll answer it." Which picture?

Now I shall discuss the fifth type of IRF format: I (Mandarin), R (Mandarin), F (Mandarin). This format occurred when the teacher was having informal conversations with students. In Excerpt 5, the teacher asked Student 4 if he had finished reading the textbook. Student 4 replied in Mandarin to indicate that he had. The teacher repeated the student's response. The conversation took place solely in Mandarin.

Excerpt 5 (III-01-07, lines 177-9)

177 T: 這麼快? (**jhe me kuai**) <*So fast?*>
 178 S4: 看圖說故事啊。(kan tu shuo gu shih ah) <*Picture storytelling*>
 179 T: {看圖說故事。(kan tu shuo gu shih) <*Picutre storytelling*>

8.2.2 Code-switching in Chorusing

Inviting students to perform joint chorus reading is not a teaching strategy normally used in this particular classroom. However, on occasion the teacher asked students to read the sentences aloud with him.

Excerpt 6 (III-11-26-01, lines 243-9)

243T: ---- 今天, (**jin tian**) <*Today*> 大家都做的很好。(da jia dou zuo
 244 **de hen hao**) <*Everybody did a good job*> 我帶著大家, (wuo dai jhe da

245 **jia**) <Read after me> 你看你做的記號呢, (**ni kan ni zuo de ji hao ne**)
 246 <Look at your note.> 跟我一起唸一次。(gen wuo yi ciyi nian yi cih)
 247 <Repeat after me> Repeat after me.
 248T: Sentence number one. "I broke a cup but I fixed it with glue."
 249 Ss: "I broke a cup but I fixed it with glue."

The teacher stated in Mandarin, 我帶著大家, (**wuo dai jhe da jia**) <Read after me.> (line 243), to signal that he would guide the students to perform something. Then the teacher asked the students to look at the remarks in their textbook in Mandarin, 你看你做的記號呢, (**ni kan ni zuo de ji hao ne**) <Look at your notes.>, and invited students for a joint reading saying, '跟我一起唸一次。(gen wuo yi ciyi nian yi cih) <Repeat after me.> (lines 245-6). He then switched to English to rephrase his imperative: 'repeat after me'. In line 248, the teacher read aloud a sentence from the textbook and students then performed the choral reading (line 249).

8.2.3 Code-switching to Explain Linguistic Forms

It was found that the teacher switched languages, mostly from English to Mandarin, when explaining linguistic forms, such as English lexical items, phrases, and sentences. Employing Mandarin to explain items of vocabulary was the most commonly recurring feature in this classroom. It seemed to be an essential strategy used by the teacher to introduce new lexical items. A few examples are shown in the following excerpts.

Excerpt 7 (III-10-22-01, lines 131-3)

131 S1: 好萊鎢 (**hao lai wu**) <Hollywood>.
 132 T: {好萊鎢 (**hao lai wu**) <Hollywood> , Hollywood. H-O-L-L-,

Providing a literal translation from one language into another is one way of teaching a lexical item. In Excerpt 7, as a response to a student's Mandarin utterance, the teacher reiterated the noun in Mandarin, 好萊鷄 (**hao lai wu**) <Hollywood>, and offered the English pronunciation. To make the word easier for students to remember, the teacher subsequently spelled it out. The Mandarin articulation of '好萊鷄' is a phonological adaptation of the English word 'Hollywood'.

Excerpt 8 offers another example of a lexical switch between English and Mandarin, in which Mandarin is used to provide an equivalent translation. Numerous comparable examples were found in the transcripts.

Excerpt 8 (III-10-22-01, lines 777-8)

777 T: "And have a HUGE Mexico meal." HUGE. 巨大的 (**jiu da de**)

778 <Huge> HUGE.

In addition to switching codes to explain the meanings of lexical items, another frequently occurring feature is the employment of Mandarin to elaborate an English phrase. In Excerpt 9 line 377, the teacher initiated the Mandarin noun phrase and then switched to English and said, 'Fine arts'. He then rephrased the term in Mandarin. In line 379, after reading aloud a sentence from the textbook, the teacher added Mandarin at the end of the sentence and said, 'Madison Avenue 麥迪遜大道.' Another similar example occurred in line 383.

An interesting point to notice in the excerpt is that the teacher habitually says 'hoh^' at the end of most of his utterances. It seems that 'hoh^' in the teacher's utterance plays the role of a tag question, confirming the sentence or message he has just given.

Excerpt 9 (III-10-22-02, lines 374-86)

374T: “She came to the United States 8 years ago” 八年前來到美國 (ba
375 nian cian lai dao mei guo) <She came to the States eight years ago> “and
376 study fine arts.” 來讀書。(lai du shu) <Came to study> 讀什麼呢? (du she
377 me ne) <What does she study?> 讀藝術。(du yi shu) <Study fine arts>
378 Fine arts, 純藝術 hoh^。(chuen yi shu) <Fine arts> Fine arts. “Now, she
379 works on Madison Avenue. She works on Madison Avenue.” 麥迪遜大道
380 (mai di siyueng da dao) <Madison Avenue> , 很有名的時尚的那條街
381 (hen you ming de shih shang de na tiao jie) <The most famous fashion
382 street.> “Now, she works on Madison Avenue for a publishing company^.”
383 PUBLISHING COMPANY, hoh^, 出版公司 (chu ban gong sih)
384 <Publishing company> , PUBLISHING COMPANY. 她在哪裡工作? (ta
385 zai na li gong zuo) <Where does she work?> “She works for a publishing
386 company on Madison Avenue hoh^.”

It is significant to note that when there is no equivalent meaning for both English and Mandarin, especially for a person’s name, a location or a shop, English is often used and inserted into the Mandarin utterance. Two examples are presented in Excerpts 10 and 11 below.

In Excerpt 10, instead of articulating the name of Mr. Boros in Mandarin, the teacher adopted the original English pronunciation and embedded it within the Mandarin utterance.

Excerpt 10 (III-10-22-02, lines 163-4)

163 T: 和剛才來自墨西哥的 Mr. Boros 一樣 (han gang cai lai zih muo si ge de
164 Mr. Boros yi yiang) <Same as Mr. Boros who just came from Mexico.>

As well as the teacher switching codes in teaching, students also used Mandarin when they had difficulty expressing certain words in English. For example in Excerpt 11, during a pair conversational practice, Student 6 did not know how to say ‘painting’ in English. She called on the teacher and made her request in Mandarin,

老師，畫畫怎麼講 (*lao shih hua hua zen mo jiang*) <Teacher, how does one say painting?> (line 692). The teacher did not understand the student's question and replied 'ha?' Student 6 repeated her question in Mandarin, 畫畫 (*hua hua*) <Painting>. The teacher then offered the answer both in Mandarin and English (line 696).

Excerpt 11 (III-9-24-01, lines 692-6)

- 692 S6: 老師，畫畫怎麼講 (*lao shih hua hua zen mo jiang*) <Teacher, how to
693 say painting?>
694 T: Ha?
695 S16: 畫畫 (*hua hua*) <Painting> 對啊 (*duei ah*) <Yes>
696 T: 畫畫 (*hua hua*) <Painting> painting.

In some incidents, students requested the teacher to offer Mandarin meanings for English phrases. In Excerpt 12, Student 9 asked the teacher the meaning of 'very friendly'. The teacher gave the Mandarin meaning and reiterated the English phrase 'very friendly', then reverted to Mandarin again. To meet the pedagogical purpose, the teacher offered the statement 'you look very friendly' as an example, and followed with a Mandarin translation. The synonym, 'nice', was also employed to clarify the meaning of 'very friendly' (line 484).

Excerpt 12 (III-10-22-01, lines 479-85)

- 479 S9: 什麼叫 very friendly ? (*she me jiao very friendly*) <What does very
480 friendly mean?>
481 T: 很友善的，(*hen you shan de*) <Very friendly> very friendly. 很友善的
482 (*hen you shan de*) <Very friendly>. You look very friendly. 看起來很友善
483 的。(*kan ci lai hen you shan de*) <You look very friendly> 對不對？(*duei*
484 *bu duei*) <Right?> 就是呢，(*jiou shih ne*) <That is> 很 nice 的感覺
485 hoh? (*hen nice de gan juei*) <Feeling nice>.

The two excerpts above seem to suggest that the discourse rules of this classroom allow students to ask questions in Mandarin.

In addition to code-switching for teaching lexical items, when teaching verb or noun phrases, Mandarin was also used for either rephrasing or annotating the English meanings. In Excerpt 13, when the teacher introduced the name of the British chain store, *Marks and Spencer*, he continually used that English proper noun although he was speaking in Mandarin. Indeed, in line 418, the teacher used Mandarin, 這個聽起來沒有中文啦 (**jhe ge ting ci lai mei you jhong wen la**) <*There is no Chinese term for that.*>, to indicate that there is no Chinese translation for *Marks and Spencer*.

Excerpt 13 (III-12-17-02, lines 415-22)

415T: London. OK^, London, 英國的 (**ying guo de**) <*In the UK*> London .. 那最
416 有名的那一家店叫做什麼呢? (**na zuei you ming de na yi jia dian jiao**
417 **zuo she me ne**) <*What's the name of the most famous store?*> Marks and
418 Spencer. OK^? Marks and Spencer, hoh, 這個聽起來沒有中文啦 (**jhe ge**
419 **ting ci lai mei you jhong wen la**) <*There is no Chinese for that.*> hoh^,
420 Marks and Spencer, 然後呢, (**ran hou ne**) <*Then*> Marks and Spencer 最有
421 名的產品是什麼? (**Marks and Spencer zuei you ming de chan pin shih she**
422 **me**) <*What's the most famous product in Marks and Spencer?*>

Mandarin was also adopted when grammar rules were explained. From the student interview, the participants expressed the view that they thought the teacher overemphasized grammatical rules in the class. It is clear from the transcriptions that the teacher commonly points out grammatical rules both in English and Mandarin in his teaching.

In Excerpt 14, the teacher adopted Mandarin, 的過去式 (**de guo ciyu shih**) <*The past tense of*>, to explain that 'bought' is the past tense of 'buy'.

Excerpt 14 (III-10-22-02, lines 134-5)

134 T: He said, “I started to be happy, when I bought a car.” BOUGHT A CAR. Buy
135 的過去式呢，(de guo ciyu shih ne) <The past tense of buy> “bought a car”.

Another example is provided in Excerpt 15. Instead of using English to explain how to apply ‘s’ to a verb in a third person singular sentence, the teacher code-switched between English and Mandarin to ensure his message was clear for students to comprehend. The teacher explained that ‘nobody’ is a singular pronoun, 是要單數 (shih yao dan shu) <Is singular>, thus ‘s’ should be added to the verb ‘walk’ (lines 156-158). The teacher then elaborated by embedding English lexical items in Mandarin utterances to indicate that ‘nobody’ can be treated in the same manner, grammatically, as ‘he’ or ‘she’ (line 159).

Excerpt 15 (III-10-22-02, lines 153-60)

153 T: “Nobody walks anywhere.” Nobody WALKS, 這裡呢，(jhe li ne)
154 <Here> 沒有人走路的，(mei you ren zou lu de) <Nobody walks> hoh^.
155 記的 (ji de) <Remember> NOBODY WALKS. 注意哦，(jhu yi oh) <be
156 aware> nobody 是要單數 (shih yao dan shu) <Is singular>，所以它動詞
157 呢， WALK 要加 S (suo yi ta dong ci ne walk yao jia s) <add s in the end
158 of the verb, walk>, nobody walks, 記住哦 (ji jhu oh) <Remember it>，
159 nobody, 把它看做是 HE 或是 SHE hoh^, (ba ta kan zuo shih he huo shih
160 she) <Consider it as He or She>.

In grammatical teaching contexts, the teacher sometimes proposed questions for students to answer in order to ensure that they understood what he had taught. In Excerpt 16, the teacher introduced a sentence from the textbook, ‘study at a university in California’. In line 890, the teacher reverted to Mandarin (lines 890-2) to elaborate the grammatical rule related to that sentence and asked students to make a choice between ‘she study’ or ‘is going to’. Students responded ‘is going to’ (line

894). The teacher confirmed the students' answer in English and continued his elaboration on the grammatical rule after line 895.

Excerpt 16 (III-9-24-01, lines 887-95)

887 T: In California. 謝謝 (sie sie) <Thanks.> “Study at a university in
888 California.” 什麼時候呢 (she mo shih huo ne) <When?> next year, next
889 year, next year 是什麼時候 (shih she mo shih huo ne) <When?> 明年
890 (min nian) <Next year> , OK, 所以呢, 這樣子的話, 各位告訴我要用
891 (suo yi ne, jhe yang zih de hua, ge wei gao su wuo yao yong) <So, if it is
892 the answer, tell me do we use> she study 還是 (hai shih) <Or> is going
893 to?
894 Ss: is going to.
895 T: Right! Because this sentence is in future tense. ----

The use of Mandarin plays an important role not only for explaining linguistic forms, but also for annotating textbook contents. For example, to deal with the ‘matching exercise’, which was to match a verb phrase with the other part of a sentence to form a complete sentence in the textbook, Mandarin was commonly used to rephrase the English phrases. In Excerpt 17, line 24, the teacher began in English to signal that there were ten phrases in the textbook and then he switched to Mandarin to elaborate that there were ten pairs of sentences and phrases that needed to be matched up on page 19 (see lines 24-8). In line 30, the teacher spoke in Mandarin, 我先講解一下, (wuo sian jiang jie yi sia) <I’ll explain it first.>, and rephrased the sentence in English to indicate that he would explain those phrases first. In line 31, the teacher requested students to look up the first phrase on page 19 in Mandarin. From line 33, the teacher introduced ten phrases one by one in English with Mandarin translations. For instance, in line 33 the teacher taught the first phrase ‘break a cup’ in English and followed with the Mandarin translation ‘打破一個杯子, (da puo yi ge bei zih) <Break a cup.>’. In line 34, the teacher introduced the

second phrase ‘too sick’ in English and followed with Mandarin annotations. For the other eight phrases, the teacher employed Mandarin to either translate or embellish these English phrases.

Excerpt 17, (III-11-26-01, lines 24-39)

24 T: There are, there are, ten phrases. OK^? Ten pairs of phrases. OK. 在第 19 頁
25 的上面呢, (zai di shih jiou yie de shang mian ne) <On the top of page 19>
26 有 10 對的句子或者是片語, (you shih duei de jiyu zih huo jhe shih pian yiu)
27 <There are ten pairs of phrases or sentences>. 我們待會兒呢, (wuo men dai
28 huei ne) <Later, we> 要把這兩邊的句子連起來, (yao ba jhe liang bian de
29 jiyu zih lian ciyi lai) <You have to connect the two-side of sentences> OK^?
30 我先講解一下, (wuo sian jiang jie yi sia) <I'll explain it first>. I'll explain
31 this for you first. 好, (hao) <OK> 我們來看看第 19 頁的第一個, (wuo men
32 lai kan kan di shih jiou yie de di yi ge) <Let's look at the first one on page
33 19>. break a cup, break a cup. 打破一個杯子 (da puo yi ge bei zih) <Break
34 a cup.> 打破一個杯子 (da puo yi ge bei zih) <Break a cup.> Number 2,
35 number 2. Too sick, 覺得怎麼樣? (jiyue de zen me yang) <How is the
36 feeling?> 有點生病 (you dian sheng bing) <A bit sick>. 覺得呢, (jiyue
37 de ne) <Feel> 不舒服 (bu shu fu) <Uncomfortable>. Number 3, number 3.
38 OK. What's he doing? Make a sandwich. OK^? 做一個三明治。 (zuo yi ge
39 san ming jhih) <Make a sandwich>. Number 4, take a shower.

In talk around the textbook, especially that concerning the reading section, the teacher commonly employed Mandarin to rephrase and annotate the English sentences. In the following example the teacher had explained the reading article prior to line 73, then tried to review and conclude the article by switching between English and Mandarin.

Excerpt 18 (III-10-22-02, lines 73-95)

73 T: [Teacher waits for students to finish reading the story] ... 做完的舉手, (zuo
74 wuan de jiyu shou) <Raise your hands when you are finished.> ... These
75 three articles are that .. kind of long. OK^, 有點長 hoh (you dian chang) <A

76 *bit long*> , 我現在快速解釋過 (**wuo sian zai kuai su jie shih guo**) <*I will*
 77 *explain it quickly.*> , 再請各位再讀一遍 (**zai cing ge wuei zai du yi bian**)
 78 <*So that, you will have time to read it again.*> , 我再問各位 hoh^ (**wuo zai**
 79 **wen ge wei**) <*Now, I'll ask you*> , 來我們現在看到 (**lai wuo men sian**
 80 **zai kan dao**) <*Now, let's look at*> “Mr. Boros, Mr. Boros, he comes from
 81 Hungary, he comes from Hungary,” 這是哪一個國家啊? (**jhe shih na yi ge**
 82 **guo jia ah**) <*Which country is this?*>..匈牙利 hoh^ (**siyong ya li**)
 83 <*Hungary*> 首都是哪裡啊? (**shou du shih na li ah**) <*What's its capital*
 84 *city?*>.. 布達佩斯 (**bu da pei sih**) <*Budapest*> 聽說很漂亮, 聽說很漂亮
 85 hoh^, (**ting shuo hen piao liang ting shuo hen piao liang**) <*I heard it's*
 86 *beautiful there, it's beautiful there.*>... Right. OK^. {Laughter.} 我們來看看
 87 啦 hoh, (**wuo men lai kan kan la**) <*Let's look at the story.*> 我們來看看他的
 88 故事啦 (**wuo men lai kan kan ta de gu shih la**) <*Let's look at their stories.*>
 89 “Andrew is a professor, professor, at a Rutgers University in New York, in New
 90 Jersey.” hoh^, Hoh^, 他是呢 (**ta shih ne**) <*He is*> , 紐澤西波根大學的教授
 91 hoh^ (**niou ze si pou gen da siyue de jiao shou**) <*A professor in the Rutgers*
 92 *University in New Jersey.*> 他什麼時候來的呢? (**ta she me shih hou lai de**
 93 **ne**) <*When did he arrive?*> “He came from Budapest, Budapest, thirteen
 94 years ago, thirteen years ago.” 13 年前來的 hoh^ (**shih san nian cian lai de**)
 95 <*He came here thirteen years ago.*>

Before commencing his reading of the article, the teacher asked the students in Mandarin to raise their hands when they had finished. Three seconds later, the teacher spoke in English to indicate that a long discussion would be needed to annotate the article. Then he switched to Mandarin, 有點長 hoh (**you dian chang**) <*A bit long*>, to rephrase and emphasize that a certain amount of time would be needed (line 75). Subsequently, he employed Mandarin to indicate that he would make the explanation shorter and then asked students to read the articles in order to subsequently answer questions regarding the reading article (see lines 76-79). Therefore, the teacher used both English and Mandarin to annotate the reading passage. In line 84, having failed to get a response from the students, the teacher said ‘I heard it's beautiful there’ in Mandarin.

From line 88, the teacher resumed the talk about the article and read aloud ‘Andrew is a professor, at a Rutgers University in New York, in New Jersey’, following this with an explanation in Mandarin (line 90). In line 92, the teacher raised a question in Mandarin, 他什麼時候來的呢? (**ta she me shih hou lai de ne**) <*When did he arrive?*>, from the reading text. In line 93, he read a sentence from the textbook and followed it in Mandarin by saying, 13 年前來的 hoh^ (**shih san nian cian lai de**) <*He came here thirteen years ago.*>, to elaborate upon the English sentence. The sequence shown in the excerpt was initiated in English, then followed by Mandarin elaborations. The teacher consistently used that particular sequence to unpack the meanings of the longer articles in the textbook.

A salient feature of Classroom B regarded the teacher’s tendency to not only switch between English and Mandarin but also to reiterate the words, phrases or sentences, two or three times.

In Excerpt 19, the teacher was primarily focusing on introducing the sentence ‘how do people like or feel when they first arrived in the USA’ and these sentences were repeated both in English and Mandarin more than twice. This seems to have been done to ensure that the textbook message was delivered completely and could be comprehended by students: the teacher habitually repeated the words, phrases and sentences.

Excerpt 19 (III-10-22-01, lines 359-81)

359 T: 第一天你抵達的時候 (**di yi tian ni di da de shih hou**) <*The first day*
 360 *of your arrival*>, when you arrive, when you arrive that place, how do
 361 people like of US, when they first arrive? 他們會有什麼感覺呢 (**ta men**
 362 **huei you shih me gan jiyue ne**) <*How would they feel?*>, how do people
 363 like? 會有一點偏見 (**huei you yi dian pian jian**) <*They may have some*
 364 *prejudice*>, 他 (**ta**) <*He*> presume you will like US? 你第一次到達那個
 365 地方你會有什麼感覺 (**ni di yi ci dao da na ge di fang ni huei you shih**

366 **me gan jiyue**) <What do you feel like when you first arrive there?> , how do
 367 people like the US, how do people feel when they first arrive? What do they
 368 think of people and the way of life? 他們會怎麼樣 (**ta me huei zih me**
 369 **yang**) <How are the people there?> , 對人有什麼樣的看法? (**duei ren**
 370 **you shih me yang de kan fa**) <What do they think of the people there?>
 371 對那裡的人 (**duei na li de ren**) <The locals there> how do they think of?
 372 THINK OF. 對那裡的人 (**duei na li de ren**) <To the local people there>.
 373 How do they think of. THINK OF. 有什麼看法 (**you shih me kan fa**)
 374 <What's your opinion?> , 認為 (**ren wuei**) <thinking> ? 他們對那裡
 375 的人會有什麼樣的看法 (**ta men duei na li de ren hue you shih me kan**
 376 **fa**) <What do they think about the people there?> , and the way of life, 對那
 377 個地方的生活方式 (**duei na ge di fang de sheng huo fang shih**) <And
 378 *their life styles*> , the way of life, 對那個地方的生活方式 (**duei na ge di**
 379 **fang de sheng huo fang shih**) <And *their life-styles*> , the way of life, 會有
 380 什麼樣的看法呢? (**hue you shih me yang de kan fa ne**) <What do they
 381 *think?*>

In addition to using code-switching to explain the linguistic forms, it is also utilized to explain cultural content of the textbook.

8.2.4 Code-switching to Explain Cultural Content

To make the lesson more meaningful and vivid, contextual information was often needed. Mandarin plays an important role to bridge the textbook content and the contextual information.

In introducing the Statue of Liberty, the teacher briefly touched on its history (how and why it is in America) and brought up the issue of the terrorists who destroyed the Twin Towers in New York. At the beginning of Excerpt 20, the teacher asked students in Mandarin how to say 'Statue of Liberty' in English. Without waiting for a response from the students, the teacher articulated the term by using Mandarin pronunciation to indicate that the term should be pronounced in that way

(line 11). Students laughed at the way the teacher articulated the words. From line 15, the teacher initiated in Mandarin, 這個呢 (**jhe je ne**) <Well, this>, 是當初呢 (**shih dan chu ne**) <At the very beginning>, as an opening to bridge the information that followed. He then switched to English to say that ‘when the United States was established, the Statue of Liberty was a gift from France for America’ (lines 15-19). The teacher switched to Mandarin in line 17 to rephrase the previous English sentence and reverted to English in line 18 to provide further information. In line 19, the teacher said in English ‘the gift from France, OK?’ and then rephrased that particular comment in Mandarin. From lines 20 to 31, more Mandarin was used than English for the discussion. The teacher employed both English and Mandarin when giving cultural, contextual information.

Excerpt 20 (III-10-22-01, lines 10-31)

10 T: {自由女神的英文怎麼講呢？ (**zih you nyu shen de ying wen zen me jiang**
 11 **ne**) <How do you say the Statue of Liberty in English?> 自由女神！(**zih**
 12 **you nyu shen**) <The Statue of Liberty.> [The teacher pronounced the word
 13 literally from Chinese pronunciation. And students laugh.] No, no. [Teacher
 14 writes the words on the board.] OK, the Statue of Liberty, OK. Liberty Statue,
 15 Liberty Statue, OK? 這個呢 (**jhe je ne**) <Well, this>, 是當初呢 (**shih**
 16 **dan chu ne**) <At the very beginning>, when the United States was created
 17 was established, when the United States was established, 當美國建國的時候
 18 (**dan mei guo jian guo de shih hou**) <When the USA government was
 19 established>, the gift from France, OK? 法國政府送給美國 (**fa guo jheng**
 20 **fu suong gei mei guo**) <It was sent by the French government.> 當初建國的
 21 時候 (**dan chu jian guo de shih hou**) <When the USA government was
 22 established>, 的一個禮物 (**de yi ge li wu**) <It's a gift>。放在哪裡？(**fan zai**
 23 **na li**) <Where is it?> On the harbor of New York. 放在紐約港的外海
 24 (**fan zai niou yue gang de wai hai**) <It's located in the harbor of New York>..
 25 放了一尊自由女神 (**fan le yi zuen zih you nyu shen**) <The Statue of Liberty
 26 is located there>. The Liberty Statue, huh, now it's.. probably the target of the
 27 uh, be the terrorist, OK, 恐怖分子呢 (**kuong bu fen zih ne**) <The
 28 terrorists>, 很想把這個炸掉 (**hen siang ba jhe ge jha diao**) <Intend to set

29 *bomb on it* > , 因爲呢 (yin wei ne) <Because> , 他們已經把另外兩棟炸掉
30 了(ta men yi jiang ba ling wai liang duong jha diao le) <They have blown up
31 the other two buildings > 對不對? (duei bu duei) <Right?>

One way of maintaining students' attention and interest in the teacher-guided classroom, especially in cases where more than two-thirds of the speaking is done by the instructor, is to use humour. The teacher showed his sense of humour when interacting with students. The teacher expressed his concerns about his teaching style to me, which he thought was too boring for students, during my visit to his class, and he said that he sometimes felt frustrated by the lack of responses from students. Hence, the teacher believed that humour was necessary in order to arouse students' interest in his lecture. Two examples are shown below.

In Excerpt 21, the teacher asked students their opinions about America. In order to probe responses from students, the teacher proposed three answers in a humorous way in Mandarin, such as 漢堡 (han bao) <Hamburgers>, 帥哥 (shuai ge) <Handsome boys> and 穿泳衣的美女 (chuan yong yi de mei nu) <Girls in Bikinis>. Offering extra contextual information with the language the learners are most familiar with, which is Mandarin, was a strategy that the teacher occasionally employed in his lecture.

Excerpt 21 (III-10-22-01, lines 56-60)

56 Ss:漢堡 (han bao) <Hamburgers>
57 T: Huh? 漢堡 (han bao) <Hamburgers> Huh? Hamburgers, right. French
58 fries, what else? 帥哥 (shuai ge) <Handsome boys> ? 沒有 hoh^ (mei you
59 hoh) <No more> OK. 穿泳衣的美女 (chuan yong yi de mei nu) <Girls in
60 Bikinis> , Ah! 是不是? (Ah! shih bu shih) <Right?> Probably. OK.

In Excerpt 22, to sketch a picture of a delicious Mexican meal, the teacher emphasized the sentence of 'it takes about five hours' to finish the meal (line 779)

and used exaggerated tone whilst saying the question in Mandarin (lines 779-81).

From line 783 to line 788, Mandarin was used to illustrate how delicious and marvellous the food is. Particularly, the Mandarin phrase, 隱藏著強大的潛力 hoh^, (**yin cang jhe ciang da de cian li**) <Has a potential> (line 783), strongly implies that something has a great potential. It seems that the teacher used that phrase to arouse interest among the students.

Excerpt 22 (III-10-22-01, lines 778-88)

778 T: HUGE. Hoh^. Mexico meal, 墨西哥式的餐點 hoh^, (**muo si ge shih de**
779 **can dian**) <Mexican food> “It takes about FIVE hours.” 吃一頓飯要多久
780 啊? (**chih yi dun fan yao duo jiou ah**) <How long does it take to have a
781 meal?> 五個小時 (**wu ge siao shih**) <Five hours> 難怪你看這個紅色的
782 (??)上面呢, (**nan guai ni kan jhe ge hong se de shang mian ne**) <No
783 wonder the (??) on the red part> 隱藏著強大的潛力 hoh^, (**yin cang jhe**
784 **ciang da de cian li**) <Has a potential> “We are all happy here.” 我們在這
785 裡都非常高興 (**wuo men zai jhe li dou fe chang gao sin**) <We are very
786 happy here> 當然啦 (**dan ran la**) <Alright>, 一頓飯吃五個小時 (**yi dun**
787 **fan chih wu ge siao shih**) <A meal for five hours>, 那想必是人間美味 (**na**
788 **siang bi shih ren jian mei wu**) <That must be very delicious>.

The use of Taiwanese in the classroom was scarce. However, there were occasions on which Taiwanese was seemed to be used as to lighten the classroom atmosphere. In Excerpt 23, the teacher initiated an interrogative question and switched to Mandarin (line 21) to ask students how to say ‘a grocery store’ in English. Interestingly, instead of giving an English response to the teacher, some students replied in Taiwanese, 什貨仔店。 (**za huei ya diam**) <grocery store> (line 23), and all the students laughed after hearing this. The teacher then colluded with students in their intention of making fun of the term and said ‘the orange shop’, the literal translation from the Taiwanese, and followed up in Taiwanese, 柑仔店, (**gam ah**

diam) <orange store> (line 24), which also means grocery store but is an old-fashioned grocery store in Taiwan. Then he swiftly stated in Mandarin, 不是 hoh^? (**bu shih**) <No>, to indicate that it was not the English term for ‘grocery store’. The students laughed. The Taiwanese was used by both the students and the teacher in a manner that suggested an expression solidarity between both.

Excerpt 23 (III-12-17-01, lines 21-6)

- 21 T: What is a ~? 雜貨店英文怎麼講? (**za huo dian ying wen zen me jiang**)
22 <How do you say grocery store in English?>
23 Ss: 什貨仔店。 (**za huei ya diam**) <grocery store> {Laughter}
24 T: The orange shop. 柑仔店, (**gam ah diam**) <orange store> 不是 hoh^? (**bu shih**) <No.>
25
26 Ss: {Laughter}

Having discussed the use of code-switching to talk around the textbook, the following section will focus on other uses of code-switching in lessons.

8.3 OTHER USES OF CODE-SWITCHING IN LESSONS

The teacher often conducted textbook-related activities such as requesting students to perform pair or group conversational practice or discuss certain topics. The teacher predominantly used Mandarin over English for classroom management and for giving classroom instructions. The meaning of ‘instruction’ here represents the classroom metalanguage in linguistic terms, such as directing students how to perform a task. In performing these practices, students also used Mandarin when making queries to the teacher. In the following sub-sections, code-switching for classroom management and solidarity will be discussed in detail.

8.3.1 Code-switching for Classroom Management

In this section, the discussion will focus on code-switching for classroom management (also involving classroom instruction), for directing students or signalling the pages of the textbooks that students should turn to. Choosing which language to use for giving classroom instructions in EFL classrooms sometimes places the teacher in a dilemma. It is better to use as much of the target language as possible in the language classroom, but when there was the need to give long and complicated instructions, teachers would normally turn to the students' first language.

For example, using an audio teaching aid is an essential tool in the language classroom. When the teacher encountered the 'audio listening required' section (which is a section of the textbook intended to enhance listening skill), he consistently made explicit instructions in Mandarin prior to playing the audiotape and after listening to the tape. He sometimes paused briefly when he thought it was necessary and offered Mandarin explanation or translation. An example is presented in Excerpt 24.

Excerpt 24 (III-11-26-01, lines 98-140)

98 T: OK, 好, (**hao**) <OK> now we are reading a tape script on page 19. 我們要
99 做第 19 頁連連看的練習。(wuo men yao zuo di shih jiou yie lian lian kan
100 de lian si) <We'll do the practice on page 19.> 有十組的左邊的單字或片
101 語, (you shih zu de zuo bian de dan zih huo pian yu) <There are ten
102 phrases and vocabulary on the left>. 你要把呢 (**ni yao ba ne**) <You have
103 to> 根據你所聽到的 (**gen jiyu ne suo ting dao de**) <According to what you
104 hear> According to what you hear from the cassette player connect it
105 together. 把它連起來。(ba ta lian ciyi lai) <Match them up>. 注意聽! (**jhu**
106 **yi ting**) <Pay attention!> [Teacher played the tape]
107 M: I broke up a cup but I fixed it with glue. Two.

108 W: I felt sick, so I went to bed.

[==]

112 W: I took a shower and I washed my hair.

113 T: “I took a shower, and washed my hair.” 注意這個時態，(jhu yi jhe ge shih

114 tai) <Pay attention to the tense.> 它這裡出來的都是過去式，(ta jhe li chu

115 lai de dou shih guo ciyu shih) <Each of them is the past tense.> 但是呢，

116 (dan shih ne) <But> 它錄音帶唸的是不同的時態。(ta lu ying dai nian de

117 shih bu tong de shih tai) <You'll hear different tense from the tape.> 哪一種

118 時態？(na yi jhong shih tai) <What kind of tense?> 各位都知道了。(ge

119 wuei dong jhih dao le) <You should know it.> [Teacher plays the tape.]

[==]

130W: Ten. I told a joke but nobody laughed.

131T: OK. “I told a joke but nobody laughed.” We said it all the time. OK^? ...

132 Right. 各位有沒有聽清楚啊？(ge wuei you mei you ting cing chu ah)

133 <Did you hear it clearly?> 我倒轉各位再聽一次。(wuo dao jhuan ge wuei

134 zai ting yi ci) <I'll rewind it and you can listen to it again.> 待會呢，(dai

135 huei ne) <Later> 待會，(dai huei) <Later> 各位注意聽，(ge wuei jhu yi

136 ting) <Listen carefully.> 我再解釋給各位同學聽。(wuo zai jie shih gei ge

137 wuei tong siyue ting) <I'll explain it to you.> 你告訴我呢，(ni gao su wuo

138 ne) <You have to tell me> 你聽到的是什麼，(ni ting dao de shih she me)

139 <What you heard?> 你要把這些能夠連結起來。(ni yao ba jhe sie neng

140 guo lian jie ciyi lai) <You should be able to match them up.>

In the excerpt above, the teacher adopted the audiotape to accomplish a ‘matching exercise’ in the textbook with students. In line 98, the teacher initiated dialogue in English and followed up with Mandarin to give textbook signals. The teacher then employed Mandarin (lines 100-3) to instruct students to listen to the tape and also pay attention to the ten options on the left column of the page. In line 104, the teacher switched to English to give further instructions and then he reverted to Mandarin, 把它連起來。(ba ta lian ciyi lai) <Match them up> (lines 104-5), to instruct students to match part of the sentence to the verb phrase. The teacher then used Mandarin, 注意聽！(jhu yi ting) <Pay attention!>, to tell students to pay attention to the tape.

The teacher paused the tape and elaborated some of the sentences when grammatical explanation was needed for comprehension. After the female speaker (W) from the tape articulated the sentence in line 112, the teacher paused the tape and repeated the statement, 'I took a shower, and washed my hair', and subsequently switched to Mandarin, 注意這個時態 · (**jhu yi jhe ge shih tai**) <Pay attention to the tense>, to remind students to pay attention to the verb tense. He then employed Mandarin to explain that the tense shown on that page was the past tense, but what they heard from the tape was in a different tense and students should know the difference already (see lines 114-9).

In line 131, the teacher repeated the last sentence of the tape, 'I told a joke but nobody laughed' and used English to state that people often say that particular sentence. After a pause of five seconds, the teacher used Mandarin to ask students if they had understood the content of the tape or not, and then he played the tape again and elaborated more later on. He said that students should pay attention to the tape, as he would ask some questions related to it later on (lines 132-9).

In another example presented in Excerpt 25, the teacher switched between English and Mandarin to remind students to pay special attention when they listened to the tape. In line 63, the teacher spoke in English to indicate that he would like to remind students about something before they listened to the tape, and then he switched to Mandarin (see line 64) to state that he expected students to do an exercise afterwards. The teacher reverted to English to emphasize that students should pay attention to the tape. In line 67, the teacher switched to Mandarin to remind students that whilst they are listening to the tape, they should pay special attention. The teacher reverted to English again to emphasize 'pay special attention' and followed swiftly in Mandarin, 兩種字 · (**liang jhong zih**) <Two kinds of words>, to explain that there are two kinds of words. English was used after this to elaborate

the teacher's statement that 'students have to pay attention to two different kinds of word' (line 70-2).

Excerpt 25 (III-12-17-01, lines 63-72)

63 T: Right, 待會呢 (**dai huei ne**) <Later> before we listen to the tape^, before
64 we listen to the tape^, I would like to remind you, 我要呢各位做一個練習
65 hoh^, (**wuo yao ne ge wuei zuo yi ge lian sih**) <I want you to do an
66 exercise>. Pay attention^ pay attention^to these words, hoh^. 待會呢各位聽
67 這篇文章的時候呢, (**dai huei ne ge wuei ting jhe pian wen jhang de shih**
68 **hou ne**) <Later, when you listen to the tape> 特別注意 (**te bie jhu yi**) <pay
69 special attention to> pay special attention to 兩種字, (**liang jhong zih**) <Two
70 kinds of words> two kinds of words, the first one A or AN, the second one
71 THE OK^? When later on, when you listen to the tape^, I want you to pay
72 attention, pay special attention to these two words, A, or AN, or THE.

Regarding matters such as checking on the students' comprehension of the lesson, the teacher often asked for confirmation both in English and Mandarin. In Excerpt 26, having conducted a long discussion with regard to the textbook content, the teacher asked students whether they had any questions or not in English. He then switched to Mandarin to rephrase the previous English statement.

Excerpt 26 (III-9-24-01, lines 261-3)

261 T: 好 (**hao**) <OK.> Any questions to the .. this topic? OK, 對這個問題有沒
262 有什麼任何的問題啊 (**duei jhe ge wun ti you mei you she mo ren he de**
263 **wun ti ah**) <Do you have any questions for this topic?>

When students had queries regarding the teacher's instructions, they would turn to him for confirmation. In one instance, the student suspected that the teacher might have forgotten to discuss a particular section of the textbook. She then made a query to the teacher and the language used was Mandarin. Below is an excerpt of the

discourse between the teacher and Student 7.

Excerpt 27 (III-9-24-01, lines 481-98)

- 481 S7: 這還沒講 (**jhe hai mei jiiang**) <*We haven't talked about this.*>
482 T: What? 這還沒講 (**jhe hai mei jiiang**) <*We haven't talked about this?*>
483 S7: 對! 我們想說你不講 (**duei, wuo men siiang shuo ni bu jiiang**) <*Right,*
484 *we thought you were not going to talk about this.*>
485 T: 對 (**duei**) <*Right!*>
486 Ss: [Students are laughing.]
487 T: Oh, I mix that with the America. 我按例, 我這裡還沒講 (**wuo an li,**
488 **wuo jhe li hai mei jiiang**) <*I usually, I haven't talked about this yet.*>
489 S7: Mmm, how about ...
490 T: {但是我們有聽錄音帶嘛, 對不對? (**dan shih wuo men you ting lu yin**
491 **dai ma, duei bu duei?**) <*But, we have listened to the tape, right?*>
492 S7: 有 (**you**) <*Yes*>
493 T: 五到八是不是 (**wu dao ba shih bu shih**) <*From five to eight, isn't it?*>
494 OK. 好 (**hao**) <*OK*>, 那沒關係我們先那個我等一下再回來 (**na mei**
495 **guan sii wuo men siian na ge wuo deng yi siia zai huei lai**) <*That's all*
496 *right. We'll come back to that later.*>
497 S7: Oh!
498 T: 好不好 (**hao bu hao**) <*Is that all right?*>

Student 7 reminded the teacher in Mandarin that he had not discussed a particular section in the textbook (line 481). The teacher replied 'what?' and followed in Mandarin, 這還沒講 (**jhe hai mei jiiang**) <*We haven't talked about this?*>. The teacher's response in line 482 seems to imply that he thought he had discussed that section already and was surprised to hear that he had not. Student 7 then confirmed to the teacher in Mandarin (see line 483) that the students thought the teacher was not going to discuss that particular section. In line 485, the teacher replied in Mandarin, 對 (**duei**) <*Right!*>. The teacher then initiated his explanation in English, 'oh, I mix that with the America,' and switched to Mandarin (lines 487-88) to clarify why he had not talked about that section. Student 7 suggested to the teacher

in English, 'how about'. Before she finished her suggestion, the teacher interrupted her utterance and spoke in Mandarin (see lines 490-1) to tell the students that they had already listened to the tape. Student 7 confirmed in Mandarin, 有 (you) <Yes>. The teacher offered the alternative suggestion (in Mandarin) that he would talk about that particular section later to the student (lines 493-6), who then responded with 'oh'. The teacher negotiated with her in Mandarin, 好不好 (hao bu hao) <Is that all right?> (line 498), then walked away and continued checking on the other students' conversational practice.

The decision regarding which language should be used in classroom management seems to be an important yet challenging task for the language teacher. It is significant to note that the teacher always started a lesson in English to 'open' or 'warm up', then followed this in Mandarin to continue the lesson. Mandarin, on the other hand, was often adopted to end the lesson, even before a break and after the class had resumed. Excerpts 28, 29, 30 and 31 show how the teacher used languages to open and close classes and before or after a break.

In Excerpt 28, the teacher started the lesson in English and signalled that the lesson would begin on page 14 of the textbook. He then allowed one minute for students to review the text. In line 4, the teacher switched to Mandarin to rephrase his previous English messages. In the following lesson, after line 5, the teacher employed both English and Mandarin to talk around the textbook. Contextualising the lesson in English seems significant in this classroom.

Excerpt 28 (III-10-22-01, lines 1-5)

- 1 T: Right. Today, we'll continue our book on page 14, on page 14, right? And, I
2 give you one minute to review the text ...[The teacher is looking at his
3 textbook.] Hello. Right, let's come back. Right. As I said, we'll continue our
4 text on page 14. 今天呢 (jien tian ne) <Today> , 我們要從第 14 頁開始

5 (wuo men yao cuong di shih si ye kai shih) <We will start from page 14.>

In Excerpt 29, the teacher used only Mandarin to remind students that two more reading articles would be discussed after the break, and they would have a break shortly (lines 790-4). The teacher pointed out that if students had spare time in the break, they could consult a dictionary for any new vocabulary (lines 795-6). Then the teacher ended the first half of the lesson by reminding students that it would resume soon (line 798). As Excerpt 29 shows, Mandarin was employed entirely by the teacher to end the first part of the lesson.

Excerpt 29 (III-10-22-01, lines 790-9)

790 T: 待會呢 (dai hui ne) <Later> , 我們呢待會還有兩位 , (wuo men ne dai
791 hui hai you liang wuei) <Later we still have two people to know.> 有些
792 地方 , (you sie di fang) <Some places> 這個這個展開新生活的故事 hoh,
793 (jhe ge jhe ge jhang kai sin sheng huo de ku shih) <This this is about the
794 story of starting a new life.> 不過先讓各位休息一下 hoh (bu guo siang
795 ran ge wuei siou si yi sia) <You can take a break first> , 如果你有空呢
796 (ru guo ni you kong ne) <If you have time> , 你可以稍微瞄一下不認識的
797 單字 (ni ke yi shao wuei miao yi sia bu ren shih de dan zih) <You can
798 browse at the vocabulary that you don't understand.> 待會我們再回來。
799 (dai hui wuo men zai hui lai) <We'll come back to this later.>

Excerpt 30 shows that after the break, the lesson resumed and the teacher initiated this part of the lesson in English to confirm with students that the lesson would start soon. He further reminded students that two more reading articles needed to be discussed in English. In line 2, the teacher switched to Mandarin to remind students about what they had been doing before the break, and then he reverted to English to discuss the textbook content. In line 5, the teacher switched to Mandarin to point out that two more stories would be discussed.

Excerpt 30 (III-10-22-02, lines 1-6)

1 T: Right. OK^. Should we come back? Should we come back? There are two
2 more stories waiting for us. 剛才呢 (**gang cai ne**) <Just now> , 我們看到
3 (**wuo men kan dao**) <We read about> Mr. Solano, Mr. Solano, all right? We
4 knew that he came from Mexico, he came to the United States ten years ago.
5 start, started his new life, hoh^. 待會呢 (**dai huei ne**) <Later> , 還有兩段故
6 事 (**hai you liang duan gu shih**) <There are two more stories>.

In Excerpt 31, the teacher employed only Mandarin to confirm that students understood the three main characters of the articles they had just discussed (lines 592-5). He suggested to students in Mandarin (see lines 595-8) that they should review the lesson if they had concerns regarding the textbook content.

Excerpt 31 (III-10-22-02, lines 592-8)

592 T: 好 (**hao**) <OK> , 今天呢 (**jin tian ne**) <Today>這三位主角 , (**jhe san wei**
593 **jhu jiao**) <These three people> 關於美國生活的主角 (**guan yu mei guo**
594 **sheng huo de jhu jiao**) <About these three people's life in America> , 有沒有
595 問題 ? (**you mei you wen ti**) <Do you have any questions?> (??) 有不懂的
596 地方呢 (**you bu dong de di fang ne**) <Something you don't understand?>
597 希望你回家可以複習一下 (**si wuang ni huei jia ke yi fu si yi sia**) <I hope
598 you can review it at home.> OK? [Class dismissed].

In short, Excerpt 28 shows the opening of a class, initiated in English. Excerpt 29 shows the ending of the first lesson, which was concluded in Mandarin. By the same token, in Excerpt 30, the teacher initiated the lesson in English after the break and in Excerpt 31, the teacher used Mandarin to end the lesson and to assign homework.

It is interesting to note that when the teacher made requests to individual students, he used both English and Mandarin to speak to female students or students who were more proficient speakers of English. In an informal chat, the teacher

confirmed with me that he would prefer to employ English to communicate with students who are more confident in the language but when he is dealing with students who have lower English proficiency, especially male students, he has to use more Mandarin than English. However, there are several male students who are more proficient speaker of English in this classroom. When the teacher was appealing to these students for responses, he would use English. The teacher felt that it was better to ask questions both in English and Mandarin to female students and to use Mandarin to most of the male students based on his teaching experience that male students are not very keen to learn English if a teacher pushes them too hard. Excerpt 32 below demonstrates the teacher's language use when he was calling on a female student and Excerpt 33 shows that the teacher appointed a male student to perform certain tasks.

Excerpt 32 (III-9-24-01, lines 337-42)

337 T: OK .. 陳沛君 (**chen pei jiyun**) <*Chen Pei Jiyun*> [The teacher is calling on
 338 one student.] OK! Give me an example of a sentence in future tense. OK, 找
 339 出一句 (**jhao chu yi jiyu**) <*Look for one sentence*> , 然後呢跟大家講說這
 340 個句子呢是未來式的句子 (**ran hou ne gen da jia shuo jhe ge jiyu zih ne**
 341 **shih wei lai shih de jiyu zih**) <*Then tell everyone this sentence is in future*
 342 *tense*>.

The excerpt above shows that the teacher nominated the female student by using a Chinese name and made a request in English, 'give me an example of a sentence in future tense', then switched to Mandarin (see lines 338-42). The student then read aloud one sentence from the textbook.

Excerpt 33 (III-9-24-01, lines 373-80)

373 T: 劉承光 (**liu cheng guang**) <*Liu Cheng Guang*> [The teacher is calling on

374 a student.]
 375 T: OK, Could you give me an example of a sentence in past tense?
 376 S3: [No response. It seems that the student doesn't understand the teacher's
 377 request.]
 378 T: 給我一個過去式句子的這個 example 嗎 (gei wuo yi ge guo ciyu shih jiyu
 379 zih de jhe ge example ma) <Could you give me an example sentence in the
 380 past tense?>

The teacher nominated the male student by using his Chinese name and made a request in English in line 375. The student looked puzzled and did not respond to the teacher. The teacher then asked the same question in Mandarin with one English word, 'example', embedded in his utterance: '給我一個過去式句子的這個 example 嗎 (gei wuo yi ge guo ciyu shih jiyu zih de jhe ge example ma) <Could you give me an example sentence in the past tense?>'. The student then read aloud one sentence from the textbook. It is noticed that the English word 'example' is often used in Mandarin utterances among Taiwanese speakers.

Apart from what we have discussed, when the teacher was not satisfied with the students' performance, he employed Mandarin to make his commands for classroom management. In Excerpt 34, during one of the teacher-student joint chorus reading performances, the students' voices were fading; the teacher employed Mandarin to request the students to speak louder.

Excerpt 34 (III-11-26-01, lines 261-4)

261 T: OK^? 大聲一點, (da sheng yi dian) <Louder> 我都沒有聽到。(wuo dou
 262 mei you ting dao) <I can't hear you.> 你們要喊大聲一點哦。(ni men yao
 263 han da sheng yi dian oh) <Speak louder.> Sentence No. 4. "I took a shower
 264 I washed my hair."

In Excerpt 34, the teacher employed Mandarin to ask students to read louder

(line 261) when reading sentences from the textbook. He then claimed in Mandarin, 我都沒有聽到。 (**wuo dou mei you ting dao**) <*I can't hear you.*>, that he could not hear students' voices. The teacher reminded students to speak louder in Mandarin (line 262). Subsequently, the teacher read a sentence from the textbook for students to follow. The teacher often used Mandarin, 大聲一點 (**da sheng yi dian**) <*Louder*>, to ask students to speak louder.

As I mentioned earlier, that the teacher expressed his concerns about the students' learning attitudes to me several times whilst I was conducting the observations in his class. He thought students were not enthusiastic about his teaching and he sometimes felt frustrated about it. Excerpt 35 shows one example of the teacher indicating that he believed students were not keen to participate in the lesson; thus he used Mandarin to negotiate with students and hoped that they would feel more relaxed in the classroom as a result.

Excerpt 35 (III-9-24-01, lines 499-55)

499 T: OK, When we come back .. 不知道是不是各位太用功還是怎麼樣了 (**bu**
500 **jhih dao shih bu shih ge wei tai yong gong le hai shih zen mo yang le**) <*I*
501 *don't know if all of you are too concentrating on the lecture or what*> ho ?
502 上課的時候這個氣氛也非常凝重 (**shang ke de shih hou jhe ge cii fen ye**
503 **fei chang ning zhong**) <*The atmosphere of this lesson is very quiet.*> ho,
504 大家放輕鬆一點 (**da jia fang ciing song yi dian**) <*Relax yourselves a*
505 *little*>.

In the excerpt above, the teacher used English, 'when we come back', to commence the lesson after a break. After a few seconds, he felt that the classroom atmosphere was too serious. Therefore, he switched to Mandarin to try to refresh the classroom atmosphere. The Mandarin in lines 499-501 can be interpreted as 'a play on words', suggesting that the teacher was trying to gain the students' attention. The

teacher expressed that he felt the classroom atmosphere was too serious in Mandarin (lines 502-3) and he further suggested to the students in Mandarin to feel relaxed in the classroom. After line 504, the teacher reverted to English to continue the lesson.

There is evidence that whilst the teacher requested students to do the ‘finding the answers’ task, to avoid doing the exercise, students would turn to the teacher and asked for the answers. In Excerpt 36, Student 8 asked the teacher to offer him the answer for the ‘fill-in-the-blanks’ exercise that they were engaging in. The teacher asked him in Mandarin, 你要聽哪一個大題 (**ni yao ting na yi ge da ti**) <Which section do you want to listen to?> (line 551), to check which section the student needed the answer for. The student did not comprehend the teacher’s message and responded with a question ‘Ha?’. The teacher repeated his statement in line 554. Student 8 replied to the teacher in Mandarin that he did not know what he wants. The teacher followed his response and queried the student by saying, ‘you don’t know’ in Mandarin (see line 557) and asked him in Mandarin to provide him with all the answers. The student replied in Mandarin, 所有的 (**suo you de**) <All>, to indicate that he wanted all the answers. In line 559, the teacher used Mandarin to indicate that it was not appropriate to give all the answers to the student. Student 8 replied, 不會 (**bu hui**) <I don’t think so>, to show that he did not think it was inappropriate. The teacher replied to Student 8 also in Mandarin, 自己看著辦 (**zih jii kan jhe ban**) <You decide it by yourself> (line 563), to suggest Student 8 should manage himself to find the answer. From my observation, it seemed that the teacher became annoyed at the end of the discussion with Student 8 and had an irritated look on his face when he said the last sentence with an arbitrary tone to the student. Thus, the last sentence the teacher said (in line 563) may seem to show that the teacher was demonstrating his authority as of the person who made the decision and had a control of the class.

Excerpt 36 (III-9-24-01, lines 551-63)

- 551 T: 你要聽哪一個大題 (ni yao ting na yi ge da ti) <Which section do you
552 want to listen to?>
553 S8: Hah?
554 T: 你要聽哪一個大題 (ni yao ting na yi ge da ti) <Which section do you
555 want to listen to?>
556 S8: 不知道 (bu jhih dao) <I don't know.>
557 T: 不知道 (bu jhih dao) <You don't know.> 所有的? (suo you de) <All?>
558 S8: 所有的 (suo you de) <All> (??)
559 T: 不要 (bu yao) <No.> 這樣不好 (jhe yang bu hao) <This is not good.>
560 S8: Hah?
561 T: 這樣不好 (jhe yang bu hao) <This is not good.>
562 S8: 不會 (bu huei) <I don't think so> (??)
563 T: 自己看著辦 (zih jii kan jhe ban) <You decide it by yourself.>

Having examined code-switching for classroom instruction and management, the next section will explore code-switching for building solidarity in the classroom.

8.3.2 Code-switching for Establishing Solidarity in the Classroom

The way people talk to each other and the languages they use determine the solidarity in the language classroom. In this classroom, it is interesting to note that languages used for building such relationships of solidarity between the teacher and the students and amongst students themselves were Mandarin and Taiwanese. For example, when students were engaging in pair/ group discussion, the teacher always walked around the classroom and sometimes chatted with students, and the conversation was mostly in Mandarin and sometimes in Taiwanese. The following three excerpts show how the teacher and students used Taiwanese to interact.

Compared to Mandarin, Taiwanese is rarely used in academic situations. In excerpt 37, the teacher was questioning student 3 with regard to what he was writing

on his paper, since he had requested students to write down five things that remind them of America. Instead of asking the student “what is it” in English, the teacher used Mandarin, 這是什麼？ (**jhe shih she me**) <What's this?>. Student 3 replied “NBA ya” in an amusing voice. In line 161, the student used Taiwanese to ask the teacher if he knew what the NBA was. The teacher confirmed that he did and then mocked the student in Mandarin about going to America to watch a game. Subsequently, the teacher took advantage of an opportunity to see if the student could name other American sports in abbreviated terms. Using both Mandarin and Taiwanese for informal communication helps to break down the boundary to a certain or limited extent between the teacher and the student. In line 185, the student jokingly tested the teacher’s English. The teacher ended the conversation in Taiwanese by saying 你哩？ (**li le**) <Hey, you>, then walked away and checked on other students.

Excerpt 37 (III-10-22-01, lines 158-186)

- 158 T: Hello^. ... 這是什麼？ (**jhe shih she me**) <What's this?>
 159 S3: NBA ya.
 160 T: {NBA^, huh^?
 161 S3: 老師 (**lao shih**) <Teacher> , 你不知影 NBA 是啥？ (**ni eng zai yang**
 162 **NBA sih sian**) <You don't know what NBA is?>
 163 T: 我知道 (**wuo jhih dao**) <I know it.>
 164 S3: 你知道？ (**ni jhih dao**) <You know it?>
 165 T: 你要去嘛 (**ni yao ciyu ma**) <Are you going?>
 166 S3: {Laughter} 我才不去哩。 (**wuo cai bu ciyu le**) <I don't want to go.>
 167 T: {Laughter} (??) [Turn-taking between the teacher and the student.] NS
 168 male 這是什麼？ (**jhe shih she me**) <What's this?>
 169 S3: 美國足球。 (**mei guo zu ciou**) <American soccer>
 170 T: Oh, NHL?
 171 S3: 曲棍球。 (**ciyu guen ciou**) <Hockey>
 172 T: Oh, NC, double A?
 173 S3: 美國女子籃球。 (**mei guo niyu zih lan ciou**) <American woman

174 *basketball*>
 175 T: WNBA?
 176 S3: 女子職業籃球。(nyu zih jhih yie lan ciou) <Women Basketball.>
 177 T: {Laughter}拼錯了啦！(pien cuo le la) <You spelled it wrong.>
 178 S3: 啊 yo, 知道就好，我現在在想 Spiderman. (??) (a you, jhih dao jiou
 179 hao, wuo sian zai zai siang Spiderman) <That's OK. You know it. I'm
 180 thinking about writing Spiderman now.>
 181 T: (??) 有嗎？(you ma) <Yes?>
 182 S3: 有啊。(you ah) <Yes.>
 183 T: BAT 啦。(la) <La.>
 184 S3: 我再考你英文，好不好？(wuo zai kao ni yeng wen, hao bu hao) <Can I
 185 continue to test you some English?>
 186 T: 啊 (ah) <Ah>，你哩？(li le) <Hey, you>

The Excerpt above seems to suggest that the teacher replied in Taiwanese (line 186) in order to 'save face': to avoid making mistakes; the teacher ended the conversation in Taiwanese.

Whilst students were engaging in another group discussion, the teacher was walking around the classroom to check on the students' practice and offer his help when it was needed. In Excerpt 38, lines 651-4, the teacher used Mandarin to ask a particular group of students who their group members were. Student 13 replied in Taiwanese, 我不會講 (wuo mei heao gung) <I don't know how to say it>, to show that he did not know how to express the sentence in English. The teacher replied in a doubtful tone, 'ha'. Student 13 repeated his statement in Taiwanese (line 657). The teacher then responded in Mandarin, 不知道對不對 (bu jhih dao duei bu duei) <You don't know, right?>, to reprimand Student 13 with a distrustful voice tone. Student 14 then said to the teacher that Student 13 had said something in the conversational practice: '有啊有啊 (you ah you ah) <Yes, yes.> 他有說 (ta you shuo) <He did say something.> (line 659). Student 14's Mandarin statement seems to suggest that he was trying to mitigate the tension between the teacher and Student

Excerpt 38 (III-9-24-01, lines 651-61)

- 651 T: 你的夥伴是誰 (**ni de huo ban shih shei**) <Who is your partner?> 你的
 652 夥伴就是他哦 (**ni de huo ban jiiou shih ta oh**) <He is your partner, oh?>
 653 三個一組哦(**san ge yi zu oh**) <Three in a group?> OK. What did he do last
 654 night?
 655 S13: 我不會講 (**wuo mei heao gung**) <I don't know how to say it>.
 656 T: Ha?
 657 S13: 我不會講 (**wuo mei heao gung**) <I don't know how to say it>.
 658 T: 不知道對不對 (**bu jhih dao duei bu duei**) <You don't know, right?>
 659 S14: 有啊有啊 (**you ah you ah**) <Yes, yes>. 他有說 (**ta you shuo**) <He did
 660 say something.>
 661 T: 他有說哦 (**ta you shuo oh**) <He did, oh?> What did he do?

In one event, the teacher asked Student 9 where his partner was in English. The student replied in both English and Taiwanese: 'He is 落跑 (**lao pao**) <Run away>'. The teacher then repeated Student 8's sentence and responded 'OK' in Mandarin, 好吧 (**hao ba**) <OK.> (Excerpt 39, line 569). The teacher walked away and continued to check on other students. The Taiwanese used in Excerpt 39 is a proverb and is used to describe someone who is trying to escape from a place or to escape from doing certain tasks.

Excerpt 39 (III-9-24-01, lines 567-9)

- 567 T: Where is he?
 568 S9: He is 落跑 (**lao pao**) <Run away>.
 569 T: He is 落跑 (**lao pao**) <Run away> ho[^]. 好吧 (**hao ba**) <OK.>

The predominantly used language amongst students was Mandarin, though Taiwanese was also used. In one event, whilst the teacher was rewinding a tape,

students discussed a section in their workbook, which required them to listen to the audiotape in order to complete the answers. One student suggested that they should not tell the teacher what they had found out from the workbook. However, another student claimed that if they did not get the answers from the teacher, they could not ensure their answers were correct. The example is given in Excerpt 40.

Excerpt 40 (III-01-07-01, lines 364-73)

- 364 S13: 我發現它裡面有一些單字是要聽錄音帶聽克漏字的, (**wuo fa sian ta li**
365 **mian you yi sie dan zih shih yao ting lu yin dai ting ke lou zih de**) <*I*
366 *found there is some vocabulary that needs to be listened to from the*
367 *cassette for the cloze test.*> 有那個部分嗎? (**you na ge bu fen ma**) <*Do*
368 *we have that section?*>
369 Ss: {Laughter}
370 S14: 你不要跟老師講哦。(**ni bu yao gen lao shih jiang oh**) <*Just don't tell*
371 *the teacher*>.
372 S13: 沒有批改怎麼知道它是對還錯啊? (**mei you pi gai zen me jhih dao ta**
373 **shih duei hai shih cou ah**) <*How do you know it's right or wrong without*
374 *correcting it?*>

Student 13 told other students in Mandarin that she had found one section in the workbook that required listening to the audiotape (line 364). She was not so sure about it, so she asked other students in Mandarin, 有那個部分嗎? (**you na ge bu fen ma**) <*Do we have that section?*> (line 367), to confirm her query. Students who sat near her all laughed and one student said in Mandarin, 你不要跟老師講哦。(**ni bu yao gen lao shih jiang oh**) <*Just don't tell the teacher*>. Student 13 replied to student 14 in Mandarin that they could not ensure that their answers were correct if they did not get the correct answers from the teacher (line 372). Mandarin used here seems to serve the function of enabling friendship and collaboration between students.

Indeed, from my five visits to the class, students always found a niche to chat to each other whenever they had the chance, such as when the teacher was writing on the board or rewinding the tape. They only became quiet when the teacher was speaking English or giving Mandarin explanation or translation in order to unlock meanings from the English textbook.

8.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The natural talk in this class was a mixture of Mandarin, English and Taiwanese. The teacher talked most frequently in lessons and Mandarin played a significant role in his conversation. The talk around the textbook revealed that the teacher switched codes in IRF format, chorusing and to explain linguistic forms. The teacher often used Mandarin to elaborate and annotate the textbook content and provide cultural contextual information. Significantly, the teacher always started the lesson in English and ended it in Mandarin. When conducting textbook-related activities, such as pair or group conversational practice, Mandarin was used rather than English by both the teacher and students. It was also found that when managing the classroom, Mandarin was often used. For establishing solidarity in classrooms, Mandarin and Taiwanese were used. On certain occasions, the teacher and students used Taiwanese to show their solidarity.

In summary, the findings found in this classroom seem to indicate that English is the legitimate classroom language. Mandarin plays a multifunctional role in the classroom, and is used for translation, elaboration, explanation and annotation. Taiwanese serves as a code for building solidarity between the teacher and the learners. The critical discussion of these findings is in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 9

DISCUSSION CONCERNING CODE-SWITCHING IN TWO TAIWANESE UNIVERSITY ENGLISH CLASSROOMS: FUNCTIONS AND ATTITUDES

9.1 INTRODUCTION

To respond to the regulations regarding the English-only policy and the use of local languages in English classrooms in Taiwan, it is essential to explore the nature of classroom talk. The previous chapters provided a glimpse of the discourse in two classrooms. The focus of this chapter is to highlight and discuss the major findings of Chapters 6, 7, and 8 and incorporate informants' views regarding the use of code-switching in university-level English classrooms. The chapter comprises three parts and the discussion in each part is aimed to address the research questions of the present study. The first part starts with a discussion of code-switching in the classroom. The patterns (IRF format and chorusing) and functions of code-switching are evaluated in detail. The second part focuses on a discussion on participants' attitudes towards code-switching in their classroom. The third part offers a critical view of the potential synergy of using more than one language to teach English. The chapter ends with a brief summary.

9.2 THE USE OF LANGUAGES TO FACILITATE INTERACTION WITH MONOLINGUAL ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS

To answer the research question regarding how the monolingual English textbook is embedded in bilingual or multilingual interaction in classrooms, the study has found that teachers and learners switched codes in classroom discourse. This included talk around the monolingual textbooks.

Prior to conducting the observation in the classrooms, I consulted both teachers regarding the use of languages in their teaching in order to gain some basic idea of what to look for in their classes. Teacher A stated that in her previous teaching she often used Mandarin to facilitate her teaching. Teacher B claimed that he rarely uses Mandarin in his English teaching. Surprisingly, from my observations, and as the transcripts reveal, Teacher B employed a great deal of Mandarin to assist his teaching, and even some Taiwanese when interacting with students individually. Teacher A seemed to refrain from using much Mandarin in the classroom. This assumption was confirmed in the teacher interview.

A number of prominent features emerged from the observational data. Firstly, the switching between codes between the teacher and students are grouped into two categories, the IRF format and chorusing. Secondly, code-switching serves in the teaching of linguistic forms and the annotation of cultural issues. I will now discuss these features in detail alongside some of the data that emerged from the interviews, questionnaire and field notes in the following sub-sections.

9.2.1 Two Patterns of Code-switching: IRF Format and Chorusing

Classroom discourse between the teacher and the students can be grouped into two categories, the IRF format and chorusing. The findings and examples for these patterns are provided in Chapters 7 and 8 respectively. To begin with, I will now provide two sets of IRF formats from Classrooms A and B, examined in previous two chapters.

In Classroom A, the four main IRF formats are:

- (1) I (English), R (English), F (English)
- (2) I (English), R (Mandarin), F (English)
- (3) I (English/ Mandarin/ English), R (Mandarin), F (Mandarin/ English)
- (4) I (Mandarin/ English/ Mandarin), R (English), F (English/ Mandarin/ English)

In Classroom B, the five foremost IRF formats are:

- (1) I (English), R (English) and F (English)
- (2) I (English/ Mandarin), R (Mandarin) and F (Mandarin)
- (3) I (English/ Mandarin), R (English) and F (English)
- (4) I (English/ Mandarin/ English/ Mandarin/ English), R (English) and F (English)
- (5) I (Mandarin), R (Mandarin) and F (Mandarin).

It is significant to note that the four sets of IRF formats found in Classroom A and five sets found in Classroom B served similar functions. For example, when

explaining the textbook contents (particularly for lexical items or sentence patterns), the 'I (English), R (English) and F (English) format' was used in both classrooms. When there was a need to translate, elaborate, explain or annotate certain texts (for example introducing linguistic forms, grammatical rules, reading articles or cultural content in the textbook), two codes are used interchangeably. However, it is noticed that the 'I (Mandarin), R (Mandarin) and F (Mandarin) format' only occurred once in Classroom A, when the teacher was discussing the seating arrangement with three students. Having discussed the types of IRF formats above, it can be seen that the use of code-switching occurred in both English classrooms.

Another prominent language pattern used in both classrooms is chorusing. It was found that both teachers conducted choral performances particularly after introducing new lexical items and sentence patterns from the textbooks. By orchestrating joint choral reading performances, the teachers could ensure that students knew how to pronounce the words or sentences in the textbook. In doing so, it seems that the teachers fulfilled their duty of teaching the lessons, and the students seemed to be learning English by speaking it in chorus.

Martin (1999b) found that in his study in Brunei bilingual classrooms students engaged in "synchronised (and collusive) chorusing behaviour" (p.54). Martin noted (after Chick, 1996) that this is one of the "safe" techniques used by teachers in the language classroom: teachers and students are seen to be "doing" the lesson (Martin, 1999b, p.54). I would suggest a similar phenomenon occurred in the current study. By conducting the synchronised choral reading performance, the teachers made it look easier for students to practise speaking English. Likewise, the teachers could ensure students save face if they were unsure how to pronounce the words.

In the teacher interview, Teacher A pointed out one important reason as to why students are afraid to speak English in the classroom, the issue of 'saving face'.

Instead of using English, students use Mandarin as a ‘safe’ language, allowing them to avoid embarrassment in front of the teacher and their peers. In echoing Teacher A’s comment about ‘saving face’ and ‘safe-talk’, Teacher B also stated in the interview that some students would rather speak Mandarin than English in class due to the pressure of speaking English in front of their peers. He further explained that students tended to think that those who speak English well would be favoured by teachers; hence, those who did not speak English well in class would feel embarrassed and under a lot of pressure.

However, the risks regarding chorusing should not be neglected. Students who can read aloud from the textbook or repeat after the teachers do not necessarily prove that they understand a lesson. In some incidents after the chorusing, when the teachers turned to individual students for conversational practice, some students could not manage to put what they had just learnt into practice.

In addition to the functions of chorusing found in both classrooms, the languages used whilst conducting such performances need to be discussed. As reported both in Chapters 7 and 8, the data has shown that chorusing always takes place when the teachers review the lexical items or sentence patterns from the textbooks with the students in both classrooms. In Classroom A, Teacher A used either English (e.g. ‘repeat after me’) or Mandarin (e.g. 我們唸一次 (**wuo men nian yi cih**) <Let’s say it again>) to invite students to perform joint choral reading. In Classroom B, Teacher B employed both English and Mandarin (跟我一起唸一次 (**gen wuo yi ciyi nian yi cih**) <Repeat after me> to invite the students to participate in chorusing. Hence, it seems that the English imperative command ‘repeat after me’ and Mandarin ‘唸一次 (**nian yi cih**) <say it again>’ are two important phrases, part of a classroom metalanguage for eliciting chorused responses.

Having discussed the IRF format and chorusing, I will now illustrate the use of

code-switching to explain the linguistic forms.

9.2.2 Code-switching to Explain Linguistic Forms

As I have stated in Chapter 7, the term ‘linguistic forms’ in this study refers to the lexical and grammatical characteristics of linguistic units, such as lexemes, nouns, sentences and grammatical rules. It is found that both teachers in the study employ Mandarin extensively when explaining lexical items, noun phrases, and grammatical rules. In teaching lexical items, for example, Teacher A asked ‘what does ‘talented’ mean. The students replied in Mandarin, 有才氣 (you cai ci) <Talented>. The teacher confirmed, Yes, 有才氣, (you cai ci) <Talented> 有才氣。 (you cai ci) <Talented>. In Classroom B, Teacher B used both English and Mandarin to describe the lexical items. For instance, when introducing the word ‘huge’, the teacher said the word in English and followed this with a Mandarin translation, 巨大的 (jiu da de) <Huge>, then reverted to English ‘huge’.

When interviewed, Teacher B stated that when teaching a new vocabulary item, he would switch to Mandarin to explain it; and if there was no equivalent meaning between Mandarin and English, he would utilize more Mandarin to give explicit description of the item.

The results of the questionnaire survey also reveal that 78.5% of respondents agreed that it is useful if a teacher uses Mandarin to teach new vocabulary. Yet, when asked about the usefulness of using Taiwanese to teach new English vocabulary, 67.3% of respondents did not find it useful. Results presented in Chapter 6 show that there is a difference in attitude amongst student participants towards the use of Mandarin and Taiwanese in English lessons. This issue will be discussed later, in section 10.3.2.

When teaching English phrases, both teachers tended to switch from English to Mandarin or vice versa to annotate the meaning of an English phrase. For example, in classroom B, when a student asked the teacher ‘what does ‘very friendly’ mean?’ Teacher B offered the Mandarin translation, 很有善的 (**hen you shan de**) <Very friendly>, and repeated the English phrase ‘very friendly’. Similar examples are also found in Classroom A. When describing the noun phrase ‘big cat’, Teacher A initiated her utterance in English and exemplified by saying ‘because Chinese say 大野貓 (**da ye mao**) <big wild cat> Big cats’.

There are occasions in the data where it was impossible to provide one-to-one translations for English phrases, so English was employed. For example, Teacher A could not find the equivalent Mandarin meaning to explain the phrase of ‘a bunch of’, so she used English and accompanied it by drawing on the board to teach the term. However, after the teacher’s explanation, it seemed that it was still problematic for the students to understand the phrase, the teacher then offered a Mandarin translation, 一串 (**yi chuan**) <A string> 就是 (**jiou shih**) <is > a bunch.

It is interesting to note that during the teacher interview, Teacher A stated a problem that she had encountered when she was teaching the phrase ‘a bunch of’. She could not find the equivalent meaning when she was discussing that phrase. At the end of the discussion, she had to draw and offer a loosely equivalent Mandarin translation of the phrase to the students.

In teaching grammatical rules, both teachers mainly used Mandarin for explanation and annotation. Both teachers tended to initiate the grammatical points in English and follow up with Mandarin to either elaborate or annotate grammatical rules. For example, in Classroom A, when the teacher was teaching the verb tense, she initiated the utterance in English ‘[a]m. Is, are, am are BE verbs, right? OK, now, yesterday, play, played, playED. We put -ed. So, she played the piano yesterday. So,

we put ED or irregular verbs.’ Subsequently she switched to Mandarin and explained ‘過去式有兩種動詞,一種是規則的,加ed的, right? (**guo ciyu shih you liang zhong dong ci, yi zhong shih jia ed de, right?**) <There are two types of verbs for past tense, one is regular, use -ed.>. 另外一種,就是不規則變化動詞 (**ling wai yi zhong, jiou shih bu guei ze bian hua dong ci**) <The other one is irregular>.

Another example of the use of code-switching to explain grammatical rules in Classroom B is provided below. In the excerpt, the teacher was reminding the students’ not to forget to add ‘s’ at the end of the verb ‘walk’.

Excerpt [1] (III-10-22-02, lines 153-60)

153 T: “Nobody walks anywhere.” Nobody WALKS, 這裡呢, (**jhe li ne**)
 154 <Here> 沒有人走路的, (**mei you ren zou lu de**) <Nobody walks.> hoh^.
 155 記的 (**ji de**) <Remember> NOBODY WALKS. 注意哦, (**jhu yi oh**) <be
 156 aware> nobody 是要單數 (**shih yao dan shu**) <Is singular>, 所以它動詞
 157 呢, WALK 要加 S (**suo yi ta dong ci ne walk yao jia s**) <add s in the end
 158 of the verb, walk>, nobody walks, 記住哦 (**ji jhu o**) <Remember it> ,
 159 nobody, 把它看做是 HE 或是 SHE hoh^, (**ba ta kan zuo shih he hu shih**
 160 she) <Consider it as He or She>.

In Lin’s 1990 study in teaching two tongues in foreign language classrooms in Hong Kong, she commented that the teacher always presented grammatical points in English and followed with an explanation in Cantonese, then reiterated in English. Lin further stated that in order to ensure that students had understood the teacher’s explanation, the teacher reiterated and elaborated the grammar ‘in L1 between the L2 initial and final presentations (the L2-L1-L2 sequence)’ (p.116). These statements may be used to explain why both teachers prefer to present grammatical points in English first and follow with explanation in Mandarin, and sometimes reiterate in English again at the final presentation. In doing so, the teachers fulfil the duty of

‘using English to teach English’ (the requirement from the department which I have stated in Chapter 1) and by using Mandarin to ensure that students can understand the teaching points.

It is interesting to note that in the teacher interview, Teacher A commented that she preferred using Mandarin to teach English grammar for the reasons of ‘saving time’ and effectiveness. She explained that due to the limited lecture time, it is too troublesome to employ a lot of English to explain a single English grammatical rule. Therefore she always uses Mandarin when encountering rules of grammar. In doing so, she would merely need to use a few Mandarin sentences to explain a single grammatical point. Based on the students’ performances, Teacher A believed that students understand better and faster when she employed Mandarin to elaborate English grammatical points. Teacher A’s comment is provided below.

Excerpt 2

If the question is related to grammar, I think I’d prefer to use Chinese for explanation. It’s faster. Yet, it depends on the teaching situation. However, I think I often use Chinese when encountering grammatical explanation.

TA: 623-5

In addition, results from the questionnaire survey have shown a significant percentage (94.4%) of student respondents agreed that it is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to explain grammar. Thirty-eight percent of respondents agreed that using Taiwanese to explain grammar is helpful.

Both teachers in the interview claimed it was important to use Chinese to save time in the lesson not only for teaching grammatical rules, but also to explain cultural issues. They believed that instead of giving long English explanations for particular English words, phrases or sentences, offering Mandarin explanations is more

effective.

The two extracts provided below indicate that both teachers said they used Mandarin to avoid the need to give long English explanations. It is noticed that in the underlined words or phrases are the English words or phrases used by the interviewee. The two teachers believed that by switching between English and Mandarin, they could effectively deliver their message to students by saving the time needed to give long explanations and it also enables them to demonstrate their roles as ‘bilingual English teachers’ (c.f. Lin, 1990, p.115).

Excerpt 3

I hope I can use English only in my classroom, but it seems that using Chinese to explain some textbook contents is faster. In order to save time and catch up the lesson, if I use English only, I will have to explain the content of the textbook for a long time in order to make students understand.

TA: 55-8

Excerpt 4

If students can't understand 100% of the textbook context and the meaning of each word, I have to use Chinese to facilitate my teaching. But it also depends on students' English levels. If there is a wide range level of students in a same classroom, I've got to find some other expressions to match my explanation in order to make them understand the English meaning. Comparing with writing many English words on the board, using Chinese is more effective.

TB: 65-70

Besides using Mandarin to save time in teaching, it is also used by both teachers when introducing cultural issues. It was confirmed by both teachers that utilizing Mandarin to elaborate cultural issues not only saved time, but also made the teaching and learning easier in the lessons. It is interesting to note that Teacher B claimed he rarely used Mandarin in his teaching at my first contact with him prior to the conduction of the observations. However, as the transcripts reveal, he used Mandarin

frequently in his lessons.

9.2.3 Code-switching to Explain the Cultural Content of Textbooks

Both teachers switched to Mandarin to elaborate or annotate cultural contents in textbooks. Examples regarding how these two teachers code-switched to elaborate upon cultural issues are provided in Chapters 7 and 8 respectively.

The results from the teacher interviews suggest that both teachers switched to Mandarin when encountering difficult contexts such as ‘cultural’ ones. Cultural matters become an issue for both teachers when, for example, an article is about an English speaker’s lifestyle, religion or belief. In the interview, when asked about the effects of using English in their English teaching, Teacher B stated that when he encounters cultural issues in a textbook, it is difficult for students to understand them if they use only the monolingual English textbook. He subsequently explained that he has to give extra information to explain every cultural issue in the textbook. Teacher B’s comment is provided in Excerpt 5 below.

Excerpt 5

English textbooks that contain cultural contexts are difficult for students to understand and couldn’t arouse students’ interest in learning English. ... If the teacher does not introduce the culture background of the article, students will not appreciate it or may have no idea about the story and the origin of it.

TB: 10-3

It was noticeable following five observations in the classroom that the teacher consistently used English to introduce the reading article (these reading articles are

mostly related to cultural issues), then explained it in Mandarin and ended the discussion both in Mandarin and English.

On one instance during my observations in one of the English level III classes, the teacher introduced ‘the Statue of Liberty’ in New York. In order to make students understand the socio-cultural background of this monument, the teacher diverted the dialogue away from the textbook and provided a long explanation on the historical background of the statue. An excerpt from that lesson is presented in Chapter 8.

Results from the student questionnaire survey show that 95.3% of respondents agreed that using Mandarin to explain difficult content (including cultural content) in the textbook is helpful. In contrast, only 34% of respondents agreed that using Taiwanese to explain difficult content is helpful.

The discussion from the interviews, transcripts and questionnaire seems to suggest that the use of Mandarin is helpful for students when cultural issues are taught. It is often said that cultural issues are reflected in language. Teaching cultural issues in EFL classrooms is beneficial to language learners not only because they become familiar with the topic itself and gain knowledge of other cultures, but also because they have an opportunity to practise English language skills.

Having discussed code-switching for talk around the textbook, I will now illustrate how code-switching played a role in classroom metalanguage in the study.

9.3 CODE-SWITCHING FOR CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The findings that emerged from the data, particularly from the classroom transcripts, show that both teachers switched codes when dealing with classroom management. The students collectively followed the teachers’ instructions when the

teachers switched codes. In this section, code-switching for classroom management is discussed in detail.

Since English, Mandarin and occasionally Taiwanese were used in these two classrooms, in addition to exploring the use of more than one language to talk about the textbook, it is also important to examine the use of languages to give classroom instructions and for management. The findings show that both teachers used more than one language when directing students to engage in tasks (how to engage in pair or group discussions or assigning homework) and regulating a student's behaviour.

At one time in Classroom A, students were engaging in the pair conversation practice, and some had to rearrange the tables and chairs in order to sit with their partners. The teacher was trying to make a suggestion about the table arrangement to the students, and in doing so she used Mandarin and a single Taiwanese word (橋 (*ciao*) <move>). According to my field notes, these students spent quite a length of time arranging the tables and the teacher was annoyed by the noise the students made. Therefore, she approached these students and gave suggestions and instructions about table arrangement and also told students to engage in the pair conversation practice immediately. The teacher's use of Mandarin seems to demonstrate her authority as the decision maker, as Mandarin is used in pedagogical contents.

In another example from Classroom A, the teacher employed both English and Mandarin to indicate which page of the textbook she wanted the students to turn to. An example is provided in the following excerpt.

Excerpt [6] (II-01-09, lines 761-6)

761 T: Great. OK. So, I say Linda is very nice. And you must say, I agree. She is the
762 nicest girl in the neighbourhood. 來(lai) <OK> Turn to page 53. 五十三頁
763 的 Q&A, (wu shih san yie de *Q & A*) <*The Q&A on page 53.*> 有沒有看
764 到? (you mei you kan dao) <*Do you see that?*> Q&A, 有沒有看到那一大

765 題 ? (**you mei you kan dao na yi da ti**) <Do you see that part?>

766 Ss: 有 。 (**you**) <Yes>

In Teacher B's classroom, Mandarin was used to instruct students and to obtain their attention. As I have mentioned previously in Chapter 8, Teacher B was very concerned about his students' lack of interest in learning English. As confirmed by the teacher, in order to arouse the students' interests in his lesson, the teacher used Mandarin to give certain instructions and to gain the students' attention. For example, in one of the lessons students partook in a fill-in-the-blank exercise in the textbook, which required students to listen to the tape in order to complete the task. The teacher initiated in English 'now we are reading a tape script on page 19' and followed with Mandarin annotation: 'OK. 好 , (**hao**) <OK>. 我們要做第 19 頁連連看的練習 。 (**wuo men yao zuo di shih jiou yie lian lian kan de lian si**) <We 'll do the practice on page 19>' for instructions. In that instance, he particularly said in Mandarin '注意聽 ! (**jhu yi ting**) <Pay attention!>' to instruct students to pay attention when he played the audiotape. Indeed, in the teacher interview, Teacher B stated that he sometimes used different languages depending on which language would be most likely to attract the students' attention.

Additionally, code-switching was employed extensively by both teachers for classroom management (literature concerning code-switching for classroom management is provided in Chapter 3). One example from Classroom A that I have previously discussed in Chapter 7 will suffice. On that occasion, Teacher A could not finish the lesson on time but she preferred to close the discussion on a particular section of the textbook. She had to negotiate with students about extending the lesson. The teacher switched from English to Mandarin to negotiate with students and request students to be patient and concentrate on the lesson. One might expect that

Taiwanese would be the lingua franca in the Taiwanese classroom as 70% of the Taiwanese population is ancestrally native, and only 15% is ancestrally Mandarin. However, as I have known the female teacher for a number of years, and she never speaks Taiwanese in school with colleagues but she occasionally uses Taiwanese when chatting with friends or colleagues off-campus.

In Teacher B's class, on one occasion some students did not engage in chorusing, and the teacher used Mandarin to indicate that he could not hear the students' voices. He asked students to read louder. This example is provided below.

Excerpt [7] (III-11-26-01, lines 261-4)

261 T: OK^? 大聲一點, (**da sheng yi dian**) <Louder.> 我都沒有聽到。(wuo dou
262 **mei you ting dao**) <I can't hear you.> 你們要喊大聲一點哦。(ni men yao
263 **han da sheng yi dian oh**) <Speak louder.> Sentence No. 4. "I took a shower
264 I washed my hair."

Although both teachers consistently used Mandarin for the purposes of classroom management, English was occasionally used. For example, when students in classroom A were engaging in pair conversational practice, some students chatted in Mandarin and did not practise the English conversation, Teacher A then used English to tell the students to 'speak English'.

Concerning classroom management, Teacher A commented in the interview that she would demand students to use English if they wanted to go to the toilet (Excerpt 8).

Excerpt 8

If a student tells me that he wants to go to the bathroom in Mandarin, I would say to him, "no, speak English, may I go to the bathroom?" Then, I will allow him to go.

TA: 615-6

In these examples, English and Mandarin are juxtaposed in both lessons.

English is the legitimate classroom language, and the data shows that both teachers tended to initiate their utterances in English and then proceed with Mandarin to give instructions or to discipline the classes.

Having discussed code-switching for classroom management, in the next section, code-switching for establishing solidarity is explored in detail.

9.4 CODE-SWITCHING FOR SOLIDARITY

It is interesting to note that rather than solely using English, Mandarin was used in every English lesson that I have observed and recorded. In this section, I will discuss the use of languages to build up solidarity.

There is evidence to suggest that code-switching was used to form solidarity in the classrooms, including the issue of ‘saving face’. For example, on one occasion in Classroom B, a student used Mandarin to remind the teacher that he had forgotten to discuss a particular section of the textbook. The Mandarin used by the student in that situation seemed to serve as a way to save the teacher from embarrassment. Teachers are expected to know precisely how to conduct a lesson and should not make any mistakes, particularly in the classroom. Situations such as this suggest failure on the part of the teacher. Hence, if the student used English to query the teacher, it would seem that the teacher was unable to manage the class. The excerpt of this example and a discussion are provided in Chapter 8.

It is interesting to note the way Taiwanese was used in Classroom B. This can be interpreted in two ways: Firstly, it demonstrates the social relationship between the teacher and the students. For example, one student spoke in Taiwanese, 你不知

影 NBA 是啥？ **(ni eng zai yang NBA sih sian)** <You don't know what NBA is?>, to ask the teacher about his knowledge of American sports. The teacher replied not in Taiwanese but in Mandarin, 我知道 **(wuo jhih dao)** <I know it.>, and the conversation then continued in Mandarin, with some laughter both from the teacher and the student. Yet, at the end of the same conversation, the teacher used a Taiwanese phrase, 你哩？ **(li le)** <Hey, you>, to stop the conversation with the student. This seems to suggest that the use of Taiwanese here (as a 'joking way') is not only to show solidarity but also to avoid continuing a conversation and perhaps to avoid making incorrect answers.

Secondly, Taiwanese was used in Classroom B to avoid doing tasks (e.g. engaging in conversational practice or pair discussion). On one occasion the teacher asked a student an English sentence 'what did he do last night?' The student did not want to respond to his question; he then replied in Taiwanese, 我不會講 **(wuo mei heao gung)** <I don't know how to say it>. One might presume that the student did not really know how to answer the teacher's question, and that is why he replied in this evasive manner. Indeed, according to the field notes, that student's actions were slightly offensive to the teacher (he made no eye contact with the teacher and showed an annoyed attitude). It seemed that the teacher disliked the way that student behaved. The teacher then reprimanded the student in Mandarin, 不知道對不對 **(bu jhih dao duei bu duei)** <You don't know, right?>. The tension was mitigated when another student appealed to the teacher that the student actually had said something in English.

Of the languages used in the situation mentioned above, Taiwanese was used by those who wished to exclude themselves from a conversation and avoid participation. Mandarin was used to demonstrate the teacher's authority as the person in control of situations.

In addition to the discourse between the teacher and students, discourse amongst students is also explored. It is found that Mandarin is the dominant language, used by all the students in the lesson; Taiwanese is used mostly amongst male students during the breaks and between classes. The use of English amongst students for recreational purposes is scarce.

Having discussed the use of code-switching in the first part of this chapter, I will now examine the participants' attitudes toward code-switching in the second part.

9.5 ATTITUDES TOWARD CODE-SWITCHING

The purpose of this section is to answer the second research question of the present study: 'what are the teachers' and learners' attitudes toward code-switching in English classrooms. The discussion in this part is based on the interview data (the teacher interview and two sets of student interviews) and the questionnaire survey (which was completed by students).

9.5.1 Teacher Attitudes: Theory and Practice

In the teacher interview, in response to a question concerning the use of different languages in the classrooms, both teachers acknowledged the importance of using only the target language, English. In reality, the teachers stated that due to the lack of an English-speaking environment, inability to practise the language outside of the English classroom, and the fact that there were more than fifty students in a classroom, using code-switching was inevitable and necessary in order to make

teaching meaningful to the learners. Two excerpts are presented below.

Excerpt 9

I think if I use English only in the classroom, students won't be able to understand what I say.

TA: 44-5

Excerpt 10

If I use whole language, students will pay attention to my lecture. In the second hour of lecture, the whole class may still be interested in my teaching. They think this teacher is different from others. But the next three or four hours, I know students don't understand what I had said during those hours.

TB: 870-3

The extracts above reveal the ambivalent feelings of the two interviewees towards using only English in classrooms. 'Whole Language' teaching, which Teacher B mentioned in Extract 10, seems to be the primary concern of the two interviewees. A detailed discussion of this concept 'Whole Language Teaching' is provided in Chapter 3. After confirming with Teacher B that the term 'whole language' in his comment in Excerpt 10 meant only 'using English to teach English' in his view and making the English lesson 'seem to be meaningful' to learners.

Both teachers subsequently stated in the interview that it is ideal to use English only in the classrooms; yet in reality they have to use Mandarin to facilitate their teaching. In doing so, they believed the students understand the lesson better and may feel less stressful about learning English.

Another issue discussed in the teacher interview concerns the teacher's perception of students' attitudes towards code-switching in the classroom. Both teachers offered their insights into the students' reactions regarding the use of languages in their classrooms.

Excerpt 11

They think that why doesn't [the teacher] translate English to Chinese, and if the teacher doesn't do that, they could have bad attitude toward the teacher's teaching.

TA: 197-8

Excerpt 12

Sometimes I show students some pictures of English words to facilitate their learning but they want to know Chinese meanings instead.

TA: 358-9

Students sometimes demanded the teacher to use Chinese to elaborate upon the content of their lesson. In excerpt 11, Teacher A explained that negative attitudes from students were occasionally shown when she did not use Chinese in her teaching. Interestingly, both teachers expressed the view that the students relied too much on Chinese explanation and did not appreciate the extensive use of English by the teachers.

It is a dilemma for both teachers to choose which language to use in the classroom. Although they were both positive about using Mandarin to facilitate their English teaching and to enhance the students' comprehension, they were very concerned not to rely too much on Mandarin, as this may have negative effects on the teaching and learning of English. Moreover, the principle of using English only in EFL classrooms often places the teachers in a difficult position.

Having discussed the teachers' attitudes and their perception of students' attitudes towards code-switching, I will now turn to examine the students' attitudes with reference to interviews.

9.5.2 Student Attitudes: Theory and Practice

The findings concerning the students' attitudes towards code-switching in the

classroom are based on two sets of student interviews and a questionnaire survey.

In the English level II student interview, interviewees said that the adoption of some Chinese would facilitate their English learning. An example is provided in Excerpt 13.

Excerpt 13

I think adding some Taiwanese or Mandarin when it is needed is better. ... For students like us, slow learners not good in English, we don't understand and can't remember it when we hear it.

S5: 127-31

Excerpt 14

If the teacher uses some Chinese in her teaching, it will help those lower level students. ... The teacher who mixes some Chinese in teaching is better.

S2: 331-332

In Excerpts 13 and 14, both students claimed that if the instructor switched codes when needed, it would enhance their English comprehension. When asked which language they would use if they needed to make a request to the instructor to repeat the previous question, student 3 stated that she would make the direct request in English (Excerpt 15).

Excerpt 15

I'll say to her "please repeat again".

S3: 186

An attitude towards the need to use Chinese in classrooms is shown in Excerpt 16. This student explained that the use of Chinese would make the lesson easier to comprehend and would increase her interest in learning English.

Excerpt 16

I think I would want to learn more if there's more Chinese. I think even the teacher is teaching conversation, using more Chinese is better.

S7: 361-2

Data revealed in the English Level II student interview shows that participants commented on the importance and usefulness of adopting Chinese in classrooms, not only as a verbal tool but also to facilitate English comprehension. The interviewees expressed worries about being too dependent on Chinese as it may have negative effects on their English learning. The ambivalent attitudes toward the use of Chinese (Mandarin) were a great concern amongst the interviewees.

In the English level III student interview, one participant suggested that only using English in English classrooms is the best method for language learners.

Excerpt 17

The English-only learning environment would make me improve my English very fast.

S1: 60

In contrast to Student 1, the other interviewees had contrary opinions. In Excerpt 18, a participant claimed that they would not understand the lesson if it was conducted only in English. Additionally, in Excerpt 19 Student 2 speculated that learners in lower-level English classes were not improving their English in an English-only language environment.

Excerpt 18

We can't understand the lesson if it's all in English.

S1: 11

Excerpt 19

... If you are forced to use English only from the beginning level, I think they won't learn anything.

S2: 614-5

Student 2 stated that English is not the students' mother tongue and without a language environment in which they could practise speaking English outside of the classroom, it would be difficult to learn English without using Mandarin to enhance their comprehension (Excerpt 20).

Excerpt 20

That's not our mother tongue and we don't have that language environment.

S2: 18

The three excerpts above show the students' need to use another language, Mandarin, to assist their English learning. In addition, Student 4 in Excerpt 21 indicated that the use of Chinese is helpful for lower English proficiency learners. Yet, one of the interviewees held an opposing viewpoint and considered that being too dependent on Chinese might have negative impact on learning English.

Excerpt 21

Some lessons are really difficult to understand. If the teacher uses Mandarin, it will help and foster our English learning. Using some Mandarin is helpful for people like us. And for those who are at an advanced level ... when the teacher starts to speak English, they understand immediately. So the Chinese explanation is just for people like us who still don't understand some parts of the lesson.

S4: 177-82

From the English level III student interview, it was found that students desired to use more than one language in the English classroom and saw this as essential. They thought this would enhance their English learning. Nevertheless, the ambivalence of relying too much on Chinese explanation might have a negative impact on language learning.

9.5.3 Attitudes Regarding the Use of Mandarin and Taiwanese in English Classrooms: The Unequal Status

One of the significant findings from the data concerns different attitudes towards the use of Mandarin and Taiwanese in English classrooms. This may in part be the result of the history of language policies in Taiwanese (in Chapter 2 I have provided a detailed discussion of this issue). The oppression of the use of local or indigenous languages in Taiwanese between 1949 and the 1980s has resulted in Mandarin being Taiwan's 'high' language, and the value of Taiwanese is often overlooked.

In the present study, both teachers are fluent in both Mandarin and Taiwanese, yet little evidence of this was shown in the classrooms. I was told that once there was a teacher who used only Taiwanese and English in her English classroom at the university, but due to numerous complaints from students who were not fluent speakers of Taiwanese, the teacher was fired at the end of one semester. I speculate that particular case might influence the language use of teachers in English classrooms. In addition, due to the school policy, teachers should use English only in their Freshman English classes. Actually, in the teacher interview, one teacher stated that when there is the need to use a local language to facilitate his teaching, he would use the language students prefer. According to the results of the questionnaire, this

language is Mandarin.

In the questionnaire survey, of 107 participants, 104 indicated that they can speak Mandarin fluently and 69 could speak Taiwanese fluently with the exception of one who uses sign language. 106 participants indicated that they usually speak Mandarin in school with friends and 59 stated that they speak Taiwanese with friends at school. It is evident that Mandarin is used more often than Taiwanese among students in the classrooms, and teachers are using Mandarin in classrooms. Students recognize Mandarin as the language that should be used in educational contexts and this is reflected in the present study. The function of Taiwanese, as I have acknowledged, revealed in the study seems to be as for building up the solidarity in classrooms.

9.6 POTENTIAL SYNERGY IN USING MORE THAN ONE LANGUAGE TO TEACH ENGLISH

To answer the third research question ‘does the use of a local language in English lessons facilitate the learning of English and is there a potential synergy in using more than one language to teach another language’, I will now provide some critical discussions.

Firstly, the results obtained from the data and discussion in the previous sections of this chapter has shown that the use of local languages, particularly Mandarin, is utilized in every lesson that was observed and recorded. Mandarin plays an important role for unlocking meaning from the textbook and for classroom management. Although data from the interviews reveals that an excessive reliance on Mandarin might have a negative effect on the teaching and learning of English, it was often useful if the teacher adopted Mandarin to facilitate the learning of English. Data from

the questionnaire also indicates that Mandarin was often used in English lessons to explain linguistic forms and to aid comprehension. The use of Taiwanese was not significant in the interviews and classroom transcripts. However, from the results of the questionnaire, it is believed to be useful to some students.

I would argue that an ‘English only’ approach is not the most productive method or strategy in EFL classrooms in Taiwan. The practices and attitudes that have been examined and discussed in this thesis suggest that code-switching is potentially vary in pedagogical strategies, such as to explain linguistic forms, cultural content in the textbook, to manage the class and to build up solidarity in the classroom. It may be suggested that:

- (1) there is a potential synergy in using Mandarin when teaching and learning English;
- (2) utilizing local languages to facilitate and annotate the cultural issues that surround the target language;
- (3) allowing the use of more than one language to mitigate the potential embarrassment in the EFL classroom.

9.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, I have first discussed two language patterns (IRF format and chorusing) in classroom discourse. Then I have examined the way two teachers switched codes to talk around the monolingual textbooks. In the study the teachers consistently employed code-switching to facilitate their English teaching. It is also found that both Teacher A and Teacher B consistently employed Mandarin to unlock meaning from the textbook. One interesting phenomenon was that Teacher B

occasionally used Taiwanese to have informal conversations with students in the classroom.

The language used most commonly amongst students was Mandarin. During the lesson break, students (mostly male students) spoke Taiwanese to their interlocutors. The unequal use of Mandarin and Taiwanese in the English lessons was discussed. As a result of educational reform and school language policy, Mandarin currently represents the 'high language' and the value of Taiwanese has still been overlooked.

The participants have shown positive attitudes towards using Mandarin in their English classrooms. However, it was revealed that the ambivalent feelings and attitudes concerning an excessive reliance on Mandarin might have negative effects on English teaching and learning.

In summary, although participants may take care to avoid relying on their first language in the English classrooms, the use of Mandarin (and Taiwanese) is nonetheless found to be pervasive. Despite the school's monolingual policy in English classrooms, it is found the code-switching is useful and necessary (i.e. to explain linguistic forms, to manage the class, to establish solidarity) in EFL teaching and learning in these two classrooms. I have suggested that there are three potential benefits in using more than one language, particularly Mandarin, to teach English in Taiwan.

The next chapter concludes the present study. The implications and limitations of code-switching in English classrooms will be discussed.

CHAPTER 10

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

10.1 INTRODUCTION

As I have stated in Chapter 1, the three aims of the present study are firstly, to explore the nature of classroom talk, focusing specifically on how teachers and learners use more than one language to talk around monolingual English textbooks in order to accomplish lessons; secondly, to investigate the attitudes of teachers and learners towards use of more than one language/ code-switching in the classroom; and thirdly, to consider the implications of the way language is used in the classrooms and the teachers' and learners' attitudes to code-switching. This chapter concludes the study. The implications of the study concerning code-switching, the unequal use of Mandarin and Taiwanese in English lessons and the potential synergy of using more than one language to teach a particular language (English) will be discussed, and the limitations of the present study will be reported. Suggestions for further research will be proposed at the end of the chapter.

10.2 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

This section addresses and summarises the research questions proposed in Chapter 1, and these questions are provided again below:

1. How is the monolingual textbook embedded in bilingual/ multilingual interaction

in the classroom?

2. What are the teachers' and learners' attitudes towards code-switching in English classrooms?
3. Does the use of Mandarin/ Taiwanese in English lessons facilitate the learning of English and is there a potential synergy in using more than one language to teach a particular language?
4. What are the implications of using more than one language?

Answers to the above four questions would provide a more fine-grained picture of how the languages are actually used to accomplish lessons in Freshman English classrooms in Taiwan and attitudes towards the use of other languages.

10.2.1 Code-switching in English Classroom Discourse

Regarding the answer to the first research question, 'how is the monolingual textbook embedded in bilingual/ multilingual interaction in the classroom', the study has found that the use of Mandarin to unlock the meanings from the monolingual English textbook is pervasive yet necessary and useful. Although English is the medium of instruction in those two classrooms, I have found that the use of English outside of the classrooms is scarce not only amongst teachers, but also students. The finding shows that Mandarin was used alongside English.

Teachers in the study constantly switched between English and Mandarin when Mandarin could illuminate the meaning of the textbook more coherently for the students. Two language patterns, the IRF format and chorusing are found to be salient features in the classrooms. In IRF, four major formats were found and categorised in English level II, and five in English level III. The languages used in

these formats demonstrate that not only the teachers, but also the students used both English and Mandarin when interacting with the textbook and communicating with each other. The actual use of languages in IRF formats suggests that the students are allowed to use Mandarin in classrooms.

Chorusing, another language pattern found in both classrooms, was primarily used when the teachers led students to read aloud lexical items and sentences from the textbook. After the lexical items and sentence patterns were taught, the teachers orchestrated joint choral reading performances to review what had been discussed in the textbook. It is significant to note that when inviting students for chorusing, both the English phrase ‘repeat after me’ and the Mandarin phrase ‘跟我一起唸一次 (gen wuo yi ciyi nian yi cih) <Repeat after me>’ were used by the teachers.

An important finding associated with chorusing is that it seems to have provided students a niche for ‘safe-talk’. Students who are afraid to speak English individually in front of a class or who are less proficient speakers of English may feel more comfortable to practise oral skills in a group (e.g. Chick, 1996). However, it is also important to keep in mind that students who intend not to practise speaking English because they are not interested in learning English may find a way as escaping through joint choral reading performance.

As I have stated in Chapter 8, I recognise problems in the categorisation, but I believe a strict formulations of function is not necessarily possible as a particular instance of code-switching may be multi-functional. Hence, I have categorised four functions of code-switching found in the study: It is used to explain linguistic forms, to annotate cultural issues, to cue classroom instructions and management and to establish or maintain solidarity in the classrooms. Firstly, when elaborating on linguistic forms, teachers switched from English to Mandarin to explain English lexical items, phrases, sentences, and grammatical rules.

Secondly, a switch from English to Mandarin is always made when cultural issues are taught. As confirmed in the teacher interview, the teachers stated that it is easier to use Mandarin to elaborate cultural issues to aid the students' comprehension. They claimed that it was often needed to provide extra information and background information when discussing cultural issues.

It is important to note (both from the observation and the statements of the teachers in the interview) that Mandarin was used by both teachers for the purpose of 'saving time'. Instead of giving many examples to elaborate or to describe a particular English concept, utilizing succinct Mandarin annotation can save a considerable amount of time in instruction. For example, to teach or explain an English lexical item, phrase or sentence, the teacher provided a literal Mandarin translation instead of using English to annotate the word, phrase, or sentence.

Thirdly, code-switching played an important role for classroom management in the study. Both teachers switched to Mandarin to give explicit classroom instructions, such as to signal the textbook pages and to direct students to be engaged in pair or group discussions. When there was a need to regulate students' behaviour, Mandarin was often used instead of English.

Fourthly, the teachers used Mandarin to build up solid relationships with students in classrooms. Teacher B often spoke Mandarin when he engaged in informal conversations with students. In addition to using Mandarin for solidarity, there is evidence that Taiwanese was used for such a purpose. When Teacher B walked around the classroom to check on students' pair or group conversational performance, he sometimes used Taiwanese to interact with students. On occasion students initiated conversation in Taiwanese with Teacher B, and he replied in Taiwanese. Taiwanese seems to have been employed by Teacher B to bridge the gap between himself (the authority figure) and the students, in order to express solidarity.

The languages used in both classrooms amongst students was similar. The languages used in both classrooms were English, Mandarin, and Taiwanese. Findings from Classroom A have shown that Mandarin was the primary language which the students used, not only to communicate with teachers, but also amongst their peers. Evidence of the use of Taiwanese is scarce in Classroom A. Findings from Classroom B reveal that Mandarin was used extensively by students when interacting with the teacher. Communication amongst students was predominately in Mandarin. Taiwanese was used amongst certain male students, and the use of English was scarce.

Although according to school Freshman English Course policy English is the legitimate language and the use of other languages is prohibited or limited, in reality, the use of Mandarin and Taiwanese was allowed in both classrooms. The use of languages between the two teachers, one male and one female, and between male and female students is apparently different in the study; however, it is not my intention to discuss language use between members of both genders in the present study.

The use of languages (particularly switching between codes) shows that Mandarin plays a crucial role in both the English lesson per se and communication among the participants. In the next section, I will discuss attitudes toward the use of more than one language in these two English classrooms.

10.2.2 Attitudes Toward the Use of Code-switching

In this section I will answer the second research question, ‘what are the teachers and learners’ attitudes toward code-switching in English classrooms?’ Findings from the transcripts indicate that both teachers constantly used Mandarin in their teaching and when interacting with students individually. Taiwanese was used in Classroom B

when the teacher interacted informally with some male students.

In the teacher interview, both teachers acknowledged the importance of the English-only policy. However, they both commented on the usefulness and effectiveness of using Mandarin to explain or annotate the English content when it seems to be problematic for students to understand, such as cultural issues, et cetera. It is important to note that both teachers emphasized the dilemma that using Mandarin in their teaching might discourage students from speaking English in classrooms.

Teacher A expressed the view in the interview that she was extremely concerned about overusing Mandarin because it may lower the students' interests in speaking English. Teacher B echoed this comment. However, he stated that using Mandarin would help those students who had a more limited knowledge of English.

In terms of students' attitudes toward the use of more than one language/ code-switching in English classrooms, it is interesting to note that from the student interviews, students seemed to prefer the use of the English-only teaching method. However, they were concerned that they would not understand or learn anything if the lesson was conducted only in English. Findings from both the questionnaire survey and the interviews reveal that students considered Mandarin important in facilitating their English learning. Findings from the transcripts also show that students used Mandarin and Taiwanese in the classrooms. This seems to suggest that students were allowed to use both languages.

Although dilemmas surrounding the use of Mandarin were stated both by the teachers and students, they expressed a positive attitude towards the use of Mandarin in English lessons and considered its adoption important to enhance students' learning in English.

In sum, in the study, I have discussed code-switching in English classroom

discourse and attitudes toward the use of more than one language in English classrooms. In the penultimate section of this chapter I will discuss the implications of the present study.

10.3 IMPLICATIONS

Three implications emerged from the study: the use of code-switching in Freshman English classrooms in a Taiwan university, the unequal use of Mandarin and Taiwanese in English lessons, and the synergy of using more than one language in English lessons. These points are discussed in the following sub-sections.

10.3.1 Implications for Code-switching in Freshman English Classrooms in a Taiwanese University

Although the results and findings of the present study cannot be generalized to illustrate code-switching in all the universities in Taiwan, my experience, and after listening to the views of others, the practices observed in this university regarding the use of code-switching may be seen in most of the Freshman English classrooms in Taiwan universities. The findings of the present study seem to suggest that the English-only policy for Freshman English courses may not be practical in the EFL classroom in Taiwanese universities. Based on my teaching experience and the views of others, the English-only policy (or teaching method) is suitable for students who have advanced English. The findings of the present study suggest that for language learners who have limited English, the use of Mandarin would be useful to facilitate learning. A paper written by Auerbach (1993) suggested the necessity and effectiveness of using a first language or giving bilingual options for adult English

learners in learning the target language.

Both teachers and students should not be required to avoid using their first language in the classroom. The freedom of using both the target language and the local languages should be encouraged. To facilitate the teaching and learning of English, teachers should utilize the learners' first language when it works better than the target language. For example, it is useful to use Mandarin to translate a lexical item if it can help the students' comprehension. Nevertheless, there is a concern which should not be overlooked: teachers should not use code-switching in order to take a 'short-cut' (c.f. Lin, 1990) when the English message can be explained without difficulty. The term 'short-cut' here means using literal Mandarin translations instead of English to elaborate certain English texts, when they easily could be described in English. As far as EFL teaching and learning is concerned, the effort required when using English to teach English is still a primary concern in EFL classrooms.

Insofar as the evidence has shown from the study, students are allowed to use any language in the classrooms. In terms of foreign language learning, teachers should strongly encourage students to speak English rather than their local languages. Although English is the legitimate medium of classroom discussion and is rarely used outside of the classroom or in students' daily life, for university students, learners should make efforts to use English in EFL classrooms not only to fulfil the academic requirement, but also to prepare students for further education or career needs. In higher education, there is a great demand to use English in most of the universities in Taiwan. In the job market, the ability to speak English can be a great benefit.

Since Freshman English is a compulsory subject in university and the use of code-switching is found to be useful in English lessons, teachers should take advantage of local languages if they can facilitate students' comprehension. Students,

on the other hand, should be encouraged to use the target language rather than the local languages in a learning context.

Having discussed the use of languages in English lessons, in the next section, I will discuss the unequal use of Mandarin and Taiwanese in English lessons.

10.3.2 Implications Concerning the Unequal Use of Mandarin and Taiwanese in English Lessons

Referring to Taiwan's socio-historical language development, the indigenous languages have been oppressed in the past and as a result, have been overlooked in the society for a period of time. Taiwanese was one of these indigenous languages. As I have reported in Chapter 2, due to the KMT Government's monolingual (Mandarin) policy, all the indigenous languages were prohibited in public domains, especially in government and school settings. Although the Mandarin-only policy has been terminated and the use of local languages is promoted nowadays, people are still accustomed to using Mandarin rather than Taiwanese or any other local languages in educational settings.

There is evidence in the study that when the teacher switched from English to negotiate with students, one might actually expect to hear Taiwanese instead of Mandarin because Taiwanese is the mother tongue for most of the people (approximately 70% of the current population). However, the teacher, indeed, used Mandarin rather than Taiwanese for negotiation. The value of Taiwanese should not be overlooked. Teachers should not refrain from using Taiwanese if it can be useful in some teaching contexts.

10.3.3 Implications Concerning the Synergy of Using More Than One Language in English Lessons

The findings from present study indicate that Mandarin plays an important role in facilitating the teaching and learning of English in English classrooms. With regard to answer the third research question, ‘is there a potential synergy in using more than one language to teach a particular language’, it is suggested from the findings that the use of local languages not only facilitates the teaching and learning of English in EFL classrooms, but can also be used to explicitly elaborate on English culture. By incorporating Mandarin into English, teaching becomes more effective in English classrooms: the teachers can manage the classrooms easier and faster and the English message can be understood better by students.

Based on the findings of this study for university-level learners, the synergy of using Mandarin and English may enhance English learning in classrooms. Moreover, utilizing two languages to unlock cultural issues in English lessons seems to be beneficial to language learners: students can broaden their knowledge through the learning of cultural issues and also practise their English language skills.

Having discussed the implications of the present study, in the last two sections of the chapter, the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research will be discussed.

10.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are two principal limitations of the present study. First, the number of recordings of the students’ spoken data is limited and some recordings are not clear. Due to the technical problems and inability to use the video equipment (teachers

expressed the discomfort of video recordings), I only recorded the teachers' voice, teacher-student choral reading performances, and some teacher-student conversation. For any future study, it would be ideal to obtain permission from teachers to use video recording at the research site.

The second limitation of the study concerns the sample of student and teacher participants. Initially, I planned to use four groups of participants at the same English level for my study. As I have mentioned in Chapter 5, I was unable to obtain the teachers' consensus, so I had no option but to use one English Level II and one English Level III class for the study.

10.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

For any future study, it would be ideal to have either one class from each English level (I, II, III, or IV) or four groups at the same English level in order to make comparisons of the teaching style, which might have an impact on the use of languages. Moreover, an analysis of gender in English teaching should also be conducted.

Finally, as a personal note, having been an English teacher for several years, the journey I took to explore code-switching in these English classrooms has been fruitful. It not only adds to the debate about English-only policies, but allows me to reflect upon my own teaching practice concerning the use of languages in classrooms. I have no doubt that the journey has been inspiring and rewarding.

Appendix A: Transcription Conventions

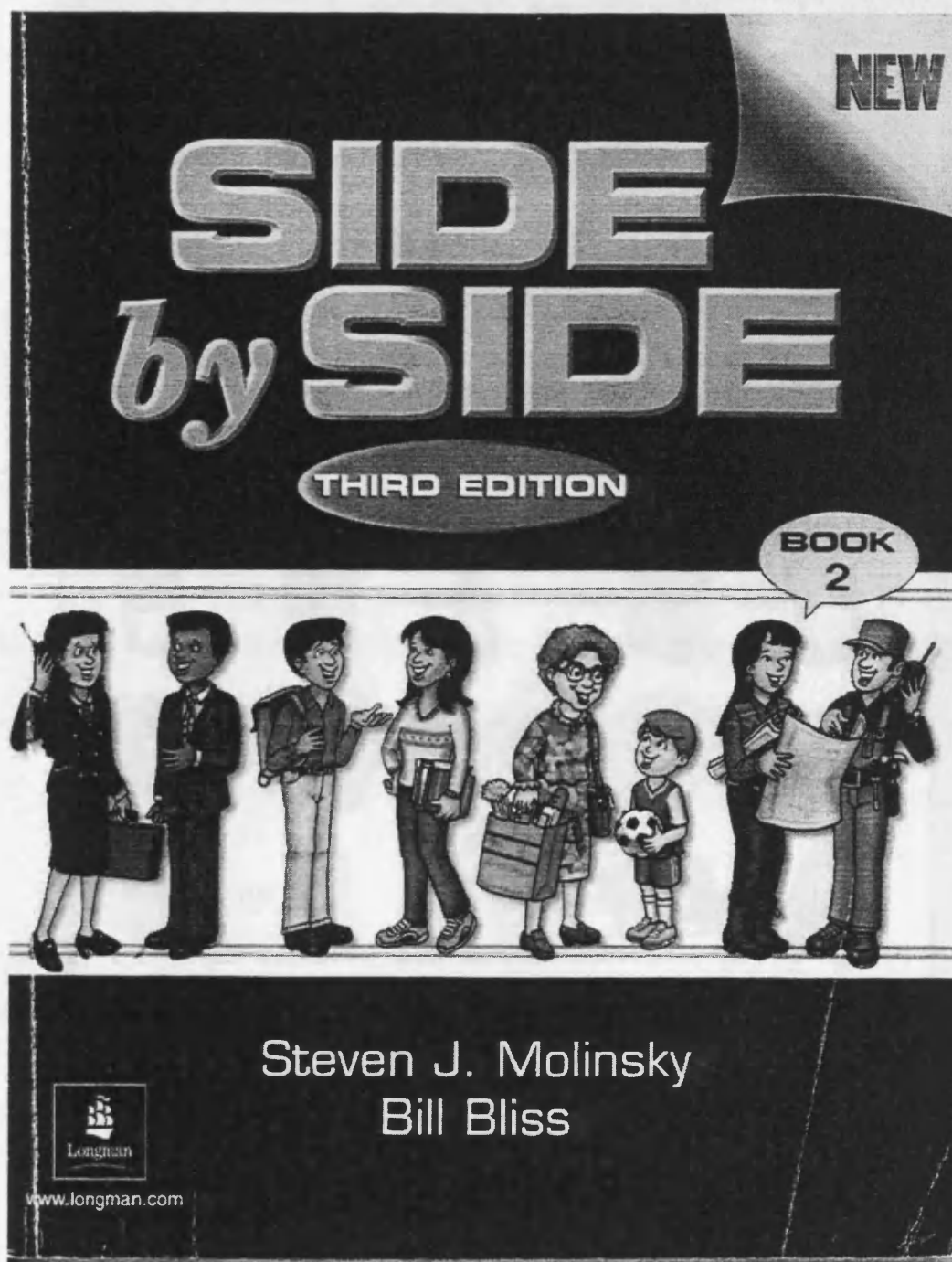
T	: Teacher
S(s)	: Student(s)
Ss1	: Student group 1
I	: Interviewer
R	: Tape voices
M	: Tape voice of a male speaker (from level III class)
W	: Tape voice of a female speaker (from level III class)
Plain font	: English
<u>Underline Italic font</u>	: English adopted in spoken Chinese (in translations)
中文字	: Chinese characters
Bold Font	: (Mandarin)
<u>Bold Font and Underline</u>	: (Taiwanese)
<Italics>	: < <i>Translations into English</i> >
[]	: Comments regarding what was happening in the classroom
{Country	: Overlapping speech
{ laughter }	: Contextual information
“My name’s ...”	: Indicates teacher or students reading from textbook or other resource.
And^	: ^ Indicates raised intonation
LOUDER	: Capital letters indicate the speaker’s emphasis or intention
EN::GLISH	: Lengthening of sounds
(??)	: Unintelligible items
..	: A short pause (3 seconds or less)
...	: A long pause (4 or more seconds)
~	: Unfinished articulation
◦	: Chinese equivalent to the full-stop
----	: Omitted words
[==]	: Skipped lines

Appendix B: Tong Yong Pin Yin

(Issued from Ministry of Education, 16 September, 2000)

ㄅ b	ㄗ ji	ㄚ a	ㄞ ai	— -ia ㄚ ya	ㄨ -uo ㄜ wo
ㄆ p	ㄘ ci	ㄝ e	ㄟ ei	— ㄜ yo	ㄨ -uai ㄞ wai
ㄇ m	ㄙ si	— -i yi	ㄠ ao	— -ie ㄝ ye	ㄨ -u(e)i ㄟ wei
ㄈ f	ㄗ jh jhjh	ㄛ o	ㄡ ou	— ㄞ yai	ㄨ -uan ㄡ wang
ㄉ d	ㄘ ch chih	ㄨ -u wu	ㄢ an	— -iao ㄠ yao	ㄨ -uang ㄠ wang
ㄊ t	ㄙ sh shih	ㄌ er	ㄤ ang	— -I(o)u ㄡ you	ㄨ -un ㄣ wun
ㄋ n	ㄣ r rih	ㄩ yu	ㄣ en	— -ian ㄢ yan	ㄨ -ong ㄥ wong
ㄌ l	ㄗ z zih		ㄥ eng	— -iang ㄠ yang	ㄩ yue ㄝ
ㄍ g	ㄘ c cih			— -in ㄣ yin	ㄩ yuan ㄢ
ㄎ k	ㄣ s sih			— -ing ㄥ ying	ㄩ yun ㄣ
ㄏ h				ㄨ -ua ㄚ wa	ㄩ yong ㄥ

Appendix C-1: Sample of the textbook used for English level II





3

Partitives Count/Non-Count Nouns Imperatives

- Buying Food
- Describing Food
- Eating in a Restaurant
- Recipes

VOCABULARY PREVIEW



- | | | |
|-------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|
| 1. a can of soup | 6. a loaf of white bread | 11. a pint of ice cream |
| 2. a jar of jam | 7. two loaves of whole wheat bread | 12. a quart of orange juice |
| 3. a bottle of ketchup | 8. a bunch of bananas | 13. a gallon of milk |
| 4. a box of cereal | 9. a head of lettuce | 14. a pound of meat |
| 5. a bag of flour | 10. a dozen eggs | 15. a half pound } of cheese |
| | | half a pound } |

Do We Need Anything from the Supermarket?

My Shopping List

a can of soup	a head of lettuce
a jar of jam	a dozen eggs
a bottle of ketchup	a pt.* of ice cream
a box of cereal	a qt.* of orange juice
a bag of flour	a gal.* of milk
a loaf of white bread	a lb.* of meat
2 loaves of whole wheat bread	1/2 lb.* of cheese
a bunch of bananas	
2 bunches of carrots	

* pt. = pint
qt. = quart
gal. = gallon
lb. = pound



A. Do we need anything from the supermarket?

B. Yes. We need a loaf of bread.

A. A loaf of bread?

B. Yes.

A. Anything else?

B. No. Just a loaf of bread.



What do you need from the supermarket?
Make a shopping list.

How Much Does a Head of Lettuce Cost?

1¢ \$.01 one cent
25¢ \$.25 twenty-five cents

\$1.00 one dollar
\$10.00 ten dollars



A. How much does a **head of lettuce** cost?

B. **A dollar ninety-five.** (\$1.95)

A. A **DOLLAR NINETY-FIVE?! That's a lot of money!**

B. You're right. **Lettuce** is very expensive this week.

* \$1.95 = { a dollar ninety-five
one dollar and ninety-five cents



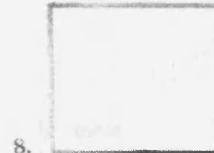
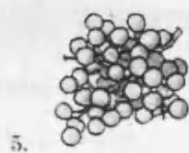
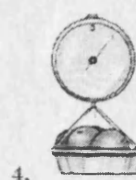
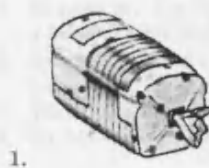
A. How much does a **pound of apples** cost?

B. **Two eighty-nine.** (\$2.89)

A. **TWO EIGHTY-NINE?! That's a lot of money!**

B. You're right. **Apples** are very expensive this week.

* \$2.89 = { two eighty-nine
two dollars and eighty-nine cents



READING



NOTHING TO EAT FOR DINNER

Joan got home late from work today, and she was very hungry. When she opened the refrigerator, she was upset. There was nothing to eat for dinner. Joan sat down and made a shopping list. She needed a head of lettuce, a bunch of carrots, a quart of milk, a dozen eggs, two pounds of tomatoes, half a pound of chicken, and a loaf of bread.

Joan rushed out of the house and drove to the supermarket. When she got there, she was very disappointed. There wasn't any lettuce. There weren't any carrots. There wasn't any milk. There weren't any eggs. There weren't any tomatoes. There wasn't any chicken, and there wasn't any bread.

Joan was tired and upset. In fact, she was so tired and upset that she lost her appetite, drove home, didn't have dinner, and went to bed.

✓ READING CHECK-UP

Q & A

Joan is at the supermarket. Using these models, create dialogs based on the story.

- | | |
|--|---|
| A. Excuse me. I'm looking for a head of lettuce. | A. Excuse me. I'm looking for a bunch of carrots. |
| B. Sorry. There isn't any more lettuce. | B. Sorry. There aren't any more carrots. |
| A. There isn't? | A. There aren't? |
| B. No, there isn't. Sorry. | B. No, there aren't. Sorry. |



LISTENING

Listen and choose what the people are talking about.

- | | | | |
|----------------|------------|--------------|------------|
| 1. a. chicken | b. milk | 5. a. eggs | b. meat |
| 2. a. oranges | b. flour | 6. a. cereal | b. bananas |
| 3. a. cookies | b. bread | 7. a. cake | b. soup |
| 4. a. potatoes | b. lettuce | 8. a. onions | b. soda |

What Would You Like?



- A. What would you like **for dessert**?
- B. I can't decide. What do you recommend?
- A. I recommend our **chocolate ice cream**. Everybody says **it's** delicious.*
- B. Okay. Please give me a **dish of chocolate ice cream**.



- A. What would you like **for breakfast**?
- B. I can't decide. What do you recommend?
- A. I recommend our **scrambled eggs**. Everybody says **they're** out of this world.*
- B. Okay. Please give me an **order of scrambled eggs**.

* delicious / very good / excellent / wonderful / fantastic / magnificent / out of this world



1. for lunch?
a bowl of



2. for breakfast?
an order of



3. for dessert?
a piece of



4. to drink?
a glass of



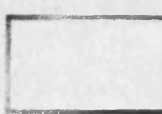
5. for dessert?
a bowl of



6. to drink?
a cup of



7. for dessert?
a dish of



- 8.

How to Say It!

Making a Recommendation About Food

- A. What do you recommend for *breakfast*?

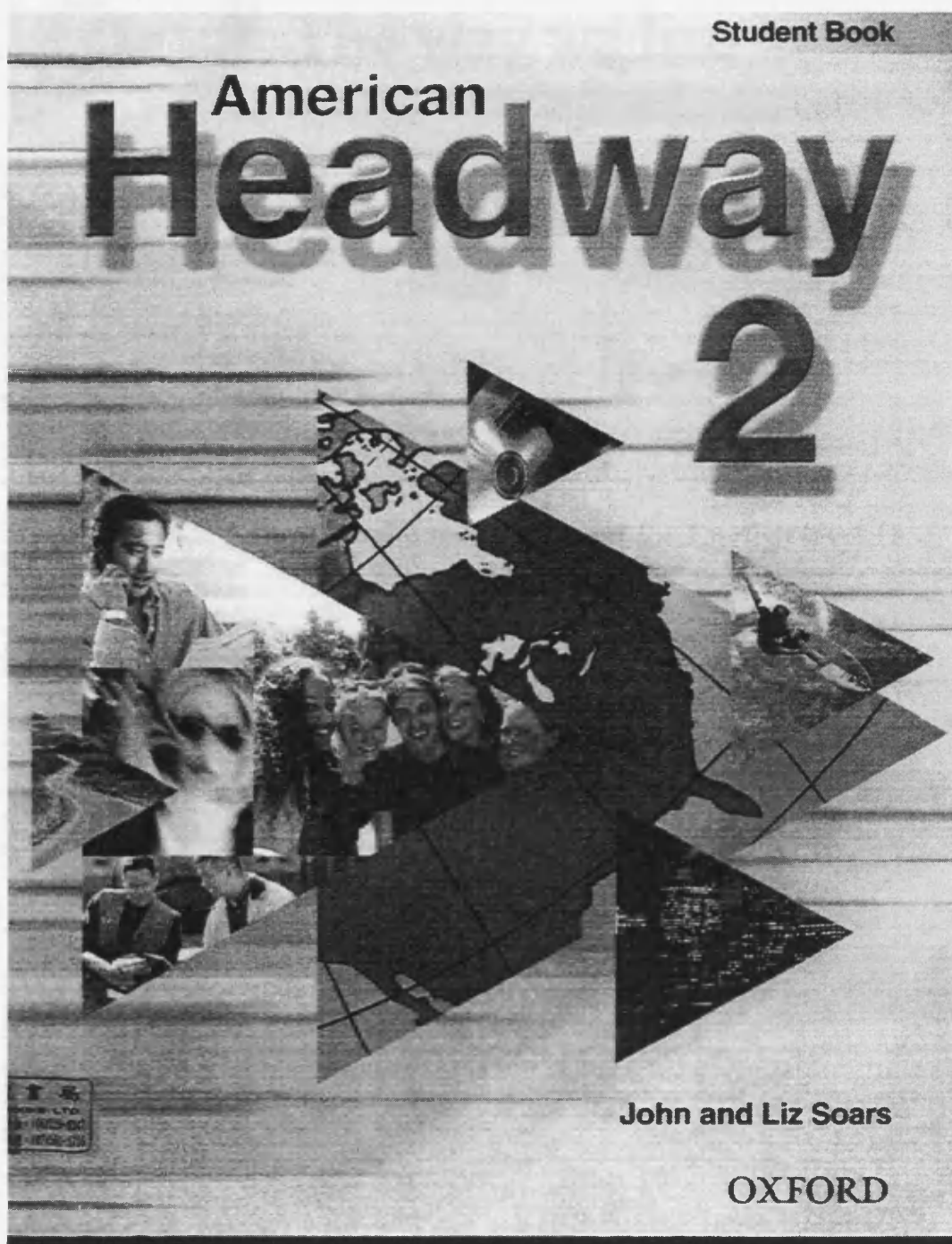
- B. I { recommend / suggest } the *pancakes*.

* breakfast / lunch / dinner / dessert

Practice conversations with other students. Ask for and make recommendations.



Appendix C-2: Sample of the textbook used for English level II





2

The way we live

Present tenses • have • Collocation — daily life • Making conversation

STARTER

Match the flags with the countries they belong to. They are all English-speaking countries.



1. Australia



3.



5.



2.



4.



6.

the United States
Canada
Australia
New Zealand
South Africa
the United Kingdom

PEOPLE AND PLACES

Present tenses

1 Complete each text with the words in the box. Then match a country from the Starter and a photograph to each text.

a exports enjoy immigrants huge

This country has a fairly small population, just 16 million, but its area is huge. The people are mainly of European descent, but there are also aborigines and a lot of southeast Asian _____. People live in towns on the coast, not so much inland, because it is so hot. They live a lot of their lives outdoors, and _____ sports, swimming, and having barbecues. This country _____ wine and wool—it has more than 60 million sheep!

b popular variety has only

This is the second biggest country in the world, but it has a population of _____ 30 million. It is so big that there is a _____ of climates. Most people live in the south because the north is too cold. It is famous for its beautiful mountains and lakes—it _____ more lakes than any other country. Two of the most _____ sports are ice hockey and baseball.

c elephants grows black climate

This country has a population of about 45 million. Of these, 76 percent are _____ and 12 percent white. It has a warm _____. Either it never rains, or it rains a lot! It is the world's biggest producer of gold, and it exports diamonds, too. It _____ a lot of fruit, including oranges, pears, and grapes, and it makes wine. In the game reserves you can see a lot of wildlife, including lions, _____, zebras, and giraffes.





- 2 **† 21** Listen to three people describing the other countries. Match a country and photograph with each description.

d ☐

e ☐

f ☐

- 3 Close your books. Can you remember three facts about each country? Tell a partner.
- 4 Give some similar facts about your country.

GRAMMAR SPOT

- 1 What tense are all the verb forms in texts a–c? Why?
- 2 Look at the sentences. Which refers to *all the time*? Which refers to *right now*?
- She has three children.
She's having lunch.

►► Grammar Reference 2.1 p. 140

PRACTICE

Talking about you

1 Practice the forms of the Present Simple in the question, short answer, and negative.

1. have a computer/a car

Do you have a computer?

Yes, I do.

Do you have a car?

No, I don't. I just have a bicycle.

2. your father work in an office?

Does your father work in an office?

No, he doesn't. He works in a school. He's a teacher ...

T 2.2 Listen and repeat.

2 Ask and answer questions about these things with a partner.

- have a cell phone/a credit card/a pet?
- sometimes wear jeans/sneakers/a hat?
- drink tea/coffee/wine?
- your family live in an apartment?
- your grandmother live near you?
- your sister/brother have a boyfriend/girlfriend?

Tell the class some things about your partner.

Roberto has a cell phone, but he doesn't have a computer. He ...

3 Practice the Present Continuous. What are you doing now?
What is your teacher doing?

Are you ...	Is she/he ...
... sitting down?	... standing up?
... smiling?	... laughing?
	... talking?
	... working hard?
	... writing?

Talk to your partner.

I'm sitting down and I'm working very hard. My teacher's laughing!

4 Write questions to find the information about the people on the right.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---|
| City/country | • Where does he ... from? |
| Family | • ... she married? |
| | • ... they have any ... ? |
| | • How many brothers and sisters ... she ... ? |
| Occupation | • What ... he do? |
| Free time/vacation | • What ... she ... in her free time? |
| | • Where ... they go on vacation? |
| Current activity | • What ... she doing right now? |

T 2.3 Listen and check.

Getting information

5 Work with a partner.

Student A Go to page 115.

Student B Go to page 117.

12 Unit 2 • The way we live



6 Think of questions to ask about free time and vacation activities.

- What do you do in your free time?
- What do ... on weekends?
- ... any sports?
- Do you ... any hobbies?
- Do you like ... ?
- Where ... vacation?

Stand up! Ask three students your questions. Use short answers when necessary. Find out who has the most hobbies and best vacations.

Do you like skiing?

No, I don't.

Check it

7 Put a check (✓) next to the correct sentence.

- ☐ Where you go on vacation?
☐ Where do you go on vacation?
- ☐ I'm Yaling. I'm coming from Taiwan.
☐ I'm Yaling. I come from Taiwan.
- ☐ This is a great party! Everyone is dancing.
☐ This is a great party! Everyone dances.
- ☐ I don't have a cell phone.
☐ I no have a cell phone.
- ☐ Jack's a police officer, but he doesn't wear a uniform.
☐ Jack's a police officer, but he no wear a uniform.
- ☐ "Where is Pete?" "He's sitting by the window."
☐ "Where is Pete?" "He sits by the window."
- ☐ I'm liking black coffee.
☐ I like black coffee.

VOCABULARY

Daily life

1 Match the verbs and nouns.

have
wash
watch
talk

a movie on TV
to my friends
my hair
breakfast

make
listen
relax
do

to music
my homework
some coffee
on the sofa

take
clean up
do
have/put

posters on the wall
the mess
a shower
the dishes

cook
go
put on
read

magazines
a meal
makeup
to the bathroom

T 2.4 Listen and check.

2 Match the activities from Exercise 1 with the correct room.

Kitchen

Bathroom

Living room

Bedroom

3 Do you like where you live? Choose your favorite room. What do you do in that room?



I like my bedroom a lot because I have lots of posters on the walls. I listen to music and do my homework ...

I like my living room. The walls are white, and I love the big, comfortable sofa ...

4 Describe your favorite room to a partner. Don't say which room it is. Can your partner guess?

READING AND SPEAKING

Living in the USA

- 1 Close your eyes and think of the United States. Write down the first five things you think of.

The Empire State Building
Cheeseburgers and fries

Compare your list with other students.

- 2 Read the introduction to the magazine article. Then work in three groups.

Group A Read about Roberto.

Group B Read about Endre.

Group C Read about Yuet.

- 3 Answer the questions.

1. Why and when did he/she come to the United States?
2. What does he/she do?
3. What does he/she like about living in the United States?
4. What was difficult at the beginning?

- 4 Find a partner from each of the other two groups. Compare the three people.

- 5 Answer the questions with your group.

1. What do the people have in common?
2. Are they all happy living in the United States?
3. Who has other members of their family living in the United States?
4. Do they all have children?
5. Who married someone from their own country?
6. What do Roberto and Endre like about the United States?
7. What do they say about their own country?
8. Do they like the people in the United States?
9. What do they say about Americans and their cars?

What do you think?

- What do you like best about living in your country? What would you miss if you lived abroad?
- Do you know any foreigners living in your country? What do they like about it? What do they say is different?

LIVING IN



Every year, tens of thousands of people from around the world travel to the United States to study or visit. But what is it like to live there? How do people like the US when they first arrive? What do they think of the people and the way of life?

Jeff Peterson spoke to three people.

THE USA



Roberto Solano
from Mexico

Roberto came from Mexico to New York ten years ago. At first he missed everything—the sunshine, the food, his girlfriend. But now he has a successful business with his three brothers and his sister. They run a soccer store in a small town near New York City. Roberto's girlfriend is now his wife, and they have two children.

When asked why he came to the United States, Roberto says without hesitation, "Because I want to work hard and have my own business." He certainly works hard. He's at the store all day, then works as a driver in the evening. "That's why I like America," he says. "You can be whatever you want."

"When I first came here, I only spoke Spanish. Then I went to high school and learned English. The people were friendly, but I missed my family. Now nearly all my family are here. We meet about once a month and have a huge Mexican meal that takes about five hours! We're all happy here."



Endre Boros
from Hungary

Endre is a professor at Rutgers University in New Jersey. He came from Budapest 13 years ago. "I had an opportunity to come here for two years." After a year, his wife came to join him, and since then they've had a daughter, so they decided to stay.

"At first it was very strange. Everything is so big here," he says. "I started to feel happy when I bought a car. Now I go everywhere by car. In Hungary, we only use the car on weekends, but here your car is part of your life. Nobody walks anywhere."

What does he think of the people? "Very friendly. The first question everybody asks you is 'Where are you from?' People talk to you here, they start conversations."

What about the way of life? "The thing I like best is the independence. Nobody tells me what to do. Here you can do what you want, so you learn to make decisions for yourself. I feel in control."



Yuet Tung
from Hong Kong

Yuet is her Chinese name, but in English she's known as Clara. She came to the United States eight years ago and studied fine art. Now she works on Madison Avenue for a publishing company. She married a Vietnamese American three years ago, and they live in a suburb of New York. They don't have any children yet.

How does she like working in New York? "It's very similar to Hong Kong. It's a busy city, very exciting, and people walk very fast! I like the stores here. They're huge, and it's cheaper than Hong Kong. In Hong Kong everyone uses public transportation because it's good and it's cheap. But you need a car here. At first I hated driving, but it's OK now."

What does she like best? "The space. Here I live in a house with a yard. In Hong Kong it is so crowded. And the people here are friendly. When I go jogging, everyone says 'Hi!' And the food is from every country in the world."

Appendix D-1: Questionnaire (for pilot study – English version)

(1st draft)

A questionnaire for code-switching in Freshman English courses

Please take your time to complete this questionnaire regarding how you feel and think about code-switching in your English language learning. All your answers will be treated as **CONFIDENTIAL** and your effort is much appreciated.

Background information

* Please tick the box or boxes as appropriate for each question.

1. Gender: male ☐ female ☐
2. College: College of Management ☐ College of Social Science ☐
 College of Information ☐ College of Design ☐
3. How long have you been learning English?
6 years ☐ 7-8 years ☐ 9-10 years ☐ 11 years and more ☐
4. What languages can you speak fluently?
Mandarin ☐ Taiwanese ☐ Hakka ☐ Other ☐

5. What language do you usually speak at home?
Mandarin ☐ Taiwanese ☐ Hakka ☐ Other ☐

6. What language do you usually speak in school with your friends?
Mandarin ☐ Taiwanese ☐ Hakka ☐ Other ☐

Code-switching in your English lessons

- Please answer the questions below by ticking ONE box only which is the closest to what you think is true:

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. The monolingual English textbook is the best choice for this course.				
2. You can understand most of the context in the textbook.				
3. Your teacher will translate the textbook in Mandarin or Taiwanese.				
4. You often make a translation in your textbook.				
5. Translation is very useful in English learning.				
6. Your teachers always ask questions in English.				
7. You always answer the question in English.				
8. You think 'English only in classroom' is the best way to learn English.				
9. You believe the native language will help in learning English.				
10. You always speak English in pair/ group discussion.				
11. You always speak native language in pair/ group discussion.				
12. You like to speak both English and native language in the class.				

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
13. You prefer the teacher to speak more native language in the class.				
14. You think the more native language the teacher use will help you to learn or understand English better.				
15. You think speaking English well is important.				
16. You are interested in learning English.				
17. You enjoy learning English in class.				
18. You practice English often outside of the class.				

19. Any comments regarding using native language in English language learning in your classroom?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIR

Appendix D-2: Questionnaire (for pilot study – Mandarin version)

大一英語課程之語言使用情形問卷調查

煩請您運用一些時間填寫這份有關您在語言學習上的一些感受及想法的問卷。
您所回答的任何答案及相關資料都將會被妥善保密，並且非常感謝您的付出及參與。

一、 背景資料

- 請單選或複選適合的答案。

1. 性別： 男 ☐ 女 ☐

2. 學院： 管理學院 ☐ 社會科學學院 ☐ 資訊學院 ☐ 設計學院 ☐

3. 您學習英語多久了？

6 年 ☐ 7-8 年 ☐ 9-10 年 ☐ 11 年以上 ☐

4. 您能流利的說哪些語言？

國語 ☐ 台語 ☐ 客家語 ☐ 英語 ☐ 其他 ☐

5. 您在家通常說哪種〈或哪些〉語言？

國語 ☐ 台語 ☐ 客家語 ☐ 英語 ☐ 其他 ☐

6. 您在學校通常和朋友說哪種〈或哪些〉語言？

國語 ☐ 台語 ☐ 客家語 ☐ 英語 ☐ 其他 ☐

二、 您的英語課

- 針對以下問題，請單選一個最適合您的答案。

	非常 同意	同 意	不同 意	非常 不同 意
1. 英語原文書是這堂課最好的選擇。				
2. 課本內容適合您的程度。				
3. 全英語教學法是學習英語最好的方法。				
4. 當您無法用英語表達時，使用國語將對您有幫助。				
5. 當您無法用英語表達時，使用台語將對您有幫助。				
6. 如果老師上課中使用國語，對您是有幫助的。				
7. 如果老師上課中使用台語，對您是有幫助的。				
8. 老師上課中多使用中文，有助您的英語學習及了解。				
9. 說一口流利的英語讓您覺得比其他人優秀。				
10. 會說流利的英語很重要。				
11. 如果您有好的英語能力，將有助您找到較好的工作。				

	總 是	經 常	很 少	從 不
12. 使用課本時，老師會用國語翻譯部分課文內容以助您了解課文。				
13. 使用課本時，老師會用台語翻譯部分課文內容以助您了解課文。				
14. 你把部分課文內容翻譯成中文寫在課本上。				
15. 您的老師用英語問問題。				
16. 您用英語回答問題。				
17. 您用英語做兩人/小組討論。				
18. 您用國語做兩人/小組討論。				
19. 您用台語做兩人/小組討論。				

20. 請寫出任何在您的英語課堂裡，使用中文對英語學習的任何意見。

非常感謝您填寫這份問卷！

Appendix D-3: Questionnaire (for research site – English version)

(5th draft)

A questionnaire on language use in Freshman English courses

Please take your time to complete this questionnaire regarding how you feel and think about language use in your English language learning. All your responses will be treated as **CONFIDENTIAL** and your effort is much appreciated.

A. Background information

* Please tick the box (for question 1 to 5) or boxes (for question 6,7, and 8) as appropriate for each question.

1. Gender: male ☐ female ☐

2. College: College of Management ☐ College of Social Science ☐
 College of Information ☐ College of Design ☐

3. Educational system: Day school student ☐ Evening school student ☐

4. English class level: level III ☐ level II ☐

5. How long have you been learning English?
6 years ☐ 7-8 years ☐ 9-10 years ☐ 11 years and more ☐

6. What languages can you speak fluently?
Mandarin ☐ Taiwanese ☐ Hakka ☐ English ☐
Other ☐ _____

7. What languages do you usually speak at home?
Mandarin ☐ Taiwanese ☐ Hakka ☐ English ☐
Other ☐ _____

8. What languages do you usually speak in school with your friends?
Mandarin ☐ Taiwanese ☐ Hakka ☐ English ☐
Other ☐ _____

B. Your English class

- Please respond to the statements about your English classes below by ticking ONE box only which is the closest to what you think is appropriate:

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. The English only textbook is the best choice for this course.				
2. The content of the textbook is suitable for my English level.				
3. The 'English only in the class' method is the best way to learn English.				
4. It is helpful to speak Mandarin when I don't know how to express my idea in English.				
5. It is helpful to speak Taiwanese when I don't know how to express my idea in English.				
6. It is helpful if the teacher speaks more Mandarin in the class.				
7. It is helpful if the teacher speaks more Taiwanese in the class.				
8. It is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to explain grammar.				
9. It is helpful if the teacher uses Taiwanese to explain grammar.				
10. It is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to teach new vocabulary.				
11. It is helpful if the teacher uses Taiwanese to teach new vocabulary.				
12. It is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to explain difficult content in the textbook.				
13. It is helpful if the teacher uses Taiwanese to explain difficult content in the textbook.				
14. It is helpful if the teacher switches between English and Mandarin in his/ her teaching.				
15. It is helpful if the teacher switches between English and Taiwanese in his/ her teaching.				
16. Using Mandarin in class is not useful because it may change the original English meaning.				

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
17. Using Taiwanese in class is not useful because it may change the original English meaning.				
18. I understand the lesson very well when the teacher only uses English.				
19. I understand the lesson better when the teacher switches to Mandarin to explain his or her prior English comments.				
20. I understand the lesson better when the teacher switches to Taiwanese to explain his or her prior English comments.				
21. Speaking English well in class makes me feel superior to others.				
22. It is easier to get a better job if I have good English language skills.				

	always	often	rarely	never
23. When using the textbook, the teacher translates part of the textbook into Mandarin for comprehension.				
24. When using the textbook, the teacher translates part of the textbook into Taiwanese for comprehension.				
25. I translate part of my textbook into written Chinese for comprehension.				
26. My teacher asks questions in English.				
27. I answer questions in English.				
28. I speak only English in pair/ group discussion.				
29. I speak only Mandarin in pair/ group discussion.				
30. I speak only Taiwanese in pair/ group discussion.				
31. I speak both English and Mandarin in pair/ group discussion.				
32. I speak both English and Taiwanese in pair/ group discussion.				
33. I switch languages among English, Mandarin, and Taiwanese in pair/ group discussion.				

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix D-4: Questionnaire (for research site – Mandarin version)

大一英語課程之語言使用情形問卷調查

(第三版)

煩請您運用一些時間填寫這份有關您在語言學習上的一些感受及想法的問卷。
您所回答的任何答案及相關資料都將會被妥善保密，並且非常感謝您的寶貴意見及參與。

一、背景資料

- 請單選或複選適合的答案。

1. 性別： 男 ☐ 女 ☐

2. 學院： 管理學院 ☐ 社會科學學院 ☐ 資訊學院 ☐ 設計學院 ☐

3. 學制： 日間部學生 ☐ 進修部學生 ☐

4. 英語課等級： 英文 III ☐ 英文 II ☐

5. 您學習英語多久了？

6 年 ☐ 7-8 年 ☐ 9-10 年 ☐ 11 年以上 ☐

6. 您能流利的說哪種〈或哪些〉語言？

國語 ☐ 台語 ☐ 客家語 ☐ 英語 ☐ 其他 ☐

7. 您在家通常說哪種〈或哪些〉語言？

國語 ☐ 台語 ☐ 客家語 ☐ 英語 ☐ 其他 ☐

8. 您在學校通常和朋友說哪種〈或哪些〉語言？

國語 ☐ 台語 ☐ 客家語 ☐ 英語 ☐ 其他 ☐

二、您的英語課

● 針對以下問題，請單選一個最適合您的答案。

	非常 同意	同 意	不同 意	非常 不同意
1. 英語原文教科書是這堂課最好的選擇。				
2. 課本內容適合我的程度。				
3. 只用英語教學是學習英語最好的方法。				
4. 當我無法用英語表達時，使用國語將對我有幫助。				
5. 當我無法用英語表達時，使用台語將對我有幫助。				
6. 如果老師上課中多使用國語，對我的英語學習是有幫助的。				
7. 如果老師上課中多使用台語，對我的英語學習是有幫助的。				
8. 老師使用國語解釋英語文法，對我的英語學習是有幫助的。				
9. 老師使用台語解釋英語文法，對我的英語學習是有幫助的。				
10. 老師使用國語教英語單字，對我的英語學習是有幫助的。				
11. 老師使用台語教英語單字，對我的英語學習是有幫助的。				
12. 老師使用國語解釋難懂的課文，對我的英語學習是有幫助的。				
13. 老師使用台語解釋難懂的課文，對我的英語學習是有幫助的。				
14. 當老師用英語講完後，再用國語解釋，對我的英語學習是有幫助的。				
15. 當老師用英語講完後，再用台語解釋，對我的英語學習是有幫助的。				
16. 課堂中使用國語對英語學習是沒有幫助的，因為會改變英語原文的意思。				
17. 課堂中使用台語對英語學習是沒有幫助的，因為會改變英語原文的意思。				
18. 當老師只用全英語授課時，我也可以完全了解老師的上課內容。				

19. 當老師用英語講完後，再用國語解釋，我會比較了解老師的上課內容。				
20. 當老師用英語講完後，再用台語解釋，我會比較了解老師的上課內容。				
21. 說一口流利的英語讓我覺得比其他人優秀。				
22. 有好的英語能力，將有助我找到較好的工作。				

	總是	經常	很少	從不
23. 使用課本時，老師會用國語翻譯部分課文內容以助我們了解課文。				
24. 使用課本時，老師會用台語翻譯部分課文內容以助我們了解課文。				
25. 我把部分課文內容翻譯成中文寫在課本上。				
26. 我的老師用英語問問題。				
27. 我用英語回答問題。				
28. 我用英語做兩人/小組討論。				
29. 我用國語做兩人/小組討論。				
30. 我用台語做兩人/小組討論。				
31. 我用英語及國語做兩人/小組討論。				
32. 我用英語及台語做兩人/小組討論。				
33. 我會同時使用英語、國語及台語做兩人/小組討論。				

非常感謝您填寫這份問卷！

Appendix D-5: Questionnaire (results)

A questionnaire on language use in Freshman English courses

Please take your time to complete this questionnaire regarding how you feel and think about language use in your English language learning. All your responses will be treated as **CONFIDENTIAL** and your effort is much appreciated.

A. Background information

*** Please tick the box (for question 1 to 5) or boxes (for question 6,7, and 8) as appropriate for each question.**

1. Gender: male (37) female (70)
2. College: College of Management (0) College of Social Science (6)
 College of Information (37) College of Design (64)
3. Educational system: Day school student (50), Evening school student (57)
4. English class level: Level II (50), Level III (57)
5. How long have you been learning English?
 6 years (35) 7-8 years (49) 9-10 years (13) 11 years and more (10)
6. What languages can you speak fluently?
 Mandarin (104) Taiwanese (69) Hakka (4) English (1)
 Other (1) not fluent in any languages
7. What languages do you usually speak at home?
 Mandarin (81) Taiwanese (75) Hakka (4) English (0)
 Other (0) _____
8. What languages do you usually speak in school with your friends?
 Mandarin (106) Taiwanese (59) Hakka (0) English (4)
 Other (1) sign language

B. Your English class

- Please respond to the statements about your English classes below by ticking ONE box only which is the closest to what you think is appropriate:

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Frequency/ Valid percent
1. The English only textbook is the best choice for this course.	17 15.9%	58 54.2%	25 23.4%	7 6.5%	107 100.0%
2. The content of the textbook is suitable for my English level.	20 18.7%	71 66.4%	12 11.2%	4 3.7%	107 100.0%
3. The 'English only in the class' method is the best way to learn English.	19 17.8%	36 33.6	48 44.9%	7 3.7%	107 100.0%
4. It is helpful to speak Mandarin when I don't know how to express my idea in English.	42 39.3%	58 54.2%	6 5.6%	1 .9%	107 100.0%
5. It is helpful to speak Taiwanese when I don't know how to express my idea in English.	16 15.0%	46 43.0%	35 32.7%	10 9.3%	107 100.0%
6. It is helpful if the teacher speaks more Mandarin in the class.	10 9.3%	50 46.7%	44 41.1%	3 2.8%	107 100.0%
7. It is helpful if the teacher speaks more Taiwanese in the class.	5 4.7%	29 27.1%	54 50.5%	19 17.8%	107 100.0%
8. It is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to explain grammar.	34 31.8%	67 62.6%	4 3.7%	2 1.9%	107 100.0%
9. It is helpful if the teacher uses Taiwanese to explain grammar.	3 2.8%	31 29.0%	56 52.3%	17 15.9%	107 100.0%
10. It is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to teach new vocabulary.	13 12.1%	71 66.4%	19 17.8%	4 3.7%	107 100.0%

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Frequency/ Valid percent
11. It is helpful if the teacher uses Taiwanese to teach new vocabulary.	3 2.8%	32 29.9%	56 52.3%	16 15.0%	107 100.0%
12. It is helpful if the teacher uses Mandarin to explain difficult content in the textbook.	44 41.1%	58 54.2%	5 4.7%	0 0.00%	107 100.0%
13. It is helpful if the teacher uses Taiwanese to explain difficult content in the textbook.	3 2.8%	34 31.8%	53 49.5%	17 15.9%	107 100.0%
14. It is helpful if the teacher switches between English and Mandarin in his/ her teaching.	54 50.5%	52 48.6%	1 .9%	0 0.00%	107 100.0%
15. It is helpful if the teacher switches between English and Taiwanese in his/ her teaching.	6 5.6%	35 32.7%	52 48.6%	14 13.1%	107 100.0%
16. Using Mandarin in class is not useful because it may change the original English meaning.	3 2.8%	19 17.8%	70 65.4%	15 14.0%	107 100.0%
17. Using Taiwanese in class is not useful because it may change the original English meaning.	8 7.5%	28 26.2%	59 55.1%	12 11.2%	107 100.0%
18. I understand the lesson very well when the teacher only uses English.	25 23.4%	64 59.8%	0 0.00%	18 16.8%	107 100.0%
19. I understand the lesson better when the teacher switches to Mandarin to explain his or her prior English comments.	56 52.3%	50 46.7%	1 .9%	0 0.00%	107 100.0%
20. I understand the lesson better when the teacher switches to Taiwanese to explain his or her prior English comments.	6 5.6%	41 38.3%	43 40.2%	17 15.9%	107 100.0%

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Frequency/ Valid percent
21. Speaking English well in class makes me feel superior to others.	42 39.3%	50 46.7%	11 10.3%	4 3.7%	107 100.0%
22. It is easier to get a better job if I have good English language skills.	60 56.1%	42 39.3%	4 3.7%	1 .9%	107 100.0%

	always	often	rarely	never	Frequency/ Valid percent
23 When using the textbook, the teacher translates part of the textbook into Mandarin for comprehension.	29 27.1%	60 56.1%	17 15.9%	1 .9%	107 100.0%
24. When using the textbook, the teacher translates part of the textbook into Taiwanese for comprehension.	3 2.8%	3 2.8%	21 19.6%	80 74.8%	107 100.0%
25. I translate part of my textbook into written Chinese for comprehension.	26 24.3%	47 43.9%	30 28.0%	4 3.7%	107 100.0%
26. My teacher asks questions in English.	4 40.2%	56 52.3%	6 5.6%	2 1.9%	107 100.0%
27. I answer questions in English.	18 16.8%	36 33.6%	47 43.9%	6 5.6%	107 100.0%
28. I speak only English in pair/ group discussion.	19 17.8%	40 37.4%	35 32.7%	13 12.1%	107 100.0%
29. I speak only Mandarin in pair/ group discussion.	22 20.6%	60 56.1%	18 16.8%	7 6.5%	107 100.0%

	always	often	rarely	never	Frequency/ Valid percent
31. I speak both English and Mandarin in pair/ group discussion.	18 16.8%	63 58.9%	22 20.6%	4 3.7%	107 100.0%
32. I speak both English and Taiwanese in pair/ group discussion.	2 1.9%	13 12.1%	38 35.5%	54 50.5%	107 100.0%
33. I switch languages among English, Mandarin, and Taiwanese in pair/ group discussion.	7 6.5%	33 30.8%	35 32.7%	32 29.9%	107 100.0%

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix E: Observation Schedule

Level II	Level III	Interviews
09-26-2002 Recordings Field notes Transcription	09-24-2002 Recordings Field notes Transcription	Teachers 12-07-2002 Recordings Transcription
10-31-2002 Recordings Field notes Transcription	10-22-2002 Recordings Field notes Transcription	III Students 01-07-2003 Recordings Transcription
11-28-2002 Recordings Field notes Transcription	11-26-2002 Recordings Field notes Transcription	II Students 01-09-2003 Recordings Transcription
12-19-2002 Recordings Field notes Transcription	12-17-2002 Recordings Field notes Transcription	
01-09-2003 Recordings No Field notes (I wasn't there) Transcription	01-07-2003 Recordings Field notes Transcription	

Appendix F: Semi-structured Questions for Teachers' Interview

1. What are the effects of using English, bilingual or multi-lingual textbooks in your English teaching?
2. What do you think of using English only for teaching English or you may switch to Mandarin or Taiwanese according to students' English level or for some other reasons?
3. What do you think of the imported English textbooks and domestic English textbooks that contain Chinese explanation?
4. What is your perception of "English only Teaching Approach" and its advantages and disadvantages?
5. What is your attitude toward using other languages to facilitate your students' learning? Using bilingual or monolingual?
6. Do you use any special methods to achieve a particular teaching goal?
7. From student's point of view, have you notice the students' attitudes if you use other languages to teach them? How do they perceive that?
8. If you want to teach with English only, but you find out that students can't completely accept it. Will you force yourself to switch to another language while teaching?
9. Would you speak more Mandarin or Taiwanese than English when you are conducting a lesson? Why?
10. According to our department regulation, teachers must use English only in classrooms. Do you think the regulation could become a pressure of forcing yourself to use English in class?
11. Do you think that switching into Mandarin or Taiwanese will facilitate your teaching?
12. What are advantages/ disadvantages of switching into Mandarin?
13. What are advantages/ disadvantages of switching into Taiwanese?
14. What do you think of your students' learning attitudes?
15. How do you motivate your students?
16. Are there any differences between day-class and evening-class students on the issue of learning attitude?
17. Under what circumstances do you allow/ encourage/ discourage students to speak Mandarin/ Taiwanese?
18. When you are conducting pair works in class, do you restrict students to speak only English while practicing?

Appendix G: Semi-structured Questions for Students' Interview

1. Which do you prefer, teachers use English only to teach English or to use Chinese to facilitate your language learning when it is needed?
2. What do you think of whole language learning environment?
3. What do you think of a teacher switching into Mandarin or Taiwanese in your English class?
4. What kind of textbooks do you prefer, the imported English textbooks or domestic English textbooks that contain Chinese explanation?
5. What are your perceptions of a teacher use Chinese to explain English vocabulary and a teacher uses only English to explain English vocabulary?
6. Which language would you use when you need to ask the teacher questions, English or Chinese?
7. What do you think of using other languages in your English learning?
8. What's your expectation for an English lesson should be like, English only, bilingual, or multilingual?
9. Do you think using Mandarin or Taiwanese will facilitate your learning?
10. When you are doing pair works practice in class, will you speak only English while practicing or you may use some Mandarin or Taiwanese?

Appendix H-1: Transcripts (A Sample of English Level II)

II-9-26-01 (22:06)

Vocabulary explanation and conversation practice

1. T: Sixty minutes equal one hour. So twenty-four hours equal one day. So,
2. seven days equal a week, one week. OK. So, four weeks equal a month.
3. Twelve months equal a year, yeah right! OK^. So, do you know seven days?
4. What day is today? What day is today?
5. Ss: Thursday.
6. T: {Today is Thursday. So, can you count from Sunday to Saturday? Can you
7. count from Sunday to Saturday? Can you count from one to five? One, two,
8. three, four, five. Right? OK, now, can you count from Sunday to Saturday?
9. [The teacher is waiting for a students response.]
10. Ss: Yes. [Only about four or five students answer and nod their heads.]
11. T: OK. All right. [Teacher writes down the spellings and some students repeat
12. after the teacher about the days of the week.] Sunday, Monday, Tuesday,
13. Wednesday, Thursday, Thursday^. LOUDER [The teacher wants students to
14. speak louder.] Friday, and Saturday. So, it's for a week. OK, repeat after me
15. again. Sunday.
16. Ss: Sunday.
17. T: Monday.
18. Ss: Monday.
19. T: Tuesday.
20. Ss: Tuesday.
21. T: Wednesday.
22. Ss: Wednesday.
23. T: Thursday.
24. Ss: Thursday.
25. T: Thursday^. Louder.
26. T: Friday.
27. Ss: Friday.
28. T: And Saturday.
29. Ss: Saturday.
30. T: OK! From Sunday, from this row. OK, go.
31. Ss: [Students look puzzled and don't know what to do.]

32. T: OK, this row, repeat Sunday.
33. Ss: Sunday.
34. T: Louder.
35. Ss: Sunday 再來是什麼？(zai lai shih she me) <What's next?>
36. T: Monday.
37. Ss: Monday.
38. T: Tuesday.
39. Ss: Tuesday.
40. T: Wednesday.
41. Ss: Wednesday.
42. T: Thursday^.
43. Ss: Thursday.
44. T: Thursday Louder.
45. T: Friday.
46. Ss: Friday.
47. T: Saturday.
48. Ss: Saturday.
49. T: OK Saturday, Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday,
50. SATURDAY. Sunday, [Students repeat after the teacher in a low voice tone.]
51. Are you sleepy? OK! Now twelve months right. Ok! Do you know twelve
52. months? So what months is it?
53. Ss: [Students didn't answer.]
54. T: It's? It's Saturday. Alright, September, right? OK, September. Can you count
55. from January to December?
56. T: January. [The teacher writes down the twelve months on the board.]
57. Ss: January.
58. T: February.
59. Ss: February.
60. T: March.
61. Ss: March.
62. T: April.
63. Ss: April.
64. T: May.
65. Ss: May.
66. T: June.
67. Ss: June.
68. T: July.
69. Ss: July.

70. T: Then^?
71. Ss: August.
72. T: {August. [Teacher repeats after Ss.] 來 (**lai**) <Come on> go, August.
73. Ss: August.
74. T: Next one^?
75. Ss: September.
76. T: 對 (**duei**) <Right> , SEPTEMBER.
77. Ss: September.
78. T: OCTOBER.
79. Ss: October.
80. T: NOVEMBER.
81. Ss: November.
82. T: DECEMBER.
83. Ss: December.
84. T: OK! Repeat again, January.
85. Ss: January.
86. T: February.
87. Ss: February.
88. T: March.
89. Ss: March.
90. T: April.
91. Ss: April.
92. T: May.
93. Ss: May.
94. T: June.
95. Ss: June.
96. T: July.
97. Ss: July.
98. T: August.
99. Ss: August.
100. T: September.
101. Ss: September.
102. T: October.
103. Ss: October.
104. T: November.
105. Ss: November.
106. T: December.
107. Ss: December.

108. T: OK. So, December^, January, and February, we call it for what season? [The
 109. teacher waits for the students' responses.] Winter or summer or spring or fall?
 110. [The teacher waits for the students' responses.] Which one^? Which one^?
 111. [The teacher waits for the students' responses.] Winter or summer or spring or
 112. fall?
 113. Ss: Winter.
 114. T: {WINTER. Yah! Great. [Teacher writes on the board.] March, April, May, we
 115. CALL, what season?
 116. Ss: Spring.
 117. T: {SPRING. [Teacher writes on the board.] Last one^, June, July, August, what
 118. season?
 119. Ss: Summer.
 120. T: {Summer. [Teacher writes on the board.] September, October, November [at a
 121. fast tempo]. Fall.
 122. Ss: {Fall
 123. T: {Fall, you can also say autumn. OK, now! Turn to page 1, take out your book
 124. turn to page 1. [The teacher is waiting for students to take out their books.]
 125. OK, so, so, please, let's take a look at 105 very quickly. So, what days of a
 126. week? Sunday, there you go. Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday,
 127. Thursday, Friday, Saturday.
 128. Ss: {Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday.
 129. T: Can you read faster? Can you read faster? Faster? Sunday, Monday, OK, here
 130. we go, Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday.
 131. Ss: {Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday.
 132. T: OK, now, months of the year. January, ready go. January, February, March,
 133. April, May, June, July, August, September, October, November,
 134. DECEMBER.
 135. Ss: {January, February, March, April, May, June, July, August, September,
 136. October, November, December.
 137. T: OK, can you read the seasons?
 138. T: Spring, Summer, Fall, Autumn, WINTER.
 139. Ss: {Spring, Summer, Fall, Autumn, Winter.
 140. T: OK, great... OK, now! Turn to page 2... [The teacher is looking at her book
 141. and writing on the board.]
 142. T: OK! It's Jasmine. Who is Jasmine? Who is Jasmine? WHO'S JASMINE ^?
 143. Ss: Teacher.
 144. T: {Teacher, yah. OK, so, [Teacher writes on the board.] I-like-to-go swim..
 145. T: OK^? And this is my friend. OK. and his name is Bill. And-Bill-likes-TO

146. drive. [Teacher writes on the board.] Bill likes to drive.. So, if you, you like or
 147. likes, like or likes? You?
 148. Ss: Like.
 149. T: You LIKE^? OK, and WE, WE, somebody and I [Teacher writes on the
 150. board.] like or likes?
 151. Ss: Like.
 152. T: Oh, two, two, two, like or likes?
 153. Ss: Like.
 154. T: {Like. [Teacher writes on the board.] And one more, you? You is different.
 155. This you is for one person, I love you, for TWO persons. If YOU and
 156. someone, you and Bill, you and Jasmine, two people. OK, YOU, like or
 157. likes?
 158. Ss: Like.
 159. T: It's like or likes?
 160. Ss: Like.
 161. T: Like. OK! Like, OK! And, one more, May, May, somebody and somebody,
 162. no I, no YOU. OK, maybe Bill and Amy. OK. Use like or likes?
 163. Ss: Like.
 164. T: Like. Oh...HOW, how can you use LIKE? It's already like, right? [Teacher
 165. writes on the board] What is the third person of the present simple? 第三人稱
 166. 單數的時候才用likes. (**di san ren cheng dan shu cai yueng likes**) <Use
 167. likes when it is the third person singular> OK ! Likes. He OR She OR It. OK!
 168. Use likes, OK^? OK. But always adult doesn't learn something, right? You
 169. can usually say like. OK. (??) So, he maybe you can say, give me boys'
 170. names, maybe Bill, Peter, maybe Michael? OK, Do you know any boys'
 171. names? Boys' names. Give me some boys' names.
 172. S: John.
 173. T: {John, 對 (**due**) <Right>. What else^?
 174. S: Tom.
 175. T: {Tom, 對 (**due**) <Right>. What else^? Huh^? ..
 176. Ss: Peter.
 177. T: Huh^? {Peter, 對 (**due**) <Right>. OK! He say, OK, use HE, and have you to
 178. write, OK? Understand^? And SHE maybe girls' names. Maybe Mary, Ann.
 179. What else^?
 180. Ss: Karen
 181. T: Huh^? {Karen. What else^? Jasmine. 對對對 (**due due due**) <Right, right,
 182. right> She is for likes, Jasmine. OK, what else^?
 183. S: Carol.

184. T: {Carol.
185. S: Kelly.
186. T: {Kelly. OK, and always SHE, or my sister, my sister, girl or boy?
187. Ss: Girl.
188. T: {Girl. One person or two persons?
189. Ss: One.
190. T: {One. So is he^ or she^, or I, you, we, you, they, which one? My sister?
191. T: Equals SHE. OK, so, he, she use likes, OK. No problem. Right. He, she, likes,
192. So, he, she likes TO like to what? give me some verbs. Like to swim, like
193. To..[The teacher waits for students' response.]
194. Ss: Play.
195. T: {Play. Like TO, huh^? Like to what?
196. Ss: (??).
197. T: COOK. 對 (due) <Right>. Like to cook. Like to.. like To.. {Teacher's
198. laughter} Huh^? Louder.
199. Ss: (??)
200. T: This row, last one, 來這一排最後一個同學，來 (lai jhe yi pai zuei hou yi
201. ge tueng siyue) <Alright, the student at the end of this row.>
202. S: (??).
203. T: Huh^?
204. S: Study.
205. T: {Study. 對(due) <Right>
206. T: {Study 對. (due) <Right> OK! So repeat after me. "He likes to swim."
207. Ss: "He likes to swim."
208. T: "She likes to play."
209. Ss: "She likes to play."
210. T: "She likes to cook."
211. Ss: "She likes to cook."
212. T: "She likes to study."
213. Ss: "She likes to study."
214. T: OK, now! We have no time maybe on the weekend. What is weekend?
215. Ss: (??).
216. T: Yeah, in Saturday and Sunday is weekend OK? So, repeat, "I like to go
217. shopping on the weekend." Go!
218. Ss: "I like to go shopping on the weekend."
219. T: "Bill likes to drive on the weekend."
220. Ss: "Bill likes to drive on the weekend."
221. T: "You like to go shopping on the weekend."

222. Ss: "You like to go shopping on the weekend."
223. T: "We like to drive on the weekend."
224. Ss: "We like to drive on the weekend."
225. T: "May likes to go shopping on the weekend."
226. Ss: "May likes to go shopping on the weekend."
227. T: OK, now! Turn to page 2...Ok! Look at the picture 1. Look at the picture 1.
228. So, repeat after me, "what do you like to do on the weekend?" Go!
229. Ss: "What do you like to do on the weekend?"
230. T: "I like to read."
231. Ss: "I like to read."
232. T: No. 2 picture, there is a picture. So, "what does John like to do on the
233. weekend?"
234. Ss: "What does John like to do on the weekend?"
235. T: "He likes to go to the mall."
236. Ss: "He likes to go to the mall."
237. T: So what does mall mean?.. MALL? What's mall? Mall! M-A-L-L What does
238. mall mean?..What does mall mean?..The mall is an area of boutique and you
239. can walk around layer and walk around shop. You can walk around shop. Do
240. you know the Chinese of the mall? What does mall mean in Chinese?
241. Ss: [Students look puzzled.](??).
242. T: You [The teacher is pointing at one student.] Look at picture one. Yeah! What
243. does mall mean in Chinese?
244. Ss: [The students do not reply.]
245. T: Do you know? If you don't know, then it is the one that I know! (??) 購物中
246. 心 (**gou wu jhong sin**) <Mall> OK. MALL. Do you know any mall^ in
247. Taiwan? Do you, Do you know any mall^ in Taiwan?...
248. Ss: [no responses]
249. T: In Taipei. They have the 遠企購物中心 (**yuan chi guo wu jhong sin**) <Far
250. *Eastern Shopping Centre*> right^ . You can shop. You can go shopping in the
251. mall. There are lots of shops ok? And you can buy lots of things. Ok?
252. Understand? 懂嗎^? (**dong ma^**) <Understand> 再來 (**zai lai**) <Then> ,
253. Picture 1, I am A, you are B. OK. "What do Mr. and Mrs. Johnson want to do
254. on the weekend?" Picture 1. "What do Mr. and Mrs. Johnson want to do on the
255. weekend?"
256. Ss: (??) [Students look at the teacher, only a few answer.]
257. T: {"They like to watch TV." OK, great. Number two. "What does Tom likes to
258. do on the weekend?"
259. Ss: "He likes to play basketball."

260. T: Great, No. 3. "What does Stanley like to do on the weekend?"

261. Ss: "He likes to go to the beach."

262. T: BEACH. What does BEACH^ mean? Yes, do you like to go to the beach? 海

263. 邊 (**hai bian**) <sea shore> you can swim. OK. And No. 4. "What do you and

264. your friend like to do on the weekend?"

265. Ss: "They like to (??)."

266. T: You and your friend. You. Yeah, you and your friend. 你和你朋友，你們

267. 都喜歡做什麼？ (**ni han ni de peng iou, ni men dou syi huan zuo she me?**)

268. <What do you and your friend like to do on the weekend?> "What do you and

269. your friend like to do on the weekend?"

270. Ss: "We like to chat online."

271. T: {"We like to chat online."}

272. T: What does chat online mean? [Teacher makes sure about the meaning of the

273. phrase]. Do you like to chat online? (??) Do you like to chat online? Yes or

274. no?

275. Ss: No.

276. T: {No. Really. I don't believe you. OK! Number 5. "What does your

277. grandmother like to do on the weekend?"}

278. Ss: "She likes to go hiking."

279. T: Yeah! "She likes to go hiking." What does hiking mean? [Teacher makes sure

280. about the meaning of the word].

281. Ss: (??).

282. T: Yeah, travel around on your foot. Don't ride motorcycle. Don't ride your

283. bicycle. Don't drive the car. Just walk. Alright, walk. What does hiking mean

284. in Chinese?

285. Ss: (??).

286. T: Huh?

287. Ss: (??).

288. T: 健行哦？ (**jian sing oh**) <Hiking?> Right. Now you are A and I am B. Ok!

289. And, so, picture one, go!

290. Ss: [No responses from students.]

291. T: You are A and I am B. You ask me the question. Picture 1.

292. Ss: (??).

293. T: "What do Mr. and Mrs. Johnson like to do on the weekend?" [Students repeat

294. after the teacher chorally.]

295. T: Oh! "They like to watch TV." Number 2. Picture two. Come on. Go!

296. Ss: "What does Tom like to do on the weekend?"

297. T: Oh! "He likes to play basketball." Number 3.

298. Ss: What does ~ ..
 299. T: {SALLY.
 300. Ss: "Sally like to do on the weekend?"
 301. T: Oh, "she likes to go to the beach^." Number 4.
 302. Ss: "What do you and your friend like to do on the weekend?"
 303. T: "What do you and your friend like to do on the weekend?" [The teacher speak
 304. these sentence in the very low pitch.] OK! "What do you and your friend like
 305. to do on the weekend?" Speak louder and clearly. One more time. Go!
 306. Ss: "What do you and your friend like to do on the weekend?"
 307. T: Oh! "We like to chat online." Number 5
 308. Ss: "What do your grandmother like to do on the weekend?"
 309. T: "She likes to go hiking." OK! So, now, picture 6. "What do you like to do on
 310. the weekend?" About you, what do you like to do on the weekend? Now, take
 311. a pen and draw some pictures and write some information here on the bottom
 312. of the picture. OK! "What do you like to do on the weekend?" Give you one
 313. minute.
 314. [The teacher is giving students time to do some practice from the textbooks.]

2. II-9-26-02 (11:28)

Conversation practice

315. T: Two people a group. OK, and find a partner, two people a group and try to
 316. talk a conversation. OK. What do you say something what do you like to do?
 317. Two people a group. OK! Try to speak a conversation. Ready, do you
 318. understand what I say?.. Find a partner. OK! What do you do on the weekend?
 319. (??)
 320. Ss: (??).
 321. T: You are A. [the teacher is asking one of the students the question.]
 322. S: (??).
 323. T: OK. (??).
 324. T: OK, if, everyday and(??) yesterday And ~.
 325. Ss: (??).
 326. T: Very good. So, (??) play.. play.. play or played.. played the piano. She ..is..
 327. playing.. the piano..piano.. right now. P-L-A-Y-I-N-G.. OK^? What does she
 328. learn? What does she learn?
 329. Ss: (??).

330. T: What is she learn? She learn 是什麼? (*she learn shih she me*) <What does
 331. *'she learn' mean?*> Be動詞有什麼? (*Be dong cih iou she me*) <What are
 332. *be verbs?*>
 333. S: Is.
 334. T: {Is, 還有呢? (*hai iou ne*) <What else?>
 335. S: Are.
 336. T: {Are. One more?
 337. S: Am.
 338. T: {Am. Is, are, am are BE verbs, right? OK, now, yesterday, play, played,
 339. playED. We put -ed. So, she played the piano yesterday. So, we put ED or
 340. irregular verbs. 過去式有兩種動詞,一種是規則的,加ed的, right? (*guo*
 341. *ciyu shih iou liang jhong dong cih, yi jhong shih jia ed de, right?*) <There
 342. *are two types of verbs for past tense, one is regular, use -ed.*>. 另外一種,就
 343. 是不規則變化動詞 (*ling uai yi jhong, jiou shih bu guei ze bian hua dong*
 344. *cih*) <The other one is irregular.> (??) 假如是 play的過去式動詞,就是
 345. played, 對不對, 早早就有講。 (*jia ru shih play de guo ciyu shih dong cih,*
 346. *jiou shih played, due bu due, zao zao jiou iou jiang*) <The past tense of
 347. *play would be played, right, which have already mentioned*> 再來 (*zai lai*)
 348. <Next>, tomorrow, tomorrow.. playing.. playing ...tomorrow, 要怎麼用? (*yao*
 349. *ze me yueng*) <How do we use it?> BE going to do. 代表將要什麼什麼
 350. (*dai biao jiang yao shih me shih me*) <It means something is going to
 351. *happen*>, right? So, Kelly.. is..going.. to.. play.. the piano ..tomorrow. ...OK
 352. 沒問題 (*mei uen ti*) <No problem> OK, now, 來, (*lai*) <OK> page one, 你
 353. 們告訴我 (*ni me gao su uo*) <You guys tell me>, 來 (*lai*) <Come on> ,
 354. Mark, "Mark likes to play basketball, right?" OK, so how about everyday?
 355. Mark likes to do what?
 356. Ss: "Mark likes to play basketball everyday."
 357. T: {"Mark likes to play basketball everyday." How about right now? Now. Play
 358. basketball, go!
 359. Ss: "Mark is playing basketball right now."
 360. T: {"Mark is playing basketball right now." OK, how about yesterday? Before
 361. today, yesterday.
 362. T: "Mark played basketball yesterday."
 363. Ss: "Mark played basketball yesterday."
 364. T: How about tomorrow? After today, tomorrow.
 365. T: Mark is going to play basketball tomorrow. 對 (*due*) <Right>
 366. Ss: "Mark is going to play basketball tomorrow."
 367. T: Okay, now, turn to page three. And.. just listen the tape.

368. T: [The teacher is playing the tape.] Wait a minute.

369. R: {Tape Music} Ding, ding, ding, ding. "You will hear a correct one, Tom. Play

370. basketball... (??) Park. He cooks everyday."

371. T: OK, now. Picture one, what's the boy's name? What's the boy's name?..

372. Ss: ROBERT.

373. T: OK, now, what Robert will do?

374. R: "Page 3, (??)"

375. T: What is he going to do tomorrow?

376. Ss: He is going to swim tomorrow.

377. T: Very good. OK, now, listen, and next girl, what is the girl's name?...IRENE,

378. OK, say Irene.

379. Ss: {Irene.

380. T: Say Irene, OK, now, let's listen to Irene.

381. R: {Tape music} "Irene likes to (??)"

382. T: OK, and, what did she do yesterday?

383. Ss: "She played piano yesterday."

384. T: "What does she do every day?"

385. Ss: "She plays the piano every day."

386. T: "What is she GOing to do tomorrow?"

387. Ss: "She's going to play the piano tomorrow."

388. T: She's really like to play the piano, right? OK, SO, who are they? Next picture,

389. who are they?

390. Ss: (??).

391. T: Huh?

392. Ss: (??).

393. T: Huh? Louder, I can't hear you.

394. Ss: (??).

395. T: Louder, who are they?

396. Ss: Jimmy and Peggy.

397. T: Jimmy AND Peggy. Okay, now, listen.

398. R: (??).

399. S: (??).

400. T: "What are they going to do tomorrow?"

401. S: "They are going to swim tomorrow."

402. T: Very great .OK, now, the last one, last picture. OK, so, who is he? ...

403. Ss: (??).

404. T: JOHNSON. OK, repeat after me, JOHNSON.

405. S: {Johnson.

406. T: OK.
407. R: “(??) Jimmy and Peggy really like to swim.”
408. T: “What does he do everyday?”
409. S: “He writes every day.”
410. T: OK, “what is he doing right now?”
411. S: “He’s writing right now.”
412. T: OK now, I ask you some questions and you just say after that. I’ll ask you
413. some questions. OK, you can answer it again. (??) You can answer many times
414. if you know. Understand what I say? Say yes or no. Irene likes to swim. Yes or
415. no? Irene likes to swim. Yes or no?
416. S: No.
417. T: {No. Understand what I say? OK, 我有說什麼嗎? (**uo you shuo shih me**
418. **ma**) <Did I say anything?> 就是 .. 我說, 我會說裡面的 information (**jiou**
419. **shih uo huei shuo li mian de information**) <That is, I’ll say the information
420. from the text>, 如果是正確的就, Yes (**ru guo shih jheng ciyue de jiou, yes**)
421. <If it’s correct, then just say yes> (??) 讓你們翻一下裡面的內容 (**rang ni**
422. **me fan yi sia li mian de nei rueng**) <Please browse at the content now>
423. (??).. Okay, now close your book.
424. [Students close their books.]
425. T: Robert is cooking right now.. Yes or no? 5, 4, 3, 2, 1. 請作答趕快 (**cing zuo**
426. **da gan kuai**) <Hurry, answer it now>, 快作答 (**kuai zuo da**) <Answer it
427. now>, 後面是在幹嘛 (**hou mian shih zai gan ma**) <What are you doing
428. there>? OK, SO, Jimmy and Peggy like to write. Jimmy and Peggy like to
429. write. That’s right. Johnson writes everyday. That’s right. OK, Johnson likes to
430. play basketball. Robert is playing the piano right now. Irene is playing the
431. piano right now. Jimmy is swimming right now. Jim, Jimmy is swimming
432. right now....請作答 (**cing zuo da**) <please answer>, yes or no?
433. Ss: Yes. [Students are trying to response to the teacher.]
434. T: Yes, yes... Jimmy and Peggy like to swim, right? OK, what time?
435. Ss: What about (??)?
436. T: OK. 休息一下 (**siu si yi sia**) <Let’s take a break>.

3. II-9-26-03 (19:00)

Grammar explanation

437. T: Page 155... [The teacher is waiting for students to turn to page 155.] 155,155.

438. Hurry, hurry, hurry! He he he! 5, 4, 3, 2, 1. 155! Okay. It's past tense, OK^?
439. Irregular verbs. Swim, swam. OK, now, repeat after me.
440. T: Be, was.
441. Ss: Be, was.
442. T: Become, became.
443. Ss: Become, became.
444. T: Begin, began.
445. Ss: Begin, began.
446. T: Bite, bit.
447. Ss: Bite, bit.
448. T: Break, broke.
449. Ss: Break, broke.
450. T: Build, built.
451. Ss: Build, built.
452. T: Buy, bought.
453. Ss: Buy, bought.
454. T: Catch, caught.
455. Ss: Catch, caught.
456. T: Come, came.
457. Ss: Come, came.
458. T: Cost, cost.
459. Ss: Cost, cost.
460. T: Cut, cut.
461. Ss: Cut, cut.
462. T: Do, did.
463. Ss: Do, did.
464. T: Drink, drank.
465. Ss: Drink, drank.
466. T: Drive, drove.
467. Ss: Drive, drove.
468. T: Eat, ate.
469. Ss: Eat, ate.
470. T: Fall, fell.
471. Ss: Fall, fell.
472. T: Feed, fed.
473. Ss: Feed, fed.
474. T: Feel, felt.
475. Ss: Feel, felt.

476. T: Find, found.
477. Ss: Find, found.
478. T: Fly, flew.
479. Ss: Fly, flew.
480. T: Forget, forgot.
481. Ss: Forget, forgot.
482. T: Get, got.
483. Ss: Get, got.
484. T: Give, gave.
485. Ss: Give, gave.
486. T: Go, went.
487. Ss: Go, went.
488. T: Grow, grew.
489. Ss: Grow, grew.
490. T: Have, had.
491. Ss: Have, had.
492. T: Hear, heard.
493. Ss: Hear, heard.
494. T: Hurt, hurt.
495. Ss: Hurt, hurt.
496. T: Keep, kept.
497. Ss: Keep, kept.
498. T: Know, knew.
499. Ss: Know, knew.
500. T: Lead, led.
501. Ss: Lead, led.
502. T: Leave, left.
503. Ss: Leave, left.
504. T: Lend, lent.
505. Ss: Lend, lent.
506. T: Lose, lost
507. Ss: Lose, lost.
508. T: Make, made.
509. Ss: Make, made.
510. T: Mean, meant.
511. Ss: Mean, meant.
512. T: Put, put.
513. Ss: Put, put.

514. T: Read, read.
515. Ss: Read, read.
516. T: Ride, rode.
517. Ss: Ride, rode.
518. T: Run, ran.
519. Ss: Run, ran.
520. T: Say, said.
521. Ss: Say, said.
522. T: Seek, sought.
523. Ss: Seek, sought.
524. T: Sell, sold.
525. Ss: Sell, sold.
526. T: Send, sent.
527. Ss: Send, sent.
528. T: Shake, shook.
529. Ss: Shake, shook.
530. T: Sing, song.
531. Ss: Sing, song.
532. T: Sing, sang.
533. Ss: Sing, sang.
534. T: Smell, smelt.
535. Ss: Smell, smelt.
536. T: Speak, spoke.
537. Ss: Speak, spoke.
538. T: Spend, spent.
539. Ss: Spend, spent.
540. T: Stand, stood.
541. Ss: Stand, stood.
542. T: Steal, stole. Huh uh, steal again. Steal, stole.
543. Ss: Steal, stole.
544. T: Swim, swam.
545. Ss: Swim, swam.
546. T: Take, took.
547. Ss: Take, took.
548. T: Teach, taught.
549. Ss: Teach, taught.
550. T: Tell, told.
551. Ss: Tell, told.

552. T: Think, thought.
553. Ss: Think, thought.
554. T: Understand, understood.
555. Ss: Understand, understood.
556. T: Wear, wore.
557. Ss: Wear, wore.
558. T: Write, wrote.
559. Ss: Write, wrote.
560. T: Wake up, wake up! [The teacher is waking up a student who is sleeping in
561. class.] Okay^, today your assignment, your homework is to look up the
562. dictionary and find the meaning. And remember all the B- words, become,
563. became, and Chinese meaning, you have to look up your dictionary.
564. Understand what I say? Please translate in Chinese. 翻譯成中文，我剛才說什
565. 麼？(fan yi cheng jhueng uen, wo gang cai shuo shih me) <Translate into
566. Chinese. What did I just say?>
567. [The teacher is asking a particular student.]
568. S: 回去查字典，查中文意思 (huei ciyu cha zih dian, cha jhong uen yi sih)
569. <Go back and look in the dictionary for the Chinese meaning.>
570. T: Yes. Very good. OK^? 下次我要考喔！(sia cih wo yao kao ou) <I will
571. have a quiz for this next time> Next time, I will have a quiz for this. Past tense
572. verbs. When I say come, you should write come, came. OK.
573. Ss: (??).
574. T: Yeah, yeah, yeah, and write the Chinese meaning. If I say 'say', S-A-Y, and
575. write S-A-I-D, 說，這樣。(shuo, jhe iang) <Say, that's it.> OK. No problem,
576. right? Okay...[The teacher is looking at her textbook.] Do you know your
577. birthday?...
578. [The teacher is waiting for the students' response.]
579. T: Okay, when is your birthday?
580. S: (??).
581. T: Jan. Jan. Jan. 21st. OK, it's my birth. (??)
582. T: Let's review the months.
583. Ss: January.
584. T: January.
585. Ss: February.
586. T: February.
587. Ss: March.
588. T: March.
589. Ss: April.

590. T: April.
 591. Ss: May.
 592. T: May.
 593. Ss: June.
 594. T: June.
 595. Ss: July.
 596. T: July.
 597. Ss: August.
 598. T: August.
 599. Ss: September.
 600. T: September.
 601. Ss: October.
 602. T: {October.
 603. Ss: November.
 604. T: {November.
 605. Ss: December.
 606. T: {December...Okay, if you want to talk about today...If you put today. January
 607. 一月一日 (yī yuē yī rì) <January 1st>, right, January one? Yes or no?
 608. Ss: No.
 609. T: January 1, yes or no? January 1, yes or no? Jan. Jan. No, first. OK^? 用序數.
 610. (yuēng siyu shu) <Use ordinal numbers> OK, so, first.
 611. Ss: {First.
 612. T: First.
 613. Ss: First.
 614. T: So, what is this? Two^?
 615. Ss: Second.
 616. T: Yeah, {SECOND. How about three?
 617. Ss: Third.
 618. T: {Third. How about four?
 619. Ss: Fourth.
 620. T: {Fourth. OK, five^?
 621. Ss: Fifth.
 622. T: {Fifth. And Six^? Sixth.
 623. Ss: {Sixth.
 624. T: Seven^?
 625. Ss: Seventh.
 626. T: Nine^?
 627. Ss: Ninth.

628. T: Ten^?
629. Ss: Tenth.
630. T: Eleven^?
631. Ss: Eleventh
632. T: {Eleventh.
633. T: Twelve^?
634. Ss: {Twelfth.
635. T: Thirteen^?
636. Ss: {Thirteenth.
637. T: Fourteen^?
638. Ss: {Fourteenth.
639. T: Fifteen^?
640. Ss: {Fifteenth.
641. T: Sixteen^?
642. Ss: {Sixteenth.
643. T: OK, 來 (**lai**) <Come on> , twenty?... How about... twenty-one^? .. No,
644. twenty FIRST.
645. Ss: {21st.
646. T: Twenty ~
647. Ss: Twenty 2nd.
648. T: {Twenty 2nd.
649. Ss: Twenty 3rd.
650. T: {Twenty 3rd.
651. Ss: Twenty 4th.
652. T: {Twenty 4th... OK, 來 , (**lai**) <come on> THIRTY. Thirty 1st.
653. Ss: Thirsty 1st.
654. T: Okay, so, now, my birthday is September 21st. So, what date is the day? My
655. birthday is September 21st. What's the date?
656. Ss: (??).
657. T: Huh? September, what month? OK, 21st. My birthday, uh huh. So, when is
658. your birthday? When is your birthday?
659. S: (??).
660. T: Huh? Louder. 大聲點 (**da sheng dian**) <Louder>. OK, MY...
661. S: (??).
662. T: [Teacher writes on the board.] MY BIRTHDAY IS .. OK^? When is your
663. birthday? When is your birthday again? [Teacher writes on the board]
664. S: My birthday is (??).
665. T: Five. Five? Eleven, 不是 (**bu shih**) <Not> eleven first. 什麼 (she me)

666. <What> ? 來 (lai) <Come on> , 13是什麼 (13 shih she me) <What's for
667. 13?> ? 你們會怎麼唸 (ni men huei zen me nian) <How do you say it> ? 數
668. 字來 (shu zih lai) <come on, number> , number.
669. Ss: Thirteenth.
670. T: {Thirteenth, 再加一個-th. (zai jia yi ge -th) <Plus -th> Thirteenth. 再來
671. 是~ (zai lai shih) <Next one is?>
672. Ss: Fourteenth.
673. T: {Fourteenth. 來15^ (lai 15) <What about 15?>
674. Ss: Fifteenth. Sixteenth.
675. T: 不是one third哦! (bu shih one third ou) <It's not one third> ! So, when is
676. your birthday?
677. Ss: (??).
678. T: Eleventh, 有一個-th (iou yi ge -th) <There is a -th> , 要把它發出來就對了
679. (yao bat a fa chu lai jiou due le) <Just speak it out> 。來 (lai) <Come on> ,
680. You ask her when is your birthday? 大聲哦 (da sheng ou) <Louder> ,
681. louder, 要讓全班聽得到哦 (yao rang ciyuan ban tin de dao ou) <So that
682. everyone can hear you> !
683. S: My birthday is (??).
684. T: Louder.
685. S: My birthday is September ~
686. T: SEPTEMBER.. 怎樣? (zen yang) <What?> 26. Twenty-sixth.. 來 (lai)
687. <Come on>, one more time. 再唸一次來 (zai nian yi cih lai) <Say it
688. again>, first.
689. Ss: First.
690. T: Second.
691. Ss: Second.
692. T: Third.
693. Ss: Third.
694. T: Fourth.
695. Ss: Fourth.
696. T: Fifth.
697. Ss: fifth.
698. T: Sixth.
699. Ss: Sixth.
700. T: Seventh.
701. Ss: Seventh.
702. T: Eighth.
703. Ss: Eighth.

704. T: Ninth.
705. Ss: Ninth.
706. T: Tenth.
707. Ss: Tenth.
708. T: Eleventh.
709. Ss: Eleventh.
710. T: Twelfth.
711. Ss: Twelfth.
712. T: Thirteenth.
713. Ss: Thirteenth.
714. T: Fourteenth.
715. Ss: Fourteenth. 很簡單對不對？(hen jian dan due bu due) <It's easy, isn't it?>
716. 在兩個中間加個th (zai liang ge jhuong jian jia ge th) <add th between those two.>
717. those two.>
718. T: Fifteenth.
719. Ss: Fifteenth.
720. T: Sixteenth.
721. Ss: Sixteenth.
722. T: Seventeenth.
723. Ss: Seventeenth.
724. T: Eighteenth.
725. Ss: Eighteenth.
726. T: Nineteenth.
727. Ss: Nineteenth.
728. T: Twentieth.
729. Ss: Twentieth.
730. T: Twenty-first.
731. Ss: Twenty-first.
732. T: Twenty-second.
733. Ss: Twenty-second.
734. T: Twenty-third.
735. Ss: Twenty-third.
736. T: 只有這三個比較特別 (jhih you jhe san ge bi jiao te bie) <Only these three are quite special> , TWENTY~ , 再一次 (zai yi cih) <once again> ,
737. TWENTY~
738. TWENTY~
739. Ss: Twenty-first.
740. T: TWENTY^.
741. Ss: Twenty-second.

742. T: TWENTY^.
743. Ss: Twenty-third.
744. T: 後面也一樣 (**hou mian ye yi yian**) <Same as follows> , 來 (**lai**) <Come
745. on> . Twenty~.
746. Ss: Twenty-fourth. Twenty-five.
747. T: 來, 這個5怎麼唸? (**lai, jhe ge 5 zen me nian**) <How do you pronounce
748. five?>
749. Ss: (??).
750. T: Fifth..
751. Ss: Fifth.
752. T: Fifth.
753. Ss: Fifth.
754. T: 所以啊 (**suo yi a**) <So> , 你要唸 TWENTY^ (**ni yiao nian Twenty**) <So,
755. you have to say twenty.>
756. Ss: Twenty-fifth.
757. T: {Twenty-fifth. TWENTY^.
758. Ss: Twenty-sixth.
759. T: TWENTY^.
760. Ss: Twenty-seventh.
761. T: Seventh. TWENT^
762. Ss: Twenty-eighth.
763. T: Eighth. TWENTY^
764. Ss: Twenty-ninth.
765. T: Thirtieth.
766. Ss: {Thirtieth. 好再來 (**hao zai lai**) <Next> , 這個thirty什麼 (**jhe ge thirty she**
767. **me**) <Then, thirty- what> ?
768. Ss: Thirty-first.
769. T: {Thirty-first. 好來 (**hao lai**) <Alright> , 再一次 (**zai yi ci**) <Again> . —
770. 排一排的 (**yi pai yi pai de**) <Row by row> , 好來 (**hao lai**) <Alright> , one,
771. two, (??) 這樣子 (**jhe yan zih**) <Same as follows> . 從第一個開始唸
772. (**cueng di yi ge kai shih nian**) <read from the first one> . 這一排來 (**jhe yi**
773. **pai lai**) <From this row> , FIRST.
774. Ss: First.
775. T: 來, (**lai**) <OK> First.
776. Ss: First.
777. T: Louder, first.
778. Ss: First.
779. T: Second.

780. Ss: Second.
781. T: Third.
782. Ss: Third.
783. T: Fourth.
784. Ss: Fourth.
785. T: 全部只有這一排聽得見 (**ciyuan bu jhih you jhe yi pai tian de jian**) <I
786. *can only hear this row speak*> , 來 (**lai**) <Come on> , fourth.
787. Ss: Fourth.
788. T: Seventh.
789. Ss: Seventh.
790. T: Eighth.
791. Ss: Eighth.
792. T: Ninth.
793. Ss: Ninth.
794. T: Tenth.
795. Ss: Tenth.
796. T: Eleventh. 我聲音都比你們大聲 (**uo sheng yin dou bi ni men da sheng**)
797. <My voice is even louder than yours> , 你們幾個人啊? (**ni men jig e ren**)
798. <How many of you are here?> 來 (**lai**) <Come on> , louder... Thirteenth.
799. T: Louder, thirteenth.
800. Ss: {Thirteenth.
801. T: Louder, thirteenth.
802. Ss: Thirteenth.
803. T: 繼續來 (**ji siyu lai**) <Come on, let's continue>.
804. Ss: Fourteenth.
805. T: {Fourteenth. Very good. 15來 (**lai**) <Come on> , 什麼 (**she me**) <What> ?
806. Ss: (??).
807. T: 來 (**lai**) , <Come on> , louder. Fifteenth.
808. Ss: {Fifteenth.
809. T: 15再來是17哦? (**15 zai lai shih 17 ou**) <17 comes after 15?> Yeah, sixteenth.
810. Ss: Seventeenth.
811. T: Seventeenth. 對 (**due**) <Right>
812. Ss: Eighteenth.
813. T: Eighteenth. 對 (**due**) <Right>
814. Ss: Nineteenth.
815. T: Nineteenth. 對 (**due**) <Right>
816. Ss: {Twentieth.
817. T: Twentieth. Twenty-first.

818. Ss: Twenty-first.
819. T: Twenty-second.
820. Ss: Twenty-second.
821. T: Twenty^. [Turn-taking]
822. Ss: Twenty-third.
823. T: Twenty^. Louder. Twenty^
824. Ss: Twenty-fourth.
825. T: Twenty-fifth哦 (ou) <huh>? Twenty-fifth, right? 再說一遍 (zai shuo yi
826. bian) <Say it again> , twenty-fifth.
827. Ss: Twenty-fifth. Twenty-sixth.
828. T: Yes, that's right. [Teacher responds after students' reply.]
829. Ss: Twenty-seventh.
830. T: {Twenty-seventh, 對 (due) <Right.>
831. Ss: (??).
832. T: Twenty^, twenty^, twenty^
833. Ss: (??).
834. T: 不行 (bu sieng) <No> , 有人沒講 (you ren mei jian) <Some of you didn't
835. speak> , 這一排來 (jhe yi pai lai) <Come on, this row> , twenty^
836. Ss: Twenty-eighth. Twenty-ninth...
837. T: Thirtieth.
838. Ss: (??).
839. T: Thirtieth. Thirty^ [Turn taking]
840. Ss: Thirty-first.
841. T: Thirty-first. 這樣會 (jhe yang huei) <No problem, right> , OK, 來 (lai)
842. <Come on> , When is your birthday?
843. S: My birthday is March (??).
844. T: March. March 3rd. March 3rd. So, OK, after, what is your birthday?
845. S: My birthday is (??).
846. T: September 8th, 對 (due) <Right> After, when is your birthday?
847. S: My birthday is (??).
848. T: NOVEMBER third. OK, next one. After, huhu, after, when is your ..
849. Louder. When is your birthday? [The teacher is asking students one after
850. another.]
851. S: (??).
852. T: My birthday is ...
853. S: [The student is trying to response to the teacher, but the teacher can't hear
854. them.]
855. T: Huh? Huh? My birthday is 什麼? (she me) <What?> Louder...

856. S: (??)
857. T: 二月啊...(er yue a) <February?> 大聲好不好 (da sheng hao bu hao)
858. <Louder, OK?>, louder, please, 幾月 (ji yue) <What month?>
859. S: (??).
860. T: Huh? Oh, December, December... December 13th, 23rd 是不是? (shih bu
861. shih) <Right?> OK, everyone, my birthday is December 23rd, Go!
862. Ss: {My birthday is December 23rd.
863. T: {My birthday is December 23rd. OK, 來(lai) <come one>, next one, when is
864. your birthday?
865. [Teacher asks students' birthday one by one.]
866. S: (??).
867. T: Seventh. Thirteenth, 對 (due) <Right>, after.
868. S: (??).
869. T: 對 (due) <Right>, after.
870. S: (??).
871. T: 對 (due) <Right>, next one.
872. S: (??).
873. T: 對。
874. S: (??).
875. T: OK. ... 等會每一排都這樣子輪 (deng huei mei yi pai dou jhe yang luen)
876. <Later, every row takes turns like this.>, when is your birthday, 這樣會 (jhe
877. yang huei) <Easy, right>, 就像剛才這樣子做 (jiou siang gang cai jhe
878. yang zih zuo) <Do as we have just done>, OK? 第一排了 (di yi pai
879. le) <First row>, 請先站起來 (cing sian jhan ci lai) <Please stand up>, my
880. birthday is blablabla, 我們看哪一排最快 (wo men kan shei zuei kuai)
881. <Let's see who's No. 1>. Ready? Go! 來 (lai) <Come on>, my birthday is
882. (??).
883. Ss: [In-Class activity: students stand up and practice.]

Appendix H-2: Transcripts (A Sample of English Level III)

III-9-24-01

Conversation explanation and practice

1. T: Right! Um, if there, if there's no other questions, we will continue, OK?
2. Starting from where we finished last week, OK? 我們上個禮拜教到哪裡呢?
3. (**wuo men shang ge li bai jiiao dao na li ne**) <Where were we last week?>
4. Ss: 昨天 (**zuo tian**) <Yesterday>
5. T: Ha? 噢, 昨天? (**Oh, zuo tian**) <Oh, yesterday?> OK. Really? {The teacher's
6. laughing.} 好, (**hao**) <OK> Yesterday. Because this class is a kind of special,
7. 你們班的這個時間, 哦, 有點不一樣, (**ni men ban de jhe ge sh jian o you**
8. **dian bu yi yang**) <The time of your class is somehow different from others,
9. *oh*> OK? One hour on Monday and two hours on Tuesday, right? OK. 所以
10. 呢, 有時候會搞混哦。 (**suo yi ne you shih hou huei gao hun o**) <So, I get
11. *confused sometimes oh*^.> All right, 那 (**na**) .. <That> come back to the
12. textbook on page three^.. Page three. Yesterday, we learned about that (??)
13. OK? Who can tell me, who can tell me, what, what what is she studying? 昨
14. 天聽的錄音帶還有印象嗎? .. (**zuo tian ting de lu yin dai hai you in siang**
15. **ma**) <Do you still remember what you heard from the tape yesterday?>
16. Ss: (??).
17. T: (??) very good, (??) where is she from? 她是哪裡人? (**ta shih na li ren**)
18. <Where's she from?>
19. Ss: (??).
20. T: Ha?
21. Ss: (??).
22. T: (??) 那她住在哪裡呢? (**na ta jhu zai na li ne**) <Where is she living now?>
23. Where is she living? OK. She lives in Boston. So, where is she come? Where
24. does she come from?.. Toronto, OK, she comes from Toronto. And she is now
25. living in Boston. 她是多倫多出生或是從那邊地方的人, (**ta shih duo lun**
26. **duo chu sheng huo shih chong na bian di fang de ren**) <Was she born in
27. *Toronto or was she from there?*> OK, 她現在住在哪裡呢?..(**ta sian zai jhu**
28. **zai na li ne?**) <Where is she living now?> 住在 (**jhu zai**) <Living> Boston.
29. Who is she living with? 她現在和誰一起住在家, (**ta siian zai han shei yi cii**
30. **jhu zai jia**) <Who is she living with?> Ha? She is living with her husband.
31. What is his name?

32. Ss: Jay.
33. T: {Jay, OK, Jay. Um, what does Jay do? What does Jay do? Ha? 他先生是什麼
34. 職業? (ta siian sheng shih she mo jhih ye) <What does her husband do?>
35. Ss: (??).
36. T: Ha? 建築師要怎麼講呢? (jian jhu shih yao zen mo jiang ne) <How do
37. you say architect?> He is an architect. OK, he is an architect. Right, un, Carly
38. is enjoying the program very much. OK, she's enjoying the program. She's
39. studying right now. But can you tell me how many languages can she speak?
40. How many languages can she speak? .. Let's count. Right, she, she is reading
41. a book in Italian. Italian 這是什麼國家? (jhe shih she mo guo jiia) <What
42. kind of country is this?>
43. Ss: 義大利。 (yi da li) <Italy>
44. T: {義大利, 然後呢, 義大利國家講什麼文? (yi da li, ran hou ne? yi da li guo
45. jiia jjiang she mo wun) <Italy, then? What language do they speak in
46. Italy?>
47. Ss: {義大利文 (yi da li wun) <Italian>
48. T: {義大利文 (yi da li wun) <Italian> that's right, of course, OK. [The
49. teacher's laughing.] OK, she is reading a book in Italian, OK? About Italian
50. painters. 對不對, 昨天的錄音帶講到啦, 她在讀有關 eh 義大利畫家的一
51. 些事蹟, (duei bu duei zuo tian de lu yin dai jjiang dao la, ta zai du you
52. guan yi da li hua jiia de yi siie shih ji) <Right? According to the tape
53. yesterday, she was reading about Italian arts.> OK? So she must be familiar
54. with Italian, OK? She's like, she also knows a little bit about French, OK?
55. What kind of language is French? French 是哪一國的語言啊? (shih na yi
56. guo de yu yan a?) <Language of which country?>
57. Ss: 法文 (fa wun) <French>
58. T: {法文 (fa wun) <French> So, she can speak at least [The teacher is writing
59. on the blackboard]. Italian and French. And where is she come from? Where
60. does she come from? Toronto, right? So, she can also speak English, OK?
61. So, how many languages can Carly speak? Three, she can speak three
62. languages. At least, OK? 最少, 她最少呢, 可以講三種以上的語言 (zihuei
63. shao, ta zihuei shao ne ke yi jjiang san jhong yi shang de yu yan) <At
64. least, as least, she can speak more than three languages.> All right? And, the
65. most important thing, .. the most important thing [The teacher is writing on
66. the blackboard]. At the end of herself introduction, she talks about, ok, after
67. she graduated, "after she graduated, she's going to" [Teacher's writing the
68. sentence on the blackboard.] OK? 所以她畢業以後, 她要做什麼啊 (suo yi
69. ta bi ye yi hou, ta yao zuo she mo a) <So, what does she want to do after she

70. *graduated?*> “She’s going to apply for the job.” [The teacher is writing the
71. sentence on the blackboard again.] In this art gallery or a museum? 這是什麼
72. 地方? (**jhe shih she mo di fang?**) <Where is this place?>
73. Ss: 美術館 (**mei shu guan**) <Art galley>
74. T: 那這個呢? (**na jhe ge ne**) <What about this one?> Ha?
75. Ss: 博..博物館 (**bo.. bo wu guan**) <Museum>
76. T: {博物館 (**bo u guan**), <Museum> OK! Because she studies art, so after she
77. graduated, after she graduated, she’s going to, she is going to, OK? She is
78. going to [The teacher is writing the sentence on the blackboard.] OK? She is
79. going to 後面加動詞，各位告訴我 (**hou mian jiia dong ci, ge uei gao su**
80. **wuo**) <Add an adverb after that. Students tell me> is going to 等於什麼呢?
81. (**deng yu she mo ne?**) <Equals what?> 如果我不想要用這三個字的話 (**ru**
82. **guo wuo bu siang yao yong jhe san ge zih de hua**) <If I don’t want to use
83. those three words>, 我可以用哪一個字來代替 (**wuo ke yi yong na yi ge**
84. **zih lai dai ti**) <Which word can I use to replace this one?>
85. Ss: Will.
86. T: {Will, OK, 好, (**hao**) <Well> “After she graduated, she’s going to apply for a
87. job in an art gallery or a museum.” OK? 這是她昨天 (**jhe shih ta zuo tian**)
88. <This is her yesterday>, 她 (**ta**) <She>, 我們聽錄音帶裡面 (**wuo men**
89. **ting lu yin dai li mian**) <What we heard from the tape>, 聽出 (**ting chu**)
90. <Heard> introduction with her(??) “After she graduated, she, she’s going to
91. apply for a job in an art gallery or a museum.” OK? 她要呢 (**ta yao ne**) <She
92. wants>, 到藝廊或是博物館之類的地方工作 (**dao yi lang huo shih bo wu**
93. **guan jhih lei de di fang gong zuo**) <To work at an art gallery or a museum>,
94. 好啦 (**hao la**) <All right>, 這樣呢表示各位呢 (**jhe iang ne biao shih ge**
95. **uei ne**) <This means everyone>, 昨天還非常的用心 (**zuo tian hai fei**
96. **chang de yong siin**) <Was paying attention yesterday> ho^, all right, we have
97. a little surprise for you, we got quick answer, we got quick answer on page
98. three, but we don’t have questions, OK? 在第三頁的地方 (**zai di san ye de**
99. **di fang**) <On page three>, OK?, 我們 (**wuo men**) <We> ehh 有六，六個題
100. 目啦，不，六個答案，但是呢 (**you liou, liou ge ti mu la, bu, liou ge da an,**
101. **dan shih ne**) <There are six, six questions, no, six answers, but>, the an..the
102. question is missing, OK? 我們的答案呢 (**wuo men de da an ne**)? <Where’s
103. our answer?> 不見了。 (**bu jian le**) <Missing>. 好，各位，同樣的，這是
104. 有關哦 (**hao, ge uei, tong iang de, jhe shiih you guan o**) <Well, everyone,
105. the same, this is about oh> .. Carly 的一個文章啦 (**Carly de yi ge wun jhang**
106. **la**) <An article about Carly, la>, ho^, 我們再聽了她的自我介紹以後 (**wuo**
107. **men zai ting le ta de zih wuo jie shao yi hou**) <After we heard the self-

108. *introduction from her*>, 現在呢 (**sian zai ne**) <Now> , what are you going to
 109. do is that you spend a few minutes, OK, to find out what the question word,
 110. OK, 你要把這個答案的問題找出來 (**ni yao ba jhe ge da an de wun ti**
 111. **jhao chu lai**) <You have to find out the answer for this question.>, 因為呢
 112. (**yin wuei ne**) <Because>, 我們已經有這些問題的答案了 (**wuo men yi**
 113. **jing you jhe siie un ti de da an le**) <We already have answers for these
 114. questions>. Ho, 好 (**hao**) <OK>, for example, let's go get number one, 她講
 115. 到了 (**ta jiang dao le**) <She mentioned the> what (??) to? 但是呢 (**dan shih**
 116. **ne**) <But>, 這一題的答案是什麼呢 (**jhe yi ti de da an shih she mo ne**)
 117. <What's the answer to this question?> “I don't go to a university. I study at
 118. home. I study at home.” 那我們可以猜想啦(**na wuo men ke yi cai siang la**)
 119. <Then, we can make a guess.>, OK, 所以呢 (**suo yi ne**) <so>, 這一題的問
 120. 題就是 **jhe yi ti de un ti jiou shih**) <The question for this one is> What
 121. university do you go to, OK? What university do you go to, OK? 好啦 (**hao**
 122. **la**) <OK>, 那各位看第二題 (**na ge wuei kan di er ti**) <Now, everyone
 123. look at question number two>, 這個答案是 (**jhe ge da an shih**) <The
 124. answer for this one is> Yes, I do, her part time job, OK^那 (**na**) <Then>, 所
 125. 以我們可以知道它要問的呢 (**suo yi wuo men ke yi jhih dao ta yao wun**
 126. **de ne**) <So, we can know what the question is>, 是她的工作狀況 (**shih ta**
 127. **de gong zuo jiuang kuang**) <Her work situation>, 然後 (**ran hou**) <Then>,
 128. 那什麼樣的問題會讓你回答 (**na she mo iang de wun ti huei rang ni huei**
 129. **da**) <Then, what kind of question will lead you to answer> Yes, I do a part
 130. time job, OK? 各位 (**ge uei**) <Everybody>, 利用二分鐘的時間思考一下哦
 131. (**li yong liang fen jhong de shih jian sih kao yi sia o**) <Take two minutes to
 132. think about this question, oh>, 我要怎麼樣問什麼問題才會讓別人回答出
 133. 這樣的答案出來 (**wuo yao zen mo yang wun she mo wun ti cai huei rang**
 134. **bie ren huei da chu jhe yang de da an chu lai**) <What kind of question
 135. should I ask in order to get this kind of answer?> OK?
 136. T: 對這六題的問題是不是都可以輕而易舉的講出來阿 (**duei jhe liou ti de**
 137. **wun ti shih bu shih dou ke yi eing er yi jiyu de jiang chu lai a**) <Can you
 138. easily answer these six questions> ? OK^ That's look at the 阿 (**ah**) <Ah>
 139. QUEstion which we are finding. OK. 第一題可不可以告訴我 (**di yi ti ke bu**
 140. **ke yi gao su wuo**) <Can you tell me the first question?>... 歐第一題已經講
 141. 過了 (**o di yi ti yi jiing jjiang guo le**) <Oh, the first one is done.> , 我們從第
 142. 二題開始看 (**wuo men cong di er ti kai shih kan**) <Let's start from the
 143. second question.> OK? What kind of answer will make you go in “I do a
 144. part-time job.” Ha^? 什麼樣的問句會讓你回答 (**she mo iang de wun jiyu**
 145. **huei rang ni huei da**) <What kind of question will make you answer> Yes 我

146. 有 (wuo you) <I have> , 我從事兼職的工作 (wuo cong shih jian jhih de
 147. gong zuo) <I have a part-time job> ? Ha^ 你要問人家有沒有工作是要怎麼
 148. 問 (ni iao wun ren jia you mei you gong zuo shih yao zen mo wun) <How
 149. do you ask other people whether they have jobs or not> ? DO, OK? 用助動
 150. 詞 (yong jhu dong cih) <Use an adverb> Do you have a job? Ho? [The
 151. teacher is writing adverbs on the board.] 因為呢用 (yin wei ne yong)
 152. <because use> do 開頭的動詞會讓你回答 (kai tou de dong cih huei rang
 153. ni huei da) <begin with an adverb, this will lead you to the answer> Yes, I
 154. do. 那如果否定呢 (na ru guo fou ding ne) <What about negative?> No, I
 155. don't. OK! So, the question for this answer is "do you have a job?" 所以呢才
 156. 會讓你回答 (suo yi ne cai huei rang ni huei da) <So, you will answer> Oh,
 157. I do, I do have a part-time job. OK? 好 (hao) <OK> , 我們來看看(wun men
 158. lai kan kan) <Let's look at> number three .. What kind of question will make
 159. you will make you go "I'm reading about Italian art." OK, Italian art. 它這裡
 160. 呢已經有給你提示啊^ (ta jhe li ne yi jiing you gei ni ti shih a) <There's a
 161. hint here.> what OK! right now, 可不可以告訴我 (ke bu ke yi gao su wuo)
 162. <Can you tell me now?> right now 是什麼意思 (shih she mo yi shih) <What
 163. does right now mean?> ... 現在 (sian zai) <Right now>, OK^ So 如果我
 164. 這樣子的話會讓你 (ru guo wuo jhe yang zih de hua huei rang ni) <If I do
 165. this, then you will>, 你要怎麼問才會讓你回答 (ni yao zen mo wun cai
 166. huei rang ni huei da) <How to ask then you will answer> [The teacher starts
 167. writing the sentence on the board.] "I'm reading Italian art." Ha? 可不可以告
 168. 訴我 (ke bu ke yi gao su wuo) <Can you tell me> , 動詞有加 (dong cih you
 169. jia) <Verb with> ing 的這個字是什麼樣的時態啊 (de jhe ge zih shih she
 170. mo yang de shih tai a) <What kind of tense is this word> ? 現在進行式
 171. (sian zai jiin siing shih) <present continues> OK, 那我們既既然回答是
 172. 這樣子 (na wuo men jii jii ran huei da shih jhe yang zih) <Then, since we
 173. answer it this way> , 那我們問句是不是也同樣啊 (na wuo men wun jiyu
 174. shih bu shih ye tong yang a) <Then, do we ask the same way> ? So [The
 175. teacher starts writing 'what are you reading' on the board.] What are you 爲
 176. 什麼啊 (wei she mo a) <why> ? reading 對不對 (duei bu duei) <Right> ?
 177. 所以呢我們這裡要填 (suo yi ne wuo men jhe li yao tian) <So, we have to
 178. fill in here> 'What are you reading right now?' 這樣子呢 (jhe yang zih ne)
 179. <In this way> The answer for the question will be 'I'm reading Italian art' 好
 180. 不好 (hao bu hao) <All right> ? .. right, for number four, for number four..
 181. The answer for this question is fifteen years ago OK? [The teacher starts
 182. writing the sentence on the board.] 好我們知道 (hao wuo men jhih dao)
 183. <Well, we know> Carly 她 (ta) <She>, 十五年前來到美國 (shih wu nian

184. **ciian lai dao mei guo**) <Came to the Untied States fifteen years ago> OK, 到
 185. 了美國 (**dao le mei guo**) <Arrived the United States> , OK 那如果我們要問
 186. 她什麼時候到了美國 (**na ru guo wuo men yao wun ta she mo shih hou**
 187. **dao le mei guo**) <Then if we would like to ask her, when did she arrive in the
 188. United States?> 我們要怎麼問啊 (**wuo men yao zen mo wun a**) <How do
 189. we ask?> [The teacher starts writing the sentence on the board.] OK, Can any
 190. one tell me 我們要問時間的話 (**wuo men yao wun shih jiian de hua**) <If
 191. we are going to ask the time> , 要用哪一個問句啊 (**yao yong na yi ge wun**
 192. **jiyu a**) <Which sentence should we use?>
 193. Ss: [no response]
 194. T: ha? When, 對不對 (**duei bu duei**) <Is it correct?> OK, 好啦 (**hao**
 195. **la**) <OK> , 十五年前 (**shih wu nian ciian**) <fifteen years ago> , 十五
 196. 年前是發生在現在的事情嗎? (**shih wu nian ciian shih fa sheng zai siian**
 197. **zai de shih ciing ma?**) <The event happened fifteen years ago. What does it
 198. mean now?> 不是 (**bu shih**) <No> , 是未來的事情嗎 (**shih wei lai de shih**
 199. **ciing ma**) <Is it a future event?> 不是 (**bu shih**) <No> , OK. Fifteen years,
 200. fifteen years ago were something happened long before, long before, 是很久
 201. 以前發生的事 (**shih hen jiiou yi ciian fa sheng de shih**) <It means a long
 202. time ago> , 所以我們要用什麼式 (**suo yi wuo men yao yong she mo shih**)
 203. <So, which tense should we use?> 過去式 (**guo ciyu shih**) <Past tense>
 204. OK. 過去式的話 (**guo ciyu shih de hua**) <If it is past tense> , when
 205. did you OK! 那這個動作是哪一個動作啊 (**na jhe ge dong zuo shih na yi**
 206. **ge dong zuo a**) <Then, what action is this one?> 去掉的那個對不對 (**ciyu**
 207. **diao de na ge duei bu duei**) <Is it the deleted one ? > 那我們要怎麼用 (**na**
 208. **wun men yao zen mo yong**) <Then, how do we use it?> When did you come
 209. [The teacher starts writing the sentence on the board.] OK, When did you
 210. come to the United States? 那這樣問的話呢才會讓你回答 (**na jhe yang**
 211. **wun de hua ne cai huei rang ni huei da**) <Then if we ask this way, you will
 212. **answer**> Oh! “I came to the United States fifteen years ago.” OK^ ... 好啦
 213. (**hao la**) <OK> , 第五題的答案非常簡單 (**di wu ti de da an fei chang jiian**
 214. **dan**) <The answer for question number five is very easy.> “Dave” Who is
 215. Dave? Ha^?
 216. Ss: Carly’s husband.
 217. T: Carly’s husband. So, 我們這一題的答案應該要怎麼寫啊 (**wuo men jhe yi**
 218. **ti de da an yin gai yao zen mo siie a**) <How do we answer this question,
 219. **ah ?**> 是用 (**shih yong**) <Is it> who 還是用 (**hai shih yong**) <Or> what?
 220. Ss: What.
 221. T: {What, OK, 很好 (**hen hao**) <Very good.> 因為呢它是用問他的人名 (**in**

222. uei ne ta sh yong wun ta de ren ming) <Because it is used to ask people's
 223. names> OK^ [The teacher starts writing the sentence on the board.]
 224. What is .. 這裡要填什麼 (jhe li yao tian she mo ne) <What should we write
 225. here?>
 226. Ss: Husband.
 227. T: Ha? OK, husband. Who's husband? 誰的誰的丈夫啊 (shei de shei de jhang
 228. fu a) <Who's husband, ah?>
 229. Ss: Carly's husband.
 230. T: Ha? Carly's husband. [The teacher starts writing 'Carly's husband' on the
 231. board.] What is Carly's husband's name? .. OK, 那我們爲了簡單起見呢 (na
 232. wuou men wei le jiian dan cii jiian ne) <to make it simpler> , [The teacher
 233. starts writing the sentence on the board.] What is your husband's name? 好不
 234. 好 (hao bu hao) <OK> ? 因爲呢這個名字是她丈夫的 (yin wei ne jhe ge
 235. ming zih shih ta jhang fu de) <Because this is her husband's name> OK. 那
 236. 我們把它改成 (na wuo men ba ta gai cheng) <Then, we change it into>
 237. What is your husband's name 那這樣才會讓你回答 (na jhe yang cai huei
 238. rang ni huei da) <Then you will answer> Oh, his name is Dave. OK^ ...
 239. Right [The teacher starts writing "architect" on the board.] architect, 這是什
 240. 麼職業啊 (jhe shih she mo jhih ye a) <What kind of occupation is this> ?
 241. Ss: [Students do not respond to the teacher.]
 242. T: 建築師 (jian jhu shih) <Architect> OK, 如果我要問人家的職業的時候我
 243. 可以怎麼問 (ru guo wuo yao wun ren jiia de jhih ye de shih hou wuo ke
 244. yi zen mo wun) <If I want to ask someone their occupation, how do I do
 245. it?> ... OK, 最簡單的問法是 (zuei jiian dan de wun fa shih) <The
 246. simplest way is> What do [The teacher starts writing the sentence on the
 247. board.] 就是問你這個職業嘛 (jiou shih wun ni jhe ge jhih ye ma) <It is to
 248. ask the occupation. > , 那我們現在要問誰 (na wun men siian zai yao wun
 249. shei) <Then whom should we ask now?>
 250. Ss: (??).
 251. T: Your husband. 對不對 (duei bu duei) <Right> ? 那這裡要改成 (na jhe li
 252. yao gai cheng) <Then here should be changed into> What does your husband
 253. do? OK^ "He's an architect." [The teacher starts writing the sentence on the
 254. board.]
 255. T: 如果它是連貫性的 (ru guo ta shih lian guan da) <If it is sequential> 連
 256. 貫性的談話 (lian guan sing de tan hua) <Sequential conversation> ,因爲它
 257. 前面才問了 (yin wei ta ciian mian zai wun le) <Because the previous
 258. question asked> "What is your husband's name? His name is Dave." OK^
 259. What does he do? OK, your husband 可以改成 (ke yi gai cheng) <May

260. *change into*> He ho^ ...

261. T: 好 (hao) <OK.> Any questions to the .. this topic? OK, 對這個問題有沒有

262. 什麼任何的問題啊 (duei jhe ge wun ti you mei you she mo ren he de wun

263. ti a) <Do you have any questions concerning this topic?>

264. Ss: [Some of the students look puzzled and some shake their heads.]

265. T: 沒有 (mei you) <None>, OK. NOW, I want you to do something. I want you

266. to do something. 我們剛才談到了動詞的時態 (wuo men gang cai tan dao

267. le dong cih de shih tai) <We have just talked about the verb tense.> OK, 過

268. 去式、未來式以及現在式 (guo ciyu shih , wei lai shih yi ji sian zai shih)

269. <Past tense, future tense, and present tense> OK, 我要各位呢在心中 (wuo

270. yao ge wei ne zai siin jhong) <I would like every one of you to think in your

271. minds> OK, [The teacher starts writing the tenses on the board.] 好 (hao)

272. <OK>, future 代表了未來式 (dai biao le wei lai shih) <It represents future

273. tense>, (??) 未來式 (wei lai shih) <Future tense>, 過去式 (guo ciyu shih)

274. <Past tense>。Present, 現在式 (sian zai shih) <Present tense>. What I

275. want you to do now is OK, 我們剛 (wuo men gang) <We just>, 我們昨天學

276. 過的句子裡面呢 (wuo men zuo tian siyue guo de jiyu zih li mian ne)

277. <From what we have learnt yesterday>, 各找出一句話 (ge jhao chu yi jiyu

278. hua) <Look for one sentence> OK, 各找出一句未來式的句子 (ge jhao chu

279. yi jiyu wei lai shih de jiyu zih) <Look for one sentence in the future tense> ,

280. 過去式的句子 (guo ciyu shih de jiyu zih) <One sentence in the past

281. tense>, 現在式的句子 (sian zai shih de jiyu zih) <One in the present

282. tense>, OK, 在我們昨天和今天上過的這個內容裡面 (zai wuo men zuo

283. tian han jiin tian shang guo de jhe ge nei rong li mian) <From the content

284. that we have learnt yesterday and today> OK^ . Find one sentence for future

285. tense, past tense, and present tense. OK, one sentence for each tense and

286. remember it and you got one minute before I ask for your answer. OK, 各位

287. 呢用一分鐘的時間找出三個句子 (ge wei ne yong yi fen jhong de shih jian

288. jhao chu san ge jiyu zih) <Everyone has one minute to look for three

289. sentences>, 這三種句子不管你在哪裡找 (jhe san jhong jiyu zih bu guan

290. ni zai na li jhao) <It doesn't matter where you look for those three

291. sentences.>, 有一句必須是要未來式的句子 (you yi jiyu bi siyu shih yao

292. wei lai shih de jiyu zih) <One sentence must be in the future tense>, OK,

293. One sentence must be in future tense and 有一句必須是要過去式的句子

294. (you yi jiyu bi siyu shih yao guo ciyu shih de jiyu zih) <One sentence must

295. be in the past tense.> One sentence must be in past tense and the third

296. sentence must be in present tense. OK, 待會呢我隨機取樣 (dai huei ne wuo

297. suei jii ciyu yang) <Later, I will randomly appoint> ho^ 我就要請同學來回

298. 答 (**wuo jiou iao ciing tong siyue lai huei da**) <I'll ask students to
 299. *answer*>, OK, 舉出這三個時態的句子各一句 (**jiyu chu jhe san ge shih**
 300. **tai de jiyu zih ge yi jiyu**) <Giving one example sentence from each verb
 301. *tense*>, 好不好 (**hao bu hao**) <Is it all right?> 如果想不起來的
 302. 話呢 (**ru guo siiang bu cii lai de hua ne**) <If you can't think of any>, 你可以
 303. 把它寫在紙上 (**ni ke yi ba ta siie zai jhih shang**) <You may write it down on
 304. *a piece of paper*>. Now, You can take out a piece of paper. 好 (**hao**) <OK>,
 305. OK, 拿出一張紙來 (**na chu yi jhang jhih lai**) <Take out a piece of
 306. *paper*>, 把你找到的三個時態的句子呢寫在那張紙上面 (**ba ni jhao dao**
 307. **de san ge shih tai de jiyu zih ne siie zai na jhang jhih shang mian**) <Write
 308. *down three sentences in three different tenses on that piece of paper.*> OK, 待
 309. 會呢 (**dai huei ne**) <Later> After you finished, I will ask for your answer.
 310. Ss: [Students are going to write some sentences on papers]
 311. T: OK, 如果呢 (**ru guo ne**) <If> ..你不知道呢要怎麼找的話呢 (**ni bu jhih**
 312. **dao yao zen mo jhao de hua ne**) <If you don't know how to look for it> OK,
 313. 我告訴你(**wuo gao su ni**) <I tell you> ho^ The picture for this sentence is
 314. future tense. OK, 就跟我們剛才做過的練習一樣 (**jiou gen wou men gang**
 315. **cai zuo guo de lian sii yi yang**) <Just like the exercise that we have just
 316. *done*>, OK, is going to, OK, 或是 (**huo shih**) <Or> will ho^ 有這樣子結構
 317. 的句子呢是未來式的句子 (**you jhe yang zih jiie gou de jiyu zih ne shih**
 318. **wei lai shih de jiyu zih**) <A sentence structure like this is in the future tense>.
 319. OK, 那如果有過去式動詞的句子呢 (**na ru guo you guo ciyu shih dong**
 320. **cih de jiyu zih ne**) <Then if it is in the past tense>, 就是 (**jiou shih**) <It is>
 321. sentence in past tense, OK^ 那如果句子是原型動詞的呢 (**na ru guo jiyu**
 322. **zih shih yuan siing dong cih de ne**) <What about the original verb
 323. *tense?*>, 那就是現在這個句子 (**na jiou shih siian zai jhe ge jiyu zih**)
 324. <Then it is this sentence.> OK, so ...
 325. T: OK, 就這樣子 (**jiou jhe yang zih**) <That's it..>. One minute that 各位還有
 326. 一分鐘的時間 (**ge wei hai you yi fen jhong de shih jian**) <You still have one
 327. *minute*> ...
 328. [Students are doing the writing exercises and the teacher is walking around the
 329. classroom and checking to see if students need help.] ...
 330. T: [The teacher is talking to one of the students.] 我看你 (**wou kan ni**) <I look
 331. *at you*> (??) 你們你們有沒有 (**ni men you mei you**) <Do you, you, you> ...
 332. Oh, 你沒有第三式嗎 (**ni mei you di san shih ma**) <Do you have the third
 333. *tense?*> .. right...
 334. [A student just come into the class.]
 335. S: 老師好 (**lao shih hao**) <How are you, teacher?>

336. T: Hi, 請坐 (**ciing zuo**) <Have a seat> [Students are doing the writing
 337. exercises.]

338. T: OK, .. 陳沛君 (**chen pei jiyun**) <Chen Pei Jiyun> [The teacher is calling on
 339. one student.] OK! Give me an example of a sentence in future tense. OK, 找
 340. 出一句 (**jhao chu yi jiyu**) <Look for one sentence> , 然後呢跟大家講說這
 341. 個句子呢是未來式的句子 (**ran hou ne gen da jiia shuo jhe ge jiyu zih ne**
 342. **shih wei lai shih de jiyu zih**) <Then tell everyone this sentence is in the future
 343. tense>.

344. S1: (??).

345. T: OK, you don't have the textbook. Next time, right?

346. T: Ah, 廖荻葉 (**liao ciou ye**) <Liao CiiouYe> [The teacher is calling on
 347. another student's name.] OK, give me an example. OK. For one sentence in
 348. future tense. OK, 給我 (**gei wuo**) <Give me> , 跟大家講一句話呢 (**gen da**
 349. **jiia jiiang yi jiyu hua ne**) <Say one sentence to everyone> , 這句話呢是未來
 350. 式的 (**jhe jiyu hua ne shih wei lai shih de**) <This sentence is in future
 351. tense> .

352. S2: (??).

353. T: 大聲一點 (**da sheng yi dian**) <Louder!>

354. S2: "After I graduate."

355. T: An, hann. "After I graduate."

356. S2: {"After I graduate I am going to work."}

357. T: Translate it.

358. S2: 我畢業後要去工作 (**wuo bie shihs hao yao ciyu guong zuo**) <After I
 359. graduate, I am going to work.>

360. T: OK, That's very good.

361. [Now, the teacher is talking to the whole class.]

362. T: 她找到一個句子是麼呢 (**ta jhao dao yi ge jiyu zih shih she mo ne**) <What
 363. sentence did she find out?> 在第二頁 (**zai di er ye**) <On page two> OK,
 364. about Mr. Nesta OK, 最下面的時候 (**zuei siia mian de shih hou**) <At the
 365. bottom> "After I graduate, I am going to work. I am going to work." OK,未來
 366. 呢我將要從事工作 (**wei lai ne wou jiiang yao cong shih gong zuo**) <What
 367. kind of jobs will I engage in?> . 什麼樣的工作呢 (**she mo yang de gong zuo**
 368. **ne**) <What kind of jobs ?> "A translator," a translator. OK, 從事翻譯人的工
 369. 作 (**cong shih fan yi ren de gong zuo**) <To be a translator> , OK, 從事翻譯
 370. 人的工作 (**cong shih fan yi ren de gong zuo**) <To be a translator> , 好啦
 371. (**hao la**) <OK> , 這個句子呢就是非常典型的未來式的句子 (**jhe ge jiyu zih**
 372. **ne jiiau shih fei chang dian siing de wei lai shih de jiyu zih**) <This is a
 373. typical future tense sentence> .

374. T: 劉承光 (**Liu cheng guang**) <*Liu Cheng Guang*> [The teacher is calling a
375. student.]
376. T: OK, Could you give me an example of a sentence in past tense?
377. S3: [No response. It seems that the student doesn't understand the teacher's
378. request.]
379. T: 給我一個過去式句子的這個 example 嗎 (**gei wuo yi ge guo ciyu shih jiyu**
380. **zih de jhe ge example ma**) <*Could you give me an example sentence in the*
381. *past tense?*>
382. S3: (??).
383. T: 好啦 (**hao la**) <*OK*>, 各位什麼是剛才我講過啦 (**ge wei she mo shih wuo**
384. **gang cai wuo jiang guo la**) <*Everyone, what did I say just now?*> 過去式句
385. 子有什麼特質啊 (**guo ciyu shih jiyu zih you she mo te jhih a**) <*What is the*
386. *character for past tense?*> 它的動詞是怎麼樣 (**ta de dong ci shih zen mo**
387. **yang**) <*What about its verb?*>
388. T: 是和人不一樣 (**shih han ren jiia bu yi yang de**) <*It is different from*
389. *others.*> 和原型不一樣的 (**han yuan siing bu yi yang de**) <*Different from*
390. *the original verb*> ho^? 好我們請看同學可不可以幫幫你 (**hao wuo men**
391. **ciing kan tong siyue ke bu ke yi bang bang ni**) <*Let's see if someone can*
392. *help you.*> 范方依 (**fan fang yi**) <*Fan Fang Yi*> [The teacher is calling on
393. another student.] 方依 (**fang yi**) <*Fang Yi*>, 沒有來 (**mei you lai**)
394. <*She isn't here?*> OK, 劉佩一 (**liu pei yi**) <*Liu Pei Yi*>, [The teacher is
395. calling another student.]
396. S4: [The student raises her hand.]
397. T: OK, could you give me an example, OK, as a sentence in past tense. 可不可
398. 以找一個過去式的句子來念給我聽 (**ke bu ke yi jhao yi ge guo ciyu shih**
399. **de jiyu zih lai nian gei wuo ting**) <*Can you read one sentence in past tense*
400. *for me?*>
401. S5: (??).
402. T: Ninety-eight.
403. S5: "When did you come to the United States?"
404. T: OK, 很好 (**hen hao**) <*Very good*>, 她找到一個句子 (**ta jhao dao yi ge**
405. **jiyu zih**) <*She has found one sentence.*>, 她說呢不過是一個問句 (**ta shuo**
406. **ne bu guo shih yi ge wun jiyu**) <*But she said an interrogative sentence.*>
407. "When did you come to the United States?" Ho^ 好啦 (**hao la**) <*All right*>,
408. [The teacher starts writing the sentence on the board.] 她說 (**ta shuo**) <*She*
409. *said*> .. Right, "I came to the United States fifteen years ago." 所以呢這句
410. 話是一句過去式的句子啦 (**suo yi ne jhe jiyu hua shih yi jiyu guo ciyu**
411. **shih de jiyu zih la**) <*So, this sentence is in past tense.*>

412. T: Right, last one. 陳一君 (**chen yi jiyun**) <*Chen yi jiyun*> , 陳一君 (**chen yi**
413. **jiyun**) <*Chen Yi Jiyun*>, Right, could you give me an, could you repeat the
414. sentence for me^ in the present tense. 找一句用現在式 (**jhao yi jiyu yong**
415. **sian zai shih**) <*Look for one sentence in the present tense.*>
416. S6: “What are you doing right now?”
417. T: OK. She said: “What are you doing right now?” 這個這一句呢是一句現在
418. 式的問句 (**jhe ge jhe yi jiyu ne shih yi jiyu siian zai shih de wun jiyu**)
419. <*This is a present question sentence*> ho^? [The teacher starts writing the
420. sentence on the board.] OK. “What are you doing right now?” 那 (**na**)
421. <*Then*>, 我可以怎麼回答呢 (**wuo ke yi zen mo huei da ne**) <*What should I*
422. *say?*>.. OK^ [The teacher starts writing the sentence on the board.] I’m
423. having the English course. OK! For Carly, “I’m reading about Italian
424. painting.” OK! I’m 動詞加 (**dong ci jia**) <*Verb add*> ing. I’m painting.
425. I’m reading. OK, 這就是呢現在進 (**jhe jiou shih ne siian zai jiin**) <*This is*
426. *a present*>, 現在 (**siian zai**) <*Present*>, 這種是現在進行式的句子 (**jhe**
427. **jhong shih siian zai jiin siing shih de jiyu zih**) <*This is a present continuous*
428. *tense sentence.*> Ho^
429. T: Right, 好 (**hao**) <*OK*>, Any questions for this section? If no, we’ll continue
430. to the next page. Let’s turn to page four. OK, 如果沒有的話呢 (**ru guo mei**
431. **you de hua ne**) <*If you don’t have any questions*>, 我們很快的要進入下一
432. 個階段了 (**wuo men hen kuai de yao jiin ru siia yi ge jiie duan le**) <*We*
433. *will soon move on to the next section.*> ho^ 各位翻到第四頁 (**ge wei fan**
434. **dao di sih ye**) <*Please turn to page four.*>
435. T: OK, 我們看到 (**wuo men kan dao**) <*We see*> OK, on the top of page
436. four, on the top of page four OK, there’s a picture about a family. OK, 第四頁
437. 的這個上頭呢 (**di sih ye de jhe ge shang tou ne**) <*At the top of page*
438. *four*>, 有一幅全家福的這個照片 (**you yi fu ciyuan jiia fu de jhe ge jhao**
439. **pian**) <*There is a family photo*> ho^, OK. 好啦 (**hao la**) <*OK*>, 為什麼要放
440. 這幅照片呢 (**wei she mo yao fang jhe fu jhao pian ne**) <*Why do they put*
441. *the photo here?*> 因為呢我們要做待會的練習呢就是有關於我的家庭 (**yin**
442. **wei ne wou men yao zuo dai huei de lian sii ne jiou shih you guan yu wuo**
443. **de jiia ting**) <*Because we are going to do some exercises relates to my*
444. *family.*> 我們看到這個部分這裡它會問到待會各位要練習 (**wou men kan**
445. **dao jhe ge bu fen jhe li ta huei wun dao dai huei ge wei yao lian sii**) <*What*
446. *we are looking at now, you may need later.*> OK. 你住在哪裡 (**ni jhu zai**
447. **na li**) <*Where do you live?*> “Where do you live?” “How many?” “Do you
448. have any brothers or sisters?” 它問你呢有沒有任何的兄弟或者姊妹 (**ta**
449. **wun ni ne you mei you ren he de siyong di huo jhe jiie mei**) <*It asks you if*

450. *you have any brothers or sisters.* > OK. “What do you like doing on the
 451. weekend?” 週末呢喜歡做些什麼 (jhou mo ne sii huan zuo siie she mo)
 452. <What do you like doing at the weekend?> What do you like? 你現在呢可
 453. 以把 (ni siian zai ne ke yi ba) <You may now> Do you miss 掉的這個字填
 454. 進去 (diao de jhe ge zih tian jiin ciyu) <Fill in the missing word.> Where
 455. do you go for your last vacation? OK, where do you go FOR your LAST
 456. vacation? Ho^ 這裡有四個問題 (jhe li you sih ge wun ti) <Here are four
 457. questions.> , “Where do you live? OK. Do you have any brother or sisters?
 458. OK. What do you like doing on the weekend? OK. Where do you go for your
 459. last vacation?” 好啦 (hao la) <OK.> Now, I want you to find a partner. 現在
 460. 呢我要各位呢尋找一位夥伴 (siian zai ne wuo yao ge wei ne siyun jhao yi
 461. wei huo ban) <Now I want you to look for a partner.> , OK, 兩個人一組
 462. (liang ge ren yi zu) <Two in a pair.> OK, in pairs, 兩個人一組 (liang ge
 463. ren yi zu) <Two in a pair.> OK. 問你的夥伴呢這些問題 (wun ni de huo
 464. ban ne jhe siie wun ti) <Ask your partner these questions.> OK. 然後呢你
 465. 們互相回答(ran hou ne ni men hu siiang huei da) <Then you ask each
 466. other these questions.> 你問你的同學你住在哪裡啊 (ni wun ni de tong
 467. siyue ni jhu zai na li a) <Ask your classmate, where do you live?> OK. 你有
 468. 沒有任何的兄弟姊妹啊 (ni you mei you ren he de siyong di jiie mei a)
 469. <Do you have any brothers or sisters?> OK. 你喜歡你喜歡週末的時候到哪
 470. 裡休閒啊 (ni sii huan ni sii huan jhou mo de shih hou dao na li siiou siian
 471. a) <Where do you like to go at the weekend?> 還有你上一次渡假 (hai
 472. you ni shang yi cih du jiia) <And your last vacation> last vacation. OK, 是
 473. 到哪裡玩啊 (shih dao na li wan a) <Where did you go, ah?> ho^ OK. 好
 474. (hao) <OK>... 各位就近找一位夥伴 (ge wei jiou jiin jhao yi wei huo
 475. ban) <Everyone, look for a partner who's near you.> OK.
 476. T: [The teacher is asking a student.] Who's your partner?
 477. Ss: [He points to his partner.]
 478. T: 你們兩個一組 (ni men liang ge yi zu) <You, two, form a group> 。有沒有
 479. (you mei you) <Are there any> ? [Students are practicing the conversation.]
 480. S7: [This student has a question for the teacher.]
 481. T: Hann?
 482. S7: 這還沒講 (jhe hai mei jiiang) <We haven't talked about this.>
 483. T: What? 這還沒講 (jhe hai mei jiiang) <We haven't talked about this?>
 484. S7: 對！我們想說你不講 (duei , wuo men siiang shuo ni bu jiiang) <Right,
 485. we thought you were not going to talk about this>.
 486. T: 對 (duei) <Right!>
 487. Ss: [Students are laughing.]

488. T: {Oh, I mix that with the America. 我按例，我這裡還沒講 (wuo an li, wuo
 489. **jhe li hai mei jiang**) <I usually, I haven't talked about this yet.>
 490. S7: Mmm, how about ...
 491. T: {但是我們有聽錄音帶嘛，對不對？(dan shih wuo men you ting lu yin dai
 492. **ma, duei bu duei?**) <But, we have listened to the tape, right?>
 493. S7: 有 (you) <Yes.>
 494. T: 五到八是不是 (wu dao ba shih bu shih) <From five to eight, isn't it?>
 495. OK. 好 (hao) <OK>，那沒關係我們先那個我等一下再回來 (na mei
 496. **guan sii wuo men siian na ge wuo deng yi siia zai huei lai**) <That's all
 497. *right. We'll come back to that later.*>
 498. S7: Oh!
 499. T: 好不好 (hao bu hao) <Is that all right?>

[Students continue practicing in pairs. The teacher is walking around the classroom and checking on the students.]

[The class resumes after the pair practice]

500. T: OK, When we come back .. 不知道是不是各位太用功還是怎麼樣了 (bu
 501. **jhih dao shih bu shih ge wei tai yong gong le hai shih zen mo yang le**) <I
 502. *don't know if all of you are busy concerntrating on the lecture or what*> ho ?
 503. 上課的時候這個氣氛也非常凝重 (shang ke de shih hou jhe ge cii fen ye
 504. **fei chang ning jhong**) <The atmosphere in this lesson is very quiet.> ho, 大
 505. 家放輕鬆一點 (da jiia fang ciing song yi dian) <Relax yourselves a little.>
 506. ho^ [teacher laughs] 好 (hao) <OK>，Before we talk about ah we have done
 507. a little practice, on asking your family situation, right? 在你談到你和你的夥
 508. 伴呢 (zai ni tan dao ni han ni de huo ban ne) <When you talk about you
 509. *and your partner*>，詢問一下家裡的狀況啦 (siyun wun yi siia jiia li de
 510. **jhuang kuang la**) <Asking about the family situation> ho, 而且大家好像很
 511. 厲害啦 (er ciie da jiia hao siiang hen li hai la) <It seems that all of you are
 512. *really good at it.*> ho^. You are good at asking people, your partner, looking
 513. for where does your partner live? OK. Does he or does she has any brothers or
 514. sisters? OK. What does she or he like doing on the weekend? Or where does
 515. she, or where does he go for last vacation? 好啦 (hao la) <Well>，現在呢我
 516. 們還要再來討論哪些問題呢 (siian zai ne wuo men hai yao zai lai tao lun
 517. **na siie wun ti ne**) <What are we going to discuss now?> Let's look at
 518. section two. 這裡呢又有六個題目啦 (jhe li ne you you liu ge ti mu la)
 519. <Here are six more questions.> ho^ .. 第一個 (di yi ge) <The first one> “Do

520. you like listening to music?" 你喜歡從事什麼樣的活動的時候又可以怎麼
 521. 問呢 (ni sii huan ciong shih she mo yang de huo dong de shih hou you ke
 522. yi zen mo wun ne) <How do you ask what kind of activities someone
 523. likes?> Do you like doing something? Do you like doing something? Here 問
 524. 你呢 (wun ni ne) <asks you> "Do you like listening to music?" Ho^ 它問你
 525. 喜不喜歡聽音樂 (ta wun ni sii bu sii huan ting yin yue) <It asks you if
 526. you like listening to the music.> 接著 (jiie jhe) <Then> "What kind of
 527. music do you like?" Ho^ 那哪一種的音樂呢你最喜歡 (na yi jhong de yin
 528. yue ne ni zuei sii huan) <What is your favorite type of music?> "What are
 529. you wearing?" 第三個 (di san ge) <The third> ho^ 你喜歡穿著什麼樣的
 530. 衣服 (ni sii huan chuan jhuo she mo yang de yi fu) <What kind of clothes
 531. do you like to wear?> ho^ 那接下來呢 (na jiie siia lai ne) <And then>
 532. "What is your teacher wearing?" OK. 各位的這個 (ge wei de jhe ge) <And
 533. Your> , 就是我啦穿著什麼樣的衣服呢 (jiiou shih wuo la chuan jhuo she
 534. mo yang de yi fu ne) <What am I wearing?> ho^ 你自己去想想看 (ni zih
 535. jii ciyu siiang siiang kan) <You have to think by yourself.> Ho^ What do you
 536. do last night? OK. 昨晚呢各位做了什麼 (zuo wan ne ge wei zuo le she
 537. mo) <What did you do last night> ? ho^ 讀書嘛 (du shu ma) <Studying.>
 538. What are you DOING tonight? 那今晚呢各位呢又做了些什麼 (na jiin wan
 539. ne ge wei ne you zuo le siie she mo) <What are you going to do tonight?>
 540. 好 (hao) <OK> , 現在同樣的 (siian zai tong yang de) <Now, the same.> I
 541. want you to find your partner. ho^ 和你的夥伴問他這六個問題 (han ni de
 542. huo ban wun ta jhe liou ge wun ti) <Ask your partner these six questions.>
 543. 而且你還要輪流他要問你這六個問題 (er ciie ni hai yao lun liou ta yao
 544. wun ni jhe liou ge wun ti) <Take turns. He or she asks you these six
 545. questions too.> 待會同樣的我會問各位討論結果 (dai huei tong yang de
 546. wuo huei han ge wei tao lun jiie guo) <Later, I'll ask you for your results.>
 547. You got two minutes, OK. [Students are doing pair conversation practice and
 548. the teacher is walking around the classroom checking on them.]
 549. T: [The teacher is joking with one of the students.] 跟你講不要吃太多 (gen ni
 550. jiiang bu yao chih tai duo) <I told you not to eat too much.>
 551. [One student is asking the teacher a question.]
 552. T: 你要聽哪一個大題 (ni yao ting na yi ge da ti) <Which section do you want
 553. to listen to?>
 554. S8: Hah?
 555. T: 你要聽哪一個大題 (ni yao ting na yi ge da ti) <Which section do you want
 556. to listen to?>
 557. S8: 不知道 (bu jhih dao) <I don't know.>

558. T: 不知道 (**bu jhih dao**) <You don't know.> 所有的 (**suo you de**) <All>
559. S8: 所有的 (**suo you de**) <All> (??)
560. T: 不要 (**bu yao**) <No.> 這樣不好 (**jhe yang bu hao**) <This is not good.>
561. S8: Hah?
562. T: 這樣不好 (**jhe yang bu hao**) <This is not good.>
563. S8: 不會 (**bu huei**) <I don't think so> (??)
564. T: 自己看著辦 (**zih jii kan jhe ban**) <You decide it by yourself.> °
565. [The teacher continues checking on other students' practice.]
566. T: Who is your partner?
567. S9: [The student looks at the teacher and says nothing.]
568. T: Where is he?
569. S9: He is 落跑 (**lao pao**) <Run away>.
570. T: He is 落跑 (**lao pao**) <Run away> ho^ 好吧 (**hao ba**) <OK.>
571. S10: (??) [The female student asks the teacher a question.]
572. T: OK.
573. S10: (??)
574. T: Listen to light music.
575. S10: (??)
576. T: Oh, 對 (**duei**) <Right>, easy listening.
577. [The students practice the conversation with the teacher's suggestion.]
578. T: OK. I like easy listening music. OK.
579. T: 好啦 (**hao la**) <Well>, 如果你 (**ru guo ni**) <If you>, 我打斷一下 (**wuo**
580. **da suan yi siia**) <Let me interrupt you for a second.> ho^ 如果 (**ru guo**)
581. <If> 你被問到這些問題的話 (**ni bei wun dao jhe siie wun ti de hua**) <You
582. **were asked these questions,> 你可以怎麼回答呢 (**ni ke yi zen mo huei****
583. **da ne**) <How are you going to answer them?> 如果有人問你 (**ru guo you**
584. **ren wun ni**) <If someone asks you> Do you like listening to music? Do you,
585. do you 的話 (**de hua**) <Then>, 你可以怎麼回答 (**ni ke yi zen mo huei da**)
586. <How can you respond to that?>
587. Ss: Yes, I do.
588. T: {Yes, I do. No, I don't. [The teacher is also writing the answers on the board.]
589. 對不對 (**duei bu duei**) <Is that correct?> 最簡單的 (**zuei jiian dan de**)
590. <The simplest way>. ho^ 那它繼續問你 (**na ta jii siyu wun ni**) <Then it
591. **keeps asking you.> "What kind of music do you like?" [The teacher is writing**
592. **the types of music on the board.] I like 音樂的種類 (**yin yue de jihong lei**)**
593. <The types of music>, 好啦 (**hao la**) <OK>, 音樂的種類包括很多啦 (**yin**
594. **yue de jihong lei bao kua hen duo la**) <There are many different types of
595. **music.> pop music 流行歌曲 (**liu siing ge ciyu**) <Pop music>, easy**

596. listening 輕音樂 (ciing yin yue) <Soft music>, OK. Rock 'N' Roll 等等
 597. (deng deng) <And so on>, ho^ 還有的呢喜歡 (hai you de ne sii huan)
 598. <And someone likes> heavy metal, OK. 等等 (deng deng) <Et cetera>, 好
 599. 啦 (hao la) <OK>, 第三個 (de san ge) <The third one> “What are you
 600. wearing?” OK. I’m wearing 什麼什麼東西 (she mo she mo dong sii)
 601. <such and such> ho^, T-shirt, I’m wearing a shirt. OK. I’m wearing pants.
 602. OK. trousers 就是一樣褲子 (jiiou shih yi tiao ku zih) <The same, pants.>
 603. I’m wearing skirt. 等等的 (deng deng de) <Et cetera> ho^ 同樣的 (tong
 604. yang de) <The same>, 如果第三人稱呢 (ru guo di san ren cheng ne) <If
 605. it’s the third personal pronoun> ? He or she is wearing 什麼什麼 (she mo she
 606. mo) <so on and so on> Right! For question number five and six. “What do
 607. you do last night?” OK. I 怎麼樣 (zen mo yang) <How> ho^ last night. 所
 608. 以呢 (suo yi ne) <so>, 這裡的動詞呢可不可以告訴我是哪一種時態 (jhe
 609. li de dong cih ne ke bu ke yi gao su wuo shih na yi jhong shih tai) <Can
 610. you tell me what kind of verb tense this is?>
 611. Ss: 過去式 (guo ciyu shih) <Past tense>
 612. T: {過去 (guo ciyu) <Past tense.> OK. 那最後第二題呢 (na zuei hou di er ti
 613. ne) <What about the last two questions?> 他問你 (ta wun ni) <He asks you>
 614. OK. “What are you doing tonight?” 你今天晚上要做什麼呢 (ni jiin tian
 615. wan shang yao zuo she mo ne) <What are you going to do tonight?> [The
 616. teacher is writing the sentence on the board.] 可不可以告訴我 (ke bu ke yi
 617. gao su wuo) <Can you tell me?> 這一個動詞的時態要用什麼時態 (jihe yi
 618. ge dong cih de shih tai yao yong she mo shih tai) <Which verb tense can we
 619. use here?>
 620. Ss: (??).
 621. T: Ha? .. [The teacher is writing the answer on the board.] 未來 (wei lai)
 622. <Future>, OK. 所以呢 (suo yi ne) <So>, 這樣各位繼續討論 (jhe yang ge
 623. wei jii siyu tao lun) <Continue your discussion> ho^, 問你的夥伴 (wun ni
 624. de huo ban) <Ask your partner> A. Do you like listening to music? Yes, I do.
 625. No, I don’t. What kind of music do you like? I like 某種的音樂 (mou jhong
 626. de yin yue) <Certain types of music> ho^ 那 (na) <That>, What are you
 627. wearing? 那你的穿著什麼類的衣服呢 (na ni de chuan jhuo she mo lei de
 628. yi fu) <What kind of clothes are you wearing?> I’m wearing 某某類的衣服
 629. (mou mou lei de yi fu) <A certain type of clothes> What did you do last
 630. night? OK. 你昨天做了一些什麼事情呢 (ni zuo tian zuo le yi siie she mo
 631. shih ciing ne) <What did you do last night?> I 怎麼樣怎麼樣 (zen mo
 632. yang zen mo yang) <So on and so on> last night. What are you going to do
 633. tonight? 你待會要做什麼呢 (ni dai huei yao zuo she mo ne) <What are

634. *you going to do tonight?>* 今天晚上(jiin tian wan shang) <Tonight> I'm
 635. going to 怎麼樣怎麼樣怎麼樣 (zen mo yang zen mo yang zen mo yang)
 636. <So on and so on>, OK? 同樣地 (tong yang de) <The same>, 待會呢 (dai
 637. huei ne) <Later>, 我會請二位同學 (wuo huei ciing liang wei tong siyue)
 638. <I'll invite two students>, OK, 抽問了(chou wun le) <Appoint randomly to
 639. perform the conversation> ho^
 640. S11: (??).
 641. T: In English, please.
 642. [Ss are discussing...]
 643. T: Well, 我問過你了 (wuo wun guo ni le) <I have already asked you.> Who's
 644. your partner? Who is your partner?
 645. S12: (??).
 646. T: Haha?
 647. S12: (??).
 648. T: 有互相討論嗎 (you hu siiang tao lun ma) <Have you discussed with each
 649. other>? 這六個題目 (jhe liou ge wun ti) <These six questions>, 互相問
 650. (hu siiang wun) <Ask each other>
 651. S12: What are (??).
 652. T: 你的夥伴是誰 (ni de huo ban shih shei) <Who is your partner?> 你的夥
 653. 伴就是他哦 (ni de huo ban jiiou shih ta o) <He is your partner, oh?> 三
 654. 個一組哦(san ge yi zu o) <Three in a group>? OK. What did he do last
 655. night?
 656. S13: 我不會講 (wa mei heao gung) <I don't know how to say it.>
 657. T: Ha?
 658. S13: 我不會講 (wa mei heao gung) <I don't know how to say it.>
 659. T: 不知道對不對 (bu jhih dao duei bu duei) <You don't know, right?>
 660. S14: 有啊有啊 (you a you a) <Yes, yes.> 他有說 (ta you shuo) <He did
 661. say.>
 662. T: 他有說哦 (ta you shuo o) <He did, oh?> What did he do?
 663. S13: (??).
 664. T: Ha?
 665. S14: (??).
 666. T: 他昨天晚上做了什麼啊 (ta zuo tian wan shang zuo le she mo a) <What
 667. did he do last night>?
 668. S14: 晚上 (wan shang) <Last night> (??)
 669. T: 啊 (ah) <Ah> play computer game,OK? He played computer game, OK?
 670. What did he do last night?
 671. S14: (??).

672. T: What did he do last night?
673. S14: (??).
674. T: Ha? 他昨天晚上做了什麼 (ta zuo tian wan shng zuo le she mo) <What
675. did he do last night>?
676. S14: (??).
677. T: (??) OK?
678. [Ss are practicing conversational skills.]
679. T: Who is your partner?
680. S15: Ha?
681. T: Who is your partner?
682. S15: (??).
683. T: ha? OK. What did he do last night?
684. S15: 昨天晚上嗎 (zuo tian wan shang ma) <Last night>?
685. T: Haha.
686. S15: 你再問一次啊 (ni zai wun yi ci a) <Ask again.>
687. T: What did he do last night?
688. S15: 噢 (ou) <Oh> (??).
689. T: Oh, OK. What did he do last night?
690. S15: (??).
691. T: OK, he worked last night, OK.
692. [Ss are discussing and are noisy.]
693. S16: 老師，畫畫怎麼講 (lao shih hua hua zen mo jiang) <Teacher, how to
694. say painting>?
695. T: Ha?
696. S16: 畫畫 (hua hua) <Painting>.對啊 (duei a) <Right>
697. T: 畫畫 (hua hua) <Painting>, painting.
698. Ss: Painting, pan?
699. T: Paint.
700. S16: Pain?
701. T: Paint.
702. [Ss are discussing and are noisy.]
703. T: Who's your partner?
704. S17: Ha?
705. T: Who is your partner? What did she do last night?
706. S17: {The student is laughing.}
707. T: She watched TV last night. What did she do last night?
708. T: Sleep, she slept last night.
709. S17: {The student is laughing.}

710. T: What is he going to do tonight?

711. S17: I don't know.

712. T: You don't know. What is she going to do tonight?

713. S17: {The student is laughing.}

714. T: Ahnn, she is going to what to do tonight. OK.

715. [The students are continuing to practice conversational skills.]

716. T: 好了 (**hao le**) <All right> ho^ 其實有很多問題 (**ci shih you hen duo wun**

717. **ti**) <Actually there are a lot of questions> ho^ .. 誰要問的 (**shei yao wun**

718. **de**) <Who wants to ask?> 那 (**na**) <That> 不過呢我們進度有點落後

719. (**bu guo ne wuo men jin du you dian luo hou**) <We are a little behind

720. *schedule.*> 好 (**hao**) <OK> ... 本來呢你可以做個練習 (**ben lai ne ni ke**

721. **yi zuo ge lian si**) <You could do an exercise at first.> ho^ 把你自己的經過

722. 這些問題 (**ba ni zih ji de jing guo jhe sie wun ti**) <Use the question that

723. *you have just done.*> after reading the question, and collect the answers

724. together and it will become production of yourself. OK. 那你自己可以做一

725. 個練習，這一些問題的答案寫下來 (**na ni zih ji ge yi zuo yi ge lian si, jhe**

726. **yi sie wun ti de da an sie sia lai**) <Then you can practice by yourself. Write

727. *down the answers for these questions.*> Ho^ 我建議你這個你回家可以自

728. 己做 (**wo jian yi ni jhe ge ne hui jia ke yi zih ji zuo**) <I suggest that

729. *you do this by yourself at home.*> ho^ 那你想要呢給我改的，下禮拜可

730. 以把它拿過來 (**na ni siang yao ne gei wo gai de, sia li bai ke yi ba ta na**

731. **guo lai**) <If you want me to check on it, you may bring it to me next week.> 。

732. Ho^ 你可以把他寫下來 (**ni ke yi ba ta sie sia lai**) <You may writ it down.>

733. ho^，那我不強迫各位做，因為呢這個不是我要做的作業啦 (**na wo bu**

734. **ciang puo ge wei zuo, yin wei ne jhe ge bu shih wo yao zuo de zuo ye la**)

735. <I don't force you to do so because I did not assign this.>

736. ho^ 如果你想做練習 (**ru guo ni siang zuo lian si**) <If you want to

737. *practice,*> OK. You can find out the answer of these questions. 那你確定有

738. 沒有寫對呢 (**na ni ciyuo ding you mei you sie dui ne**) <Then if you want

739. *to know whether they are correct or not,*> 你就可以下禮拜把它拿過來給

740. 我看 (**ne jiu ke yi sia li bai ba ta na guo lai gei wo kan**) <You may bring it

741. *to me next week.*> ho^ 我會幫你看哪邊有沒有問題 (**wo hui bang ni kan**

742. **na bian you mei you wun ti**) <I will check for you to see if there are any

743. *problems.*> OK.

744. T: Right, and so we'll teach question three and four. OK. Question three and

745. four, we're going to look at the pictures on page four. Ho^ 我們會來看看第

746. 四頁這邊 (**wo men lai kan kan di si ye jhe bian**) <Let's look at page

747. *four.*>來 (**lai**) <Here> Who can tell me OK? 這裡有一張圖畫對不對 (**jhe**

748. **li you yi jhang tu hua dui bu dui**) <There is a picture here, right> ? What is
 749. this lady doing? OK. What does, what does the lady do? 這一位女士的職業
 750. 是什麼啊 (**jhe yi wei nyu shih de jhih ye shih she mo**) <What does this lady
 751. do> ?
 752. Ss: (??).
 753. T: Ha? 知不知道她從事什麼職業嗎 (**jhih bu jhih dao ta cong shih she mo**
 754. **jhih ye**) <Do you know what she does> ?
 755. Ss: (??).
 756. T: 通緝長 (**tong ci jhang**) <A fugitive>
 757. {Students are laughing}
 758. S18: (??).
 759. T: 是嗎 (**shih mo**) <Is that so> ? 可不可以猜一下 (**ke bu ke yi cai yi sia**)
 760. <Can you make a guess> ?
 761. S18: 猜不到 (**cai bu dao**) <I can't guess.>
 762. T: Ha^ 猜不到 (**cai bu dao**) <You can't guess.> 你看 (**ni kan**) <You see>
 763. 它這邊一個大袋子對不對 (**ta jhe bian yi ge da dai zih dui bu dei**) <There
 764. is a big bag, right?>
 765. Ss: 對 (**dei**) <Right>
 766. T: 然後後面是她的座車 (**ran huo huo mian shih ta de zuo che**) <Then that is
 767. her car behind her.> OK ? At the back, that was his working car. 什麼樣的
 768. 型態的工作需要這樣的器材呢 (**she mo yang de sing tai de kong zuo siyu**
 769. **yao jhe yang de ci cai**) <What kind of job needs this type of equipment?>
 770. Ss: [Students do not answer the question.]
 771. T: 誰知道啊 (**shei jhih duo a**) <Who knows?>.. 好，其實她那個背袋裡面
 772. 裝的是郵件 (**hao, ci shih ta na ge bei dai li mian jhuang de shih you jian**)
 773. <Well, actually, there is mail in her bag.> OK. 美國郵差長的是這個樣子的
 774. (**mei guo you cai jhang de shih jhe ge yang zih de**) <American mail carriers
 775. look like this.> OK^ . So. She is a mail person. OK. 好，我們看看啊，待會我
 776. 們在聽有關那個故事 (**huo, wo men kan kan a, dai hui wo men zai ting**
 777. **you guan na ge gu shih**) <OK, Let's see. Later we will listen to that story.>這
 778. 裡 (**jhe li**) <Here> question number five, the same. 同樣的有六個句子啦
 779. (**tong yang de you liu ge jiyu zih la**) <The same here, there are six questions.
 780. la> ho^ 但是但是但是 (**dan shih dan shih dan shih**) <But but but> , OK^
 781. 在動詞的部分呢，有兩個選擇 (**zih dong cih de bu fen ne, you liang ge**
 782. **ciyuan ze**) <There are two choices in the verb tense section.> For example,
 783. let's look at sentence number one. "Maria comes and she's coming from
 784. Chile." 只有呢 (**jhih you ne**) <Only> Maria come 才是正確的答案 (**cai**
 785. **shih jheng ciyue de da an**) <That is the correct answer.> So, Maria comes

786. from Chile. 她是從智利過來的 (ta shih cong jhih li guo lai de) <She came
787. from Chile.>好，各位先依靠你的智慧呢，先看這六個題目，然後呢把正
788. 確的答案圈選出來 (huo, ge wui sian yi kao ni de jhih hui ne, sian kan jhe
789. liu ge ti mu, ran huo ne ba jheng ciyue de da an ciyuan siyuan chu lai)
790. <OK, according to your wisdom, look at these six questions first, and then
791. give the correct answer>. Ho^ 給各位兩分鐘的時間 (gei ge wei liang fen
792. jhong de shih jian) <You have two minutes.>
793. [Students are doing the exercises. The teacher is writing the questions on the
794. board and students are continuing to do the exercises on their own.]
795. T: OK. Uh. Let's look at the questions. OK. These are the questions. 這些呢是
796. 對這女士的描述 (jhe sie ne shih duei jhe nyu shih de miao shu) <These
797. are the descriptions for this lady>. “Her name is Maria.” Maria, OK, Chile,
798. 智利，智利這個國家 (jhih li, jhih li jhe ge guo jia) <Chile, Chile is a
799. country.>，OK.她來自這個國家，我們可以怎麼寫 (ta lai zih jhe ge guo jia,
800. wo men ke yi ze mo sie) <She came from Chile. How should we write it>?
801. She comes,OK, from Chile, OK, 為什麼不是 (wei she men bu shih) <Why
802. not> is coming? 因為呢，這是一段一個事實，要用現在式，不能用現在進
803. 行式 (yin wei ne, jhe shih yi dun yi ge shih shih, yao yong sian zai shih, bu
804. neng yong sian zai jin sing shih) <Because, this is a true story. We should
805. use the present tense not the present continuous tense.>OK? “She comes from
806. Chile.” OK? 好啦 (hao la) <OK>, for question number two^, 她會講 (ta
807. hui jiang) <She can speak> Spanish and English. 她會講西班牙語和英語。
808. 各位告訴我是 (ta hei jiang si ban ya yu han yin yu, ge wei gao su wo
809. shih) <She can speak Spanish and English. Tell me that> speak or is
810. speaking?
811. Ss: Speak.
812. T: 為什麼 (wei she mo) <Why>? .. 因為她會講幾種語言呢，是對她的一個
813. (yin wei ta hei jiang ji jhong yu yan ne, shih dui ta de yi ge) <Because she
814. can speak certain languages is the> description, OK? 所以呢，我們可以
815. 知道描述一個人的狀態，一個人的事實的時候 (suo yi ne, wo men ke yi
816. jhih dao miao su yi ge ren de jhuang tai, yi de ren de shih shih de shih
817. huo) <So, we may know by now, how to describe a person. The truth about a
818. person.> We have to use the present tense. 我們要用現在式 (wo men yiao
819. yong sian zai shih) <We have to use present tense.> OK? Description number
820. three^, Today, Tom, OK, 今天呢 (jien tian ne) <Today>, Tom 先生他穿了
821. 什麼呢 (sian sheng ta chuan le she mo ne) <What is Mr Tom wearing?>
822. jeans, 牛仔褲，牛仔褲，還有什麼呢 (nio zai ku, nio zai ku, hai you she mo
823. ne) <Jeans, jeans, what else?>T-shirt, 和 (han) <And> T-shirt ho. 他穿了

824. 牛仔褲和 (ta chuan le nio zai ku han) <He is wearing jeans and> T-shirt,
 825. 那各位告訴我要用 (na ge wei gao su wuo yao yong) <Then, tell me what I
 826. should use> wears 還是 (hai shih) <Or> is wearing?
 827. Ss: [No responses]
 828. T: Ha?
 829. Ss: [No responses again.]
 830. T: 有人知道嗎 (you ren jhih dao ma) <Anyone know?> [The teacher is
 831. excepting a reply.] .. Tom is wearing jeans and T-shirt today, OK.
 832. Today. (??) 你要問 (ne yao wen) <You need to ask> ehe, 我在描述這個事
 833. 實啊，他穿牛仔褲和 (wuo zai miao su jhe ge shih shih ya, ta cuan nio zai
 834. ku han) <I'm telling the truth. He is wearing jeans and> T-shirt 沒有
 835. 錯，這是事實啊 (mei you cuo, jhe shih shih shih ya) <That's right. It is the
 836. truth, ya> , ho , 不過我們強調的是 (bu guo wuo men ciang diao de shih)
 837. <But we are emphasizing> today, OK, today, OK. Tom wears, Tom is wearing
 838. jeans and T-shirt today. Right? 好啦，你喜不喜歡 (huo la, ni si bu si huan)
 839. <Well, do you like> , like, black coffee, black coffee, ho^, 黑色的咖啡，什麼
 840. 是黑色的咖啡 (hei se de ka fei, she mo shih hei se de ka fei) <Black coffee,
 841. what is black coffee?> 黑咖啡 (hei ka fei) <Black coffee> ho, 不是真的是
 842. 黑色的 (by shih jhen de shih hei she de) <It is not really black> ho^, 是，純
 843. 的咖啡，不加糖的咖啡 (shih, cun de ka fei, bu jia tang de ka fei) <It is
 844. pure coffee, coffee without sugar.> OK, so, we call black coffee, 不加糖，不
 845. 加奶精的咖啡 (bu jia tang, bu jia nai jin de ka hei) <Coffee without sugar
 846. and milk.> ho^, 好，那你喜不喜歡不加糖，不加奶精的咖啡要怎麼問
 847. (huo, na ni si bu si huan bu jia tang, bu jia nai jing de ka fei yao ze me
 848. wun) <OK, then how do you ask others about coffee without sugar and
 849. milk?> 是 (shih) <Is> are you liking or do you like?
 850. S19: Do you like?
 851. T: {Do you like 為什麼?聽起來噢，比較順 (wui she mo? Ting ci lai ho, bi
 852. jiao shun) <Why? It sounds better, ho?> 不是 (bu shih) <No> ho, 我們問
 853. 人家某樣事實的時候可以 (wuo men wun ren jia mou yang shih shih de
 854. shih hou ke yi) <When we ask other people something, we may> do you, ho^
 855. do you, 就用助動詞，問你喜不喜歡，問你有沒有從事做這個動作 (jiou
 856. yong jhu dong ci, wun ne si bu si huan, wun ne you mei you cong shih
 857. zuo jhe ge dong zuo) <Use adverb. Ask do you like? Ask have you done
 858. something?> OK? 你喜不喜歡的話，就可以這樣問 (ni si bu si huan de
 859. hua, jio ke yi jhe ynag wen) <You can ask this way, do you like> . 好 (hao)
 860. <OK> .. vacation, 度假 (du jia) <Vacation> , vacation, 度假 (du jia)
 861. <Vacation> , ho , 去哪裡度假 (ciyu na li du jia) <Where to go for the

862. vacation?> In Florida, Florida, ho, 在弗羅里達州，弗羅里達在哪裡呢 (zai
863. fuo luo li ta jhou, fuo luo li ta zai na li ne) <In Florida. Where is Florida?>
864. 在美國的南部 (zai mei guo de nan bu) <In the south of the America.> OK?
865. Vacation in Florida. 那這裡有一個時間，有一個時間，有一個時間 (na jhe
866. li you yi ge shih jian, you yi ge shih jian, you yi ge shih jian) <Then there is
867. the time, there is the time, there is the time>, last year, last year, last year. Ho^,
868. 好啦，所以呢，問她去年有沒有到這個地方度假是 (hao la, suo yi ne, wun
869. ta ciyu nian you mei you tao jhe ge di fang du jia shih) <OK, so, ask her
870. if she went to that place for vacation last year?> she went 還是 (hai shih)
871. <Or> she goes ah? Went. Ha? She went, 因為呢 (yin wei ne) <Because> ,
872. 有 (you) <Yes> last year ho, 因為是過去式所以呢要用 go 的過去式 went
873. (yin wei shih guo ciyu shih suo yi ne yong go de guo ciyu shih went)
874. <Because it is in the past tense, so use the past tense of go, went>. Last year
875. she went on vacation in Florida. 去年呢，她到哪裡去度假啊 (ciyu nian ne,
876. ta dao na li ciyu du jia a) <Last year, where did she go for vacation?> 到弗
877. 羅里達州去度假啦 ho (dao fou luo li ta jhou ciyu du jia la) <Took a
878. vacation in Florida.> Right. Last one, last one, OK. “Study at a university in
879. California.” OK? 去讀書，在哪裡讀書 (ciyu du shu, zai na li du shu) <To
880. study, where to study?> “study at a university,” 在大學讀書 (zai da siyue du
881. shu) <To study at a university.> at a university, study at a university. 在哪裡的
882. 大學讀書呢 (zia na li de ta siyue du shu ne) <Study at which university?>
883. 在加州的大學某間加州的一間大學讀書 (zia jia jhou de da siyue mou
884. jian jia jhou de yi jian da siyue de shu) <In California, to study at a
885. university somewhere in California.> ho, study at a university in Flori unn
886. [teacher laughs],
887. Ss: (??).
888. T: In California 謝謝 (sie sie) <Thanks.> “Study at a university in California.”
889. 什麼時候呢 (she mo shih huo ne) <When?> next year, next year, next year
890. 是什麼時候 (shih she mo shih huo ne) <When?> 明年 (min nian) <Next
891. year>, OK, 所以呢，這樣子的話，各位告訴我要用 (suo yi ne, jhe yang zih
892. de hua, ge wei gao su wuo yao yong) <So, if that is the answer, tell me what I
893. have to use> she study 還是 (hai shih) <Or> is going to?
894. Ss: is going to.
895. T: Right! Because this is the sentence is future tense. 未來式，未來式 (wei
896. lai shih, wei lai shih) <Future tense, future tense> “Next year she is going to
897. study at a university in California.” 明年呢，她就要到加州的一間大學就讀
898. (ming nian ne, ta jiou yao dao jia jhou de yi jian da shu jiou du) <Next
899. year, she is going to study at a university in California.> OK? Any questions?

900. 有沒有任何問題，哦 (you mei you ren he wen ti, o) <Do you have any
 901. questions? oh>, 好 (hao) <OK>.. 所以呢，這些呢，都是有關於 (cuo yi ne,
 902. jhe sie ne, dou shih you guan yu) <So, these are about> Maria, Maria 的敘
 903. 述啦 (de siyu shu la) <The description> ho, Maria 的敘述 (de siyu shu)
 904. <The description> 好 (hao) <OK> Let's go on to page five. Let's go on to
 905. page five. 我們又繼續呢，看第五頁，第五頁 (wou men you ji siyu ne, kan
 906. di wu ye, di wu ye) <Let's continue. Look at page five, page five.> OK, 第五
 907. 頁的用途呢 (di wu ye de yong tu ne) <The purpose of page five,> the
 908. purpose of page five, 第五頁主要的目的呢 (di wu ye de jhu yao de mu di
 909. ne) <The purpose of page five>, 是要教大家怎麼用 (shih yao jiao ta jia ze
 910. mo yong) <Is to teach everyone how to use> dictionary. 怎麼用字典 (ze mo
 911. yong zih dian) <How to use a dictionary?> How to use a dictionary? 要怎麼
 912. 用字典 (yao ze mo yong zih dian) <How to use a dictionary?> ho, 所以呢，
 913. 你看各位，各位都會查字典，會啦 ho (suo yi ne, ne kan ge wei, ge wei dou
 914. huei sha zih dian, huei la) <So, look at you, everyone can use a dictionary.>
 915. 不過(bu guo) <But> Many people nowadays use electronic dictionary, OK.
 916. [The teacher is writing "electronic dictionary" on the board.] 這是什麼東西
 917. (jhe shih she mo dong si) <What is this?>
 918. Ss: 電子字典 (dian zih zih dian) <Electronic dictionary.>
 919. T: {電子字典 (dian zih zih dian) <Electronic dictionary.> ho, 好，電子字典比
 920. 較方便 (hao, dian zih zih dian bi jiao fan bian) <OK, it is more convenient
 921. to use an electronic dictionary.> Convenient, electronic dictionaries are
 922. convenient, but it also has disadvantage, OK. 因為呢，電子字典也有缺點，
 923. 為什麼 (yin wei ne, dian zih zih dian ye you ciyue dian) <Because, there is
 924. a disadvantage in using an electronic dictionary. Why?> because its
 925. explanation OK, its explanation is shorter. 電子字典的解釋比較少 (dian
 926. zih zih dian de jie shih bi jiao shao) <Electronic dictionaries give shorter
 927. definitions>. 所以呢，各位用電子字典來查單字的時候，容易呢誤解，就
 928. 是誤解它，用這個字，用的意思 ho^ (suo yi ne, ge wei yong dian zih zih
 929. dian lai cha dan zih de shih hou, rong yi wu jie, jiou shih wu jie ta, yong
 930. jhe ge zih, yong de yi sih) <So, If you use an electronic dictionary to look for
 931. the meaning of a word, you may get the wrong meaning sometimes.> 那雖然
 932. 它比較方便 ho (na sui ran ta bi jiao fang bian ho) <Even though it is more
 933. convenient,> 那它的便利性和這個正確性呢，各位可能要考量一下啦 (na
 934. ta de bian li sing han jhe ge jhang ciyue sing ne, ge wei ge neng yao gao
 935. lian yi sia la) <Then you have to think about its convenience and accuracy.>
 936. ho^ Right, 以上第一個部分呢，就是傳統字典，傳統字典的這編排方式 (yi
 937. shan di yi ge bu fen ne, jiou shih chuan tong zih dian, chuan tong zih dian

938. **de jhe ge bian pai fang shih**) <The first part above is about the traditional
 939. dictionary, the arrangement in a traditional dictionary.> ho^, 那跟你講, 這
 940. 個字, 然後音標, 它的解釋 ho^ (**na gen ni jiang, jhe ge zih, ran hou yin**
 941. **biao, ta de jie shih**) <It tells you the word, then its pronunciation and its
 942. definition.> 這一個字典的範例呢是 (**jhe yi ge zih dian de fan li ne shih**)
 943. <The example from this dictionary is> Portuge, Portuge, ho, 葡萄牙語 (**pu**
 944. **tao yia yu**) <Portuguese> ho, 那怎麼用字典我相信大家都很熟悉啊 (**na**
 945. **ze mo yong zih dian wuo siang sing da jia dou hen shou si a**) <Then I think
 946. you all know how to use a dictionary.> ho, 我不必再描述了 (**wuo bu bi zai**
 947. **miao su le**) <I don't have to explain that again.> ho^, 好, 那既然各位查過
 948. 字典的話, 我們來做個練習 (**hao, na ji ran ge wei cha guo zih dian de**
 949. **hua, wuo men li zuo ge lian si**) <OK. Since you all have done it before, let's
 950. do an exercise.> ho^ For section two. 中間 (**jhong jian**) <In the middle>
 951. There are twelve, un twelve words in the square on page five. 第五頁呢, 中
 952. 間的地方有 12 個字 (**di wu ye ne, jhong jian de di fang you shih er ge zih**)
 953. <There are twelve words on page five.> 好, 那大家怎麼做練習呢? (**hao, na**
 954. **ta jia ze mo zuo lian si n?**) <Well, how are you going to practice it?> 待會
 955. 你要把它寫上它是哪一種的詞性, 哪一種的詞性 (**dai huai ne yao ba ta sie**
 956. **shang ta shih na yi jhong de cih sing, na yi jhong de cih sing**) <Later, you
 957. have to write down what kind of verb tense it is. What kind of verb tense is
 958. it?> ho^, 很簡單 (**hen jiang dan**) <It is easy.> [The teacher is writing
 959. "noun, adjective, adverb, personal pronoun" on the board.] 各位如果你查字
 960. 典呢, 就可以知道, 字呢 (**ge wei run guo ni cha zih dian ne, jiou ge yi jhih**
 961. **dao, cih ne**) <Everyone, if you look up a word in a dictionary, and you will
 962. know, a word> [The teacher is still writing on the board.] 有哪幾種的分類啊
 963. (**you na ji jhong ge fen lei a**) <How many categories are there?>, ho, noun
 964. 名詞 (**ming cih**) <Noun>, adjective 形容詞 (**sing rong cih**) <Adjective>,
 965. adverb 副詞 (**fu cih**) <Adverb>, personal pronoun 這個代名詞 (**jhe ge dai**
 966. **ming cih**) <Personal pronoun>, ho, 等等的 (**den den de**) <And so on>, 好
 967. (**hao**) <OK> ... 各位可以看到, 好, 那就把它加進去 (**ge wei ge yi gan dao,**
 968. **hao, na jiou ba ta jia jian ciyu**) <As you can see, OK, then add this one in.>
 969. bread, OK, 它是名詞 (**ta shih ming cih**) <It is a noun.> funny, white 白色
 970. 的 (**bai se de**) <White>, quickly 很快速地 (**hen kuai su de**) <Quickly>,
 971. beautiful 很美麗的 (**hen mei li de**) <Very beautiful>, in, never, ho^, went, on,
 972. can, eat, letter 等等呢 (**den den ne**) <And so on>, 是哪一種的詞性 (**shih**
 973. **na yi jhong de cih sing**) <Which tense>。如果你有字典的話呢, 可以麻煩
 974. 拿出來查, 然後把它正確的詞性呢, 把它加進去 (**run guo ni you cih dian**
 975. **de hua ne, ge yi ma fan na chu li cha, ran huo ba ta jheng ciyue de cih sing**

976. **ne, jia jian ciyu**) <If you have a dictionary, please take it out and find the
 977. correct tense and fill it in> ...
978. [Students are doing written exercises onto their books.]
979. T: OK, 好, 動詞, 剛才忘記了 (**hao, dong ci, gang gang wuan ji le**) <OK.
 980. Verb, we have just forgotten something.> 這個呢, 是介詞 (**jhe ge ne, shih jie**
 981. **ci**) <This one is the preposition.> [The teacher is writing "preposition" on
 982. the board.] OK, [The teacher is still writing on the board.] 還有啦 (**hai you**
 983. **la**) <And> ho, 這五種各位應該比較都用到的啦 (**jhe wu zhong ge wei yin**
 984. **gai bi jiao dou yong dao de la**) <These five are the most useful categories.>
 985. ho^ [The teacher is still writing on the board.] 好, 其實呢, 應該要讓各
 986. 位查字典把它找出來的 (**hao, fishih ne, yin gai yao rang ge wei cha zih**
 987. **dian ba ta zhao chu lai de**) <OK. Actually, I should let you use the dictionary
 988. to look for words.> ho, 好 (**hao**) <OK>, bread 麵包 (**mian bao**) <Bread>,
 989. 什麼詞 (**she mo ci**) <which category?> 名詞 (**ming ci**) <Noun> noun,
 990. OK, funny, 好好笑的 (**hao hao xiao de**) <Funny>, 什麼詞 (**she mo ci**)
 991. < which category? > 形容詞 (**sing rong ci**) <Adjective> · 要怎麼寫呢
 992. (**yao ze mo xie ne**) <How do you write it?> Adj. Right. 書寫東西, 什麼詞
 993. (**shu xie dong xi, she mo ci**) <Write things. Which category?> 動詞 (**dong**
 994. **ci**) <Verb> OK, quickly, quickly, OK, 很快速地, 什麼詞啊 (**hen kuai su**
 995. **de, she mo ci a**) < Quickly belongs to which category?> 副詞 (**fu ci**)
 996. <Adverb> Right. Beautiful 好美麗哦 (**hao mei li o**) <Very beautiful.>
997. Ss: 形容詞 (**sing rong ci**) <Adjective>
998. T: OK, in^, in the class 哦, 介詞 (**o, jie ci**) <Oh, preposition>, OK, 介系詞
 999. (**jie xi ci**) <Preposition>, never, OK, 副詞 (**fu ci**) <Adverb>, OK, went
 1000. Ss: 動詞 (**dong ci**) <Verb>
1001. T: {動詞 (**dong ci**) <Verb> OK, on 呢 (**ne**) <Then?> 介詞 (**jie ci**)
 1002. <Preposition> came 來到 (**lai dao**) <Come>, oh, eat 吃 (**chi**) <Eat>,
 1003. letter 信 (**sin**) <Letter>, 當然是什麼詞啊 (**dang ran shih she mo ci a**)
 1004. <Of course in which category?> Right. 這是一個小小的練習 (**jhe shih**
 1005. **yi ge xiao xiao de lian xi**) <This is a small exercise.> ho, 當然啦, 動詞有
 1006. 分現在式, 過去式, 未來式等等, 那其實在未來還可以有不及物動詞,
 1007. 及物動詞, 那有機會呢, 再跟各位講啦 (**dang ran la, dong ci you fen**
 1008. **sian zai shih, guo ci yu shih, wei lai shih den den, na si shih zai wei lai**
 1009. **hai ge yi you bu ji wu dong ci, ji wu dong ci, na you ti hui ne, zai gen**
 1010. **ge wei jiang la**) <Of course there is present tense, past tense, future tense
 1011. and so on. And in the future tense, there are intransitive verbs and transitive
 1012. verbs. I will talk about those some other time.> Ho. Any question? 沒有的
 1013. 話呢 (**mei you de hua ne**) <If there isn't any,> Let's call it the day for

1014. today, OK, 今天呢，就到這邊 (**jin tian ne, jiou dao jhe bian**) <Let's stop

1015. *right here.* > ho.

1016.[One student is saying good-bye to the teacher.]

1017. T: Bye-bye. Thank you.

Appendix I: Field notes (Two samples: English levels II and III)

Level II – 1

26 Sep. 2002
10:00 ~ 12:00

English Comprehension – Speaking and Listening Skills

Classroom setting: This is a large class with 65 students in it. There is a big blackboard in the front of the classroom, two air-conditioning machines, six fans, and very bright lights.

The teacher uses the microphone and a tape recorder to facilitate her teaching.

Students' background:

These are day-class students with very low English proficiency.

Teaching procedure:

The teacher called the register in Mandarin at the beginning of the class to check on who was present. On one occasion, the teacher switched to English and said 'louder' in order to hear the students' responses.

Then the teacher starts to teach the lesson in English and writes the vocabulary (days of the week which is the main vocabulary tested in that lesson) on the board. Then she asks the students to repeat after her chorally and they follow her instructions. The teacher switches to Mandarin once and say '是什麼', then, students respond in English 'Monday.'

Students keep silent most of the time whilst the teacher is teaching; yet most of them will response to the teacher whenever she asks questions. If students do not answer the teacher's question, the teacher will repeat her question again and they will answer it. The teacher will also give face or body gestures as a cue when she wants students to response to her questions.

The teacher can't get a response from any students, so she appoints a particular student and switches to Mandarin and said 'xxxx Chinese' and the student answers in English.

The teacher asks students ‘what does mall mean in Chinese?’ and no one answers her, then she explains in Mandarin ‘購物中心’ and gives one example in Taipei in order to let the students know what ‘mall’ is.

The teacher asks the students ‘do you like to chat on line?’ The students don’t reply and the teacher explains in Mandarin ‘上網聊天’. I can see some students writing the Mandarin meaning into their textbooks.

The teacher gives the students one minute to do an exercise in their textbook and says ‘趕快給你們一分鐘’ (hurry up, I give you one minute). The teacher then says again ‘給你們三分鐘’ (give you three minutes, go!) when she wants the students to do the pair work.

I can’t hear clearly what the students say when they are doing the pair work because the students who sit very close to me don’t say anything and don’t do the pair work practice. Others are eagerly engaging in practicing the conversation but I can’t hear them well. Some of them practice the conversation in English, but then switch to Mandarin to chat or to ask their partners to clarify the meaning of the textbook.

After the pair work, the teacher asks ‘Have you finished?’, and then switches into Mandarin to explain what she wants from the students.

The teacher speaks Mandarin to students and tells them if they come to the front of the classroom and perform the conversation, she will add extra points to their final grades.

Most of time, students sit quietly and listen to the teacher’s instructions or look down at their textbooks.

The teacher says ‘let’s turn to page three’, and I see one student ask his classmate who sits next to him to explain what the teacher has just said. The girl explains both in English and Mandarin with hand gesture ‘turn’, 翻, to the student.

During the lecture, most students look at the blackboard when the teacher is writing the sentences on the board. It seems that students are quietly concentrating on the teacher’s instructions.

Basically, the teacher follows the content of the textbook section by section for her

teaching.

The teacher asks the students ‘do you understand what I say?’ three times and the students don’t respond. Therefore, she switches to Mandarin and explains what she doesn’t want from the students.

(15 minute break)

After returning from the break, the teacher speaks Mandarin and reminds the students that they have to buy the textbooks.

The teacher requests the students to check up the vocabulary with a dictionary but the students look puzzled. Therefore, the teacher appoints one student to translate this statement into Mandarin and tells the class ‘回家查字典’.

The students almost never ask the teacher questions during the lecture, but they do perform chorally to either reiterate or answer the teacher’s requests.

The teacher was a little uncomfortable about my presence in the class at the beginning, but after a while, she seems to have forgotten I’m in the classroom. The students are really quiet most of the time. I assume one of the reasons is that they are new students and are not used to university life yet. Furthermore, my presence in the class may bother them, as they don’t know who I am and why I’m in their class.

In one activity, the teacher asks students to practice conversation one to one from the front row to the back row. When she wants the students to practice in reverse, she says ‘now let’s practice from back to the ... first’ I think she wasn’t sure whether she was saying the correct sentence or not, so she switched into Mandarin and said ‘現在從後面練習到前面.’

At the end of the class, the teacher assigns the homework both in English and Mandarin and also writes the page numbers on the board. At the very end, she uses Mandarin to deal with the students seating issue.

Remarks: (need to do)

1. To get a copy of student name list.
2. To get a copy of textbook.
3. Teacher’s profile.

Level III - 1

24th September, 2002

18:30 ~ 20:00

English comprehension – Conversation and listening skills

Classroom setting: It's a big classroom with 65 students in it. There is a big blackboard in the front of the classroom and two TV sets above the blackboard. The teacher uses a microphone and cassette player as his teaching aids.

The student background: This is an evening class and students who are attending this class either because they couldn't get into a day class as they failed the entrance exam or because they have day jobs. Therefore, some of the students look tired when they came to the class.

Teaching procedure:

When the class starts, the teacher introduces the rules of the course, and the textbooks, and reminds students to buy a textbook. He also greets students briefly.

Then, the teacher is reviewing the previous lesson and asking students if they have any questions. The teacher is speaking a bit slowly in order to get students' attention and to let students understand what is he talking about.

The teacher code-switches into Mandarin when he mentioned the country – Italy. The teacher also writes some vocabulary and phrases in English on the board to make it easier for students to answer his questions.

The teacher also switches to Mandarin to give instructions.

From the beginning of the class until now, most of the students remain quiet and try to listen and copy down whatever the teacher said. And most of the time, most of the students are just looking at their textbooks.

The teacher gave a few minutes for students to do the excises in the textbook. A few minutes later, the teacher started to ask students questions from the book. Then the teacher starts to use more Mandarin than English.

When the teacher asks, 'what does it mean, right now?' The students answered in Mandarin: 現在 (in chorus).

The teacher writes the fill-in-the-blank exercise on the board and asks students questions in Mandarin and also explains the grammar in Mandarin. When the teacher uses Mandarin, students will also answer in Mandarin. When the teacher asks in English, students will also answer in English.

It seems that most of the students follow the teachers' instructions quite well.

The teacher writes both English and Mandarin about 'feature – 未來, past – 過去, present – 現在' on the board and asks students to look for three different types of sentences from the textbook and give an example for each of them. The teacher writes English phrases on the board and explains in Mandarin about which key words he wants the students to look for.

One student came late (about 30 minutes late) and greeted the teacher in Mandarin '老師好' and the teacher greeted the student back in Mandarin also.

The teacher often complements students with the phrase 'very good' to encourage the students to answer the teacher's questions. Yet, only few students respond to the teacher every time he asks.

The teacher goes to the student when he appoints a specific student who is going to answer the question and the teacher repeats the question again when he is standing in front of the student. Sometimes the teacher switches to Mandarin to rephrase his question.

When the teacher conducts a pair exercise, he gives more Mandarin instructions than English instructions. Most of the students speak Mandarin during the pair works, but I can't hear the students' voices clearly to tell whether students are using English, Mandarin, or Taiwanese in their pair practice.

The teacher is writing the questions on the board when the students are doing pair work. A couple of students are chatting about some personal issues in Mandarin and ignoring the teacher's requests to practice their English speaking skills.

Because this is a big classroom with two air-conditioning machines and six fans, when the teacher is playing the cassette player, the sound is not very clear. The speed from the tape is quite fast, but the teacher says 'the speakers from the tape speak very slowly (in Mandarin, with a humorous purpose).

The teacher writes the questions and answers on the board very often and most of the students copy them into their textbooks. (I see a girl is writing a Mandarin translation into her book.)

The teacher announces the break in Mandarin. During the break, three students go to the teacher and ask to clarify problems regarding the listening-on-line CD ROM.

It seems that the teacher uses more Mandarin at the beginning of the second section of the class (after the break).

When the teacher asks one of the students where his partner is, the student answers: my partner is ‘落跑’ (Taiwanese – humorous response?!)

One girl student was calling ‘teacher, teacher’ and the teacher didn’t hear her; the student switched to Mandarin (老師, 老師), in order to attract the teacher’s attention.

One of the students asks the teacher for the spelling of a word. After the teacher has spelled it out, she requests the teacher to say it again in Mandarin, 再說一次.

Students are very quiet most of the time when the teacher is giving instructions.

The teacher uses IRE/IRF as his main teaching strategy.

The teacher is telling students how to use the dictionary and writes: noun 名, adj 形, adv. 副, prep. 介, v. 動, on the board to let students to know what those abbreviations mean.

The teacher will smile sometimes and wait for the students’ answers.

At the end of the class, the teacher asks: any questions? 沒有的話ㄋ, 課就到這邊。 (If you don’t have any questions, the class may dismiss now)

It is difficult for me to hear what the students say when they are doing pair practice or group discussion because they talk with low voices, and sometimes they all talk at the same time. One of the reasons might be that I am in the class and observing them. However, during the observation, the teacher seems quite comfortable in his teaching and the students seem not to pay too much attention to me as I type with a lap-top computer.

Function / Purpose of using Mandarin in this class:

1. giving instruction
2. explaining the grammar
3. elaborating his questions/ requests
4. humour
5. clarification

Remarks:

1. The students' roll sheet
2. The teaching material (textbook)

Bibliography

- Adendorff, R. (1993). Codeswitching amongst Zulu-speaking teachers and their pupils: Its functions and implications for teacher education. *Language and Education*, 7(3), 141-162.
- Adler, P., & Adler, P. (1994). Observational Techniques. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 377-392). Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications
- Allwright, D., & Bailey, K. M. (1991). *Focus on the Language Classroom: An Introduction to Classroom Research for Language Teachers*. Cambridge, New York, Port Chester: Cambridge University Press.
- Arthur, J. (1996). Code switching and collusion: classroom interaction in Botswana primary schools. *Linguistics and Education*, 8, 17-33.
- Atkinson, D. (1987). The mother tongue in the classroom: a neglected resource? *ELT Journal*, 41(4), 241-247.
- Atkinson, P., & Hammersley, M. (1998). Ethnography and participant observation. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry* (pp. 110-136). Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Auer, P. (1984). *Bilingual Conversation*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Auer, P. (1988). A conversation analytic approach to codeswitching and transfer. In M. Heller (Ed.), *Codeswitching: Anthropological and Sociolinguistic Perspectives* (pp. 187-213). Berlin, New York, Amsterdam: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Auer, P. (1990). *A discussion paper on code alternation*. Paper presented at the European Science Foundation, Network on Code-Switching and Language Contact, Basel.
- Auer, P. (1995). The pragmatics of code-switching: A sequential approach. In L. Milroy & P. Muysken (Eds.), *One speaker, two languages* (pp. 115-135). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Auer, P. (1998). Introduction: bilingual conversation revisited. In P. Auer (Ed.), *Code-Switching in Conversation: Language, interaction and identity* (pp. 1-24). London and New York: Routledge.
- Auerbach, E. R. (1993). Reexamining English only in the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(1), 9-32.
- Bailey, C. A. (1996). *A Guide to Field Research*. Thousand Oaks, California, London, New Delhi: Pine Forge Press.
- Bassey, M. (1999). *Case Study Research in Educational Settings*. Buckingham.

- Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Bellack, *et al.* (1996). *The Language of the Classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University.
- Bentahila, A. (1989). *Language Attitudes Among Arabic-French Bilinguals in Morocco* (Vol. 4). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters LTD.
- Berg, M. E. V. D. (1986). Language Planning and Language Use in Taiwan: Social Identity, Language Accommodation, and Language Choice Behavior. *international Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 59, 97-115.
- Berg, V. D. (1988). Taiwan's Sociolinguistic Setting. In R. L. Cheng & S. F. Huang (Eds.), *The Structure of Taiwanese: A Modern Synthesis* (pp. 243-261). Taipei: Crane.
- Bernhardt, E. B. (1987). The Text as Participant in Instruction. *Theory into Practice*, 32(3), 32-37.
- Blom, J.-P., & Gumperz, J. J. (1972). Social meaning in linguistic structure: Code-switching in Norway. In J. J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in Sociolinguistics* (1st ed., pp. 407-434). New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston.
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1992). *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods*. Boston, London: Allyn and Bacon.
- Brannen, J. (1992). Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches: an overview. In J. Barannen (Ed.), *Mixing Methods: qualitative and quantitative research*. Aldershot, Burlington USA: Ashgate.
- Bryman, A. (1988). *Quantity and Quality in Social Research*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1995). Functions of codeswitching in ESL classrooms: socialising bilingualism in Jaffna. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 6(3), 173-195.
- Cazden, C. B. (1988). *Classroom Discourse: The Language of Teaching and Learning*. Portsmouth: Heinemann.
- Chen, P. (1996). Modern Written Chinese, Dialects, and Regional Identity. *Language Problems and Language Planning*, 20(3), 223-243.
- Chen, S.-C. (1996). Code-switching as a verbal strategy among Chinese in a campus setting in Taiwan. *World Englishes*, 15(3), 267-280.
- Chick, J. K. (1996). Safe-talk: Collusion in apartheid education. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Society and the Language Classroom* (pp. 21-39). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chiung, W.-v. T. (2001). *Language and Ethnic Identity in Taiwan*. Paper presented at the 7th North American Taiwan Studies Conference, Seattle.

- Clyne, M. (2003). *Dynamics of Language Contact*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research Methods in Education* (5th ed.). London and New York: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Cole, S. (1998). The use of L1 in communicative English classrooms. *The Language Teacher*, 22, 11-13.
- Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mix Methods Approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- de Vaus, D. A. (2001). *Research Design in Social Research*. London, Thousand Oaks, New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Denscombe, M. (1998). *The Good Research Guide*. Buckingham: Open University.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (1996). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*: Sage, Thousand Oaks.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (1998). *Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry*. Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Dorr-Bremme, D. W. (1990). Contextualization cues in the classroom: Discourse regulation and social control functions. *Language in Society*, 19, 379-402.
- Dreyer, J. T. (2003). The Evolution of Language Policies and National Identity in Taiwan. In M. E. Brown & S. Ganguly (Eds.), *Fighting Words*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The MIT Press.
- Dushku, S. (2000). Conducting individual and focus group interviews in research in Albania. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(4), 763-768.
- Edelsky, C. (2002). Research About Whole Language; Research For Whole Language. In A. Flurkey & R. J. Meyer (Eds.), *Under the Whole Language Umbrella: Many Cultures, Many Voices* (pp. 64-84). Urbana, IL: NCTE.
- Education, A. P. f. T. (1997). *What is Whole Language?* Retrieved February 4, 2003, from http://www.theriver.com/Public/tucson_parents_edu_forum/whole_language.html
- Eldridge, J. (1996). Code-switching in a Turkish secondary school. *ELT Journal*, 50(4), 303-311.
- Enright, D. S. (1984). The organisation of interaction in elementary classrooms. In J. Handscombe, R. A. Orem & B. P. Taylor (Eds.), *On TESOL 1983: the question of control*. Washington, D.C.: TESOL.
- Ernst, G. (1994). "Talking circle": conversation and negotiation in the ESL

- classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(2), 293-322.
- Ethnologue. (2001). *Language of the World*. Retrieved 26 November, 2001, from <http://www.ethnologue.com>
- Faltis, C. J. (1989). Code-switching and bilingual schooling: an examination of Jacobson's new concurrent approach. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 10(2), 117-127.
- Ferguson, G. (2003). Classroom code-switching in post-colonial contexts: Functions, attitudes and policies. *AILA Review*, 16, 38-51.
- Figueroa, E. (1988). Evaluation Language Policy in Taiwan - Some Questions. In R. L. Cheng & S. F. Huang (Eds.), *The Structure of Taiwanese: A Modern Synthesis* (pp. 285-299). Taipei: Crane.
- Flick, U. (2002). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research* (2nd ed.). London, Thousand Oaks, New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (1994). Interviewing: The Art of Science. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 361-376). Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Frankfort-Nachmias, C., & Nachmias, D. (1996). *Research Methods in the Social Sciences* (5th ed.). London, Sydney, Auckland: Edward Arnold.
- Freeman, D. E., & Freeman, Y. S. (1991). Practicing what we preach: whole language with teachers of bilingual learners. In Y. Goodman, W. J. Hood & K. S. Goodman (Eds.), *Organizing for Whole Language* (pp. 348-363). Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Heinemann.
- Froese, V. (1991). Introduction to Whole-Language Teaching and Learning. In V. Froese (Ed.), *Whole-Language Practice and Theory* (pp. 1-16). Boston, London: Allyn and Bacon.
- Gal, S (1988). The political economy of code choice. In M. Heller (Ed.), *Code-switching: Anthropological and Sociolinguistic Perspectives* (pp. 245-264). Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Giauque, G. S., & Ely, C. M. (1989). Code-switching in beginning foreign language teaching. In R. Jacobson & C. Faltis (Eds.), *Language Distribution Issues in Bilingual Schooling* (pp. 174-184). Clevedon. Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters.
- Gibbons, J. (1989). *Code-Mixing and Code Choice: A Hong Kong Case Study* (Vol. 27). Clevedon, Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters LTD.
- Goldstein, T. (2002). Teaching and learning in Cantonese and English: Multilingual classroom practices and equity in education. In C. Barron, N. Bruce & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Knowledge and Discourse* (pp. 284-299). Harlow, England, New York: Pearson Education.

- Grosjean, F. (1982). *Life with Two Languages: An Introduction to Bilingualism*. Cambridge, Massachusetts, and London: Harvard University Press.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (1981). *Effective evaluation : improving the usefulness of evaluation results through responsive and naturalistic approaches*. San Francisco, London: Jossey-Bass.
- Gumperz, J. J. (1982). *Discourse Strategies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Guthrie, L. F. (1984). Contrasts in teachers' language use in a Chinese-English bilingual classroom. In V. Handscombe, R. A. Orem & B. P. Taylor (Eds.), *On TESOL 1983: the question of control* (pp. 39-52). Washington, D. C.: TESOL.
- Hathaway, R. S. (1995). Assumptions underlying quantitative and qualitative research: Implications for institutional research. *Research in Higher Education*, 36(5), 535-562.
- Heylen, A. M. F. (1998). The Influence of Dutch Governance in Taiwan Missionary Linguistics. *Taipei Wen Ciang*, 125(9), 81-119.
- Holmes, J. (2001). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hopkins, S. M. (1989). Use of mother tongue in the teaching of English as a second language to adults. *Language Issues*, 2, 18-24.
- Hsiau, A.-c. (1997). Language Ideology in Taiwan: The KMT's Language Policy, the Tai-yu Language Movement, and Ethnic Politics. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 18(4), 302-315.
- Hudson, R. A. (1999). *Sociolinguistics* (second ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jaffe, A. (2003). Talk Around Text: Literacy Practices, Cultural Identity and Authority in a Corsican Bilingual Classroom. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 6(3&4), 202-220.
- Kharm, N. N., & Hajjaj, A. H. (1989). Use of the mother tongue in the ESL classroom. *IRAL*, XXVII(3), 223-235.
- King, S. (2000). *Into the Black Box: Observing Classrooms*. Sheffield: Geographical Association.
- Koll-Stobbe, A. (1994). English in code-alternations: towards an integrated study of code-switching. *World Englishes*, 13(2), 203-214.
- Kuo, Y.-S. (1999). The use of mother tongue in EFL classrooms. *Nan-Shih Yu Jiao Ci Ciuei Kan*, 6, 1-30.
- Kwan-Terry, A. (1992). Code-switching and code-mixing: The case of a child learning English and Chinese simultaneously. *Journal of Multilingual and*

- Multicultural Development*, 13(3), 243-259.
- Lai, Y.-C. (1996). *Teacher Code-Switching in Senior High School Classrooms: A Case Study*. Unpublished MA Dissertation, Cheng-Hwa Teacher University, Cheng-Hwa, Taiwan.
- Lawson, S., & Sachdev, I. (2000). Codeswitching in Tunisia: Attitudinal and behavioural dimensions. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 32, 1343-1361.
- Legenhausen, L. (1991). Code-switching in learners' discourse. *IRAL*, XXIX(1), 61-73.
- Li, C.-C. (1983). *The Sociolinguistic Context of Mandarin in Taiwan: Trends and Developments*. Paper presented at the Papers from Fourteenth International Conference on Sino-Tibetan Languages and Linguistics, Taipei, Taiwan.
- Li, Wei (1995). Code-switching, preference marking and politeness in bilingual cross-generational talk: examples from a Chinese community in Britain. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 16(3), 197-214.
- Li, Wei (1998). The 'why' and 'how' questions in the analysis of conversational code-switching. In P. Auer (Ed.), *Code-Switching in Conversation* (pp. 156-176). London and New York: Routledge.
- Lin, A. M. Y. (1988). Pedagogical and para-pedagogical levels of interaction in the classroom: a social interactional approach to the analysis of the code-switching behaviour of a bilingual teacher in an English language lesson. *Working Papers in Linguistics and Language Teaching*, 11. University of Hong Kong Language Centre.
- Lin, A. M. Y. (1990). *Teaching in two tongues: language alternation in foreign language classrooms*. Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.
- Lin, A. M. Y. (1996). Bilingualism or linguistic segregation? Symbolic domination, resistance and code switching in Hong Kong schools. *Linguistics and Education*, 8, 49-84.
- Lin, A. M. Y. (1999a). Doing-English-Lesson in the reproduction or transformation of social worlds? *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(3), 393-412.
- Lin, A. M. Y. (1999b). Resistance and creativity in English reading lessons in Hong Kong. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 12(3), 285-296.
- Martin, P. W. (1996). Code-switching in the Primary Classroom: One Response to the Planned and the unplanned Language Environment in Brunei. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 17(2-4), 128-143.
- Martin, P. W. (1999a). Close encounters of a bilingual kind: interactional practices in the primary classroom in Brunei. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 19, 127-140.
- Martin, P. W. (1999b). Bilingual unpacking of monolingual texts in two primary

- classrooms in Brunei Darussalam. *Language and Education*, 13(1), 38-58.
- Martin, P. W. (2003a). Interactions and Inter-relationships Around Text: Practices and Positioning in a Multilingual Classroom in Brunei. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 6(3&4), 185-201.
- Martin, P. W. (2003b). Bilingual Encounters in the Classroom. In J.-M. Dewaele, A. Housen & Li Wei (Eds.), *Bilingualism: Beyond Basic Principles* (pp. 67-87). UK, USA, Canada, Australia: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Martin-Jones, M. (1990). *Paper by Peter Auer: discussion*. Paper presented at the European Science Foundation, Network on Code-switching and Language Contact, Basel.
- Martin-Jones, M. (1995). Code-switching in the Classroom: two decades of research. In L. Milroy & P. Muysken (Eds.), *One speaker, two languages cross-disciplinary perspectives on code-switching* (pp. 90-111). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Maschler, Y. (1998). On the transition from code-switching to a mixed code. In P. Auer (Ed.), *Code-Switching in Conversation* (pp. 125-149). London and New York: Routledge.
- Maykut, P. (1994). Designing Qualitative Research: An Overview. In P. Maykut & R. Morehouse (Eds.), *Beginning Qualitative Research, a Philosophic and Practical Guide* (pp. 43-49): Falmer Press.
- Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning Lessons: Social Organization in the Classroom*. Cambridge, Massachusetts, and London, England: Harvard University Press.
- Mehan, H. (1981). Ethnography of bilingual education. In H. T. Trueba, L. F. Guthrie & A. K. H. (Eds.), *Culture and the bilingual classrooms: studies in classroom ethnography*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.
- Merritt, M., Cleghorn, A., Abagi, J. O., & Bunyi, G. (1992). Socialising multilingualism: determinants of codeswitching in Kenyan primary classrooms. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 13(1&2), 103-121.
- Milk, R. (1981). An analysis of the functional allocation of Spanish and English in a bilingual classroom. *California Association for Bilingual Education: Research Journal*, 2(2), 11-26.
- Milroy, L., & Li, W. (1995). A social network approach to code-switching: the example of a bilingual community in Britain. In L. Milroy & P. Muysken (Eds.), *One speaker, two languages* (pp. 136-157). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Moats, L. C. (2000). *Whole language lives on - The illusion of balanced reading instruction*. Retrieved February 4, 2003, from

- <http://www.edexcellence.net/library/wholelang/moats.html#whatis>
- MOE. (2001a). *General Guidelines of Vocational Curriculum of Higher Education*. Retrieved 07.05, 2004, from <http://tve.ite.ntnu.edu.tw/DB/doc>
- MOE. (2001b). *Reforms in Higher Education*. Retrieved 07.05, 2004, from <http://www.high.edu.tw/ch1.htm>
- MOE. (2003). *General Guidelines of English Curriculum of High School Education*. Retrieved 07.05, 2004, from <http://www.cer.ntnu.edu.tw/ccs/index.htm>
- MOE. (2004). *General Guidelines of Grade 1-9 Curriculum of Elementary and Junior High School Education*. Taipei: Ministry of Education.
- Molinsky, S. J., & Bliss, B. (2001). *Side by Side 1*. New York: Longman.
- Molinsky, S. J., & Bliss, B. (2001). *Side by Side 2*. New York: Longman.
- Muysken, P. (2000). *Bilingual Speech*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (1988). Codeswitching as indexical of social negotiations. In M. Heller (Ed.), *Codeswitching: Anthropological and Sociolinguistic Perspectives* (pp. 151-186). Berlin, New York, Amsterdam: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (1992). Comparing codeswitching and borrowing. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 13(1&2), 19-39.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (1993a). *Social Motivations for Codeswitching: Evidence from Africa*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (1993b). *Duelling Languages*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (1995). A lexically based model of code-switching. In L. Milroy & P. Muysken (Eds.), *One speaker, Two languages* (pp. 223-256). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (2000). Explaining the role of norms and rationality in codeswitching. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 32, 1259-1271.
- Ncoko, S. O. S., Osman, R., & Cockcroft, K. (2000). Codeswitching among multilingual learners in primary schools in South Africa: an exploratory study. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 3(4), 225-241.
- Patton, M. Q. (1987). *How to Use Qualitative Methods in Education*. Newbury Park, London: Sage Publications.
- Pease-Alvarez, & Winsler, A. (1994). Cuando el Maestro no Habla Espanol: Children's bilingual language practices in the classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(3), 507-535.
- Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic Imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Polio, C. G., & Duff, P. A. (1994). Teachers' language use in university foreign language classrooms: A qualitative analysis of English and target language

- alternation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(iii).
- Poplack, S., & Meechan, M. (1995). Patterns of language mixture: nominal structure in Wolof-French and Fongbe-French bilingual discourse. In L. Milroy & P. Muysken (Eds.), *One speaker, two languages cross-disciplinary perspectives on code-switching* (pp. 199-232). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Probyn, M. (forthcoming). Language and the Struggle to Learn: the Intersection of Classroom Realities, Language Policy, and Neo-Colonial and Globalisation Discourses in South African Schools. In A. Lin & P. W. Martin (Eds.), *Decolonisation Globalisation and language in Education: Policy and Practice*. Clevedon: *Multilingual Matters*.
- Punch, K. F. (1998). *Introduction to Social Research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sankoff, D., Poplack, S., & Vanniarajan, S. (1991). *The empirical study of code-switching*. Paper presented at the European Science Foundation Network on Code-Switching and Language Contact, Barcelona.
- Shapiro, J. (1991). Research Perspective on Whole-Language. In V. Froese (Ed.), *Whole-Language Practice and Theory* (pp. 313-356). Boston, London: Allyn and Bacon.
- Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, R. M. (1975). *Towards an Analysis of Discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1981). *Bilingualism or Not: The Education of Minorities*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Soars, J., & Soars, L. (2001). *American Headway 2*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Soars, J., & Soars, L. (2001). *American Headway 3*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Spolsky, B. (2001). *Sociolinguistics* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Stake, R. E. (1998). Case Studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry* (pp. 86-109). Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998a). *Basics of Qualitative Research: The techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (2 ed.). California: Sage Publications.
- Strauss, A., & Juliet, C. (1998b). Grounded Theory Methodology. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry*. Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications.

- Tilstone, C. (1998a). Recording Evidence. In C. Tilstone (Ed.), *Observing Teaching and Learning: Principles and Practice* (pp. 32-57). London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Tilstone, C. (1998b). The value of observation. In C. Tilstone (Ed.), *Observing, Teaching and Learning: Principles and Practice* (pp. 1-15). London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Tiu, H.-k. (1999). Linguistic Landscape and Language Maintenance Planning. *Journal of National Taitung Teachers College*, 10, 155-172.
- Tsao, F. F. (1999a). The language planning situation in Taiwan. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 20(4&5), 328-375.
- Tsao, F. F. (1999b). The language spoken by the four major ethnic groups in Taiwan: Their history and present state. *Han Ciue Yian Jiou*, 17(2), 313-343.
- Tsao, F. F. (2000). Taiwan. In H. W. Kam & W. R. Y. L (Eds.), *Language Policies and Language Education* (pp. 285-303): Times Academic Press.
- Tse, J. K.-P. (1981). Language Policy in the Republic of China. In Kaplan (Ed.), *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 33-47). Rowley: Newbury House Publishers.
- Tse, J. K.-P. (1986). Standardization of Chinese in Taiwan. *international Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 59, 25-32.
- van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the Language Curriculum*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Wardhaugh, R. (2002). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Blackwell publishers.
- Watson-Gegeo, K. A. (1988). Ethnography in ESL defining the essentials. *TESOL Quarterly*, 22(4), 575-592.
- Wragg, E. C. (1994). *An Introduction to Classroom Observation*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Yearbook. (2003). *Taiwan Yearbook 2003*. Retrieved 10 may, 2004, from <http://www.gio.gov.tw/taiwan-website/5-gp/yearbook/chpt03.htm>
- Zentella, A. C. (1981). *Ta bien*, you could answer me *en cualquier idioma*: Puerto Rican codeswitching in bilingual classrooms. In R. Duran (Ed.), *Latino language and communicative behavior* (pp. 109-132). Norwood, N. J.: Ablex Publishing Corporation.